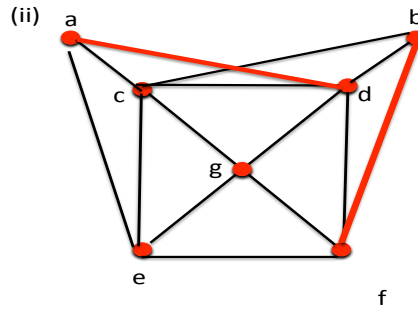
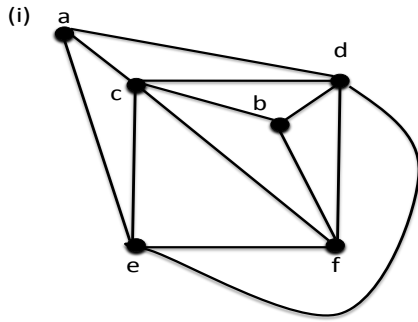


1. Graph Theory.

(a) State Kuratowski's theorem.

A graph is planar if and only if it contains no  $K_3$  nor  $K_{5,5}$  minor.

(b) Explain whether or not each of the following two graphs is planar.



The first graph is planar, the second is not. A planar drawing of the first graph is shown, as is a  $K_{5,5}$  minor of the second graph.

## 2. Graph Theory.

(a) *State Hall's Theorem.*

A bipartite graph with  $|X| = |Y|$  is planar if and only if  $|\Gamma(A)| \geq |A|$  for all  $A \subseteq X$ .

(b) *Let  $\pi_1\pi_2 \cdots \pi_n$  be a permutation of the numbers  $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ . Suppose that the degree of  $x_i$  is  $\pi_i$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Does  $G$  contain a perfect matching?*

No, because some vertex has degree zero!

(c) *Let  $\pi_1\pi_2 \cdots \pi_n$  be a permutation of the numbers  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . Suppose that the degree of  $x_i$  is  $\pi_i$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Does  $G$  contain a perfect matching?*

Yes. Take any  $A \subseteq X$ , wlog  $A = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r\}$ . Each vertex has a distinct degree in  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , so at least one vertex  $x_j \in A$  has degree at least  $r$ . So

$$|\Gamma(A)| \geq |\Gamma(\{x_j\})| \geq r = |A|$$

So Halls condition is satisfied.

(d) *Let  $\pi_1\pi_2 \cdots \pi_n$  be a permutation of the numbers  $\{n+1, n+2, \dots, 2n\}$ . Suppose that the degree of  $x_i$  is  $(\pi_i - i)$  for each  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Does  $G$  contain a perfect matching?*

Yes. Observe that the maximum degree of any node is  $n$ . But  $2n - i > n$  unless  $i = n$ . So it must be the case that  $\pi_n = 2n$  and  $\deg(x_n) = n$ . But then it must be the case that  $\pi_{n-1} = 2n - 1$  and so  $\deg(x_{n-1}) = (2n - 1) - (n - 1) = n$ , etc. So the graph is  $n$ -regular and contains a perfect matching (in fact it can be decomposed into  $n$  disjoint perfect matchings).

### 3. Probability.

- (a) i. *State Bayes Theorem.*

For any two events  $A$  and  $B$ :

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A|B) \cdot P(B)}{P(A)}$$

- ii. *A large company gives a new employee a drug test. The False-Positive rate is 1% and the False-Negative rate is 1%. In addition, 1% of the population use the drug. The employee tests positive for the drug. What is the probability the employee uses the drug?*

Let  $T$  be the event an employee tests positive, and let  $U$  be the event they are a drug-user. So we want to calculate  $P(U|T)$ . Then  $P(U) = 0.01$ ,  $P(T|\bar{U}) = 0.01$ . In addition,  $P(\bar{T}|U) = 0.01$  so  $P(T|U) = 0.99$ . Applying Bayes rule,

$$\begin{aligned} P(U|T) &= \frac{P(T|U) \cdot P(U)}{P(T)} \\ &= \frac{P(T|U) \cdot P(U)}{P(T|U) \cdot P(U) + P(T|\bar{U}) \cdot P(\bar{U})} \\ &= \frac{\frac{99}{100} \cdot \frac{1}{100}}{\frac{99}{100} \cdot \frac{1}{100} + \frac{1}{100} \cdot \frac{99}{100}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

- (b) *Suppose I roll an  $n$ -sided die once. Now you repeatedly roll the die until you roll a number at least as large as I rolled. What is the expected number of rolls you have to make?*

With probability  $\frac{1}{n}$  I roll an  $i$ . If I roll  $i$  the the probability that you get at least that much in any roll is  $\frac{n-i+1}{n}$ . Thus, the expected number of rolls you require in that instance  $\frac{n}{n-i+1}$ . So your expected number of rolls is

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{n}{n-i+1} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n-i+1} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} \\ &= H_n \end{aligned}$$

#### 4. Probability.

- (a) i. *State Boole's Inequality.*  
 ii. *State the Chernoff bound.*

Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be independent poisson trials with  $P(X_i = 1) = p_i$ . If  $X = \sum_i X_i$  and  $\mu = E(X)$  then

$$P(X > (1 + \delta)\mu) \leq \left( \frac{e^\delta}{(1 + \delta)^{(1+\delta)}} \right)^\mu \quad \forall \delta > 0$$

There are several other variations. The following is useful for part (b)

$$P(X < (1 - \delta)\mu) \leq e^{-\frac{1}{2}\mu\delta^2} \quad \forall 1 > \delta > 0$$

- (b) *In a random graph, for each pair of vertices  $i$  and  $j$ , we independently include the edge  $(i, j)$  in the graph with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ .*

- i. *Prove that, with high probability, every vertex in a random graph has degree at least  $\frac{1}{2}n - 3\sqrt{n \ln n}$ , where  $n + 1$  is the number of vertices.*

Here  $\mu = \frac{1}{2}n$  as a vertex has  $(n + 1) - 1$  potential neighbours. By Chernoff

$$\begin{aligned} P(X < \frac{1}{2}n - 3\sqrt{n \ln n}) &= P(X < \mu - 6\mu \frac{\sqrt{\ln n}}{\sqrt{n}}) \\ &= P(X < (1 - 6\frac{\sqrt{\ln n}}{\sqrt{n}})\mu) \\ &\leq e^{-\frac{1}{2}\mu 36 \frac{\ln n}{n}} \\ &= e^{-9 \ln n} \\ &= n^{-9} \end{aligned}$$

By Boole's inequality every vertex has at least this degree with probability  $(n + 1) \frac{1}{n^9} \approx n^{-8}$ .

- ii. *The distance between a pair of vertices  $i$  and  $j$  is the length of the shortest path between them. The diameter of a graph is the maximum distance between any pair of vertices. Prove that, with high probability, a random graph has diameter 2.*

Take any pair  $i$  and  $j$ . There are  $n - 1$  other vertices  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_{n-1}$ . These induce  $n - 1$  disjoint paths  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_{n-1}$  of length 2, that is paths of the form  $P_k = \{i, v_k, j\}$ . Each independently appears in the random graph with probability  $\frac{1}{4}$ . The length one path  $(i, j)$  is so with probability at most  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot (\frac{3}{4})^{n-1} \leq (\frac{3}{4})^n$  we have  $i$  and  $j$  more than distance two apart. There are less than  $n^2$  vertex pairs so by Boole's inequality the diameter is at most 2 with probability at most a tiny

$$n^2 \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^n$$

## 5. Combinatorics.

- (a) i. Use the Binomial Theorem to prove the following identity:

$$3^n = \sum_{k=0}^n 2^k \binom{n}{k}$$

The Binomial Theorem is

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$

Plugging in  $x = 2$  and  $y = 1$  gives the result.

- ii. Give a combinatorial proof.

The LHS counts the number of ways  $n$  elements can be coloured using three colours red/green/blue.

So does the RHS:  $\binom{n}{k}$  is the number of ways to pick the  $k$  elements that will **not** be coloured blue.  $2^k$  then is the number of ways to colour these red or green. Summing over all  $k$  thus also enumerates all possible 3-colourings.

- (b) i. Give an algebraic proof of the following identity:

$$k \binom{n}{k} = n \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$

This follows because

$$\begin{aligned} k \binom{n}{k} &= k \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \\ &= \frac{n \cdot (n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} \\ &= n \binom{n-1}{k-1} \end{aligned}$$

- ii. Give a combinatorial proof.

The LHS counts the number of ways to pick  $k$  elements from an  $n$ -set and to colour one of them red.

So does the RHS. First pick one of the  $n$  elements to be in the  $k$ -set and colour it red. Next pick another  $(k-1)$  elements from amongst the remaining  $(n-1)$  elements.

## 6. Combinatorics.

Consider strings of length  $n$  that use the digits  $\{0, 1, 2\}$ . Let  $f(n)$  be the number of such strings that contain an even number of 0s.

- (a) Prove that  $f(n)$  satisfies the recurrence relation  $f(n) = f(n-1) + 3^{n-1}$ .

Let  $g(n)$  be the number of such sequences with an odd number of 0s. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(n) &= 2 \cdot f(n-1) + 1 \cdot g(n-1) \\ &= 2 \cdot f(n-1) + 1 \cdot (3^{n-1} - f(n-1)) \\ &= f(n-1) + 3^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

To see this, either 1 or 2 can be the  $n$ th digit if the first  $n-1$  digits contain an even number of zeros, but only 0 can be the  $n$ th digit if the first  $n-1$  digits contain an odd number of zeros.

- (b) Use the recurrence to find the ordinary generating function  $F(x)$ .

The base cases are  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f(1) = 2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= \sum_{n \geq 0} f(n)x^n \\ &= 1 + \sum_{n \geq 1} f(n)x^n \\ &= 1 + \sum_{n \geq 1} (f(n-1) + 3^{n-1})x^n \\ &= 1 + \sum_{n \geq 1} f(n-1)x^n + \sum_{n \geq 1} 3^{n-1}x^n \\ &= 1 + x \sum_{n \geq 0} f(n)x^n + x \sum_{n \geq 0} 3^n x^n \\ &= 1 + xF(x) + \frac{x}{1-3x} \end{aligned}$$

Rearranging gives

$$F(x) = \frac{1-2x}{(1-x)(1-3x)}$$

- (c) Use the generating function to obtain a closed formula for  $f(n)$ .

By partial fractions

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= \frac{1-2x}{(1-x)(1-3x)} \\ &= \frac{A}{1-x} + \frac{B}{1-3x} \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1-x} + \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1-3x} \end{aligned}$$

This follows as  $A(1 - 3x) + B(1 - x) = 1 - 2x$  and so  $A + B = 1$  and  $3A + B = 2$ .  
Thus

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + x + x^2 + \cdots) + \frac{1}{2}(1 + 3x + (3x)^2 + \cdots)$$

So

$$f(n) = \frac{1}{2}(1 + 3^n)$$