CS 70 Discrete Mathematics and Probability Theory
Spring 2024 Seshia, Sinclair

HW 03

1 Short Tree Proofs

Note 5

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph with $|V| \geq 1$.

(a) Prove that every connected component in an acyclic graph is a tree.

(b) Suppose G has k connected components. Prove that if G is acyclic, then $|E| = |V| - k$.

(c) Prove that a graph with $|V|$ edges contains a cycle.

Solution:

(a) Every connected component is connected, and acyclic because the graph is acyclic; by definition, this is a tree.

(b) Because each connected component is a tree, each connected component has $|V_i| - 1$ edges. The total number of edges is thus $\sum_i (|V_i| - 1) = |V| - k$.

(c) An acyclic graph has $|V| - k$ edges which cannot equal $|V|$, thus if a graph has $|V|$ edges it has a cycle.

2 Touring Hypercube

Note 5

In the lecture, you have seen that if G is a hypercube of dimension n, then

- The vertices of G are the binary strings of length n.
- u and v are connected by an edge if they differ in exactly one bit location.

A *Hamiltonian tour* of a graph is a sequence of vertices $v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_k$ such that:

- Each vertex appears exactly once in the sequence.
- Each pair of consecutive vertices is connected by an edge.
- v_0 and v_k are connected by an edge.

(a) Show that a hypercube has an Eulerian tour if and only if n is even.

(b) Show that every hypercube has a Hamiltonian tour.

Solution:

(a) In the n-dimensional hypercube, every vertex has degree n. If n is odd, then by Euler's Theorem there can be no Eulerian tour. On the other hand, the hypercube is connected: we can get from any one bit-string x to any other y by flipping the bits they differ in one at a time. Therefore, when n is even, since every vertex has even degree and the graph is connected, there is an Eulerian tour.

(b) By induction on n. When $n = 1$, there are two vertices connected by an edge; we can form a Hamiltonian tour by walking from one to the other and then back.

Let $n \geq 1$ and suppose the n-dimensional hypercube has a Hamiltonian tour. Let H be the $n+1$-dimensional hypercube, and let H_b be the n-dimensional subcube consisting of those strings with initial bit b.

By the inductive hypothesis, there is some Hamiltonian tour T on the n-dimensional hypercube. Now consider the following tour in H. Start at an arbitrary vertex x_0 in H_0, and follow the tour T except for the very last step to vertex y_0 (so that the next step would bring us back to x_0). Next take the edge from y_0 to y_1 to enter cube H_1. Next, follow the tour T in H_1 backwards from y_1, except the very last step, to arrive at x_1. Finally, take the step from x_1 to x_0 to complete the tour. By assumption, the tour T visits each vertex in each subcube exactly once, so our complete tour visits each vertex in the whole cube exactly once.

To build some intuition, here are the first few cases:

- $n = 1$: 0, 1
- $n = 2$: 00, 01, 11, 10

  [Take the $n = 1$ tour in the 0-subcube (vertices with a 0 in front), move to the 1-subcube (vertices with 1 in front), then take the tour backwards. We know 10 connects to 00 to complete the tour.]
- $n = 3$: 000, 001, 011, 010, 110, 111, 101, 100

  [Take the $n = 2$ tour in the 0-subcube, move to the 1-subcube, then take the tour backwards. We know 100 connects to 000 to complete the tour.]

The sequence produced with this method is known as a Gray code.

3 Planarity and Graph Complements

Note 5

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph. We define the complement of G as $\overline{G} = (V, \overline{E})$ where $\overline{E} = \{(i, j) \mid i, j \in V, i \neq j\} - E$; that is, $\overline{G}$ has the same set of vertices as G, but an edge e exists is $\overline{G}$ if and only if it does not exist in G.

(a) Suppose G has v vertices and e edges. How many edges does $\overline{G}$ have?

(b) Prove that for any graph with at least 13 vertices, G being planar implies that $\overline{G}$ is non-planar.

(c) Now consider the converse of the previous part, i.e., for any graph G with at least 13 vertices, if $\overline{G}$ is non-planar, then G is planar. Construct a counterexample to show that the converse does not hold.

Hint: Recall that if a graph contains a copy of K_5, then it is non-planar. Can this fact be used to construct a counterexample?

Solution:

(a) If G has v vertices, then there are a total of $\frac{v(v-1)}{2}$ edges that could possibly exist in the graph. Since e of them appear in G, we know that the remaining $\frac{v(v-1)}{2} - e$ must appear in $\overline{G}$.

(b) Since G is planar, we know that $e \leq 3v-6$. Plugging this in to the answer from the previous part, we have that $\overline{G}$ has at least $\frac{v(v-1)}{2} - (3v-6)$ edges. Since v is at least 13, we have that $\frac{v(v-1)}{2} \geq \frac{v \cdot 12}{2} = 6v$, so $\overline{G}$ has at least $6v - 3v + 6 = 3v + 6$ edges. Since this is strictly more than the $3v-6$ edges allowed in a planar graph, we have that $\overline{G}$ must not be planar.

(c) The converse is not necessarily true. As a counterexample, suppose that G has exactly 13 vertices, of which five are all connected to each other and the remaining ten have no edges incident to them. This means that G is non-planar, since it contains a copy of K_5. However, $\overline{G}$ also contains a copy of K_5 (take any 5 of the 8 vertices that were isolated in G), so $\overline{G}$ is also non-planar. Thus, it is possible for both G and $\overline{G}$ to be non-planar.

4 Modular Practice

Note 6

Solve the following modular arithmetic equations for x and y.

(a) $9x + 5 \equiv 7 \pmod{13}$.

(b) Show that $3x + 12 \equiv 4 \pmod{21}$ does not have a solution.

(c) The system of simultaneous equations $5x + 4y \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$ and $2x + y \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$.

(d) $13^{2023} \equiv x \pmod{12}$.

(e) $7^{62} \equiv x \pmod{11}$.

Solution:

(a) Subtract 5 from both sides to get:

$$9x \equiv 2 \pmod{13}.$$

Now since $\gcd(9, 13) = 1$, 9 has a (unique) inverse mod 13, and since $9 \times 3 = 27 \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$ the inverse is 3. So multiply both sides by $9^{-1} \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$ to get:

$$x \equiv 6 \pmod{13}.$$

(b) Notice that any number $y \equiv 4 \pmod{21}$ can be written as $y = 4 + 21k$ (for some integer k). Evaluating y mod 3, we get $y \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

Since the right side of the equation is $1 \pmod{3}$, the left side must be as well. However, $3x + 12$ will never be $1 \pmod{3}$ for any value of x. Thus, there is no possible solution.

(c) First, subtract the first equation from four times the second equation to get:

$$\begin{aligned} 4(2x+y) - (5x+4y) &\equiv 4(4) - 0 \pmod{7} \\ 8x + 4y - 5x - 4y &\equiv 16 \pmod{7} \\ 3x &\equiv 2 \pmod{7} \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying by $3^{-1} \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$, we have $x \equiv 10 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$.

Plugging this into the second equation, we have

$$2(3) + y \equiv 4 \pmod{7},$$

so the system has the solution $x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$, $y \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$.

(d) We use the fact that $13 \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$. Thus, we can rewrite the equation as

$$x \equiv 13^{2023} \equiv 1^{2023} \equiv 1 \pmod{12}.$$

(e) One way to solve exponentiation problems is to test values until one identifies a pattern.

$$\begin{aligned} 7^1 &\equiv 7 \pmod{11} \\ 7^2 &\equiv 49 \equiv 5 \pmod{11} \\ 7^3 &= 7 \cdot 7^2 \equiv 7 \cdot 5 \equiv 2 \pmod{11} \\ 7^4 &= 7 \cdot 7^3 \equiv 7 \cdot 2 \equiv 3 \pmod{11} \\ 7^5 &= 7 \cdot 7^4 \equiv 7 \cdot 3 \equiv 10 \equiv -1 \pmod{11} \end{aligned}$$

We theoretically could continue this until we the sequence starts repeating. However, notice that if $7^5 \equiv -1 \implies 7^{10} = (7^5)^2 \equiv (-1)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$.

Similarly, $7^{60} = (7^{10})^6 \equiv 1^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$. As a final step, we have $7^{62} = 7^2 \cdot 7^{60} \equiv 7^2 \cdot 1 = 49 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$.

5 Short Answer: Modular Arithmetic

Note 6

(a) What is the multiplicative inverse of $n-1$ modulo n? (Your answer should be an expression that may involve n)

(b) What is the solution to the equation $3x \equiv 6 \pmod{17}$?

(c) Let $R_0 = 0; R_1 = 2; R_n = 4R_{n-1} - 3R_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$. Is $R_n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ for $n \geq 1$? (True or False)

(d) Given that $(7)(53) - m = 1$, what is the solution to $53x + 3 \equiv 10 \pmod{m}$? (Answer should be an expression that is interpreted $\pmod{m}$, and shouldn't consist of fractions.)

Solution:

(a) The answer is $n-1 \pmod{n}$. We can see this by noting that it is $-1 \pmod{n}$, or more directly, $(n-1)(n-1) \equiv n^2 - 2n + 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

(b) The answer is $x \equiv 2 \pmod{17}$. Muliply both sides by 6 (the multiplicative inverse of 3 modulo 17) and reduce.

(c) The statement is true. We can see this by taking the recursive formula modulo 3. This gives us that $R_n \equiv R_{n-1} \pmod{3}$, hence since $R_1 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$, every R_i must also be 2 modulo 3.

(d) Note that since $7 \cdot 53 - m = 1$, we can take both sides modulo m and find that $7 \cdot 53 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$, hence 7 is the inverse of 53 modulo m. Thus, we can solve the equation by subtracting by 3 on both sides and multiplying by 7, giving that $x \equiv 49 \pmod{m}$.

6 Wilson's Theorem

Note 6

Wilson's Theorem states the following is true if and only if p is prime:

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

Prove both directions (it holds if AND only if p is prime).

Hint for the if direction: Consider rearranging the terms in $(p-1)! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \cdots \cdot (p-1)$ to pair up terms with their inverses, when possible. What terms are left unpaired?

Hint for the only if direction: If p is composite, then it has some prime factor q. What can we say about $(p-1)! \pmod{q}$?

Solution:

Direction 1: If p is prime, then the statement holds.

For the integers $1, \cdots, p-1$, every number has an inverse. However, it is not possible to pair a number off with its inverse when it is its own inverse. This happens when $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, or when $p \mid x^2 - 1 = (x-1)(x+1)$. Thus, $p \mid x-1$ or $p \mid x+1$, so $x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ or $x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Thus, the only integers from 1 to $p-1$ inclusive whose inverse is the same as itself are 1 and $p-1$.

We reconsider the product $(p-1)! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots p-1$. The product consists of 1, $p-1$, and pairs of numbers with their inverse, of which there are $\frac{p-1-2}{2} = \frac{p-3}{2}$. The product of the pairs is 1 (since the product of a number with its inverse is 1), so the product $(p-1)! \equiv 1 \cdot (p-1) \cdot 1 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$, as desired.

Direction 2: The expression holds *only if* p is prime (contrapositive: if p isn't prime, then it doesn't hold).

We will prove by contradiction that if some number p is composite, then $(p-1)! \not\equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Suppose for contradiction that $(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$. Note that this means we can write $(p-1)!$ as $p \cdot k - 1$ for some integer k.

Since p isn't prime, it has some prime factor q where $2 \leq q \leq n-2$, and we can write $p = q \cdot r$. Plug this into the expression for $(p-1)!$ above, yielding us $(p-1)! = (q \cdot r)k - 1 = q(rk) - 1 \implies (p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{q}$. However, we know q is a term in $(p-1)!$, so $(p-1)! \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$. Since $0 \not\equiv -1 \pmod{q}$, we have reached our contradiction.