

# Math 580 - Combinatorics

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The University of Pennsylvania, Fall 2016

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## Introduction

Math 318 is one of the nine courses offered for first-year mathematics graduate students at the University of Chicago. It is the second of three courses in the year-long geometry/topology sequence.

These notes are being live-Texed, though I edit for typos and add diagrams requiring the *TikZ* package separately. I am using the editor TeXstudio.

I am responsible for all faults in this document, mathematical or otherwise; any merits of the material here should be credited to the lecturer, not to me.

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## Lecture 1

### What is Combinatorics?

Combinatorics is the mathematics of counting. Suppose we have some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and a set  $S$  of objects which somehow depend on  $n$ . Combinatorics addresses the question "How many objects are in  $S$ ?" More formally, this is a function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  which counts the number of objects in  $S$  as a function of  $n$ . What do we know about  $f$ ?

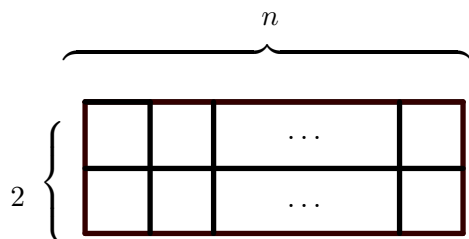
**Example.** Let  $S_1$  be the set of binary sequences of length  $n$ . Then  $f(n) = 2^n$ .

**Example.** Let  $S_2$  be the symmetric group on  $n$  elements. Then  $f(n) = n!$ .

**Definition.** A **derangement** is a permutation in the symmetric group which has no fixed points.

**Example.** The set of derangements on  $n$  elements,  $D_n = \{\sigma \in S_n \mid \sigma(k) \neq k \forall k \leq n\}$ , has size  $\#D_n = n! \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{(-1)^i}{i!}$ .

**Example.** Suppose we have a  $2 \times n$  board, which we want to tile with  $2 \times 1$  dominoes. How many different ways are there to do this? If  $S = \{\text{proper domino tilings of a } 2 \times n \text{ board}\}$ , then we have  $\#S = F_n$ , the  $n$ th Fibonacci number.



## Generating Functions

**Definition.** A **generating function** corresponding to some counting function  $f$  is an element of the ring of formal power series  $\mathbb{C}[[x]]$  where the coefficient of the  $x^n$  term is  $f(n)$ .

If  $F$  and  $G$  are two generating functions, then we have  $F(x) = G(x) \iff f(n) = g(n)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We can do addition with generating functions, where we add the corresponding coefficients.

$F(x) + G(x) = f(0) + g(0) + (f(1) + g(1))x + (f(2) + g(2))x^2 \dots$ . We define multiplication as  $F(x) \cdot G(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{m=0+n} f(m)g(n-m) \right) x^n$ .

Generating functions obey many of the properties of series that we learned in Calculus, except that we don't worry about these things converging. If  $f(n) = 1$  for all  $n$ , then the generating function is  $F(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots$ , which equals  $\frac{1}{1-x}$ . Similarly, if  $f(n) = \alpha^n$  for all  $n$ , then the generating function is  $F(x) = 1 + \alpha x + \alpha^2 x^2 + \dots$ , which equals  $\frac{1}{1-\alpha x}$ . These look like geometric series from Calculus.

**Example.** Let  $F(x)$  be the generating function for the Fibonacci numbers. By the Fibonacci recurrence, we can rewrite this as  $F(x) = F_0 + F_1 x + (F_0 + F_1)x^2 + \dots + (F_{n-2} + F_{n-1})x^n + \dots = F_0 + F_1 x + F_0 x^2 + F_1 x^2 + \dots$ . Factoring out, we can rewrite  $F(x) = 1 + xF(x) + x^2 F(x) = \frac{1}{1-x-x^2}$ .

## Sets and Multisets

Let  $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  be a set of  $n$  objects. The number of distinct subsets of  $S$  of size  $k$  is  $\binom{n}{k}$ , and is called the binomial coefficient.

**Theorem.**  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-k+1)}{k!}$

*Proof.* We can think of  $\binom{n}{k}$  as the number of subsets of size  $k$  on a set of size  $n$ , and  $k!$  as the number of ways of ordering  $k$  objects. Then,  $\binom{n}{k} \cdot k!$  represents the number of ordered sequences (without repetition of elements) of length  $k$ . We can also think about this as choosing each of the  $k$  elements in order. There are  $n$  choices for the first,  $n-1$  for the second,  $n-2$  for the third, and so on, down to  $n-k+1$  for the  $k$ th. We therefore have  $\binom{n}{k} \cdot k! = n(n-1)(n-2)\dots(n-k+1)$ . Moving the  $k!$  to the denominator of the righthand side completes the proof. □

**Definition.** A **multiset** is a collection of objects, like a set, which allows objects to occur with some multiplicity greater than one.

If we denote the natural numbers  $1, 2, \dots, n$  as  $[n]$ , then the number of multisets of size  $k$  is denoted  $\left(\!\!\binom{n}{k}\!\!\right)$ .

**Theorem.**  $\left(\!\!\binom{n}{k}\!\!\right) = \binom{n+k-1}{k}$

*Proof.* Observe that if we have a multiset on  $[n]$ , we can, without loss of generality, arrange it in increasing order. The set looks like  $\{a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a_k\}$ . We can map each such multiset to a unique set by adding 0 to the first element, 1 to the second, 2 to the third, and so on, up to adding  $k-1$  to the last element. To see that this is a unique mapping, we can look at the inverse, where we take a set on  $[n+k-1]$  and sort it in increasing order  $\{b_1 < b_2 < \dots < b_k\}$ , then subtract 0 from the first element, 1 from the second, and so on, up to subtracting  $k-1$  from the last element. Since this creates a bijective mapping between multisets of size  $k$  on  $[n]$  and sets of size  $k$  on  $[n+k-1]$ , we have  $\left(\!\!\binom{n}{k}\!\!\right) = \binom{n+k-1}{k}$  as desired. □

## Compositions

**Definition.** A **composition**  $\alpha = a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$  of a natural number  $n$  is an ordered multiset of

natural numbers such that  $\sum \alpha_i = n$ .

**Definition.** A **k-composition** of a natural number  $n$  is a composition of  $n$  into  $k$  parts.

**Example.** The compositions of 4 are  $(4), (3, 1), (1, 3), (2, 2), (2, 1, 1), (1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 1), (1, 1, 1, 1)$ .

How many  $k$ -compositions of  $n$  are there?

**Theorem.** *There are  $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$   $k$ -compositions of  $n$ .*

*Proof.* We proceed combinatorially. Imagine a string of  $n$  1's. Between each, we can place a plus, indicating we should add those two (or more) adjacent 1's together to make a larger piece, or a comma, indicating that we should separate these two adjacent 1's into separate components. There are  $n - 1$  spots between the 1's, and we need to place  $k - 1$  commas to create a composition into  $k$  parts. There are clearly  $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$  ways to do this, and we are done.  $\square$

## Lecture 2

### The Generating Function for the Binomial Numbers

Let's more closely examine the binomial numbers  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{k!}$ . What does it look like for a set of size 1? There is one way to pick a subset of size zero and one way to pick a subset of size one, so the generating function is  $1+x$ . For two elements, we see something similar, where we can choose to either include or not include an element, so our generating function is  $(1+x)(1+x) = (1+x)^2$ . In general, the generating function for size  $n$  is  $(1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k$ .

### Revisiting Compositions

**Definition.** A **weak composition** is a composition where some of the parts are allowed to be zero.

How many weak  $k$ -compositions are there? Now we are allowed to put more than one comma between two adjacent numbers, as long as we only use  $k-1$  of them in total. If we still think about there being a plus between 1's where we don't have a comma, we have a number of weak  $k$ -compositions equal to the number of sequences of  $n$  1's and  $k-1$  commas. There are  $\binom{n+k-1}{k-1}$  of these, and this is in bijection with the set of weak  $k$ -compositions, so we are done.

**Definition.** A **lattice path** from the origin to a point  $(a, b) \succeq (0, 0)$  is a sequence of steps up ( $\uparrow$ ) and right ( $\rightarrow$ ) along the  $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$  lattice beginning at the origin and ending at  $(a, b)$ .

It's natural to ask how many lattice paths there are. We can think of a path from the origin to  $(a, b)$  as requiring  $a$  steps right and  $b$  steps up. Therefore, we can biject this with the set of binary sequences of length  $a+b$  where exactly  $a$  of the bits are 1, and there are  $\binom{a+b}{a}$  of these (equivalently by the symmetry of the binomial coefficients, we can think of exactly  $b$  of the bits being 1 instead and use  $\binom{a+b}{b}$ ).

### Multinomial Coefficients

Given some weak  $k$ -composition of  $n$ ,  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k \geq 0$ , we might want to ask about how we can break  $[n]$  into  $k$  disjoint parts such that each subset  $S_i \subset [n]$  has exactly  $c_i$  elements. The number of ways to do this is to take  $c_1$  elements from the set of size  $n$ , then take  $c_2$  of the remaining  $n - c_1$ , and so on, giving the expression  $\binom{n}{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k} = \binom{n}{c_1} \binom{n-c_1}{c_2} \dots \binom{n-c_1-c_2-\dots-c_{k-1}}{c_k}$ . A little bit of algebra (lots of things cross-cancel) reveals this to be  $\frac{n!}{c_1! c_2! \dots c_k!}$ . Using a similar argument to the construction of the generating function for the vanilla binomial numbers, we can think about the multinomial as looking like  $(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_k)^n$ , where picking an  $x_i$  from the  $j$ th term in the expansion corresponds to putting element  $i$  into subset  $S_j$ . We can therefore see that the generating function looks like  $\sum \binom{n}{c_1 \dots c_k} x_1^{c_1} \dots x_k^{c_k}$ .

### Permutations

**Definition.** A **permutation**  $\omega$  is a bijective map  $\omega : [n] \rightarrow [n]$ .

The number of permutations is  $n!$ . We can write each permutation in as a product of disjoint cycles (uniquely, up to ordering the cycles), and then look at how many cycles of each length there are.

The function  $c(\omega) = (c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_n)$  is the ordered tuple where  $c_i$  is the number of cycles of length  $i$ . Obviously,  $\sum i c_i = n$  as each element of  $[n]$  must appear in exactly one cycle. There are  $n!$  total permutations, but there are  $c_1 c_2 \dots c_n$  ways to order the cycles, so we need to divide by this quantity. We also have to worry about rotating the values within a cycle. For example,  $(123)$  is the same as  $(231)$  and  $(312)$ , and we don't want to count these multiple times. Each 1-cycle can be written one way. Each 2-cycle two ways, each 3-cycle three ways, and so on. We therefore also have to divide by  $1^{c_1} 2^{c_2} \dots n^{c_n}$  to account for all of the ways to shift the  $c_k$   $k$ -cycles. All together, the number of permutations with a particular  $c(\omega)$  is equal to  $\frac{n!}{c_1 c_2 \dots c_n 1^{c_1} 2^{c_2} \dots n^{c_n}}$ .

What does the generating function for this thing look like? Let's start by defining a variable  $Z_n = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{\omega \in S_n} t^{c(\omega)}$ , where  $t^{c(\omega)} = t_1^{c_1} t_2^{c_2} \dots t_n^{c_n}$ . We're interested in  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_n x^n$ . By plugging in

what we did above, we get  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_n x^n = \sum_{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n} \frac{t_1^{c_1} \dots t_n^{c_n} x^n}{1^{c_1} c_1! 2^{c_2} c_2! \dots n^{c_n} c_n!}$ . We can factor this apart as

$$\prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \sum_{c_k=0}^{\infty} \left( \frac{t_k x^k}{k} \right)^{c_k}.$$

## Lecture 3