

# CS201 DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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The following loop is a part of program to determine the number of triangles formed by n points in the plane.

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(1) trianglecount = 0
(2)  for i = 1 to n
(3)  for j = i+1 to n
(4)  for k = j+1 to n
(5)  if points i, j, k are not collinear
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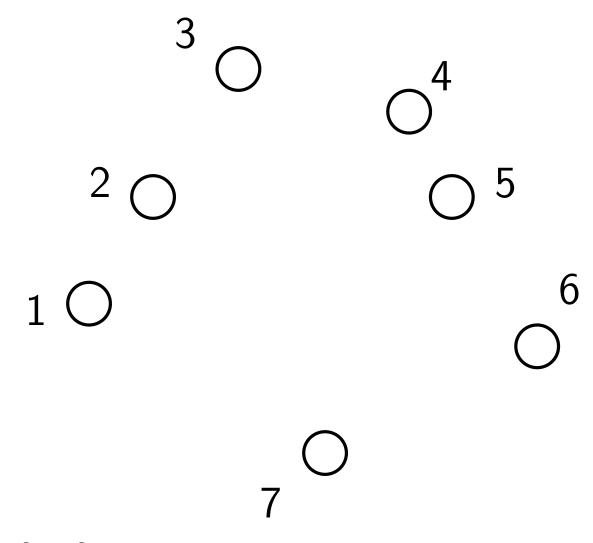


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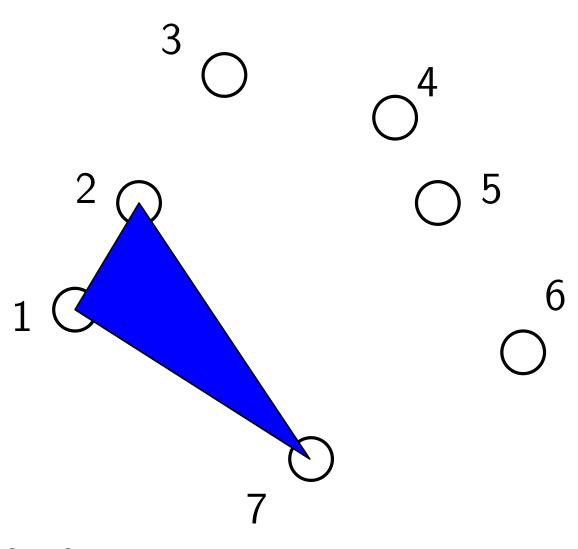
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Among all iterations of line 5, what is the total number of times this line checks three points to see if they are collinear?



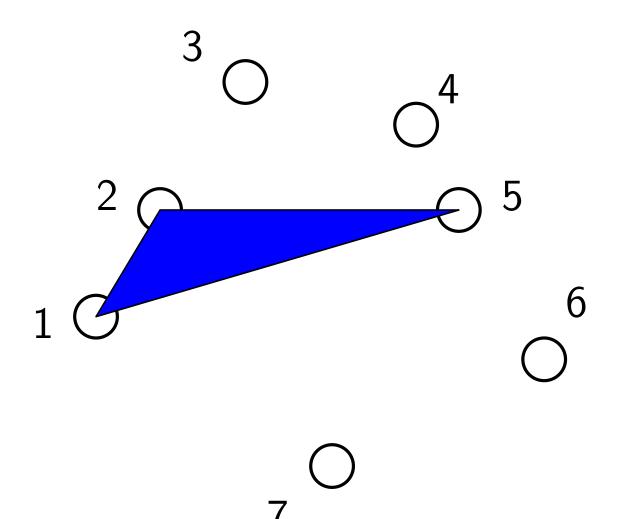






$$1 - 2 - 7$$
: yes

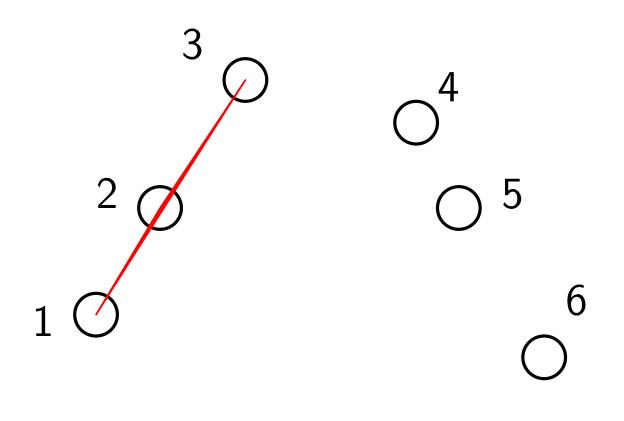




$$1 - 2 - 7$$
: yes

$$1 - 2 - 7$$
: yes  $1 - 2 - 5$ : yes



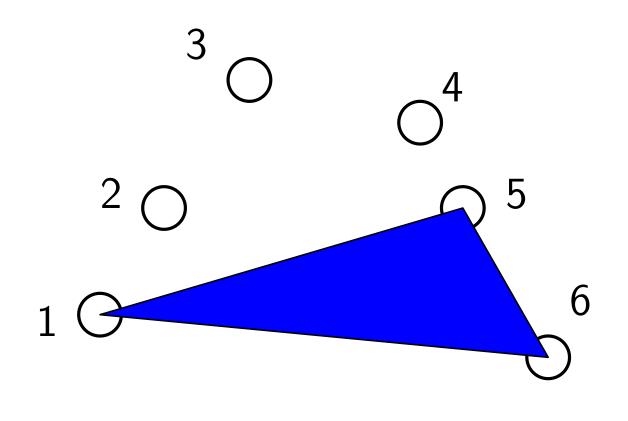


$$1 - 2 - 7$$
: yes

$$1 - 2 - 5$$
: yes

$$1 - 2 - 3$$
: no





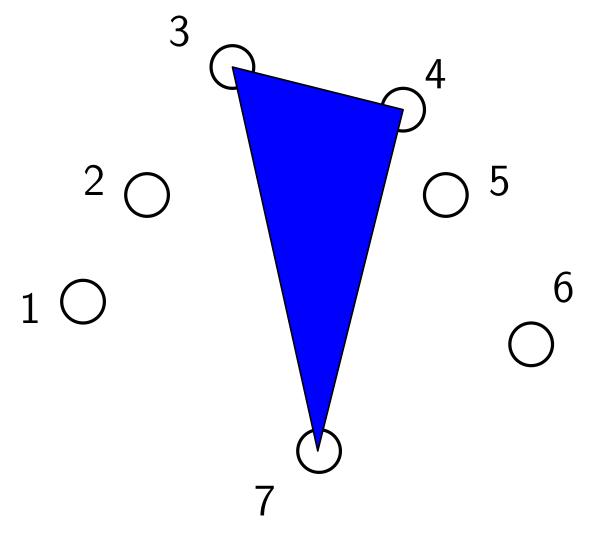
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: yes

$$1 - 2 - 5$$
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: no

$$1 - 5 - 6$$
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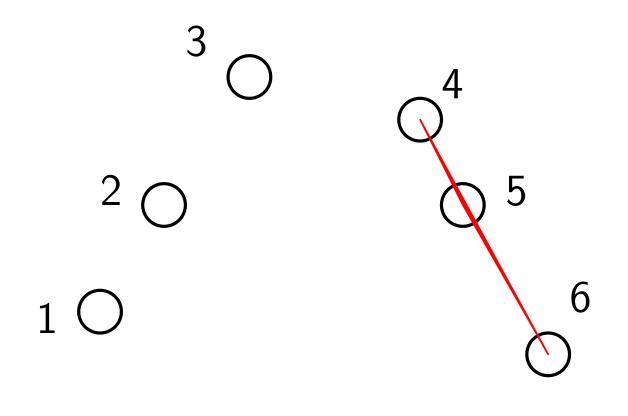
$$1 - 2 - 5$$
: yes

$$1 - 2 - 3$$
: no

$$1 - 5 - 6$$
: yes

$$3 - 4 - 7$$
: yes





$$1 - 2 - 7$$
: yes

$$1 - 2 - 5$$
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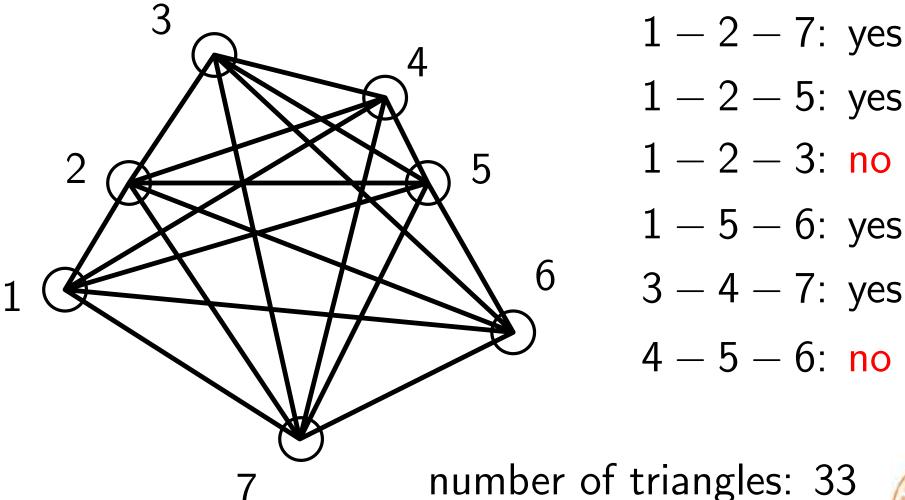
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$$1 - 5 - 6$$
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$$3 - 4 - 7$$
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$$4 - 5 - 6$$
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Thus each triple i, j, k with i < j < k is examined exactly once.

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For example, if n=4, then triples (i,j,k) used by algorithm are (1,2,3), (1,2,4), (1,3,4), and (2,3,4). 10-7

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Why? Let X = set of increasing triples and $Y = \text{set of 3-element subsets from } \{1, 2, ..., n\}$ 

Define:  $f: X \to Y$  by  $f((i, j, k)) = \{i, j, k\}$ 

Claim: f is a bijection (why) so |X| = |Y|

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# Counting Pairs

The number of increasing pairs (i, j) with 1 ≤ i < j ≤ n is the same as the number of 2-sets from {1, 2, ..., n}</li>



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Define  $f: X \to Y$  by  $f((i,j)) = \{i,j\}$ Claim: f is a bijection so |X| = |Y|

We actually already saw that  $|X| = |Y| = \binom{n}{2}$ 



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Currently, we started with the problem of counting the # of increasing triples and changed it to the problem of counting the # of 3-element sets from  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ 



Used in counts where the decomposition yields two independent counting tasks with overlapping elements



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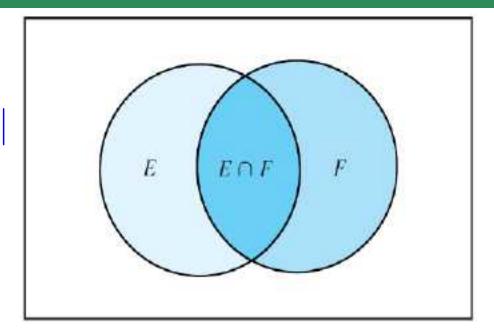
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deduct the number of strings starting with '1' and ending with '00":
 2<sup>5</sup>



Two sets

$$|E \cup F| = |E| + |F| - |E \cap F|$$

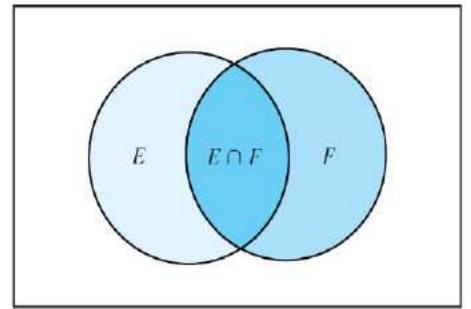


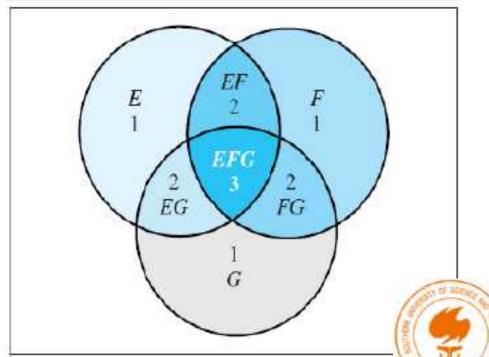


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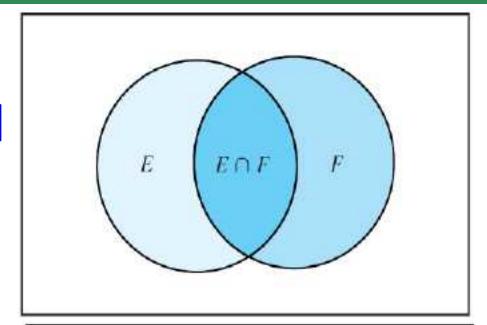
Three sets





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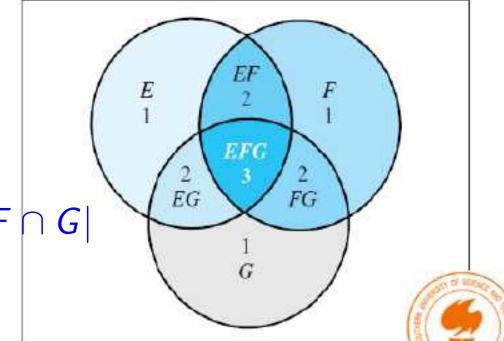
Three sets

$$|E \cup F \cup G|$$

$$= |E| + |F| + |G|$$

$$-|E \cap F| - |E \cap G| - |F \cap G|$$

$$+|E \cap F \cap G|$$



$$|\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i| = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \leq n} |E_{i_1} \cap E_{i_2} \cap \dots \cap E_{i_k}|$$



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Base case 
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Inductive Hypothesis

$$\left| \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} E_i \right| = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (-1)^{k+1} \sum_{1 \le i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_k \le n-1} |E_{i_1} \cap E_{i_2} \cap \dots \cap E_{i_k}|$$

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$$|\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i| = |\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} E_i| + |E_n| - |(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} E_i) \cap E_n|$$



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For the third term, by distributive law,

$$\left| \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} E_i \right) \cap E_n \right| = \left| \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} (E_i \cap E_n) \right| = \left| \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} G_i \right|$$

where  $G_i = E_i \cap E_n$ .



So far

$$|\bigcup_{i=1}^n E_i| = |\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} E_i| + |E_n| - |\bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} G_i|$$

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Note that (why?)
 $-(-1)^{k+1} |G_{i_1} \cap G_{i_2} \cap \cdots \cap G_{i_k}|$ 
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Some discussion:

```
first summation sums (-1)^{k+1}|E_{i_1}\cap E_{i_2}\cap\cdots\cap E_{i_k}| over all lists i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_k that do not contain n |E_n| and second summation together sum (-1)^{k+1}|E_{i_1}\cap E_{i_2}\cap\cdots\cap E_{i_k}| over all lists i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_k that 19^{\text{do}} contain n
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= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (-1)^{k+1} {n \choose k} (n-k)^{m}$$



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Note that the case of k = n is special;

An *n*-element permutation of a set N of size |N| = n is what we earlier simply called a permutation.



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```
Ex: When n = 4, there are 4 \times 3 \times 2 = 24
3 -element permutations of \{1, 2, 3, 4\}
```

```
L = \{123, 124, 132, 134, 142, 143, 213, 214, 231, 234, 241, 243, 312, 314, 321, 324, 341, 342, 412, 413, 421, 423, 431, 432\}.
```



### An Example

■ By product rule, there are n(n-1)(n-2) ways to choose the permutation

```
Ex: When n = 4, there are 4 \times 3 \times 2 = 24 3 -element permutations of \{1, 2, 3, 4\}
```

$$L = \{123, 124, 132, 134, 142, 143, 213, 214, 231, 234, 241, 243, 312, 314, 321, 324, 341, 342, 412, 413, 421, 423, 431, 432\}.$$

Note: This type of "dictionary" ordering of tuples (assuming that we treat numbers the same as letters) is called a *lexicographic ordering* and is used quite often.



■ **Theorem** If N is a positive integer and k is an integer with  $1 \le k \le n$ , then there are

$$P(n,k) = n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)$$

k-element permutations with n distinct elements.



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$$(\# 3\text{-element perms}) = 6 \times (\# 3\text{-element subsets})$$

$$P(n,3) = 3! \cdot C(n,3)$$



■ **Theorem** For integers n and k with  $0 \le k \le n$ , the number of k-element subsets of an n-element set is

$$\binom{n}{k} = C(n, k) = \frac{P(n, k)}{k!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

This is the number of k-combinations of a set with n elements.



$${}^{\bullet}\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$
 is the number of k-element subsets of an n-element set.

$$\binom{n}{0} = 1$$
 only one set of size 0.

$$\binom{n}{n} = 1$$
 only one set of size  $n$ .

 $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$  Obvious from equation. Can you think of a simple bijection that explains this?



$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} = 2^n$$



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#### Use Sum Rule

```
Let P = \text{set of all subsets of } \{1,2,\ldots,n\}

S_i = \text{set of all } i \text{ subsets of } \{1,2,\ldots,n\}
```



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Use Sum Rule

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$$P = \text{set of all subsets of } \{1,2,\ldots,n\}$$
  
 $S_i = \text{set of all } i \text{ subsets of } \{1,2,\ldots,n\}$ 

$$\Rightarrow |P| = \sum_{i=0}^{n} |S_i| = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i}$$



Let  $L = L_1 L_2 \dots L_n$  be a list of size n from  $\{0, 1\}$ If  $\mathcal{L} = \text{set of all such lists} \Rightarrow |\mathcal{L}| = 2^n$ There is a *bijection* between  $\mathcal{L}$  and P so  $|P| = 2^n$  and we are done.

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If L = set of all such lists ⇒ |L| = 2<sup>n</sup>
There is a bijection between L and P so |P| = 2<sup>n</sup> and we are done.
Define the following function f: L → P
If L ∈ L then f(L) is the set S ⊆ {1,2,...,n} defined by

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Ex: n = 5  $f(10101) = \{1, 3, 5\}, \ f(11101) = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}, \ f(00000) = \emptyset$ 29 - 4

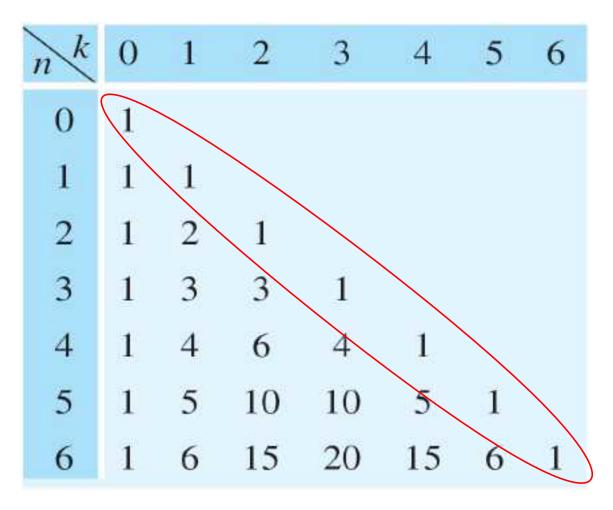
$n^{k}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1



$n^{k}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	$\bigcap$						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

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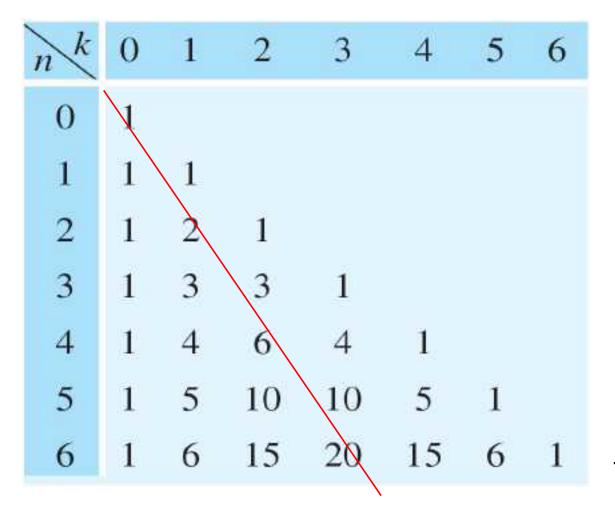
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0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

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Each row increases at first then decreases.





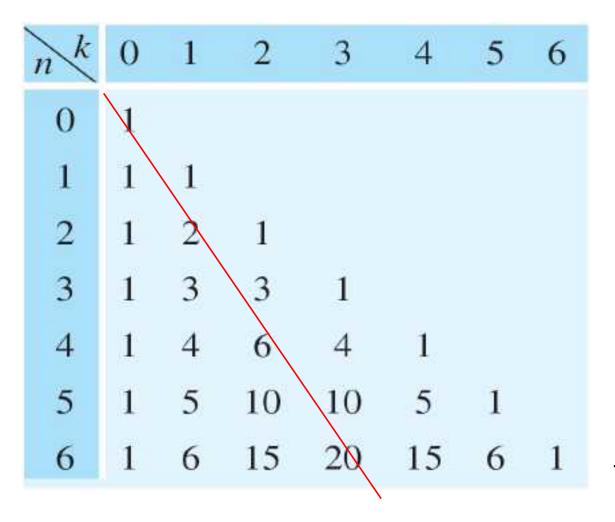
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Each row ends with a 1 because  $\binom{n}{n} = 1$ .

Each row increases at first then decreases.

Second half of each row is the reverse of the first half. Sum of items on n-th row is  $2^n$ 



#### Take the table

$n^{k}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1



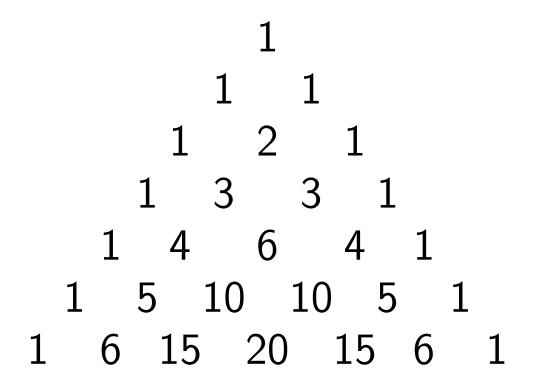
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5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
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and shift each row slightly so that middle element is in middle





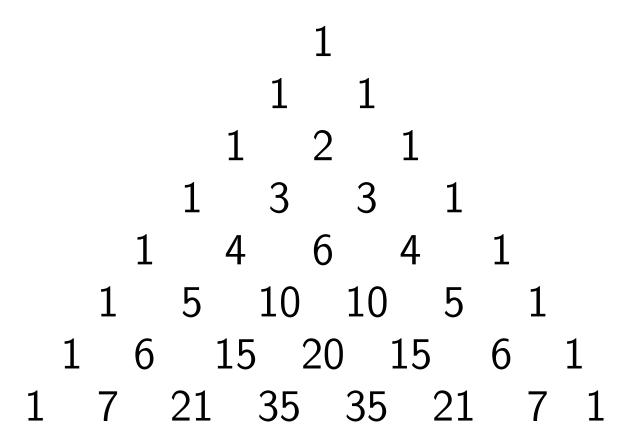


What is the next row in the table?



```
6
        10 10
      15 20 15
1 7 21 35 35 21
```





#### **Pascal identity**

Each (non-1) entry in Pascal's

Triangle is the sum of
the two entries directly above it

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We will use a combinatorial proof.



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$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$

Therefore, each term (left and right) represents the number of subsets of a particular size chosen from an appropriately sized set.



$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$



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Number of k-subsets of an n-element set.



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Number of k-subsets of an n-element set.

Number of (k-1)-subsets of an (n-1)-element set.



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Try to use sum principle to explain relationship among these three terms.

Example: 
$$n = 5$$
,  $k = 2$ 

$$\binom{5}{2} = \binom{4}{1} + \binom{4}{2}.$$



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Consider  $S = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$ .



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Set  $S_1$  of 2-subsets of S

$$S_1 = \{\{A, B\}, \{A, C\}, \{A, D\}, \{A, E\}, \{B, C\}, \{B, D\}, \{B, E\}, \{C, D\}, \{C, E\}, \{D, E\}\}\}.$$



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Consider  $S = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$ .

Set  $S_1$  of 2-subsets of S can be partitioned into 2 disjoint parts.

 $S_2$  the 2-subsets that contain E and

 $S_3$ , the set of 2-subsets that do not contain E.

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Let  $S_1$  be set of all k-element subsets.

To apply sum rule, partition  $S_1$  into  $S_2$  and  $S_3$ .

Let  $S_2$  be set of k-element subsets that contain  $x_n$ .

Let  $S_3$  be set of k-element subsets that don't contain  $x_n$ 



## Blaise Pascal

Born 1623; Died 1662

French Mathematician

A Founder of Probability Theory

Inventor of one of the first mechanical calculating machines

Pascal Programming Language named for him





$$(x+y) = \binom{1}{0}x + \binom{1}{1}y$$



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$$(x+y)^2 = x^2 + 2xy + y^2 = {2 \choose 0}x^2 + {2 \choose 1}x^1y^1 + {2 \choose 2}y^2$$



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$$(x+y)^3 = x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3$$
$$= {3 \choose 0}x^3 + {3 \choose 1}x^2y + {3 \choose 2}xy^2 + {3 \choose 3}y^3$$



Number of k-element subsets of an n-element set is called a binomial coefficient because of its role in the algebraic expansion of a binomial  $(x + y)^n$ .



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

#### **Proof**?



## Application of the Binomial Theorem

We may use the Binomial Theorem to prove

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} = 2^n$$



Suppose we have k labels of one kind, e.g., red and n-k labels of another, e.g., blue. In how many different ways can we apply these labels to n objects?



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Show that if we have  $k_1$  labels of one kind, e.g., red,  $k_2$  labels of a second kind, e.g., blue, and  $k_3 = n - k_1 - k_2$  labels of a third kind, then there are  $\frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!k_3!}$  ways to apply these labels to n objects



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What is the coefficient of  $x^{k_1}y^{k_2}z^{k_3}$  in  $(x+y+z)^n$ ?



There are  $\binom{n}{k_1}$  ways to choose the red items There are then  $\binom{n-k_1}{k_2}$  ways to choose the blue items from the remaining  $n-k_1$ . The remaining  $k_3$  items get labelled a third color.



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Using the *product rule* the total number of labellings is

$$\binom{n}{k_1} \binom{n-k_1}{k_2} = \frac{n!}{k_1!(n-k_1)!} \frac{(n-k_1)!}{(k_2)!(n-k_1-k_2)!}$$

$$= \frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!(n-k_1-k_2)!} = \frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!k_3!}$$



• When  $k_1 + k_2 + k_3 = n$ , we call

$$\frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!k_3!}$$

a trinomial coefficient and denote it as

$$\begin{pmatrix} n \\ k_1 & k_2 & k_3 \end{pmatrix}$$



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This will be very similar to the analysis of hashing *n* keys into a table of size 365.



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Sample space:  $|S| = 365^n$ 



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$$\#B_n = 365 \times 364 \times \cdots \times (365 - (n-1))$$



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$$\#A_n + \#B_n = 365^n$$



n	$A_n$	$B_n$	n	$A_n$	$B_n$
1	0.00000000	1.00000000	16	0.28360400	0.71639599
2	0.00273972	0.99726027	17	0.31500766	0.68499233
3	0.00820416	0.99179583	18	0.34691141	0.65308858
4	0.01635591	0.98364408	19	0.37911852	0.62088147
5	0.02713557	0.97286442	20	0.41143838	0.58856161
6	0.04046248	0.95953751	21	0.44368833	0.55631166
7	0.05623570	0.94376429	22	0.47569530	0.52430469
8	0.07433529	0.92566470	23	0.50729723	0.49270276
9	0.09462383	0.90537616	24	0.53834425	0.46165574
10	0.11694817	0.88305182	25	0.56869970	0.43130029
11	0.14114137	0.85885862	26	0.59824082	0.40175917
12	0.16702478	0.83297521	27	0.62685928	0.37314071
13	0.19441027	0.80558972	28	0.65446147	0.34553852
14	0.22310251	0.77689748	29	0.68096853	0.31903146
15	0.25290131	0.74709868	30	0.70631624	0.29368375

Event A: at least two people in the room have the same birthday
Event B: no two people in the room have the same birthday

$$Pr[A] = 1 - Pr[B]$$

$$\Pr[B] = \left(1 - \frac{1}{365}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{2}{365}\right) \cdot \dots \cdot \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{365}\right)$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{365}\right).$$

$$\Pr[A] = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{365}\right)$$



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$$\Pr[A] = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{365}\right)$$

$$p(n; H) := 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (1 - \frac{i}{H})$$



Since  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots$ , for  $|x| \ll 1$ ,  $e^x \approx 1 + x$ 



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This probability can be approximated as

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Let n(p; H) be the smallest number of values we have to choose, such that the probability for finding a collision is at least p. By inverting the expression above, we have

$$n(p; H) \approx \sqrt{2H \ln \frac{1}{1-p}}.$$



The Euclidean algorithm in pseudocode

# Procedure gcd(a, b): positive integers) x := a y := bwhile $y \neq 0$ $r := x \mod y$ x := y y := rreturn $x\{\gcd(a, b) \text{ is } x\}$

The number of divisions required to find gcd(a, b) is  $O(\log b)$ , where  $a \ge b$ . (this will be proved later.)



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## Why?



Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

```
egin{array}{lll} r_0 &= r_1 q_1 + r_2 & 0 \leq r_2 < r_1, \\ r_1 &= r_2 q_2 + r_3 & 0 \leq r_3 < r_2, \\ & \cdot & \\ & \cdot & \\ & \cdot & \\ r_{n-2} &= r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n & 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1}, \\ r_{n-1} &= r_n q_n \ . \end{array}
```

Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

```
r_0 = r_1q_1 + r_2 0 \le r_2 < r_1, r_1 = r_2q_2 + r_3 0 \le r_3 < r_2, 0 \le r_3 < r_3, 0 \le r_3 < r_3
```

## **Observation:**

$$r_{i+2} = r_i \mod r_{i+1}$$

Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

$$r_0 = r_1q_1 + r_2$$
  $0 \le r_2 < r_1$ ,  $r_1 = r_2q_2 + r_3$   $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_3$ 

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We claim that  $r_{i+2} < \frac{1}{2}r_i$ 

Case (i): 
$$r_{i+1} \leq \frac{1}{2}r_i$$
:  $r_{i+2} < r_{i+1} \leq \frac{1}{2}r_i$ .

Case (ii): 
$$r_{i+1} > \frac{1}{2}r_i$$
:  $r_{i+2} = r_i \mod r_{i+1} = r_i - r_{i+1} < \frac{1}{2}r_i$ .

Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

$$r_0 = r_1q_1 + r_2$$
  $0 \le r_2 < r_1$ ,  $r_1 = r_2q_2 + r_3$   $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $r_1 = r_1q_1 + r_2$   $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $r_1 = r_1q_1 + r_2$   $0 \le r_1 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_2 < r_1$ ,  $0 \le r_1 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_2 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_1 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_2 < r_1$ ,  $0 \le r_1 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_2 < r_1$ ,  $0 \le r_1 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_2 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_1 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_2 < r_3$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_1 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_2 < r_3$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_3$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_3$ ,  $0 \le r$ 

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## Next Lecture

solving linear recurrence ...

