

# Worksheet 13: March 6 (Solutions)

## Principles to Remember

- **Pigeonhole Principle:** Putting  $n + 1$  objects into  $n$  boxes always results in one box with at least two objects in it. More generally, placing  $k$  objects into  $n$  boxes always results in one box with at least  $\lceil k/n \rceil$  objects in it.
- An  **$r$ -permutation** of a set  $S$  is an *ordered* arrangement of  $r$  elements of  $S$ . If  $S$  has  $n$  elements, its number of  $r$ -permutations is  $\frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$ .
- An  **$r$ -combination** of a set  $S$  is an *unordered* arrangement of  $r$  elements of  $S$ . If  $S$  has  $n$  elements, its number of  $r$ -combinations is  $\frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}$ , which we denote as  $\binom{n}{r}$  and pronounce “ $n$  choose  $r$ .”

## 1 Pigeonhole Principle

1. Suppose you have 3 spheres and 7 cubes, each labelled with a number between 0 and 9. Show that there are at least two different sphere-cube pairs whose sums are equal. Is this still true with 6 cubes instead of 7?

**Solution:** The minimum sum of a sphere-cube pair is  $0 + 0 = 0$ , and the maximum sum is  $9 + 9 = 18$ , so there are 19 possible sums. Since we have  $3 \times 7 = 21$  pairs, at least two pairs must have the same sum by the pigeonhole principle. The pigeonhole principle doesn't tell us anything for the case of 6 cubes, since there are only 18 pairs in that case. (It's still true, though, but much harder to prove.)

2. What is the smallest integer  $n$  such that any subset of  $\{1, 2, \dots, 9\}$  with  $n$  elements is guaranteed to contain two numbers adding to 10?

**Solution:** Consider the five “boxes”  $\{1, 9\}$ ,  $\{2, 8\}$ ,  $\{3, 7\}$ ,  $\{4, 6\}$ , and  $\{5\}$ . If we pick any six numbers from  $[9]$ , then two of them must fall in the same box, and thus some to 10. This is a strict lower bound on  $n$ , since  $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  contains no two elements that sum to 10. Therefore  $n = 6$ .

3. Show that in a group of 6 people, where any two people are either enemies or friends, there are either three mutual friends or three mutual enemies.

**Solution:** Select any one person, whom we'll call  $A$ . There are five other people, so by the pigeonhole principle, either three of them are friends with  $A$ , or three of them are enemies with  $A$ . Without loss of generality, assume that  $A$  has three friends, whom we'll call  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$ . If  $B$  and  $C$  are friends, then  $A, B, C$  form a mutual friends triple; if  $B$  and  $D$  are friends, then  $A, B, D$  form a mutual friends triple; if  $C$  and  $D$  are friends, then  $A, C, D$  form a mutual friends triple; and if none of these cases hold, then  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$  are all enemies with each other, so  $B, C, D$

form a mutual enemies triple. Solutions to the generalized “party problem” are called *Ramsey numbers*; 6 is the Ramsey number  $R(3, 3)$ .

4. Suppose there is a hotel with infinitely many rooms, numbered  $1, 2, 3, \dots$ , and infinitely many guests, numbered  $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ . Does the pigeonhole principle imply that some room has at least two guests?

**Solution:** Nope – the pigeonhole principle only applies to finite sets. Countable sets can be mapped bijectively to each other, as we have seen in previous units.

## 2 Permutations and Combinations

5. How many ways are there for three puffins and six penguins to stand in a line such that...

- (a) ...all puffins stand together?

**Solution:** Treating the puffins as a block and each individual penguin as a block implies there are  $7!$  ways to arrange the blocks, and there are  $3!$  ways to arrange the puffins in their block, so the answer is  $7! \cdot 3!$ .

- (b) ...all penguins stand together?

**Solution:** Now we have 4 blocks, one of which contains 6 elements, so the answer is  $4! \cdot 6!$ .

6. How many permutations of the string ‘ABCDEFG’...

- (a) ...contain both ‘ABC’ and ‘DE’ as consecutive substrings?

**Solution:** The four blocks are ‘ABC’, ‘DE’, ‘F’, and ‘G’. The answer is  $4!$ .

- (b) ...have ‘A’ anywhere before ‘B’?

**Solution:** All permutations either have  $A$  before  $B$  or have  $B$  before  $A$ , and there are equally many permutations of each type, so the answer is  $\frac{7!}{2}$ .

7. Find a formula for the number of ways to seat  $n$  people around a circular table, where seatings are considered the same if every person has the same two neighbors (without regard to which side those neighbors are sitting on).

**Solution:** We’re counting *equivalency classes* of permutations, where each class has size  $2n$  because of rotation and reflection. Since each permutation belongs to such a class, there are  $\frac{n!}{2n} = \frac{(n-1)!}{2}$  equivalency classes.

8. How many ways are there for a horse race with four horses to finish if ties are possible? Note that any number of horses may tie in any position.

**Solution:** We need to consider several cases here.

- If no horses tie, there are  $4! = 24$  ways to arrange the horses.
- If two horses tie, there are  $\binom{4}{2}$  ways to form the pair and  $3!$  ways to arrange the three blocks, for a total of  $36$  ways.

- If three horses tie, there are  $\binom{4}{3}$  ways to form the triple and  $2!$  ways to arrange the two blocks, for a total of 8 ways.
- If two pairs of horses each tie, there are 3 ways to form the pairs and 2 ways to arrange them, for a total of 6 ways.
- Finally, all four horses tying is 1 additional way the race may go.

The total number of possible outcomes is  $24 + 36 + 8 + 6 + 1 = 75$ .

9. Prove that  $\sum_{i=r}^n \binom{i}{r} = \binom{n+1}{r+1}$  for  $n, r \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n > r$ . (This is known as the *hockey-stick identity*. Why?)

**Solution:** You can prove this either combinatorially or via induction on  $n$ ; I'm going to do the latter. In the base case  $n = r$ , we have  $\binom{r}{r} = \binom{r+1}{r+1}$ , which is true because they're both equal to 1. For the inductive hypothesis, we assume  $\sum_{i=r}^{n-1} \binom{i}{r} = \binom{n}{r+1}$  for some  $n > r$ . In the inductive step, we see that

$$\sum_{i=r}^n \binom{i}{r} = \left( \sum_{i=r}^{n-1} \binom{i}{r} \right) + \binom{n}{r} = \binom{n}{r+1} + \binom{n}{r} = \binom{n+1}{r+1}.$$

The last equality is from Pascal's rule.

This is known as the hockey-stick identity because if you trace out the coefficients it deals with on Pascal's triangle, they form a long line that zags for one step at the end, so it looks a bit like a hockey stick.