Basic Combinatorics

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This is just a brief summary of the contents of the lectures. Please note: most of the calculations and demonstrations are neglected. I claim no originality of those contents.

Contents

Combinatorics involve three type of problems: the existence, the enumeration, and the optimization.

Combinatorial mathematics cuts across the many subdivisions of mathematics, and this makes a formal definition difficult. But by and large it is concerned with the study of the arrangement of elements into sets. The elements are usually finite in number, and the arrangement is restricted by certain boundary conditions imposed by the particular problem under investigation.

Enumeration and Stirling numbers

Definition 1 *A partition of an integer, n, is a representation of n as a sum of positive integers, where the order of the summands is not important. The number of partitions of n is denoted by $p(n)$. The number of partitions of n that contain exactly k summands is denoted by $p(n,k)$[1].*

Proposition 1 *Let n be a positive integer. Then*

$$p(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} p(n,k).$$

Theorem 1 (Generating function.) *Let n be a positive integer. Then $p(n)$ is the coefficient of z's in the generating function $\prod_{m=1}^{\infty}(\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} z^{im})$. That is[2],*

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n)z^n = \prod_{m=1}^{\infty} (1 + z^m + z^{2m} + z^{3m} + z^{4m} + \cdots)$$

Exercise 1 *Determine $p(3)$ from the above theorem.*

[1] The value of $p(n,k)$ has other interpretations. Suppose we have n identical red balls and k identical buckets. In how many ways can the balls be placed into the buckets if every bucket must receive at least one ball? The answer turns out to be $p(n,k)$. This is an example of an occupancy problem.

[2] To make sense of the term "1" in this infintie product, we could generalize the definition of $p(n)$ a little bit, to allow for $n = 0$ by claiming that $p(0) = 1$.

Corollary 1 *Let n be a positive integer. Then $p(n)$ is the coefficient of z^n in the polynomial*

$$\prod_{m=1}^{n}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{m} \rfloor} z^{im}\right).$$

Exercise 2 *Determine $p(4)$ from the above result. Can you read $p(5)$ or $p(6)$ off the expression used to compute $p(4)$?*

Theorem 2 (Recursive Relation) *Let n and k be integers and let $0 < k \le n$. Then $p(n,k) = p(n-1, k-1) + p(n-k, k)$, where $p(n,k) = 0$ for $k > n$ and $p(n,0) = 0$. In addition, $p(n,n) = 1$.*

Exercise 3 *Compute $p(n,k)$ for $n, k \le 6$.*

Definition 2 *The number of ways to distribute n distinguishable objects into k indistinguishable containers with every container receiving at least one object is denoted $S(n,k)$. The numbers, $S(n,k)$, are called the Stirling numbers of the second kind[3].*

[3] $S(n,k)$ can also be interpreted as the number of partitions of the set $\underline{n} := \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}$ that contains exactly k disjoint nonempty sets.

Theorem 3 (Recursive relation) *Let n and k be integers and let $0 < k \le n$. Then $S(n,k) = S(n-1, k-1) + kS(n-1, k)$. where $S(n,k) = 0$ for $k > n$ and $S(n,1) = 1$. In addition, $S(n,n) = 1$ and $S(n,0) = 0$ for $n > 0$.*

Those $p(n.k)$ and $S(n,k)$ can be associated to occupation problems. Occupancy problems are concerned with placing objects into containers. They are categorized by whether the objects and containers are distinguishable or indistinguishable and by whether or not containers can be empty.

Exercise 4 *Try to finish the following table of occupation numbers for n objects in k containers, assuming that each container contains at least one object.*

	Container Distinguishable	Container Indistinguishable
Objects Distinguishable		
Objects Indistinguishable		

Now repeat the exercise for the case where the container is allowed to be empty.

Definition 3 *The falling factorial is denoted $(x)_n$, and is defined by $(x)_0 = 1$ and*

$$(x)_n = \prod_{i=0}^{n-1}(x-i) = x(x-1)(x-2)\cdots(x-n+1)$$

for $n \ge 1$.

The set $\{(x)_0, (x)_1, \cdots, (x)_n\}$ can be viewed as a set of basis for polynomials of x of degree at most n.

Proposition 2 *Let n be a positive integer. Then $x^n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} S(n,k) \cdot (x)_k$.*

Definition 4 *The coefficients of the expansion of $(x)_n$, as a linear combination of powers of x are the Stirling numbers of the first kind[4] and are denoted by $s(n,k)$. That is, $(x)_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} s(n,k)x^k$.*

[4] The Stirling numbers of the first kind have no direct significance in counting problems: some of them are negative integers.

Theorem 4 *Let n and k be positive integers. Then $s(n,k) = s(n-1,k-1) - (n-1)s(n-1,k)$, where $s(0,0) = 1$, $s(n,0) = 0$, and $s(n,k) = 0$ if $n < k$. In addition, $s(n,n) = 1$.*

Exercise 5 *If we view the set of all polynomials of x as an (infinite dimensional) vector space, then both $\{x^n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ and $\{(x)_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ are basis. Base changes of vector spaces can be represented by transformation matrices. Convince yourself that if write $S(n,k)$ and $s(n,k)$ in matrix forms, n is the row number and k is the column number, then both of them are lower triangle matrices with "1"'s on the diagonal.*

Combinatorial designes: Latin Square and finite projective planes

Definition 5 *A Latin square of order n is an n-by-n matrix for which every entry is a number in $\{1,2,\cdots,n\}$. Every number in $\{1,2,\cdots,n\}$ must appear at least once in every row and at least once in every column. A Latin square of order n is standardized if the elements in the first row are written in increasing numeric order moving left to right, and the elements in the first column are written in increasing numeric order moving top to bottom.*

Definition 6 *Let $L^1 = (a_{ij})$ and $L^2 = (b_{ij})$ be two Latin squares of order n. L^1 and L^2 are said to be orthogonal if the set of ordered pairs $\{(a_{ij},b_{ij})|i = 1,2\cdots n and j = 1,2\cdots,n\}$ contains n^2 distinct ordered pairs. That is, $(a_{ij},b_{ij}) = (a_{rs},b_{rs})$ unless $i = r$ and $j = s$. A collection of k Latin squares of order n is said to be mutually orthogonal if every pair in the collection is orthogonal.*

Lemma 1 *Let L be a Latin square of order n and let $i,j \in \{1,2\cdots n\}$. If every copy of i in L is changed to a j, and simultaneously, every j in L is changed to an i, then the resulting n-by-n matrix is still a Latin square.*

Note that if one interchanges two columns or two rows of a Latin square, one again obtains a Latin square. However, those manipulations are not very useful since they do not preserve the orthogonality of Latin squares. While the manipulation mentioned in the previous lemma is much more useful due to the following result.

Lemma 2 *Let L^1 and L^2 be orthogonal Latin squares of order n and let $i,j \in \{1,2\cdots,n\}$ Form an n-by-n matrix $L^{1'}$ by changing every copy*

of i in L to a j, and simultaneously, changing every j in L^1 to an i. All other entries in L^1 are copied unchanged into $L^{1'}$. Then $L^{1'}$ and L^2 are also orthogonal Latin squares.

Theorem 5 *Let $\{L^1, L^2 \cdots L^k\}$ be a collection of mutually orthogonal Latin squares of order $n > 1$. Then $k < n$.*

The maximal number for mutually orthogonal Latin squares of order n is an open question.

Projective Plane

Definition 7 *A finite projective plane consists of a finite set, P, of points and a finite set, L, of lines. Lines are finite sets of points. If $L = \{p_1, p_2 \cdots, p_k\}$, then point p_i is said to be on line L and L is said to contain the point p_i, for $i = 1, 2 \cdots k$. The following axioms characterize finite projective planes.*
   FPP1: Any two distinct points are on one and only one common line.
   FPP2: Any two distinct lines contain one and only one common point.
   FPP3: There exist four distinct points, no three of which are on a common line.

Axiom FPP2 implies that there is no such thing as "parallel lines" in a finite projective plane. Notice the symmetry in Axioms FPP1 and FPP2. It is possible to consider a point to be the set of lines that contain that point. This sense of "mirror image interchangeability" between points and lines is called duality.

Example 1 *The Fano Plane.*

The duality principle: Let T be a theorem which is valid for a finite projective plane. If the terms point and line and also on and contains (or their equivalents) are interchanged, the result is also a theorem which is valid for the finite projective plane.

Proposition 3 (FPP3') *In any finite projective plane there exist four distinct lines, no three of which contain a common point.*

Lemma 3 *Every line, L, in a finite projective plane must contain at least three distinct points.*

Lemma 4 *Let F be a finite projective plane.*
   (A) Let L be a line in F that contains exactly $n + 1$ points. If p is any point that is not on L, then p must be on exactly $n + 1$ distinct lines.
   (B) Let p be a point in F that is on exactly $n + 1$ distinct lines. If L is any line that does not contain p, then L contains exactly $n + 1$ distinct points.

Theorem 6 *Let F be a finite projective plane and let $n > 2$ be an integer. The following are equivalent.*

1. *There exists a line in F that contains exactly $n + 1$ points.*
2. *There exists a point in F that is on exactly $n + 1$ lines.*
3. *Every line in F contains exactly $n + 1$ points.*
4. *Every point in F is on exactly $n + 1$ lines.*
5. *There are exactly $n^2 + n + 1$ distinct points in F.*
6. *There are exactly $n^2 + n + 1$ distinct lines in F.*

Definition 8 *A finite projective plane, F, is said to have (or be of) order n if every line in F contains $n + 1$ points.*

Example 2 *Create a finite projective plane of order 3 by starting with a pair of mutually orthogonal Latin squares of order 3.*

Exercise 6 *Use the above example as an intuitive case, construct a finite projective plane of order $n > 1$ from $n - 1$ mutually orthogonal Latin squares of order n.*

Theorem 7 *If a set of $n - 1$ mutually orthogonal Latin squares of order n exists, then a finite projective plane of order n also exists, and vice versa.*

Combinatorial optimization theory: Knapsack problems

We shall not cover this part in class.

Combinatorial optimization problems seek a best solution from among many contending solutions to some problem. The knapsack problem seeks to pack a knapsack with a set of items. Each item has a benefit value (or utility or cost) and a size (or weight). The goal is to obtain the maximum benefit under the constraint that the knapsack has a finite capacity.

Definition 9 *The knapsack problem is concerned with a knapsack that has positive integer volume (or capacity) v. There are n distinct items that may potentially be placed into the knapsack. Item i has positive integer volume v_i and positive integer benefit b_i. In addition, there are q_i copies of item i available, where quantity q_i is a positive integer satisfying $1 \leq q_i \leq \infty$. The integer variables $x_1, x_2 \cdots x_n$ will determine how many copies of item i are to be placed into the knapsack. The goal is to Maximize $L = \sum_i b_i x_i$ Subject to the constraints $\sum_i v_i x_i \leq v$ and $0 \leq x_i \leq q_i$. If $q_i = 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \cdots, n$, the problem is a 0-1 knapsack problem. If one or more of the q_i is infinite, the problem is unbounded; otherwise, the problem is bounded.*

Example 3 *A 0/1-Knapsack Problem.*

Exercise 7 *Use greedy algorithm to solve the above example problem. Greedy algorithm: Pack the item of highest utility first, then eliminate all items that won't fit. Now pack the remaining item of highest utility and eliminate any that now won't fit. Continue until no other item will fit.*

Exercise 8 *The greedy algorithm failed. Perhaps it was because we were focusing on the wrong property. A more sophisticated approach is to consider "benefit per unit of volume." That is, consider the ratios $\frac{b_i}{v_i}$. Try to solve the problem using this improved greedy algorithm.*

Exercise 9 *It is time to present an algorithm that correctly solves the knapsack problem. It will be easier to begin with a solution for completely unbounded knapsack problems ($q_i = \infty$ for $i = 1, 2 \cdots n$). A solution to this problem will then be modified to solve bounded and 0-1 knapsack problems. The key insight introduces recursion. Suppose an optimal solution is sought for a knapsack with capacity v, with the additional requirement that at least one copy of item x must be included. Suppose that item x has volume v, and benefit b. Let the optimal total benefit for a knapsack with capacity v be denoted by $B(v)$. A bit of thought will lead to the observation that the optimal solution will have total benefit $b + B(v - v_x)$. That is, add an item x, and then find the optimal benefit for the remaining $v - v_x$ cubic units of knapsack.*

The heuristic reduction technique

Theorem 8 *Suppose a knapsack has volume v and there are n types of items that can be packed. Denote the item benefits by $\{b_1, b_2 \cdots b_n\}$, the item volumes by $\{v_1, v_2, \cdots, v_n\}$, and the item quantities by $\{q_1, q_2 \cdots, q_n\}$. Assume that the items have already been ordered so that*

$$\frac{b_1}{v_1} \geq \frac{b_2}{v_2} \geq \cdots \frac{b_n}{v_n}.$$

If $b_1 \lfloor \frac{v}{v_1} \rfloor \geq b_2(\frac{v}{v_2})$, then it is possible to find an optimal packing that includes min $\{q_1, \lfloor \frac{v}{v_1} \rfloor\}$ copies of item 1.