

Review for Final ..



Review for Final..

Rao's Cheat Sheet.

# Today

Review for Final..

Rao's Cheat Sheet.

A million slides.

Statement?

Statement? "3 = 4+1"?

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes.

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3?

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$ 

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False.

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ .

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ . Proofs.

```
Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No
Logic. P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P False.
Quantifiers. \neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x).
Proofs.
Direct.
```

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ . Proofs. Direct. Square of even number is even.

Contrapositive.

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ . Proofs.

Direct. Square of even number is even.

Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even.

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ . Proofs. Direct. Square of even number is even.

Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even. Contradiciton.

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ . Proofs. Direct. Square of even number is even. Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even.

Contradiciton.  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

```
Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No
Logic. P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P False.
Quantifiers. \neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x).
Proofs.
Direct. Square of even number is even.
Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even.
Contradiciton. \sqrt{2} is irrational.
```

Induction.

```
Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No
Logic. P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P False.
Quantifiers. \neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x).
Proofs.
Direct. Square of even number is even.
```

Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even.

```
Contradiciton. \sqrt{2} is irrational.
```

Induction.

Statement:  $\forall n, P(n)$ .

```
Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No
Logic. P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P False.
Quantifiers. \neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x).
Proofs.
```

Direct. Square of even number is even.

Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even.

```
Contradiciton. \sqrt{2} is irrational.
```

Induction.

```
Statement: \forall n, P(n). Base: P(0).
```

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ . Proofs.

Direct. Square of even number is even.

Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even.

Contradiciton.  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

Induction.

Statement:  $\forall n, P(n)$ . Base: P(0). Step:  $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$ . Simple:  $\sum_i i = n(n+1)/2$ .

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ . Proofs.

Direct. Square of even number is even.

Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even.

Contradiciton.  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

Induction.

Statement:  $\forall n, P(n)$ . Base: P(0). Step:  $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$ . Simple:  $\sum_i i = n(n+1)/2$ . Strengthen: See midterm 1. Strong induction: primes have a factorization.

Statement? "3 = 4+1"? Yes. 3? No Logic.  $P \implies Q \equiv Q \implies P$  False. Quantifiers.  $\neg \forall x, Q(x) \equiv \exists x, \neg Q(x)$ . Proofs.

Direct. Square of even number is even.

Contrapositive. Square root of even number is even.

Contradiciton.  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

Induction.

Statement:  $\forall n, P(n)$ . Base: P(0). Step:  $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$ . Simple:  $\sum_i i = n(n+1)/2$ . Strengthen: See midterm 1. Strong induction: primes have a factorization.

# Stable Marriage

Stable Marriage:

### Stable Marriage

Stable Marriage: Improvement Lemma. Optimality/Pessimality. Stable Marriage:

Improvement Lemma. Optimality/Pessimality.

An an instance, with a stable instance where man 1 and woman 1 are optimal.

Stable Marriage:

Improvement Lemma. Optimality/Pessimality.

An an instance, with a stable instance where man 1 and woman 1 are optimal.

There is only one stable marriage!

Stable Marriage:

Improvement Lemma. Optimality/Pessimality.

An an instance, with a stable instance where man 1 and woman 1 are optimal.

There is only one stable marriage! False.

Graphs:

Graphs:  $\sum_{v} d(v) =$ 

Graphs:  $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

#### Graphs: $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|$ . Eulerian:

Graphs:  $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|$ . Eulerian: All degrees even.

Graphs:  $\sum_{\nu} d(\nu) = 2|E|$ . Eulerian: All degrees even. Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with
Graphs:  $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|$ . Eulerian: All degrees even. Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with *d*+1 colors.

Graphs:  $\sum_{\nu} d(\nu) = 2|E|$ . Eulerian: All degrees even. Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with *d*+1 colors. Algorithm:

Graphs:  $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|$ . Eulerian: All degrees even. Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with *d*+1 colors. Algorithm: Remove vertex.

#### Graphs: $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|$ . Eulerian: All degrees even. Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with *d*+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining.

#### Graphs: $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|$ . Eulerian: All degrees even. Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with *d* + 1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d + 1 colors.

Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color!

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d + 1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d + 1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v + 2e/3 \ge e + 2 \implies e \le 3v - 6.$ 

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d + 1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v + 2e/3 \ge e + 2 \implies e \le 3v - 6.$ 6-color theorem.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v + 2e/3 \ge e + 2 \implies e \le 3v - 6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v + 2e/3 \ge e + 2 \implies e \le 3v - 6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete: K<sub>n</sub>. How many edges?

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ .

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ . Tree: How many edges?

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ . Tree: How many edges? n-1.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ . Tree: How many edges? n-1. No cycles.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ . Tree: How many edges? n-1. No cycles. Hypercube: *d*-dimensional.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ . Tree: How many edges? n-1. No cycles. Hypercube: *d*-dimensional. Degree?

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6.$ 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ . Tree: How many edges? n-1. No cycles. Hypercube: *d*-dimensional. Degree? *d*.

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6$ . 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ .

Tree: How many edges? n-1. No cycles.

Hypercube: *d*-dimensional. Degree? *d*. Edges:  $d2^d/2$ .

#### Graphs:

 $\sum_{v} d(v) = 2|E|.$ 

Eulerian: All degrees even.

Coloring: Degree *d* graph can be colored with d+1 colors. Algorithm:

Remove vertex. Color remaining. Add vertex. Available color! Planar Graph: Euler Formula?

Proof: Base. Tree. e = v - 1, f = 1.

Step: v + f = e + 2. Add edge, adds face.

Max Degree: remove faces from equation using face-edge incidences.

 $2e \ge 3f \implies v+2e/3 \ge e+2 \implies e \le 3v-6$ . 6-color theorem. 5-color is a recoloring argument. Graphs:

Complete:  $K_n$ . How many edges?  $\binom{n}{2}$ .

Tree: How many edges? n-1. No cycles.

Hypercube: *d*-dimensional. Degree? *d*. Edges:  $d2^d/2$ .

Euclid:

Euclid: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y - x)

Euclid: 
$$gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y - x) = gcd(x, y - kx)$$
  
Extended:

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y).

Euclid: 
$$gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)$$
  
Extended:  $ax + by = gcd(x,y)$ .  
Start with  $(1)x + (0)y = x$  and  $(0)x + 1y = y$ .

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side.

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses!

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ?

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ .

Euclid: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y - x) = gcd(x, y - kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x, y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ .

Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots p\}$ .
Euclid: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y - x) = gcd(x, y - kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x, y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ .

Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ . RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ .

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ . Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots p\}$ . RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ .

Works because:  $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{1}$ .

Euclid: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y - x) = gcd(x, y - kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x, y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ . Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots p\}$ .

RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ . Works because:  $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{1}$ . ....

Euclid: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y - x) = gcd(x, y - kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x, y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ . Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ . RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ . Works because:  $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{1}$ . .... Public Key Encryption/Signature Scheme.

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ . Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ . RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ . Works because:  $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{1}$ . .... Public Key Encryption/Signature Scheme. Encrypt:

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ . Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ . RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ . Works because:  $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{1}$ . .... Public Key Encryption/Signature Scheme. Encrypt:  $x^e \mod N$ .

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ . Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ . RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ . Works because:  $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{1}$ . .... Public Key Encryption/Signature Scheme. Encrypt:  $x^e \mod N$ . Sign:

Euclid: gcd(x,y) = gcd(x,y-x) = gcd(x,y-kx)Extended: ax + by = gcd(x,y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ . Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ . RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ . Works because:  $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{1}$ . .... Public Key Encryption/Signature Scheme.

Encrypt:  $x^e \mod N$ . Sign:  $x^d \mod N$ .

Euclid: gcd(x, y) = gcd(x, y - x) = gcd(x, y - kx)Extended: ax + by = acd(x, y). Start with (1)x + (0)y = x and (0)x + 1y = y. Can reduce right hand side. By factor of two in two steps. Multiplicative inverses! ax + bm = 1.  $x^{-1} \mod m$ ? Fermats:  $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ . Proof: Multiplying by *a* is bijection on  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ . RSA: (N = pq, e) where  $e = d^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ . Works because:  $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{1}$ .... Public Key Encryption/Signature Scheme. Encrypt:  $x^e \mod N$ . Sign:  $x^d \mod N$ . Avoid Attack: add randomness to x.

Polynomials:

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + a + 0 \mod p$ . Prop 1:  $\leq d$  roots.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ . Prop 1:  $\leq d$  roots. Factoring. Prop 2: d+1 points gives unique polynomial.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots a + 0 \mod p$ . Prop 1:  $\leq d$  roots. Factoring. Prop 2: d+1 points gives unique polynomial. Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ . Prop 1:  $\leq d$  roots. Factoring. Prop 2: d + 1 points gives unique polynomial. Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree d polynomial suffices. Equations: d + 1 unknowns, d + 1 equations. Modulo prime: inverses gives hope.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots a + 0 \mod p$ . Prop 1:  $\leq d$  roots. Factoring. Prop 2: d + 1 points gives unique polynomial. Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree d polynomial suffices. Equations: d + 1 unknowns, d + 1 equations. Modulo prime: inverses gives hope. Linearly independent from uniqueness. Applications.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ . Prop 1:  $\leq d$  roots. Factoring. Prop 2: d+1 points gives unique polynomial. Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree d polynomial suffices. Equations: d+1 unknowns, d+1 equations. Modulo prime: inverses gives hope. Linearly independent from uniqueness. Applications.

Secret Sharing: Property 2.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ .

Prop 1:  $\leq$  *d* roots. Factoring.

Prop 2: d + 1 points gives unique polynomial.

Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree *d* polynomial suffices.

Equations: d + 1 unknowns, d + 1 equations.

Modulo prime: inverses gives hope.

Linearly independent from uniqueness.

Applications.

Secret Sharing: Property 2. Large prime for secrecy.

Erasure Coding: Property 2.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ .

Prop 1:  $\leq$  *d* roots. Factoring.

Prop 2: d + 1 points gives unique polynomial.

Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree *d* polynomial suffices.

Equations: d + 1 unknowns, d + 1 equations.

Modulo prime: inverses gives hope.

Linearly independent from uniqueness.

Applications.

Secret Sharing: Property 2. Large prime for secrecy.

Erasure Coding: Property 2. Smaller prime for efficiency.

Error Correction: Property 2.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ .

Prop 1:  $\leq$  *d* roots. Factoring.

Prop 2: d + 1 points gives unique polynomial.

Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree *d* polynomial suffices.

Equations: d + 1 unknowns, d + 1 equations.

Modulo prime: inverses gives hope.

Linearly independent from uniqueness.

Applications.

Secret Sharing: Property 2. Large prime for secrecy.

Erasure Coding: Property 2. Smaller prime for efficiency.

Error Correction: Property 2.

Argument that n+2k is enough with k erros.

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ .

Prop 1:  $\leq d$  roots. Factoring.

Prop 2: d + 1 points gives unique polynomial.

Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree *d* polynomial suffices.

Equations: d + 1 unknowns, d + 1 equations.

Modulo prime: inverses gives hope.

Linearly independent from uniqueness.

Applications.

Secret Sharing: Property 2. Large prime for secrecy.

Erasure Coding: Property 2. Smaller prime for efficiency.

Error Correction: Property 2.

Argument that n + 2k is enough with k erros.

Unique degree n-1 polynomial that fits at least n+k points. Why?

Welsh-Berlekamp:

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ .

Prop 1:  $\leq$  *d* roots. Factoring.

Prop 2: d + 1 points gives unique polynomial.

Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree *d* polynomial suffices.

Equations: d + 1 unknowns, d + 1 equations.

Modulo prime: inverses gives hope.

Linearly independent from uniqueness.

Applications.

Secret Sharing: Property 2. Large prime for secrecy.

Erasure Coding: Property 2. Smaller prime for efficiency.

Error Correction: Property 2.

Argument that n + 2k is enough with k erros.

Unique degree n-1 polynomial that fits at least n+k points. Why?

Welsh-Berlekamp:

Linear System from Q(x) = P(x)E(x) with error poly, E(x).

Polynomials:  $a_d x^d + \cdots + 0 \mod p$ .

Prop 1:  $\leq$  *d* roots. Factoring.

Prop 2: d + 1 points gives unique polynomial.

Lagrange: 1 at a point, 0 elsewhere. Degree *d* polynomial suffices.

Equations: d + 1 unknowns, d + 1 equations.

Modulo prime: inverses gives hope.

Linearly independent from uniqueness.

Applications.

Secret Sharing: Property 2. Large prime for secrecy.

Erasure Coding: Property 2. Smaller prime for efficiency.

Error Correction: Property 2.

Argument that n + 2k is enough with k erros.

Unique degree n-1 polynomial that fits at least n+k points. Why?

Welsh-Berlekamp:

Linear System from Q(x) = P(x)E(x) with error poly, E(x).

Divide Q(x) by E(x) to get P(x).

Countability/Computability.

Countability/Computability.

Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing.

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals...

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets.

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers.

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers. Diagonalization:

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers. Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list.

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers. Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability.

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers. Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability.

Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing.

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers. Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability. Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing.

and no Turing  $\implies$  no halt.

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers. Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability. Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing.

and no Turing  $\implies$  no halt.

Concepts: Program can call subroutine!

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers. Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability. Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing. and no Turing ⇒ no halt. Concepts: Program can call subroutine! With subroutine can write program.

Countability/Computability. Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing. Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals... all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers. Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability. Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing. and no Turing  $\implies$  no halt. Concepts: Program can call subroutine! With subroutine can write program. **Reduce from Halt:** 

Countability/Computability.

Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing.

Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals...

all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers.

Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability.

Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing.

and no Turing  $\implies$  no halt.

Concepts: Program can call subroutine!

With subroutine can write program.

Reduce from Halt:

Transform instance of halt to instance of problem X.
Countability/Computability.

Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing.

Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals...

all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers.

Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability.

Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing.

and no Turing  $\implies$  no halt.

Concepts: Program can call subroutine!

With subroutine can write program.

Reduce from Halt:

Transform instance of halt to instance of problem X.

Concept: Programs are text. Can change text.

Countability/Computability.

Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing.

Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals...

all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers.

Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability.

Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing.

and no Turing  $\implies$  no halt.

Concepts: Program can call subroutine!

With subroutine can write program.

Reduce from Halt:

Transform instance of halt to instance of problem X.

Concept: Programs are text. Can change text.

Computability/Enumerability.

Countability/Computability.

Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing.

Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals...

all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers.

Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability.

Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing.

and no Turing  $\implies$  no halt.

Concepts: Program can call subroutine!

With subroutine can write program.

Reduce from Halt:

Transform instance of halt to instance of problem X.

Concept: Programs are text. Can change text.

Computability/Enumerability.

Can run programs and see!

Countability/Computability.

Countable: bijection with natural numbers or a listing.

Countable infinities: pairs of countable sets, rationals...

all forms of pairs: interleave elements of uncountable sets. Uncountable infinities: real numbers, power set of integers.

Diagonalization: Assume list, construct element not on list. Uncomputability.

Halt: With halt can construct diagonalizer Turing.

and no Turing  $\implies$  no halt.

Concepts: Program can call subroutine!

With subroutine can write program.

Reduce from Halt:

Transform instance of halt to instance of problem X.

Concept: Programs are text. Can change text.

Computability/Enumerability.

Can run programs and see!

Can enumerate halting programs.

Counting.

Counting. First rule of counting.

Counting. First rule of counting. Make elt of set with sequence of choices.

Counting. First rule of counting. Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Counting. First rule of counting. Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply. Second rule of counting.

Counting. First rule of counting. Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply. Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered.

Counting. First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes.

Counting. First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars.

Counting. First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply. Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars. Use bars to group stars into different groups.

Counting. First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply. Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars. Use bars to group stars into different groups. Inclusion/Exclusion.

Counting. First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars. Use bars to group stars into different groups. Inclusion/Exclusion.

Number in union is sum minus the intersection.

Counting.

First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars. Use bars to group stars into different groups. Inclusion/Exclusion.

Number in union is sum minus the intersection.

Combinatorial Arguments:

Counting.

First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars. Use bars to group stars into different groups. Inclusion/Exclusion.

Number in union is sum minus the intersection.

Combinatorial Arguments: Bijection means same number.

Counting.

First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars. Use bars to group stars into different groups. Inclusion/Exclusion.

Number in union is sum minus the intersection.

Combinatorial Arguments: Bijection means same number.

 $2^n = \sum_i \binom{n}{i}.$ 

Counting.

First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars. Use bars to group stars into different groups. Inclusion/Exclusion.

Number in union is sum minus the intersection.

Combinatorial Arguments: Bijection means same number.

 $2^n = \sum_i {n \choose i}.$ 

Note: for sample spaces, usually first rule of counting is easier.

Counting.

First rule of counting.

Make elt of set with sequence of choices. Multiply.

Second rule of counting.

Divide with order to get number of unordered. Sometimes. Stars and Bars. Use bars to group stars into different groups. Inclusion/Exclusion.

Number in union is sum minus the intersection.

Combinatorial Arguments: Bijection means same number.  $2^n - \Sigma_{\perp}(n)$ 

 $2^n = \sum_i \binom{n}{i}.$ 

Note: for sample spaces, usually first rule of counting is easier. for events, may need second or others.

A statement is a true or false.

# A statement is a true or false. Statements?

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1?

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement! 3 = 5 ?

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement! 3 = 5 ? Statement! 3 ?

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3 ? Not a statement!

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1? Statement! 3 = 5? Statement!
- 3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ?

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

#### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement.

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

```
Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement.
Predicate?
```

n > 3 ?
#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

```
Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement.
Predicate?
```

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

```
Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement.
Predicate?
```

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!x = y?

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3 ? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

```
Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement.
Predicate?
```

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3? Predicate: P(n)!x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!x + y?

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

```
Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement.
Predicate?
```

n > 3? Predicate: P(n)!x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!x + y? No.

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3 ? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3 ? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

Quantifiers:

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

#### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

### Quantifiers:

 $(\forall x) P(x).$ 

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

#### Quantifiers:

 $(\forall x) P(x)$ . For every x, P(x) is true.

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

**Quantifiers:** 

 $(\forall x) P(x)$ . For every x, P(x) is true.  $(\exists x) P(x)$ .

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

- 3 = 4 1 ? Statement!
- 3 = 5 ? Statement!
- 3 ? Not a statement!
- n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

### Quantifiers:

- $(\forall x) P(x)$ . For every x, P(x) is true.
- $(\exists x) P(x)$ . There exists an x, where P(x) is true.

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

### Quantifiers:

 $(\forall x) P(x)$ . For every x, P(x) is true.

 $(\exists x) P(x)$ . There exists an x, where P(x) is true.

 $(\forall n \in N), n^2 \ge n.$ 

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

### Quantifiers:

 $(\forall x) P(x)$ . For every x, P(x) is true.  $(\exists x) P(x)$ . There exists an x, where P(x) is true.

 $(\forall n \in N), n^2 \ge n.$  $(\forall x \in R)(\exists y \in R)y > x.$ 

#### A statement is a true or false.

Statements?

3 = 4 - 1 ? Statement!

3 = 5 ? Statement!

3 ? Not a statement!

n = 3 ? Not a statement...but a predicate.

### Predicate: Statement with free variable(s).

Example: x = 3 Given a value for x, becomes a statement. Predicate?

n > 3 ? Predicate: P(n)!

x = y? Predicate: P(x, y)!

x + y? No. An expression, not a statement.

### Quantifiers:

 $(\forall x) P(x)$ . For every x, P(x) is true.  $(\exists x) P(x)$ . There exists an x, where P(x) is true.

 $(\forall n \in N), n^2 \ge n.$  $(\forall x \in R)(\exists y \in R)y > x.$ 

 $A \wedge B$ ,  $A \vee B$ ,  $\neg A$ .

 $A \wedge B$ ,  $A \vee B$ ,  $\neg A$ .

You got this!

 $A \wedge B$ ,  $A \vee B$ ,  $\neg A$ .

You got this!

Propositional Expressions and Logical Equivalence

 $A \wedge B$ ,  $A \vee B$ ,  $\neg A$ .

You got this!

Propositional Expressions and Logical Equivalence

 $(A \implies B) \equiv (\neg A \lor B)$ 

 $A \wedge B$ ,  $A \vee B$ ,  $\neg A$ .

You got this!

Propositional Expressions and Logical Equivalence

$$(A \Longrightarrow B) \equiv (\neg A \lor B)$$
$$\neg (A \lor B) \equiv (\neg A \land \neg B)$$

 $A \wedge B$ ,  $A \vee B$ ,  $\neg A$ .

You got this!

Propositional Expressions and Logical Equivalence

$$(A \Longrightarrow B) \equiv (\neg A \lor B)$$
$$\neg (A \lor B) \equiv (\neg A \land \neg B)$$

 $A \wedge B$ ,  $A \vee B$ ,  $\neg A$ .

You got this!

Propositional Expressions and Logical Equivalence

$$(A \Longrightarrow B) \equiv (\neg A \lor B)$$
$$\neg (A \lor B) \equiv (\neg A \land \neg B)$$

Proofs: truth table or manipulation of known formulas.

 $A \wedge B$ ,  $A \vee B$ ,  $\neg A$ .

You got this!

Propositional Expressions and Logical Equivalence

$$(A \Longrightarrow B) \equiv (\neg A \lor B)$$
$$\neg (A \lor B) \equiv (\neg A \land \neg B)$$

Proofs: truth table or manipulation of known formulas.

 $(\forall x)(P(x) \land Q(x)) \equiv (\forall x)P(x) \land (\forall x)Q(x)$ 

Direct:  $P \implies Q$ 

Direct:  $P \implies Q$ Example: *a* is even  $\implies a^2$  is even.

Direct:  $P \implies Q$ Example: *a* is even  $\implies a^2$  is even. Approach: What is even?

Direct:  $P \implies Q$ Example: *a* is even  $\implies a^2$  is even. Approach: What is even? a = 2k

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
```

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
```

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
```

```
Direct: P \implies Q

Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.

Approach: What is even? a = 2k

a^2 = 4k^2.

What is even?

a^2 = 2(2k^2)

Integers closed under multiplication!
```

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

Contrapositive:  $P \implies Q$ 

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

Contrapositive:  $P \implies Q$  or  $\neg Q \implies \neg P$ .

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q \text{ or } \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
```

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```
```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

Contradiction: P

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

Contradiction: P

 $\neg P \implies false$ 

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

Contradiction: P

$$\neg P \implies false$$
  
 $\neg P \implies R \land \neg R$ 

Direct:  $P \implies Q$ Example: *a* is even  $\implies a^2$  is even. Approach: What is even? a = 2k $a^2 = 4k^2$ . What is even?  $a^2 = 2(2k^2)$ Integers closed under multiplication!  $a^2$  is even.

Contrapositive: 
$$P \implies Q$$
 or  $\neg Q \implies \neg P$ .  
Example:  $a^2$  is odd  $\implies a$  is odd.  
Contrapositive:  $a$  is even  $\implies a^2$  is even.

Contradiction: P

 $\neg P \implies \mathsf{false}$ 

 $\neg P \implies R \land \neg R$ 

Useful for prove something does not exist:

Direct:  $P \implies Q$ Example: *a* is even  $\implies a^2$  is even. Approach: What is even? a = 2k $a^2 = 4k^2$ . What is even?  $a^2 = 2(2k^2)$ Integers closed under multiplication!  $a^2$  is even.

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

Contradiction: P

 $\neg P \implies false$ 

 $\neg P \implies R \land \neg R$ 

Useful for prove something does not exist:

Example: rational representation of  $\sqrt{2}$ 

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

Contradiction: P

 $\neg P \implies \mathsf{false}$ 

 $\neg P \implies R \land \neg R$ 

Useful for prove something does not exist:

Example: rational representation of  $\sqrt{2}$  does not exist.

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

Contradiction: P

 $\neg P \implies false$ 

 $\neg P \implies R \land \neg R$ 

Useful for prove something does not exist:

Example: rational representation of  $\sqrt{2}$  does not exist.

Example: finite set of primes

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

Contradiction: P

 $\neg P \implies false$ 

 $\neg P \implies R \land \neg R$ 

Useful for prove something does not exist:

Example: rational representation of  $\sqrt{2}$  does not exist. Example: finite set of primes does not exist.

```
Direct: P \implies Q
Example: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
Approach: What is even? a = 2k
a^2 = 4k^2.
What is even?
a^2 = 2(2k^2)
Integers closed under multiplication!
a^2 is even.
```

```
Contrapositive: P \implies Q or \neg Q \implies \neg P.
Example: a^2 is odd \implies a is odd.
Contrapositive: a is even \implies a^2 is even.
```

Contradiction: P

 $\neg P \implies false$ 

 $\neg P \implies R \land \neg R$ 

Useful for prove something does not exist:

Example: rational representation of  $\sqrt{2}$  does not exist. Example: finite set of primes does not exist. Example: rogue couple does not exist.

Contradiction in induction:

Contradiction in induction:

contradict place where induction step doesn't hold.

Contradiction in induction:

contradict place where induction step doesn't hold.

Well Ordering Principle.

Contradiction in induction:

contradict place where induction step doesn't hold.

Well Ordering Principle. Stable Marriage:

contradict place where induction step doesn't hold.

Well Ordering Principle.

Stable Marriage:

first day where women does not improve.

contradict place where induction step doesn't hold.

Well Ordering Principle.

Stable Marriage:

first day where women does not improve.

first day where any man rejected by optimal women.

contradict place where induction step doesn't hold.

Well Ordering Principle.

Stable Marriage:

first day where women does not improve.

first day where any man rejected by optimal women.

Do not exist.

contradict place where induction step doesn't hold.

Well Ordering Principle.

Stable Marriage:

first day where women does not improve.

first day where any man rejected by optimal women.

Do not exist.

contradict place where induction step doesn't hold.

Well Ordering Principle.

Stable Marriage:

first day where women does not improve.

first day where any man rejected by optimal women.

Do not exist.

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \implies P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$ 

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$ Thm: For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ .

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$ Thm: For all  $n \ge 1, 8|3^{2n} - 1.$ 

Induction on n.

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$  **Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ . Induction on n. Base:  $8|3^2 - 1$ .

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$  **Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ . Induction on n. Base:  $8|3^2 - 1$ .

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \implies P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$  **Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1, 8|3^{2n} - 1$ . Induction on *n*. Base:  $8|3^2 - 1$ . Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some *n*.

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \implies P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$  **Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ . Induction on *n*. Base:  $8|3^2 - 1$ . Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some *n*.

```
Induction Step: Prove P(n+1)
```

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \implies P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$  **Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1, 8|3^{2n} - 1.$ Induction on *n*. Base:  $8|3^2 - 1.$ Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some *n*.

```
Induction Step: Prove P(n+1)
3^{2n+2}-1 =
```

 $P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \implies P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$  **Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1, 8|3^{2n} - 1$ . Induction on *n*. Base:  $8|3^2 - 1$ . Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some *n*.

Induction Step: Prove P(n+1) $3^{2n+2} - 1 = 9(3^{2n}) - 1$ 

$$P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$$
  
**Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ .

Induction on n.

Base: 8|3<sup>2</sup> – 1.

Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some n. ( $3^{2n} - 1 = 8d$ )

Induction Step: Prove P(n+1)

 $3^{2n+2} - 1 = 9(3^{2n}) - 1$  (by induction hypothesis)

$$P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$$
  
**Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ .

Induction on *n*.

Base: 8|3<sup>2</sup> – 1.

Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some n. ( $3^{2n} - 1 = 8d$ )

Induction Step: Prove P(n+1)

$$3^{2n+2} - 1 = 9(3^{2n}) - 1$$
 (by induction hypothesis)  
=  $9(8d + 1) - 1$ 

$$P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$$
  
**Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ .

Induction on *n*.

Base: 8|3<sup>2</sup> – 1.

Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some n. ( $3^{2n} - 1 = 8d$ )

Induction Step: Prove P(n+1)

$$3^{2n+2} - 1 = 9(3^{2n}) - 1$$
 (by induction hypothesis)  
=  $9(8d+1) - 1$   
=  $72d+8$ 

$$P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$$
  
**Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ .

Induction on *n*.

Base: 8|3<sup>2</sup> – 1.

Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some n. ( $3^{2n} - 1 = 8d$ )

Induction Step: Prove P(n+1)

$$3^{2n+2} - 1 = 9(3^{2n}) - 1$$
 (by induction hypothesis)  
= 9(8d + 1) - 1  
= 72d + 8  
= 8(9d + 1)

$$P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$$
  
**Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ .

Induction on *n*.

Base: 8|3<sup>2</sup> – 1.

Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some n. ( $3^{2n} - 1 = 8d$ )

Induction Step: Prove P(n+1)

$$3^{2n+2} - 1 = 9(3^{2n}) - 1$$
 (by induction hypothesis)  
= 9(8d + 1) - 1  
= 72d + 8  
= 8(9d + 1)

Divisible by 8.

$$P(0) \land ((\forall n)(P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1) \equiv (\forall n \in N) P(n).$$
  
**Thm:** For all  $n \ge 1$ ,  $8|3^{2n} - 1$ .

Induction on *n*.

Base: 8|3<sup>2</sup> – 1.

Induction Hypothesis: Assume P(n): True for some n. ( $3^{2n} - 1 = 8d$ )

Induction Step: Prove P(n+1)

$$3^{2n+2} - 1 = 9(3^{2n}) - 1$$
 (by induction hypothesis)  
= 9(8d + 1) - 1  
= 72d + 8  
= 8(9d + 1)

Divisible by 8.

## Stable Marriage: a study in definitions and WOP.

n-men, n-women.

## Stable Marriage: a study in definitions and WOP.

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list
n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

Pairing.

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once.

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs?

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

People in pair are **partners** in pairing.

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

People in pair are **partners** in pairing.

#### Rogue Couple in a pairing.

A  $m_i$  and  $w_k$  who like each other more than their partners

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

People in pair are **partners** in pairing.

#### Rogue Couple in a pairing.

A  $m_i$  and  $w_k$  who like each other more than their partners

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

#### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

People in pair are **partners** in pairing.

#### Rogue Couple in a pairing.

A  $m_j$  and  $w_k$  who like each other more than their partners

### Stable Pairing.

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

#### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

People in pair are **partners** in pairing.

#### Rogue Couple in a pairing.

A  $m_i$  and  $w_k$  who like each other more than their partners

#### Stable Pairing.

Pairing with no rogue couples.

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

#### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

People in pair are **partners** in pairing.

#### Rogue Couple in a pairing.

A  $m_i$  and  $w_k$  who like each other more than their partners

#### Stable Pairing.

Pairing with no rogue couples.

Does stable pairing exist?

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

#### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

People in pair are **partners** in pairing.

#### Rogue Couple in a pairing.

A  $m_i$  and  $w_k$  who like each other more than their partners

#### Stable Pairing.

Pairing with no rogue couples.

Does stable pairing exist?

n-men, n-women.

Each person has completely ordered preference list contains every person of opposite gender.

#### Pairing.

Set of pairs  $(m_i, w_j)$  containing all people *exactly* once. How many pairs? *n*.

People in pair are **partners** in pairing.

#### Rogue Couple in a pairing.

A  $m_j$  and  $w_k$  who like each other more than their partners

### Stable Pairing.

Pairing with no rogue couples.

Does stable pairing exist?

No, for roommates problem.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

Each Day:

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

### Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions:

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions:

Man crosses off woman who rejected him.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject."

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma:

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma: Every day, if man on string for woman,

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma:

Every day, if man on string for woman,

 $\implies$  any future man on string is better.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma:

Every day, if man on string for woman,

 $\implies$  any future man on string is better.

Stability:

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma:

Every day, if man on string for woman,

 $\implies$  any future man on string is better.

Stability: No rogue couple.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma:

Every day, if man on string for woman,

 $\implies$  any future man on string is better.

Stability: No rogue couple. rogue couple (M,W)

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma:

Every day, if man on string for woman,

 $\implies$  any future man on string is better.

Stability: No rogue couple.

rogue couple (M,W)

 $\implies$  M proposed to W

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string.**"

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma:

Every day, if man on string for woman,

 $\implies$  any future man on string is better.

Stability: No rogue couple.

rogue couple (M,W)

- $\implies$  M proposed to W
- $\implies$  W ended up with someone she liked better than *M*.

Traditional Marriage Algorithm:

## Each Day:

All men propose to favorite woman who has not yet rejected him.

#### Every woman rejects all but best men who proposes.

Useful Algorithmic Definitions: Man **crosses off** woman who rejected him. Woman's current proposer is "**on string**."

"Propose and Reject." : Either men propose or women. But not both. Traditional propose and reject where men propose.

Key Property: Improvement Lemma:

Every day, if man on string for woman,

 $\implies$  any future man on string is better.

Stability: No rogue couple.

rogue couple (M,W)

 $\implies$  M proposed to W

 $\implies$  W ended up with someone she liked better than *M*. Not rogue couple!

# **Optimality/Pessimal**

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

# **Optimality/Pessimal**

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing. Not necessarily first in list.
Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing. Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing. Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing. Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing. Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

Thm: TMA produces male optimal pairing, S.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing. Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, S. First man M to lose optimal partner.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing. Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man M to lose optimal partner. Better partner W for M.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man M to lose optimal partner. Better partner W for M. Different stable pairing T.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man *M* to lose optimal partner. Better partner *W* for *M*. Different stable pairing *T*. TMA: *M* asked *W* first!

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man *M* to lose optimal partner. Better partner *W* for *M*. Different stable pairing *T*. TMA: *M* asked *W* first! There is M' who bumps *M* in TMA.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man *M* to lose optimal partner. Better partner *W* for *M*. Different stable pairing *T*. TMA: *M* asked *W* first! There is M' who bumps *M* in TMA. *W* prefers M'.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man *M* to lose optimal partner. Better partner *W* for *M*. Different stable pairing *T*. TMA: *M* asked *W* first! There is *M'* who bumps *M* in TMA. *W* prefers *M'*. *M'* likes *W* at least as much as optimal partner.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

Thm: TMA produces male optimal pairing, S.
First man M to lose optimal partner.
Better partner W for M.
Different stable pairing T.
TMA: M asked W first!
There is M' who bumps M in TMA.
W prefers M'.
M' likes W at least as much as optimal partner.
Not first bump.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man *M* to lose optimal partner. Better partner *W* for *M*. Different stable pairing *T*. TMA: *M* asked *W* first! There is *M'* who bumps *M* in TMA. *W* prefers *M'*. *M'* likes *W* at least as much as optimal partner. Not first bump. *M'* and *W* is rogue couple in *T*.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man *M* to lose optimal partner. Better partner *W* for *M*. Different stable pairing *T*. TMA: *M* asked *W* first! There is *M'* who bumps *M* in TMA. *W* prefers *M'*. *M'* likes *W* at least as much as optimal partner. Not first bump. *M'* and *W* is rogue couple in *T*.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

Thm: TMA produces male optimal pairing, S.
First man M to lose optimal partner.
Better partner W for M.
Different stable pairing T.
TMA: M asked W first!
There is M' who bumps M in TMA.
W prefers M'.
M' likes W at least as much as optimal partner.
Not first bump.
M' and W is rogue couple in T.

Thm: woman pessimal.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

Thm: TMA produces male optimal pairing, S.
First man M to lose optimal partner.
Better partner W for M.
Different stable pairing T.
TMA: M asked W first!
There is M' who bumps M in TMA.
W prefers M'.
M' likes W at least as much as optimal partner.
Not first bump.
M' and W is rogue couple in T.

Thm: woman pessimal.

Man optimal  $\implies$  Woman pessimal.

Optimal partner if best partner in any stable pairing.

Not necessarily first in list.

Possibly no stable pairing with that partner.

Man-optimal pairing is pairing where every man gets optimal partner.

**Thm:** TMA produces male optimal pairing, *S*. First man *M* to lose optimal partner. Better partner *W* for *M*. Different stable pairing *T*. TMA: *M* asked *W* first! There is *M'* who bumps *M* in TMA. *W* prefers *M'*. *M'* likes *W* at least as much as optimal partner. Not first bump. *M'* and *W* is rogue couple in *T*.

Thm: woman pessimal.

G = (V, E)

G = (V, E)V - set of vertices.

 $\begin{array}{l} G = (V, E) \\ V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{array}$ 

 $\begin{array}{l} G = (V, E) \\ V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{array}$ 

 $\begin{aligned} G &= (V, E) \\ V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ E &\subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

 $\begin{aligned} G &= (V, E) \\ V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ E &\subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices. Degree of vertices is total incidences.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices. Degree of vertices is total incidences.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices. Degree of vertices is total incidences.

Pair of Vertices are Connected:

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices. Degree of vertices is total incidences.

Pair of Vertices are Connected: If there is a path between them.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices. Degree of vertices is total incidences.

Pair of Vertices are Connected: If there is a path between them.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices. Degree of vertices is total incidences.

Pair of Vertices are Connected: If there is a path between them.

Connected Component: maximal set of connected vertices.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices. Degree of vertices is total incidences.

Pair of Vertices are Connected: If there is a path between them.

Connected Component: maximal set of connected vertices.

 $\begin{aligned} & G = (V, E) \\ & V \text{ - set of vertices.} \\ & E \subseteq V \times V \text{ - set of edges.} \end{aligned}$ 

Directed: ordered pair of vertices.

Adjacent, Incident, Degree. In-degree, Out-degree.

**Thm:** Sum of degrees is 2|E|. Edge is incident to 2 vertices. Degree of vertices is total incidences.

Pair of Vertices are Connected: If there is a path between them.

Connected Component: maximal set of connected vertices.

Connected Graph: one connected component.

# Graph Algorithm: Eulerian Tour

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.
**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once. Algorithm:

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.

Algorithm:

Take a walk using each edge at most once.

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.

Algorithm:

Take a walk using each edge at most once.

Property: return to starting point.

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.

Algorithm:

Take a walk using each edge at most once.

**Property:** return to starting point. Proof Idea: Even degree.

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.

Algorithm:

Take a walk using each edge at most once.

**Property:** return to starting point. Proof Idea: Even degree.

Recurse on connected components.

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.

Algorithm:

Take a walk using each edge at most once.

**Property:** return to starting point. Proof Idea: Even degree.

Recurse on connected components. Put together.

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.

Algorithm:

Take a walk using each edge at most once.

**Property:** return to starting point. Proof Idea: Even degree.

Recurse on connected components. Put together.

Property: walk visits every component.

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.

Algorithm:

Take a walk using each edge at most once.

**Property:** return to starting point. Proof Idea: Even degree.

Recurse on connected components. Put together.

**Property:** walk visits every component. Proof Idea: Original graph connected.

**Thm:** Every connected graph where every vertex has even degree has an Eulerian Tour; a tour which visits every edge exactly once.

Algorithm:

Take a walk using each edge at most once.

**Property:** return to starting point. Proof Idea: Even degree.

Recurse on connected components. Put together.

**Property:** walk visits every component. Proof Idea: Original graph connected.















Given G = (V, E), a coloring of a *G* assigns colors to vertices *V* where for each edge the endpoints have different colors.



Notice that the last one, has one three colors.

Given G = (V, E), a coloring of a *G* assigns colors to vertices *V* where for each edge the endpoints have different colors.



Notice that the last one, has one three colors. Fewer colors than number of vertices.

Given G = (V, E), a coloring of a *G* assigns colors to vertices *V* where for each edge the endpoints have different colors.



Notice that the last one, has one three colors. Fewer colors than number of vertices. Fewer colors than max degree node.

Given G = (V, E), a coloring of a *G* assigns colors to vertices *V* where for each edge the endpoints have different colors.



Notice that the last one, has one three colors. Fewer colors than number of vertices. Fewer colors than max degree node.

Given G = (V, E), a coloring of a *G* assigns colors to vertices *V* where for each edge the endpoints have different colors.



Notice that the last one, has one three colors. Fewer colors than number of vertices. Fewer colors than max degree node.

Interesting things to do.

Given G = (V, E), a coloring of a *G* assigns colors to vertices *V* where for each edge the endpoints have different colors.



Notice that the last one, has one three colors. Fewer colors than number of vertices. Fewer colors than max degree node.

Interesting things to do. Algorithm!

### Planar graphs and maps.

Planar graph coloring  $\equiv$  map coloring.





### Planar graphs and maps.

Planar graph coloring  $\equiv$  map coloring.



Four color theorem is about planar graphs!

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Theorem:** Every planar graph can be colored with six colors. **Proof:** 

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

Proof:

Recall:  $e \leq 3v - 6$  for any planar graph.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2e

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2eAverage degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v}$ 

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2eAverage degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v}$ 

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2eAverage degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v} \leq 6 - \frac{12}{v}$ .

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2eAverage degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v} \leq 6 - \frac{12}{v}$ .

There exists a vertex with degree < 6

**Theorem:** Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2eAverage degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v} \leq 6 - \frac{12}{v}$ .

There exists a vertex with degree < 6 or at most 5.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2*e* 

Average degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v} \leq 6 - \frac{12}{v}$ .

There exists a vertex with degree < 6 or at most 5.

Remove vertex v of degree at most 5.
Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2eAverage degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v} \leq 6 - \frac{12}{v}$ .

There exists a vertex with degree < 6 or at most 5.

Remove vertex v of degree at most 5. Inductively color remaining graph.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2*e* 

Average degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v} \leq 6 - \frac{12}{v}$ .

There exists a vertex with degree < 6 or at most 5.

Remove vertex *v* of degree at most 5. Inductively color remaining graph.

Color is available for v since only five neighbors...

**Theorem:** Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

Proof:

Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2e

Average degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v} \leq 6 - \frac{12}{v}$ .

There exists a vertex with degree < 6 or at most 5.

Remove vertex v of degree at most 5. Inductively color remaining graph. Color is available for v since only five neighbors... and only five colors are used.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with six colors.

**Proof:** Recall:  $e \le 3v - 6$  for any planar graph. From Euler's Formula.

Total degree: 2e

Average degree:  $\leq \frac{2e}{v} \leq \frac{2(3v-6)}{v} \leq 6 - \frac{12}{v}$ .

There exists a vertex with degree < 6 or at most 5.

Remove vertex *v* of degree at most 5. Inductively color remaining graph. Color is available for *v* since only five neighbors... and only five colors are used.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

Proof:

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.

Assume neighbors are colored all differently.



Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.

Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.



Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done. Switch green to blue in component. Done.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done. Switch green to blue in component. Done. Unless blue-green path to blue.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done. Switch green to blue in component. Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done. Switch green to blue in component. Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component. Done.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component. Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component. Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component. Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component. Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue.

Switch red to orange in its component.

Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue.

Switch red to orange in its component.

Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.  $\implies$  paths intersect at a vertex!

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component.

Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.  $\implies$  paths intersect at a vertex!

What color is it?

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component.

Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.  $\implies$  paths intersect at a vertex!

What color is it?

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component.

Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.  $\implies$  paths intersect at a vertex!

What color is it?

Must be blue or green to be on that path.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component. Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.  $\implies$  paths intersect at a vertex!

What color is it?

Must be blue or green to be on that path. Must be red or orange to be on that path.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component. Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.  $\implies$  paths intersect at a vertex!

What color is it?

Must be blue or green to be on that path. Must be red or orange to be on that path.

Contradiction.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component. Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.  $\implies$  paths intersect at a vertex!

What color is it?

Must be blue or green to be on that path. Must be red or orange to be on that path.

Contradiction. Can recolor one of the neighbors. And recolor "center" vertex.

Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with five colors.

Preliminary Observation: Connected components of vertices with two colors in a legal coloring can switch colors.

#### Proof:

Again with the degree 5 vertex. Again recurse.



Assume neighbors are colored all differently. Otherwise done.

Switch green to blue in component.

Done. Unless blue-green path to blue. Switch red to orange in its component. Done. Unless red-orange path to red.

Planar.  $\implies$  paths intersect at a vertex!

What color is it?

Must be blue or green to be on that path. Must be red or orange to be on that path.

Contradiction. Can recolor one of the neighbors. And recolor "center" vertex.

Theorem: Any planar graph can be colored with four colors.

**Theorem:** Any planar graph can be colored with four colors. **Proof:** 

**Theorem:** Any planar graph can be colored with four colors. **Proof:** Not Today!

**Theorem:** Any planar graph can be colored with four colors. **Proof:** Not Today!

Graph Types: Complete Graph.



Graph Types: Complete Graph.






 $K_n, |V| = n$ 

every edge present.





 $K_n, |V| = n$ 

every edge present. degree of vertex?





 $K_n, |V| = n$ 

every edge present. degree of vertex? |V| - 1.





 $K_n, |V| = n$ 

every edge present. degree of vertex? |V| - 1.

Very connected.





 $K_n, |V| = n$ 

every edge present. degree of vertex? |V| - 1.

Very connected. Lots of edges:





 $K_n, |V| = n$ 

every edge present. degree of vertex? |V| - 1.

Very connected. Lots of edges: n(n-1)/2.





Definitions:

A connected graph without a cycle.



Definitions:

A connected graph without a cycle. A connected graph with |V| - 1 edges.



- A connected graph without a cycle.
- A connected graph with |V| 1 edges.
- A connected graph where any edge removal disconnects it.



- A connected graph without a cycle.
- A connected graph with |V| 1 edges.
- A connected graph where any edge removal disconnects it.
- An acyclic graph where any edge addition creates a cycle.



- A connected graph without a cycle.
- A connected graph with |V| 1 edges.
- A connected graph where any edge removal disconnects it.
- An acyclic graph where any edge addition creates a cycle.



Definitions:

A connected graph without a cycle.

A connected graph with |V| - 1 edges.

A connected graph where any edge removal disconnects it. An acyclic graph where any edge addition creates a cycle.

To tree or not to tree!



Definitions:

A connected graph without a cycle.

A connected graph with |V| - 1 edges.

A connected graph where any edge removal disconnects it. An acyclic graph where any edge addition creates a cycle.



Minimally connected, minimum number of edges to connect.



Definitions:

A connected graph without a cycle.

A connected graph with |V| - 1 edges.

A connected graph where any edge removal disconnects it. An acyclic graph where any edge addition creates a cycle.



Minimally connected, minimum number of edges to connect. Property:



Definitions:

A connected graph without a cycle.

A connected graph with |V| - 1 edges.

A connected graph where any edge removal disconnects it. An acyclic graph where any edge addition creates a cycle.



Minimally connected, minimum number of edges to connect.

Property:

Can remove a single node and break into components of size at most |V|/2.

Hypercubes.

Hypercubes. Really connected.

Hypercubes. Really connected.  $|V|\log|V|$  edges!

Hypercubes. Really connected.  $|V|\log|V|$  edges! Also represents bit-strings nicely.

Hypercubes. Really connected.  $|V|\log|V|$  edges! Also represents bit-strings nicely.

Hypercubes. Really connected.  $|V|\log|V|$  edges! Also represents bit-strings nicely.

G = (V, E)

Hypercubes. Really connected.  $|V|\log|V|$  edges! Also represents bit-strings nicely.

G = (V, E) $|V| = \{0, 1\}^n$ ,

Hypercubes. Really connected.  $|V|\log|V|$  edges! Also represents bit-strings nicely.

G = (V, E)|V| = {0,1}<sup>n</sup>, |E| = {(x,y)|x and y differ in one bit position.}

Hypercubes. Really connected.  $|V| \log |V|$  edges! Also represents bit-strings nicely.

G = (V, E)|V| = {0,1}<sup>n</sup>, |E| = {(x,y)|x and y differ in one bit position.}

0 1 O----C





A 0-dimensional hypercube is a node labelled with the empty string of bits.

A 0-dimensional hypercube is a node labelled with the empty string of bits.

An *n*-dimensional hypercube consists of a 0-subcube (1-subcube) which is a n-1-dimensional hypercube with nodes labelled 0x (1x) with the additional edges (0x, 1x).

A 0-dimensional hypercube is a node labelled with the empty string of bits.

An *n*-dimensional hypercube consists of a 0-subcube (1-subcube) which is a n-1-dimensional hypercube with nodes labelled 0x (1x) with the additional edges (0x, 1x).

00 00 00 00

A 0-dimensional hypercube is a node labelled with the empty string of bits.

An *n*-dimensional hypercube consists of a 0-subcube (1-subcube) which is a n-1-dimensional hypercube with nodes labelled 0x(1x) with the additional edges (0x, 1x).



A 0-dimensional hypercube is a node labelled with the empty string of bits.

An *n*-dimensional hypercube consists of a 0-subcube (1-subcube) which is a n-1-dimensional hypercube with nodes labelled 0x (1x) with the additional edges (0x, 1x).



A 0-dimensional hypercube is a node labelled with the empty string of bits.

An *n*-dimensional hypercube consists of a 0-subcube (1-subcube) which is a n-1-dimensional hypercube with nodes labelled 0x (1x) with the additional edges (0x, 1x).



A 0-dimensional hypercube is a node labelled with the empty string of bits.

An *n*-dimensional hypercube consists of a 0-subcube (1-subcube) which is a n-1-dimensional hypercube with nodes labelled 0x(1x) with the additional edges (0x, 1x).



A 0-dimensional hypercube is a node labelled with the empty string of bits.

An *n*-dimensional hypercube consists of a 0-subcube (1-subcube) which is a n-1-dimensional hypercube with nodes labelled 0x(1x) with the additional edges (0x, 1x).



# Hypercube:properties

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node.

# Hypercube:properties

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian?

# Hypercube:properties

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.
Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\geq k$  edges.

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\geq k$  edges. Best cut?

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\geq k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes:

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\ge k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\ge k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges. FYI:

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

- Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\ge k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.
  - FYI: Also cuts represent boolean functions.

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

- Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\ge k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.
  - FYI: Also cuts represent boolean functions.

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\geq k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.

FYI: Also cuts represent boolean functions.

Nice Paths between nodes.

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

- Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\geq k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.
  - FYI: Also cuts represent boolean functions.

Nice Paths between nodes. Get from 000100 to 101000.

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

- Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\geq k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.
  - FYI: Also cuts represent boolean functions.

Nice Paths between nodes. Get from 000100 to 101000. 000100  $\rightarrow$  100100  $\rightarrow$  101100  $\rightarrow$  101000

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\ge k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.

FYI: Also cuts represent boolean functions.

Nice Paths between nodes.

Get from 000100 to 101000.

 $000100 \rightarrow 100100 \rightarrow 101100 \rightarrow 101000$ 

Correct bits in string, moves along path in hypercube!

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\ge k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.

FYI: Also cuts represent boolean functions.

Nice Paths between nodes.

Get from 000100 to 101000.

 $000100 \rightarrow 100100 \rightarrow 101100 \rightarrow 101000$ 

Correct bits in string, moves along path in hypercube!

Rudrata Cycle: cycle that visits every node. Eulerian? If *n* is even.

Large Cuts: Cutting off k nodes needs  $\ge k$  edges. Best cut? Cut apart subcubes: cuts off  $2^n$  nodes with  $2^{n-1}$  edges.

FYI: Also cuts represent boolean functions.

Nice Paths between nodes. Get from 000100 to 101000.  $000100 \rightarrow 100100 \rightarrow 101100 \rightarrow 101000$ Correct bits in string, moves along path in hypercube!

Good communication network!

Arithmetic modulo *m*. Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

Arithmetic modulo m. Elements of equivalence classes of integers.  $\{0, \ldots, m-1\}$ 

```
Arithmetic modulo m.
Elements of equivalence classes of integers.
\{0, \ldots, m-1\}
and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}
```

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.
```

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning,

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning, in the middle

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning, in the middle or at the end.

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning, in the middle or at the end.

 $58 + 32 = 90 = 6 \pmod{7}$ 

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning, in the middle or at the end.

 $\begin{array}{l} 58+32=90=6 \pmod{7} \\ 58+32=2+4=6 \pmod{7} \end{array}$ 

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning,

in the middle

or at the end.

```
\begin{array}{l} 58+32=90=6 \pmod{7} \\ 58+32=2+4=6 \pmod{7} \\ 58+32=2+-3=-1=6 \pmod{7} \end{array}
```

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning,

in the middle

or at the end.

```
\begin{array}{l} 58+32=90=6 \pmod{7} \\ 58+32=2+4=6 \pmod{7} \\ 58+32=2+-3=-1=6 \pmod{7} \end{array}
```

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning,

in the middle

or at the end.

```
58+32 = 90 = 6 \pmod{7}

58+32 = 2+4 = 6 \pmod{7}

58+32 = 2+-3 = -1 = 6 \pmod{7}
```

Negative numbers work the way you are used to.

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning,

in the middle

or at the end.

```
58+32 = 90 = 6 \pmod{7}

58+32 = 2+4 = 6 \pmod{7}

58+32 = 2+-3 = -1 = 6 \pmod{7}
```

Negative numbers work the way you are used to.  $-3 = 0 - 3 = 7 - 3 = 4 \pmod{7}$ 

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning,

in the middle

or at the end.

```
58+32 = 90 = 6 \pmod{7}

58+32 = 2+4 = 6 \pmod{7}

58+32 = 2+-3 = -1 = 6 \pmod{7}
```

Negative numbers work the way you are used to.  $-3 = 0 - 3 = 7 - 3 = 4 \pmod{7}$ 

```
Arithmetic modulo m.

Elements of equivalence classes of integers.

\{0, ..., m-1\}

and integer i \equiv a \pmod{m}

if i = a + km for integer k.

or if the remainder of i divided by m is a.
```

Can do calculations by taking remainders at the beginning,

in the middle

or at the end.

```
58+32 = 90 = 6 \pmod{7}

58+32 = 2+4 = 6 \pmod{7}

58+32 = 2+-3 = -1 = 6 \pmod{7}
```

Negative numbers work the way you are used to.  $-3 = 0 - 3 = 7 - 3 = 4 \pmod{7}$ 

Additive inverses are intuitively negative numbers.

 $3^{-1} \pmod{7}?$ 

3<sup>-1</sup> (mod 7)? 5

 $3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5$  $5^{-1} \pmod{7}?$ 

 $3^{-1} \pmod{7}?5$  $5^{-1} \pmod{7}?3$ 

3<sup>-1</sup> (mod 7)? 5 5<sup>-1</sup> (mod 7)? 3 Inverse Unique?

3<sup>-1</sup> (mod 7)? 5 5<sup>-1</sup> (mod 7)? 3 Inverse Unique? Yes.
$3^{-1} \pmod{7}$ ? 5  $5^{-1} \pmod{7}$ ? 3 Inverse Unique? Yes. Proof: *a* and *b* inverses of *x* (mod *n*)

```
3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5

5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3

Inverse Unique? Yes.

Proof: a and b inverses of x (mod n)

ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}
```

```
3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5

5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3

Inverse Unique? Yes.

Proof: a and b inverses of x (mod n)

ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}

axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}
```

```
3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5

5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3

Inverse Unique? Yes.

Proof: a and b inverses of x (mod n)

ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}

axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}

a = b \pmod{n}.
```

```
3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5

5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3

Inverse Unique? Yes.

Proof: a and b inverses of x (mod n)

ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}

axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}

a = b \pmod{n}.

3^{-1} \pmod{6}?
```

```
3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5

5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3

Inverse Unique? Yes.

Proof: a and b inverses of x (mod n)

ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}

axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}

a = b \pmod{n}.
```

```
3<sup>-1</sup> (mod 6)? No, no, no....
```

 $3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5$   $5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3$ Inverse Unique? Yes. Proof: *a* and *b* inverses of *x* (mod *n*)  $ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}$   $axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}$   $a = b \pmod{n}.$  $3^{-1} \pmod{6}? \text{ No, no, no....}$ 

 $\{3(1),3(2),3(3),3(4),3(5)\}$ 

 $3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5$   $5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3$ Inverse Unique? Yes. Proof: *a* and *b* inverses of *x* (mod *n*)  $ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}$   $axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}$   $a = b \pmod{n}.$  $3^{-1} \pmod{6}? \text{ No, no, no....}$ 

 $\substack{\{3(1),3(2),3(3),3(4),3(5)\}\\ \{3,6,3,6,3\}}$ 

 $3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5$   $5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3$ Inverse Unique? Yes. Proof: *a* and *b* inverses of *x* (mod *n*)  $ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}$   $axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}$   $a = b \pmod{n}.$  $3^{-1} \pmod{6}? \text{ No, no, no....}$ 

 $\substack{\{3(1),3(2),3(3),3(4),3(5)\}\\ \{3,6,3,6,3\}}$ 

```
\begin{array}{l} 3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5\\ 5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3\\ \\ \text{Inverse Unique? Yes.}\\ \text{Proof: } a \text{ and } b \text{ inverses of } x \pmod{n}\\ ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}\\ axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}\\ a = b \pmod{n}.\\ 3^{-1} \pmod{6}? \text{ No, no, no....} \end{array}
```

```
\substack{\{3(1),3(2),3(3),3(4),3(5)\}\\ \{3,6,3,6,3\}}
```

See,

 $3^{-1} \pmod{7}? 5$   $5^{-1} \pmod{7}? 3$ Inverse Unique? Yes. Proof: *a* and *b* inverses of *x* (mod *n*)  $ax = bx = 1 \pmod{n}$   $axb = bxb = b \pmod{n}$   $a = b \pmod{n}.$  $3^{-1} \pmod{6}?$  No, no, no....

 $\{3(1),3(2),3(3),3(4),3(5)\}\$  $\{3,6,3,6,3\}$ 

See,... no inverse!

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \dots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y)

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

$$gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$$

Give recursive Algorithm!

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

$$gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$$

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case?

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

$$gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$$

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

Extended-gcd(x, y)

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y)
```

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m). egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m). egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)*a* is inverse!

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m). egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m). egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)*a* is inverse!  $1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}$ .

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

```
Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).

egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)

a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}.
```

Idea: egcd.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

```
Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).
egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)
a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}.
```

Idea: egcd. gcd produces 1

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

```
Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).
egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)
a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}.
```

Idea: egcd.

gcd produces 1

by adding and subtracting multiples of x and y

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

```
Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).
egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)
a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}.
```

Idea: egcd.

gcd produces 1

by adding and subtracting multiples of x and y

Example: p = 7, q = 11.

Example: 
$$p = 7$$
,  $q = 11$ .  
 $N = 77$ .

Example: 
$$p = 7$$
,  $q = 11$ .  
 $N = 77$ .  
 $(p-1)(q-1) = 60$
```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7, 60) = 1.
```

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0) + 60(1) = 60$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 7(0) + 60(1) & = & 60 \\ 7(1) + 60(0) & = & 7 \end{array}$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 607(1)+60(0) = 77(-8)+60(1) = 4$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$
  

$$7(-17)+60(2) = 1$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$
  

$$7(-17)+60(2) = 1$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

#### Confirm:

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$
  

$$7(-17)+60(2) = 1$$

Confirm: -119+120 = 1

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$
  

$$7(-17)+60(2) = 1$$

Confirm: -119 + 120 = 1 $d = e^{-1} = -17 = 43 = \pmod{60}$ 

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

#### **Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function:

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ . *p* is prime.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

- $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ . *p* is prime.
- $\implies$  T = S.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime p, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies T = S.$$

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$

Since multiplication is commutative.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$
,

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

Each of  $2, \ldots (p-1)$  has an inverse modulo p,

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies T = S.$$

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$
,

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

Each of 2, ..., (p-1) has an inverse modulo p, mulitply by inverses to get...

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$
,

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

Each of  $2, \dots (p-1)$  has an inverse modulo p, mulitply by inverses to get...

 $a^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \mod p$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime p, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$
,

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

Each of  $2, \dots (p-1)$  has an inverse modulo p, mulitply by inverses to get...

$$a^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \mod p.$$



RSA:

RSA: N = p, q

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.
```

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e \text{ with gcd}(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.

d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.

Theorem: x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}
```

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e \text{ with gcd}(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.

d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.

Theorem: x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}

Proof:
```

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.

d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.
```

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

# **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by *p* and $q \implies$ theorem!
RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by *p* and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x$

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by *p* and *q* $\implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x$

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### Proof: $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If *x* is divisible by *p*, the product is.

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### Proof: $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is. Otherwise  $(x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$  by Fermat.

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is. Otherwise  $(x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$  by Fermat.  $\implies (x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1$  divisible by p.

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is. Otherwise  $(x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$  by Fermat.  $\implies (x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1$  divisible by p.

Similarly for q.

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is. Otherwise  $(x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$  by Fermat.  $\implies (x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1$  divisible by p.

Similarly for q.

RSA:

RSA: N = p, q

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)).
```

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd( $e, (p-1)(q-1)$ ).  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).Announce (C, S(C))

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).Announce (C, S(C))

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).Announce (C, S(C))Verify: Check C = E(C).

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).Announce (C, S(C))Verify: Check C = E(C). $E(D(C, k), K) = (C^d)^e = C \pmod{N}$ 

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \dots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y)

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm!

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x,m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case?

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \dots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x, y) = gcd(y, x - y) = gcd(y, x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

Extended-gcd(x, y)

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \dots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.  $gcd(x, y) = gcd(y, x - y) = gcd(y, x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \dots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x, y) = gcd(y, x - y) = gcd(y, x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y)
```

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(\tilde{x},\tilde{y}) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(\tilde{x},\tilde{y}) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m). egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)
x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(\tilde{x},\tilde{y}) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m). egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)*a* is inverse!

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

Multiplicative inverse of (x, m). egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

```
Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).
egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)
a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}.
```

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

```
Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).
egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)
a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}.
```

Idea: egcd.

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

```
Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).
egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)
a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}.
```

Idea: egcd. gcd produces 1

x has inverse modulo m if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1.

Group structures more generally.

Proof Idea:

 $\{0x, \ldots, (m-1)x\}$  are distinct modulo *m* if and only if gcd(x, m) = 1. Finding gcd.

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y,x-y) = gcd(y,x \pmod{y}).$ 

Give recursive Algorithm! Base Case? gcd(x,0) = x.

```
Extended-gcd(x, y) returns (d, a, b)
d = gcd(x, y) and d = ax + by
```

```
Multiplicative inverse of (x, m).
egcd(x, m) = (1, a, b)
a is inverse! 1 = ax + bm = ax \pmod{m}.
```

Idea: egcd. gcd produces 1

by adding and subtracting multiples of x and y

Example: p = 7, q = 11.

Example: 
$$p = 7$$
,  $q = 11$ .  
 $N = 77$ .

Example: 
$$p = 7$$
,  $q = 11$ .  
 $N = 77$ .  
 $(p-1)(q-1) = 60$ 

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7, 60) = 1.
```

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0) + 60(1) = 60$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 7(0) + 60(1) & = & 60 \\ 7(1) + 60(0) & = & 7 \end{array}$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 607(1)+60(0) = 77(-8)+60(1) = 4$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$
  

$$7(-17)+60(2) = 1$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$
  

$$7(-17)+60(2) = 1$$

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

#### Confirm:

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$
  

$$7(-17)+60(2) = 1$$

Confirm: -119 + 120 = 1

```
Example: p = 7, q = 11.

N = 77.

(p-1)(q-1) = 60

Choose e = 7, since gcd(7,60) = 1.

gcd(7,60).
```

$$7(0)+60(1) = 60$$
  

$$7(1)+60(0) = 7$$
  

$$7(-8)+60(1) = 4$$
  

$$7(9)+60(-1) = 3$$
  

$$7(-17)+60(2) = 1$$

Confirm: -119 + 120 = 1 $d = e^{-1} = -17 = 43 = \pmod{60}$ 

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

#### **Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function:

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ . *p* is prime.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

- $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ . *p* is prime.
- $\implies$  T = S.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime p, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies T = S.$$

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$

Since multiplication is commutative.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$
,

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

Each of  $2, \ldots (p-1)$  has an inverse modulo p,

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$
,

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

Each of 2, ..., (p-1) has an inverse modulo p, mulitply by inverses to get...
# Fermat from Bijection.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime *p*, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}$ .

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$
,

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

Each of 2, ..., (p-1) has an inverse modulo p, mulitply by inverses to get...

 $a^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \mod p$ .

# Fermat from Bijection.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime p, and  $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $T = \{a \cdot 1 \pmod{p}, \dots, a \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}\}.$ 

*T* is range of function  $f(x) = ax \mod (p)$  for set  $S = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ . Invertible function: one-to-one.

 $T \subseteq S$  since  $0 \notin T$ .

p is prime.

$$\implies$$
  $T = S$ .

Product of elts of T = Product of elts of S.

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \mod p$$
,

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1\cdots(p-1)) \equiv (1\cdots(p-1)) \mod p.$$

Each of  $2, \dots (p-1)$  has an inverse modulo p, mulitply by inverses to get...

$$a^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \mod p.$$



RSA:

RSA: N = p, q

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.
```

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e \text{ with gcd}(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.

d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.

Theorem: x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}
```

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e \text{ with gcd}(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.

d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.

Theorem: x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}

Proof:
```

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.

d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.
```

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

# **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by *p* and $q \implies$ theorem!

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by *p* and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x$

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by *p* and *q* $\implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x$

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### Proof: $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

## **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is.

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

#### Proof: $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is. Otherwise  $(x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$  by Fermat.

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

## **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is. Otherwise  $(x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$  by Fermat.  $\implies (x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1$  divisible by p.

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

## **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is. Otherwise  $(x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$  by Fermat.  $\implies (x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1$  divisible by p.

Similarly for q.

RSA: N = p, q e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

**Theorem:**  $x^{ed} = x \pmod{N}$ 

## **Proof:** $x^{ed} - x$ is divisible by p and $q \implies$ theorem! $x^{ed} - x = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} - x = x((x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1)$

If x is divisible by p, the product is. Otherwise  $(x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$  by Fermat.  $\implies (x^{k(q-1)})^{p-1} - 1$  divisible by p.

Similarly for q.

RSA:

RSA: N = p, q

```
RSA:

N = p, q

e with gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)).
```

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd( $e, (p-1)(q-1)$ ).  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).Announce (C, S(C))

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).Announce (C, S(C))

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).Announce (C, S(C))Verify: Check C = E(C).

RSA:  

$$N = p, q$$
  
 $e$  with gcd $(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ .  
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Public Key Cryptography:

 $D(E(m,K),k) = (m^e)^d \mod N = m.$ 

Signature scheme:

S(C) = D(C).Announce (C, S(C))Verify: Check C = E(C). $E(D(C, k), K) = (C^d)^e = C \pmod{N}$ 



3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)?



3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)? 1.



#### 3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6

## Fermat/RSA

```
3^6 \pmod{7}? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6
3^{18} \pmod{7}?
```

## Fermat/RSA

```
3^{6} \pmod{7} 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6
3^{18} \pmod{7} 1.
3^{60} \pmod{7}?
```

## Fermat/RSA

```
3^{6} \pmod{7}? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6
3^{18} \pmod{7}? 1.
3^{60} \pmod{7}? 1.
3^{61} \pmod{7}?
```
```
3^{6} \pmod{7} 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6
3^{18} \pmod{7} 1.
3^{60} \pmod{7} 1.
3^{61} \pmod{7} 3.
```

```
3^{6} \pmod{7} 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6
3^{18} \pmod{7} 1.
3^{60} \pmod{7} 1.
3^{61} \pmod{7} 3.
2^{12} \pmod{21}?
```

```
3^{6} \pmod{7}? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6

3^{18} \pmod{7}? 1.

3^{60} \pmod{7}? 1.

3^{61} \pmod{7}? 3.

2^{12} \pmod{21}? 1.

21 = (3)(7)
```

```
3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6

3<sup>18</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>60</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>61</sup> (mod 7)? 3.

2<sup>12</sup> (mod 21)? 1.

21 = (3)(7) (p - 1)(q - 1) = (2)(6) = 12
```

```
3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6

3<sup>18</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>60</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>61</sup> (mod 7)? 3.

2<sup>12</sup> (mod 21)? 1.

21 = (3)(7) (p - 1)(q - 1) = (2)(6) = 12

gcd(2, 12) = 1, x^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 (mod pq)
```

```
3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6

3<sup>18</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>60</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>61</sup> (mod 7)? 3.

2<sup>12</sup> (mod 21)? 1.

21 = (3)(7) (p-1)(q-1) = (2)(6) = 12

gcd(2,12) = 1, x<sup>(p-1)(q-1)</sup> = 1 (mod pq) 2<sup>12</sup> = 1 (mod 21).
```

```
3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6

3<sup>18</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>60</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>61</sup> (mod 7)? 3.

2<sup>12</sup> (mod 21)? 1.

21 = (3)(7) (p - 1)(q - 1) = (2)(6) = 12

gcd(2, 12) = 1, x^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 \pmod{pq} 2^{12} = 1 \pmod{21}.

2<sup>1</sup>4 (mod 21)?
```

```
3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6

3<sup>18</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>60</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>61</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>61</sup> (mod 7)? 3.

2<sup>12</sup> (mod 21)? 1.

21 = (3)(7) (p - 1)(q - 1) = (2)(6) = 12

gcd(2, 12) = 1, x^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 (mod pq) 2^{12} = 1 (mod 21).

2<sup>1</sup>4 (mod 21)? 4.
```

```
3<sup>6</sup> (mod 7)? 1. Fermat: p = 7, p - 1 = 6

3<sup>18</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>60</sup> (mod 7)? 1.

3<sup>61</sup> (mod 7)? 3.

2<sup>12</sup> (mod 21)? 1.

21 = (3)(7) (p - 1)(q - 1) = (2)(6) = 12

gcd(2, 12) = 1, x^{(p-1)(q-1)} = 1 (mod pq) 2^{12} = 1 (mod 21).

2<sup>1</sup>4 (mod 21)? 4. Technically 4 (mod 21).
```

**Property 1:** Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

**Property 1:** Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots. Proof Idea:

**Property 1:** Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots. Proof Idea:

Property 1: Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea: Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ .

**Property 1:** Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea: Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ .

**Property 1:** Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea: Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

**Property 1:** Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea: Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

Property 1: Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea:

Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Property 1: Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea:

Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Proof Ideas:

Property 1: Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea:

Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Proof Ideas:

Property 1: Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea:

Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Proof Ideas:

Lagrange Interpolation gives existence.

Property 1: Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea:

Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Proof Ideas:

Lagrange Interpolation gives existence.

Property 1 gives uniqueness.

Property 1: Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea:

Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Proof Ideas:

Lagrange Interpolation gives existence.

Property 1 gives uniqueness.

Property 1: Any degree *d* polynomial over a field has at most *d* roots.

Proof Idea:

Any polynomial with roots  $r_1, \ldots, r_k$ . written as  $(x - r_1) \cdots (x - r_k)Q(x)$ . using polynomial division. Degree at least the number of roots.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Proof Ideas:

Lagrange Interpolation gives existence.

Property 1 gives uniqueness.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: k out of n people know secret.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: k out of n people know secret. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x).

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ .

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ 

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ .

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ . Recover Message: Any *n* packets are cool by property 2.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ . Recover Message: Any *n* packets are cool by property 2.

Corruptions Coding: n packets, k corruptions.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots, (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ . Recover Message: Any *n* packets are cool by property 2.

Corruptions Coding: *n* packets, *k* corruptions. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ . Recover Message: Any *n* packets are cool by property 2.

Corruptions Coding: *n* packets, *k* corruptions. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$
**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ . Recover Message: Any *n* packets are cool by property 2.

Corruptions Coding: *n* packets, *k* corruptions. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+2k-1, P(n+2k-1))$ .

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ . Recover Message: Any *n* packets are cool by property 2.

Corruptions Coding: *n* packets, *k* corruptions. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+2k-1, P(n+2k-1))$ . Recovery:

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots, (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ . Recover Message: Any *n* packets are cool by property 2.

Corruptions Coding: *n* packets, *k* corruptions. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+2k-1, P(n+2k-1))$ . Recovery: P(x) is only consistent polynomial with n + k points.

**Property 2:** There is exactly 1 polynomial of degree  $\leq d$  with arithmetic modulo prime *p* that contains any d+1:  $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$  with  $x_i$  distinct.

Secret Sharing: *k* out of *n* people know secret. Scheme: degree n - 1 polynomial, P(x). Secret: P(0) Shares:  $(1, P(1)), \dots, (n, P(n))$ . Recover Secret: Reconstruct P(x) with any k points.

Erasure Coding: *n* packets, *k* losses. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+k-1, P(n+k-1))$ . Recover Message: Any *n* packets are cool by property 2.

Corruptions Coding: *n* packets, *k* corruptions. Scheme: degree n-1 polynomial, P(x). Reed-Solomon. Message:  $P(0) = m_0, P(1) = m_1, \dots P(n-1) = m_{n-1}$ Send:  $(0, P(0)), \dots (n+2k-1, P(n+2k-1))$ . Recovery: P(x) is only consistent polynomial with n+k points. Property 2 and pigeonhole principle.

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ 

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors.

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

 $Q(x)=a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1}+\cdots a_0.$ 

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

 $Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$  $E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$ 

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

$$a_{n+k-1}+\ldots a_0 \equiv R(1)(1+b_{k-1}\cdots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a_{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 &\equiv & R(1)(1 + b_{k-1} \cdots b_0) \pmod{p} \\ a_{n+k-1}(2)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 &\equiv & R(2)((2)^k + b_{k-1}(2)^{k-1} \cdots b_0) \pmod{p} \\ & \vdots \end{array}$$

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a_{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 &\equiv & R(1)(1 + b_{k-1} \cdots b_0) \pmod{p} \\ a_{n+k-1}(2)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 &\equiv & R(2)((2)^k + b_{k-1}(2)^{k-1} \cdots b_0) \pmod{p} \\ &\vdots \\ a_{n+k-1}(m)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 &\equiv & R(m)((m)^k + b_{k-1}(m)^{k-1} \cdots b_0) \pmod{p} \end{array}$$

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

Gives system of n + 2k linear equations.

$$a_{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(1)(1 + b_{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(2)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(2)((2)^k + b_{k-1}(2)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(m)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(m)((m)^k + b_{k-1}(m)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

..and n+2k unknown coefficients of Q(x) and E(x)!

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

Gives system of n + 2k linear equations.

$$a_{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(1)(1 + b_{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(2)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(2)((2)^k + b_{k-1}(2)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(m)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(m)((m)^k + b_{k-1}(m)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

..and n+2k unknown coefficients of Q(x) and E(x)! Solve for coefficients of Q(x) and E(x).

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

Gives system of n + 2k linear equations.

$$a_{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(1)(1 + b_{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(2)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(2)((2)^k + b_{k-1}(2)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(m)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(m)((m)^k + b_{k-1}(m)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

..and n+2k unknown coefficients of Q(x) and E(x)! Solve for coefficients of Q(x) and E(x).

Find 
$$P(x) = Q(x)/E(x)$$
.

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

Gives system of n + 2k linear equations.

$$a_{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(1)(1 + b_{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(2)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(2)((2)^k + b_{k-1}(2)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(m)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(m)((m)^k + b_{k-1}(m)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

..and n+2k unknown coefficients of Q(x) and E(x)! Solve for coefficients of Q(x) and E(x).

Find P(x) = Q(x)/E(x).

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

Gives system of n + 2k linear equations.

$$a_{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(1)(1 + b_{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(2)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(2)((2)^k + b_{k-1}(2)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(m)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(m)((m)^k + b_{k-1}(m)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

..and n+2k unknown coefficients of Q(x) and E(x)! Solve for coefficients of Q(x) and E(x).

Find 
$$P(x) = Q(x)/E(x)$$
.

Idea: Error locator polynomial of degree k with zeros at errors.

For all points i = 1, ..., i, n+2k,  $P(i)E(i) = R(i)E(i) \pmod{p}$ since E(i) = 0 at points where there are errors. Let Q(x) = P(x)E(x).

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$
  

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + b_0.$$

Gives system of n + 2k linear equations.

$$a_{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(1)(1 + b_{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(2)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(2)((2)^k + b_{k-1}(2)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$a_{n+k-1}(m)^{n+k-1} + \dots a_0 \equiv R(m)((m)^k + b_{k-1}(m)^{k-1} \dots b_0) \pmod{p}$$

..and n+2k unknown coefficients of Q(x) and E(x)! Solve for coefficients of Q(x) and E(x).

Find P(x) = Q(x)/E(x).



First Rule

First Rule Second Rule

First Rule Second Rule Stars/Bars

First Rule Second Rule Stars/Bars Common Scenarios: Sampling, Balls in Bins.

First Rule Second Rule Stars/Bars Common Scenarios: Sampling, Balls in Bins. Sum Rule. Inclusion/Exclusion.

First Rule Second Rule Stars/Bars Common Scenarios: Sampling, Balls in Bins. Sum Rule. Inclusion/Exclusion. Combinatorial Proofs.

First Rule Second Rule Stars/Bars Common Scenarios: Sampling, Balls in Bins. Sum Rule. Inclusion/Exclusion. Combinatorial Proofs.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals: 52

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52\times51\times50$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ .

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?
First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ? Hand: Q, K, A.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ? Hand: Q, K, A. Deals: Q, K, A.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ? Hand: Q, K, A.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*,

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: *Q*,*K*,*A*. Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ? Hand: Q, K, A. Deals: Q, K, A, Q, A, K, K, A, Q, K, A, Q, A, K, Q, A, Q, K.  $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: *Q*,*K*,*A*.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: Q, K, A. Deals: Q, K, A, Q, A, K, K, A, Q, K, A, Q, A, K, Q, A, Q, K.  $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again. Total:

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: Q, K, A. Deals: Q, K, A, Q, A, K, K, A, Q, K, A, Q, A, K, Q, A, Q, K.  $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again. Total:  $\frac{52!}{40!2!}$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: Q,K,A.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total: 52! Second Rule!

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: *Q*,*K*,*A*. Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total: 52! Second Rule!

Choose k out of n.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{40!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: Q.K.A.

Deals: Q, K, A, Q, A, K, K, A, Q, K, A, Q, A, K, Q, A, Q, K.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total: <u>52!</u> Second Rule!

Choose k out of n. Ordered set:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: *Q*,*K*,*A*.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total:  $\frac{52!}{49|3|}$  Second Rule!

Choose *k* out of *n*. Ordered set:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ What is  $\Delta$ ?

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: *Q*,*K*,*A*.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total:  $\frac{52!}{49|3|}$  Second Rule!

Choose *k* out of *n*. Ordered set:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ What is  $\Delta$ ? *k*!

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: *Q*,*K*,*A*.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total:  $\frac{52!}{49|3|}$  Second Rule!

Choose *k* out of *n*. Ordered set:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ What is  $\Delta$ ? *k*! First rule again.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: Q, K, A.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total:  $\frac{52!}{49|3|}$  Second Rule!

Choose *k* out of *n*. Ordered set:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ What is  $\Delta$ ? *k*! First rule again.  $\implies$  Total:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: *Q*,*K*,*A*.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total:  $\frac{52!}{49|3|}$  Second Rule!

Choose *k* out of *n*. Ordered set:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ What is  $\Delta$ ? *k*! First rule again.  $\implies$  Total:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$  Second rule.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule.

Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



3 card Poker deals:  $52 \times 51 \times 50 = \frac{52!}{49!}$ . First rule. Poker hands:  $\Delta$ ?

Hand: *Q*,*K*,*A*.

Deals: *Q*,*K*,*A*, *Q*,*A*,*K*, *K*,*A*,*Q*,*K*,*A*,*Q*, *A*,*K*,*Q*, *A*,*Q*,*K*.

 $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$  First rule again.

Total:  $\frac{52!}{49|3|}$  Second Rule!

Choose *k* out of *n*. Ordered set:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ What is  $\Delta$ ? *k*! First rule again.  $\implies$  Total:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$  Second rule.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM?

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7!

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule.

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same!

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ?

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide...when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM A<sub>1</sub>NA<sub>2</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM A<sub>1</sub>NA<sub>2</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, A<sub>2</sub>NA<sub>1</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M,

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide...when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM A<sub>1</sub>NA<sub>2</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, A<sub>2</sub>NA<sub>1</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, ...

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM A<sub>1</sub>NA<sub>2</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, A<sub>2</sub>NA<sub>1</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, ...  $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide...when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM A<sub>1</sub>NA<sub>2</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, A<sub>2</sub>NA<sub>1</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, ...  $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 3!$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM A<sub>1</sub>NA<sub>2</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, A<sub>2</sub>NA<sub>1</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, ...  $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 3!$  First rule!

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM A<sub>1</sub>NA<sub>2</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, A<sub>2</sub>NA<sub>1</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, ...  $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 3!$  First rule!  $\Rightarrow \frac{7!}{3!}$ 

First rule:  $n_1 \times n_2 \cdots \times n_3$ . Product Rule. Second rule: when order doesn't matter divide..when possible.



Orderings of ANAGRAM? Ordered Set: 7! First rule. A's are the same! What is  $\Delta$ ? ANAGRAM A<sub>1</sub>NA<sub>2</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, A<sub>2</sub>NA<sub>1</sub>GRA<sub>3</sub>M, ...  $\Delta = 3 \times 2 \times 1 = 3!$  First rule!  $\implies \frac{7!}{3!}$  Second rule!



k Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ .

# Summary.

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

# Summary.

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

# Summary.

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$
*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

Sample without replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ . "*n* choose *k*"

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

Sample without replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ . "*n* choose *k*" (Count using first rule and second rule.)

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

Sample without replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ . "*n* choose *k*" (Count using first rule and second rule.)

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

Sample without replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ . "*n* choose *k*" (Count using first rule and second rule.)

Sample with replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{k+n-1}{n-1}$ .

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

Sample without replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ . "*n* choose *k*" (Count using first rule and second rule.)

Sample with replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{k+n-1}{n-1}$ .

Count with stars and bars:

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

Sample without replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ . "*n* choose *k*" (Count using first rule and second rule.)

Sample with replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{k+n-1}{n-1}$ .

Count with stars and bars:

how many ways to add up *n* numbers to get *k*.

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

Sample without replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ . "*n* choose *k*" (Count using first rule and second rule.)

Sample with replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{k+n-1}{n-1}$ .

Count with stars and bars:

how many ways to add up *n* numbers to get *k*.

Each number is number of samples of type *i* 

*k* Samples with replacement from *n* items:  $n^k$ . Sample without replacement:  $\frac{n!}{(n-k)!}$ 

Sample without replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$ . "*n* choose *k*" (Count using first rule and second rule.)

Sample with replacement and order doesn't matter:  $\binom{k+n-1}{n-1}$ .

Count with stars and bars:

how many ways to add up *n* numbers to get *k*.

Each number is number of samples of type *i* which adds to total, *k*.

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities."

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities." "indistinguishable balls"  $\equiv$  "order doesn't matter"

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities." "indistinguishable balls"  $\equiv$  "order doesn't matter" "only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement"

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities." "indistinguishable balls"  $\equiv$  "order doesn't matter" "only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement" 5 balls into 10 bins

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities." "indistinguishable balls"  $\equiv$  "order doesn't matter" "only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement" 5 balls into 10 bins 5 samples from 10 possibilities with replacement

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities."

"indistinguishable balls"  $\equiv$  "order doesn't matter"

"only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement"

5 balls into 10 bins

5 samples from 10 possibilities with replacement

Example: 5 digit numbers.

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities."

```
"indistinguishable balls" \equiv "order doesn't matter"
```

"only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement"

5 balls into 10 bins

5 samples from 10 possibilities with replacement Example: 5 digit numbers.

5 indistinguishable balls into 52 bins only one ball in each bin

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities."

```
"indistinguishable balls" \equiv "order doesn't matter"
```

"only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement"

5 balls into 10 bins

5 samples from 10 possibilities with replacement Example: 5 digit numbers.

5 indistinguishable balls into 52 bins only one ball in each bin 5 samples from 52 possibilities without replacement

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities."

```
"indistinguishable balls" \equiv "order doesn't matter"
```

"only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement"

5 balls into 10 bins

5 samples from 10 possibilities with replacement Example: 5 digit numbers.

5 indistinguishable balls into 52 bins only one ball in each bin 5 samples from 52 possibilities without replacement Example: Poker hands.

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities."

```
"indistinguishable balls" \equiv "order doesn't matter"
```

"only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement"

5 balls into 10 bins

5 samples from 10 possibilities with replacement Example: 5 digit numbers.

5 indistinguishable balls into 52 bins only one ball in each bin 5 samples from 52 possibilities without replacement Example: Poker hands.

5 indistinguishable balls into 3 bins

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities."

"indistinguishable balls"  $\equiv$  "order doesn't matter"

"only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement"

5 balls into 10 bins

5 samples from 10 possibilities with replacement Example: 5 digit numbers.

5 indistinguishable balls into 52 bins only one ball in each bin 5 samples from 52 possibilities without replacement Example: Poker hands.

- 5 indistinguishable balls into 3 bins
- 5 samples from 3 possibilities with replacement and no order

"*k* Balls in *n* bins"  $\equiv$  "*k* samples from *n* possibilities."

"indistinguishable balls"  $\equiv$  "order doesn't matter"

"only one ball in each bin"  $\equiv$  "without replacement"

5 balls into 10 bins

5 samples from 10 possibilities with replacement Example: 5 digit numbers.

5 indistinguishable balls into 52 bins only one ball in each bin 5 samples from 52 possibilities without replacement Example: Poker hands.

- 5 indistinguishable balls into 3 bins
- 5 samples from 3 possibilities with replacement and no order Dividing 5 dollars among Alice, Bob and Eve.

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

#### Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*, $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$

Example: How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?

#### Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*, $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)!$ 

#### Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*, $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

**Example:** How many 10-digit phone numbers have 7 as their first or second digit?

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

**Example:** How many 10-digit phone numbers have 7 as their first or second digit?

S = phone numbers with 7 as first digit.

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

**Example:** How many 10-digit phone numbers have 7 as their first or second digit?

S = phone numbers with 7 as first digit.  $|S| = 10^9$ 

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

**Example:** How many 10-digit phone numbers have 7 as their first or second digit?

S = phone numbers with 7 as first digit. $|S| = 10^9$ 

T = phone numbers with 7 as second digit.

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

**Example:** How many 10-digit phone numbers have 7 as their first or second digit?

S = phone numbers with 7 as first digit.  $|S| = 10^9$ 

T = phone numbers with 7 as second digit.  $|T| = 10^9$ .

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

**Example:** How many 10-digit phone numbers have 7 as their first or second digit?

S = phone numbers with 7 as first digit.  $|S| = 10^9$ 

- T = phone numbers with 7 as second digit.  $|T| = 10^9$ .
- $S \cap T$  = phone numbers with 7 as first and second digit.

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets *S* and *T*,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

**Example:** How many 10-digit phone numbers have 7 as their first or second digit?

S = phone numbers with 7 as first digit. $|S| = 10^9$ 

T = phone numbers with 7 as second digit.  $|T| = 10^9$ .

 $S \cap T$  = phone numbers with 7 as first and second digit.  $|S \cap T| = 10^8$ .

Sum Rule: For disjoint sets S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$ 

**Example:** How many permutations of *n* items start with 1 or 2?  $1 \times (n-1)! + 1 \times (n-1)!$ 

Inclusion/Exclusion Rule: For any S and T,  $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$ .

**Example:** How many 10-digit phone numbers have 7 as their first or second digit?

S = phone numbers with 7 as first digit.  $|S| = 10^9$ 

T = phone numbers with 7 as second digit.  $|T| = 10^9$ .

 $S \cap T$  = phone numbers with 7 as first and second digit.  $|S \cap T| = 10^8$ .

Answer:  $|S| + |T| - |S \cap T| = 10^9 + 10^9 - 10^8$ .

### Combinatorial Proofs.

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ . **Proof:** How many size *k* subsets of n+1?

### Combinatorial Proofs.

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ . **Proof:** How many size *k* subsets of n+1?  $\binom{n+1}{k}$ .

## Combinatorial Proofs.

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ . **Proof:** How many size *k* subsets of n+1?  $\binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1?
**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ . **Proof:** How many size *k* subsets of n+1?  $\binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n + 1? How many contain the first element?

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ . **Proof:** How many size *k* subsets of n+1?  $\binom{n+1}{k}$ . How many size *k* subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element?

Chose first element,

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ . **Proof:** How many size *k* subsets of n+1?  $\binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

Theorem:  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ .

**Proof:** How many size k subsets of  $n+1? \binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

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

Theorem:  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ .

**Proof:** How many size k subsets of  $n+1? \binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

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

Theorem:  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ .

**Proof:** How many size k subsets of  $n+1? \binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

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

How many don't contain the first element ?

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ .

**Proof:** How many size *k* subsets of n+1?  $\binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

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

How many don't contain the first element ?

Need to choose *k* elements from remaining *n* elts.

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ .

**Proof:** How many size k subsets of  $n+1? \binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

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

How many don't contain the first element ?

Need to choose *k* elements from remaining *n* elts.

 $\implies \binom{n}{k}$ 

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ .

**Proof:** How many size k subsets of  $n+1? \binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

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

How many don't contain the first element ?

Need to choose *k* elements from remaining *n* elts.

 $\implies \binom{n}{k}$ 

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ .

**Proof:** How many size k subsets of  $n+1? \binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

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

How many don't contain the first element ?

Need to choose *k* elements from remaining *n* elts.

 $\implies \binom{n}{k}$ 

So,  $\binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k}$ 

**Theorem:**  $\binom{n+1}{k} = \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1}$ .

**Proof:** How many size k subsets of  $n+1? \binom{n+1}{k}$ .

How many size k subsets of n+1? How many contain the first element? Chose first element, need to choose k-1 more from remaining n elements.

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

How many don't contain the first element ?

Need to choose *k* elements from remaining *n* elts.

$$\implies \binom{n}{k}$$

So,  $\binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k} = \binom{n+1}{k}$ .

Isomporphism principle.

Isomporphism principle. Example.

Isomporphism principle. Example. Countability.

Isomporphism principle. Example. Countability. Diagonalization.

Given a function,  $f: D \rightarrow R$ .

Given a function,  $f: D \rightarrow R$ . One to One:

Given a function,  $f : D \rightarrow R$ . **One to One:** For all  $\forall x, y \in D, x \neq y \implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

#### Given a function, $f : D \rightarrow R$ . **One to One:** For all $\forall x, y \in D, x \neq y \implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . or

Given a function,  $f : D \rightarrow R$ . **One to One:** For all  $\forall x, y \in D, x \neq y \implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . or  $\forall x, y \in D, f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$ .

Given a function,  $f : D \rightarrow R$ . **One to One:** For all  $\forall x, y \in D, x \neq y \implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . or  $\forall x, y \in D, f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$ .

Given a function,  $f : D \rightarrow R$ . **One to One:** For all  $\forall x, y \in D, x \neq y \implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . or  $\forall x, y \in D, f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$ . **Onto:** For all  $y \in R, \exists x \in D, y = f(x)$ .

Given a function,  $f : D \rightarrow R$ . **One to One:** For all  $\forall x, y \in D, x \neq y \implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . or  $\forall x, y \in D, f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$ . **Onto:** For all  $y \in R, \exists x \in D, y = f(x)$ .

 $f(\cdot)$  is a **bijection** if it is one to one and onto.

Given a function,  $f : D \rightarrow R$ . **One to One:** For all  $\forall x, y \in D, x \neq y \implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . or  $\forall x, y \in D, f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$ . **Onto:** For all  $y \in R, \exists x \in D, y = f(x)$ .

 $f(\cdot)$  is a **bijection** if it is one to one and onto.

Isomorphism principle:

Given a function,  $f : D \rightarrow R$ . **One to One:** For all  $\forall x, y \in D, x \neq y \implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . or  $\forall x, y \in D, f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$ .

**Onto:** For all  $y \in R$ ,  $\exists x \in D$ , y = f(x).

 $f(\cdot)$  is a **bijection** if it is one to one and onto.

#### Isomorphism principle:

If there is a bijection  $f: D \rightarrow R$  then |D| = |R|.

Cardinality of [0,1] smaller than all the reals?

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to [0, 1].$ 

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ 

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2],

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If neither in [0, 1/2]

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If neither in [0, 1/2] different mult inverses

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1]$ .

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If neither in [0, 1/2] different mult inverses  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ .
Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If neither in [0, 1/2] different mult inverses  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If one is in [0, 1/2] and one isn't,

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If neither in [0, 1/2] different mult inverses  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If one is in [0, 1/2] and one isn't, different ranges

Cardinality of [0, 1] smaller than all the reals?  $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If neither in [0, 1/2] different mult inverses  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If one is in [0, 1/2] and one isn't, different ranges  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

Cardinality of [0,1] smaller than all the reals?

 $f: \mathbb{R}^+ \to [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If neither in [0, 1/2] different mult inverses  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If one is in [0, 1/2] and one isn't, different ranges  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . Bijection!

Cardinality of [0,1] smaller than all the reals?

 $f: \mathbf{R}^+ \to [0, 1].$ 

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{1}{2} & 0 \le x \le 1/2 \\ \frac{1}{4x} & x > 1/2 \end{cases}$$

One to one.  $x \neq y$ If both in [0, 1/2], a shift  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If neither in [0, 1/2] different mult inverses  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If one is in [0, 1/2] and one isn't, different ranges  $\implies f(x) \neq f(y)$ . Bijection!

[0,1] is same cardinality as nonnegative reals!



Definition: *S* is **countable** if there is a bijection between *S* and some subset of *N*.

Definition: *S* is **countable** if there is a bijection between *S* and some subset of *N*.

If the subset of *N* is finite, *S* has finite **cardinality**.

Definition: *S* is **countable** if there is a bijection between *S* and some subset of *N*.

If the subset of *N* is finite, *S* has finite **cardinality**.

If the subset of *N* is infinite, *S* is **countably infinite**.

Definition: *S* is **countable** if there is a bijection between *S* and some subset of *N*.

If the subset of *N* is finite, *S* has finite **cardinality**.

If the subset of *N* is infinite, *S* is **countably infinite**.

Bijection to or from natural numbers implies countably infinite.

Definition: *S* is **countable** if there is a bijection between *S* and some subset of *N*.

If the subset of *N* is finite, *S* has finite **cardinality**.

If the subset of *N* is infinite, *S* is **countably infinite**.

Bijection to or from natural numbers implies countably infinite.

Enumerable means countable.

Definition: *S* is **countable** if there is a bijection between *S* and some subset of *N*.

If the subset of *N* is finite, *S* has finite **cardinality**.

If the subset of *N* is infinite, *S* is **countably infinite**.

Bijection to or from natural numbers implies countably infinite.

Enumerable means countable.

Subset of countable set is countable.

Definition: *S* is **countable** if there is a bijection between *S* and some subset of *N*.

If the subset of *N* is finite, *S* has finite **cardinality**.

If the subset of *N* is infinite, *S* is **countably infinite**.

Bijection to or from natural numbers implies countably infinite.

Enumerable means countable.

Subset of countable set is countable.

All countably infinite sets are the same cardinality as each other.

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

► Z<sup>+</sup> - positive integers

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

 Z<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

►  $Z^+$  - positive integers Where's 0? Bijection: f(z) = z - 1.

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

►  $Z^+$  - positive integers Where's 0? Bijection: f(z) = z - 1. (Where's 0?

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

►  $Z^+$  - positive integers Where's 0? Bijection: f(z) = z - 1. (Where's 0? 1

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1.
(Where's 0? 1 Where's 1?

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1.
(Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

E even numbers.

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

E even numbers. Where are the odds?

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

E even numbers. Where are the odds? Half as big?

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

• *E* even numbers. Where are the odds? Half as big? Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

• *E* even numbers. Where are the odds? Half as big? Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

Z- all integers.

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

► E even numbers. Where are the odds? Half as big? Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

Z- all integers.
Twice as big?

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

*E* even numbers.
Where are the odds? Half as big?
Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

• Z- all integers. Twice as big? Bijection: f(z) = 2|z| - sign(z).

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

► E even numbers. Where are the odds? Half as big? Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

► Z- all integers. Twice as big? Bijection: f(z) = 2|z| - sign(z). Enumerate: 0,

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

*E* even numbers.
Where are the odds? Half as big?
Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

► Z- all integers. Twice as big? Bijection: f(z) = 2|z| - sign(z). Enumerate: 0, -1,

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

► E even numbers. Where are the odds? Half as big? Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

► Z- all integers. Twice as big? Bijection: f(z) = 2|z| - sign(z). Enumerate: 0, -1,1,

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

*E* even numbers.
Where are the odds? Half as big?
Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

► Z- all integers. Twice as big? Bijection: f(z) = 2|z| - sign(z). Enumerate: 0, -1, 1, -2,

Countably infinite (same cardinality as naturals)

*Z*<sup>+</sup> - positive integers Where's 0?
Bijection: *f*(*z*) = *z* − 1. (Where's 0? 1 Where's 1? 2 ...)

*E* even numbers.
Where are the odds? Half as big?
Bijection: f(e) = e/2.

► Z- all integers. Twice as big? Bijection: f(z) = 2|z| - sign(z). Enumerate: 0, -1, 1, -2, 2...

#### Examples: Countable by enumeration

•  $N \times N$  - Pairs of integers.

#### Examples: Countable by enumeration

N × N - Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite?

#### Examples: Countable by enumeration

N × N - Pairs of integers.
Square of countably infinite?
Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),...
N × N - Pairs of integers.
 Square of countably infinite?
 Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ???

N×N - Pairs of integers.
 Square of countably infinite?
 Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ???
 Never get to (1,1)!

 N×N - Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0),(0,1),(0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0),

►  $N \times N$  - Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate:  $(0,0), (0,1), (0,2), \dots$  ??? Never get to (1,1)!Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0),

►  $N \times N$  - Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate:  $(0,0), (0,1), (0,2), \dots$  ??? Never get to (1,1)!Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1),

►  $N \times N$  - Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate:  $(0,0), (0,1), (0,2), \dots$  ??? Never get to (1,1)!Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0),

N×N - Pairs of integers.
 Square of countably infinite?
 Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ???
 Never get to (1,1)!
 Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1),

N×N - Pairs of integers.
 Square of countably infinite?
 Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ???
 Never get to (1,1)!
 Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)...

▶  $N \times N$  - Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.

▶  $N \times N$  - Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.

Positive Rational numbers.

▶  $N \times N$  - Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (a+b-1)(a+b)/2+b in this order.

Positive Rational numbers.
 Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers.

- ▶  $N \times N$  Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.
- Positive Rational numbers.
   Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers.
   Countably infinite.
- All rational numbers.

- ▶  $N \times N$  Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.
- Positive Rational numbers. Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers. Countably infinite.
- All rational numbers.
   Enumerate: list 0, positive and negative.

- ▶  $N \times N$  Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.
- Positive Rational numbers. Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers. Countably infinite.
- All rational numbers. Enumerate: list 0, positive and negative. How?

- ▶  $N \times N$  Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.
- Positive Rational numbers. Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers. Countably infinite.
- All rational numbers.
   Enumerate: list 0, positive and negative. How?
   Enumerate: 0,

- ▶  $N \times N$  Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.
- Positive Rational numbers. Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers. Countably infinite.
- All rational numbers.
   Enumerate: list 0, positive and negative. How?
   Enumerate: 0, first positive,

- ▶  $N \times N$  Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.
- Positive Rational numbers. Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers. Countably infinite.
- All rational numbers.
   Enumerate: list 0, positive and negative. How?
   Enumerate: 0, first positive, first negative,

- ▶  $N \times N$  Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.
- Positive Rational numbers. Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers. Countably infinite.
- All rational numbers.
   Enumerate: list 0, positive and negative. How?
   Enumerate: 0, first positive, first negative, second positive..

- ▶  $N \times N$  Pairs of integers. Square of countably infinite? Enumerate: (0,0), (0,1), (0,2),... ??? Never get to (1,1)! Enumerate: (0,0), (1,0), (0,1), (2,0), (1,1), (0,2)... (*a*,*b*) at position (*a*+*b*-1)(*a*+*b*)/2+*b* in this order.
- Positive Rational numbers. Infinite Subset of pairs of natural numbers. Countably infinite.
- All rational numbers.
   Enumerate: list 0, positive and negative. How?
   Enumerate: 0, first positive, first negative, second positive..
   Will eventually get to any rational.

The set of all subsets of N.

The set of all subsets of *N*.

Assume is countable.

The set of all subsets of N.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

- The set of all subsets of N.
- Assume is countable.
- There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.
- Define a diagonal set, D:

The set of all subsets of N.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

Define a diagonal set, *D*: If *i*th set in *L* does not contain *i*,  $i \in D$ .

```
The set of all subsets of N.
```

Assume is countable.

```
There is a listing, L, that contains all subsets of N.
```

```
Define a diagonal set, D:
If ith set in L does not contain i, i \in D.
otherwise i \notin D.
```

```
The set of all subsets of N.
```

Assume is countable.

```
There is a listing, L, that contains all subsets of N.
```

```
Define a diagonal set, D:
If ith set in L does not contain i, i \in D.
otherwise i \notin D.
```

The set of all subsets of N.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

Define a diagonal set, *D*: If *i*th set in *L* does not contain *i*,  $i \in D$ . otherwise  $i \notin D$ .

D is different from *i*th set in L for every *i*.

The set of all subsets of N.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

Define a diagonal set, *D*: If *i*th set in *L* does not contain *i*,  $i \in D$ . otherwise  $i \notin D$ .

*D* is different from *i*th set in *L* for every *i*.

 $\implies$  *D* is not in the listing.

The set of all subsets of N.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

Define a diagonal set, *D*: If *i*th set in *L* does not contain *i*,  $i \in D$ . otherwise  $i \notin D$ .

*D* is different from *i*th set in *L* for every *i*.

 $\implies$  *D* is not in the listing.

D is a subset of N.

The set of all subsets of N.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

Define a diagonal set, *D*: If *i*th set in *L* does not contain *i*,  $i \in D$ . otherwise  $i \notin D$ .

*D* is different from *i*th set in *L* for every *i*.

 $\implies$  *D* is not in the listing.

D is a subset of N.

L does not contain all subsets of N.

The set of all subsets of N.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

Define a diagonal set, *D*: If *i*th set in *L* does not contain *i*,  $i \in D$ . otherwise  $i \notin D$ .

D is different from *i*th set in L for every *i*.

 $\implies$  *D* is not in the listing.

D is a subset of N.

L does not contain all subsets of N.

Contradiction.

The set of all subsets of *N*.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

Define a diagonal set, *D*: If *i*th set in *L* does not contain *i*,  $i \in D$ . otherwise  $i \notin D$ .

*D* is different from *i*th set in *L* for every *i*.

 $\implies$  *D* is not in the listing.

D is a subset of N.

L does not contain all subsets of N.

Contradiction.

**Theorem:** The set of all subsets of *N* is not countable.

The set of all subsets of *N*.

Assume is countable.

There is a listing, *L*, that contains all subsets of *N*.

Define a diagonal set, *D*: If *i*th set in *L* does not contain *i*,  $i \in D$ . otherwise  $i \notin D$ .

*D* is different from *i*th set in *L* for every *i*.

 $\implies$  *D* is not in the listing.

D is a subset of N.

L does not contain all subsets of N.

Contradiction.

**Theorem:** The set of all subsets of N is not countable. (The set of all subsets of S, is the **powerset** of N.)

# Uncomputability.

Halting problem is undecibable.

# Uncomputability.

Halting problem is undecibable. Diagonalization.

# Uncomputability.

Halting problem is undecibable. Diagonalization.
HALT(P, I)

HALT(P, I) P - program

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

Theorem: There is no program HALT.

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

**Theorem:** There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes!

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

Theorem: There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No!

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

**Theorem:** There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No! Yes!

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

**Theorem:** There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No! Yes! No!

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

**Theorem:** There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No! Yes! No! No!

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

**Theorem:** There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No! Yes! No! No! Yes!

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

Theorem: There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No! Yes! No! No! Yes! No!

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (P run on I) halts or loops forever.

Theorem: There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No! Yes! No! No! Yes! No! Yes!

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (P run on I) halts or loops forever.

Theorem: There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No! Yes! No! Yes! No! Yes! ...

HALT(P, I) P - program I - input.

Determines if P(I) (*P* run on *I*) halts or loops forever.

Theorem: There is no program HALT.

Proof: Yes! No! Yes! No! No! Yes! No! Yes! ...

Proof:

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) = "halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) = "halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) = "halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) = "halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) = "halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

Turing(Turing) halts

 $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) = "halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

Turing(Turing) halts

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

Turing(Turing) loops forever.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

Turing(Turing) halts

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

Turing(Turing) loops forever.

 $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing)  $\neq$  halts

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

Turing(Turing) halts

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

Turing(Turing) loops forever.

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing)  $\neq$  halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) halts.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

Turing(Turing) halts

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

Turing(Turing) loops forever.

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing)  $\neq$  halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) halts.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) ="halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

Turing(Turing) halts

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

Turing(Turing) loops forever.

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing)  $\neq$  halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) halts.

Either way is contradiction. Program HALT does not exist!
# Halt and Turing.

**Proof:** Assume there is a program  $HALT(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

Turing(P)

- 1. If HALT(P,P) = "halts", then go into an infinite loop.
- 2. Otherwise, halt immediately.

Assumption: there is a program HALT. There is text that "is" the program HALT. There is text that is the program Turing. Can run Turing on Turing!

Does Turing(Turing) halt?

Turing(Turing) halts

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing) = halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) loops forever.

Turing(Turing) loops forever.

- $\implies$  then HALTS(Turing, Turing)  $\neq$  halts
- $\implies$  Turing(Turing) halts.

Either way is contradiction. Program HALT does not exist!

Any program is a fixed length string.

Any program is a fixed length string. Fixed length strings are enumerable.

	<i>P</i> <sub>1</sub>	$P_2$	$P_3$	
$P_1$ $P_2$	HL	H L	L H	· · · ·
$P_3$	L	н	Н	•••
÷	÷	÷	÷	۰.

	$P_1$	$P_2$	$P_3$		
P <sub>1</sub>	Н	н	L		
$P_2$ $P_3$	L	H	Н		
: !	: dia a	:	÷	•••	
: Halt -	diag	: onal.	:	••	

	<i>P</i> <sub>1</sub>	$P_2$	$P_3$				
$P_1$	н	Н	L				
$P_2$	L	L	Н				
$P_3$	L	Н	Н				
÷	:	÷	÷	·			
Halt - diagonal.							
Turing - is not Halt.							

Any program is a fixed length string. Fixed length strings are enumerable. Program halts or not any input, which is a string.

		$P_1$	$P_2$	$P_3$			
ŀ	P <sub>1</sub>	Н	Н	L	•••		
ŀ	<b>D</b> 2	L	L	Н			
ł	P <sub>3</sub>	L	Н	Н			
	:	÷	÷	÷	·		
Halt - diagonal.							
Turing - is not Halt.							
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·							

and is different from every  $P_i$  on the diagonal.

Any program is a fixed length string. Fixed length strings are enumerable. Program halts or not any input, which is a string.

	$ P_1 $	$P_2$	$P_3$	•••	
P.	н	н	ı		
$P_2$		L	Н		
$P_3$	L	Н	н		
÷	:	÷	÷	۰.	
Halt -	diag	onal.			
Turing	g - is	not H	alt.		
and is	s diffe	erent f	rom e	every	$P_i$ on the diagonal.

Turing is not on list.

Any program is a fixed length string. Fixed length strings are enumerable. Program halts or not any input, which is a string.

	<i>P</i> <sub>1</sub>	$P_2$	$P_3$	
P,	н	н	ī	
$P_2$	Ľ	L	Н	•••
$P_3$	L	Н	Н	
÷	:	÷	÷	·

Halt - diagonal. Turing - is not Halt. and is different from every  $P_i$  on the diagonal. Turing is not on list. Turing is not a program.

Any program is a fixed length string. Fixed length strings are enumerable. Program halts or not any input, which is a string.

	<i>P</i> <sub>1</sub>	$P_2$	$P_3$	•••
P <sub>1</sub> P <sub>2</sub> P <sub>3</sub>	H L L	H L H	L H H	 
÷	÷	÷	÷	۰.

Halt - diagonal.

Turing - is not Halt.

and is different from every  $P_i$  on the diagonal. Turing is not on list. Turing is not a program. Turing can be constructed from Halt.

Any program is a fixed length string. Fixed length strings are enumerable. Program halts or not any input, which is a string.

_	<i>P</i> <sub>1</sub>	$P_2$	$P_3$	
P <sub>1</sub> P <sub>2</sub> P <sub>3</sub>	H L L	H L H	L H H	 
÷	:	÷	÷	۰.

Halt - diagonal.

Turing - is not Halt. and is different from every  $P_i$  on the diagonal.

Turing is not on list. Turing is not a program.

Turing can be constructed from Halt.

Halt does not exist!

Does a program print "Hello World"?

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane?

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution? Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions.

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions. Problem is undecidable.

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions. Problem is undecidable.

Be careful!

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions. Problem is undecidable.

Be careful!

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions. Problem is undecidable.

Be careful!

Is there a solution to  $x^n + y^n = 1$ ? (Diophantine equation.)

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions. Problem is undecidable.

Be careful!

Is there a solution to  $x^n + y^n = 1$ ? (Diophantine equation.)

The answer is yes or no. This "problem" is not undecidable.

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions. Problem is undecidable.

Be careful!

Is there a solution to  $x^n + y^n = 1$ ? (Diophantine equation.)

The answer is yes or no. This "problem" is not undecidable.

Undecidability for Diophantine set of equations

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions. Problem is undecidable.

Be careful!

Is there a solution to  $x^n + y^n = 1$ ? (Diophantine equation.)

The answer is yes or no. This "problem" is not undecidable.

Undecidability for Diophantine set of equations  $\implies$  no program can take any set of integer equations

Does a program print "Hello World"? Find exit points and add statement: **Print** "Hello World."

Can a set of notched tiles tile the infinite plane? Proof: simulate a computer. Halts if finite.

Does a set of integer equations have a solution?

Example: Ask program if " $x^n + y^n = 1$ ?" has integer solutions. Problem is undecidable.

Be careful!

Is there a solution to  $x^n + y^n = 1$ ? (Diophantine equation.)

The answer is yes or no. This "problem" is not undecidable.

 $\begin{array}{l} \text{Undecidability for Diophantine set of equations} \\ \implies \text{ no program can take any set of integer equations} \\ & \text{and always output correct answer.} \end{array}$ 

1) Any program with finite time/space.

- 1) Any program with finite time/space.
- 2) Can output all programs that halt on themselves?

1) Any program with finite time/space.

2) Can output all programs that halt on themselves?

Why?

1) Any program with finite time/space.

2) Can output all programs that halt on themselves?

Why?

1) Run it and check!

- 1) Any program with finite time/space.
- 2) Can output all programs that halt on themselves?

Why?

- 1) Run it and check!
- 2) Like enumerating pairs of natural numbers.

1) Any program with finite time/space.

2) Can output all programs that halt on themselves?

Why?

1) Run it and check!

2) Like enumerating pairs of natural numbers.

- (program, time).

1) Any program with finite time/space.

2) Can output all programs that halt on themselves?

Why?

- 1) Run it and check!
- 2) Like enumerating pairs of natural numbers.
- (program, time). and run program for that time.

1) Any program with finite time/space.

2) Can output all programs that halt on themselves?

Why?

1) Run it and check!

2) Like enumerating pairs of natural numbers.– (program, time). and run program for that time.Each program that halts, halts at some time.
Time: approximately 180 minutes

Time: approximately 180 minutes Many short answers.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers. Get at ideas that we study. Know material well:

Time: approximately 180 minutes Many short answers. Get at ideas that we study. Know material well: fast,

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers. Get at ideas that we study. Know material well: fast, correct.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers. Get at ideas that we study. Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium:

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers. Get at ideas that we study. Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower,

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers. Get at ideas that we study. Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers. Get at ideas that we study. Know material well: Know material medium: Know material not so well:

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers. Get at ideas that we study. Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct. Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study. Know material well:

fast, correct.

Know material medium: slower, less correct.

Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study. Know material well:

fast, correct.

Know material medium: slower, less correct.

Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study.

Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct. Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Priming: sequence of questions...

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study.

Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct. Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Priming: sequence of questions... but don't overdo this as test strategy!!!

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study.

Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct. Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Priming: sequence of questions... but don't overdo this as test strategy!!!

Proofs,

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study.

Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct. Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Priming: sequence of questions... but don't overdo this as test strategy!!!

Proofs, algorithms,

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study.

Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct. Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Priming: sequence of questions... but don't overdo this as test strategy!!!

Proofs, algorithms, properties.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study.

Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct. Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Priming: sequence of questions... but don't overdo this as test strategy!!!

Proofs, algorithms, properties. Some calculation.

Time: approximately 180 minutes

Many short answers.

Get at ideas that we study.

Know material well: fast, correct. Know material medium: slower, less correct. Know material not so well: Uh oh.

Some longer questions.

Priming: sequence of questions... but don't overdo this as test strategy!!!

Proofs, algorithms, properties. Some calculation.

Watch Piazza for Logistics!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements.

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues....

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

# Good Studying!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

# Good Studying!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

# Good Studying!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

# Good Studying!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

# Good Studying!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

## Good Studying!!!!!
Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

## Good Studying!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

### Good Studying!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

### Good Studying!!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

## Good Studying!!!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

## Good Studying!!!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

## Good Studying!!!!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

## Good Studying!!!!!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

# Good Studying!!!!!!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

## Good Studying!!!!!!!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

## Good Studying!!!!!!!!!!!!!

Watch Piazza for Logistics! Watch Piazza for Advice!

If you sent me email about Final conflicts Other arrangements. Should have recieved an email today from me.

Other issues.... satishr@cs.berkeley.edu Private message on piazza.

###