# Revision notes - MA3269

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# 1 Counting

#### 1.1 Geometric and Arithmetic Series

**Definition 1.1** (Geometric series).

A geometric series is a sum of the form

$$a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n$$

Theorem 1.1 (Sum of Geometric series).

The value of sum of a geometric series up to nth term,  $G_n$ , for  $r \neq 1$ , is given by the formula

$$G_n = a \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}$$

The following is an example of solving generating functions of an infinite sequence. Suppose  $a_0 = 1$ ,  $a_1 = 1$ ,  $a_2 = 3$ . Also, the recurrence relation of the sequence is  $a_n = 2a_{n-1}+1$ . Define the **generating function** U(x) as follows,

$$U(t) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n t^n \quad (|t| < 1)$$

$$= t + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n t^n$$

$$= t + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (2a_{n-1} + 1)t^n$$

$$= t + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} t^n + 2t \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_{n-1} t^{n-1}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} t^n + 2t \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n t^n$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} t^n - 1 + 2t \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n t^n$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} t^n - 1 + 2t U(t)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1-t} - 1 + 2t U(t)$$

Solving U(t) and partial fractioning, we have

$$U(t) = \frac{1}{1 - 2t} - \frac{1}{1 - t}$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2t)^n - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} t^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2^n - 1)t^n$$

By definition,

$$U(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n t^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (2^n - 1)t^n$$

Hence,

$$a_n = 2^n - 1$$

Theorem 1.2 (Trianglar Number).

$$T_n = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$$

**Definition 1.2** (Arithmetic series).

More generally, an **arithmetic series** is a sum of the form

$$a + (a + d) + (a + 2d) + \dots + (a + nd)$$

The number a is called the **first term** and the number d is called the **common difference** of the arithmetic series.

Theorem 1.3 (Sum of arithmetic series).

The sum of an arithmetic series, up to nth term,  $A_n$  is given by

$$A_n = \frac{1}{2}(n+1)(2a+dn)$$

#### 1.2 Sets

Similar objects are often gathered together for easy reference. Such a collection is called a set.

The item in a set are often referred to as **elements** or **members** of the set.

We exhibit members of a set within parentheses:

$$S = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$$
 or  $S = \{x : x \text{ is a vowel of the English alphabet}\}$ 

We use the notation  $x \in S$  to mean "x is a member of S".

The notation  $x \notin S$  means "x is not a member of S".

**Definition 1.3** (Empty Set).

The **empty set** is the set containing *no* members. This is denoted by  $\varnothing$ . That is

$$\emptyset = \{\}$$

#### Definition 1.4 (Union).

The **union** of sets A and B is the set whose elements are precisely those belong to A or B. Symbolically, we denote the union by  $A \cup B$ :

$$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

### **Definition 1.5** (Intersection).

The **intersection** of sets A and B is the set whose elements are precisely those belong to A and B. Symbolically, we denote the intersection by  $A \cap B$ :

$$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$$

### **Definition 1.6** (Disjoint Set).

Sets A and B are **disjoint** if

$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

Theorem 1.4 (Properties of union and intersection).

- $\bullet$   $A \cup B = B \cup A$ ,  $A \cap B = B \cap A$ .
- $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$
- $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$
- $\bullet \ A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$
- $\bullet \ A\cap (B\cup C)=(A\cap C)\cup (A\cap C)$
- $\bullet$   $A \cup A = A, A \cap A = A$
- $A \cup \emptyset = A, A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$

# Definition 1.7 (Subset).

If every element of A is also an element of B, then A is a **subset** of B.

$$A \subseteq B$$

Some immediate consequence of the definition of a subset:

- For any set  $A, A \subseteq A, \varnothing \subseteq A$ .
- For sets A, B,

$$A \subseteq A \cup B, \quad A \cap B \subset A$$

• If  $A \subseteq B$ , then

$$A \cup B = B, \quad A \cap B = A$$

We are often interested in subsets of a fixed reference set called the **unviersal set**, usually denoted by U.

### Definition 1.8 (Complement).

Suppose U is the given universal set, and  $A \subseteq U$ . Then the **complement** of A, denoted by  $A^c$ , is the set consisting of all the elements of U which are not in A. That is

$$A^c = \{ x \in U : x \notin A \}$$

By definition,

$$A \cup A^c = U, \quad A \cap A^c = \emptyset$$

### Theorem 1.5 (de Morgan's laws).

The following properties hold for set A,B.

- $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$
- $\bullet \ (A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$

Theorem 1.6 (Principle of Inclusion and Exclusion).

$$P(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) - \sum_{1 \le i_1 \le i_2 \le n} P(A_{i_1} A_{i_2}) + \dots + (-1)^{r+1} \sum_{1 \le i_1 \le \dots \le i_r \le n} P(A_{i_1} \dots A_{i_r}) + \dots + (-1)^{n+1} P(A_1 \dots A_n)$$

## **Definition 1.9** (Floor function).

For any real number x, the **floor** of x, denoted by

 $\lfloor x \rfloor$ 

is the largest integer  $\leq x$ .

# Definition 1.10 (Ceiling function).

For any real number x, the **ceiling** of x, denoted by

 $\lceil x \rceil$ 

is the smallest integer  $\geq x$ .

# Theorem 1.7 (Number of multiples).

Let i and n be positive integers. The number of multiples of i among the integers  $1, 2, \ldots, n$  is

 $\left|\frac{n}{i}\right|$ 

## 1.3 Counting Principles

Theorem 1.8 (Addition Principle).

If a choice from set  $A_i$  can be made in  $n_i$  ways for  $i=1,\ldots,m$ , then the number of choices from  $A_1 \cup \cdots \cup A_m$  is

$$n_1 + \cdots + n_m$$

Necessary condition: The sets  $A_1, \ldots, A_m$  are pairwise/mutually disjoint, i.e.  $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$  for all  $i \neq j$ .

Theorem 1.9 (Multiplication Principle).

If a task involves a sequence of m steps, where the ith step can be completed in  $n_i$  ways, then there are

$$n_1 \times \cdots n_m$$

ways to complete the task.

Necessary condition: The ways each step can be completed are indepedent of each other.

# 1.4 Arrangements and Combinations

#### Theorem 1.10.

Let  ${}^{n}P_{k}$  be the number of ways of arranging, in a row, k different objects taken from n different objects. Then

$$^{n} P_{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$$

#### Theorem 1.11.

The number of ways of arranging in a row  $n_1$  identical objects of Type 1,  $n_2$  identical objects of Type 2, ..., and  $n_k$  identical objects of Type k, is equal to

$$\frac{(\sum_{i=1}^k n_i)!}{\prod_{i=1}^k n_i!}$$

Theorem 1.12 (Circular Arrangements).

The number of ways of arranging n different objects in a circle is

$$(n-1)!$$

#### Theorem 1.13.

Let  ${}^{n}C_{k}$  denote the number of ways of choosing k objects from a set of n different objects. Then

$${}^{n}C_{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Another notation for  ${}^{n}C_{k}$  is  $\binom{n}{k}$ .

Theorem 1.14 (Simple properties of binomial coefficients).

- $\bullet$   $\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1$
- $\bullet \ \binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$
- $\bullet \sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} = 2^n$

## 1.5 Number of Routes on Rectangular Grid

#### Theorem 1.15.

On a rectangular grid, the number of routes from (i, j) to (k, l) moving easterly or notherly without back-tracking is

$$\frac{((k-i)+(l-j))!}{(k-i)!(l-j)!} = \binom{k+l-i-j}{k-i} = \binom{k+l-i-j}{l-j}$$

# 1.6 Pigeonhole Principle

### Theorem 1.16 (Pigeonhole Principle).

Suppose m objects are distributed among n pigeonholes. If m > n, then there is at least **one** pigeonhole with at least **two** of the distributed objects.

### Theorem 1.17 (Extended Pigeonhole Principle).

If m objects are distributed among n pigeonholes and m > n, then there will be **one** pigeonhole which contains **at least**  $\lceil \frac{m}{n} \rceil$  objects.

# 2 Graphing

#### 2.1 Introduction

#### Definition 2.1 (Graph).

A graph is a collection of points and lines connecting *some pairs* of the points.

The points are called the **vertices**.

The lines joining any the vertices are called **edges**.

Two vertices that are joined by an edge are called **adjacent** vertices.

#### **Definition 2.2** (Simple Graph).

A graph without loops and multiple edges is called a **simple graph**.

### 2.2 Basic Technology

#### Definition 2.3 (Walk).

A walk is a sequence of vertices and edges in a graph such that

- the sequence alternates between vertices and edges, starting and ending with vertices; and
- each edge in the sequence joins the vertices that occur immediately before and after it in the sequence

A walk that starts and ends at *different* vertices is called an **open walk**.

A walk that starts and ends at the same vertex is called a **closed walk**.

A walk that contains no repeated vertices and edges is called a **path**.

#### Definition 2.4 (Cycle).

A cycle in a graph is a closed walk in which the only repitition is the first and last vertex.

#### **Definition 2.5** (Length).

The **length** of a walk is defined as the number of edges in the walk, including repetitions.

#### **Definition 2.6** (Degree).

The **degree** of a vertex in a graph is the number of edges that occur at that vertex, with every *loop counted as two*.

#### Theorem 2.1 (Degree Theorem).

In any graph, the sum of all the degrees is equal to **twice** the number of edges.

In particular, the sum of all the degrees must be even.

#### **Definition 2.7** (Odd and Even Vertex).

An **odd** vertex is a vertex whose degree is an odd number.

An **even** vertex is a vertex whose degree is an even number.

#### **Definition 2.8** (Minimum and Maximum Degree).

In any graph G, the symbol  $\delta(G)$  represents the **minimum** degree in G; the symbol  $\Delta(G)$  represents the maximum degree.

#### 2.3 Trees

**Definition 2.9** (Trees).

A tree is a simple graph that is connected and contains no cycle.

Definition 2.10 (Leaf).

A **leaf** is a vertex of degree 1.

Theorem 2.2 (Leaf Lemma).

Every tree with two or more vertices has at least two vertices of degree 1.

Theorem 2.3 (Tree theorem).

Every tree with n vertices has exactly n-1 edges.

## 2.4 Minimal Spanning Trees

**Definition 2.11** (Weighted Graphs).

A **weighted graph** is a graph in which each edge has a number associated with it, which we refer to as the **weight** of that edge.

Definition 2.12 (Subgraph).

A **subgraph** of a graph G is a graph H whose vertices and edges are taken from those of G.

**Definition 2.13** (Weight of a graph).

The **weight** of a graph G is the sum of weights of all its edges. Symbolically,

$$w(G) = \sum_{e \text{ edge of } G} w(e)$$

where w(e) denotes the weight of the edge e.

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{Definition 2.14} & (Spanning Tree). \end{tabular}$ 

A spanning tree of a given graph G is a subgraph T of G which is a tree and it contains all the vertices of G.

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \bf Definition \ 2.15 \ (Minimal \ Spanning \ Tree). \end{tabular}$ 

A minimal spanning tree of G is a spanning tree which has the minimum weight among all the spanning trees of G.

Theorem 2.4 (Prim's algorithm).

**Prim's Algorithm** is a procedure for constructing a minimal spanning tree in a given weighted graph:

Input: a weighted graph G

 $\mathbf{Output}$ : a minimal spanning tree T of G

Algorithm:

- Start with any vertex and select an edge having the minimum weight among all the edges at that vertex
- Consider *all* edges that go from each vertex already reached to a new vertex. Select one that has *minimum weight*.
- Continue until all vertices have been reached.

#### 2.5 Euler Walks

In this section, we allow graphs to contain loops and multiple edges.

#### **Definition 2.16** (Directed graph).

A directed graph is a graph in which *every* edge is assigned a direction indicated by an arrow(called a directed edge).

#### **Definition 2.17** (Walk in directed graph).

A walk in a directed graph is a sequence of vertices and directed edges such that

- the sequence alternates between vertices and directed edges, starting and ending with vertices; and
- each directed edge in the sequence joins the vertices that occur immediately before and after it in the sequence in the direction indicated by the arrow of the directed edge.

#### Definition 2.18 (Euler walk).

An **Euler walk** in a graph is a walk that uses every edge in the graph exactly once.

A **closed** Euler walk (also known as **Euler circuit**) is an Euler walk that starts and ends at the same vertex.

An **open** Euler walk is an Euler walk that starts and ends at different vertices.

**Note:** When tracing an Euler walk,

- a vertex may be visited more than once
- every edge is visited exactly once
- the entire graph is traced without lifting the pen

#### **Theorem 2.5** (Euler Walk Theorem I).

A connected *undirected* graph contains a *closed* Euler walk if and only if *every* vertex has **even** degree.

#### Theorem 2.6 (Euler Walk Theorem II).

A connected undirected graph contains an open Euler walk starting from vertex A and ending at vertex B if and only if

- vertices A and B have odd degree; and
- all the other vertices have even degree.

#### **Theorem 2.7** (Euler Walk Theorem I – directed version).

A connected directed graph contains a *closed* Euler walk if and only if for *every* vertex the number of arrows pointing **in** is *equal* to the number of arrows pointing **out**.

#### **Theorem 2.8** (Euler Walk Theorem II – directed version).

A connected directed graph contains an open Euler walk starting from vertex A and ending at vertex B if and only if

- for vertex A, the number of arrows pointing out is exactly one more than the number of arrows pointing in;
- for vertex B, the number of arrows pointing in is exactly one more than the number of arrows pointing out;
- for all other vertices, the number of arrows pointing in is equal to the number of arrows pointing out.

#### **An algorithm** to construct an Euler circuit:

- (1) Make sure the graph is connected and all vertices are even.
- (2) Start anywhere. Construct a closed walk without repeated edges.
- (3) If the closed walk covers all edges, DONE.
- (4) If not, construct another closed walk without repeated edges and combine the two to get a bigger closed walk.
- (5) Repeat (4) and stop when all edges are used

#### Chinese Postman Problem:

Given a connected weighted graph or directed graph G, find the shortest circuit that uses each edge in G at least once.

The simplest case: This occurs when every vertex in the graph has even degree, for in this case an Euler circuit solves the problem. General case: Vertices of odd degree present

- 1. List all odd vertices
- 2. List all possible pairing of odd vertices
- 3. For each pairing, find paths that connect the vertices with the minimum weight. Find the pairings such that the sum of the weights is minimised.
- 4. On the original graph, add the edges that have been found in Step 3
- 5. The length of an optimal Chinese postman route is the sum of all the edges added to the total found in Step 4
- 6. A route corresponding to this minimum weight is an Euler circuit in the graph obtained in Step 5.

# 2.6 Vertex Coloring

Definition 2.19 (Proper Vertex Coloring).

A **proper vertex coloring** of a graph is an assignment of a color to each vertex of the graph in such a way that any two vertices that are adjacent have *different* colours.

### **Definition 2.20** (Minimal Proper Vertex Coloring).

We are interested in a proper vertex coloring of a given graph G using the smallest possible number of colors. Such a coloring is called a **minimal proper vertex coloring** of G.

The number of colors that occurs in a minimal proper vertex coloring is called the **chromatic** number of G, denoted by

$$\chi(G)$$

#### Definition 2.21 (Complete Graph).

The **complete graph** on n vertices is a graph on n vertices such that any two vertices are joined by an edge. It is denoted by  $K_n$ .

#### **Theorem 2.9** (Vertex Coloring Theorem).

If a graph G contains a complete graph on n vertices, then a proper vertex coloring of G must use at least n colors. Therefore,  $\chi(G) \geq n$ .

#### Definition 2.22 (Cycle Graph).

A cycle graph of length n is denoted by  $C_n$ .

#### Theorem 2.10 (Vertex Coloring Theorem II).

If a graph G contains a cycle graph  $C_n$  on n vertices where n is odd, then a proper vertex coloring of G must use at least 3 colours. Therefore,  $\chi(G) \geq 3$ .

### **Theorem 2.11** (Upper bound algorithm for $\chi$ ).

1. Arrange the degrees of a graph G in decreasing order:

$$d_1 \ge d_2 \ge d_3 \ge \cdots$$

2. Place the integers  $1, 2, 3, \ldots$  directly under these degrees until you reach an integer k such that  $k + 1 > d_{k+1}$ .

Then for this graph G, we have

$$\chi(G) \le k + 1$$

# 3 Clocking

## 3.1 Parity of integers

**Definition 3.1** (Parity).

Two integers are said to be of the same **parity** if they are either both odd or both even.

**Theorem 3.1** (Difference of integers of same parity).

If two integers are of the same parity, then their difference is an even integer.

## 3.2 Congreunce Equations

#### Definition 3.2.

Suppose a and b are integers such that their difference is a multiple of a positive integer n. Then we write

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

where n is called the modulus.

Theorem 3.2 (Properties of modulo arithematic).

If the remainder of a when divided by n is r, then

$$a \equiv r \pmod{n}$$

 $a \equiv bpmodn$  if and only if a and b have the same remainder when divided by n.

If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , then  $a \equiv b \pm n \pmod{n}$ .

Suppose  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , then

$$ka \equiv kb \pmod{n}$$

where k is a integer; and

$$a^p \equiv b^p \pmod{n}$$

where p is a positive integer.

Congruences are transitive in a sense that, if  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$  then

$$a \equiv c \pmod{n}$$

Two congruences with the same modulus can be added to each other or multiplied one by the other.

Suppose  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$  then

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$$
  
 $ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$ 

**Theorem 3.3** (Congruence mod 9).

Let S be the sum of digits of the decimal representation of the positive integer N. Then

$$N \equiv S \pmod{9}$$

Theorem 3.4 (Checking product).

Suppose  $A \times B = C$ , then

$$S \times T \equiv U \pmod{n}$$

where S,T,U are the sums of digits of A,B,C respectively.

# 4 Coding

# 4.1 Number representation System

Number representation systems are covered in CS2100 Revision Notes.

#### 4.2 Error Detection Code

**Definition 4.1** (Weighted Sum).

Given the sequence (or word)  $S_n S_{n-1} \cdots S_2 S_1$ , its **weighted sum** is the sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \times e_i$$

where  $e_i$  is the numerical value which corresponds to the symbol  $S_i$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ .

**Theorem 4.1** (Encoding Procedure Modulo 37).

Input: A sequence  $\mathbf{S} = S_n S_{n-1} \cdots S_2, n \leq 36$ .

1. Find the check digit c such that

$$w(e_n e_{n-1} \cdots e_2 c) \equiv 0 \mod 37$$

where w denotes the weighted sum.

2. Find the symbol  $S_1$  that corresponds to c.

Output: The encoded sequence is

$$S_n S_{n-1} \cdots S_2 S_1$$

Definition 4.2 (Error).

A word is said to contain k errors if k of its letters are erroneous.

Theorem 4.2 (Error Detection).

If A is a correctly encoded word, and during transmission, some errors occur and the word A' is received. The errors in A' is said to be detected if its weighted sum

$$w(A') \not\equiv 0 \mod 37$$

**Theorem 4.3.** In weighted sum encoding modulo 37, if a single error occurs, then it can be detected.

Theorem 4.4. Weighted sum modulo 37 can detect a transposition error.