

Combinatorics

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Date. 1st of Oct 2013

These are mad lecture notes. Some of them were taken on hand-written sheets and some having been put directly onto the handout. All the others can be found in this document. Also I mixed up English and German.

0.1 Literature

- Richard Stanley, Enumerate Combinatorics I
- Martin Aigner, A Course in Enumeration

1 Elementary combinatorics

1.1 Permutations

Notation:

$$S_n = \left\{ \underbrace{\Pi}_{\text{permutation}} : \{1, \dots, n\} \xrightarrow{\text{mapping}} \{1, \dots, n\} \mid \Pi \text{ is bijective} \right\}$$

$S_n = \text{set of permutations of } n \text{ elements}$

and $[k; l] = \{k, k + 1, \dots, l\}$ with $k \leq l, k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$[1, n] = [n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$$

$$\pi : 1 \rightarrow 4, 2 \rightarrow 3, 3 \rightarrow 1, 4 \rightarrow 5, 5 \rightarrow 2$$

As a cycle:

(1 4 5 2 3) cycle representation
4,3,1,5,2 word representation

$$(12)(34) = (34)(12)$$

$$(123) = (231)$$

Permutations of disjoint cycles are equivalent. Cycles in disjoint representation can be swapped.

$$(1253)(46789)$$

$$(5312)(94678)$$

This is the standard representation.

Rule. Greatest number first. Cycles shall be ordered by the left-most number ascending.

Without parentheses:

$$5312\ 94678$$

5,9 are from left to right maxima.

Definition 1.1. (cycle type) A cycle type (c_1, \dots, c_n) of a permutation π with c_j is the number of j -cycles (cycles of length j) in the cycle representation of π (disjoint).

(5312 94678) has cycle type $(0, 0, 0, 1, 1)$

2 Cycles

Proposition 1.1. (permutations of a cycle type) $(c_1, \dots, c_n) \in \mathbb{N}_0^n$ is a fixed cycle type.

The number of permutations $\pi \in S_n$ of this given cycle type is:

$$\frac{n!}{1^{c_1} c_1! 2^{c_2} c_2! \dots n^{c_n} c_n!}$$

Proof.

- There are $n!$ possibilities to distribute $1, \dots, n$ to the position.
- Swapping of cycles of same length corresponds dividing by $c_j!$.
- There are j cyclic permutation within a j -cycle. Division by j^{c_j} .

2.1 Stirling cycle numbers

Definition 1.2. (as defined by Don Knuth) The number of permutations $\pi \in S_n$ with exactly k cycles is called stirling number of first order.

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix}$$

Proposition 1.2. (recursive definition)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 1 \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ k \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad \begin{bmatrix} n \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 0 \quad k > 0, n > 0$$

n	0	1	2	3
0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0
2	0	1	1	0
3	0	2	3	1
	0	6	11	1

$$\begin{bmatrix} n \\ k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix} + (n-1) \begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}$$

Proof. We add an element n :

1. n is an own cycle: (n) thus $\begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{bmatrix}$ possibilities.
2. n is added to one of the k cycles. There are $n-1$ positions and $\begin{bmatrix} n-1 \\ k \end{bmatrix}$ arrangements of the $n-1$ numbers with k cycles.

$$\binom{u}{k}, \binom{0}{0} = 1, \binom{0}{k} = 0, \binom{11}{0} = 0, \binom{11}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + (n-1) \binom{n-1}{k}$$

Proposition 1.3.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{u}{k} x^k = x(x+1) \dots (x+n-1) = x^{\overline{n}} \quad \text{“ascending factorial”}$$

Approach for proof.

- Induction
- Evaluate

3 points are necessary to describe a polynomial unambiguous.

Proof. (induction with recursion)

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} x^k$$

Base with $n = 0$

$$\binom{0}{0} x^0 = 1 = \underbrace{1}_{\text{empty product}}$$

For $x = 0$ we get an empty product in the formula. Therefore it is by definition 1.

Induction step $n - 1 \rightarrow n$:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} x^k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{n}{k} x^k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(\binom{n-1}{k-1} + (n-1) \binom{n-1}{k} \right) x^k \\ &= x \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{n-1}{k-1} x^{k-1} + (n-1) \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{n-1}{k} x^k \\ &= x \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \binom{n-1}{k-1} x^{k-1} + (n-1) f_{n-1}(x) \\ &= x \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{n-1}{k} x^k + (n-1) f_{n-1}(x) \\ &= x f_{n-1}(x) + (n-1) f_{n-1}(x) \\ &= f_{n-1}(x) \cdot (x + n - 1) \\ &= x \cdot (x + 1) \cdot \dots \cdot (x + n - 2) \cdot (x + n - 1) = x^{\overline{n}} \end{aligned}$$

2.2 Second proof: polynomial method

Script reference. Seite 5

$$\sum \binom{n}{k} x^k = x(x+1) \dots (x+n-1)$$

Es reicht dies für $n+1$ viele Werte zu zeigen. $x \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \binom{n}{k} x^k = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} x^{\text{Zahl der Zyklen von } \pi}$$

Wir zählen die (π, f) mit $f: \text{Zyklen} \rightarrow [x]$ wobei x eine Abkürzung für $\{1, \dots, x\}$ mit $x \in \mathbb{N}$ ist.

$$x(x+1) \dots (x+n-1)$$

(a_1, \dots, a_n) in $\mathbb{Z}^n \cap \text{Trapez}$ ist $(x)(x+1) \dots (x+n-1)$.

- Falls a_i im Rechteck liegt ($a_i \leq x-1$), beginne einen neuen Zyklus mit i $f(\text{Zyklus}) = a_i$
- Falls a_i nicht im Rechteck liegt ($a_i = x-1+k, 1 \leq k \leq n-1$), platziere i so, dass genau k Zahlen größer als i links von i sind.

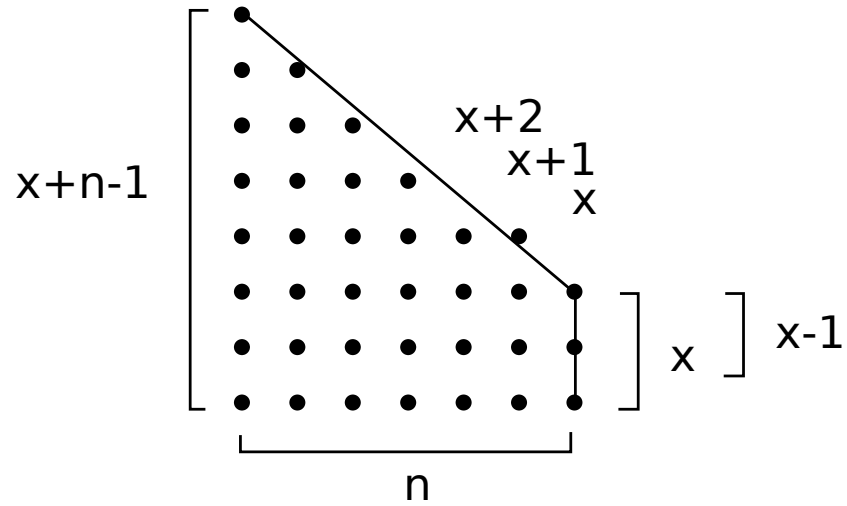


Abbildung 1: Polynommethode

2.3 Beispiel, $n = 9$, $x = 4$

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_9) = (4, 8, 5, 0, 7, 5, 2, 4, 1)$$

$$n = 9 : a_9 = 1 \in \text{Rechteck}$$

$$n - 1 = 8 : a_8 = 4, 4 \leq x - 1 = 3 \Rightarrow \text{im Rechteck}$$

$$4 = 3 + 1 \Rightarrow k = 1(98)$$

$$n - 2 = 7 : a_7 = 2 \in \text{Rechteck}, (7)(98)$$

$$n - 3 = 6 : a_6 = 5 \notin \text{Rechteck}, 5 = 3 + 2, k = 2, (7)(968)$$

...

$$(41)(73)(96285)$$

$$f(41) = a_4 + 1$$

$$f(73) = a_7 + 1 = 3$$

$$f(96285) = a_9 + 1 = 2$$

Idee:

$$x(x+1)\dots(x+n-1)$$

Kombinatorisch interpretieren als (a_1, \dots, a_n) -Folgen und bijektiv mit Permutationen verhindern.

Spezialfall $x = 1$: Permutationen von $S_n : [0, n-1]x[0, n-2], \dots, [0, 0]$.

Die Anzahl der Zyklen entspricht auf dieser Seite der Anzahl der „0“ im n-Tupel.

3 Beispiel

Definition 1.3. (Inversionen) Sei $\pi = a_1, \dots, a_n \in S_n$ (Wortdarstellung). Falls $a_i < a_j$ für $i < j$, dann heißt (i, j) Inversion (oder Fehlstellung).

$$i(\pi) = \text{Anzahl der Inversion}$$

Für (a_1, \dots, a_n) wähle $\pi \in S_n$ sodass a_i die Anzahl der Zahlen größer i (links von i) in der Wortdarstellung von π ist.

Beispiel: $n = 9, (a_1, \dots, a_9) = (1, 5, 2, 0, 4, 2, 0, 1, 0)$ (Auflistung der Inversionen). Bei $\pi = (41)(73)(96285)$ erkennen wir beispielweise, dass für 7 2 Inversionen vorliegen.

4 Erzeugende Funktionen

Eine Potenzreihe, deren Koeffizienten so gesetzt sind, dass sie die gewünschten Objekte zählen.

Lemma 1.4 (Erzeugende Funktionen von Inversionen)

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \left| \left\{ \pi \in S_n : i(\pi) = k \right\} q^k = \sum_{\pi \in S_n} q^{i(\pi)} \right\} = [n]_q!$$

Notation. $[k]_q = 1 + q + \dots + q^{k-1} = \frac{q^k - 1}{q - 1}$.

$$[n]_q! = [n]_q [n-1]_q \dots [1]_q$$

4.1 Beweis.

(Herleitung der Faktorielle)

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\pi \in S_n} q^{i(\pi)} &= \sum_{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in [0, n-1] \times \dots \times [0, 0]} q^{a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n} \\ &= \left(\sum_{a_1=0}^{n-1} q^{a_1} \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{a_2=0}^{n-2} q^{a_2} \cdot \dots \right) \cdot \dots \cdot \left(\sum_{a_n=0}^0 q^{a_n} \right) \cdot \dots \\ &= (1 + q + \dots + q^{n-1})(1 + \dots + q^{n-2}) \dots (1 + q) \cdot 1 \\ &= [n]_q \cdot [n-1]_q \cdot \dots \cdot [1]_q \\ &= [n]_q! \end{aligned}$$

4.2 1.3 q-Analog q

$$\binom{n}{k}_q = \frac{[n]_q!}{[k]_q! [n-k]_q!}$$

für $q \rightarrow 1 : [k]_q = k, [n]_q! = n!, \binom{n}{a}_q = \binom{n}{k}$

4.3 Property 1.5

Sei \mathbb{F}_q ein endlicher Körper, dann ist die Anzahl der k -dimensionalen Untervektorräume von \mathbb{F}_q^n ist gleich $\binom{n}{k}_q$.

Beweis. (Prinzip der doppelten Abzählung)

$$N(n, k) = \{(v_1, \dots, v_k) | v_1, \dots, v_k \text{ linear unabhängig in } \mathbb{F}_q^n\}$$

Dabei $N(n, 0) = 1$. $N(n, 1) = q^n - 1$. $N(n, 2) = (q^n - 1)(q^n - q)$. Dieses Prinzip setzt sich fort. $N(n, k) = (q^n - q)(q^n - q^2) \dots (q^n - q^{k-1})$.

Sei W ein Unterraum von $\dim k$, von \mathbb{F}_q^n . Wir zählen die geordneten Basen von W .

Für q_1 : $q^k - 1$

Für q_2 und q_1 zusammen: $(q^{k-1})(q^k - q)$

Für q_1 bis q_k zusammen: $(q^{k-1}) \dots (q^k - q^{k-1})$

$$\begin{aligned} N(n, k) &= |\{V \subseteq \mathbb{F}_q^n, \dim V = k\}| \cdot (q^k - 1) \dots (q^k - q^{k-1}) \\ |\{V \subseteq \mathbb{F}_q^n : \dim V = k\}| &= \frac{N(n, k)}{(q^k - 1) \dots (q^k - q^{k-1})} \\ &= \frac{[n]_q \dots [n-k+1]_q}{[k]_q \dots [1]_q} = \binom{n}{k}_q \end{aligned}$$

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(Nicht mehr alles mitgeschrieben. Skriptum verfügbar.)

Topic. Stirling-Partitions-Zahlen **Script reference.** Definition 1.4 und Definition 1.5

$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{matrix} n-1 \\ k-1 \end{matrix} \right\} + k \cdot \left\{ \begin{matrix} n-1 \\ k \end{matrix} \right\}$$

n liegt in einer der k Teilmengen mit $n-1$ Elementen.

$$x^{\underline{k}} = x(x-1)\dots(x-k+1)$$

Beweis: Bei einer Abbildung $f : [n] \mapsto [x]$ kann jede Zahl von $[n]$ auf x Elemente abgebildet werden. Daher haben wir insgesamt x^n Abbildungen. $a \sim b \Leftrightarrow f(a) = f(b)$.

Für jede Partition von $[n]$ in k Mengen gibt es $x(x-1)\dots(x-k+1) = x^{\bar{k}}$ verschiedene Abbildungen.

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \left[\begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right] x^k = x^{\bar{n}}$$
$$\sum_{k \geq 0} \left[\begin{matrix} n \\ k \end{matrix} \right] x^{\underline{k}} = x^n$$

$x^{\bar{k}}$ ist die steigende Faktorielle

6 Siebmethoden

In einem partially ordered set müssen nicht alle Elemente miteinander vergleichbar sein.

Die Potenzmenge einer endlichen Menge ist endlich.

Script reference. Definition 2.4

7 15th of Oct 2013

Incidence algebra of poset P :

$$I(P) = \{f : \text{intervals}(P) \rightarrow \mathbb{C}\}$$

3 operations: $+$, \cdot , $*$

Unitary means \exists an one-value.

$$\begin{aligned}(f + g) * (\tilde{f} + \tilde{g}) &= f * \tilde{f} + g * \tilde{g} + f * \tilde{g} + g\tilde{f} \\ (\alpha f) * (\beta g) &= \alpha\beta(f * g) \\ (f * \delta)(x, y) &= \sum_{z \in [x, y]} f(x, z)\delta(z, y) = \sum_{z \in [x, y], z=y} f(x, z) = f(x, y)\end{aligned}$$

Script reference. Proposition 2.2

In group theory left- and right-inverse are not relevant. Here it is.

Abbreviation. TFAE = The following are equivalent.

Script reference. Definition 2.5 Zeta function is somehow related to the Riemann Zeta function.

Script reference. differences calculus

$$\begin{array}{c} 0^3, 1^3, 2^3, 3^3, 4^3, 5^3 \\ 0, 1, 8, 27, 64, 125 \\ 1, 7, 19, 37, 61, 91(\text{differences}) \\ 6, 12, 18, 24, 30 \\ 6, 6, 6 \\ 0, 0, 0 \end{array}$$

Script reference. page 17 Sum corresponds (approximately) integration.

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\simeq isomorph

Eulersche ϕ -Funktion.

$A \cup B \Leftrightarrow$ Union of *disjoint* sets A and B

Script reference. page 21

$$\begin{aligned}
& A = \{1\}, B = \{2\}, C = \{3\} \\
& \quad |u_1| + |u_2| + |u_3| \\
& A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{1, 3\}, C = \{2, 3\} \\
& \quad -|u_1 \cap u_2| - |u_1 \cap u_3| - |u_2 \cap u_3| \\
& \quad \quad A = \{1, 2, 3\} \\
& \quad \quad +|u_1 \cap u_2 \cap u_3|
\end{aligned}$$

Script reference. page 23

Dimension equation („Dimensionsformel“):

$$\dim U + \dim a - \dim U \cap a$$

$$\binom{k}{k-1}_q = \frac{[k]_q [k-1]_q [k-2]_q \dots [1]_q}{[k-1]_q \dots [1]_q} = [k]_q = 1 + q + q^2 + \dots + q^{k-1} = \frac{q^k - 1}{q - 1}$$

8.1 Involution principle

Script reference. page 24

S^+ set of high numbers added to the set artificially. S^- set of low numbers added to the set artificially.

$^+ \cup S_0$ is the set of all paths from $(0, 0)$ to $(2n, 0)$ without constraints: $\binom{2n}{n}$.

Topic. Vandermonde-Determinant

$$\det \pi \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & \dots & x_1^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_2 & \dots & x_2^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_3 & \dots & x_3^{n-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & \dots & x_n^{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \prod_{i \leq i < j \leq n} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ 0 & x_2 - x_1 & x_2^2 - x_1^2 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & x_n - x_1 & x_n^2 - x_1^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Laplace formula (dt. „Laplace’scher Entwicklungssatz”).

Summary

For a group G :

$$G_X = \{g \in G \mid gx = x\} \quad (\text{stabilizer})$$

$$X_g = \{x \in X \mid gx = x\} \quad (\text{fixed points})$$

Orbit is an equivalence class:

$$x \sim_G y \Leftrightarrow \exists g \in G : gx = y$$

$$F = \{f \mid \mathbb{N} \mapsto \mathbb{R}\}$$

$$gf = f \circ g^{-1} \quad gf(x) = f(g^{-1}(x))$$

Script reference. page 32

8.2 Rotation of a cube

The rotation group of cubes contains 24 elements. 1 corner mapped to 8 corners. 2 are mapped to 3 possible adjacent ones. $3 \cdot 8 = 24$. X are the vertices

$$|\text{orbit of } 1| = 8$$

$$|G_1| = 3$$

An edge has two mapping. Either itself or the vertices are swapped. X are the edges.

$$|\text{stabilizer of edge}| = 2$$

$$|\text{orbit of an edge}| = 12$$

$$|G| = 2 \cdot 12 = 24.$$

X are the surfaces.

8.2.1 Listing of all rotations

Rotation axis?

1. identity (0°)
2. rotation along space diagonal ($2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 2$) (120°). Four rotation axes: 4 rotations.
3. rotation along space diagonal (240°). Four rotation axes: 4 rotations.
4. rotation along axis orthogonal to a surface (90°). Three rotation axes: 3 rotations.
5. rotation along axis orthogonal to a surface (180°). Three rotation axes: 3 rotations.

6. rotation along axis orthogonal to a surface (270°). Three rotation axes: 3 rotations.
7. rotation along axis intersecting midpoints of edges which are on the other side of the cube (270°). Six rotation axes: 6 rotations.

Sum: 24.

48 rotation reflections.

$S_4 \cdot C_2$.

Topic. Stigler's Law

Topic. Burnside's Lemma

Handout. (M. Aigner "A course in enumeration") Given a chess board with 3×3 fields. How many rooks can be placed without attacking each other? 6 possibilities for 3 rooks.

Script reference. page 40

Theorem. For every defined number of colors r and for all numbers s_1, \dots, s_r : $\exists R = \mathcal{R}(r; s_1, \dots, s_r) < \infty$ such that a K_R contains a monochromatic K_{s_i} colored with i (for at least one i).

Sketch of proof. 3 colors = sum up 2 colors = 2 colors. Apply Ramsey theorem for 2 colors iteratively.

$$\mathcal{R}(r = 1; s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{r+1}) \leq \mathcal{R}(2, \mathcal{R}(r; s_1, \dots, s_r), s_{r+1})$$

Open questions in Ramsey-theory (problem complexity grows extraordinary fast):

$$R(3, 4) = 9$$

$$R(4, 4)$$

$$R(5, 5) \approx 45$$

$$R(6, 6) = ?$$

Exercise & Claim. (multichromatic ramsey theory)

$$\mathcal{R}(3; 3, 3, 3) = 17$$

Fixate one vertex, there are 16 adjacent edges.

There is one color (*with* constraining generality), which occurs at least 6 times. Consider 6 vertices. Cases:

1. There is one red edge between 2 end points. Thus there is a red triangle.
2. There is no red edge. Thus only edges in blue/green paths $R(3, 3) = 6$ there is a one-colored triangle.

Exercise.

$$R(3; 3, 3, 3) \geq 17$$

The following example is a K_{16} with 3 colors without a monochromatic triangle.

$\mathcal{F}_p n$, irreducible polynomial f over $\mathcal{F}_p \sigma \pmod n$

$$\mathcal{F}_p[x]/f = \{a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} : a_i \in \mathcal{F}_p\}$$

$$\text{here } \mathcal{F}_{2^n}/\langle f \rangle = \{a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 : a_i \in \mathcal{F}_2\}$$

For example $x^4 + x + 1$ is irreducible. There are no roots in \mathcal{F}_2 .

$$\begin{aligned}
x^1, x^2, x^3, x^4 &= x + 1 \\
x^5 &= x^2 + x \\
x^6 &= x^3 + x^2 \\
x^7 &= x^4 + x^3 = x^3 + x + 1 \\
x^8 &= x^4 + x^2 + x = x^2 + 1 \\
x^9 &= x^3 + x \\
x^{10} &= x^4 + x^2 = x^2 + x + 1 \\
x^{11} &= x^3 + x^2 + x \\
x^{12} &= x^4 + x^3 + x^2 = x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \\
x^{13} &= x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x = x^3 + x^2 + 1 \\
x^{14} &= x^4 + x^3 + x = x^3 + 1 \\
x^{15} &= x^4 + x = \mathbf{1}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{class } 0 &x^0, x^0 = x^{15} = 1, x^3, x^6 = x^3 + x^2, x^9 = \dots, x^{12} \\
\text{class } 1 &x^1, x^4 = x + 1, x^7 = \dots, x^{10}, \dots, x^{13} \\
\text{class } 2 &x^2, x^5 = x^2 + x, x^8, x^{11} = \dots, x^{14}
\end{aligned}$$

Edge (v_i, v_j) is colored according to $x^i - x^j = x^k$ ($0 \leq k \leq 14$). $k = 0 \pmod 3$ is color 0 (red). $k = 1 \pmod 3$ is color 1 (blue). $k = 2 \pmod 3$ (green).

We still have to show that no monochromatic triangles are contained.

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{monochromatic triangle at } (x^i, x^j, x^s) \\
&(0, x^j - x^i, x^s - x^i) \\
&(0, 1, \frac{x^s - x^i}{x^k})
\end{aligned}$$

Exercise.

$$41 \leq R(4; 3, 3, 3, 3) \leq 66$$

$$\{x^{4k} \pmod{41}\} = \{1, 4, 10, 16, 18, 23, 25, 31, 37, 40\}$$

Difference 1 must occur in any other case.

$$R(r+1; \underbrace{3, 3, \dots, 3}_{r+1}) \leq (r+1) \left(R(r; \underbrace{3, \dots, 3}_r) - 1 \right) + 2$$

$$R(r; \underbrace{3, \dots, 3}_r) \leq [r!e] + 1$$

$$r = 2 : 6 = [2!e] + 1$$

$$r = 3 : 17 = [3!e] + 1$$

Induction:

$$R(r+1; 3 \dots) \leq (r+1)[r!e] + 2 = [(r+1)!e] + 1$$

Date. 14.01.07

9 Ramsey Theory with graphs

9.1 Remarks to the proof of the theorem of Turán

Is $n \neq r$. G has no K_r , but maximum number of edges. Due to maximality there must be a K_{r-1} subgraph. Let A_{r-1} be such an $(r-1)$ clique (thus the $r-1$ vertices). $B = V \setminus A_{r-1}$ and $|B| = b - (r-1)$.

Idea: Count edges e_A (edges in A), e_B (edges in B) and e_{AB} (edges from A to B).

$$|e_A| \leq \binom{r-1}{2}$$

B does not contain a K_r . Apply induction hypothesis for $n - (r - 1)$.

$$|e_B| \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{r-1}\right)(n - (r - 1))^2$$

Each edge $b \in B$ is connected to at most $r - 2$ edges of A_{r-1} (otherwise there would be a r clique).

$$|e_{AB}| \leq (n - (r - 1))(r - 2)$$

$$|E| \leq |e_A| + |e_B| + |e_{AB}|$$

$$|E| \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{r-1}\right) n^2$$

9.2 Second approach for proof

We put n vertices in buckets of size $r - 1$. Therefore each bucket contains $\frac{n}{r-1}$ elements. To reach the maximum number of K_{r-1} but no K_r we connect every vertex with every vertex which is not part of the same bucket. Each vertex is connected to $(n - \frac{n}{r-1})$ vertices. Thus the total number of edges is $\frac{n}{2}(n - \frac{n}{r-1})$. QED.

10 Jensen's inequality

Date. 15th of January 2014

$$f(z) = \binom{z}{t} = \frac{z(z-1)(z-2)\dots(z-t+1)}{t!} \quad \text{convex}$$

$$\sum \binom{d_i}{t} \geq m \binom{\frac{|E|}{m}}{t}$$

$$(s-1)n^t \geq m \left(\frac{E}{m} - t + 1\right)^t$$

$$\binom{n}{t} = \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-t+1)}{t!} \leq \frac{n^t}{t!}$$

$$(s-1)^{\frac{1}{t}} n(m^{-1})^{\frac{1}{t}} \geq \frac{E}{m} - t + 1$$