CMPT 210: Probability and Computing

Lecture 5

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Pigeonhole principle

Q: A drawer in a dark room contains red socks, green socks, and blue socks. How many socks must you withdraw to be sure that you have a matching pair?

Such problems can be tackled using the Pigeonhole principle.

Pigeonhole Principle: If there are more pigeons than holes they occupy, then there must be at least two pigeons in the same hole.

Formally, if $|A| > |B|$, then for every total function (one that has an assignment for every element in A), $f: A \rightarrow B$, there exist two different elements of A that are mapped by f to the same element of B.

For the above problem, A = set of socks we picked = pigeons, B = set of colors {red, blue, green} = pigeonholes. $|A|$ = number of socks we picked. $|B| = 3$. $f : A \rightarrow B$ s.t. f (sock we $picked) = it's color.$

If there are more pigeons than holes (picked socks than colors), then at least two pigeons will be in the same hole (two of the picked socks will have the same color, and we get a matching pair). Hence, to ensure a matching pair, we need to pick 4 socks. 1 Q: A class has 54 students. Prove that there exist at least 2 students with their birthday in the same week.

Ans: 54 students $=$ pigeons. 52 weeks $=$ pigeonholes.

 $Q:$ In the set of integers $\{1, 2, \ldots, 100\}$, use the pigeonhole principle to prove that there exist two numbers whose difference is a multiple of 41.

Ans: $\{1, 2, \ldots, 100\}$ = pigeons, $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots, 40\}$ = holes, $f : \{1, 2, \ldots, 100\}$ $\rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, \ldots, 40\}$ s.t. $f(n) = n$ mod 41 i.e. $f(n)$ returns the remainder after dividing by 41. Since |pigeons| > |holes|, there exist 2 numbers a, b that have the same remainder after dividing by 41. Let the remainder be r, then $a = 41m_1 + r$ and $b = 41m_2 + r$ where m_1 , m_2 are integers. $a - b = 41(m_1 - m_2)$. Hence, $a - b$ is a multiple of 41.

Pigeonhole principle - Example

A kind of problem that arises in cryptography is to find different subsets of numbers with the same sum. For example, in this list of 25-digit numbers, find a subset of numbers that have the same sum. For example, maybe the sum of the last ten numbers in the first column is equal to the sum of the first eleven numbers in the second column.

This is a hard problem which is why it is used in cryptography. The first step to figure out is whether there even exists such a subset of numbers. We can do this using the pigeonhole principle!

Pigeonhole principle - Example

Q: More generally, in a list of n b-digit numbers, are there two different subsets of numbers that have the same sum?

Let $A =$ set of all subsets of the *n* numbers. For example, if $b = 3$, an element of A is ${13, 221}. |A| = 2^n$

Let B be the set of possible sums of such subsets. f is a function that maps each subset to its corresponding sum. For example, if $b = 3$, $f({113, 221}) = 334$.

Let us compute |B|. For any list of n numbers, the minimum possible sum = 0 and the max possible sum $\langle 10^b \times n$. For example, if $b = 3$ and $n = 5$, then the maximum possible sum = 999 \times 5 $<$ 1000 \times 5. Hence, $|B|$ $<$ 10^b \times n.

By the pigeonhole principle, for any list of n b-digit numbers, there definitely exist different subsets with the same sum if $|A| > |B|$ i.e. if $2^n > 10^b \times n$.

For $b = 3$, this is possible if $2ⁿ > 1000n$, meaning this is possible if $n \log(2) > 3 + \log(n)$ (since log is a monotonic function). Let's plot.

Pigeonhole - Example

Hence, it is possible when $n > 15$. Similarly, for a general b, there exist different subsets with the same sum if $n \log(2) > b + \log(n)$.

Questions?

Q: Suppose we throw a standard dice. What is the probability that the number that comes up is 6?

What are the possible things that can happen? The dice comes up one of the numbers in ${1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}.$

What are the things that we care about? Getting a 6.

In how many ways can this happen? Just one.

Probability of getting a $6 = \frac{\text{Number of ways in which the thing we care about happens}}{\text{Total number of ways in which something can happen}} = \frac{1}{6}$.

Q: Suppose we throw a standard dice. What is the probability that we get either a 3 or a 6? What are the possible *outcomes* that can happen? The dice comes up one of the numbers in ${1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}.$

What is the event that we care about? Getting either a 3 or 6.

In how many ways can this *event* happen? Two (the dice comes 3 or 6).

Probability of getting either a 3 or a $6 = \frac{\text{Number of ways in which the event we care about happens}}{\text{Total number of outcomes}} = \frac{2}{6}$.

Q: Suppose we throw two standard dice one after the other. What is the probability that we get two 6's in a row?

What are the possible outcomes that can happen? The first dice comes up one of the numbers in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, the second dice comes up one of the numbers in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

If we consider both dice together, what are the possible outcomes – first dice is 1, second dice is 1; first is 1, second is 2, and so on. Let us write this compactly. The space of outcomes is $\{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), \ldots, (6, 6)\}.$

What is the size of this *outcome space*? 36 (By the product rule)

What is the event that we care about? Getting (6, 6).

In how many ways can this happen? One (both die need to come up 6).

Probability of getting two 6's in a row $=$ $\frac{\text{Number of ways in which the event we care about happens}}{\text{outcome space}} = \frac{1}{36}$.

Sample (outcome) space S: Nonempty (countable) set of possible outcomes. *Example:* When we threw one dice, the sample space is $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$. When we threw two die, the sample space is $\{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), \ldots\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \times \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ (using the relation between sets and sequences).

The sample space is not necessarily numbers. *Example*: If we are randomly choosing colors from the rainbow, then $S = \{$ violet, indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange, red $\}$.

Outcome $\omega \in \mathcal{S}$: Possible "thing" that can happen. Example: When we threw one dice, a possible outcome is $\omega = 1$. For the rainbow example, the color "red" is a possible outcome.

Event E: Any subset of the sample space. *Example:* When we threw one dice, a possible event is $E = \{6\}$ (first example) or $E = \{3, 6\}$ (second example). When we threw two die, a possible event is $E = \{(6, 6)\}.$

An event E "happens" if the outcome ω (from some process) is in set E i.e. if $\omega \in E$.

Since the event E is a set, all the set theory we learned is useful!

Suppose E, F are two events in S. Define the union $E \cup F$ to consist of outcomes that are either in E or F (this is just the definition of the union of two sets). Formally,

 $G = E \cup F = {\omega | \omega \in E \text{ OR } \omega \in F}.$

Another way to interpret this is to say event G occurs if either event E or event F occurs.

Example: We considered the case where we threw one dice and cared about getting either 3 or 6. In this case, event G happens if we get either 3 or 6. Formally, $E = \{3\}$, $F = \{6\}$, $G = E \cup F = \{3, 6\}$. And G occurs when the number that shows up is either 3 or 6.

Can define union between more than two events in the same way we defined union between more than two sets. $G = E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \dots E_n$. G happens when at least one of the events E_i happen.