

### Integers, divisors, primes

Set of integers  $\mathbb{Z} = \{-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$

Let  $a, b$  be two integers. we say  $a$  divides  $b$  if  $a$  is a divisor of  $b$ , if  $b$  is a multiple of  $a$ , if there exists an integer  $m$  such that  $b = a \cdot m$

we notate this as  $a/b$

Ex  $2/6$

If  $a$  doesn't divide  $b$  then we write  $a/b$ . Then,  $a$  will divide  $b$  with a remainder. The remainder  $r$  of the division  $b:a$  is an integer that satisfies  $0 \leq r < a$ . If the quotient of the division with remainder is  $q$ , we have  $b = a \cdot q + r$

Results  $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, 1/a, -1/a$   
 $a/a$  and  $-a/a$

②  $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z} \quad 2/a \rightarrow a \rightarrow \text{even}$   
 $2 \nmid a \rightarrow a \rightarrow \text{odd}$

Prove that if  $a/b$  and  $b/c$  then  $a/c$

If  $a/b$  then  $b = a \cdot m, m \in \mathbb{Z}$

If  $b/c$  then  $c = b \cdot n, n \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$c = a \cdot m \cdot n$$

Then  $a/c$

② Prove that every integer  $a$  and for any positive integer  $n$ ,  $a-1/a^n-1$

Using induction on  $n$ ,

Base case  $n=1$   $a-1/a-1$  YES!

Inductive step Assume  $a-1/a^k-1$ . Show that  $a-1/a^{k+1}-1$

If  $a-1/a^k-1$  then  $a^k-1=(a-1) \cdot c$   $c \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\begin{aligned}a^{k+1}-1 &= (a^k-1)a + a-1 \\&= (a^k-1)a + (a-1) \\&= \underbrace{(a-1) \cdot c \cdot a}_{a^k-1} + (a-1)\end{aligned}$$

$$a^{k+1}-1 = (a-1)(ca+1)$$

$$a-1/a^{k+1}-1$$

23/11/2018

## ~ PRIME NUMBERS ~

An integer  $p > 1$  is called a prime if it is NOT divisible by any integer other than 1 and  $p$ .

2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13 are prime numbers.

$$24 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3$$

THM 8.1 Every positive integer can be written as the product of primes, and this factorization is unique.

Proof Proof by contradiction

Assume  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , and  $n$  can be written as a product of primes in two different ways

$$\textcircled{1} \quad n = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_m = q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_n$$

$$\prod_{i=1}^m p_i = \prod_{j=1}^n q_j$$

$p_i \neq q_j$  are primes

$$p_i = q_j$$

for all  $i, j$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad n = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_m = q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_n$$

$$p_1 = \frac{q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_n}{p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdots p_m}$$

$$\text{Since } \frac{q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_n}{p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdots p_m}$$



Prove that if  $p$  is a prime,  $a, b$  are integers, and  $p \mid ab$  then either  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$

If  $p \mid ab$  then  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$   $p$  is prime  $a, b$

Ex Suppose  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a \mid b$  and also  $p$  is a prime and  $p \mid b$  but  $p \nmid a$ . Show that  $p$  is a divisor of  $b/a$

If  $p \mid b$  then  $b = p \cdot x, x \in \mathbb{Z}$

If  $a \mid b$  then  $b = a \cdot y, y \in \mathbb{Z}$

Assume  $b = p \cdot q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_j$  where  $\forall i \geq 1, q_i$  is a prime

If  $p \nmid a$  then  $a = r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdots r_s$  where  $\forall i, r_i \neq p$  and  $r_i$  is a prime

$$\text{Now consider } \frac{b}{a} = \frac{p \cdot q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_j}{r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdots r_s}$$

If  $p \nmid a$  then  $a = q_{i_1} \cdot q_{i_2} \cdots q_{i_k}$  where  $q_{i_j} = q_j$  and  $k \leq j$

$$\text{Now consider } \frac{b}{a} = p \frac{q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_j}{q_{i_1} \cdot q_{i_2} \cdots q_{i_k}} = p \cdot m, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

$$p \mid \frac{a}{b}$$

30.11.2018

**THEOREM** There are infinitely many primes. (For any positive integer  $n$ , there is a prime larger than  $n$ .)

1<sup>st</sup> way Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  Consider  $n! + 1$ . Let  $p$  be a prime divisor of  $n! + 1$ , we will show that  $p > n$ .

Proof by Contradiction Assume  $p \leq n$ . If  $p \leq n$  then  $p | n!$

But we also know that  $p | n! + 1$

If  $p | n! + 1$  and  $p | n!$  then  $n! + 1 = p \cdot k \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

$$\begin{array}{r} n! = p \cdot l \quad l \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \\ \hline 1 = p(k - l) \end{array}$$

Therefore our assumption that  $p \leq n$  is  $1 = p(k - l)$  which cannot be true. false. Therefore,  $p > n$ .

2<sup>nd</sup> way Consider  $n! + 1$ .

① If  $n! + 1$  is prime then, we have found a prime larger than  $n$ .

② If  $n! + 1$  is composite (i.e. is NOT prime) show that it is not divisible to any number from 2 to  $n$ .

$$\text{Consider } n! + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$$

$$\text{Consider } n! + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$n! + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

\*  $n! + 1$  has a prime factor larger than  $n$ .

2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11  
k = 3

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24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30  
k = 5

$$n=3 \quad n!+2, n!+3 = 8, 9$$



30 / 11 / 2018

## ~ FERMAT'S LITTLE THEOREM ~

French mathematician Pierre de Fermat (1601-1655)

Theorem If  $p$  is prime and  $a$  is an integer, then  $p \mid a^p - a$   
 before proving the above theorem

LEMMA: If  $p$  is prime and  $1 \leq k < p$  then  $p \mid \binom{p}{k}$

Proof of lemma: Consider  $\binom{p}{k} = \frac{p!}{(p-k)! \cdot k!} = \frac{p(p-1) \dots (p-k+1)}{k(k-1) \dots 2 \cdot 1}$

$$\binom{p}{k} = p \cdot \underbrace{\frac{(p-1)(p-2) \dots (p-k+1)}{k(k-1) \dots 2 \cdot 1}}_{(A)}$$

$$(A) \therefore p \mid \binom{p}{k}$$

\* None of the integers in the denominator of  $A$  is divisible by  $p$ , because  $p$  is prime. But  $A$  is an integer. Therefore all integers in the denominator of  $A$  are divisible by integers in the numerator.  $A$  is the product of all prime factors of  $\binom{p}{k}$  other than " $p$ ". Thus  $p \mid \binom{p}{k}$

Proof by induction on a: Base case  $a=0$

$$p \mid 0^p - 0$$

$$0^p - 0 = 0$$

$$p \mid 0 \checkmark$$

Inductive Step: Assume  $p \mid k^p - k$ . Show that  $p \mid (k+1)^p - (k+1)$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Consider } (k+1)^p - (k+1) &= k^p + \binom{p}{2} k^{p-2} + \binom{p}{3} k^{p-3} + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} k + 1 - k - 1 \\ &= k^p - k + \underbrace{\binom{p}{2} k^{p-2} + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} k}_{(k+1)^p - k^p} \\ &= k^p - k + \binom{p}{2} k^{p-2} + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} k \end{aligned}$$

We know that  $p \mid k^p - k$

From lemma we've just proved, we know that  $\binom{p}{2}, \binom{p}{3}, \dots, \binom{p}{p-1}$

are all divisible by  $p$ . Therefore  $p \mid (k+1)^p - (k+1)$

RSA public-key cryptosystem (created in 1970's).



30/11/2018

## Euclidean Algorithm

- ① Greatest common divisor of two integers  $a, b$  is the largest integer that divides both  $a$  and  $b$ .

$$\gcd(6, 8) = 2$$

$$\gcd(3, 6) = 3$$

- ② Two integers  $a, b$  are relatively prime if  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$

- ③ Least common multiple of  $a, b$  is the smallest integer which is a multiple of both  $a$  and  $b$ .

$$\text{lcm}(6, 8) = 24$$

$$\text{lcm}(3, 6) = 6$$

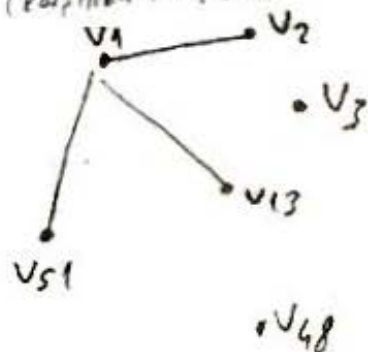
$$\gcd(12, 18) = 6$$

$$\text{lcm}(12, 18) = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 36$$

$$\begin{array}{cc|c} 12 & 18 & \textcircled{2} \\ 6 & 9 & \textcircled{3} \\ 2 & 3 & \textcircled{2} \\ 1 & 1 & \textcircled{3} \end{array} > 6$$

## ~ GRAPH THEORY ~

Prove that at a party with 51 people, there is always a person who knows an even number of others. (Assume that acquaintance is mutual)  
(karşılıklı tanışıklık)



PROOF Assume every person in the party knows an odd number of other people.

$\text{degree}(v_i)$  is the # of edges  $v_i$  has.

$\text{degree}(v_i)$  is the # of people  $v_i$  knows.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{51} \text{degree}(v_i) \text{ is an odd number}$$

Now, consider the # of edges in the graph.

$$2 \sum \text{edges} = \sum_{i=1}^{51} \text{degree}(v_i)$$

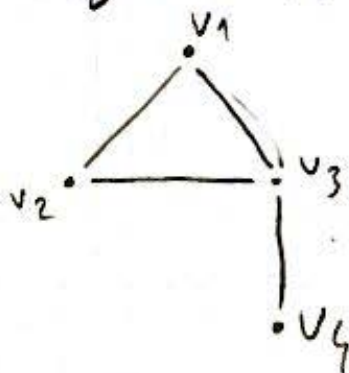
Therefore, we reached a contradiction

$\therefore$  Our assumption that every person in the party knows an odd # of other people is FALSE!

07/12/2018

A graph is a set of nodes (vertices) and some pairs of these vertices might be connected by edges. Thus,  $G = (V, E)$  where  $V$  is the set of vertices and  $E$  is the set of edges.

Edges can be denoted by two elements vertex sets, if they are not directed.



$$G = (V, E) \quad V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$$

$$E = \{\{v_1, v_2\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, \{v_3, v_4\}, \{v_1, v_3\}\}$$

$$d(v_1) = 2 \quad d(v_3) = 3$$

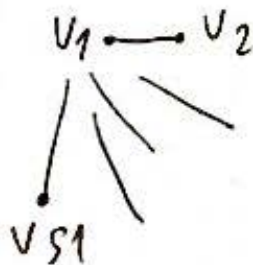
$$d(v_2) = 2 \quad d(v_4) = 1$$

The # of outgoing edges is the degree of a node.

### Question

Assume in the group of 51 people.

Everyone knows each other. What would be the sum of degree?



$$\underbrace{50 + 50 + 50 + \dots + 50}_{51}$$

$$51 \times 50 = 2550$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{51} d(v_i) = 51 \times 50$$

$$\text{Number of edges} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{51} d(v_i)$$

$$\frac{51 \times 50}{2} = 1275$$



Question If a graph has an odd number of vertices, then the # of nodes with an odd degree is even.

Let  $V_{\text{even}}$  be the vertices with an even degree.

Let  $V_{\text{odd}}$  be the vertices with an odd degree.

$$V = V_{\text{even}} \cup V_{\text{odd}}$$

$$\sum_{v \in V_{\text{even}}} d(v) \text{ is even}$$

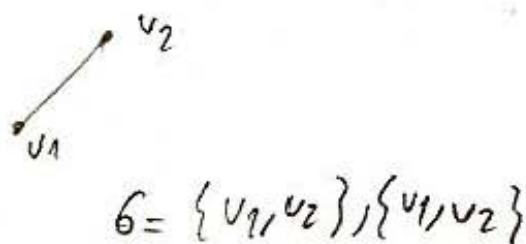
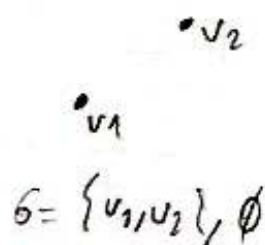
$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) \text{ is even}$$

$$\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = \sum_{v \in V_{\text{even}}} d(v) + \sum_{v \in V_{\text{odd}}} d(v)$$

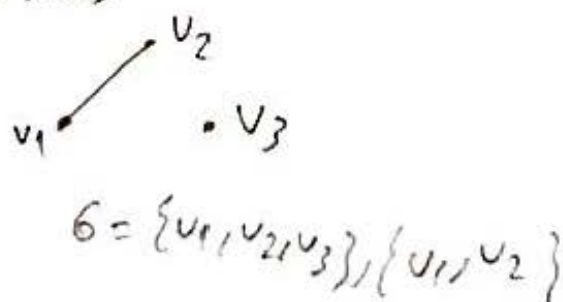
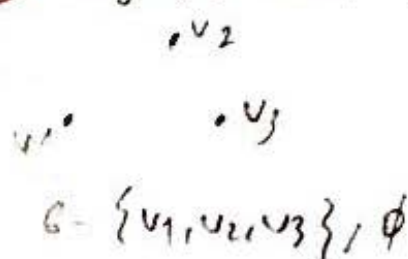
even                  even                  even

$$\sum_{v \in V_{\text{odd}}} d(v) \text{ is even}$$

① All graphs with 2 vertices

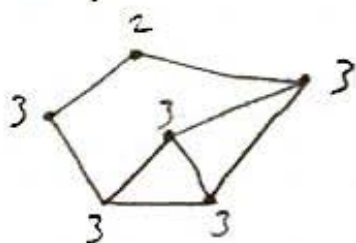


② All graphs with 3 vertices



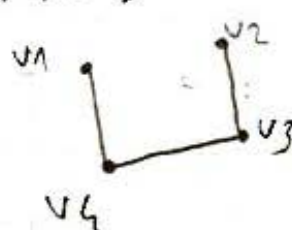
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\* Is there a graph on 6 vertices, with degrees 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3 ? NO!



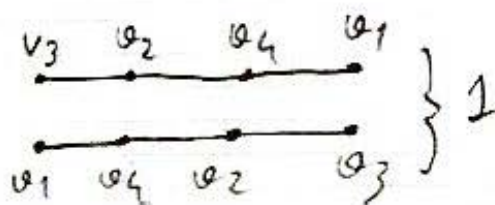
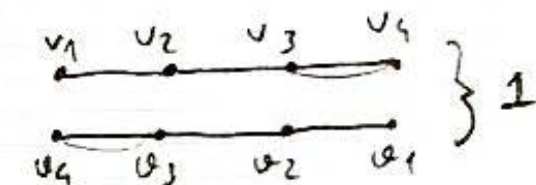
Because sum of all degrees should be even number

\* How many graphs are there on 4 vertices with degrees 1, 1, 2, 2 ?



$$V = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$$

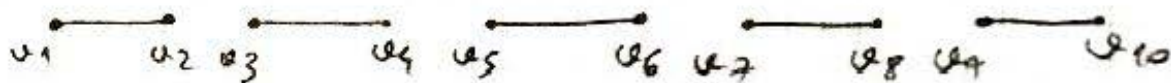
$$E = (\{v_1, v_4\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, \{v_4, v_3\})$$



$$4! = 24$$

$$\frac{24}{2} = 12 //$$

\* How many graphs are there with 10 vertices, with degrees 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1?



$$9 \times 7 \times 5 \times 3 \times 1 = 945 //$$

1, 1, 1, 1

$$3 \times 1 = 3$$

\* An empty graph is a graph with no edges

\* A complete graph (or a clique) with  $n$  vertices has  $\binom{n}{2}$  edges.  $\binom{n}{2} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$

Proof  $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

$v_1$	degree	$n-1$
$v_2$		$n-1$
$\vdots$		
$v_n$		$n-1$
		<hr/>
		$n(n-1)$

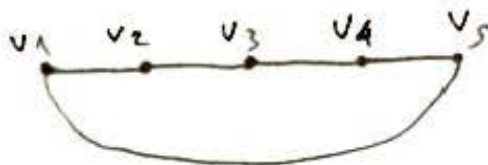
$v_1$  will have  $n-1$  new edges incident

$$\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$



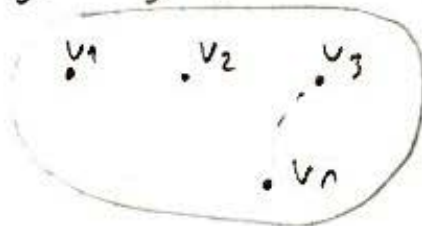
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- \* Let us draw  $n$  nodes in a row and connect the consecutive ones by an edge. The graph has  $n-1$  edges and is called a path. The first and last nodes (vertices) are the endpoints of the path. If we connect the endpoints as well, we get a cycle.

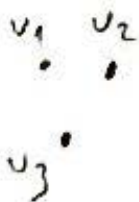


- \* A graph  $H$  is called a subgraph of  $G$  if it can be obtained from  $G$  by deleting some of its edges and nodes.

Ex How many subgraphs does an empty graph on  $n$  nodes are there?



$$2^n - 1$$



$v_1$   
 $v_2$   
 $v_3$   
 $v_1-v_2$   
 $v_1-v_3$   
 $v_2-v_3$   
 $\phi$   
 $v_1-v_2-v_3$

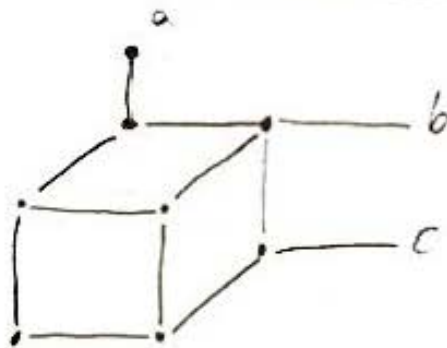
$$2^3 - 1$$



\* A graph  $G$  is connected if every two nodes of the graph can be connected by a.

\* A graph  $G$  is connected if for every two nodes  $u$  and  $v$ , path in  $G$  there exists a path with end points  $u$  and  $v$  that is a subgraph of  $G$ .

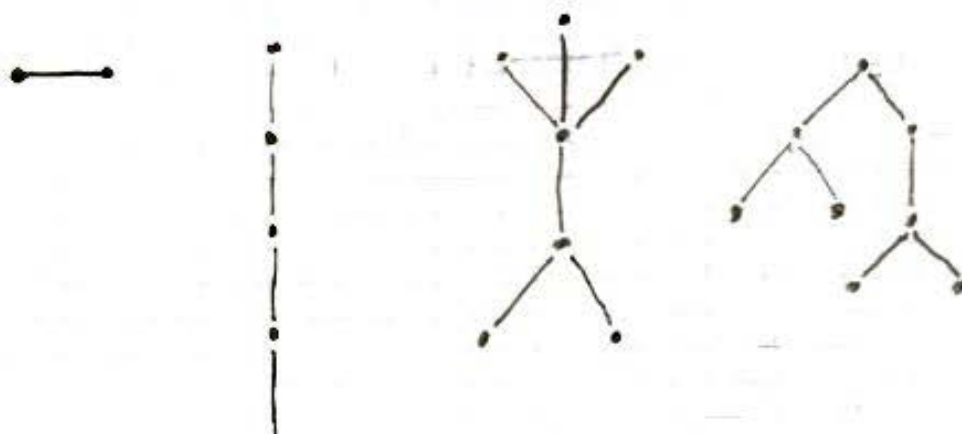
Ex Assume in a graph vertices  $a, b$  are connected with a path  $P$ . And vertices  $b, c$  are connected with a path  $Q$ . How to find the path that connects  $a$  to  $c$ ?



14/12/2018

## ~ TREES ~

A graph  $G=(V,E)$  is called a **TREE** if it is not connected and contains no cycle as a subgraph



Note that connectedness imply not too few edges, while having no cycle implies not too many edges.

### THEOREM

A graph  $G$  is a tree if and only if it's connected but deleting only of its edges results in a disconnected graph.

→ If  $G$  is a tree then deleting any edge in  $G$  results in a disconnected graph ( $p \rightarrow q \equiv T_p \rightarrow T_q$ )

Assume I delete the edge  $(v,u)$  in  $G$  but  $G$  is still connected. This means there is a path.

with endpoints  $v$  and  $u$  other than the edge that I had just deleted. This means there is a cycle in  $G$  (which edge  $\{v,u\}$  is part of). Then  $G$  is not a tree.