

Slides
for Part IA CST 2022/23

Discrete Mathematics

www.cl.cam.ac.uk/teaching/2223/DiscMath

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What are we up to ?

- ▶ Learn to read and write, and also work with, mathematical arguments.
- ▶ Doing some basic discrete mathematics.
- ▶ Getting a taste of computer science applications.

What is Discrete Mathematics ?

from *Discrete Mathematics (second edition)* by N. Biggs

Discrete Mathematics is the branch of Mathematics in which we deal with questions involving finite or countably infinite sets. In particular this means that the numbers involved are either integers, or numbers closely related to them, such as fractions or ‘modular’ numbers.

What is it that we do ?

In general:

Build mathematical models and apply methods to analyse problems that arise in computer science.

In particular:

Make and study mathematical constructions by means of definitions and theorems. We aim at understanding their properties and limitations.

Lecture plan

- I. Proofs.
- II. Numbers.
- III. Sets.
- IV. Regular languages and finite automata.

Proofs

Objectives

- ▶ To develop techniques for analysing and understanding mathematical statements.
- ▶ To be able to present logical arguments that establish mathematical statements in the form of clear proofs.
- ▶ To prove Fermat's Little Theorem, a basic result in the theory of numbers that has many applications in computer science.

Proofs in practice

We are interested in examining the following statement:

The product of two odd integers is odd.

This seems innocuous enough, but it is in fact full of baggage.

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We are interested in examining the following statement:

The product of two odd integers is odd.

This seems innocuous enough, but it is in fact full of baggage.

For instance, it presupposes that you know:

- ▶ what a statement is;
- ▶ what the integers $(\dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots)$ are, and that amongst them there is a class of odd ones $(\dots, -3, -1, 1, 3, \dots)$;
- ▶ what the product of two integers is, and that this is in turn an integer.

More precisely put, we may write:

If m and n are odd integers then so is $m \cdot n$.

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If m and n are odd integers then so is $m \cdot n$.

which further presupposes that you know:

- ▶ what variables are;
- ▶ what

if ... then ...

statements are, and how one goes about proving them;

- ▶ that the symbol “ \cdot ” is commonly used to denote the product operation.

Even more precisely, we should write

For all integers m and n , if m and n are odd then so is $m \cdot n$.

which now additionally presupposes that you know:

► what

for all ...

statements are, and how one goes about proving them.

Thus, in trying to understand and then prove the above statement, we are assuming quite a lot of *mathematical jargon* that one needs to learn and practice with to make it a useful, and in fact very powerful, tool.

Some mathematical jargon

Statement

A sentence that is either true or false — but not both.

Example 1

$$'e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0'$$

Non-example

'This statement is false'

Predicate

A statement whose truth depends on the value of one or more variables.

Example 2

1. $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$

2. *'the function f is differentiable'*

Theorem

A very important true statement.

Proposition

A less important but nonetheless interesting true statement.

Lemma

A true statement used in proving other true statements.

Corollary

A true statement that is a simple deduction from a theorem or proposition.

Example 3

1. *Fermat's Last Theorem*
2. *The Pumping Lemma*

Conjecture

A statement believed to be true, but for which we have no proof.

Example 4

1. *Goldbach's Conjecture*
2. *The Riemann Hypothesis*

Proof

Logical explanation of why a statement is true; a method for establishing truth.

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Logical explanation of why a statement is true; a method for establishing truth.

Logic

The study of methods and principles used to distinguish good (correct) from bad (incorrect) reasoning.

Example 5

1. *Classical predicate logic*
2. *Hoare logic*
3. *Temporal logic*

Axiom

A basic assumption about a mathematical situation.

Axioms can be considered facts that do not need to be proved (just to get us going in a subject) or they can be used in definitions.

Example 6

1. *Euclidean Geometry*
2. *Riemannian Geometry*
3. *Hyperbolic Geometry*

Definition

An explanation of the mathematical meaning of a word (or phrase).

The word (or phrase) is generally defined in terms of properties.

Warning: It is vitally important that you can recall definitions precisely. A common problem is not to be able to advance in some problem because the definition of a word is unknown.

Definition, theorem, intuition, proof in practice

Proposition 8 *For all integers m and n , if m and n are odd then so is $m \cdot n$.*

Definition, theorem, intuition, proof in practice

Definition 7 *An integer is said to be odd whenever it is of the form $2 \cdot i + 1$ for some (necessarily unique) integer i .*

Proposition 8 *For all integers m and n , if m and n are odd then so is $m \cdot n$.*

Intuition:

PROOF OF Proposition 8:

Simple and composite statements

A statement is simple (or atomic) when it cannot be broken into other statements, and it is composite when it is built by using several (simple or composite statements) connected by *logical* expressions (e.g., if...then...; ...implies ...; ...if and only if ...; ...and...; either ... or ...; it is not the case that ...; for all ...; there exists ...; etc.)

Examples:

'2 is a prime number'

'for all integers m and n , if $m \cdot n$ is even then either n or m are even'

Proof Structure

Assumptions	Goals
statements that may be used for deduction	statements to be established

Implication

Theorems can usually be written in the form

if a collection of *assumptions* holds,
then so does some *conclusion*

or, in other words,

a collection of *assumptions* **implies** some *conclusion*

or, in symbols,

a collection of *hypotheses* \implies some *conclusion*

NB Identifying precisely what the assumptions and conclusions are is the first goal in dealing with a theorem.

Implications

- ▶ How to *prove* them as goals.
- ▶ How to *use* them as assumptions.

How to prove implication goals

The main proof strategy for implication:

To prove a goal of the form

$$P \implies Q$$

assume that P is true and prove Q .

NB *Assuming* is not *asserting*! Assuming a statement amounts to the same thing as adding it to your list of hypotheses.

Proof pattern:

In order to prove that

$$P \implies Q$$

1. **Write:** Assume P .
2. **Show that Q logically follows.**

Scratch work:

Before using the strategy

Assumptions

⋮

Goal

$P \implies Q$

After using the strategy

Assumptions

⋮

P

Goal

Q

Proposition 8 *If m and n are odd integers, then so is $m \cdot n$.*

PROOF:

Definition 9 *A real number is:*

- ▶ rational if it is of the form m/n for a pair of integers m and n ; otherwise it is irrational.
- ▶ positive if it is greater than 0, and negative if it is smaller than 0.
- ▶ nonnegative if it is greater than or equal 0, and nonpositive if it is smaller than or equal 0.
- ▶ natural if it is a nonnegative integer.

Proposition 10 *Let x be a positive real number. If \sqrt{x} is rational then so is x .*

PROOF:

How to use implication assumptions

Logical Deduction by Modus Ponens

A main rule of *logical deduction* is that of *Modus Ponens*:

From the statements P and $P \implies Q$,
the statement Q follows.

or, in other words,

If P and $P \implies Q$ hold then so does Q .

or, in symbols,

$$\frac{P \quad P \implies Q}{Q}$$

The use of implications:

To use an assumption of the form $P \implies Q$,
aim at establishing P .

Once this is done, by Modus Ponens, one can
conclude Q and so further assume it.

Theorem 11 *Let P_1 , P_2 , and P_3 be statements. If $P_1 \implies P_2$ and $P_2 \implies P_3$ then $P_1 \implies P_3$.*

PROOF:

Bi-implication

Some theorems can be written in the form

P is equivalent to Q

or, in other words,

P implies Q, and vice versa

or

Q implies P, and vice versa

or

P if, and only if, Q

P iff Q

or, in symbols,

$P \iff Q$

Proof pattern:

In order to prove that

$$P \iff Q$$

1. Write: (\implies) and give a proof of $P \implies Q$.
2. Write: (\impliedby) and give a proof of $Q \implies P$.

Proposition 12 *Suppose that n is an integer. Then, n is even iff n^2 is even.*

PROOF:

Divisibility and congruence

Definition 13 Let d and n be integers. We say that d divides n , and write $d \mid n$, whenever there is an integer k such that $n = k \cdot d$.

Example 14 The statement $2 \mid 4$ is true, while $4 \mid 2$ is not.

Definition 15 Fix a positive integer m . For integers a and b , we say that a is congruent to b modulo m , and write $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, whenever $m \mid (a - b)$.

Example 16

1. $18 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$
2. $2 \equiv -2 \pmod{4}$
3. $18 \equiv -2 \pmod{4}$

Proposition 17 *For every integer n ,*

1. n is even if, and only if, $n \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$, and
2. n is odd if, and only if, $n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.

PROOF:

The use of bi-implications:

To use an assumption of the form $P \iff Q$, use it as two separate assumptions $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$.

Universal quantifications

- ▶ How to *prove* them as goals.
- ▶ How to *use* them as assumptions.

Universal quantification

Universal statements are of the form

for all individuals x of the universe of discourse,
the property $P(x)$ holds

or, in other words,

no matter what individual x in the universe of discourse
one considers, the property $P(x)$ for it holds

or, in symbols,

$\forall x. P(x)$

Example 18

2. *For every positive real number x , if \sqrt{x} is rational then so is x .*
3. *For every integer n , we have that n is even iff so is n^2 .*

The main proof strategy for universal statements:

To prove a goal of the form

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

let x stand for an arbitrary individual and prove $P(x)$.

Proof pattern:

In order to prove that

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

1. **Write:** Let x be an arbitrary individual.

2. Show that $P(x)$ holds.

Proof pattern:

In order to prove that

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

1. **Write:** Let x be an arbitrary individual.

Warning: Make sure that the variable x is new (also referred to as fresh) in the proof! If for some reason the variable x is already being used in the proof to stand for something else, then you must use an unused variable, say y , to stand for the arbitrary individual, and prove $P(y)$.

2. **Show that $P(x)$ holds.**

Scratch work:

Before using the strategy

Assumptions

⋮

Goal

$\forall x. P(x)$

After using the strategy

Assumptions

⋮

Goal

$P(x)$ (for a new (or fresh) x)

Example:

Assumptions

⋮

$$n > 0$$

⋮

unprovable

Goal

for all integers n , $n \geq 1$

How to use universal statements

Assumptions

⋮

$$\forall x. x^2 \geq 0$$

⋮

$$\pi^2 \geq 0$$

$$e^2 \geq 0$$

$$0^2 \geq 0$$

⋮

The use of universal statements:

To use an assumption of the form $\forall x. P(x)$, you can plug in any value, say a , for x to conclude that $P(a)$ is true and so further assume it.

This rule is called *universal instantiation*.

Proposition 19 Fix a positive integer m . For integers a and b , we have that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if, and only if, for all positive integers n , we have that $n \cdot a \equiv n \cdot b \pmod{n \cdot m}$.

PROOF:

Equality in proofs

Examples:

- ▶ If $a = b$ and $b = c$ then $a = c$.
- ▶ If $a = b$ and $x = y$ then $a + x = b + x = b + y$.

Equality axioms

Just for the record, here are the axioms for *equality*.

- ▶ Every individual is equal to itself.

$$\forall x. x = x$$

- ▶ For any pair of equal individuals, if a property holds for one of them then it also holds for the other one.

$$\forall x. \forall y. x = y \implies (P(x) \implies P(y))$$

NB From these axioms one may deduce the usual intuitive properties of equality, such as

$$\forall x. \forall y. x = y \implies y = x$$

and

$$\forall x. \forall y. \forall z. x = y \implies (y = z \implies x = z) .$$

However, in practice, you will not be required to formally do so; rather you may just use the properties of equality that you are already familiar with.

Conjunctions

- ▶ How to *prove* them as goals.
- ▶ How to *use* them as assumptions.

Conjunction

Conjunctive statements are of the form

P and Q

or, in other words,

both P and also Q hold

or, in symbols,

$P \wedge Q$

or

$P \& Q$

The proof strategy for conjunction:

To prove a goal of the form

$$P \wedge Q$$

first prove P and subsequently prove Q (or vice versa).

Proof pattern:

In order to prove

$$P \wedge Q$$

1. **Write:** Firstly, we prove P . and provide a proof of P .
2. **Write:** Secondly, we prove Q . and provide a proof of Q .

Scratch work:

Before using the strategy

Assumptions

⋮

Goal

$P \wedge Q$

After using the strategy

Assumptions

⋮

Goal

P

Assumptions

⋮

Goal

Q

The use of conjunctions:

To use an assumption of the form $P \wedge Q$,
treat it as two separate assumptions: P and Q .

Theorem 20 *For every integer n , we have that $6 \mid n$ iff $2 \mid n$ and $3 \mid n$.*

PROOF:

Existential quantifications

- ▶ How to *prove* them as goals.
- ▶ How to *use* them as assumptions.

Existential quantification

Existential statements are of the form

there exists an individual x in the universe of discourse for which the property $P(x)$ holds

or, in other words,

for some individual x in the universe of discourse, the property $P(x)$ holds

or, in symbols,

$\exists x. P(x)$

Example: The Pigeonhole Principle.

Let n be a positive integer. If $n + 1$ letters are put in n pigeonholes then there will be a pigeonhole with more than one letter.

Theorem 21 (Intermediate value theorem) *Let f be a real-valued continuous function on an interval $[a, b]$. For every y in between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, there exists v in between a and b such that $f(v) = y$.*

Intuition:

The main proof strategy for existential statements:

To prove a goal of the form

$$\exists x. P(x)$$

find a *witness* for the existential statement; that is, a value of x , say w , for which you think $P(x)$ will be true, and show that indeed $P(w)$, i.e. the predicate $P(x)$ instantiated with the value w , holds.

Proof pattern:

In order to prove

$$\exists x. P(x)$$

1. **Write:** Let $w = \dots$ (the witness you decided on).
2. **Provide a proof of $P(w)$.**

Scratch work:

Before using the strategy

Assumptions

Goal

$\exists x. P(x)$

⋮

After using the strategy

Assumptions

Goals

$P(w)$

⋮

$w = \dots$ (the witness you decided on)

Proposition 22 *For every positive integer k , there exist natural numbers i and j such that $4 \cdot k = i^2 - j^2$.*

PROOF:

The use of existential statements:

To use an assumption of the form $\exists x. P(x)$, introduce a new variable x_0 into the proof to stand for some individual for which the property $P(x)$ holds. This means that you can now assume $P(x_0)$ true.

Theorem 24 *For all integers l, m, n , if $l \mid m$ and $m \mid n$ then $l \mid n$.*

PROOF:

Unique existence

The notation

$$\exists! x. P(x)$$

stands for

the *unique existence* of an x for which the property $P(x)$ holds .

That is,

$$\exists x. P(x) \wedge \left(\forall y. \forall z. (P(y) \wedge P(z)) \implies y = z \right)$$

Example: The congruence property modulo m uniquely characterises the natural numbers from 0 to $m - 1$.

Proposition 25 *Let m be a positive integer and let n be an integer.*

Define

$$P(z) = [0 \leq z < m \wedge z \equiv n \pmod{m}] .$$

Then

$$\forall x, y. P(x) \wedge P(y) \implies x = y .$$

PROOF:

A proof strategy

To prove

$$\forall x. \exists! y. P(x, y) ,$$

for an arbitrary x construct the unique witness and name it, say as $f(x)$, showing that

$$P(x, f(x))$$

and

$$\forall y. P(x, y) \implies y = f(x)$$

hold.

Disjunctions

- ▶ How to *prove* them as goals.
- ▶ How to *use* them as assumptions.

Disjunction

Disjunctive statements are of the form

$$P \text{ or } Q$$

or, in other words,

either P , Q , or both hold

or, in symbols,

$$P \vee Q$$

The main proof strategy for disjunction:

To prove a goal of the form

$$P \vee Q$$

you may

1. try to prove P (if you succeed, then you are done); or
2. try to prove Q (if you succeed, then you are done);
otherwise
3. break your proof into cases; proving, in each case,
either P or Q .

Proposition 26 *For all integers n , either $n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ or $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.*

PROOF:

The use of disjunction:

To use a disjunctive assumption

$$P_1 \vee P_2$$

to establish a goal Q , consider the following two cases in turn: (i) assume P_1 to establish Q , and (ii) assume P_2 to establish Q .

Scratch work:

Before using the strategy

Assumptions

Goal

Q

⋮

$P_1 \vee P_2$

After using the strategy

Assumptions

Goal

Q

Assumptions

Goal

Q

⋮

P_1

⋮

P_2

Proof pattern:

In order to prove Q from some assumptions amongst which there is

$$P_1 \vee P_2$$

write: We prove the following two cases in turn: (i) that assuming P_1 , we have Q ; and (ii) that assuming P_2 , we have Q . Case (i): Assume P_1 . **and provide a proof of Q from it and the other assumptions.** Case (ii): Assume P_2 . **and provide a proof of Q from it and the other assumptions.**

A little arithmetic

Lemma 28 *For all positive integers p and natural numbers m , if $m = 0$ or $m = p$ then $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.*

PROOF:

Lemma 29 For all integers p and m , if p is prime and $0 < m < p$ then $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.

PROOF:

Proposition 30 *For all prime numbers p and integers $0 \leq m \leq p$, either $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ or $\binom{p}{m} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.*

PROOF:

A little more arithmetic

Corollary 34 (The Freshman's Dream) *For all natural numbers m , n and primes p ,*

$$(m + n)^p \equiv m^p + n^p \pmod{p} .$$

PROOF:

Corollary 35 (The Dropout Lemma) *For all natural numbers m and primes p ,*

$$(m + 1)^p \equiv m^p + 1 \pmod{p} .$$

Proposition 36 (The Many Dropout Lemma) *For all natural numbers m and i , and primes p ,*

$$(m + i)^p \equiv m^p + i \pmod{p} .$$

PROOF:

Fermat's Little Theorem

The Many Dropout Lemma (Proposition 36) gives the first part of the following very important theorem as a corollary.

Theorem 37 (Fermat's Little Theorem) *For all natural numbers i and primes p ,*

1. $i^p \equiv i \pmod{p}$, and
2. $i^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ whenever i is not a multiple of p .

The fact that the first part of Fermat's Little Theorem implies the second one will be proved later on .

Every natural number i not a multiple of a prime number p has a *reciprocal* modulo p , namely i^{p-2} , as $i \cdot (i^{p-2}) \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Btw

1. Fermat's Little Theorem has applications to:
 - (a) primality testing^a,
 - (b) the verification of floating-point algorithms, and
 - (c) cryptographic security.

^aFor instance, to establish that a positive integer m is not prime one may proceed to find an integer i such that $i^m \not\equiv i \pmod{m}$.

Negation

Negations are statements of the form

not P

or, in other words,

P is not the case

or

P is absurd

or

P leads to contradiction

or, in symbols,

$\neg P$

A first proof strategy for negated goals and assumptions:

If possible, reexpress the negation in an *equivalent* form and use instead this other statement.

Logical equivalences

$$\begin{aligned}\neg(P \implies Q) &\iff P \wedge \neg Q \\ \neg(P \iff Q) &\iff P \iff \neg Q \\ \neg(\forall x. P(x)) &\iff \exists x. \neg P(x) \\ \neg(P \wedge Q) &\iff (\neg P) \vee (\neg Q) \\ \neg(\exists x. P(x)) &\iff \forall x. \neg P(x) \\ \neg(P \vee Q) &\iff (\neg P) \wedge (\neg Q) \\ \neg(\neg P) &\iff P \\ \neg P &\iff (P \implies \mathbf{false})\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 38 *For all statements P and Q,*

$$(P \implies Q) \implies (\neg Q \implies \neg P) .$$

PROOF:

Proof by contradiction

Amongst the equivalences for negation, we have postulated the somewhat controversial:

$$\neg\neg P \iff P$$

which is *classically* accepted.

In this light,

to prove P

one may equivalently

prove $\neg P \implies \text{false}$;

that is,

assuming $\neg P$ leads to contradiction .

This technique is known as *proof by contradiction*.

The strategy for proof by contradiction:

To prove a goal P by contradiction is to prove the equivalent statement $\neg P \implies \text{false}$

The strategy for proof by contradiction:

To prove a goal P by contradiction is to prove the equivalent statement $\neg P \implies \text{false}$

Proof pattern:

In order to prove

P

1. **Write:** We use proof by contradiction. So, suppose P is false.
2. **Deduce a logical contradiction.**
3. **Write:** This is a contradiction. Therefore, P must be true.

Scratch work:

Before using the strategy

Assumptions

Goal

P

⋮

After using the strategy

Assumptions

Goal

contradiction

⋮

$\neg P$

Theorem 40 *For all statements P and Q,*

$$(\neg Q \implies \neg P) \implies (P \implies Q) .$$

PROOF:

Proof by contrapositive

Corollary 41 *For all statements P and Q,*

$$(P \implies Q) \iff (\neg Q \implies \neg P) .$$

Btw Using the above equivalence to prove an implication is known as *proof by contrapositive*.

Corollary 42 *For every positive irrational number x , the real number \sqrt{x} is irrational.*

Lemma 43 *A positive real number x is rational iff*

\exists positive integers m, n :

$$x = m/n \wedge \neg(\exists \text{ prime } p : p \mid m \wedge p \mid n)$$

(†)

PROOF:

Numbers

Objectives

- ▶ Get an appreciation for the abstract notion of number system, considering four examples: natural numbers, integers, rationals, and modular integers.
- ▶ Prove the correctness of three basic algorithms in the theory of numbers: the division algorithm, Euclid's algorithm, and the Extended Euclid's algorithm.
- ▶ Exemplify the use of the mathematical theory surrounding Euclid's Theorem and Fermat's Little Theorem in the context of public-key cryptography.
- ▶ To understand and be able to proficiently use the Principle of Mathematical Induction in its various forms.

Natural numbers

In the beginning there were the *natural numbers*

$\mathbb{N} : 0, 1, \dots, n, n+1, \dots$

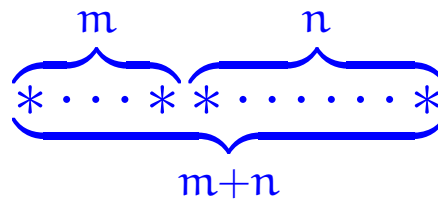
generated from *zero* by successive increment; that is, put in ML:

```
datatype
```

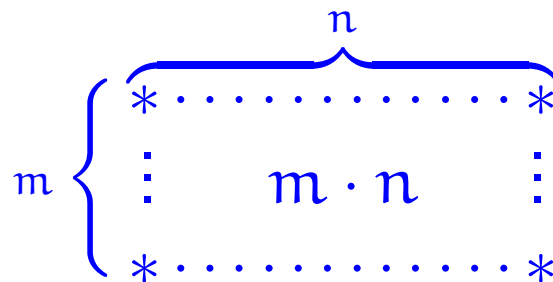
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  N = zero | succ of N
```

The basic operations of this number system are:

► Addition



► Multiplication



The additive structure $(\mathbb{N}, 0, +)$ of natural numbers with zero and addition satisfies the following:

► Monoid laws

$$0 + n = n = n + 0 \quad , \quad (l + m) + n = l + (m + n)$$

► Commutativity law

$$m + n = n + m$$

and as such is what in the mathematical jargon is referred to as a commutative monoid.

Commutative monoid laws

► Neutral element laws

$$\underbrace{\quad}_0 * \underbrace{*\dots*}_n = \underbrace{*\dots*}_n = \underbrace{*\dots*}_n \underbrace{\quad}_0$$

► Associativity law

$$\underbrace{*\dots*}_{l+m} \underbrace{*\dots*}_n = \underbrace{*\dots*}_l \underbrace{*\dots*}_{m+n}$$

► Commutativity law

$$\underbrace{*\dots*}_m \underbrace{*\dots*}_n = \underbrace{*\dots*}_n \underbrace{*\dots*}_m$$

Monoids

Definition 44 A monoid is an algebraic structure with

- ▶ a neutral element, say e ,
- ▶ a binary operation, say \bullet ,

satisfying

- ▶ neutral element laws: $e \bullet x = x = x \bullet e$
- ▶ associativity law: $(x \bullet y) \bullet z = x \bullet (y \bullet z)$

A monoid is commutative if:

- ▶ commutativity: $x \bullet y = y \bullet x$

is satisfied.

Also the *multiplicative structure* $(\mathbb{N}, 1, \cdot)$ of natural numbers with one and multiplication is a commutative monoid:

► Monoid laws

$$1 \cdot n = n = n \cdot 1 \quad , \quad (l \cdot m) \cdot n = l \cdot (m \cdot n)$$

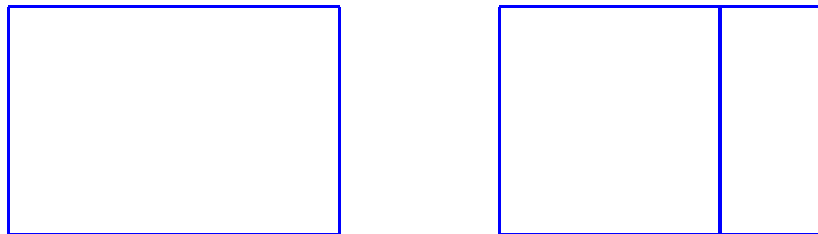
► Commutativity law

$$m \cdot n = n \cdot m$$

The additive and multiplicative structures interact nicely in that they satisfy the

► Distributive laws

$$\begin{aligned}l \cdot 0 &= 0 \\l \cdot (m + n) &= l \cdot m + l \cdot n\end{aligned}$$



and make the overall structure $(\mathbb{N}, 0, +, 1, \cdot)$ into what in the mathematical jargon is referred to as a *commutative semiring*.

Semirings

Definition 45 A **semiring** (or **rig**) is an algebraic structure with

- ▶ a commutative monoid structure, say $(0, \oplus)$,
- ▶ a monoid structure, say $(1, \otimes)$,

satisfying the distributivity laws:

- ▶ $0 \otimes x = 0 = x \otimes 0$
- ▶ $x \otimes (y \oplus z) = (x \otimes y) \oplus (x \otimes z)$, $(y \oplus z) \otimes x = (y \otimes x) \oplus (z \otimes x)$

A semiring is **commutative** whenever \otimes is.

Cancellation

The additive and multiplicative structures of natural numbers further satisfy the following laws.

► Additive cancellation

For all natural numbers k, m, n ,

$$k + m = k + n \implies m = n .$$

► Multiplicative cancellation

For all natural numbers k, m, n ,

$$\text{if } k \neq 0 \text{ then } k \cdot m = k \cdot n \implies m = n .$$

Definition 46 *A binary operation \bullet allows cancellation by an element c*

- ▶ *on the left: if $c \bullet x = c \bullet y$ implies $x = y$*
- ▶ *on the right: if $x \bullet c = y \bullet c$ implies $x = y$*

Example: The append operation on lists allows cancellation by any list on both the left and the right.

Inverses

Definition 47 For a monoid with a neutral element e and a binary operation \bullet , and element x is said to admit an

- ▶ **inverse on the left** if there exists an element l such that $l \bullet x = e$
- ▶ **inverse on the right** if there exists an element r such that $x \bullet r = e$
- ▶ **inverse** if it admits both left and right inverses

Inverses

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- ▶ **inverse on the right** if there exists an element r such that $x \bullet r = e$
- ▶ **inverse** if it admits both left and right inverses

Proposition 48 For a monoid (e, \bullet) if an element admits an inverse then its left and right inverses are equal.

PROOF:

Groups

Definition 50 A **group** is a monoid in which every element has an inverse.

An **Abelian group** is a group for which the monoid is commutative.

Inverses

Definition 51

1. A number x is said to admit an additive inverse whenever there exists a number y such that $x + y = 0$.

Inverses

Definition 51

1. A number x is said to admit an additive inverse whenever there exists a number y such that $x + y = 0$.
2. A number x is said to admit a multiplicative inverse whenever there exists a number y such that $x \cdot y = 1$.

Extending the system of natural numbers to: (i) admit all additive inverses and then (ii) also admit all multiplicative inverses for non-zero numbers yields two very interesting results:

Extending the system of natural numbers to: (i) admit all additive inverses and then (ii) also admit all multiplicative inverses for non-zero numbers yields two very interesting results:

(i) the integers

$$\mathbb{Z} : \dots -n, \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots, n, \dots$$

which then form what in the mathematical jargon is referred to as a commutative ring, and

(ii) the rationals \mathbb{Q} which then form what in the mathematical jargon is referred to as a field.

Rings

Definition 52 A **ring** is a semiring $(0, \oplus, 1, \otimes)$ in which the commutative monoid $(0, \oplus)$ is a group.

A ring is **commutative** if so is the monoid $(1, \otimes)$.

Fields

Definition 53 A **field** is a commutative ring in which every element besides 0 has a reciprocal (that is, an inverse with respect to \otimes).

The division theorem and algorithm

Theorem 54 (Division Theorem) *For every natural number m and positive natural number n , there exists a unique pair of integers q and r such that $q \geq 0$, $0 \leq r < n$, and $m = q \cdot n + r$.*

The division theorem and algorithm

Theorem 54 (Division Theorem) *For every natural number m and positive natural number n , there exists a unique pair of integers q and r such that $q \geq 0$, $0 \leq r < n$, and $m = q \cdot n + r$.*

Definition 55 *The natural numbers q and r associated to a given pair of a natural number m and a positive integer n determined by the Division Theorem are respectively denoted $\text{quo}(m, n)$ and $\text{rem}(m, n)$.*

PROOF OF Theorem 54:

The Division Algorithm in ML:

```
fun divalg( m , n )
  = let
    fun diviter( q , r )
      = if r < n then ( q , r )
        else diviter( q+1 , r-n )
    in
      diviter( 0 , m )
    end

fun quo( m , n ) = #1( divalg( m , n ) )

fun rem( m , n ) = #2( divalg( m , n ) )
```

Theorem 57 *For every natural number m and positive natural number n , the evaluation of $\text{divalg}(m, n)$ terminates, outputting a pair of natural numbers (q_0, r_0) such that $r_0 < n$ and $m = q_0 \cdot n + r_0$.*

PROOF:

Proposition 58 *Let m be a positive integer. For all natural numbers k and l ,*

$$k \equiv l \pmod{m} \iff \text{rem}(k, m) = \text{rem}(l, m) \quad .$$

PROOF:

Corollary 59 *Let m be a positive integer.*

1. *For every natural number n ,*

$$n \equiv \text{rem}(n, m) \pmod{m} .$$

PROOF:

Corollary 59 *Let m be a positive integer.*

1. *For every natural number n ,*

$$n \equiv \text{rem}(n, m) \pmod{m} .$$

2. *For every integer k there exists a unique integer $[k]_m$ such that*

$$0 \leq [k]_m < m \text{ and } k \equiv [k]_m \pmod{m} .$$

PROOF:

Modular arithmetic

For every positive integer m , the integers modulo m are:

$$\mathbb{Z}_m : 0, 1, \dots, m-1.$$

with arithmetic operations of addition $+_m$ and multiplication \cdot_m defined as follows

$$k +_m l = [k + l]_m = \text{rem}(k + l, m),$$

$$k \cdot_m l = [k \cdot l]_m = \text{rem}(k \cdot l, m)$$

for all $0 \leq k, l < m$.

For k and l in \mathbb{Z}_m ,

$$k +_m l \text{ and } k \cdot_m l$$

are the unique modular integers in \mathbb{Z}_m such that

$$k +_m l \equiv k + l \pmod{m}$$

$$k \cdot_m l \equiv k \cdot l \pmod{m}$$

Example 61 *The addition and multiplication tables for \mathbb{Z}_4 are:*

$+_4$	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

\cdot_4	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3
2	0	2	0	2
3	0	3	2	1

Note that the addition table has a cyclic pattern, while there is no obvious pattern in the multiplication table.

From the addition and multiplication tables, we can readily read tables for additive and multiplicative inverses:

	<i>additive inverse</i>		<i>multiplicative inverse</i>
0	0	0	—
1	3	1	1
2	2	2	—
3	1	3	3

Interestingly, we have a non-trivial multiplicative inverse; namely, 3.

Example 62 *The addition and multiplication tables for \mathbb{Z}_5 are:*

$+_5$	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	0	1
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

\cdot_5	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	0	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	1

Again, the addition table has a cyclic pattern, while this time the multiplication table restricted to non-zero elements has a permutation pattern.

From the addition and multiplication tables, we can readily read tables for additive and multiplicative inverses:

	<i>additive inverse</i>		<i>multiplicative inverse</i>
0	0	0	—
1	4	1	1
2	3	2	3
3	2	3	2
4	1	4	4

Surprisingly, every non-zero element has a multiplicative inverse.

Proposition 63 *For all natural numbers $m > 1$, the modular-arithmetic structure*

$$(\mathbb{Z}_m, 0, +_m, 1, \cdot_m)$$

is a commutative ring.

NB Quite surprisingly, modular-arithmetic number systems have further mathematical structure in the form of multiplicative inverses

.

Proposition 64 *Let m be a positive integer. A modular integer k in \mathbb{Z}_m has a reciprocal if, and only if, there exist integers i and j such that $k \cdot i + m \cdot j = 1$.*

PROOF:

Integer linear combinations

Definition 65 An integer r is said to be a linear combination of a pair of integers m and n whenever there are integers s and t such that $s \cdot m + t \cdot n = r$.

Proposition 66 Let m be a positive integer. A modular integer k in \mathbb{Z}_m has a reciprocal if, and only if, 1 is an integer linear combination of m and k .

Important mathematical jargon: Sets

Very roughly, sets are the mathematicians' data structures. Informally, we will consider a set as a (well-defined, unordered) collection of mathematical objects, called the elements (or members) of the set.

Set membership

The symbol ' \in ' known as the *set membership* predicate is central to the theory of sets, and its purpose is to build statements of the form

$$x \in A$$

that are true whenever it is the case that the object x is an element of the set A , and false otherwise.

Defining sets

The set	of even primes	is	{2}
	of booleans		{true, false}
	[−2..3]		{−2, −1, 0, 1, 2, 3}

Set comprehension

The basic idea behind set comprehension is to define a set by means of a property that precisely characterises all the elements of the set.

Notations:

$$\{x \in A \mid P(x)\} \quad , \quad \{x \in A : P(x)\}$$

Set equality

Two sets are equal precisely when they have the same elements

Examples:

▶ $\{x \in \mathbb{N} : 2 \mid x \wedge x \text{ is prime}\} = \{2\}$

▶ For a positive integer m ,

$$\{x \in \mathbb{Z} : m \mid x\} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x \equiv 0 \pmod{m}\}$$

▶ $\{d \in \mathbb{N} : d \mid 0\} = \mathbb{N}$

Equivalent predicates specify equal sets:

$$\{x \in A \mid P(x)\} = \{x \in A \mid Q(x)\}$$

iff

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

Example: For a positive integer m ,

$$\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_m \mid x \text{ has a reciprocal in } \mathbb{Z}_m\}$$

=

$$\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_m \mid 1 \text{ is an integer linear combination of } m \text{ and } x\}$$

Greatest common divisor

Given a natural number n , the set of its *divisors* is defined by set comprehension as follows

$$D(n) = \{ d \in \mathbb{N} : d \mid n \} .$$

Example 68

1. $D(0) = \mathbb{N}$

2. $D(1224) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 12, 17, 18, 24, 34, 36, 51, 68, \\ 72, 102, 136, 153, 204, 306, 408, 612, 1224 \end{array} \right\}$

Remark Sets of divisors are hard to compute. However, the computation of the greatest divisor is straightforward. :))

Going a step further, what about the *common divisors* of pairs of natural numbers? That is, the set

$$\text{CD}(m, n) = \{ d \in \mathbb{N} : d \mid m \wedge d \mid n \}$$

for $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Example 69

$$\text{CD}(1224, 660) = \{ 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12 \}$$

Since $\text{CD}(n, n) = D(n)$, the computation of common divisors is as hard as that of divisors. But, what about the computation of the *greatest common divisor*?

Lemma 72 (Key Lemma) *Let m and m' be natural numbers and let n be a positive integer such that $m \equiv m' \pmod{n}$. Then,*

$$CD(m, n) = CD(m', n) .$$

PROOF:

Lemma 74 For all positive integers m and n ,

$$\text{CD}(m, n) = \begin{cases} D(n) & , \text{ if } n \mid m \\ \text{CD}(n, \text{rem}(m, n)) & , \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Lemma 74 For all positive integers m and n ,

$$\text{CD}(m, n) = \begin{cases} D(n) & , \text{ if } n \mid m \\ \text{CD}(n, \text{rem}(m, n)) & , \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Since a positive integer n is the greatest divisor in $D(n)$, the lemma suggests a recursive procedure:

$$\text{gcd}(m, n) = \begin{cases} n & , \text{ if } n \mid m \\ \text{gcd}(n, \text{rem}(m, n)) & , \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

for computing the *greatest common divisor*, of two positive integers m and n . This is

Euclid's Algorithm

gcd

```
fun gcd( m , n )  
  = let  
    val ( q , r ) = divalg( m , n )  
  in  
    if r = 0 then n  
    else gcd( n , r )  
  end
```

Example 75 ($\text{gcd}(13, 34) = 1$)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{gcd}(13, 34) &= \text{gcd}(34, 13) \\ &= \text{gcd}(13, 8) \\ &= \text{gcd}(8, 5) \\ &= \text{gcd}(5, 3) \\ &= \text{gcd}(3, 2) \\ &= \text{gcd}(2, 1) \\ &= 1\end{aligned}$$

NB If gcd terminates on input (m, n) with output $\text{gcd}(m, n)$ then $\text{CD}(m, n) = D(\text{gcd}(m, n))$.

Proposition 76 *For all natural numbers m, n and a, b , if $CD(m, n) = D(a)$ and $CD(m, n) = D(b)$ then $a = b$.*

Proposition 76 For all natural numbers m, n and a, b , if $CD(m, n) = D(a)$ and $CD(m, n) = D(b)$ then $a = b$.

Proposition 77 For all natural numbers m, n and k , the following statements are equivalent:

1. $CD(m, n) = D(k)$.
2. $\blacktriangleright k \mid m \wedge k \mid n$, and
 \blacktriangleright for all natural numbers d , $d \mid m \wedge d \mid n \implies d \mid k$.

Definition 78 For natural numbers m, n the unique natural number k such that

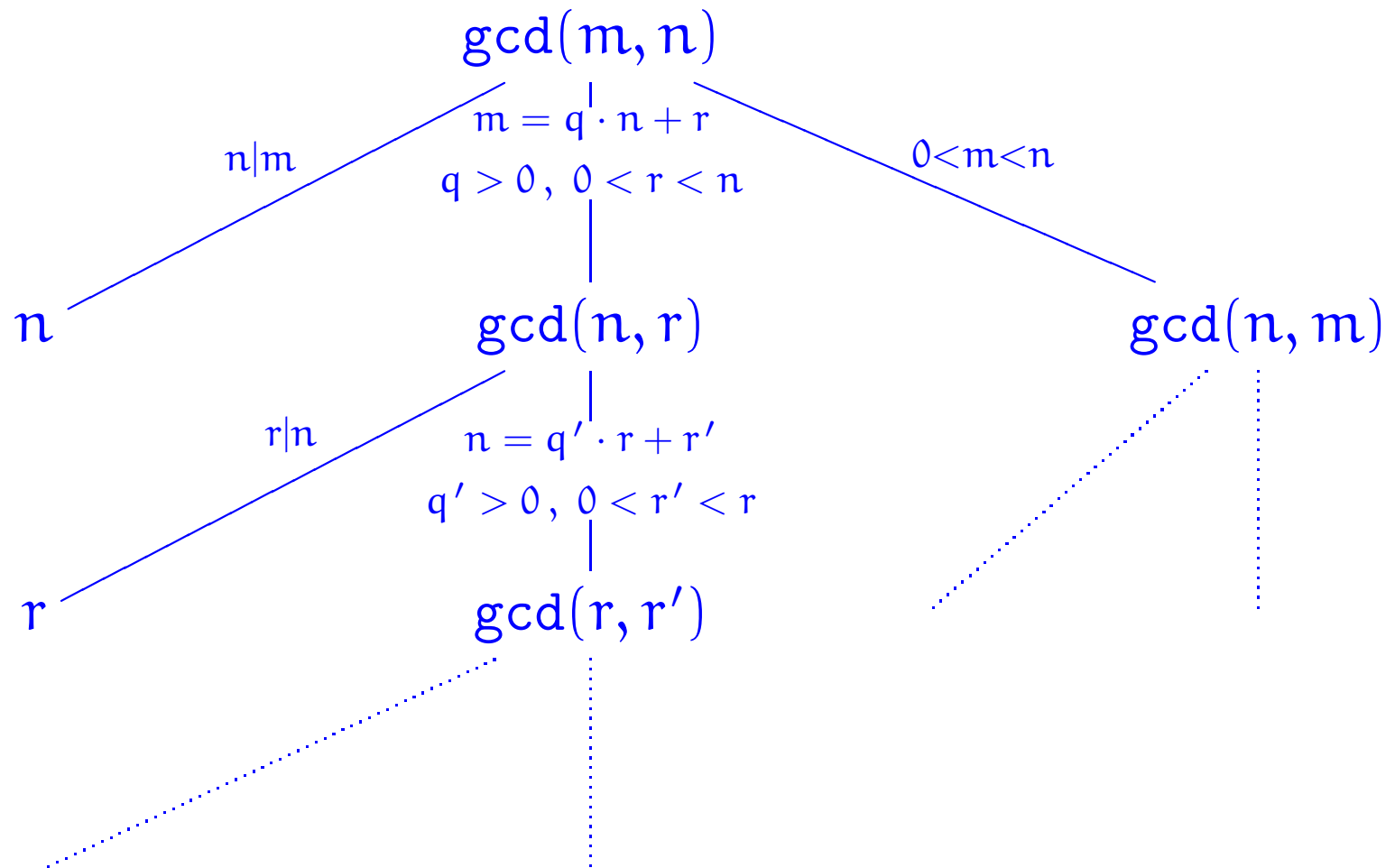
- ▶ $k \mid m \wedge k \mid n$, and
- ▶ for all natural numbers d , $d \mid m \wedge d \mid n \implies d \mid k$.

is called the **greatest common divisor** of m and n , and denoted $\gcd(m, n)$.

Theorem 79 *Euclid's Algorithm \gcd terminates on all pairs of positive integers and, for such m and n , $\gcd(m, n)$ is the greatest common divisor of m and n in the sense that the following two properties hold:*

- (i) both $\gcd(m, n) \mid m$ and $\gcd(m, n) \mid n$, and*
- (ii) for all positive integers d such that $d \mid m$ and $d \mid n$ it necessarily follows that $d \mid \gcd(m, n)$.*

PROOF:



Fractions in lowest terms

```
fun lowterms( m , n )  
  = let  
    val gcdval = gcd( m , n )  
  in  
    ( m div gcdval , n div gcdval )  
  end
```

Some fundamental properties of gcds

Lemma 81 For all positive integers l , m , and n ,

1. **(Commutativity)** $\gcd(m, n) = \gcd(n, m)$,
2. **(Associativity)** $\gcd(l, \gcd(m, n)) = \gcd(\gcd(l, m), n)$,
3. **(Linearity)^a** $\gcd(l \cdot m, l \cdot n) = l \cdot \gcd(m, n)$.

PROOF:

^aAka (Distributivity).

Coprimality

Definition 82 *Two natural numbers are said to be coprime whenever their greatest common divisor is 1.*

Euclid's Theorem

Theorem 83 *For positive integers k , m , and n , if $k \mid (m \cdot n)$ and $\gcd(k, m) = 1$ then $k \mid n$.*

PROOF:

Corollary 84 (Euclid's Theorem) *For positive integers m and n , and prime p , if $p \mid (m \cdot n)$ then $p \mid m$ or $p \mid n$.*

Now, the second part of Fermat's Little Theorem follows as a corollary of the first part and Euclid's Theorem.

PROOF:

Fields of modular arithmetic

Corollary 86 *For prime p , every non-zero element i of \mathbb{Z}_p has $[i^{p-2}]_p$ as multiplicative inverse. Hence, \mathbb{Z}_p is what in the mathematical jargon is referred to as a field.*

Extended Euclid's Algorithm

Example 87

$$\begin{array}{l} \gcd(34, 13) \\ = \gcd(13, 8) \\ = \gcd(8, 5) \\ = \gcd(5, 3) \\ = \gcd(3, 2) \\ = \gcd(2, 1) \\ = 1 \end{array} \left\| \begin{array}{l} 34 = 2 \cdot 13 + 8 \\ 13 = 1 \cdot 8 + 5 \\ 8 = 1 \cdot 5 + 3 \\ 5 = 1 \cdot 3 + 2 \\ 3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \\ 2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \end{array} \right\|$$

Extended Euclid's Algorithm

Example 87

$$\begin{array}{l} \gcd(34, 13) \\ = \gcd(13, 8) \\ = \gcd(8, 5) \\ = \gcd(5, 3) \\ = \gcd(3, 2) \\ = \gcd(2, 1) \\ = 1 \end{array} \left\| \begin{array}{l} 34 = 2 \cdot 13 + 8 \\ 13 = 1 \cdot 8 + 5 \\ 8 = 1 \cdot 5 + 3 \\ 5 = 1 \cdot 3 + 2 \\ 3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \\ 2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \end{array} \right\| \begin{array}{l} 8 = 34 - 2 \cdot 13 \\ 5 = 13 - 1 \cdot 8 \\ 3 = 8 - 1 \cdot 5 \\ 2 = 5 - 1 \cdot 3 \\ 1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
= \gcd(34, 13) \\
= \gcd(13, 8) \\
= \gcd(8, 5) \\
= \gcd(5, 3) \\
= \gcd(3, 2)
\end{array}
\left| \begin{array}{l}
8 = \\
5 = \\
3 = \\
2 = \\
1 =
\end{array} \right.
\begin{array}{l}
34 \\
13 \\
8 \\
5 \\
3
\end{array}
\begin{array}{l}
-2 \cdot \\
-1 \cdot \\
-1 \cdot \\
-1 \cdot \\
-1 \cdot
\end{array}
\begin{array}{l}
13 \\
8 \\
5 \\
3 \\
2
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
\text{gcd}(34, 13) \\
= \text{gcd}(13, 8) \\
= \text{gcd}(8, 5) \\
= \text{gcd}(5, 3) \\
= \text{gcd}(3, 2)
\end{array}
\left| \begin{array}{l}
8 = 34 - 2 \cdot 13 \\
5 = 13 - 1 \cdot 8 \\
= 13 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= -1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13 \\
3 = 8 - 1 \cdot 5 \\
2 = 5 - 1 \cdot 3 \\
1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2
\end{array} \right.$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
\text{gcd}(34, 13) \\
= \text{gcd}(13, 8) \\
= \text{gcd}(8, 5) \\
= \text{gcd}(5, 3) \\
= \text{gcd}(3, 2)
\end{array}
\left| \begin{array}{l}
8 = 34 - 2 \cdot 13 \\
5 = 13 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= 13 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= -1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13 \\
3 = 8 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= (34 - 2 \cdot 13) - 1 \cdot (-1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13) \\
= 2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13 \\
2 = 5 - 1 \cdot 3 \\
1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2
\end{array} \right.$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
\text{gcd}(34, 13) \\
= \text{gcd}(13, 8) \\
= \text{gcd}(8, 5) \\
= \text{gcd}(5, 3) \\
= \text{gcd}(3, 2)
\end{array}
\left| \begin{array}{l}
8 = 34 - 2 \cdot 13 \\
5 = 13 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= 13 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= -1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13 \\
3 = 8 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= (34 - 2 \cdot 13) - 1 \cdot (-1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13) \\
= 2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13 \\
2 = 5 - 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13) \\
= -1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13 \\
= -3 \cdot 34 + 8 \cdot 13 \\
1 = 3 - 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13) \\
= 3 - 2 \cdot (2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13)
\end{array} \right.$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
\text{gcd}(34, 13) \\
= \text{gcd}(13, 8) \\
= \text{gcd}(8, 5) \\
= \text{gcd}(5, 3) \\
= \text{gcd}(3, 2)
\end{array}
\left| \begin{array}{l}
8 = 34 - 2 \cdot 13 \\
5 = 13 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= 13 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= -1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13 \\
3 = 8 - 1 \cdot (34 - 2 \cdot 13) \\
= (34 - 2 \cdot 13) - 1 \cdot (-1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13) \\
= 2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13 \\
2 = 5 - 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13) \\
= (-1 \cdot 34 + 3 \cdot 13) - 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13) \\
= -3 \cdot 34 + 8 \cdot 13 \\
1 = 3 - 1 \cdot (2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13) \\
= (2 \cdot 34 + (-5) \cdot 13) - 1 \cdot (-3 \cdot 34 + 8 \cdot 13) \\
= 5 \cdot 34 + (-13) \cdot 13
\end{array} \right.$$

Integer linear combinations

Definition 65^a An integer r is said to be a linear combination of a pair of integers m and n whenever

there exist a pair of integers s and t , referred to as the coefficients of the linear combination, such that

$$\begin{bmatrix} s & t \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = r ;$$

that is

$$s \cdot m + t \cdot n = r .$$

^aSee page 196.

Theorem 88 *For all positive integers m and n ,*

- 1. $\gcd(m, n)$ is a linear combination of m and n , and*
- 2. a pair $lc_1(m, n), lc_2(m, n)$ of integer coefficients for it, i.e. such that*

$$\left[lc_1(m, n) \quad lc_2(m, n) \right] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = \gcd(m, n) \quad ,$$

can be efficiently computed.

Proposition 89 *For all integers m and n ,*

$$1. \begin{bmatrix} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = m \wedge \begin{bmatrix} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = n ;$$

Proposition 89 *For all integers m and n ,*

1. $\left[\begin{array}{cc} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} m \\ n \end{array} \right] = m \wedge \left[\begin{array}{cc} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} m \\ n \end{array} \right] = n ;$

2. *for all integers s_1, t_1, r_1 and s_2, t_2, r_2 ,*

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} s_1 & t_1 \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} m \\ n \end{array} \right] = r_1 \wedge \left[\begin{array}{cc} s_2 & t_2 \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} m \\ n \end{array} \right] = r_2$$

implies

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{array} \right] \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} m \\ n \end{array} \right] = r_1 + r_2 ;$$

Proposition 89 For all integers m and n ,

1. $\begin{bmatrix} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = m \wedge \begin{bmatrix} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = n ;$

2. for all integers s_1, t_1, r_1 and s_2, t_2, r_2 ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} s_1 & t_1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = r_1 \wedge \begin{bmatrix} s_2 & t_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = r_2$$

implies

$$\begin{bmatrix} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = r_1 + r_2 ;$$

3. for all integers k and s, t, r ,

$$\begin{bmatrix} s & t \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = r \text{ implies } \begin{bmatrix} ?_1 & ?_2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} m \\ n \end{bmatrix} = k \cdot r .$$

We extend Euclid's Algorithm $\gcd(m, n)$ from computing on pairs of positive integers to computing on pairs of triples $((s, t), r)$ with s, t integers and r a positive integer satisfying the invariant that s, t are coefficients expressing r as an integer linear combination of m and n .

gcd

```
fun gcd( m , n )
= let
  fun gcditer(      r1  ,  c as      r2  )
  = let
    val (q,r) = divalg(r1,r2)    (* r = r1-q*r2 *)
  in
    if r = 0
    then c
    else gcditer(  c  ,      r  )
  end
in
  gcditer(      m  ,      n  )
end
```

egcd

```
fun egcd( m , n )
= let
  fun egcditer( ((s1,t1),r1) , lc as ((s2,t2),r2) )
  = let
    val (q,r) = divalg(r1,r2)    (* r = r1-q*r2 *)
  in
    if r = 0
    then lc
    else egcditer( lc , ((s1-q*s2,t1-q*t2),r) )
  end
in
  egcditer( ((1,0),m) , ((0,1),n) )
end
```

```
fun gcd( m , n ) = #2( egcd( m , n ) )
```

```
fun lc1( m , n ) = #1( #1( egcd( m , n ) ) )
```

```
fun lc2( m , n ) = #2( #1( egcd( m , n ) ) )
```


Multiplicative inverses in modular arithmetic

Corollary 93 *For all positive integers m and n ,*

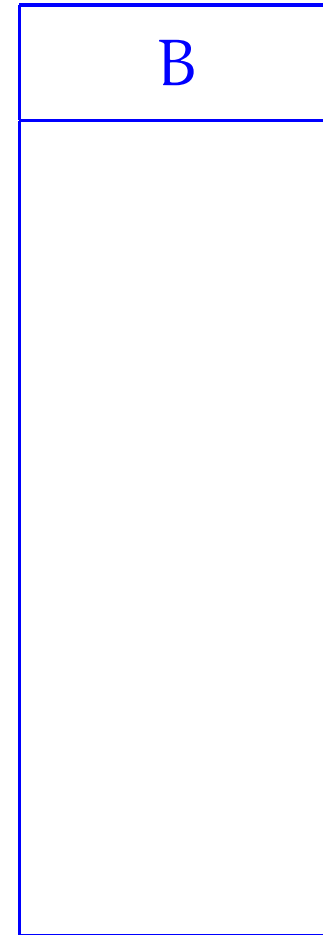
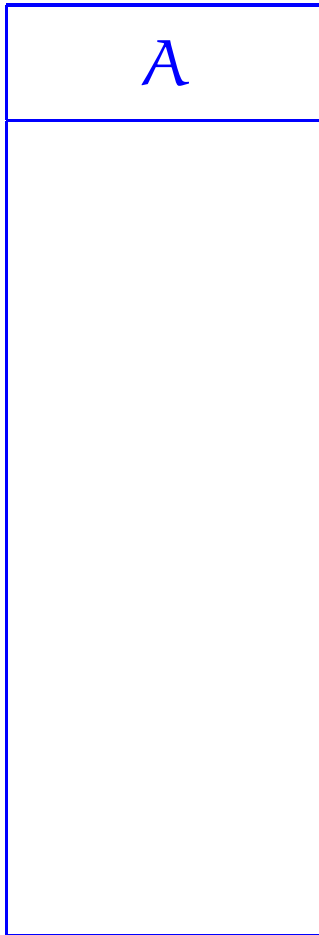
1. $n \cdot \text{lc}_2(m, n) \equiv \text{gcd}(m, n) \pmod{m}$, and

2. whenever $\text{gcd}(m, n) = 1$,

$[\text{lc}_2(m, n)]_m$ is the multiplicative inverse of $[n]_m$ in \mathbb{Z}_m .

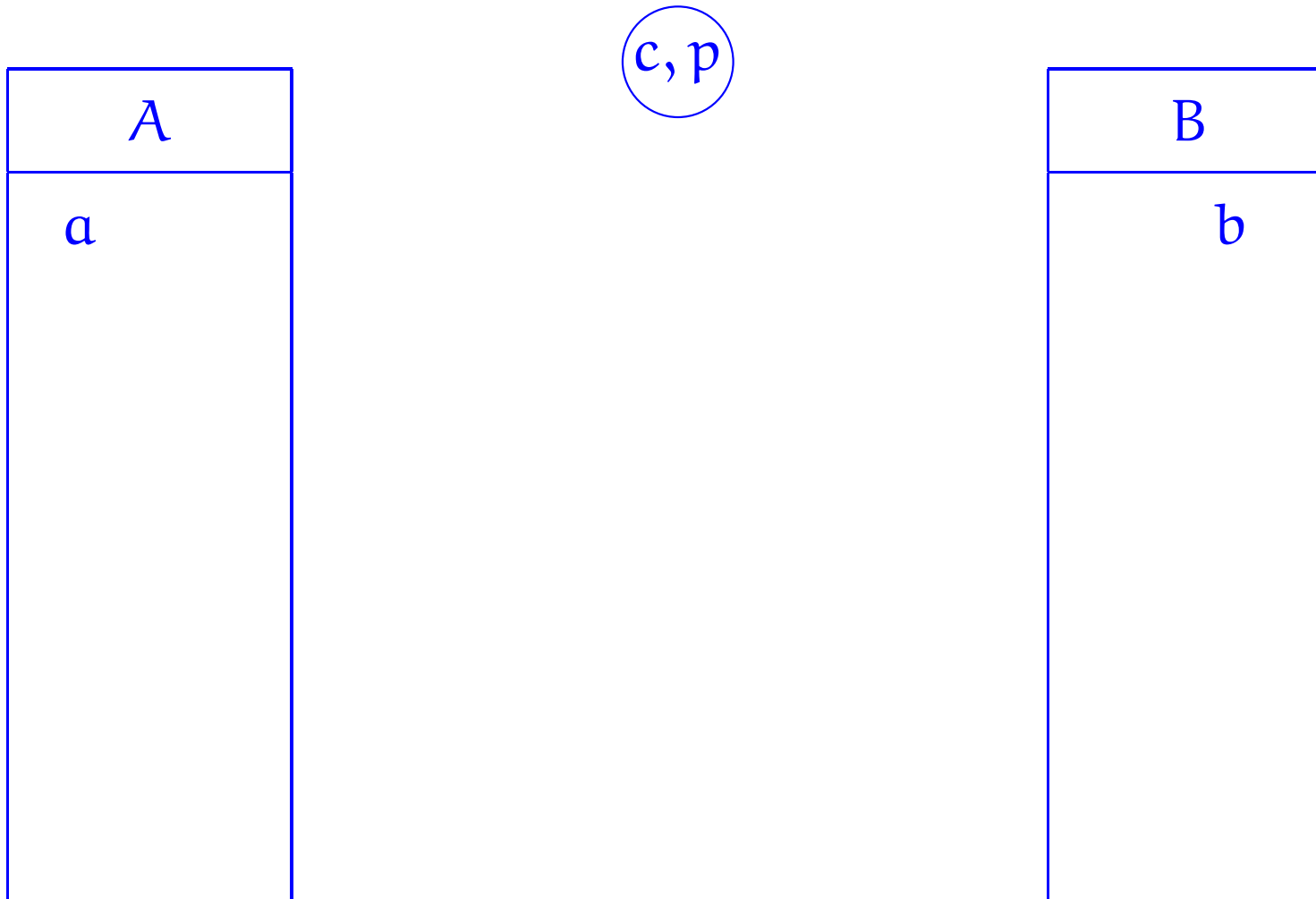
Diffie-Hellman cryptographic method

Shared secret key



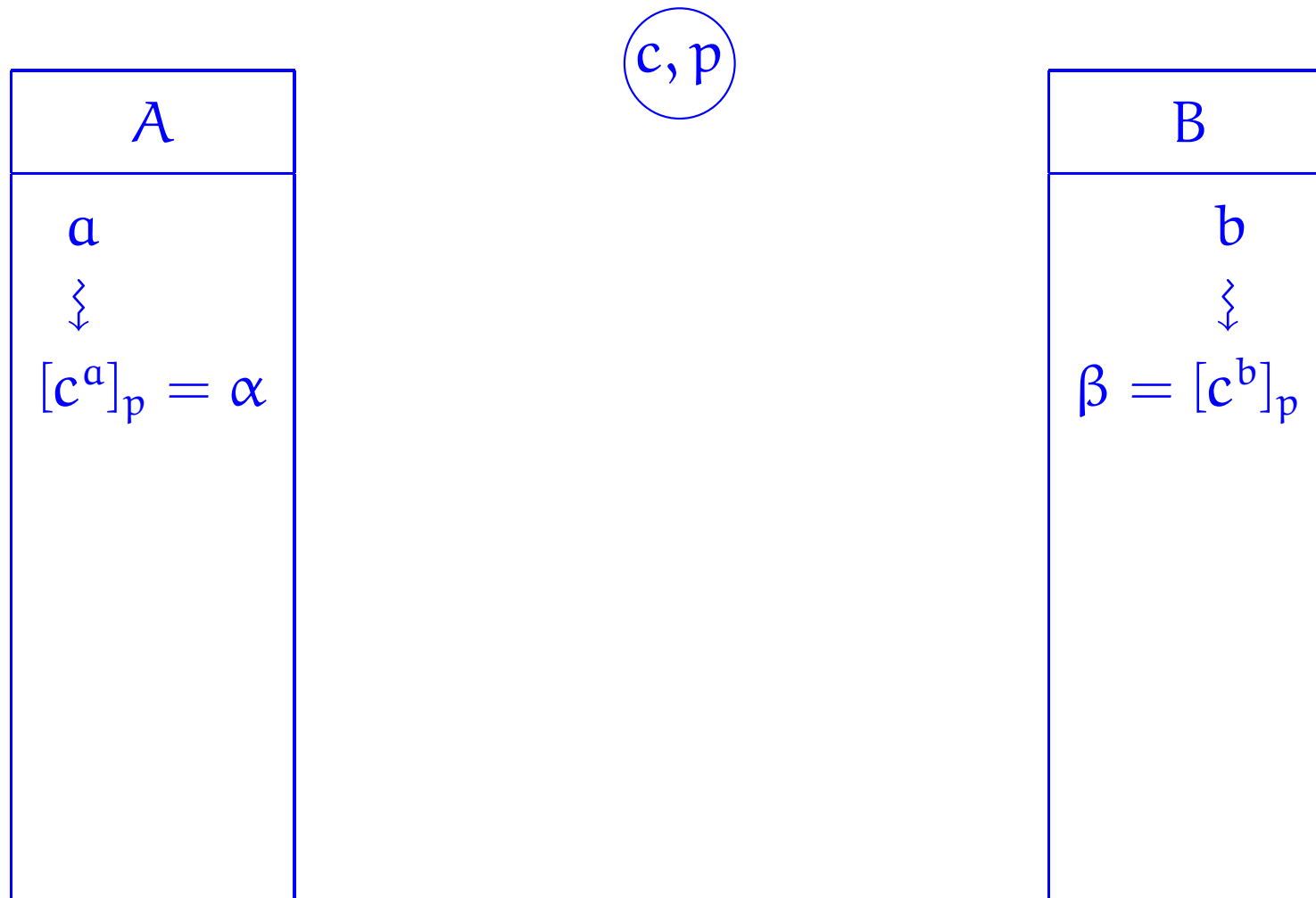
Diffie-Hellman cryptographic method

Shared secret key



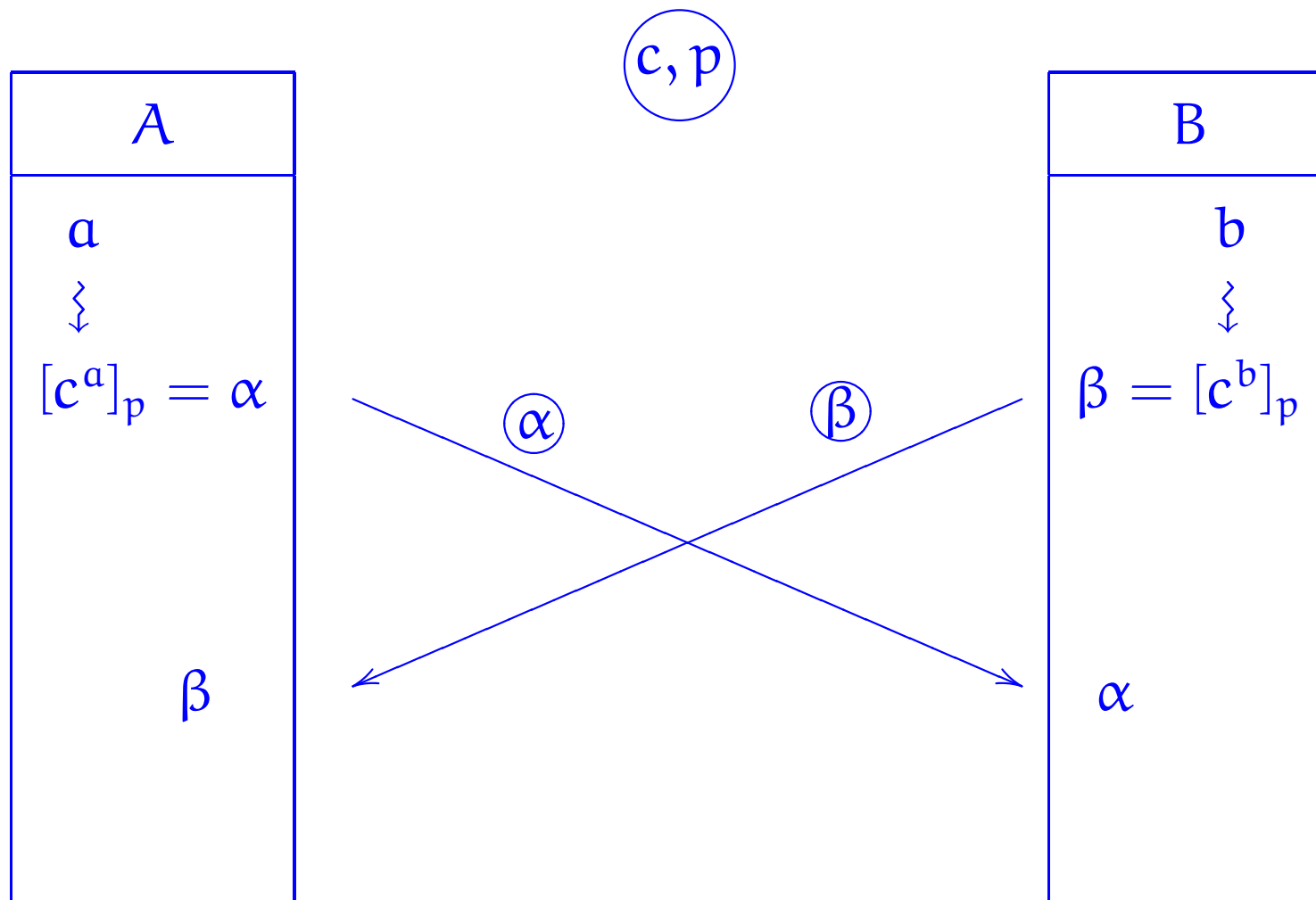
Diffie-Hellman cryptographic method

Shared secret key



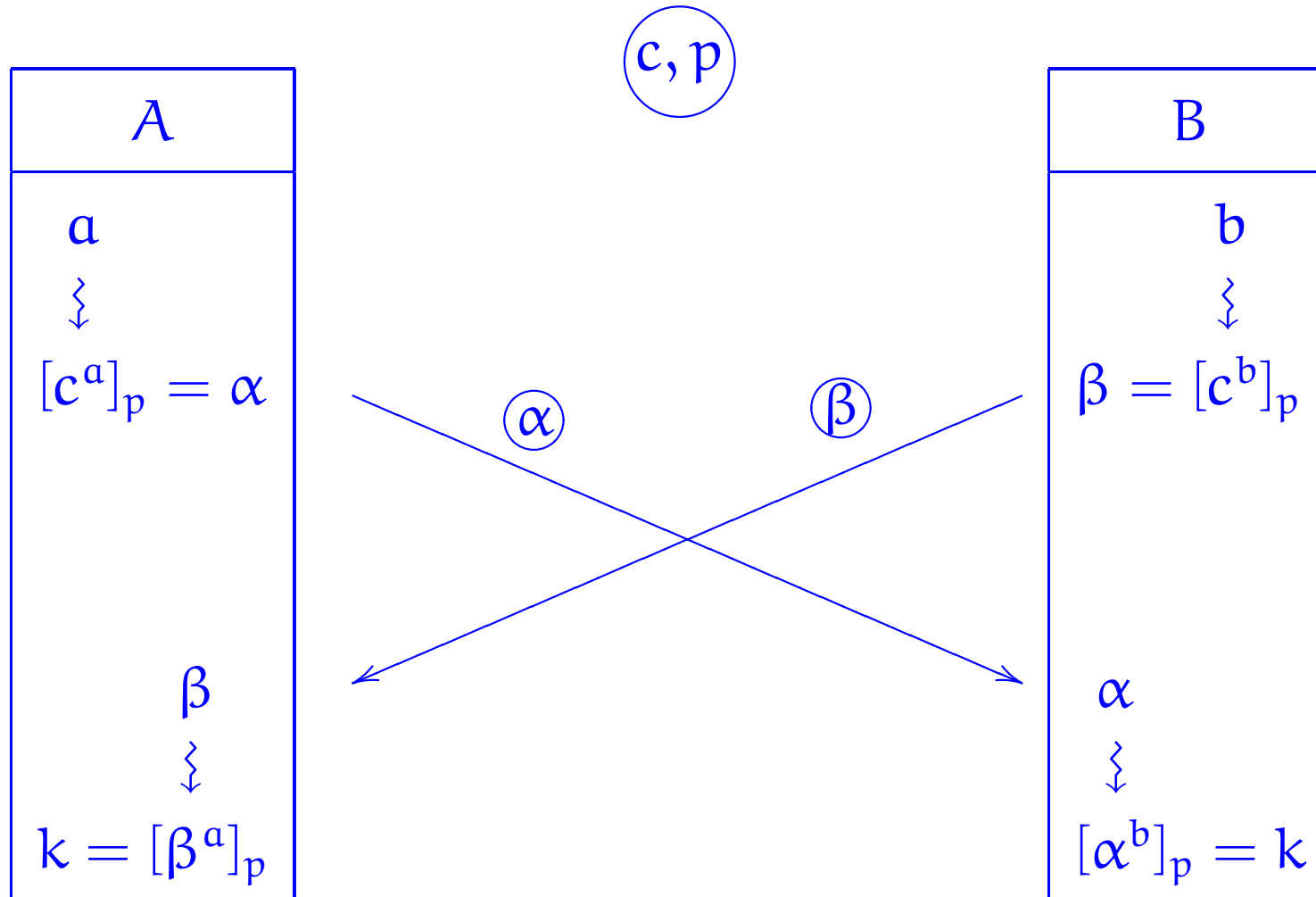
Diffie-Hellman cryptographic method

Shared secret key



Diffie-Hellman cryptographic method

Shared secret key



Key exchange

Mathematical modelling:

- ▶ Encrypt and decrypt by means of modular exponentiation:

$$[k^e]_p \qquad [l^d]_p$$

- ▶ Encrypting-decrypting have no effect:

By Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$k^{1+c \cdot (p-1)} \equiv k \pmod{p}$$

for every natural number c , integer k , and prime p .

- ▶ Consider d, e, p such that $e \cdot d = 1 + c \cdot (p - 1)$; equivalently,

$$d \cdot e \equiv 1 \pmod{p} .$$

Lemma 94 *Let p be a prime and e a positive integer with $\gcd(p - 1, e) = 1$. Define*

$$d = [\text{lc}_2(p - 1, e)]_{p-1} .$$

Then, for all integers k ,

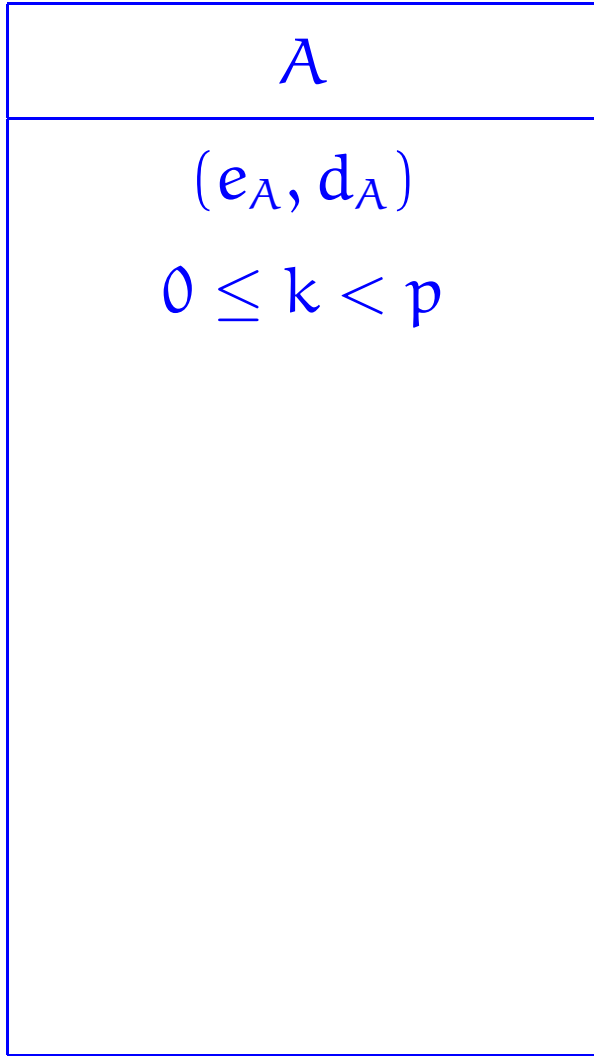
$$(k^e)^d \equiv k \pmod{p} .$$

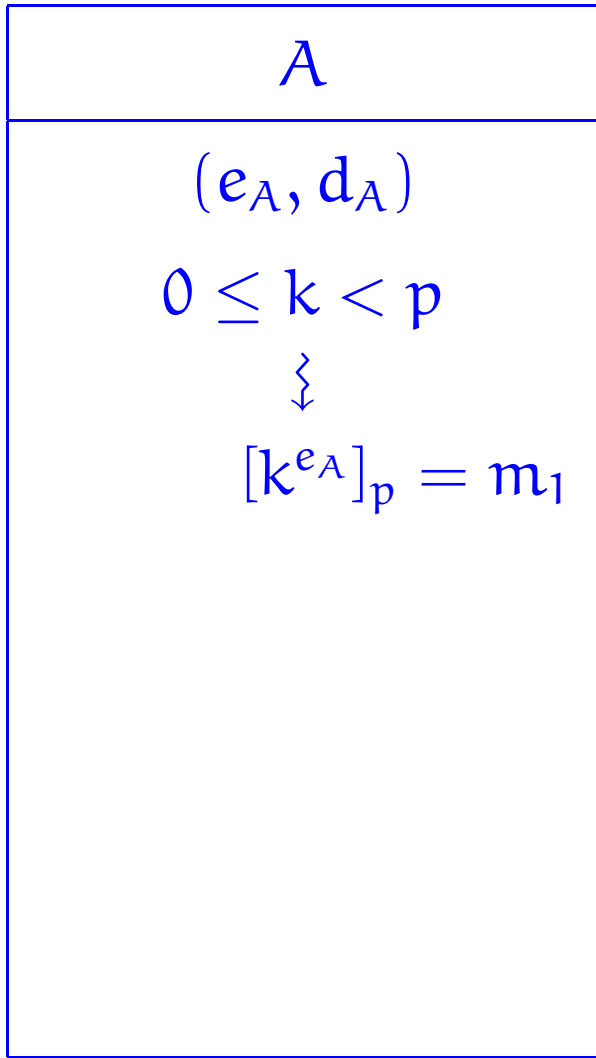
PROOF:

A

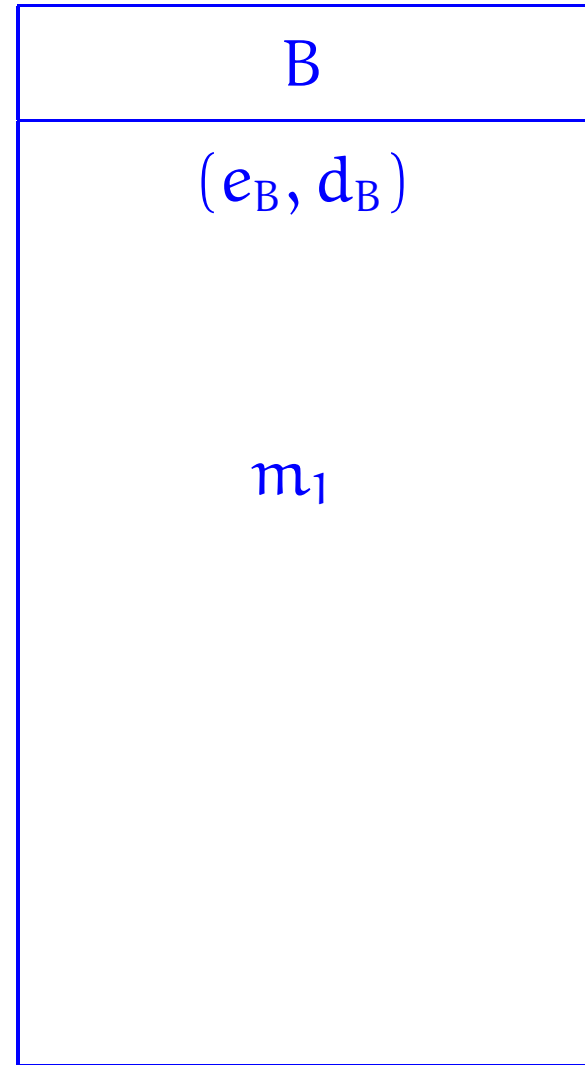
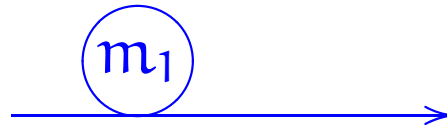
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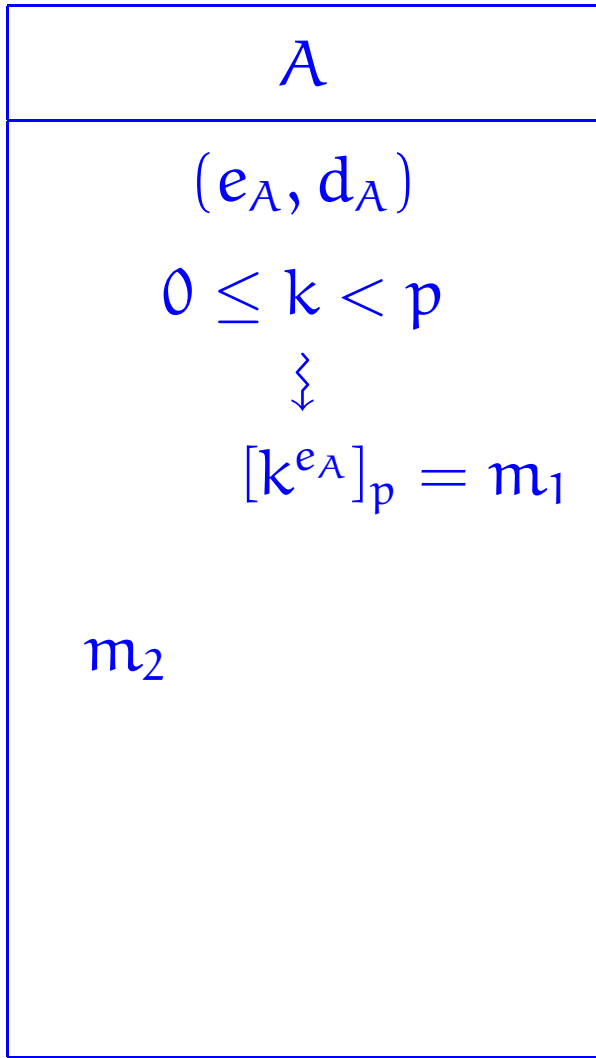
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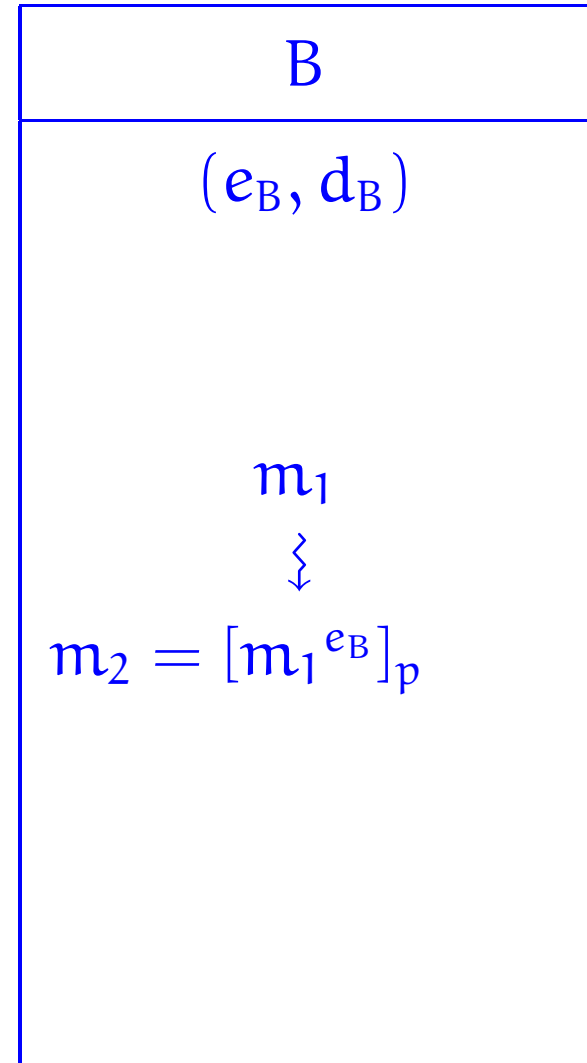
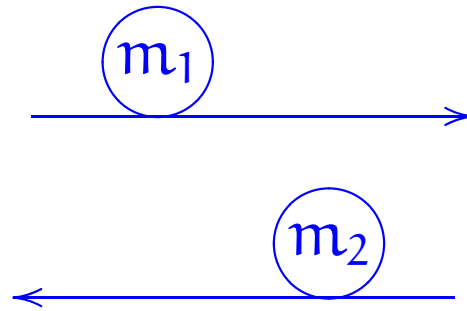


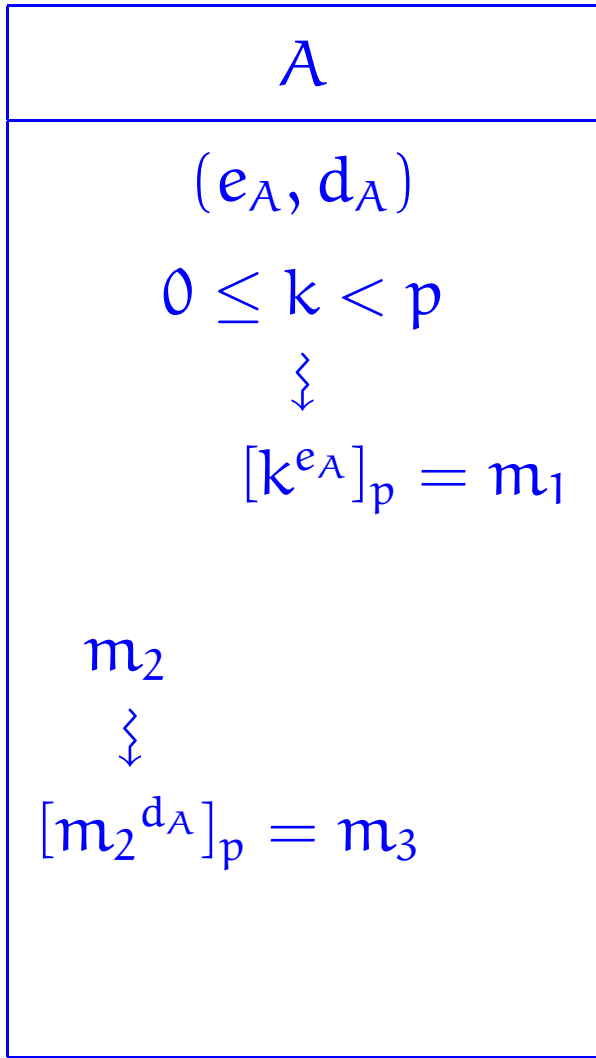
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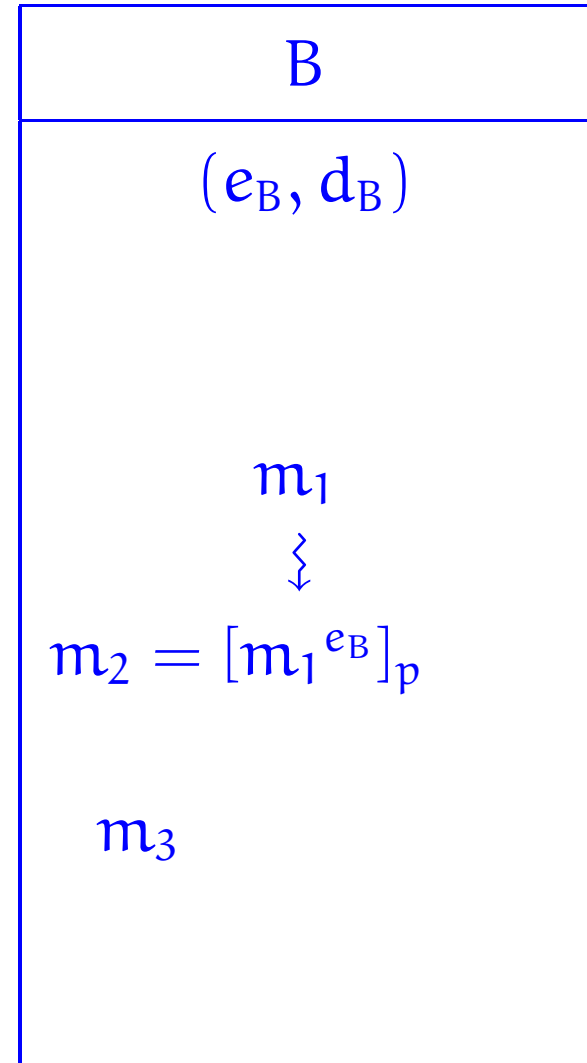
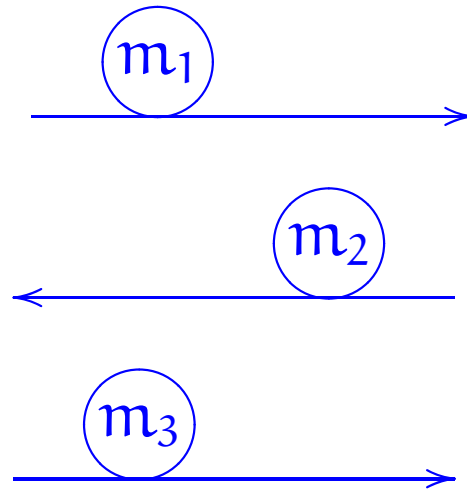


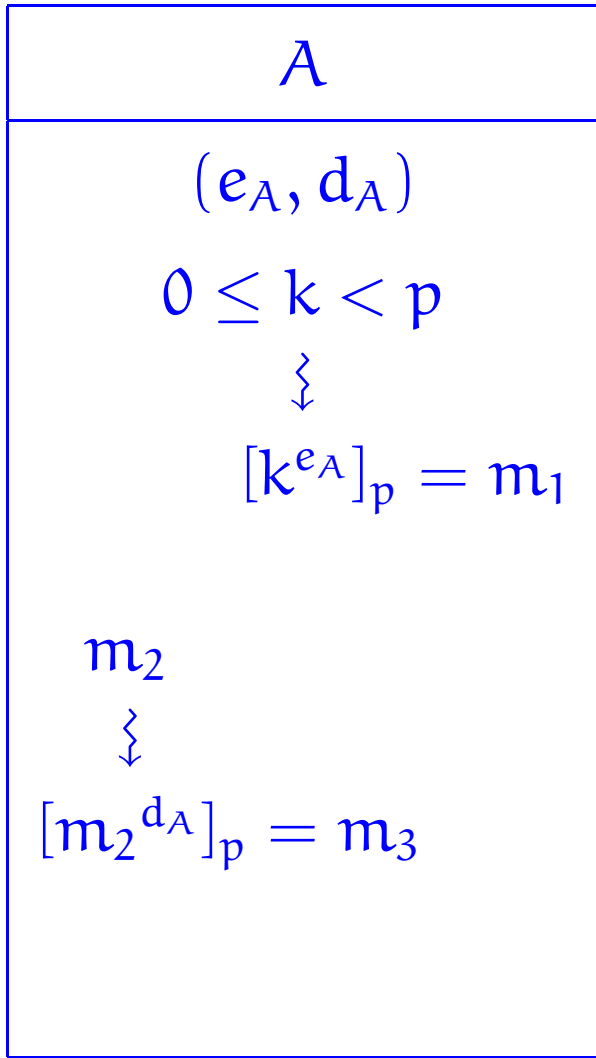
(p)



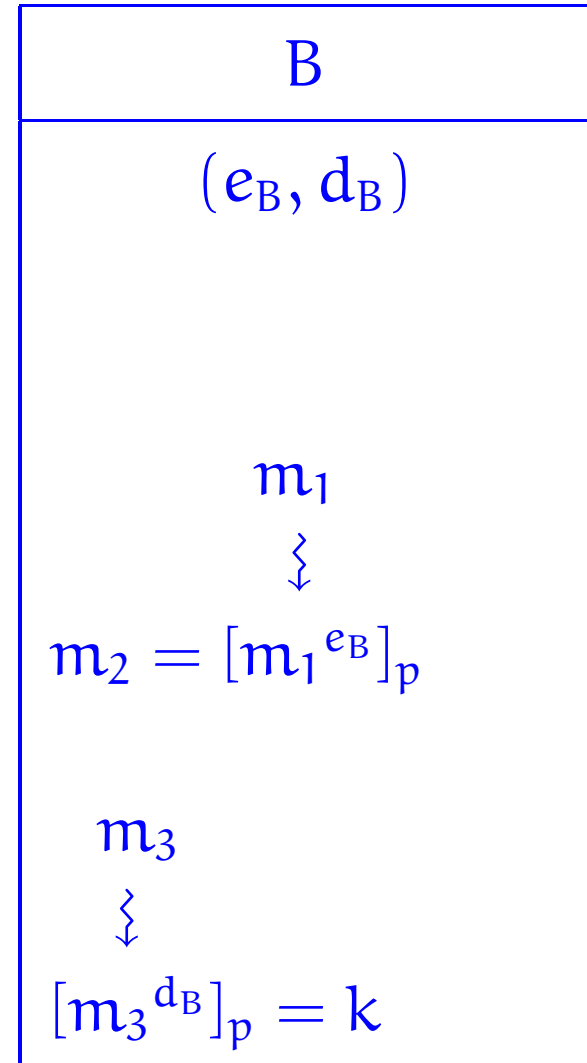
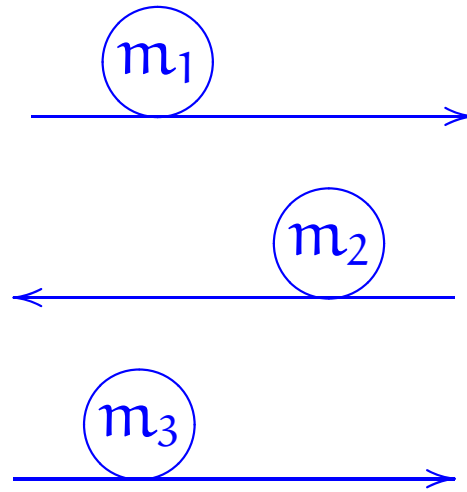


\textcircled{p}





\textcircled{p}



Natural Numbers and mathematical induction

We have mentioned in passing that the natural numbers are generated from zero by successive increments. This is in fact the defining property of the set of natural numbers, and endows it with a very important and powerful reasoning principle, that of *Mathematical Induction*, for establishing universal properties of natural numbers.

Principle of Induction

Let $P(m)$ be a statement for m ranging over the set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} .

If

- ▶ the statement $P(0)$ holds, and
- ▶ the statement

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. (P(n) \implies P(n + 1))$$

also holds

then

- ▶ the statement

$$\forall m \in \mathbb{N}. P(m)$$

holds.

Binomial Theorem

Theorem 30 For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

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

PROOF:

Principle of Induction

from basis ℓ

Let $P(m)$ be a statement for m ranging over the natural numbers greater than or equal a fixed natural number ℓ .

If

- ▶ $P(\ell)$ holds, and
- ▶ $\forall n \geq \ell$ in \mathbb{N} . $(P(n) \implies P(n + 1))$ also holds

then

- ▶ $\forall m \geq \ell$ in \mathbb{N} . $P(m)$ holds.

Principle of Strong Induction

from basis ℓ and Induction Hypothesis $P(m)$.

Let $P(m)$ be a statement for m ranging over the natural numbers greater than or equal a fixed natural number ℓ .

If both

▶ $P(\ell)$ and

▶ $\forall n \geq \ell \text{ in } \mathbb{N}. \left((\forall k \in [\ell..n]. P(k)) \implies P(n+1) \right)$

hold, then

▶ $\forall m \geq \ell \text{ in } \mathbb{N}. P(m)$ holds.

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Proposition 96 *Every positive integer greater than or equal 2 is a prime or a product of primes.*

PROOF:

Theorem 97 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic) *For every positive integer n there is a unique finite ordered sequence of primes $(p_1 \leq \dots \leq p_\ell)$ with $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ such that*

$$n = \prod(p_1, \dots, p_\ell) .$$

PROOF:

Euclid's infinitude of primes

Theorem 100 *The set of primes is infinite.*

PROOF:

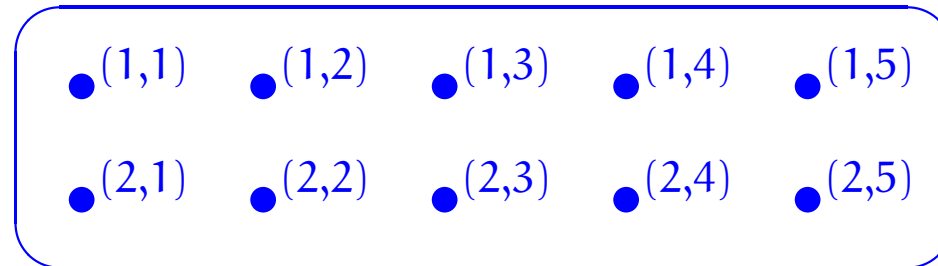
Sets

Objectives

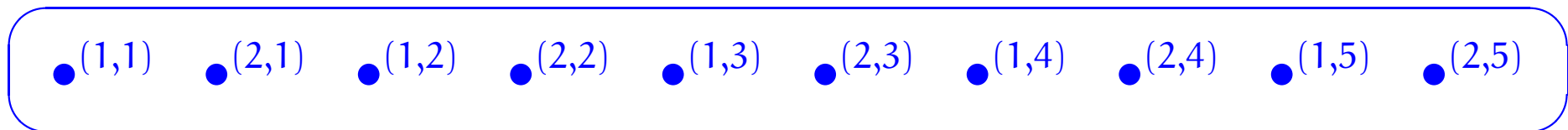
To introduce the basics of the theory of sets and some of its uses.

Abstract sets

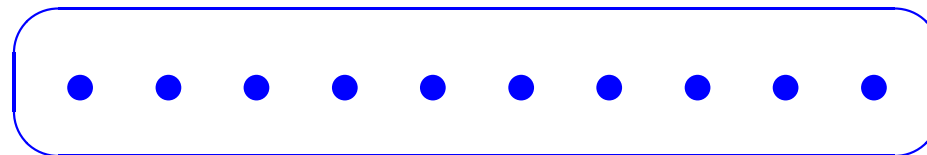
It has been said that a set is like a mental “bag of dots”, except of course that the bag has no shape; thus,



may be a convenient way of picturing a certain set for some considerations, but what is apparently the same set may be pictured as



or even simply as



for other considerations.

Naive Set Theory

We are not going to be formally studying Set Theory here; rather, we will be *naively* looking at ubiquitous structures that are available within it.

Set membership

We write \in for the *membership predicate*; so that

$x \in A$ stands for x is an element of A .

We further write

$x \notin A$ for $\neg(x \in A)$.

Example: $0 \in \{0, 1\}$ and $1 \notin \{0\}$ are true statements.

Extensionality axiom

Two sets are equal if they have the same elements.

Thus,

$$\forall \text{ sets } A, B. A = B \iff (\forall x. x \in A \iff x \in B) .$$

Example:

$$\{0\} \neq \{0, 1\} = \{1, 0\} \neq \{2\} = \{2, 2\}$$

Proposition 101 For $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, let

$$A = \{x \in \mathbb{C} \mid x^2 - 2bc + c = 0\}$$

$$B = \{b + \sqrt{b^2 - c}, b - \sqrt{b^2 - c}\}$$

$$C = \{b\}$$

Then,

1. $A = B$, and

2. $B = C \iff b^2 = c$.

Subsets and supersets

Lemma 104

1. *Reflexivity.*

For all sets A , $A \subseteq A$.

2. *Transitivity.*

For all sets A, B, C , $(A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq C) \implies A \subseteq C$.

3. *Antisymmetry.*

For all sets A, B , $(A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq A) \implies A = B$.

Separation principle

For any set A and any definable property P , there is a set containing precisely those elements of A for which the property P holds.

$$\{x \in A \mid P(x)\}$$

Russell's paradox

Empty set

Set theory has an

empty set ,

typically denoted

\emptyset or $\{\}$,

with no elements.

Cardinality

The *cardinality* of a set specifies its size. If this is a natural number, then the set is said to be *finite*.

Typical notations for the cardinality of a set S are $\#S$ or $|S|$.

Example:

$$\#\emptyset = 0$$

Finite sets

The *finite sets* are those with cardinality a natural number.

Example: For $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$[n] = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid x < n\}$$

is finite of cardinality n .

Powerset axiom

For any set, there is a set consisting of all its subsets.

$$\mathcal{P}(U)$$

$$\forall X. X \in \mathcal{P}(U) \iff X \subseteq U .$$

NB: The powerset construction can be iterated. In particular,

$$\mathcal{F} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{U})) \iff \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{U}) ;$$

that is, \mathcal{F} is a set of subsets of \mathbf{U} , sometimes referred to as a *family*.

Example: The family $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \mathcal{P}([5])$ consisting of the non-empty subsets of $[5] = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ whose elements are even is

$$\mathcal{E} = \{ \{0\}, \{2\}, \{4\}, \{0, 2\}, \{0, 4\}, \{2, 4\}, \{0, 2, 4\} \} .$$

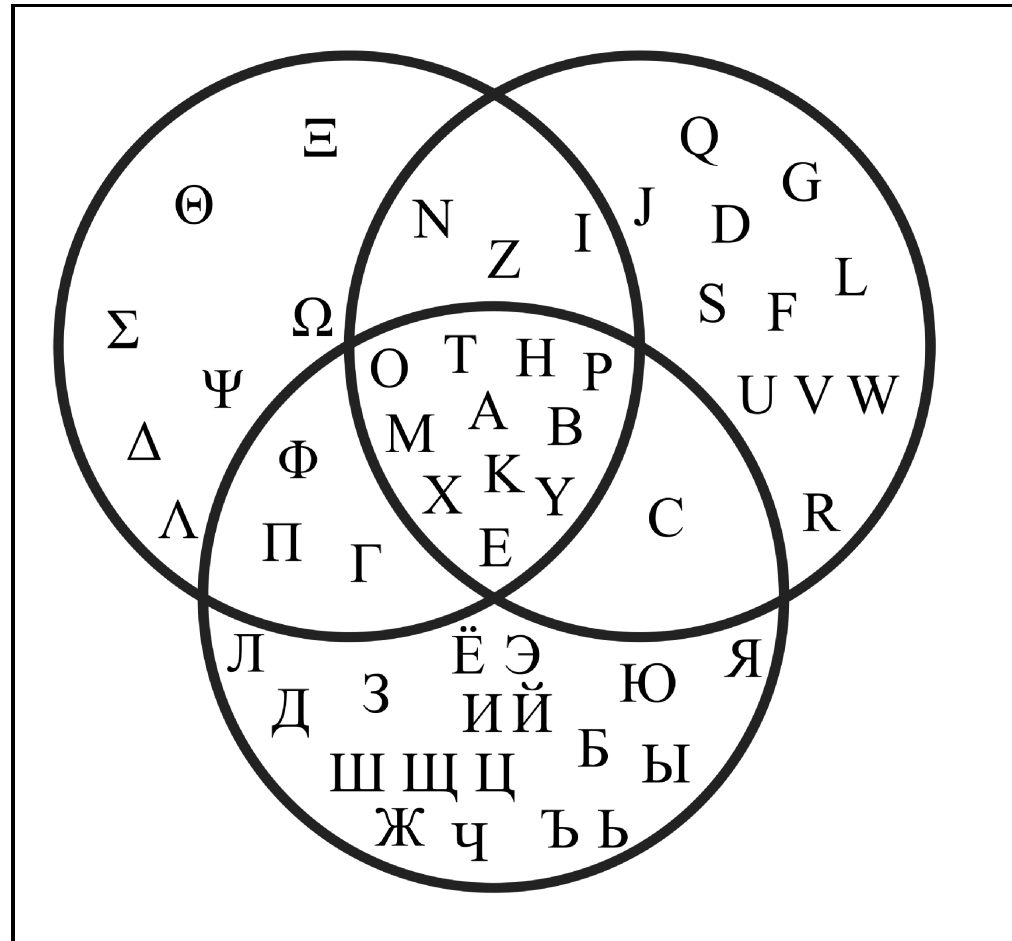
Hasse diagrams

Proposition 105 *For all finite sets U ,*

$$\# \mathcal{P}(U) = 2^{\#U} .$$

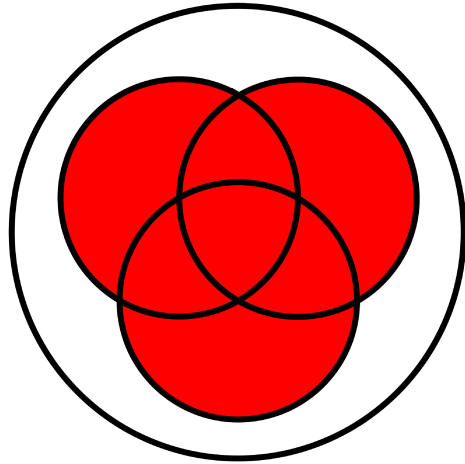
PROOF IDEA:

Venn diagrams^a

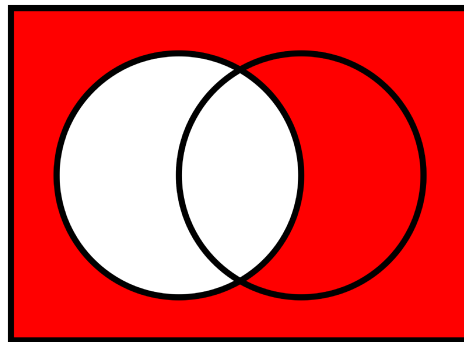
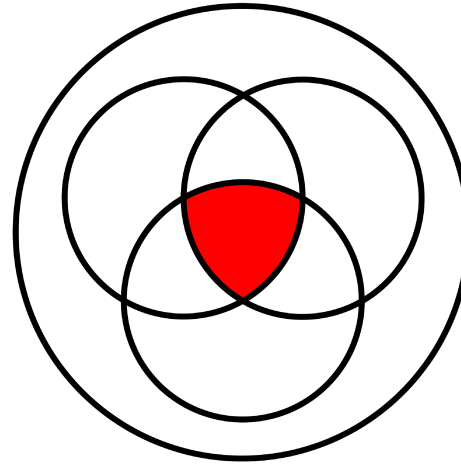


^aFrom [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intersection_\(set_theory\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intersection_(set_theory)) .

Union



Intersection



Complement

The powerset Boolean algebra

$$(\mathcal{P}(U) , \emptyset , U , \cup , \cap , (\cdot)^c)$$

For all $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(U)$,

$$A \cup B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\} \in \mathcal{P}(U)$$

$$A \cap B = \{x \in U \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\} \in \mathcal{P}(U)$$

$$A^c = \{x \in U \mid \neg(x \in A)\} \in \mathcal{P}(U)$$

- ▶ The union operation \cup and the intersection operation \cap are associative, commutative, and idempotent.

$$(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C) , \quad A \cup B = B \cup A , \quad A \cup A = A$$

$$(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C) , \quad A \cap B = B \cap A , \quad A \cap A = A$$

- ▶ The union operation \cup and the intersection operation \cap are associative, commutative, and idempotent.

$$(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C) , \quad A \cup B = B \cup A , \quad A \cup A = A$$

$$(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C) , \quad A \cap B = B \cap A , \quad A \cap A = A$$

- ▶ The *empty set* \emptyset is a neutral element for \cup and the *universal set* U is a neutral element for \cap .

$$\emptyset \cup A = A = U \cap A$$

- ▶ The empty set \emptyset is an annihilator for \cap and the universal set U is an annihilator for \cup .

$$\emptyset \cap A = \emptyset$$

$$U \cup A = U$$

- ▶ The empty set \emptyset is an annihilator for \cap and the universal set U is an annihilator for \cup .

$$\emptyset \cap A = \emptyset$$

$$U \cup A = U$$

- ▶ With respect to each other, the union operation \cup and the intersection operation \cap are distributive and absorptive.

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) , \quad A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

$$A \cup (A \cap B) = A = A \cap (A \cup B)$$

- ▶ The complement operation $(\cdot)^c$ satisfies complementation laws.

$$A \cup A^c = U, \quad A \cap A^c = \emptyset$$

Proposition 106 *Let U be a set and let $A, B \in \mathcal{P}(U)$.*

1. $\forall X \in \mathcal{P}(U). A \cup B \subseteq X \iff (A \subseteq X \wedge B \subseteq X).$

2. $\forall X \in \mathcal{P}(U). X \subseteq A \cap B \iff (X \subseteq A \wedge X \subseteq B).$

PROOF:

Corollary 107 Let U be a set and let $A, B, C \in \mathcal{P}(U)$.

1. $C = A \cup B$

iff

$$[A \subseteq C \wedge B \subseteq C]$$

\wedge

$$[\forall X \in \mathcal{P}(U). (A \subseteq X \wedge B \subseteq X) \implies C \subseteq X]$$

2. $C = A \cap B$

iff

$$[C \subseteq A \wedge C \subseteq B]$$

\wedge

$$[\forall X \in \mathcal{P}(U). (X \subseteq A \wedge X \subseteq B) \implies X \subseteq C]$$

Sets and logic

$\mathcal{P}(U)$	$\{ \text{false}, \text{true} \}$
\emptyset	false
U	true
\cup	\vee
\cap	\wedge
$(\cdot)^c$	$\neg(\cdot)$

Pairing axiom

For every a and b , there is a set with a and b as its only elements.

$$\{a, b\}$$

defined by

$$\forall x. x \in \{a, b\} \iff (x = a \vee x = b)$$

NB The set $\{a, a\}$ is abbreviated as $\{a\}$, and referred to as a *singleton*.

Examples:

▶ $\#\{\emptyset\} = 1$

▶ $\#\{\{\emptyset\}\} = 1$

▶ $\#\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\} = 2$

Proposition 108 *For all $a, b, c, x, y,$*

1. $\{a\} = \{x, y\} \implies x = y = a$

2. $\{c, x\} = \{c, y\} \implies x = y$

PROOF:

Ordered pairing

Notation:

(a, b) or $\langle a, b \rangle$

Fundamental property:

$$(a, b) = (x, y) \implies a = x \wedge b = y$$

A construction:

For every pair a and b ,

$$\langle a, b \rangle = \{ \{ a \}, \{ a, b \} \}$$

defines an ordered pairing of a and b .

Proposition 109 (Fundamental property of ordered pairing)

For all a, b, x, y ,

$$\langle a, b \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle \iff (a = x \wedge b = y) .$$

PROOF:

Products

The product $A \times B$ of two sets A and B is the set

$$A \times B = \{ x \mid \exists a \in A, b \in B. x = (a, b) \}$$

where

$$\forall a_1, a_2 \in A, b_1, b_2 \in B.$$

$$(a_1, b_1) = (a_2, b_2) \iff (a_1 = a_2 \wedge b_1 = b_2) \quad .$$

Thus,

$$\forall x \in A \times B. \exists! a \in A. \exists! b \in B. x = (a, b) \quad .$$

Pattern-matching notation

Example: The subset of ordered pairs from a set A with equal components is formally

$$\{x \in A \times A \mid \exists a_1 \in A. \exists a_2 \in A. x = (a_1, a_2) \wedge a_1 = a_2\}$$

but often abbreviated using *pattern-matching notation* as

$$\{(a_1, a_2) \in A \times A \mid a_1 = a_2\} .$$

Pattern-matching notation

Example: The subset of ordered pairs from a set A with equal components is formally

$$\{x \in A \times A \mid \exists a_1 \in A. \exists a_2 \in A. x = (a_1, a_2) \wedge a_1 = a_2\}$$

but often abbreviated using *pattern-matching notation* as

$$\{(a_1, a_2) \in A \times A \mid a_1 = a_2\} .$$

Notation: For a property $P(a, b)$ with a ranging over a set A and b ranging over a set B ,

$$\{(a, b) \in A \times B \mid P(a, b)\}$$

abbreviates

$$\{x \in A \times B \mid \exists a \in A. \exists b \in B. x = (a, b) \wedge P(a, b)\} .$$

Proposition 111 *For all finite sets A and B ,*

$$\#(A \times B) = \#A \cdot \#B .$$

PROOF IDEA:

Sets and logic

$\mathcal{P}(U)$	$\{ \text{false}, \text{true} \}$
\emptyset	false
U	true
\cup	\vee
\cap	\wedge
$(\cdot)^c$	$\neg(\cdot)$
\bigcup	\exists
\bigcap	\forall

Big unions

Example:

- ▶ Consider the family of sets

$$\mathcal{T} = \left\{ T \subseteq [5] \mid \begin{array}{l} \text{the sum of the elements of} \\ T \text{ is less than or equal } 2 \end{array} \right\}$$
$$= \{ \emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\} \}$$

- ▶ The *big union* of the family \mathcal{T} is the set $\bigcup \mathcal{T}$ given by the union of the sets in \mathcal{T} :

$$n \in \bigcup \mathcal{T} \iff \exists T \in \mathcal{T}. n \in T .$$

Hence, $\bigcup \mathcal{T} = \{0, 1, 2\}$.

Definition 112 Let \mathcal{U} be a set. For a collection of sets $\mathcal{F} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}))$, we let the big union (relative to \mathcal{U}) be defined as

$$\bigcup \mathcal{F} = \{x \in \mathcal{U} \mid \exists A \in \mathcal{F}. x \in A\} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}) .$$

Proposition 113 *For all $\mathcal{F} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U})))$,*

$$\bigcup (\bigcup \mathcal{F}) = \bigcup \left\{ \bigcup \mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}) \mid \mathcal{A} \in \mathcal{F} \right\} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}) .$$

PROOF:

Big intersections

Example:

- ▶ Consider the family of sets

$$\mathcal{S} = \left\{ S \subseteq [5] \mid \begin{array}{l} \text{the sum of the elements of} \\ S \text{ is less than or equal } 6 \end{array} \right\}$$
$$= \{ \{2,4\}, \{0,2,4\}, \{1,2,3\} \}$$

- ▶ The *big intersection* of the family \mathcal{S} is the set $\bigcap \mathcal{S}$ given by the intersection of the sets in \mathcal{S} :

$$n \in \bigcap \mathcal{S} \iff \forall S \in \mathcal{S}. n \in S .$$

Hence, $\bigcup \mathcal{S} = \{2\}$.

Definition 114 Let U be a set. For a collection of sets $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(U)$, we let the big intersection (relative to U) be defined as

$$\bigcap \mathcal{F} = \{x \in U \mid \forall A \in \mathcal{F}. x \in A\} .$$

Theorem 115 *Let*

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ S \subseteq \mathbb{R} \mid (0 \in S) \wedge (\forall x \in \mathbb{R}. x \in S \implies (x + 1) \in S) \right\} .$$

Then, (i) $\mathbb{N} \in \mathcal{F}$ and (ii) $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{F}$. Hence, $\bigcap \mathcal{F} = \mathbb{N}$.

PROOF:

Proposition 116 Let U be a set and let $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(U)$ be a family of subsets of U .

1. For all $S \in \mathcal{P}(U)$,

$$S = \bigcup \mathcal{F}$$

iff

$$[\forall A \in \mathcal{F}. A \subseteq S]$$

$$\wedge [\forall X \in \mathcal{P}(U). (\forall A \in \mathcal{F}. A \subseteq X) \Rightarrow S \subseteq X]$$

2. For all $T \in \mathcal{P}(U)$,

$$T = \bigcap \mathcal{F}$$

iff

$$[\forall A \in \mathcal{F}. T \subseteq A]$$

$$\wedge [\forall Y \in \mathcal{P}(U). (\forall A \in \mathcal{F}. Y \subseteq A) \Rightarrow Y \subseteq T]$$

Union axiom

Every collection of sets has a union.

$$\bigcup \mathcal{F}$$

$$x \in \bigcup \mathcal{F} \iff \exists X \in \mathcal{F}. x \in X$$

For non-empty \mathcal{F} we also have

$$\bigcap \mathcal{F}$$

defined by

$$\forall x. x \in \bigcap \mathcal{F} \iff (\forall X \in \mathcal{F}. x \in X) .$$

Disjoint unions

Definition 117 The disjoint union $A \uplus B$ of two sets A and B is the set

$$A \uplus B = (\{1\} \times A) \cup (\{2\} \times B) .$$

Thus,

$$\forall x. x \in (A \uplus B) \iff (\exists a \in A. x = (1, a)) \vee (\exists b \in B. x = (2, b)) .$$

Proposition 119 *For all finite sets A and B ,*

$$A \cap B = \emptyset \implies \#(A \cup B) = \#A + \#B .$$

PROOF IDEA:

Corollary 120 *For all finite sets A and B ,*

$$\#(A \uplus B) = \#A + \#B .$$

Relations

Definition 122 A (binary) relation R from a set A to a set B

$$R : A \twoheadrightarrow B \quad \text{or} \quad R \in \text{Rel}(A, B) \quad ,$$

is

$$R \subseteq A \times B \quad \text{or} \quad R \in \mathcal{P}(A \times B) \quad .$$

Notation 123 One typically writes $a R b$ for $(a, b) \in R$.

Informal examples:

- ▶ Computation.
- ▶ Typing.
- ▶ Program equivalence.
- ▶ Networks.
- ▶ Databases.

Examples:

- ▶ Empty relation.

$$\emptyset : A \rightarrow B$$

$$(a \emptyset b \iff \text{false})$$

- ▶ Full relation.

$$(A \times B) : A \rightarrow B$$

$$(a (A \times B) b \iff \text{true})$$

- ▶ Identity (or equality) relation.

$$\text{id}_A = \{ (a, a) \mid a \in A \} : A \rightarrow A$$

$$(a \text{id}_A a' \iff a = a')$$

- ▶ Integer square root.

$$R_2 = \{ (m, n) \mid m = n^2 \} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

$$(m R_2 n \iff m = n^2)$$

Internal diagrams

Example:

$$R = \{ (0, 0), (0, -1), (0, 1), (1, 2), (1, 1), (2, 1) \} : \mathbb{N} \rightharpoonup \mathbb{Z}$$

$$S = \{ (1, 0), (1, 2), (2, 1), (2, 3) \} : \mathbb{Z} \rightharpoonup \mathbb{Z}$$

Relational extensionality

$$R = S : A \rightarrow B$$

iff

$$\forall a \in A. \forall b \in B. a R b \iff a S b$$

Relational composition

Theorem 125 *Relational composition is associative and has the identity relation as neutral element.*

► *Associativity.*

For all $R : A \rightarrow B$, $S : B \rightarrow C$, and $T : C \rightarrow D$,

$$(T \circ S) \circ R = T \circ (S \circ R)$$

► *Neutral element.*

For all $R : A \rightarrow B$,

$$R \circ \text{id}_A = R = \text{id}_B \circ R .$$

Relations and matrices

Definition 126

1. For positive integers m and n , an $(m \times n)$ -matrix M over a semiring $(S, 0, \oplus, 1, \odot)$ is given by entries $M_{i,j} \in S$ for all $0 \leq i < m$ and $0 \leq j < n$.

Theorem 127 *Matrix multiplication is associative and has the identity matrix as neutral element.*

Relations from $[m]$ to $[n]$ and $(m \times n)$ -matrices over Booleans provide two alternative views of the same structure.

This carries over to identities and to composition/multiplication .

Directed graphs

Definition 131 A directed graph (A, R) consists of a set A and a relation R on A (i.e. a relation from A to A).

Corollary 133 For every set A , the structure

$$(\text{Rel}(A), \text{id}_A, \circ)$$

is a monoid.

Definition 134 For $R \in \text{Rel}(A)$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we let

$$R^{\circ n} = \underbrace{R \circ \dots \circ R}_{n \text{ times}} \in \text{Rel}(A)$$

be defined as id_A for $n = 0$, and as $R \circ R^{\circ m}$ for $n = m + 1$.

Paths

Proposition 136 *Let (A, R) be a directed graph. For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $s, t \in A$, $s R^{o_n} t$ iff there exists a path of length n in R with source s and target t .*

PROOF:

Definition 137 For $R \in \text{Rel}(A)$, let

$$R^{o*} = \bigcup \{ R^{on} \in \text{Rel}(A) \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} R^{on} .$$

Corollary 138 Let (A, R) be a directed graph. For all $s, t \in A$, $s R^{o*} t$ iff there exists a path with source s and target t in R .

The $(n \times n)$ -matrix $M = \text{mat}(R)$ of a finite directed graph $([n], R)$ for n a positive integer is called its adjacency matrix.

The adjacency matrix $M^* = \text{mat}(R^{o*})$ can be computed by matrix multiplication and addition as M_n where

$$\begin{cases} M_0 = I_n \\ M_{k+1} = I_n + (M \cdot M_k) \end{cases}$$

This gives an algorithm for establishing or refuting the existence of paths in finite directed graphs.

Preorders

Definition 139 A preorder (P, \sqsubseteq) consists of a set P and a relation \sqsubseteq on P (i.e. $\sqsubseteq \in \mathcal{P}(P \times P)$) satisfying the following two axioms.

► *Reflexivity.*

$$\forall x \in P. x \sqsubseteq x$$

► *Transitivity.*

$$\forall x, y, z \in P. (x \sqsubseteq y \wedge y \sqsubseteq z) \implies x \sqsubseteq z$$

Examples:

- ▶ (\mathbb{R}, \leq) and (\mathbb{R}, \geq) .
- ▶ $(\mathcal{P}(A), \subseteq)$ and $(\mathcal{P}(A), \supseteq)$.
- ▶ $(\mathbb{Z}, |)$.

Theorem 141 For $R \subseteq A \times A$, let

$$\mathcal{F}_R = \{ Q \subseteq A \times A \mid R \subseteq Q \wedge Q \text{ is a preorder} \} .$$

Then, (i) $R^{\circ*} \in \mathcal{F}_R$ and (ii) $R^{\circ*} \subseteq \bigcap \mathcal{F}_R$. Hence, $R^{\circ*} = \bigcap \mathcal{F}_R$.

PROOF:

Partial functions

Definition 142 A relation $R : A \dashrightarrow B$ is said to be functional, and called a partial function, whenever it is such that

$$\forall a \in A. \forall b_1, b_2 \in B. a R b_1 \wedge a R b_2 \implies b_1 = b_2 .$$

Theorem 144 *The identity relation is a partial function, and the composition of partial functions yields a partial function.*

NB

$$f = g : A \multimap B$$

iff

$$\forall a \in A. (f(a) \downarrow \iff g(a) \downarrow) \wedge f(a) = g(a)$$

Example: The following defines a partial function $\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$:

- ▶ for $n \geq 0$ and $m > 0$,
 $(n, m) \mapsto (\text{quo}(n, m), \text{rem}(n, m))$
- ▶ for $n \geq 0$ and $m < 0$,
 $(n, m) \mapsto (-\text{quo}(n, -m), \text{rem}(n, -m))$
- ▶ for $n < 0$ and $m > 0$,
 $(n, m) \mapsto (-\text{quo}(-n, m) - 1, \text{rem}(m - \text{rem}(-n, m), m))$
- ▶ for $n < 0$ and $m < 0$,
 $(n, m) \mapsto (\text{quo}(-n, -m) + 1, \text{rem}(-m - \text{rem}(-n, -m), -m))$

Its domain of definition is $\{(n, m) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \mid m \neq 0\}$.

Proposition 145 *For all finite sets A and B ,*

$$\#(A \Rightarrow B) = (\#B + 1)^{\#A} .$$

PROOF IDEA:

Functions (or maps)

Definition 146 A partial function is said to be total, and referred to as a (total) function or map, whenever its domain of definition coincides with its source.

Theorem 147 For all $f \in \text{Rel}(A, B)$,

$$f \in (A \Rightarrow B) \iff \forall a \in A. \exists! b \in B. a f b .$$

Proposition 148 *For all finite sets A and B ,*

$$\#(A \Rightarrow B) = \#B^{\#A} .$$

PROOF IDEA:

Theorem 149 *The identity partial function is a function, and the composition of functions yields a function.*

NB

1. $f = g : A \rightarrow B$ iff $\forall a \in A. f(a) = g(a)$.
2. For all sets A , the identity function $\text{id}_A : A \rightarrow A$ is given by the rule

$$\text{id}_A(a) = a$$

and, for all functions $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$, the composition function $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ is given by the rule

$$(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a)) \quad .$$

Inductive definitions

Examples:

▶ $\text{add} : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{add}(m, 0) = m \\ \text{add}(m, n + 1) = \text{add}(m, n) + 1 \end{array} \right.$$

▶ $S : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} S(0) = 0 \\ S(n + 1) = \text{add}(n, S(n)) \end{array} \right.$$

The function

$$\rho_{a,f} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$$

inductively defined from

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \in A \\ f : \mathbb{N} \times A \rightarrow A \end{array} \right.$$

is the unique such that

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \rho_{a,f}(0) = a \\ \rho_{a,f}(n+1) = f(n, \rho_{a,f}(n)) \end{array} \right.$$

Examples:

▶ $\text{add} : \mathbb{N}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

$\text{add}(m, n) = \rho_{m,f}(n)$ for $f(x, y) = y + 1$

▶ $S : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$

$S = \rho_{0,\text{add}}$

For a set A , consider $a \in A$ and a function $f : \mathbb{N} \times A \rightarrow A$.

Definition 150 Define $R \subseteq \mathbb{N} \times A$ to be (a, f) -closed whenever

- ▶ $0 R a$, and
- ▶ $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \forall a \in A. n R a \implies (n + 1) R f(n, a)$.

Theorem 151 Let $\rho_{a,f} = \bigcap \{ R \subseteq \mathbb{N} \times A \mid R \text{ is } (a, f)\text{-closed} \}$.

1. The relation $\rho_{a,f} : \mathbb{N} \dashrightarrow A$ is functional and total.
2. The function $\rho_{a,f} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$ is the unique such that $\rho_{a,f}(0) = a$ and $\rho_{a,f}(n + 1) = f(n, \rho_{a,f}(n))$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Bijections

Definition 152 A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is said to be bijjective, or a bijection, whenever there exists a (necessarily unique) function $g : B \rightarrow A$ (referred to as the inverse of f) such that

1. g is a retraction (or left inverse) for f :

$$g \circ f = \text{id}_A \quad ,$$

2. g is a section (or right inverse) for f :

$$f \circ g = \text{id}_B \quad .$$

Proposition 154 *For all finite sets A and B ,*

$$\# \text{Bij}(A, B) = \begin{cases} 0 & , \text{ if } \#A \neq \#B \\ n! & , \text{ if } \#A = \#B = n \end{cases}$$

PROOF IDEA:

Theorem 155 *The identity function is a bijection, and the composition of bijections yields a bijection.*

Definition 156 Two sets A and B are said to be isomorphic (and to have the same cardinality) whenever there is a bijection between them; in which case we write

$$A \cong B \quad \text{or} \quad \#A = \#B \quad .$$

Examples:

1. $\{0, 1\} \cong \{\text{false}, \text{true}\}$.

2. $\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{N}^+$, $\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{Z}$, $\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$, $\mathbb{N} \cong \mathbb{Q}$.

Equivalence relations and set partitions

- ▶ Equivalence relations.

► Set partitions.

Theorem 159 *For every set A ,*

$$\text{EqRel}(A) \cong \text{Part}(A) \quad .$$

PROOF:

Calculus of bijections

► $A \cong A$, $A \cong B \implies B \cong A$, $(A \cong B \wedge B \cong C) \implies A \cong C$

► If $A \cong X$ and $B \cong Y$ then

$$\mathcal{P}(A) \cong \mathcal{P}(X) \quad , \quad A \times B \cong X \times Y \quad , \quad A \uplus B \cong X \uplus Y \quad ,$$

$$\text{Rel}(A, B) \cong \text{Rel}(X, Y) \quad , \quad (A \rightrightarrows B) \cong (X \rightrightarrows Y) \quad ,$$

$$(A \Rightarrow B) \cong (X \Rightarrow Y) \quad , \quad \text{Bij}(A, B) \cong \text{Bij}(X, Y)$$

- ▶ $A \cong [1] \times A$, $(A \times B) \times C \cong A \times (B \times C)$, $A \times B \cong B \times A$
- ▶ $[0] \uplus A \cong A$, $(A \uplus B) \uplus C \cong A \uplus (B \uplus C)$, $A \uplus B \cong B \uplus A$
- ▶ $[0] \times A \cong [0]$, $(A \uplus B) \times C \cong (A \times C) \uplus (B \times C)$
- ▶ $(A \Rightarrow [1]) \cong [1]$, $(A \Rightarrow (B \times C)) \cong (A \Rightarrow B) \times (A \Rightarrow C)$
- ▶ $([0] \Rightarrow A) \cong [1]$, $((A \uplus B) \Rightarrow C) \cong (A \Rightarrow C) \times (B \Rightarrow C)$
- ▶ $([1] \Rightarrow A) \cong A$, $((A \times B) \Rightarrow C) \cong (A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C))$
- ▶ $(A \Rightarrow B) \cong (A \Rightarrow (B \uplus [1]))$
- ▶ $\mathcal{P}(A) \cong (A \Rightarrow [2])$

Characteristic (or indicator) functions

$$\mathcal{P}(A) \cong (A \Rightarrow [2])$$

Finite cardinality

Definition 161 A set A is said to be finite whenever $A \cong [n]$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, in which case we write $\#A = n$.

Theorem 162 For all $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$,

1. $\mathcal{P}([n]) \cong [2^n]$

2. $[m] \times [n] \cong [m \cdot n]$

3. $[m] \uplus [n] \cong [m + n]$

4. $([m] \Rightarrow [n]) \cong [(n + 1)^m]$

5. $([m] \Rightarrow [n]) \cong [n^m]$

6. $\text{Bij}([n], [n]) \cong [n!]$

Infinity axiom

There is an infinite set, containing \emptyset and closed under successor.

Bijections

Proposition 163 *For a function $f : A \rightarrow B$, the following are equivalent.*

1. f is bijective.

2. $\forall b \in B. \exists! a \in A. f(a) = b.$

3. $(\forall b \in B. \exists a \in A. f(a) = b)$

\wedge

$(\forall a_1, a_2 \in A. f(a_1) = f(a_2) \implies a_1 = a_2)$

Surjections

Definition 164 A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is said to be surjective, or a surjection, and indicated $f : A \twoheadrightarrow B$ whenever

$$\forall b \in B. \exists a \in A. f(a) = b \quad .$$

Theorem 165 *The identity function is a surjection, and the composition of surjections yields a surjection.*

The set of surjections from A to B is denoted

$$\text{Sur}(A, B)$$

and we thus have

$$\text{Bij}(A, B) \subseteq \text{Sur}(A, B) \subseteq \text{Fun}(A, B) \subseteq \text{PFun}(A, B) \subseteq \text{Rel}(A, B) .$$

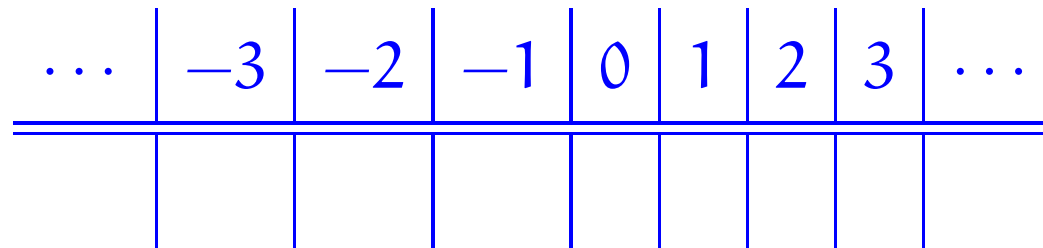
Enumerability

Definition 167

1. A set A is said to be enumerable whenever there exists a surjection $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$, referred to as an enumeration.
2. A countable set is one that is either empty or enumerable.

Examples:

1. A bijective enumeration of \mathbb{Z} .



2. A bijective enumeration of $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	...
0							
1							
2							
3							
4							
⋮							

Proposition 168 *Every non-empty subset of an enumerable set is enumerable.*

PROOF:

Countability

Proposition 169

1. \mathbb{N} , \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} are countable sets.
2. The product and disjoint union of countable sets is countable.
3. Every finite set is countable.
4. Every subset of a countable set is countable.

Axiom of choice

Every surjection has a section.

Injections

Definition 170 A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is said to be injective, or an injection, and indicated $f : A \rightarrowtail B$ whenever

$$\forall a_1, a_2 \in A. (f(a_1) = f(a_2)) \implies a_1 = a_2 .$$

Theorem 171 *The identity function is an injection, and the composition of injections yields an injection.*

The set of injections from A to B is denoted

$$\text{Inj}(A, B)$$

and we thus have

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{Sur}(A, B) \\
 \cup \\
 \text{Bij}(A, B) \quad \subseteq \quad \text{Fun}(A, B) \subseteq \text{PFun}(A, B) \subseteq \text{Rel}(A, B) \\
 \cap \\
 \text{Inj}(A, B)
 \end{array}$$

with

$$\text{Bij}(A, B) = \text{Sur}(A, B) \cap \text{Inj}(A, B) .$$

Proposition 172 For all finite sets A and B ,

$$\# \text{Inj}(A, B) = \begin{cases} \binom{\#B}{\#A} \cdot (\#A)! & , \text{ if } \#A \leq \#B \\ 0 & , \text{ otherwise} \end{cases}$$

PROOF IDEA:

Relational images

Definition 175 Let $R : A \rightarrow B$ be a relation.

- ▶ The direct image of $X \subseteq A$ under R is the set $\overrightarrow{R}(X) \subseteq B$, defined as

$$\overrightarrow{R}(X) = \{b \in B \mid \exists x \in X. x R b\} .$$

NB This construction yields a function $\overrightarrow{R} : \mathcal{P}(A) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(B)$.

- The inverse image of $Y \subseteq B$ under R is the set $\overleftarrow{R}(Y) \subseteq A$, defined as

$$\overleftarrow{R}(Y) = \{a \in A \mid \forall b \in B. a R b \implies b \in Y\}$$

NB This construction yields a function $\overleftarrow{R} : \mathcal{P}(B) \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(A)$.

Replacement axiom

The direct image of every definable functional property on a set is a set.

Set-indexed constructions

For every mapping associating a set A_i to each element of a set I , we have the set

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcup \{A_i \mid i \in I\} = \{a \mid \exists i \in I. a \in A_i\} .$$

Examples:

1. Indexed disjoint unions:

$$\bigsqcup_{i \in I} A_i = \bigcup_{i \in I} \{i\} \times A_i$$

2. Finite sequences on a set A :

$$A^* = \bigsqcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} A^n$$

3. Finite partial functions from a set A to a set B :

$$(A \Rightarrow_{\text{fin}} B) = \biguplus_{S \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{fin}}(A)} (S \Rightarrow B)$$

where

$$\mathcal{P}_{\text{fin}}(A) = \{ S \subseteq A \mid S \text{ is finite} \}$$

4. Non-empty indexed intersections: for $I \neq \emptyset$,

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i = \{ x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \mid \forall i \in I. x \in A_i \}$$

5. Indexed products:

$$\prod_{i \in I} A_i = \left\{ \alpha \in (I \Rightarrow \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i) \mid \forall i \in I. \alpha(i) \in A_i \right\}$$

Proposition 178 *An enumerable indexed disjoint union of enumerable sets is enumerable.*

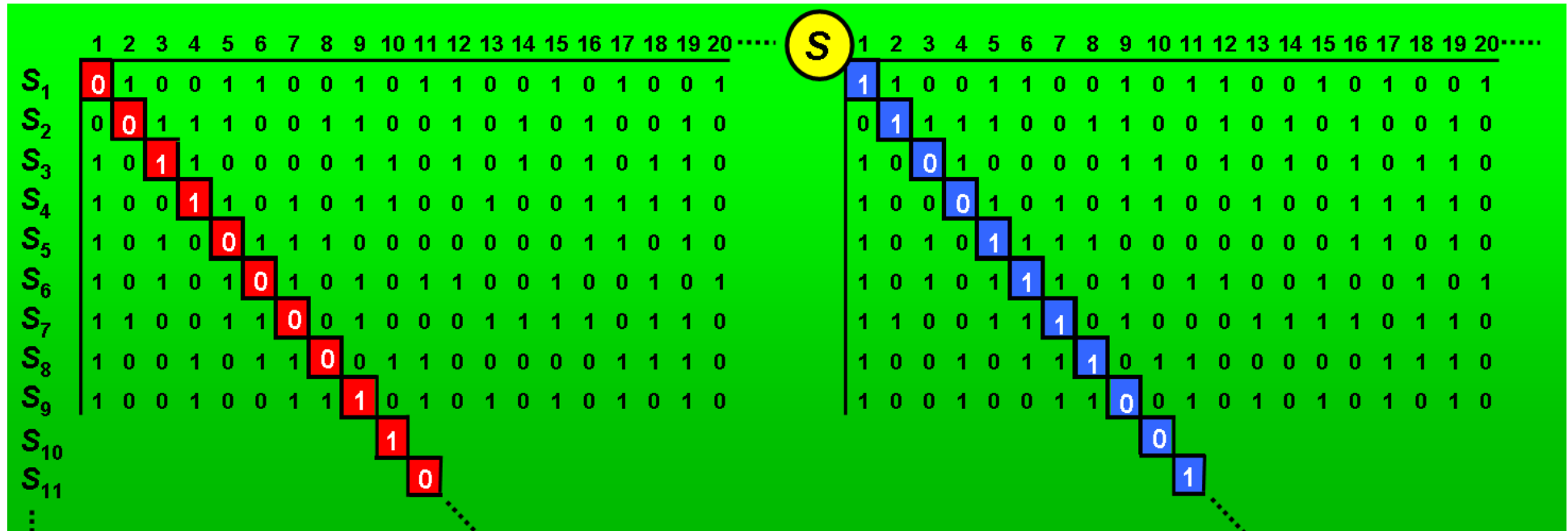
PROOF:

Corollary 180 *If X and A are countable sets then so are A^* , $\mathcal{P}_{\text{fin}}(A)$, and $(X \rightrightarrows_{\text{fin}} A)$.*

THEOREM OF THE DAY



Cantor's Uncountability Theorem *There are uncountably many infinite 0-1 sequences.*



Proof: Suppose you *could* count the sequences. Label them in order: S_1, S_2, S_3, \dots , and denote by $S_i(j)$ the j -th entry of sequence S_i . Now define a new sequence, S , whose i -th entry is $S_i(i) + 1 \pmod{2}$. So S is $S_1(1) + 1, S_2(2) + 1, S_3(3) + 1, S_4(4) + 1, \dots$, with all entries remaindered modulo 2. S is certainly an infinite sequence of 0s and 1s. So it must appear in our list: it is, say, S_k , so its k -th entry is $S_k(k)$. But this is, by definition, $S_k(k) + 1 \pmod{2} \neq S_k(k)$. So we have contradicted the possibility of forming our enumeration. QED.

The theorem establishes that the real numbers are *uncountable* — that is, they cannot be enumerated in a list indexed by the positive integers (1, 2, 3, ...). To see this informally, consider the infinite sequences of 0s and 1s to be the binary expansions of fractions (e.g. $0.010011\dots = 0/2 + 1/4 + 0/8 + 0/16 + 1/32 + 1/64 + \dots$). More generally, it says that the set of subsets of a countably infinite set is uncountable, and to see *that*, imagine every 0-1 sequence being a different recipe for building a subset: the i -th entry tells you whether to include the i -th element (1) or exclude it (0).

Georg Cantor (1845–1918) discovered this theorem in 1874 but it apparently took another twenty years of thought about what were then new and controversial concepts: ‘sets’, ‘cardinalities’, ‘orders of infinity’, to invent the important proof given here, using the so-called *diagonalisation method*.

Web link: www.math.hawaii.edu/~dale/godel/godel.html. There is an [interesting discussion](#) on mathoverflow.net about the history of diagonalisation: type ‘earliest diagonal’ into their search box.

Further reading: *Mathematics: the Loss of Certainty* by Morris Kline, Oxford University Press, New York, 1980.



Unbounded cardinality

Theorem 181 (Cantor's diagonalisation argument) *For every set A , no surjection from A to $\mathcal{P}(A)$ exists.*

PROOF:

Definition 182 A fixed-point of a function $f : X \rightarrow X$ is an element $x \in X$ such that $f(x) = x$.

Theorem 183 (Lawvere's fixed-point argument) For sets A and X , if there exists a surjection $A \twoheadrightarrow (A \Rightarrow X)$ then every function $X \rightarrow X$ has a fixed-point; and hence X is a singleton.

PROOF:

Corollary 184 *The sets*

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N}) \cong (\mathbb{N} \Rightarrow [2]) \cong [0, 1] \cong \mathbb{R}$$

are not enumerable.

Corollary 185 *There are non-computable infinite sequences of bits.*

Foundation axiom

The membership relation is well-founded.

Thereby, providing a

Principle of \in -Induction .