CS388C: LECTURE 2

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1. Inclusion-Exclusion

$$(1) |A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$$

Proposition 1.1.

$$|\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i| \ge \sum_{i=1}^{n} |A_i| - \sum_{i < j} |A_i \cap A_j|$$

Proof.

Fix $x \in \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$. Say x appears in \mathbf{r} of the A_i . Then x contributes $r - \binom{r}{2}$ elements to the RHS. Which is equivalent to:

$$= r - \frac{r(r-1)}{2}$$

$$= r(1 - \frac{r-1}{2})$$
< 1

Therefore the LHS must be greater. (See $r \ge 3$)

Example 1.2. Suppose we have n sets $A_1, ..., A_n$ s.t. $|A_i| = k$ and $|A_i \cap A_j| \le 1$. Using **Proposition 1.1**, we have:

$$|\cup A_i| \ge nk - \binom{n}{2}$$

However, if $k \ll n$, this can be a negative lower bound, so we can relax to only the **first k** sets...

$$|\cup^n A_i| \ge |\cup^k A_i| \ge k^2 - \binom{k}{2}$$

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Proposition 1.3.

$$|\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} |A_i| - \sum_{i < j} |A_i \cap A_j|$$

$$+ \sum_{i < j < k} |A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k|$$

$$- \sum_{i < j < k < l} |A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k \cap A_l|$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\pm |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n|$$

Proof. Let use the same strategy as before. i.e. Suppose $x \in \bigcup A_i$. Say x appears in \mathbf{r} of the A_i . We just need to find its contribution to the RHS:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} |A_{i}| - \sum_{i < j} |A_{i} \cap A_{j}|$$

$$+ \sum_{i < j < k} |A_{i} \cap A_{j} \cap A_{k}|$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\pm |A_{1} \cap A_{2} \cap \dots \cap A_{n}|$$

$$= r - \binom{r}{2} + \binom{r}{3} - \binom{r}{4} + \dots \pm 1$$

$$= \binom{r}{1} - \binom{r}{2} + \binom{r}{3} - \binom{r}{4} + \dots \pm \binom{r}{r}$$

By the binomial theorem, we know this is exactly equal to

$$\binom{r}{0} - (1-1)^r = 1$$

Definition 1.4. derangement - permutation π *s.t.* $\forall i$ $\pi(i) \neq i$

Example 1.5. Now let us try and find the # derangements of a sequence of size n.

We can try and frame this problem by breaking it up into smaller sets A_i as before...

Let
$$A_i = \{\pi : \pi(i) = i\}$$
. Then notice that:

$$n! - \#$$
 derangements = $|\bigcup A_i|$

Since there are n! possible permutations. Now we can use **Proposition 1.3**. Notice that due to the definition of A_i , we can directly compute the value of each term – since each set defines permutations that hold 1, 2, ..., n elements constant:

$$|\bigcup A_i| = n \cdot (n-1)! - \binom{n}{2} \cdot (n-2)! + \binom{n}{3} \cdot (n-3)! + \dots \pm \binom{n}{n} 1!$$

$$= n! - \frac{n!}{2!(n-2)!} \cdot (n-2)! + \frac{n!}{3!(n-3)!} \cdot (n-3)! + \dots \pm 1$$

$$= n! \cdot (1 - \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots \pm \frac{1}{n!})$$

$$= \frac{n!}{e}$$

Recall that

$$exp(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$$

Thus we have that the number of derangements given n is about

$$n!(1-\frac{1}{e})$$

Remark. There exist **Bonferroni Inequalities** in the same form as **Proposition 1.1** that continuously add in longer intersection terms... e.g.:

$$|\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}| \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} |A_{i}| - \sum_{i < j} |A_{i} \cap A_{j}| + \sum_{i < j < k} |A_{i} \cap A_{j} \cap A_{k}|$$

$$|\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_{i}| \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n} |A_{i}| - \sum_{i < j} |A_{i} \cap A_{j}| + \sum_{i < j < k} |A_{i} \cap A_{j} \cap A_{k}| - \sum_{i < j < k < l} |A_{i} \cap A_{j} \cap A_{k} \cap A_{l}|$$

2. Counting with Recursion

Example 2.1. Consider a $2 \times n$ grid. n = 5 as shown:

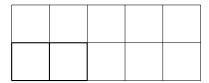
Question: How many ways can we tile 1×2 dominoes on this grid?

Solution: This can be done by first noticing the following: if we place a single domino all the way to the left of this grid, we get exactly **2 situations**. The first is:

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Once this domino is set, notice that we now have to fill a $2 \times (n-1)$ grid. i.e. if we define T(n) = # ways to tile an $2 \times n$ grid, then we would only have to find T(n-1).

The second situation is:



When we place the domino like so, we are forced to place at least one domino to fill the space above the current one. We are then left with a $2\times$ (n-2) grid to tile, i.e. T(n-2) possibilities.

Therefore, we have T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n-2) as our recurrence relation.

The base cases are T(0) = 1 and T(1) = 1. The answer then leads us to the Fibonacci numbers as they share the same relation, except we start with 0 indexing. Thus we have:

$$T(n) = F_{n+1} = (n+1)^{th}$$
 Fibonacci number

3. Probabilistic Method

This section will now cover examples of how to use the *Probabilistic Method* to prove the existence of solutions. In general, we will be showing that there is a non-zero probability of obtaining a valid solution using some type of random assignment.

Example 3.1. Let *S* be a set of elements. Let $A_i \subseteq S$ such that $|A_i| = k$. (k-set) Define family \mathcal{F} as a set of k-sets:

$$\mathcal{F} = \{A_1, A_2, ..., A_n\}$$

Definition 3.2. A 2-coloring of \mathcal{F} is a map $\mathcal{X}: S \to \{0,1\}$ such that no A_i is **monochromatic**. i.e.:

$$\forall i \exists j, k \in A_i \text{ s.t. } \mathcal{X}(j) \neq \mathcal{X}(k)$$

Theorem 3.3. *If* $n < 2^{k-1}$, then $\exists 2$ -coloring of \mathcal{F} .

Solution. We can employ the Probabilistic Method.

First choose a coloring uniformly at random. We want to show:

With probability > 0, we can get a valid 2-coloring of \mathcal{F} .

To do this, we can instead show its inverse:

$$\Pr[\exists \text{ monochromatic } A_i] < 1$$

Let E_i be the events (i.e. random colorings) such that A_i is monochromatic. Then we are trying to compute:

$$\Pr\left[\bigcup E_i\right] \leq \sum \Pr\left[E_i\right]$$

By **Union Bound** inequality. Clearly $\Pr[E_i] = 2(\frac{1}{2})^k$, since we have 2 colors and each element is assigned with $\frac{1}{2}$ probability. Now since we know $n < 2^{k-1}$, then:

$$\Pr\left[\bigcup E_i\right] \le n \cdot 2(\frac{1}{2})^k < 1$$

Definition 3.4. <u>Universal Set</u>. Let us define the following notation:

Set of strings of length n: $A \subseteq \{0,1\}^n$

Set of k < n indeces: $S = \{i_1, i_2, ..., i_k\}$

Restriction of A onto S: $A_{|S} = \{(a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, ..., a_{i_k}) : a = (a_1, ..., a_n) \in A\}$

Then A is a (n,k) - Universal Set if:

 $\forall S$, $A_{|S}$ contains all 2^k possible binary strings of length k.

Example 3.5. Question: How large is a smallest (n, k)-universal set?

Theorem 3.6. $\exists (n,k)$ -universal sets of size $\leq 2^k(kln(n)+1)$

Proof. We will employ the Probabilistic Method again. Suppose A contains r random substrings. If we are trying to prove that these (n,k) - universal sets of this size exist, then we want to show:

$$\Pr\left[\exists A_{|S} \neq \{0,1\}^k\right] < 1$$

To do this, let us further break this event into smaller ones, by considering every possible $v \in \{0,1\}^k$:

$$\Pr\left[\bigcup_v \left\{v \not\in A_{|S}\right\}\right] \le 2^k \cdot (1 - (\frac{1}{2})^k)^r$$

This is because:

- (1) Union Bound to get inequality.
- (2) 2^k possible v exist
- (3) Given a substring of length k, v, then the probability of $A_{|S}$ not containing it would be $(1-(\frac{1}{2})^k)^r$. Since A contains r random substrings and the probability of creating a random substring of length k is $(\frac{1}{2})^k$.

Further, we can extend the inequality:

$$\leq 2^k \cdot (1 - (\frac{1}{2})^k)^r$$

$$\leq \binom{n}{k} 2^k \cdot (1 - 2^{-k})^r$$

$$\leq \frac{n}{k!} 2^k \cdot e^{-2^{-k} \cdot r}$$

Now just set $r = 2^k (k \ln(n) + 1)$. We get:

$$\Pr\left[\exists A_{|S} \neq \{0,1\}^k\right] \leq \frac{n^k}{k!} 2^k e^{-k\ln(n)+1}$$
$$= \frac{2^k}{k!} \cdot \frac{1}{e}$$
$$< 1$$

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