Math 321: Some discrete mathematics

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Discrete Mathematics

Discrete mathematics is the name given to the parts of math which studies discrete structures, as opposed to continuous.

- Combinatorics
- Graph theory

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• Number theory

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• Some stuff in theoretical computer science

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Let's see some examples.

Pointing at people

Imagine the following situation.

- You are at a party with a large (but finite!) group of people.
- The group decides that everyone will point at each other. You can point at any number of people, including yourself, and you can point at someone multiple times.

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Imagine the following situation.

- You are at a party with a large (but finite!) group of people.
- The group decides that everyone will point at each other. You can point at any number of people, including yourself, and you can point at someone multiple times.
- The question: Can you arrange things so that everyone is pointed at more often than pointing to?

This may seem like a frivolous situation, and the framing certainly is. But there is a real mathematical structure lurking here. In jargon the question is: Given a finite directed graph, is it possible for every node in the graph to have larger in-degree than out-degree?

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Image: A math a math

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Proof.

For each person, let their pointing number be the number of people they are pointing at, and their receiving number be the number of people they are pointing to. Let P be the sum of the pointing numbers and R be the sum of the receiving numbers.

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Proof.

For each person, let their pointing number be the number of people they are pointing at, and their receiving number be the number of people they are pointing to. Let P be the sum of the pointing numbers and R be the sum of the receiving numbers. I claim that P = R. This is because each instance of pointing adds 1 each to P and R; if I point at you, that's +1 to my pointing number and +1 to your receiving number.

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Another way of thinking about this argument

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Here's the setup. Everyone will give \$1 to each person they are pointing at. Since everyone is pointed at more than they point, this means everyone makes a profit. And we can repeat this as much as we like to get everyone as much money as we want.

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Here's the setup. Everyone will give \$1 to each person they are pointing at. Since everyone is pointed at more than they point, this means everyone makes a profit. And we can repeat this as much as we like to get everyone as much money as we want. But this is clearly impossible, so it must be that the situation is impossible.

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Proof.

The base case of zero people is trivial. Assume the statement is true for groups of n people, and consider a group of n + 1 people. Suppose toward a contradiction that everyone has larger receiving number than pointing number. Let's pick one person, call them Joel, to kick out of the group to get a group of n people. Everyone Joel was pointing at will get a new pointer. Someone who was pointing at Joel redirects their point. Since Joel is pointed at more than pointing, there's enough space to do this, and any leftovers just don't point. So we have a group of n people where everyone has larger receiving number than pointing number, contradicting the inductive hypothesis.

Graph theory

As was mentioned earlier, this is an example of a theorem from graph theory, a branch of discrete math that sees a lot of application in computer science.

We'll dig deeper into graph theory after spring break. But for now, let's do a little bit of combinatorics.

Combinatorics

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- 3 can be writen as a sum in four ways? Or should that be three ways?
 - 3 = 3; 3 = 2 + 1; 3 = 1 + 2; 3 = 1 + 1 + 1

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This example shows that the answer depends on when we count two sums as the same. Is 1 + 2 the same sum as 2 + 1?

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Let's answer the question where we count them differently—that is, where order matters.

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Imagine you place down n many 1s in a row: 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \cdots \ 1 \ 1.
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In the spaces between the 1s we will either place a + or leave it blank. We can then interpret that as a sum, grouping together a contiguous block into one number. And observe that any sum for n can be represented this way.

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Proof.

Imagine you place down *n* many 1s in a row: $1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \cdots \ 1 \ 1$.

In the spaces between the 1s we will either place a + or leave it blank. We can then interpret that as a sum, grouping together a contiguous block into one number. And observe that any sum for n can be represented this way. For example, $1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 \Rightarrow 2 + 3 + 1$ gives one sum for 6. There are n-1 spaces between the 1s, and each binary choice is independent, so that gives 2^{n-1} ways to place the +s.

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Permutations

Let's count more things!

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A permutation of a list of objects is a rearrangement of the objects that list. (We include the trivial rearrangement where nothing moves.) Phrased in mathy jargon, a permutation of a set is a one-to-one correspondence of the set with itself.

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A permutation of a list of objects is a rearrangement of the objects that list. (We include the trivial rearrangement where nothing moves.) Phrased in mathy jargon, a permutation of a set is a one-to-one correspondence of the set with itself.

The number of permutations for a list depends only upon the number of objects in the list. Just what number is it?

For a natural number n there are n! many permutations of a list of n objects.

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Picking from a set

Suppose you have n objects, and you want to pick out k of them. How many ways are there to do this?

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Picking from a set

Suppose you have n objects, and you want to pick out k of them. How many ways are there to do this?

The answer depends on whether we care about order.

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Let $k \leq n$ be natural numbers. If you pick k objects from n where you care about order, there are $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ many ways to do it.

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Imagine picking the objects one at a time, until you've picked all k. How many choices are there for the first one? The second? And so on? This gives a total of

$$n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)$$

many ways to pick the objects. Now observe that

$$\frac{n!}{(n-k)!} = \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k)(n-k-1)\cdots1}{(n-k)(n-k-1)\cdots1} = n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1).$$

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Picking where you don't care about order

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Observe that we can figure this out by counting how many ways there are to pick where we care about order, then dividing out by how much we overcounted—how many of the choices with order give the same choice without order.

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The pigeonhole principle

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Pigeons in holes. Here there are n = 10 pigeons in m = 9 holes. Since 10 is greater than 9, the pigeonhole principle says that at least one hole has more than one pigeon. (The top left hole has 2 pigeons.)

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Proof: By contradiction. Suppose otherwise, and consider the smallest n so that there is a one-to-one correspondence f from a set A of n objects to a set B of k objects for some k < n. Observe that it must be that n > 2, since if n = 1 the only possible value for k could be 0 but that clearly allows no one-to-one correspondence. Pick an object $a \in A$ and look at $A \setminus \{a\}$. Restrict f to $A \setminus \{a\}$ to get a one-to-one correspondence from a set of size n-1 to $B \setminus \{f(a)\}$. So nwas not actually least, a contradiction. Sac