Proofs

D2.1: A mathematical statement is a statement that is D3.5: $B \setminus A \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{x \in B \mid x \notin A\}$. true or false in an absolute, indesputable sense.

D (Composition of statements):

- 1. Negation: S is false.
- 2. And: S and T are both true.
- 3. Or: At least one of S and T is true.
- 4. Implication: If S is true, then T is true.

Proof Patters

Direct proof: To prove $S \implies T$ assume S and show T. Indirect proof: To prove $S \implies T$ assume "T is false" and show "S is false".

Modus ponens: To prove S:

- 1. Find suitable R.
- 2. Prove R.
- 3. Prove $R \implies S$

Case distinction: To prove S:

- 1. Find finite list R_1, \ldots, R_k of statements.
- 2. Prove that at least one of the R_i is true.
- 3. Prove $R_i \implies S$ for $i = 1, \dots, k$.

Proof by contradiction: To prove S:

- 1. Find suitable T.
- 2. Prove "T is false".
- 3. Assume "S is false" and prove T.

Pigeonhole principle (T2.10): If a set of n objects is partitioned into k < n sets, at least one of these sets contains at least $\lceil \frac{n}{L} \rceil$ objects.

Proof by counterexample.

Proof by (strong) induction.

Sets, Relations, Functions

Introduction

D3.1: The number of elements in a finite set A is its cardinality |A|.

D (Russell's paradox): $R = \{A \mid A \notin A\}$.

- D3.2: $A = B \iff \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$.
- L3.1: $\{a\} = \{b\} \implies a = b$.
- E3.1: $(a,b) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\{a\}, \{a,b\}\}.$
- D3.3: $A \subseteq B \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{\iff} \forall x (x \in A \to x \in B)$.
- L3.2: $A = B \iff (A \subseteq B) \land (B \subseteq A)$.
- L3.3: $A \subseteq B \land B \subseteq C \implies A \subseteq C$.

- D3.4: $A \stackrel{\cup}{\cap} B \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{x \mid x \in A \stackrel{\vee}{\wedge} x \in B\}.$
- T3.4: For any sets A, B, C the following laws hold:

name	law
idempot.	$A \stackrel{\smile}{\cap} A = A$
commut.	$A \stackrel{\smile}{\cap} B = B \stackrel{\smile}{\cap} A$
assoc.	$A \stackrel{\smile}{\cap} (B \stackrel{\smile}{\cap} C) = (A \stackrel{\smile}{\cap} B) \stackrel{\smile}{\cap} C$
absorp.	$A \stackrel{\circ}{\cap} (A \stackrel{\circ}{\cup} B) = A$
distrib.	$A \stackrel{\circ}{\cap} (B \stackrel{\circ}{\cup} C) = (A \stackrel{\circ}{\cap} B) \stackrel{\circ}{\cup} (A \stackrel{\circ}{\cap} C)$
consist.	$A \subseteq B \iff$
	$A \cap B = A \iff A \cup B = B$

- D3.6: The set A is called *empty* if $\forall x \neg (x \in A)$.
- L3.5: There is only one empty set, denoted as \emptyset or $\{\}$. L3.6: $\forall A(\varnothing \subseteq A)$.

R (Construction of \mathbb{N}):

 $\mathbf{0} \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \varnothing \mathbf{1} \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{\varnothing\} \mathbf{2} \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{\varnothing, \{\varnothing\}\} \mathbf{3} \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{\varnothing, \{\varnothing\}, \{\varnothing\}, \{\varnothing\}\}\}$

The successor of \mathbf{n} is defined as $s(\mathbf{n}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbf{n} \cup \{\mathbf{n}\}.$

An operation + can be defined recursively as $m + 0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} m$ and $\mathbf{m}+s(\mathbf{n}) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} s(\mathbf{m}+\mathbf{n}).$

D3.7: $\mathcal{P}(A) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{ S \mid S \subseteq A \}.$

D3.8: $A \times B \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \land b \in B\}.$

Relations

D3.9: A (binary) relation ρ from A to B is a subset of $A \times B$. We also write $a\rho b$ $(a \not p b)$ instead of $(a,b) \in \rho$ $((a,b) \notin \rho).$

D3.10: $id_A = \{(a, a) \mid a \in A\}.$

Representations of ρ :

- $|A| \times |B|$ matrix M^{ρ} with $M_{a,b}^{\rho} = 1$ iff $a\rho b$.
- Directed graph with the vertices labeled with elements of A and B that contains an edge from ato b iff $a \rho b$.

D3.11: $\hat{\rho} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ (b, a) \mid (a, b) \in \rho \}.$

D3.12: $\rho \circ \sigma \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{(a,c) \mid \exists b((a,b) \in \rho) \land (b,c) \in \sigma\} \}$.

L3.7: $\rho \circ (\sigma \circ \phi) = (\rho \circ \sigma) \circ \phi$.

L3.8: $\widehat{\rho}\widehat{\sigma} = \widehat{\sigma}\widehat{\rho}$.

Special properties of Relations

D3.13-D3.17, L3.9:

name	condition	set
reflexive	$a\rho a$	$id \subseteq \rho$
symmetric	$a\rho b \iff b\rho a$	$ \rho = \hat{\rho} $
antisym.	$a\rho b \wedge b\rho a \implies a = b$	$\rho \cap \hat{\rho} \subseteq id$
transitive	$a\rho b \wedge b\rho c \implies a\rho c$	$ \rho^2 \subseteq \rho $

D3.18: The transitive closure of a relation ρ on a set Ais $\rho^* = \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{Z}^+} \rho^n$.

Equivalence relations

D3.19: An equivalence relation is a relation on a set A that is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

D3.20: For an equivalence relation θ on A and $a \in A$ the equivalence class of a is $[a]_{\theta} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{b \in A \mid b\theta a\}.$

L3.10: The intersection of equivalence relations is an equivalence relation.

D3.21: A partition of a set A is a set of mutually disjoint subsets of A that cover A.

D3.22: The set of equivalence classes of an equivalence relation θ denoted by $A/\theta \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{ [a]_{\theta} \mid a \in A \}$ is called the quotient set of A by θ or A modulo θ or A mod θ .

T3.11: The set A/θ is a partition of A.

Partial order relations

D3.23: A partial order on a set A is a relation \leq that is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive. Then $(A; \leq)$ is called a partially ordered set or poset.

 $\mathsf{D} \colon a < b \iff^{\mathsf{def}} a \leq b \land a \neq b.$

D3.24: For a poset (A, \leq) , two elements a, b are called comparable if a < b or b < a: otherwise incomparable.

D3.25: If any two elements of a poset $(A; \leq)$ are comparable, then A is called totally ordered by \leq .

D3.26: In a poset $(A \le b)$ is said to cover a if a < b and there exists no c with a < c and c < b.

D3.27: The Hasse diagram of a (finite) poset $(A; \leq)$ is the directed graph whose vertices are labeled with the elements of A and where there is an edge from a to b iff D3.40: For a bijective function f the *inverse* is called the b covers a.

D3.28: The direct product of posets $(A; \leq)$ and $(B; \sqsubseteq)$ denoted $(A; \leq) \times (B; \sqsubseteq)$ is $A \times B$ with the relation \leq defined by $(a_1, b_1) \leqslant (a_2, b_2) \stackrel{\text{def}}{\iff} a_1 \leq a_2 \land b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2$. T3.12: $(A; \leq) \times (B; \sqsubseteq)$ is a poset.

T3.13: For the posets $(A; \leq)$ and $(B; \subseteq)$, the relation \leqslant_{lex} defined on $A \times B$ by $(a_1,b_1) \leqslant_{\mathrm{lex}} (a_2,b_2) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{\Longleftrightarrow}$

 $a_1 \leq a_2 \vee (a_1 = a_2 \wedge b_1 \sqsubseteq b_2).$

D3.29: Let $(A; \leq)$ be a poset and let $S \subseteq A$. Then:

1. $a \in A$ is a minimal (maximal) element of A iff there exists no $b \in A$ with b < a (b > a).

- 2. $a \in A$ is the *least* (*greatest*) element of A iff $a \leq b$ $(a \geq b)$ for all $b \in A$.
- 3. $a \in A$ is a lower (upper) bound of S iff $a \leq b$ $(a \ge b)$ for all $b \in S$.
- 4. $a \in A$ is a greatest lower bound (least upper bound) of S iff a is the greatest (least) element of the set of all lower (upper) bounds of S.

D3.30: A poset $(A \le)$ is well-ordered if it is totally ordered and if every non-empty subset of A has a least element.

D3.31: Let $(A; \leq)$ be a poset. If a and b have a greatest lower bound, then it is called the meet of a and b, often denoted $a \wedge b$. If a and b have a least upper bound, then it is called the *join* of a and b, often denoted $a \vee b$.

D3.32: A poset $(A; \leq)$ in which every pair of elements has a meet and join is called a lattice.

Functions

D3.33: A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ from a domain A to a codomain B is a relation from A to B with the special properties:

- 1. $\forall a \in A \exists b \in Bafb$,
- 2. $\forall a \in A \forall b, b' \in B(afb \land afb' \rightarrow b = b')$.

(f is totally defined and well-defined).

D3.34: The set of all functions $A \to B$ is denoted as B^A .

D3.35: A partial function $A \rightarrow B$ is a relation from A to B such that condition 2. in [D3.33] holds.

D3.36: For $f: A \to B$ and $S \subseteq A$, the *image* of S under f is $f(S) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{ f(s) \mid s \in S \}.$

D3.37: The subset f(A) of B is called the *image* of f.

D3.38: For $T \subseteq B$, the preimage of T is $f^{-1}(T) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{a \in$ $A \mid f(a) \in T$.

D3.39: A function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is called:

- 1. injective if $a \neq a' \implies f(a) \neq f(a')$,
- 2. surjective if f(A) = B.
- 3. bijective if it is both injective and surjective.

inverse function of f, denoted f^{-1} . D3.41: The *composition* of functions $f: A \rightarrow B, g: B \rightarrow$

C, denoted $g \circ f$, is defined by $(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a))$.

L3.14: $(h \circ g) \circ f = h \circ (g \circ f)$.

Countability

 $\overline{\mathsf{D3.42}}$: Let A, B be sets.

- 1. A, B are equinumerous, denoted $A \sim B$, iff there exists a bijection $A \rightarrow B$.
- 2. B dominates A, denoted $A \leq B$, if $A \sim C$ for some $C \subseteq B$, or equivalently, there exits an injection $A \to B$.

3. A is called *countable* iff $A \leq \mathbb{N}$ and *uncountable* Factorization into primes otherwise.

L3.15:

- 1. The relation \sim is an equivalence relation.
- 2. The relation \prec is transitive.
- 3. $A \subseteq B \implies A \leq B$.

T3.16: $A < B \land B < A \implies A \sim B$.

T3.17: A set A is countable iff it is finite or if $A \sim \mathbb{N}$.

T3.18: The set $\{0,1\}^* \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\epsilon,0,1,00,01,10,\ldots\}$ of finite sequences in countable.

T3.19: The set $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ is countable.

T3.22: Let A be a countable set.

- 1. For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, the set A^n is countable.
- 2. The union of a countable list of of countable sets is countable.
- 3. The set A^* is countable.

D3.43: Let $\{0,1\}^{\infty}$ denote the set of semi-infinte binary sequences, or equivalently, of functions $\mathbb{N} \to \{0, 1\}$.

T3.23: The set $\{0,1\}^{\infty}$ is uncountable.

D3.44: A function $f: \mathbb{N} \to \{0, 1\}$ is called *computable* iff there is a program that, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, when given nas input, outputs f(n).

C3.24: There are uncomputable functions $\mathbb{N} \to \{0, 1\}$.

Number theory

Divisors and Division

D4.1: Divisibility.

T4.1 (Euclid): For all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $d \neq 0$ there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying a = dq + r and $0 \le r < |d|$.

D4.2: For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ (not both 0) d is called a greatest common divisor of a and b if every common divisor of a and b divides d. i.e. if $d \mid a \land d \mid b \land \forall c((c \mid a \land c \mid b) \rightarrow c \mid d)$.

D4.3: For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ (not both 0) one denotes the unique positive greatest common divisor by gcd(a, b) and calls it the greatest common divisor. If gcd(a, b) = 1, then a and b are called *relatively prime*.

L4.2: For $m, n, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ we have gcd(m, n - qm) =gcd(m,n).

D4.4: For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, the ideal generated by a and b is $(a,b) \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \{ ua + vb \mid u,v \in \mathbb{Z} \}.$

L4.3: For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ there exists $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that (a, b) =

L4.4: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ (not both 0). If (a, b) = (d) then d is a greatest common divisor of a and b.

D4.5: The least common multiple l of $a,b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, denoted l = lcm(a, b), is the common multiple of a and b which divides every common multiple of a and b, i.e. $a \mid l \land b \mid l \land \forall m((a \mid m \land b \mid m) \rightarrow l \mid m).$

D4.6: $p \in \mathbb{Z}_{>1}$ is called *prime* iff the only positive divisors D5.1: An operation on a set S is a function $S^n \to S$, of p are 1 and p. An $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{>1}$ that is not prime is called where $n \ge 0$ is called the arity of the operation. composite.

T4.6: Every positive integer can be written uniquely as and Ω is a list of operations on S. the product of primes.

Expressing gcd and lcm

T: Let $a = \prod_i p_i^{e_i}$, $b = \prod_i p_i^{f_i}$. Then gcd(a,b) = $\prod_i p_i^{\min(e_i, f_i)}$ and $\operatorname{lcm}(a, b) = \prod_i p_i^{\max(e_i, f_i)}$.

Congruences and modular arithmetic

D4.8: Let $a,b,m\in\mathbb{Z}$ with $m\geqslant 1.$ $a\equiv_m b \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{\Longleftrightarrow} m$ | (a-b).

L4.13: For $m \geqslant 1$, \equiv_m is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .

L4.14: If $a \equiv_m b$ and $c \equiv_m d$, then $a + c \equiv_m b + d$ and $ac \equiv_m bd$.

L4.16: For any $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \ge 1$,

- 1. $a \equiv_m R_m(a)$.
- 2. $a \equiv_m b \iff R_m(a) = R_m(b)$.

L4.18: The congruence equation $ax \equiv_m 1$ has a (unique) | lowing axioms: solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ iff gcd(a, m) = 1.

D4.9: If gcd(a, m) = 1, the unique solution $x \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ to the congruence equation $ax \equiv_m 1$ is called the *multipli*cative inverse of a modulo m. One also uses the notation $x \equiv_m a^{-1}$.

T4.19: Let m_1, \ldots, m_r be pairwise relatively prime integers and let $M = \prod_{i=1}^r m_i$. For every list a_1, \ldots, a_r with $0 \le a_i < m_i$ for $1 \le i \le r$, the system of congruence equations

$$x \equiv_{m_1} a_1$$

$$x \equiv_{m_r} a_r$$

for x has a unique solution x satisfying $0 \le x < M$.

Application: Diffie-Hellman key exchange

D (Diffie-Hellman): Let $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and g be public.

Alice insecure Bob select $x_A \in [p-2]$ select $x_B \in [p-2]$ $y_A := R_p(g^{x_A})$ $y_B := R_p(g^{x_B})$ y_A \leftarrow y_B $k_{AB} := R_n(y_D^{x_A})$ $k_{BA} := R_n(y_A^{x_B})$

 $k_{AB} \equiv_p k_{BA}$

Algebra

Introduction

D5.2: An algebra is a pair $\langle S; \Omega \rangle$ where S is a set (carrier)

Monoids and groups

D5.3: A left [right] neutral element of an algebra $\langle S; * \rangle$ is an element $e \in S$ such tha e * a = a [a * e = a] for all

L5.1: If $\langle S; * \rangle$ has both a left and right neutral element. then they are equal.

D5.4: A binary operation * on a set S is associative if a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c for all $a, b, c \in S$.

D5.5: A monoid is an algebra $\langle M; *, e \rangle$ where * is associative and e is the neutral element.

D5.6: A left [right] inverse element of an element a in $\langle S; *, e \rangle$ is an element $b \in S$ such that b*a = e [a*b = e]

L5.2: In a monoid $\langle M; *, e \rangle$, if $a \in M$ has a left and right inverse, then they are equal.

D5.7: A group is an algebra $\langle G; *, \hat{}, e \rangle$ satisfying the fol-

- 1. * is associative.
- 2. e is a neutral element.
- 3. Every $a \in G$ has an inverse element \hat{a} .

D5.8: A group $\langle G; * \rangle$ (or monoid) is called *commutative* if a * b = b * a for all $a, b \in G$.

L5.3: For a group $\langle G; *, \hat{}, e \rangle$, we have for all $a, b, c \in G$:

- 1. $\hat{a} = a$.
- 2. $\widehat{a*b} = \widehat{b}*\widehat{a}$.
- 3. Left cancellation: $a * b = a * c \implies b = c$.
- 4. Right cancellation: $b * a = c * a \implies b = c$.
- 5. The equation a * x = b has a unique soultion xfor any a, b.

The structure of groups

D5.9: The direct product of n groups $\langle G_1, *_1 \rangle, \dots, \langle G_n, *_n \rangle$ is the algebra $\langle G_1 \times \dots \times G_n, \star \rangle$, where the operation \star is component-wise: $(a_1, \ldots, a_n) \star$ $(b_1,\ldots,b_n)=(a_1*_1b_1,\ldots,a_n*_nb_n).$

L5.4: $\langle G_1 \times \cdots \times G_n, \star \rangle$ is a group, where the neutral element and the inversion operation are component-wise in the respective groups.

D5.10: For groups $\langle G; *, \hat{}, e \rangle$ and $\langle H; \star, \tilde{}, e' \rangle$, a function $\psi \colon G \to H$ is called a group homomorphism iff for all $a \mid \mathbf{Rings}$ and fields and b we have $\psi(a*b) = \psi(a) \star \psi(b)$. Iff ψ is a bijection from G to H, then it is called an *isomorphism*, and we write $A \simeq H$.

L5.5: A ψ in [D5.10] satisfies:

- 1. $\psi(e) = e'$,
- 2. $\psi(\hat{a}) = \widetilde{\psi(a)}$ for all a.

D5.11: $H \subseteq G$ of $\langle G; *, \hat{}, e \rangle$ is called a *subgoup* of G iff $\langle H; *, \hat{}, e \rangle$ is a group (closed).

D5.12: Let G be a group and $a \in G$. The order of a, denoted ord(a) is the least $m \ge 1$ such that $a^m = e$ if such an m exists, and ∞ otherwise.

D5.13: For a finite group G, |G| is called the *order* of G.

D5.14: For a group G and $a \in G$ the group generated by $a \text{ is } \langle a \rangle \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$

D5.15: A group $G = \langle q \rangle$ is called *cyclic* and q is called a generator of G.

T5.7: A cyclic group of order n is isomorphic to $\langle \mathbb{Z}_n; \oplus \rangle$.

T5.8 (Lagrange): Let G be a finite group and let H be a subgoup of G. Then |H| divides |G|.

C5.10: Let G be a finite group. Then $a^{|G|} = e$ for every

C5.11: Every group of prime order is cyclic, and every element except the neutral element is a generator.

- D5.16: $\mathbb{Z}_m^* \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ a \in \mathbb{Z}_m | \gcd(a, m) = 1 \}.$
- D5.17 (Euler function): $\varphi(m) = |\mathbb{Z}_m^*|$.

L5.12: If the prime factorization of m is $m = \prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{e_i}$, then $\varphi(m) = \prod_{i=1}^{r} (p_i - 1) p_i^{e_i - 1}$.

T5.13: $\langle \mathbb{Z}_m^*; \bigcirc, ^{-1}, 1 \rangle$ is a group.

C5.14 (Fermat, Euler): For all $m \ge 2$ and all a with $\gcd(a,m)=1$ we have $a^{\varphi(m)}\equiv_m 1$. In particular, for $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $p \nmid a$ we have $a^{p-1} \equiv_p 1$.

Application: RSA Public-key cryptography

T5.16: Let G be some finite group and let $e \in \mathbb{Z}$ be relatively prime to |G|. The function $x \mapsto x^e$ is a bijection and the unique e-th root of $y \in G$, namely $x \in G$ satisfying $x^e = y$ is $x = y^d$, where $ed \equiv_{|G|} 1$.

D (RSA):

Alice insecure Bob generate $p, q \in \mathbb{P}$ m = pq $\lambda = (p-1)(q-1)$ select e $\xrightarrow{n,e}$ $m \in [n-1]$ $d \equiv_{\lambda} e^{-1}$

$m = R_n(c^d)$

D5.18: A ring $\langle R; +, -, 0, \cdot, 1 \rangle$ is an algebra for which

 \leftarrow $c = R_n(m^e)$

- 1. $\langle R; +, -, 0 \rangle$ is a commutative group.
- 2. $\langle R; \cdot, 1 \rangle$ is a monoid.

3. a(b+c)=(ab)+(ac) and (b+c)a=(ba)+(ca) | T5.23: \mathbb{Z}_p is a field iff p is prime. for all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$.

A ring is called *commutative* if multiplication is commu- | Polynomials over a field tative: ab = ba.

L5.17: For any ring $\langle R; +, -, 0, \cdot, 1 \rangle$, and for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

- 1. 0a = a0 = 0.
- 2. (-a)b = -(ab).
- 3. (-a)(-b) = ab.
- 4. If R is non-trivial, then $1 \neq 0$.

D5.19: The characteristic of a ring is the order of 1 in the additive group if it is finite, and 0 otherwise.

D5.20: An element u or a ring R is called a *unit* if u is invertible. The set of units of R is denoted by R^* .

L5.18: For a ring R. R^* is a group.

D5.21: For $a, b \in R$ we say that a divides b, denoted $a \mid b$, if there exists $c \in R$ such that b = ac. In the case, a is called a *divisor* of b and b is a *multiple* of a.

L5.19: In any commutative ring,

- 1. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$ then $a \mid c$.
- 2. If $a \mid b$, then $a \mid bc$.
- 3. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (b+c)$.

D5.22: gcd in R.

D5.23: An element $a \neq 0$ of a commutative ring R is L5.32: A polynomial $a(x) \in F[x]$ of degree at most d is called a zerodivisor if ab = 0 for some $b \neq 0$ in R.

D5.24: An integral domain D is a (nontrivial) commutative ring without zerodivisors: For all $a, b \in D$ we have $ab = 0 \implies a = 0 \lor b = 0.$

L5.20: In an integral domain, if $a \mid b$, then c with b = acis unique (and is denoted by $c = \frac{b'}{a}$ or c = b/a and called auotient).

D5.25: A polynomial a(x) over a commutative ring R in the indeterminate x is a formal expression of the form $a(x) = a_d x^d + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ for some non-negative integer d, with $a_i \in R$. The degree of a(x), denoted $\big| |F[x]_{m(x)}| = q^d$. deg(a(x)), is the greatest i for which $a_i \neq 0$. The special polynomial 0 is defined to have degree "minus infinity" Let R[x] denote the set of polynomials (in x) over R.

T5.21: For any commutative ring R, R[x] is a commutative ring.

L5.22: Let D be an integral domain. Then

- 1. D[x] is an integral domain.
- 2. The degree of the product of two polynomials is the sum of their degrees.
- 3. The units of D[x] are the constant polynomials that are units of $D: D[x]^* = D^*$.

D5.26: A field is a nontrivial commutative ring F in which every nonzero element is a unit, i.e., $F^* = F \setminus \{0\}$.

T5.24: A field is an integral domain.

D5.27: A polynomial $a(x) \in F[x]$ is called *monic* if the leading coefficient is 1.

D5.28: A polynomial $a(x) \in F[x]$ with degree at least 1 is called *irreducible* if it is divisible only by constant polynomials and by constant multiples of a(x).

D5.29: The monic polynomial q(x) of largest degree such that $q(x) \mid a(x)$ and $q(x) \mid b(x)$ is called the greatest common divisor of a(x) and b(x), denoted $\gcd(a(x),b(x)).$

r(x) (the remainder) such that a(x) = b(x)q(x) + r(x) correcting. and deg(r(x)) < deg(b(x)).

Polynomials as functions

D5.33: Let $a(x) \in R[x]$. An element $\alpha \in R$ for which T5.42: Let $\mathcal{A} = GF(q)$ and let $\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_{n-1}$ be arbitrary $a(\alpha) = 0$ is called a *root* of a(x).

L5.29: For a field F, $\alpha \in F$ is a root of a(x) iff x - adivides a(x).

C5.30: A polynomial a(x) of degree 2 or 3 over a field F is irreducible iff it has no root.

T5.31: For a field F, a nonzero polynomial $a(x) \in F[x]$ of degree d has at most d roots.

uniquely determined by any d+1 values of a(x).

Finite fields

L5.33: Congruence modulo m(x) is an equivalence relation on F[x], and each equivalence class has a unique representation of degree less than deg(m(x)).

D5.34: Let m(x) be a polynomial of degree d over F. Then $F[x]_{m(x)} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{a(x) \in F[x] \mid \deg(a(x)) < d\}.$

L5.34: Let F be a finite field with q elements and let m(x) be a polynomial of degree d over F. Then

multiplication modulo m(x).

L5.36: The congruence equation $a(x)b(x) \equiv_{m(x)} 1$ has D6.5: The semantics of a logic defines a function free solution is unique. In other words, $F[x]_{m(x)}^* = \{a(x) \in$ $F[x]_{m(x)} \mid \gcd(a(x), b(x)) = 1$.

T5.37: The ring $F[x]_{m(x)}$ is a field iff m(x) is irreducible.

Application: Error-Correcting Codes

D5.35: An (n, k)-encoding function E for some alphabet $\mathcal A$ is an injective function that maps a list $a_0,\ldots,a_{k-1}\in |\operatorname{D6.7:An}|$ interpretation is suitable for a formula F if it $|\operatorname{\textbf{Logical}}|$ calculi \mathcal{A}^k of k symbols to a list of $c_0,\ldots,c_{n-1}\in\mathcal{A}^n$ of n>k assigns a value to all symbols $\beta\in\Lambda$ occurring free in F. (encoded) symbols in A called *codeword*.

D5.36: An (n, k)-error-correcting code over the alphabet assigning to each formula F and each interpretation \mathcal{A} symbol \vdash_R is the relation symbol.

 \mathcal{A} with $|\mathcal{A}| = q$ is a subset of \mathcal{A}^n of cardinality q^k .

D5.37: The Hamming distance between two strings of equal length over a finite alphabet ${\mathcal A}$ is the number of positions at which the two strings differ.

D5.38: The minimum distance of an error-correcting code C, denoted $d_{\min(C)}$, is the minimum of the Hamming D6.10: F is called satisfiable iff there exists a model for distance between any two codewords.

D5.39: A decoding function D for an (n, k)-encoding D6.11: F is called a tautology (denoted \top) iff it is true function is a function $D: \mathcal{A}^n \to \mathcal{A}^k$.

for the encoding function E if for any (a_0, \ldots, a_{k-1}) (r_0, \ldots, r_{n-1}) with Hamming distance at most t from T5.25: Let F be a field. For a(x) and $b(x) \neq 0$ in $F[x] \mid E((a_0, \ldots, a_{k-1}))$. A code C is t-error correcting if thethere exist a unique q(x) (the quotient) and a unique | re exist E and D with $\mathcal{C}=\mathrm{Im}(E)$ where D is t-error

> T5.41: A code C with minimum distance d is t-errorcorrecting iff $d \ge 2t + 1$.

distinct elements of GF(q). Consider the encoding function $E((a_0, ..., a_{k-1})) = (a(\alpha_0), ..., a(\alpha_{n-1}))$, where a(x) is the polynomial $a(x) = a_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \cdots + a_1x + a_0$. This code has a minimum distance of n - k + 1.

Logic

Proof systems

A proof system is a quadruple $\Pi = (S, \mathcal{P}, \tau, \phi)$, where

- 1. $\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{P} \subseteq \Sigma^*$,
- 2. $\tau: S \to \{0, 1\},\$
- 3. $\tau: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{P} \to \{0, 1\},$

W.l.o.g. we consider $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{S} = \{0, 1\}^*$.

D6.2: Π is sound iff for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ for which there exists $p \in \mathcal{P}$ with $\phi(s, p) = 1$ we have $\tau(s) = 1$.

D6.3: Π is *complete* iff for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$ with $\tau(s) = 1$ there exists $p \in \mathcal{P}$ with $\phi(s, p) = 1$.

Elementary general concepts in logic

L5.35: $F[x]_{m(x)}$ is a ring with respect to addition and D6.4: The syntax of a logic defines an alphabet Λ and specifies which strings in Λ^* are formulas.

a solution $b(x) \in F[x]_{m(x)}$ iff $\gcd(a(x), m(x)) = 1$. The which assigns to each formula $F = (f_1, \dots, f_k) \in \Lambda^*$ a L6.2: F is a tautology iff $\neg F$ is unsatisfiable. subset $free(F) \subseteq [k]$ of the indices. If $i \in free(F)$, then the symbol f_i is said to occur free in F.

> D6.6: An interpretation consists of a set $\mathcal{Z} \subseteq \Lambda$, a domain for each symbol in \mathcal{Z} , and a function that assigns that assigns to each symbol in ${\mathcal Z}$ a value in its associated domain.

> D6.8: The semantics of a logic also defines a function σ

suitable for F. a truth value $\sigma(F, A)$ in $\{0, 1\}$. One often writes $\mathcal{A}(F)$ instead of $\sigma(F, \mathcal{A})$ and calls $\mathcal{A}(F)$ the truth value of F under the interpretation A.

D6.9: A (suitable) interpretation \mathcal{A} for which the formula F is true is called a *model* for F and one writes $A \models F$.

F, and *unsatisfiable* (denoted \perp) otherwise.

for every suitable interpretation.

D5.40: A decoding function D is t-error correcting D6.12: A formula G is a logical consequence of a formula F, denoted $F \models G$, if every interpretation suitable for we have $D((r_0,\ldots,r_{n-1}))=(a_0,\ldots,a_{k-1})$ for any both F and G, which is a model for F is also a model

D6.13 (Equivalence): $F \equiv G \stackrel{\text{def}}{\iff} F \models G$ and $G \models F$.

D6.14: If F is a tautology we write $\models F$.

D5.15: If F, G are formulas then also $\neg F, F(F \land G)$, and $(F \vee G)$ are formulas.

$$\mathcal{A}((F \land G)) = 1 \iff \mathcal{A}(F) = 1 \text{ and } \mathcal{A}(G) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{A}((F \lor G)) = 1 \iff \mathcal{A}(F) = 1 \text{ or } \mathcal{A}(G) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{A}(\neg F) = 1 \iff \mathcal{A}(F) = 0$$

L6.1: For any formulas F, G and H we have

name	law
idempot.	$F \overset{\vee}{\wedge} F \equiv F$
commut.	$F \overset{\vee}{\wedge} G = G \overset{\vee}{\wedge} F$
assoc.	$F \overset{\vee}{\wedge} (G \overset{\vee}{\wedge} H) = (F \overset{\vee}{\wedge} G) \overset{\vee}{\wedge} H$
absorp.	$F \stackrel{\vee}{\wedge} (F \stackrel{\wedge}{\vee} G) = F$
distrib.	$F \overset{\vee}{\wedge} (G \overset{\wedge}{\vee} H) = (F \overset{\vee}{\wedge} G) \overset{\wedge}{\vee} (F \overset{\vee}{\wedge} H)$
double neg.	$\neg \neg F \equiv F$
deMorgan	$\neg (F \overset{\vee}{\wedge} G) \equiv \neg F \overset{\wedge}{\vee} \neg G$
taut.	$F \lor \top \equiv \top$ and $F \land \top \equiv F$
unsat.	$F\lor\bot\equiv F$ and $F\land\bot\equiv\bot$
	$F \lor \lnot F \equiv \top$ and $F \land \lnot F \equiv \bot$

L6.3: The following statements are equivalent:

- 1. $\{F_1, \ldots, F_k\} \models G$,
- 2. $(F_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge F_k) \to G$ is a tautology,
- 3. $\{F_1, \ldots, F_k, \neg G\}$ is unsatisfiable.

D.17: A derivation rule R is a relation from the power set of the set of formulas to the set of formulas and the D6.18: The application of a derivation rule R to a set Mof formulas means

- 1. Select $N \subseteq M$ such that $N \vdash_R G$.
- 2. Replace M with $M \cup \{G\}$.

D6.19: A (logical) calculus K is a finite set of derivation rules $K = \{R_1, ..., R_m\}$.

D6.20: A derivation of a formula G from a set M of formulas in a calculus K is a finite sequence of applications of rules in K, leading to G. We write $M \vdash_K G$.

D6.21: R is correct iff $M \vdash_R F \implies M \models F$.

D6.22: K is sound iff $M \vdash_K F \implies M \models F$. K is complete iff $M \models F \implies M \vdash_K F$.

Propositional logic

D6.23 (Syntax): An atomic formula is a symbol of the form A_i . A formula is defined as follows:

- 1. An atomic formula is a formula.
- 2. See [D6.15].

D6.24 (Semantics): Each atomic formula is assigned a truth value. Then see [D6.16].

D6.25: A literal is an atomic formula or the negation of an atomic formula.

D6.26: A formula F is in *conjunctive normal form* (CNF) iff it is of the form $F = (A \lor \cdots \lor B) \land \cdots \land (Y \lor \cdots \lor Z)$.

D6.27: A formula F is in disjunctive normal form (DNF) iff it is of the form $F = (A \land \cdots \land B) \lor \cdots \lor (Y \land \cdots \land Z)$.

T6.4: Every formula is equivalent to a formula in CNF and a formula in DNF.

D6.28: A clause is a set of literals.

D6.29: The set of clauses associated to a formula in CNF (see [D6.26]) is $\mathcal{K}(F) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ \{ A, \dots, B \}, \dots, \{ Y, \dots, Z \} \}$

D6.30: The clause K is a resolvent of clause K_1 and K_2 if there is a literal L such that $L \in K_1$, $\neg L \in K_2$, and $K = (K_1 \setminus \{L\}) \cup (K_2 \setminus \{\neg L\}).$

D (Resolution calculus): Let K_1, K_2, K as in [D6.30] Then the resolution rule is $\{K_1, K_2\} \vdash_{res} K$ and the reolution calculus is $Res = {res}$

L6.5: The resolution calculus is sound.

T6.6: A set M of formulas is unsat. iff $\mathcal{K}(M) \vdash_{\mathrm{Res}} \emptyset$.

Predicate logic

D6.31 (syntax of predicate logic):

- 1. variable: x_i
- 2. function: $f_{\cdot}^{(k)}$
- 3. predicate: $P_{\cdot}^{(k)}$
- 4. *term*: Variables are terms and if t_1, \ldots, t_k are terms, then $f_i^{(k)}(t_1,\ldots,t_k)$ is a term.
- 5. formula:

- If t_1, \ldots, t_k are $P_i^{(k)}(t_1,\ldots,t_k)$ is an atomic formula.
- If F and G are formulas, then $\neg F$, $(F \land G)$, $(F \vee G)$ are formulas.
- If F is a formula then $\forall x_i F$ and $\exists x_i F$ are formulas.

D6.32: Every occurrence of a variable in a formula is either bound or free. Iff a variable x occurs in a (sub-)formula of the form $\forall xG$ or $\exists xG$ then it is bound. A formula is closed if it contains no free variables.

D6.33: For a formula F, a variable x and term t, $F[x/\,|\, extstyle{L6.9}:$ For a formula G in which y does not occur, we t denotes the formula obtained from F by substituting | have: every free occurrence of x by t.

D6.34: An interpretation is a tuple $A = (U, \phi, \psi, \xi)$ where

- U is a non-empty universe,
- \bullet ϕ is a function assigning to each function symbol a function, $\phi(f^{(k)}): U^k \to U$,
- ullet ψ is a function assigning to each predicate symbol a function, $\phi(P^{(k)}): U^k \to \{0,1\}$,
- \bullet ξ is a function assigning to each variable symbol a value. $\phi(x) \in U$.

D6.35: An interpretation ${\cal A}$ is suitable for a formula Fiff it defines all function symbols, predicate symbols and freely occurring variables of F.

D6.36 (semantics): For an interpretation ${\cal A}$ (U, ϕ, ψ, ξ) , we define the value (in U) of terms and the T6.12: $\neg \exists x \forall y (P(y, x) \leftrightarrow \neg P(y, y))$. truth value of formulas as follows:

- 1. The value A(t) of a term t is defined recursively:
 - If $t = x_i$, then $A(t) = \xi(x_i)$.
 - If $t = f(t_1, \ldots, t_k)$, then $\mathcal{A}(t)$ $\phi(f)(\mathcal{A}(t_1),\ldots,\mathcal{A}(t_k)).$
- 2. The truth value of a formula F is defined recursively:
 - See [D6.16].
 - If $F = P(t_1, \ldots, t_k)$, then $\mathcal{A}(F) =$ $\psi(P)(\mathcal{A}(t_1),\ldots,\mathcal{A}(t_k)).$
 - $\bullet \ \, \mathcal{A}(\forall xG) = \begin{cases} 1 & \mathcal{A}_{[x \to u]}(G) = 1 \text{ for all } u \in U \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \ . \end{cases}$
 - $\mathcal{A}(\exists xG) = \begin{cases} 1 & \mathcal{A}_{[x \to u]}(G) = 1 \text{ for some } u \in U \\ 0 & \text{otherwise }. \end{cases}$

free in H, we have

- 1. $\neg(\forall xF) \equiv \exists x \neg F$:
- 2. $\neg(\exists xF) \equiv \forall x \neg F$;
- 3. $(\forall xF) \land (\forall xG) \equiv \forall x(F \land G);$
- 4. $(\exists xF) \lor (\exists xG) \equiv \exists x(F \lor G);$

- 5. $\forall x \forall y F \equiv \forall y \forall x F$;
- 6. $\exists x \exists y F \equiv \exists y \exists x F$;
- 7. $(\forall xF) \land H \equiv \forall x(F \land H)$;
- 8. $(\forall xF) \lor H \equiv \forall x(F \lor H)$;
- 9. $(\exists x F) \land H \equiv \exists x (F \land H);$ 10. $(\exists x F) \lor H \equiv \exists x (F \lor H)$.

L6.8: If one replaces a sub-formula G of a formula Fby an equivalent (to G) formula H, then the resulting formula is equivalent to F.

- 1. $\forall xG \equiv \forall yG[x/y],$
- 2. $\exists xG \equiv \exists yG[x/y]$

D6.37: A formula in which no variable occurs both as a bound and as a free variable and in which all variables appearing after the quantifies are distinct is said to be in rectified form.

D6.38: A formula of the form $Q_1x_1\cdots Q_nx_nG$, where Q_i are arbitrary quantifiers and G is a formula free of quantifiers is said to be in prenex form.

T6.10: For every formula there is an equivalent formula in prenex form.

L6.11: For any formula F and any term t we have $\forall xF \models F[x/t].$

Lookup

Factorizations

 $2023 = 7 \cdot 17^2$ $2024 = 2^3 \cdot 11 \cdot 23 \quad 2025 = 3^4 \cdot 5^2$

Small primes

2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61, 67, 71, 73, 79, 83, 89, 97, 101, 103, 107, 109, 113, 127, 131, 137, 139, 149, 151, 157, 163, 167, 173, 179, 181, 191, 193, 197, 199, 211, 223, 227, 229, 233, 239, 241, 251, 257, 263, 269, 271, 277, 281, 283, 293, 307, 311, 313, 317, 331, 337, 347, 349, 353, 359, 367, 373, 379, 383, 389, 397, 401, 409, 419, 421, 431, 433, 439, 443, 449, 457, 461, 463, 467, 479, 487, 491, 499, 503. 509, 521, 523, 541, 547, 557, 563, 569, 571, 577, 587, 593, 599, 601, 607, 613, 617, 619, 631, 641, 643, 647, 653, 659, 661, 673, 677, 683, 691, 701, 709, 719, 727, 733, 739, 743, 751, 757, 761, 769, 773, 787, 797, L6.7: For any formulas F, G, H, where x does not occur 809, 811, 821, 823, 827, 829, 839, 853, 857, 859, 863, 877, 881, 883, 887, 907, 911, 919, 929, 937, 941, 947, 953, 967, 971, 977, 983, 991, 997, 1009, 1013, 1019, 1021, 1031, 1033, 1039, 1049, 1051, 1061, 1063, 1069, 1087, 1091, 1093, 1097, 1103, 1109, 1117, 1123, 1129, 1151, 1153, 1163, 1171, 1181, 1187, 1193, 1201, 1213, 1217, 1223, 1229, 1231, 1237, 1249, 1259, 1277, 1279, 1283, 1289, 1291, 1297, 1301, 1303, 1307, 1319, 1321

Small groups

G	abelian	non-abelian
1	Z_1	
2	Z_2	
3	Z_3	
4	Z_4, Z_2^2	
5	Z_5	
6	Z_6	D_6
7	Z_7	
8	$Z_8, Z_4 \times Z_2, Z_2^3$	D_8, Q_8
9	Z_9, Z_3^2	
10	Z_{10}	D_{10}

Euler function

x	φ	x	φ	x	φ	x	φ
1	1	21	12	41	40	61	60
2	1	22	10	42	12	62	30
3	2	23	22	43	42	63	36
4	2	24	8	44	20	64	32
5	4	25	20	45	24	65	48
6	2	26	12	46	22	66	20
7	6	27	18	47	46	67	66
8	4	28	12	48	16	68	32
9	6	29	28	49	42	69	44
10	4	30	8	50	20	70	24
11	10	31	30	51	32	71	70
12	4	32	16	52	24	72	24
13	12	33	20	53	52	73	72
14	6	34	16	54	18	74	36
15	8	35	24	55	40	75	40
16	8	36	12	56	24	76	36
17	16	37	36	57	36	77	60
18	6	38	18	58	28	78	24
19	18	39	24	59	58	79	78
20	8	40	16	60	16	80	32

Appendix

Notation

R: The word iff stands for "if and only if".

D: Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then $[n] := \{1, \dots, n\}$.

Symbols

Α	Algorithm
С	Corollary
D	Definition
Е	Example
F	Fact
L	Lemma
0	Observation
Р	Proposition
R	Remark
Т	Theorem