Counting

An introduction to combinatorics

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Given ____, how many ____ are there?

100 vs 100!

- $100! \approx 10^{158}$
- Atoms in the observable universe:
 - $\approx 10^{80}$

Basis of counting: set cardinality

Definition. The cardinality of a set S, denoted |S|, is given by the unique integer n such that:

There exists a bijective map $f: S \leftrightarrow \{1, ..., n\}$.

(Fancy way of saying: just count up the elements)

• Shorthand:
$$[n] \coloneqq \{1, \dots, n\}$$
.

Fundamentals: cardinality rules

Let $A, B \subset S$. Then the following cardinality rules hold:

1. Addition: If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$.

- **Proof.** Let $n \coloneqq |A|, m \coloneqq |B|$. We can construct $A \leftrightarrow [n]$ and $B \leftrightarrow \{n + 1, \dots, n + m\}$, and further $A \cup B \leftrightarrow \{1, \dots, n + m\}$.
- 2. Subtraction: If $B \subset A$, then |A B| = |A| |B|.
 - **Proof.** $A = (A B) \cup B$ is a disjoint union, thus |A| = |A B| + |B|.

Generalized addition: inclusion/exclusion

For general $A, B \subset S$, we have that $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$.

• **Proof.** Note that $A \cup (B - (A \cap B))$ is a disjoint union by construction, and that $A \cup (B - (A \cap B)) = A \cup B$. Since $A \cap B \subset B$, we conclude that $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B - (A \cap B)| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$.

Set multiplication: *outer product*

Definition. Let A, B be sets. The outer product $A \times B$ is the set of ordered pairs (a, b) for all $a \in A, b \in B$.

Sd

07

03

OY

. O P

16

51,2,33 × 31,2,33

(x,y)

Ó

We then get the following product rule for set cardinalities:

 $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|.$

• **Proof** (sketch) Dictionary ordering. Enumerate A and B, then count out all $b \in B$ for the first $a \in A$, then for the $2^{nd} a \in A$, etc...

"Set division": the quotient set

Definition. Let A be a set, and \sim an equivalence relation over A. The set A modulo \sim , denoted A/\sim , is the set of equivalence classes of A with respect to \sim .

Example. Define $A \coloneqq \{1, ..., 10\}$, and the equivalence relation $a \sim b \coloneqq a \equiv b \pmod{2}$. Then $A/\sim = \{\{1,3,5,7,9\}, \{2,4,6,8,10\}\}$, and $|A/\sim| = 2$.

Quotient sets cardinality rule

(mod 5) Let A be a set and ~ an equivalence relation over A. If every equivalence class has the same cardinality, denoted |~ |, then the following holds:A:= {1,2,3,..., 103 51,63 $\frac{|A/\sim|}{|1/2,3,4,5|} = \frac{|A|}{|\sim|} \quad N := (= \mod 2)$ {2,7? {3,8? **Proof.** (Sketch) Note that we can write elements $a \in A$ as an outer product a = (e, f), where e denotes the equivalence class of a and f denotes the membership of a within e. In this fashion, we can construct $A \leftrightarrow (A/\sim) \times (\sim)$, and conclude $|A| = |A/\sim || \sim |$.

Basic cardinality rules

1. Addition: If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, then $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$.

- General addition: $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| |A \cap B|$.
- 2. Subtraction: If $B \subset A$, then $|A \not B| = |A| |B|$. 3. Multiplication: $|A \times B| = |A||B|$.

4. Division: If ~ divides A evenly, then $|A/\sim| = \frac{|A|}{|\sim|}$.

Principle of inclusion-exclusion $D_{|A_1| + |A_2| - |A_1 \cap A_2|}$ Multi-addition: $|A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_n| = \sum_{k=1}^{k-1} (-1)^{k-1} \sum_{S \subset \{1, \dots, n\} : |S| = k} |S|$ $|\cap_{i\in S} A_i|$ ACD ac A, UA, U. VA $|A| = \sum_{s \in S} \mathbb{1}(s \in A)$ $Z(1)^{k-1}\binom{n}{k} =$ 2-1 "indicator forction" (P) |A, | + |A, | - |A, A, |

Counting sequences

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Sequences with replacement

Example: how many possible outcomes from flipping a coin 3 times?

Let A be a set of items to choose from. The space of k-long sequences of elements from A can be represented by the outer product space $A \times \cdots \times A$ (k copies).

product space $A \times \cdots \times A$ (k copies). • There are then $|A|^k$ sequences of k choices from A (with replacement). • There are then $|A|^k$ sequences of k choices from A (with $\frac{\ell}{\eta}$

Sequences without replacement

Example: how many possible 5 card hands from a standard deck?

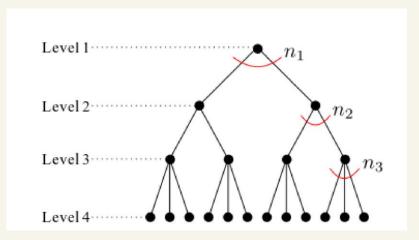
• Need a different model, since e.g. (1,1, ..., 1) no longer a valid choice.

Solution: model ordered pairs as choices from remaining altered set. For example, (1,1,1,1) corresponds to the cards (A, 2, 3, 4).

• Yields an outer product space $[n] \times [n-1] \times \cdots \times [n-(k-1)]$, which has $n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ elements.

"First rule of counting"

If there are n_i choices to make at step i, the total number of ways to make a sequence of k choices is $n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdots n_k$.



Counting orderings

Formalizing an ordering

Definition. Let A be a set, where $n \coloneqq |A|$. An ordering of the set A is a bijective map $f: A \to \{1, ..., n\}$. The order of an element a is then given by f(a).

Central question: for a set *A*, how many orderings are there?

• Note: we can sufficiently count the orderings of the sets {1, ..., n}.

Number of permutations.

31,2,3,4\$

Theorem. The number of orderings of the set $\{1, ..., n\}$ is n!.

Proof intuition. Note that for any permutation, the element **1** has to be sent somewhere. For each position **1** is sent to, every permutation of the remaining n - 1 elements is a new permutation. As there are n positions to place **1**, we then get n(n-1)! total permutations.

$$\frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{3!}$$

Number of permutations.

Theorem. The number of orderings of the set $\{1, ..., n\}$ is n!.

Proof. We proceed via induction. Denote P_n the set of orderings of $\{1, ..., n\}$. There exists only one bijective map between $\{1\}$ and itself, so $|P_1| = 1$ and the base case holds.

Assume $\{1, \dots, n-1\}$ has (n-1)! orderings. Each $f : \{1, \dots, n\} \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$ can be split into $f = (f(1), (f(2), \dots, f(n)))$, thus $P_n \leftrightarrow [n] \times P_{n-1}$, and $|P_n| = n \cdot |P_{n-1}| = n(n-1)! = n!$.

Deriving the combinations formula

Question: from a set of *n* items, how many ways to choose *k* of them?

• More formally: how many subsets of size k?

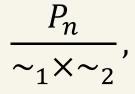
Idea: model a choice as the first k elements of an ordering.

• E.g. {5,1,2 | 4,3} represents the choice {1,2,5} from {1, ..., 5}.

• Note the ordering of the choices does not matter.

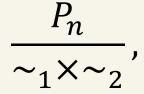
Deriving the combinations formula

We can represent the space of size-k choices from a set of n elements as the following quotient space:



- 1. P_n : permutations of n elements.
- 2. \sim_1 : permutations of the first k elements.
 - (order of choice doesn't matter)
- 3. \sim_2 : permutations of the last n k elements.
 - (order of elements we don't choose doesn't matter)

Deriving the combinations formula



1. P_n : permutations of n elements. $|P_n| = n!$ 2. \sim_1 : permutations of the first k elements. $|\sim_1| = k!$ 3. \sim_2 : permutations of the last n - k elements. $|\sim_2| = (n - k)!$

$$\left|\frac{P_n}{N_1 \times N_2}\right| = \frac{|P_n|}{|N_1| \cdot |N_2|} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \binom{n}{k}.$$

Choices when order matters

Only difference is the equivalence relation \sim_1 no longer holds, so we just get the following:

$$\left|\frac{P_n}{r_2}\right| = \frac{|P_n|}{|r_2|} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

Other combinations examples

Example. Supposed we're tasked with counting the number of ways to order the letters in the word "Mississippi". There are 11 letters, yielding 11! orderings. However, permuting the "i's", "s's", or "p's" yield the same word. This generates 3 independent equivalence relations, which we can outer product together into a single equivalence relation:

$$\left|\frac{P_{11}}{\sim_i \times \sim_s \times \sim_p}\right| = \frac{|P_{11}|}{|\sim_i |\cdot| \sim_s |\cdot| \sim_p|} = \frac{11!}{4!4!2!}$$

Other combinations examples

General practice on how to find the proper representation A/\sim for a "given ___, how many ___?" problem:

1. A: How am I representing a choice?

2. ~: Which representations correspond to the same choice?

Combinatoric proof examples

Choosing fruits

Suppose we have a bin of infinite apples, oranges, and bananas. How many ways can we choose 5 fruits?

Solution 1. We can represent as a 5-tuple $(a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, a_5)$, where each $a_i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$. This set has 3^5 elements. Since order of the fruits chosen doesn't matter, we have an equivalence of permutations of the 5 elements, whose classes are of size $|\sim| = 5!$. Thus, the number of choices is given by:

$$|\frac{A}{2}| = \frac{3^{5}}{5!}.$$
Note cannot be m
integer j
(Issue: we've overcounted | ~ |, which isn't the same size everywhere)

Stars and bars

How many ways are there to order a collection of k - 1 bars and n stars?

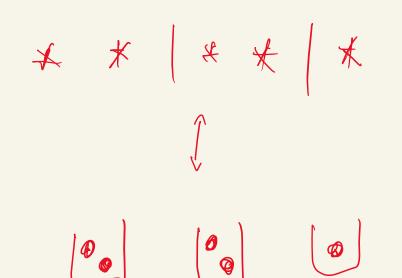
$$\star \star \star \star \star$$

Solution. n + k - 1 total items, equivalence of permutations of the *n* stars and k - 1 bars, yielding the following cardinality:

$$\frac{(n+k-1)!}{n!\,(k-1)!} = \binom{n+k-1}{k-1} = \binom{n+k-1}{n}.$$

Stars and bars

How many ways to put n balls in k bins?



$\star \star \star \star \star$

Solution. "Balls"=stars and "bins" = (space between bars). Bijective relation to ordering of n stars between k - 1 bars. Thus, the number of ways is $\binom{n+k-1}{n}$.

Stars and bars

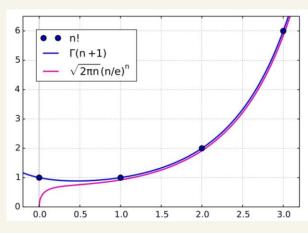
How many ways to choose 5 fruits from 3 choices (apple, orange, banana)?

$$\star \star \star \star \star$$

Solution. Bijective relation to balls and bins, where "bins" correspond to the type of fruit (apple, orange, banana), and "balls" are the 5 fruits chosen. Thus, the number of choices is $\binom{5+2}{5}$ = **21**.

Fun example: sorting algorithms

- Algorithmic lower bound for sorting: $O(n\log(n))$
- Binary decision tree, must have at least n! leaves.
 - $2^k \ge n!$, thus at least $\log(n!)$ operations.
- Is $O(\log(n!))$ better than $O(n\log(n))$?
- Can use the gamma function $\Gamma(x)$ to derive Stirling's approximation: • $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$.



• Conclusion: $O(n \log(n)) = O(\log(n!))$ is the best a sorting algorithm can possibly do.