

77. How many diagonals does a convex polygon with n sides have? (Recall that a polygon is convex if every line segment connecting two points in the interior or boundary of the polygon lies entirely within this set and that a diagonal of a polygon is a line segment connecting two vertices that are not adjacent.)
78. Data are transmitted over the Internet in **datagrams**, which are structured blocks of bits. Each datagram contains header information organized into a maximum of 14 different fields (specifying many things, including the source and destination addresses) and a data area that contains the actual data that are transmitted. One of the 14 header fields is the **header length field** (denoted by HLEN), which is specified by the protocol to be 4 bits long and that specifies the header length in terms of 32-bit blocks of bits. For example, if $\text{HLEN} = 0110$, the header is made up of six 32-bit blocks. Another of the 14 header fields is the 16-bit-long **total length field** (denoted

by TOTAL LENGTH), which specifies the length in bits of the entire datagram, including both the header fields and the data area. The length of the data area is the total length of the datagram minus the length of the header.

- The largest possible value of TOTAL LENGTH (which is 16 bits long) determines the maximum total length in octets (blocks of 8 bits) of an Internet datagram. What is this value?
- The largest possible value of HLEN (which is 4 bits long) determines the maximum total header length in 32-bit blocks. What is this value? What is the maximum total header length in octets?
- The minimum (and most common) header length is 20 octets. What is the maximum total length in octets of the data area of an Internet datagram?
- How many different strings of octets in the data area can be transmitted if the header length is 20 octets and the total length is as long as possible?

6.2 The Pigeonhole Principle

6.2.1 Introduction

Links

Suppose that a flock of 20 pigeons flies into a set of 19 pigeonholes to roost. Because there are 20 pigeons but only 19 pigeonholes, a least one of these 19 pigeonholes must have at least two pigeons in it. To see why this is true, note that if each pigeonhole had at most one pigeon in it, at most 19 pigeons, one per hole, could be accommodated. This illustrates a general principle called the **pigeonhole principle**, which states that if there are more pigeons than pigeonholes, then there must be at least one pigeonhole with at least two pigeons in it (see Figure 1). This principle is extremely useful; it applies to much more than pigeons and pigeonholes.

THEOREM 1

THE PIGEONHOLE PRINCIPLE If k is a positive integer and $k + 1$ or more objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing two or more of the objects.

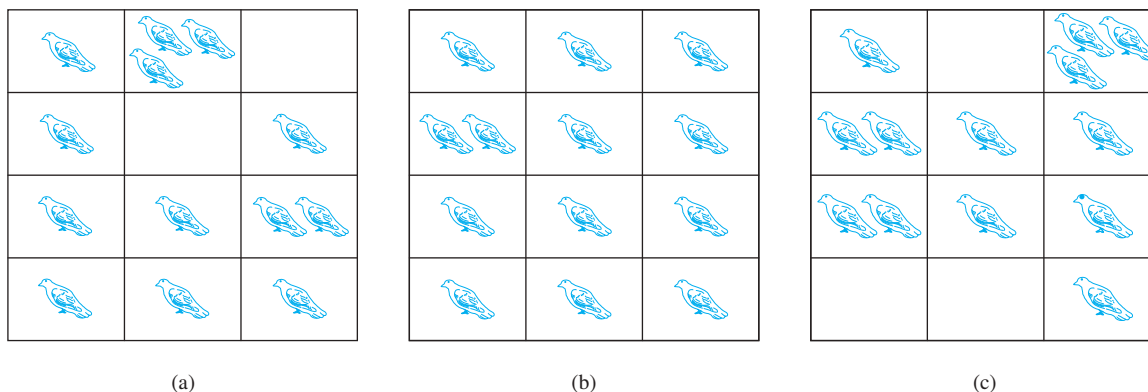


FIGURE 1 There are more pigeons than pigeonholes.

Proof: We prove the pigeonhole principle using a proof by contraposition. Suppose that none of the k boxes contains more than one object. Then the total number of objects would be at most k . This is a contradiction, because there are at least $k + 1$ objects. ◀

The pigeonhole principle is also called the **Dirichlet drawer principle**, after the nineteenth-century German mathematician G. Lejeune Dirichlet, who often used this principle in his work. (Dirichlet was not the first person to use this principle; a demonstration that there were at least two Parisians with the same number of hairs on their heads dates back to the 17th century—see Exercise 35.) It is an important additional proof technique supplementing those we have developed in earlier chapters. We introduce it in this chapter because of its many important applications to combinatorics.

We will illustrate the usefulness of the pigeonhole principle. We first show that it can be used to prove a useful corollary about functions.

COROLLARY 1

A function f from a set with $k + 1$ or more elements to a set with k elements is not one-to-one.

Proof: Suppose that for each element y in the codomain of f we have a box that contains all elements x of the domain of f such that $f(x) = y$. Because the domain contains $k + 1$ or more elements and the codomain contains only k elements, the pigeonhole principle tells us that one of these boxes contains two or more elements x of the domain. This means that f cannot be one-to-one. ◀

Examples 1–3 show how the pigeonhole principle is used.

EXAMPLE 1 Among any group of 367 people, there must be at least two with the same birthday, because there are only 366 possible birthdays. ▶

EXAMPLE 2 In any group of 27 English words, there must be at least two that begin with the same letter, because there are 26 letters in the English alphabet. ▶

EXAMPLE 3 How many students must be in a class to guarantee that at least two students receive the same score on the final exam, if the exam is graded on a scale from 0 to 100 points?

Solution: There are 101 possible scores on the final. The pigeonhole principle shows that among any 102 students there must be at least 2 students with the same score. ▶

Links



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G. LEJEUNE DIRICHLET (1805–1859) G. Lejeune Dirichlet was born into a Belgian family living near Cologne, Germany. His father was a postmaster. He became passionate about mathematics at a young age. He was spending all his spare money on mathematics books by the time he entered secondary school in Bonn at the age of 12. At 14 he entered the Jesuit College in Cologne, and at 16 he began his studies at the University of Paris. In 1825 he returned to Germany and was appointed to a position at the University of Breslau. In 1828 he moved to the University of Berlin. In 1855 he was chosen to succeed Gauss at the University of Göttingen. Dirichlet is said to be the first person to master Gauss's *Disquisitiones Arithmeticae*, which appeared 20 years earlier. He is said to have kept a copy at his side even when he traveled. Dirichlet made many important discoveries in number theory, including the theorem that there are infinitely many primes in arithmetical progressions $an + b$ when a and b are relatively prime. He proved the $n = 5$ case of Fermat's last theorem, that there are no nontrivial solutions in integers to $x^5 + y^5 = z^5$. Dirichlet

also made many contributions to analysis. Dirichlet was considered to be an excellent teacher who could explain ideas with great clarity. He was married to Rebecka Mendelssohn, one of the sisters of the composer Felix Mendelssohn.

The pigeonhole principle is a useful tool in many proofs, including proofs of surprising results, such as that given in Example 4.

EXAMPLE 4 Show that for every integer n there is a multiple of n that has only 0s and 1s in its decimal expansion.

Extra Examples 

Solution: Let n be a positive integer. Consider the $n + 1$ integers 1, 11, 111, ..., 11 ... 1 (where the last integer in this list is the integer with $n + 1$ 1s in its decimal expansion). Note that there are n possible remainders when an integer is divided by n . Because there are $n + 1$ integers in this list, by the pigeonhole principle there must be two with the same remainder when divided by n . The larger of these integers less the smaller one is a multiple of n , which has a decimal expansion consisting entirely of 0s and 1s. 


6.2.2 The Generalized Pigeonhole Principle

The pigeonhole principle states that there must be at least two objects in the same box when there are more objects than boxes. However, even more can be said when the number of objects exceeds a multiple of the number of boxes. For instance, among any set of 21 decimal digits there must be 3 that are the same. This follows because when 21 objects are distributed into 10 boxes, one box must have more than 2 objects.

THEOREM 2 **THE GENERALIZED PIGEONHOLE PRINCIPLE** If N objects are placed into k boxes, then there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/k \rceil$ objects.

Proof: We will use a proof by contraposition. Suppose that none of the boxes contains more than $\lceil N/k \rceil - 1$ objects. Then, the total number of objects is at most

$$k \left(\left\lceil \frac{N}{k} \right\rceil - 1 \right) < k \left(\left(\frac{N}{k} + 1 \right) - 1 \right) = N,$$

where the inequality $\lceil N/k \rceil < (N/k) + 1$ has been used. Thus, the total number of objects is less than N . This completes the proof by contraposition. 

A common type of problem asks for the minimum number of objects such that at least r of these objects must be in one of k boxes when these objects are distributed among the boxes. When we have N objects, the generalized pigeonhole principle tells us there must be at least r objects in one of the boxes as long as $\lceil N/k \rceil \geq r$. The smallest integer N with $N/k > r - 1$, namely, $N = k(r - 1) + 1$, is the smallest integer satisfying the inequality $\lceil N/k \rceil \geq r$. Could a smaller value of N suffice? The answer is no, because if we had $k(r - 1)$ objects, we could put $r - 1$ of them in each of the k boxes and no box would have at least r objects.


When thinking about problems of this type, it is useful to consider how you can avoid having at least r objects in one of the boxes as you add successive objects. To avoid adding a r th object to any box, you eventually end up with $r - 1$ objects in each box. There is no way to add the next object without putting an r th object in that box.

Examples 5–8 illustrate how the generalized pigeonhole principle is applied.

EXAMPLE 5 Among 100 people there are at least $\lceil 100/12 \rceil = 9$ who were born in the same month. 

EXAMPLE 6 What is the minimum number of students required in a discrete mathematics class to be sure that at least six will receive the same grade, if there are five possible grades, A, B, C, D, and F?

Extra Examples 


Solution: The minimum number of students needed to ensure that at least six students receive the same grade is the smallest integer N such that $\lceil N/5 \rceil = 6$. The smallest such integer is $N = 5 \cdot 5 + 1 = 26$. If you have only 25 students, it is possible for there to be five who have received each grade so that no six students have received the same grade. Thus, 26 is the minimum number of students needed to ensure that at least six students will receive the same grade. 

EXAMPLE 7

- a) How many cards must be selected from a standard deck of 52 cards to guarantee that at least three cards of the same suit are selected?
 b) How many must be selected from a standard deck of 52 cards to guarantee that at least three hearts are selected?


A standard deck of 52 cards has 13 kinds of cards, with four cards of each of kind, one in each of the four suits, hearts, diamonds, spades, and clubs.

Solution: a) Suppose there are four boxes, one for each suit, and as cards are selected they are placed in the box reserved for cards of that suit. Using the generalized pigeonhole principle, we see that if N cards are selected, there is at least one box containing at least $\lceil N/4 \rceil$ cards. Consequently, we know that at least three cards of one suit are selected if $\lceil N/4 \rceil \geq 3$. The smallest integer N such that $\lceil N/4 \rceil \geq 3$ is $N = 2 \cdot 4 + 1 = 9$, so nine cards suffice. Note that if eight cards are selected, it is possible to have two cards of each suit, so more than eight cards are needed. Consequently, nine cards must be selected to guarantee that at least three cards of one suit are chosen. One good way to think about this is to note that after the eighth card is chosen, there is no way to avoid having a third card of some suit.

b) We do not use the generalized pigeonhole principle to answer this question, because we want to make sure that there are three hearts, not just three cards of one suit. Note that in the worst case, we can select all the clubs, diamonds, and spades, 39 cards in all, before we select a single heart. The next three cards will be all hearts, so we may need to select 42 cards to get three hearts. 

EXAMPLE 8

What is the least number of area codes needed to guarantee that the 25 million phones in a state can be assigned distinct 10-digit telephone numbers? (Assume that telephone numbers are of the form $NXX-NXX-XXXX$, where the first three digits form the area code, N represents a digit from 2 to 9 inclusive, and X represents any digit.)

Solution: There are eight million different phone numbers of the form $NXX-XXXX$ (as shown in Example 8 of Section 6.1). Hence, by the generalized pigeonhole principle, among 25 million telephones, at least $\lceil 25,000,000/8,000,000 \rceil = 4$ of them must have identical phone numbers. Hence, at least four area codes are required to ensure that all 10-digit numbers are different. 

Example 9, although not an application of the generalized pigeonhole principle, makes use of similar principles.

EXAMPLE 9

Suppose that a computer science laboratory has 15 workstations and 10 servers. A cable can be used to directly connect a workstation to a server. For each server, only one direct connection to that server can be active at any time. We want to guarantee that at any time any set of 10 or fewer workstations can simultaneously access different servers via direct connections. Although we could do this by connecting every workstation directly to every server (using 150 connections), what is the minimum number of direct connections needed to achieve this goal?

Solution: Suppose that we label the workstations W_1, W_2, \dots, W_{15} and the servers S_1, S_2, \dots, S_{10} . First, we would like to find a way for there to be far fewer than 150 direct connections between workstations and servers to achieve our goal. One promising approach is to directly connect W_k to S_k for $k = 1, 2, \dots, 10$ and then to connect each of $W_{11}, W_{12}, W_{13}, W_{14},$ and W_{15} to all