1 Lecture 01

This course deals with *abstract mathematical objects*, which are defined by the properties they satisfy.

Properties: defined by propositions/statements which are either true or false. Here are a few examples of propositions:

1. 7 is a prime number.
2. All natural numbers are even.
3. All even numbers greater than 2 can be written as the sum of 2 primes.

We shall try to define the natural numbers themselves using the properties they satisfy. Let's start with these 2 axioms:

1. 0 is a natural number. [1]
2. For every natural number n, there exists a natural number $n + 1$.

The first axiom tells us that there is a starting number (which we call 0), and the second axiom tells us that for every natural number there is a *next* natural number.

It might be a bit weird to use the addition symbol in our axioms when we haven't even defined numbers yet. Note that this is just a notation; to make it clear we can write $next(n)$ instead of $n + 1$ to indicate the next natural number. It's best to think of $next(n)$ as a function which just spits out a new natural number for each input n.

Predicates: a statement which involves variables, which can take any value in some domain. Think of a predicate $P(x)$ as a function which assign true or false to each value x. For example, $P(x)$ could denote *x is the square of an integer*.

There are 3 ways to make a predicate into a proposition:

1. Substitute a constant for x, for example $P(18)$ is a proposition.
2. $\exists x\ P(x)$: this proposition is true if there is some object a for which $P(a)$ is true.
3. $\forall x\ P(x)$: this proposition is true if $P(x)$ is true for all objects x.

Using this notation, we can precisely write our previous 2 axioms for natural numbers:

1. $\exists n\ n = 0$
2. $\forall n\ \exists m\ (m = next(n))$

Let's think more about the second axiom. We need to place more restrictions on this *next* function to get our natural numbers. For example, if we allow $next(0) = 0$, our natural

[1] Whether we add 0 or not to the set of natural numbers is simply a matter of convention. For this course, it is convenient to add it to the set.

numbers just becomes the set $\{0\}$, and it satisfies the axioms we have so far. We could also have $next(0) = 1, next(1) = 0$. So one restriction we could think of to avoid this is to keep $next(n) \neq 0$ for all n.

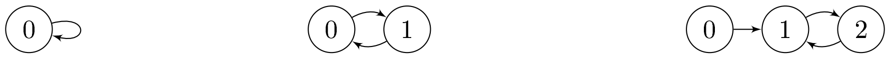

Figure 1: Valid number systems[2] without any condition on *next*

Is this enough? Not really, as we can still think of counterexamples, like $next(0) = 1, next(1) = 2, next(2) = 1$. Basically we have ensured that *next* doesn't loop back to 0. But we must ensure that it doesn't loop back at all (or even to the same number). How we shall do this is to add the restriction that *next* should not point to a number which has already been mapped to i.e. we make it a one-one function. Let's now add these conditions to our axioms:

1. $\exists n \; n = 0$
2. $\forall n \; \exists m \; (m = next(n))$
   (a) $\forall n \; next(n) \neq 0$
   (b) $\forall m \; \forall n \; next(m) = next(n) \implies m = n$

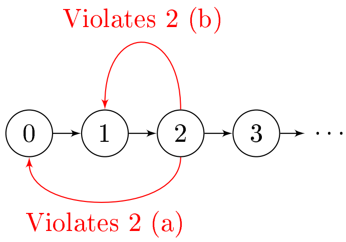

Figure 2: Diagrammatic explanation of why *next* always points to a new number

It turns out our axioms are still not complete. We have ensured that *next* always points to a new number, but we haven't really ensured that every natural number can be formed by applying *next* to 0 a finite number of times. Here are some counterexamples:

1. $\{0, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}, \ldots\}$ where $next(n) = n + 1$
2. $[0, \infty)$ where $next(n) = n + 1$

By repeatedly applying *next* to our growing chain, we should end up with the set of all natural numbers. A neat way of stating this is to just keep an axiom that induction itself works i.e. if a statement is true for $0, next(0), next(next(0)), \ldots$ it must be true for all natural numbers. So here is our final set of axioms, which does lead only to our natural numbers:

[2] It's important to keep in mind what makes one number system different from another is how the nodes are linked, it's not about what symbol we keep for each node like 0, 1, 2

1. $\exists n \; n = 0$
2. $\forall n \; \exists m \; (m = next(n))$
   (a) $\forall n \; next(n) \neq 0$
   (b) $\forall m \; \forall n \; next(m) = next(n) \implies m = n$
3. $[P(0)][\forall n \; \{P(n) \implies P(next(n))\}] \implies [\forall n \; P(n)]$

Exercise 1.1. *Prove that* $\forall n \; next(n) \neq n$*. Can we have this statement instead of 2 (b) to define natural numbers?*

Solution. Proof by induction
Define $P(n)$ to be $next(n) \neq n$. $P(0)$ is true from 2 (a).
Also, $next(n) \neq n \implies next(next(n)) \neq next(n)$ as $next$ is one- one (or contrapositive of 2 (b)). This is basically $P(n) \implies P(next(n))$.
From this we conclude $P(n)$ i.e. $next(n) \neq n$ for all n.
This can't be used instead of 2 (b). Counterexample: $next(0) = 1, next(1) = 2, next(2) = 1$.

Exercise 1.2. *Instead of keeping induction as an axiom, we could ensure that there are no other starting points for a chain other than 0. This might ensure that all numbers are part of the chain starting from 0.*

Can we replace axiom 3 with the following:
$\forall n \; n \neq 0 \iff \exists m \; next(m) = n$

Solution. No, we have a counterexample, take the set
$\{0, 1, 2, \dots\} \cup \{\dots, -1.5, -0.5, 0.5, 1.5, \dots\}$ where $next(n)$ is the standard $n + 1$.
It satisfies the new set of 3 axioms but aren't equivalent to natural numbers.

Exercise 1.3. *Is there a more concrete way to show that from axiom 3 that all natural numbers can be obtained composing next to 0 a finite (including 0) number of times?*

Solution. Let $P(n)$ denote n obtained composing $($next) to 0 a finite (including 0) number of times. $P(0)$ is obviously true. It's also clear that $P(n) \implies P(next(n))$, as if n can be written as $next(next(\dots(next(0))\dots))$, $next(n)$ can also be written that way by just composing one more $next$ to the expression. This completes our proof.

Another way we can do this question is proof by contradiction. Assume there are some numbers not in the infinite chain starting from 0. We define our predicate to be true for values in the infinite chain starting from 0, and false for every other value.

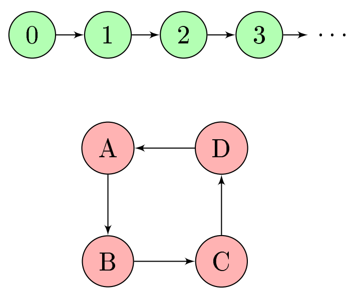

Figure 3: Our predicate is true for green cells and false for the red cells

This predicate satisfies $P(0)$ is true. It also satisfies $P(n) \implies P(next(n))$, because if $P(n)$ is true only for the green cells, and green cells point to only green cells. So induction steps are done, but $P(n)\forall n$ is false. So we have a contradiction.

2 Lecture 02

To extend our definition, let's define $\leq$ operator.

1. $\forall n \ \leq (0, n)$ is true
2. $\forall n \ \leq (next(n), 0)$ is false
3. $\forall n \ \forall m \ [\leq (next(n), next(m)) \ = \leq (n, m)]$

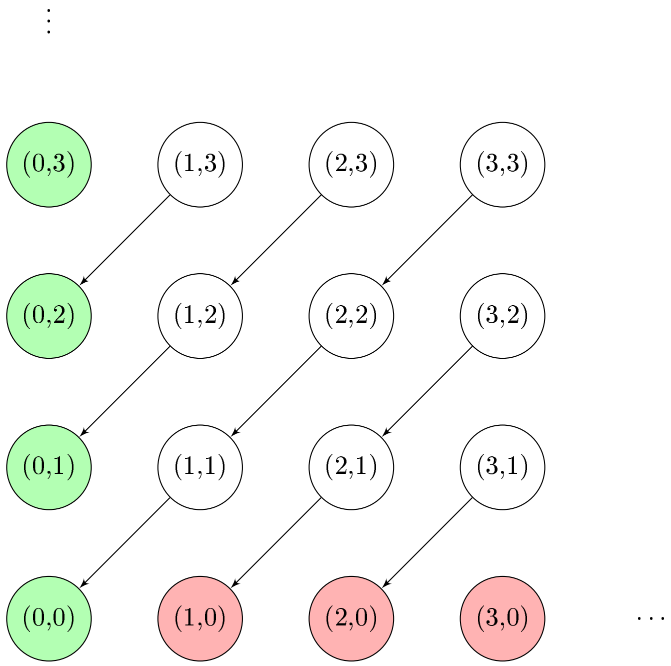

Figure 4: Diagrammatic representation of how $\leq$ is defined
$\leq$ is defined as true for green cells, false for red cells
$(A) \to (B)$ denotes (A) is defined by (B)

From the figure it's intuitive (hopefully) that $\leq (m, n)$ is defined for all m and n, (3) kind of gives a recursive definition. But how do we prove this? Since our predicate has 2 input variables, there is some sort of nested induction.
Take $P(m)$ to be $\forall n \ \leq (m, n)$ is defined.
$P(0)$ is defined from (1).
Now assume $\forall n \ \leq (m, n)$ is defined (which is $P(m)$)
We have to prove $\forall n \ \leq (next(m), n)$ is defined (which is $P(next(m))$)
The thing is, there's no direct way to proceed from here. It's clear that we somehow want to use (3) but we can't as we have $\leq (next(m), n)$ instead of $\leq (next(m), next(n))$. How we proceed is we take $Q(n)$ as $\leq (next(m), n)$ is defined, which is want we want to prove to complete the induction, and prove $Q(n)$ using induction itself! (Note that for the $Q(n)$ statement, m is fixed!) $Q(0)$ is true as $\leq (next(m), 0)$ is defined as false.
Now assume $Q(n)$ is true i.e. $\leq (next(m), n)$ is defined.
$Q(next(n))$ is $\leq (next(m), next(n))$ which is $\leq (m, n)$ which is defined, as it is $P(m)$. So we proved $\forall n \ Q(n)$, which is the inner induction complete.
This also completes the outer induction.

Exercise 2.1. *Prove that* $\leq(a,b) \wedge \leq(b,a) \implies a = b$

Solution. Nested induction on a, b.
Let $P(a)$ be $\forall b \ \leq(a,b) \wedge \leq(b,a) \implies a = b$
First we need to show that $P(0)$ is true. $\leq(0,b)$ is always true, also we can see that $\leq(b,0)$ is true implies b is 0 as if it's not the case, b can be written as $next(k)$ and $\leq(next(k),0)$ is false.
Now for the induction, assume $\leq(a,b) \wedge \leq(b,a) \implies a = b \quad (*)$
To prove: $\leq(next(a),b) \wedge \leq(b,next(a)) \implies next(a) = b$
Nested induction now, take the above as $P(b)$.

> $P(0)$ is a vacuous truth as $\leq(next(a),0)$ is false.
> Now assuming $P(b)$ we have to prove $P(next(b))$, which is
> $\leq(next(a),next(b)) \wedge \leq(next(b),next(a)) \implies next(a) = next(b)$
> But this is just equivalent to $(*)$, as LHS of the implication can be simplified by the recursive definition of $\leq$ and RHS of the implication can be simplified with one-oneness of *next*.
> So inner induction is complete.

This also completes outer induction as we have proved $\forall b \ P(b)$

Exercise 2.2. *Prove that* $\leq(a,b) \wedge \leq(b,c) \implies \leq(a,c)$

Solution. Nested induction again...
Let $P(a)$: $\forall b \, \forall c \ \leq(a,b) \wedge \leq(b,c) \implies \leq(a,c)$
$P(0)$ is true as RHS of implication is always true.
Now assume $P(a)$: $\forall b \, \forall c \ \leq(a,b) \wedge \leq(b,c) \implies \leq(a,c) \quad (*)$
To prove $P(next(a))$: $\forall b \, \forall c \ \leq(next(a),b) \wedge \leq(b,c) \implies \leq(next(a),c)$

> Let $Q(b)$: $\forall c \ \leq(next(a),b) \wedge \leq(b,c) \implies \leq(next(a),c)$
> $Q(0)$ is true as first term of LHS of implication is false.
> Now assuming $Q(b)$ we have to prove $Q(next(b))$, which is:
> $\forall c \ \leq(next(a),next(b)) \wedge \leq(next(b),c) \implies \leq(next(a),c)$
>
> > Let $R(c)$: $\leq(next(a),next(b)) \wedge \leq(next(b),c) \implies \leq(next(a),c)$
> > $R(0)$ is true as second term of LHS of implication is false.
> > Now assume $R(c)$, we have to prove $R(next(c))$, which is:
> > $\leq(next(a),next(b)) \wedge \leq(next(b),next(c)) \implies \leq(next(a),next(c))$
> > This can be reduced by the recursive definition to $(*)$ which is assumed as true.

That completes all the induction layers.

Exercise 2.3. *Prove that* $\leq(a,next(b)) \implies [\leq(a,b)] \vee [a = next(b)]$
Use this to prove $[\leq(a,b)] \wedge [\leq(b,next(a))] \implies [b = a] \vee [b = next(a)]$

Solution. Let $P(a)$: $\forall b \ \leq(a,next(b)) \implies [\leq(a,b)] \vee [a = next(b)]$
$P(0)$ is true as $\leq(0,b)$ is always true.
Now assuming $P(a)$, we have to prove $P(next(a))$.

> Let $Q(b)$: $\leq(next(a),next(b)) \implies [\leq(next(a),b)] \vee [next(a) = next(b)]$
> $Q(0)$: $\leq(a,1) \implies [\leq(a,0)] \vee [a = 1]$
> We can first simplify $\leq(a,0)$ to $a = 0$ using Exercise 2.1's property.
> Let's take $Q(0)$ as $R(a)$ and prove that using induction.

$R(0)$ is true as $\leq(a,0)$ is true.
Now assuming $R(a)$ we have to prove $R(next(a))$.
$\leq(next(a),1) \implies \leq(a,0) \implies a=0 \implies next(a)=1$ so $R(next(a))$ is true
So $R(a)$ is true for all a.

Now assuming $Q(b)$ we have to prove $Q(next(b))$
But that can be reduced to just $P(a)$ which is assumed as true.
This completes the induction.

For the second part, we know :
$\leq(b, next(a)) \implies [\leq(b,a)] \vee [b = next(a)]$
And if $\leq(b,a)$ since we also know $\leq(a,b)$, $b=a$.

This exercise shows that there is no number in-between n and $next(n)$

We now define the addition function $add(m,n)$:

1. $add(0,m) = m$
2. $add(next(n),m) = next(add(n,m))$

It's not too hard to show this sufficiently defines addition by taking $P(n)$ as $[add(n,m)$ is defined] and using induction.

Exercise 2.4. *Prove that $add(add(a,b),c) = add(a, add(b,c))$ which is the associative property*

Solution. We can somehow avoid nested induction for once :)
Let $P(a)$ be $\forall b\ \forall c\ add(add(a,b),c) = add(a,add(b,c))$
To prove $P(0)$, $LHS = add(add(0,b),c) = add(b,c)$ and $RHS = add(0,add(b,c)) = add(b,c)$
To prove $P(next(a))$, assuming $P(a)$ is true:
$LHS = add(add(next(a),b),c) = add(next(add(a,b)),c) = next(add(add(a,b),c))$
$RHS = add(next(a),add(b,c)) = next(add(a,add(b,c)))$
And from $P(a)$ these both are equal.

Exercise 2.5. *Prove that $add(a,b) = add(b,a)$ which is the commutative property*

Solution. Lot of induction again :(
Let $P(a)$ be $\forall b\ add(a,b) = add(b,a)$
$P(0)$ is $\forall b\ add(0,b) = b = add(b,0)$, this itself has to be done by induction on b.
Now assume $P(a)$ which is $\forall b\ add(a,b) = add(b,a) \quad (*)$
Basically whenever we have a in the add function we can swap stuff.
To prove: $P(next(a))$ which is $\forall b\ add(next(a),b) = add(b,next(a))$
We can simplify LHS a bit: $add(next(a),b) = next(add(a,b)) = next(add(b,a))$ from $(*)$

Let $Q(b)$ be $add(b,next(a)) = next(add(b,a)) \quad (**)$
$Q(0)$ is true as we get $LHS = RHS = next(a)$
Now assume $Q(b)$, we have to prove $Q(next(b))$
LHS for this is $add(next(b),next(a)) = next(add(b,next(a)))$
RHS is $next(add(next(b,a)))$ which is $next(next(add(b,a)))$
And from $(**)$ both of these are equal

This completes all the induction.

Exercise 2.6. *Prove that* $\leq (a,b) \implies \exists c$ *such that* $add(a,c) = b$

Solution. Let $P(a)$ be the above statement for all b.
$P(0)$ is true as $c = b$ works.
Now assume $P(a)$ is true. $\quad (*)$
We have to prove $P(next(a))$, take this as $Q(b)$.

> $Q(0)$ is vacuously true as $\leq (next(a), 0)$ is false.
> Now assuming $Q(b)$ we have to prove $Q(next(b))$
> $\leq (next(a), next(b)) \implies \leq (a,b)$
> So from $(*)$ we know $\exists c$ such that $add(a,c) = b$
> But this also implies $add(next(a), c) = next(b)$
> This proves $Q(next(b))$ which completes all the induction.

This exerise in a way defines subtraction, $c = b - a$

3 Lecture 03

Rather than using induction, there's an equivalent way to define natural numbers called well-ordering principle. Here are the axioms:

1. $\exists n\ n = 0$
2. $\forall n\ \exists m\ (m = next(n))$
   (a) $\forall n\ next(n) \neq 0$
   (b) $\forall m\ \forall n\ next(m) = next(n) \implies m = n$
   (c) $\forall n\ [n = 0] \lor [\exists m\ n = next(m)]$
3. $\exists\ \leq$
   (a) $\forall n\ \neg \leq (next(n), n)$
   (b) $\forall P\ [(\exists n\ P(n)) \implies \exists n\ (P(n)\ \land\ \forall m(P(m) \implies n \leq m))]$

This might look like it's very complicated using predicate logic, so let's try to see what all this means. So the beginning is pretty much like the previous axioms, but 2(c) is new. It basically says every number is either 0 or is the *next* of some other number. We'll later see how this axiom helps in proving induction itself.

What does the third axiom say? It says there exists **some** predicate $\leq$, which is not necessarily the $\leq$ we saw in Lecture 02. But anyways there's some predicate $\leq$ which 'orders' the natural numbers. What exactly do we mean by that? 3(a) says *next* of any number is greater than it. 3(b) says that for all predicates P, if there is at least one number for which P is true, there will a 'smallest' number for which it is true. How we write this formally is that there is some n for which $P(n)$ is true and for every other m for which it is true, $n \leq m$.

Let's see how induction is true from these axioms. We prove induction by contradiction. Assume there is a predicate P such that $P(0)$ is true, and $P(n) \implies P(next(n))$. But $\forall n\ P(n)$ is false, that is there's some n for which $\neg P(n)$ is true. Let the smallest n that satisfies this be n_0 (we're using 3(b) here). $n_0 \neq 0$ as $P(0)$ is true. So from 2(c) there's m

such that $next(m) = n_0$. Is $P(m)$ true? If it was, $P(m) \implies P(next(m))$, which would make $P(n_0)$ true.

So $P(m)$ is false, but haven't we just found a number smaller than n_0 which satisfies $\neg P(n)$, which contradicts well-ordering? From 3(a) we know $\leq (n, m)$ is false[3]. So from 3(b) we can get our contradiction, but remember the predicate we are using is $\neg P$ instead of P. We have n such that $\neg P(n)$, so 3(b) guarantees there exists n_0 such that $\neg P(n)$ is true, and for all other m that satisfies $\neg P(n)$, $\leq (n, m)$. So 3(a) and 3(b) form our contradiction.

Exercise 3.1. *We have seen how 2(c) was used in proving induction, but maybe even without it maybe we get only natural numbers? Is there a number system which isn't natural numbers but satisfies everything except 2(c)?*

Solution. In fact there are. $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots, \omega, \omega + 1, \omega + 2, \ldots\}$ form a number system.
Here $\leq$ is what you'd expect it to be, the numbers are arranged in order already, and ω is greater than all the natural numbers. $\leq$ satisfies all the properties it needs to, even things like the transitive property. But 2(c) forbids such things are there is no n such that $next(n) = \omega$. These are actually called the ordinal numbers. Thing is, we get many useful number systems if we make small changes to our axioms, for example if we remove $next(n) \neq 0$ we get modular arithmetic.

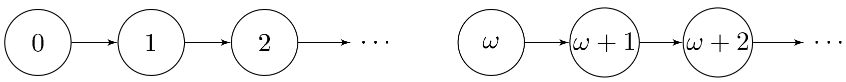

Figure 5: Valid number system without 2(c)

4 Lecture 04

The last lecture we saw the well-ordering principle, and showed how induction follows from it. Once that's true, we have basically confirmed that it also defines the natural numbers. Now let's try to prove the well-ordering principle from the induction axioms.

Proving 2(c) is not too hard using induction, actually the proof sounds silly. $P(0)$ is true as $0 = 0$[4]. And to prove $P(next(n))$ we need to find m such that $next(m) = next(n)$ and $m = n$ works for this.

Now for 3(a). Remember that for axiom 3, we just need to find one predicate $\leq$ which works, and we claim that the $\leq$ we defined in Lecture 02 works. 3(a) is also done by induction, take $P(n)$ to be $\leq (next(n), n)$ is false. $P(0)$ is true as $\leq (next(n), 0)$ is always false. $P(n) \implies P(next(n))$ is also clear as $\leq (next(next(n)), next(n)) \; = \leq (next(n), n)$.

3(b) is done by contradiction. So suppose there's a predicate P such that $P(n)$ is true for some n, but there's no smallest n for which $P(n)$ is true. How our contradiction will go is by showing $P(n)$ is false for all n. We will do this by showing if $P(0)$ is false, $P(1)$ is false, $\ldots$, $P(n)$ is false, this implies $P(next(n))$ is false[5].

We take $Q(n) : \forall m \; (m \leq n) \implies (\neg P(m))$ or in other words, $Q(n)$ says $P(k)$ is false for $0 \leq k \leq n$. What is $Q(0)$? $m \leq 0 \implies P(m)$ is false or simply, $P(0)$ is false. This is right as if $P(0)$ were true, 0 is clearly a smallest n for which $P(n)$ is true.

[3] Without 3(a) we can't actually conclude this, remember this isn't our familiar $\leq$, this is just an arbitrary predicate which satisfies well-ordering

[4] Where's my fields medal for observing this

[5] This is something called strong induction; for proving something for $next(n)$, instead of just assuming it for n, we assume it true for 0 to n. This is equivalent to induction actually

Now let's try to induct on $Q(n)$. Is it possible that $Q(n)$ is true and $Q(next(n))$ is false? This would mean there exists $m \leq next(n)$ such that $P(m)$ is true, at the same time $m \nleq n$, which means $m = next(n)$ (See exercise 2.3). But this m we found would then be a smallest k for which $P(k)$ is true. Why? Let k be such that $P(k)$ is true, we know $k \nleq n$ from $Q(n)$. So we have to show if $k \nleq n$, $m = next(n) \leq k$. This is equivalent to showing that $[k \leq n] \vee [next(n) \leq k]$ which can be shown by nested induction. So we got that it's impossible, $Q(n)$ has to imply $Q(next(n))$. This would then mean $Q(n)$ is true for all n which is the same thing as $P(n)$ is false for all n [6], which is a contradiction.

This proof does use a lot of English, but it's still correct and can be written in predicate logic, but that takes away the intuition.

Exercise 4.1. *Prove that* $[a \leq b] \vee [next(b) \leq a]$. *Is it possible for both of these to be true?*

Solution. Let $P(a)$ be $\forall b\ [a \leq b] \vee [next(b) \leq a]$.
$P(0)$ is true as $0 \leq b$. Now assume $P(a)$.
$P(next(a))$ is $\forall b\ [next(a) \leq b] \vee [b \leq a]$.

> Let $Q(b)$ be $[next(a) \leq b] \vee [b \leq a]$.
> $Q(0)$ is true as $0 \leq a$.
> $Q(next(b))$ is equivalent to $P(a)$ which is assumed to be true.

This completes the induction.

No it's not possible for both to be true.
$a \leq b$ and $b \leq next(b)$ implies $a \leq next(b)$.
This along with $next(b) \leq a$ means $a = next(b)$.
But $a = next(b) \leq b$ is clearly false, so we get a contradiction.

5 Lecture 05

We discuss some common mistakes made while doing induction proofs. Say you want to prove something for all objects which can have sizes 0, 1, 2, ... In the induction step, we can assume the property is true for all objects of size n. We must then show it's true for *all* objects of size $n+1$, not just *some* objects. Take the following example:
Every sequence of n numbers with sum $2n-1$ must contain an occurence of 1
$\forall n\ \forall S\ [L(s) = n] \wedge [sum(s) = 2n-1] \implies occurs(S, 1)$
This statement is clearly wrong, take the counterexample sequence $\{0, 3\}$. But here's a proof using induction which has a mistake. First let's define a sequence and define how induction works to prove something for all sequences.
Definition of sequence:

1. λ is a sequence which is an empty sequence
2. If S is a sequence, $insert(S, n)$ is a sequence for all numbers n

Induction for sequences:

1. $P(\lambda)$ is true
2. $\forall S\ [P(S)] \implies [\forall n\ P(insert(S, n))]$

[6] As $Q(n)$ implies $\neg P(n)$

Clearly, these aren't complete definitions, lot of details are assumed to be understood. But with enough conditions added, they will define sequences without any ambiguities.

So for our wrong proof we just do induction on n, not actually sequence induction. $P(0)$ is vacuously true as sum of sequence of length 0 is just 0. Now we do induction. Assume $P(n)$ is true. Now a sequence of length $n+1$ can be formed by $insert(S, 2)$ where S is a sequence of length n. Assuming our new sequence has sum $2(n+1)-1$, S will have sum $2(n+1)-1-2 = 2n-1$, so by induction 1 is in S, which means 1 is in our sequence of length $n+1$.

Why is this proof wrong? We haven't proved our statement for *all* sequences of length $n+1$, just for the sequences with ending element 2. We have only proved that there exists some sequence which has a 1, not all sequences have a 1.

So let's modify our statement to be true and then prove it properly by induction. Let's add the restriction that our sequence contains only *non-zero* numbers. Now our statement is true, because if it didn't contain a 1, the sum would be at least $2+2+\cdots+2 = 2n$. So we should be able to prove this by induction.

For $n = 0$ again the statement is vacuously true. For $n = 1$ it must be true as well because the only sequence with sum $2 \times 1 - 1$ is $\{1\}$. So let's assume it's true for sequences of length n. Every sequence of length $n+1$ is formed by inserting a number x to a sequence of length n, let's go case by case.

$x \neq 0$ from our conditions. If $x = 1$ we are done, our sequence has a 1. If $x = 2$, the rest of the sequence with length n has sum $2n-1$ so it has a 1 by induction, so far so good. But what if $x > 2$? Intuitively it's still true that the rest of the sequence should contain a 1 right, because the sum should be smaller than $2n-1$, but we can't exactly proceed by induction as our statement says nothing about such sequences. So to prove our statement, we actually make a stronger claim:

Every non-empty sequence S of length n with $sum(S) \leq 2n-1$ contains a 1

If we prove this statement by induction, we also solve the question as this is a stronger statement i.e. it is claiming something about a larger set of sequences. So let's just modify our proof to prove this statement. Again $P(0)$ is vacuously true.

$x \neq 0$ from our conditions. If $x = 1$ we are done, our sequence has a 1. If $x \geq 2$, the sum of the rest of the sequence is $\leq 2(n+1)+1-x \leq 2n-1$. So the rest of the sequence must contain a 1 by our induction assumption, this completes the induction.

The take away message is that in order to prove a statement by induction, sometimes we have to make a stronger statement which is easier to prove by induction.

Homework: Consider a set of $n+1$ positive numbers each of which is atmost $2n$. Prove that there exist 2 numbers such that one divides the other.

6 Lecture 06

We solve the homework question using well-ordering principle and proof by contradiction. It turns out that this method is more useful than direct induction for solving decently challenging questions, but is equivalent to induction. We assume n is the smallest number for which $P(n)$ is false (where $P(n)$ is what we want to prove), and use the fact that $P(k)$ is true for all $k < n$ to get some sort of contradiction showing that $P(n)$ is in fact true. Remember it's important to show a base case, here $n = 1$. In this case the only sets are {1, 1}, {1, 2} and {2, 2} so our statement is true.

So let n the smallest number for which $P(n)$ is false. Let the sequence for which it is false be $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n, a_{n+1}\}$ and also assume the numbers are in ascending order. What can we say about this sequence? Obviously none of the numbers are the same, if so they divide each other. Also look at the subsequence of this, $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\}$. If all of the numbers were atmost $2n-2$, the conditions for $P(n-1)$ would be satisfied, which would mean two numbers divide each other. And if this is true for our subsequence, it's also true for the whole sequence, so we have a contradiction.

a_n must be greater than $2n-2$, and since all terms of are sequence are atmost $2n$ and distinct, $a_n = 2n-1, a_{n+1} = 2n$. But we can actually still get a contradiction, if we consider the subsequence $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n-1}, n\}$ [7]. Here all terms are atmost $2n-2$ as $a_{n-1} < a_n = 2n-1$ and $n \leq 2n-2$. So we can apply $P(n-1)$, x and y exist in the sequence such that $x|y$. Is it possible that neither of x, y are n? No, because then we would have 2 numbers in our original sequence which divide each other. So n is one of x, y. We can also say $y = n$, because x can't be n, there's no term in the sequence big enough for n to divide (except n itself). So some x divides n. We're not done though, as n is not part of our original sequence, but $a_{n+1} = 2n$ is! And if x divides n, x divides $2n$. So we still have 2 numbers in our original sequence which divide each other, so we have a contradiction.

Let's move to an even more challenging example.

Erdös-Ginzburg-Ziv Theorem: Any sequence of $2n-1$ numbers contains a subsequence of n elements, with their sum being a multiple of n.

Let n be the smallest number for which the statement is not true. Assume n is composite and $n = pq$ where $p, q > 1$. We show by contradiction that if the statement is true for p, q it is true for n (we take care of the case where n is prime later).

We have $2pq-1$ numbers. Choose $2p-1$ numbers from these. Now from our assumption, we can choose p numbers out of these with sum divisible by p. Take these numbers away and put them in a group G_1. And for the rest of the $p-1$ numbers, put them back into our original sequence, to recycle them. Now again choose $2p-1$ numbers from our original sequence, find p of them with sum divisible by p, put them away in a group G_2, and recycle the $p-1$ numbers not chosen. How many groups can we form if we keep doing this? $2pq-1 = (2q-2)p + (2p-1)$, so after finding $2q-2$ groups, we have $2p-1$ numbers left. We form a final group of size p, and throw away the $p-1$ numbers.

Now have groups $G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_{2q-1}$ each with sum $k_1p, k_2p, \ldots, k_{2q-1}p$. Now what we do is find q numbers from $k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_{2q-1}$ with sum divisible by q, say the chosen numbers are $k'_1, k'_2, \ldots, k'_q$. Now think about choosing the numbers from these corresponding groups... We have q groups of p numbers each, so we have chosen pq numbers. And their sum is $(k'_1 + k'_2 + \cdots + k'_q)p = (kq)p$, so the sum is divisible by pq, thus we found our contradiction.

[7] Here n is not necessarily the greatest element, the elements aren't in order

Let's now deal with the case when n is prime. Firstly, let's reduce all numbers and our calculations $\mod n$, because we only care about the remainders when divided by n. Can $\geq n$ numbers from the $2n-1$ be equal? In that case we're already done, n numbers from those obviously have a sum divisible by n. So let's assume each number appears less than n times.

We divide the numbers into n groups:

$$\begin{gathered}(a_1,b_1)\\(a_2,b_2)\\\vdots\\(a_{n-1},b_{n-1})\\(c)\end{gathered}$$

We also add the restiction that no 2 numbers of each group are equal $\mod n$. Can we always do this? Just sort the numbers in ascending order, and put them in the groups in the order $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n-1}, c, b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_{n-1}$. The only way you can have a repetition is if when you add many copies of a number, it somehow occupies every spot from a_i to b_i. But this would mean the number is present in our sequence at least $n+1$ times, which we already concluded is not the case.

We claim that there's a way to pick 1 number from each group such that the sum is divisible by n. How we show this, is by showing that there are at least n different sums we can make by choosing different numbers from each group. Assume we are working just with the first group. We have 2 different sums, a_1 and b_1. If we include the second group, we have 4 sums: $a_1+a_2, a_1+b_2, b_1+a_2, b_1+b_2$. But these sums may not be distinct $\mod n$. So how do we proceed? We induct on the number of groups we are working with; we claim with i groups there are at least $i+1$ sums we can form. (Here i ranges from 1 to $n-1$, the n^{th} group has no choice.)

When $i=1$ it's obvious we have 2 distinct sums, a_1 and b_1 as $a_1 \neq b_1 \mod n$. Now assume the statement is true for i, we have to show it's true for $i+1$. Let the $i+1$ sums we got from the first set of i groups be $\{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_{i+1}\}$. Now by taking the $(i+1)^{th}$ group we get the sums:
$\{s_1+a_{i+1}, s_2+a_{i+1}, \ldots, s_{i+1}+a_{i+1}\}$
$\{s_1+b_{i+1}, s_2+b_{i+1}, \ldots, s_{i+1}+b_{i+1}\}$
It's clear that all elements inside one of these sets are distinct as all the s's are distinct. But how do we know 2 elements from different sets are distinct? Note that if there's just a single difference between both the sets, we will get $i+2$ new sums, and our induction is done. So how do we show each set isn't identical to each other $\mod n$?

The trick is to show that the sum of numbers in each set aren't equal. If so, the difference of the sums would be $0 \mod n$. Note that the difference is just $(i+1)(b_{i+1}-a_{i+1})$ as all the s terms cancel. If this was $0 \mod n$, as n is prime, either $i+1$ or $b_{i+1}-a_{i+1}$ is divisible by n. But this isn't possible as $i+1$ is smaller than n [8] and by our construction of the groups, $a_{i+1} \neq b_{i+1} \mod n$. So it's impossible for both sets to be same, our induction step is true.

Now that our induction is complete, by choosing different elements we can get n different sums $\mod n$, so basically we can get any sum $\mod n$, including $0 \mod n$ which is what we want. This completes the proof for the whole theorem.

[8] Strictly speaking i ranges from 1 to $n-1$, so why can't $i+1=n$? But our final induction is from $i=n-2$ to $i+1=n-1$ so we don't have to deal with this case

7 Lecture 07

We move to a new number system, numbers modulo m where m is a fixed number greater than 0. The axioms for this system are very similar to natural numbers, except that $m = 0$ i.e $next(m-1) = 0$. The only axiom which is different from natural numbers here is we remove the restriction $next(n) \neq 0$.

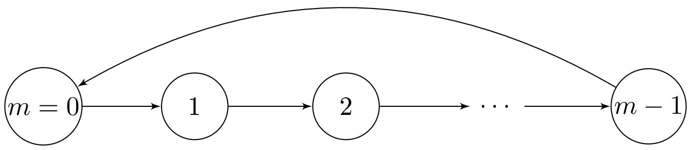

Figure 6: Modulo m number system

We can rigorously define the function to convert from naturals to numbers modulo m, $n \mod m$ is the smallest number r such that $n = qm+r$ for some q. It's clear that $0 \leq r < m$ as if $r \geq m$, there exists r' such that $r = m + r'$ (proof is similar to Exercise 2.6). Substituting this, we get $n = qm+m+r' = (q+1)m+r'$, so we found $r' < r$ which satisfies the condition.

This is also a well defined notation, as the set $\{x|n = qm + x\}$ is non- empty. n itself is in this set for $q = 0$. And any set which is non-empty will have a least element, which is another way to look at the well-ordering principle (Here $P(x)$ just means x belongs to our set).

Almost all operations can be defined for numbers $\mod m$. $n \mod m + k \mod m$ is defined as $= (n+k) \mod m$. It's also easy to show that this is commutative and associative by swapping around terms in the RHS. Unlike the natural numbers, each number also has an additive inverse. This is due to the fact that if you keep adding 1 to a number, it will eventually loop to 0.

How do we define an additive inverse? We must first define an additive identity, this is a number a such that $a + n = n \ \forall n$. Clearly $a = 0$ is the additive identity. The additive inverse of n is a number n' such that $n+n' = a$. The same can be defined for multiplication, and 1 is the multiplicative identity.

In order to talk about mutliplicative inverse, we must first define the greatest common divisor (gcd) of 2 numbers. For two positive numbers a, b, consider the sets:
$X = \{r > 0 \mid \exists x, y \ xa = yb + r\}$
$Y = \{r > 0 \mid \exists x, y \ xb = ya + r\}$
Both these sets aren't empty, for $x = 1$ and $y = 0$, a, b belong to X, Y respectively. So each set has a well defined smallest element. The gcd of a, b is defined as the smallest element in $X \cup Y$.

Another way to think about this is $X \cup Y$ is that it contains the difference of any multiple of a with any multiple of b, or even can be taken as the set of all integer linear combinations of a, b (which are positive). It's not clear that this is the same as the gcd we are used to, but the properties of gcd can be proven from this definition.

What properties would we like to prove? Firstly we should check that $a \mod g = 0$ and $b \mod g = 0$. g should also be a multiple of any common divisor of a, b i.e. if $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ then $d \mid g$.

Let g be the smallest number in $X \cup Y$. Let's take the case where $g \in X$. So there exists x, y such that $xa = yb + g$ (1). Now to prove $a \mod g = 0$, let's assume by contradiction $a \mod g = g' \neq 0$. This can be written as $a = qg + g'$ (2) from the definition of *mod*. Multiplying (1) by q and adding g' to both sides, we get:
$qxa + g' = qyb + qg + g' = qyb + a$ (from (2))
Rearranging, $(qy)b = (qx - 1)a + g'$
But this would mean $g' \in Y$, contradicting the fact that g is the smallest element in $X \cup Y$.

The proof is identical for the other case when $g \in Y$, we get $g' \in X$ which also leads to a contradiction. We conlcude $a \mod g = 0$. Since the definition of gcd is symmetric about a and b, we can prove using the same method $b \mod g = 0$.

Now to prove that every common divisor of a, b divides g too. Let d be such that $a \mod d = 0, b \mod d = 0$. Let x, y be such that $xa = yb + g$ [9].
$xa \mod d = 0$
$(yb + g) \mod d = 0$
$yb \mod d + g \mod d = 0$
Since, $b \mod d = 0$, $yb \mod d = 0$, so $g \mod d = 0$ (we are done).

Exercise 7.1. *Prove that if $a \mid bc$ and $gcd(a, b) = 1$, $a \mid c$.*

Solution. If $gcd(a, b) = 1$, we have integers x, y such that $ax + by = 1$. Multiplying by c, $acx + bcy = c$. Since $a \mid acx$, $a \mid bcy$, $a \mid c$.

Exercise 7.2. *Prove that if p is prime and $p \mid ab$ then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$*

Solution. Firstly what's the definition of a prime? p is prime if the only divisors of p are 1 and p. The statement we want to prove is equivalent to proving $p \mid ab$ and $p \nmid a$ means $p \mid b$. We first show that $gcd(p, a) = 1$. This is fine, as if $g \mid p$, g is 1 or p, and since $g \nmid a$, g is not p, so g is 1. From here the question is equivalent to the previous exercise.

Exercise 7.3. *Are X, Y in the gcd definition always the same set?*

Solution. Yes, they are. In fact both sets contain the gcd and all multiples of it. Let's prove that $X = \{g, 2g, 3g, \dots\}$. The proof is identical for Y. Let $a' = a/g$, $b' = b/g$. Is it clear that $gcd(a', b') = 1$? Well if it wasn't and was equal to say g', g' would divide a', b', and gg' would divide a, b and this is a contradiction.

Now if we prove we can find x, y such that $xa' = yb' + 1$, we're done, as we can multiply both sides by g. We're also done if we can find x such that $xa' = 1 \mod b'$. Here's how we show that, take the set
$\{0, a', 2a', \dots, (b' - 1)a'\}$ with b' elements. We claim each element here is distinct mod b'. If 2 of them have the same remainder, say ia' and ja', this would mean $b' \mid (i - j)a'$. But since $gcd(a', b') = 1$, $b' \mid i - j$. But this is impossible as $i - j < b'$. But now that we have b' distinct elements, we know that we can have only maximum b' distinct remainders right, which means that our set has all the elements $\mod b'$, including the remainder 1. So we're done, there exists x such that $xa' = 1 \mod b'$ which is the same as saying $xa' = yb' + 1$ (for some y).

Now that we've shown $g \in X$, it's clear that all multiples of g are in X, as if $xa = yb + g$, $mxa = myb + mg$. All that's left to show is that the *only* numbers in X are multiples of g. This is also easy as if $xa = yb + r$, and $g \mid xa$, $g \mid yb$, so $g \mid r$.

[9] If $g \in Y$ the proof is same

Exercise 7.4. *Prove the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, that is every number n can be written uniquely as $n = p_1p_2 \dots p_k$ where the primes are written in ascending order.*

Solution. First we prove that such a representation exists. We can do this by strong induction. For $n = 1$ the statement is trivial, $n = 1$ is the representation. Now assume the statement is true for all numbers smaller than n. If n is prime, $n = n$ is our representation. If n is not prime, we can write $n = xy$ for some $x, y > 1$. By induction assumption x, y can be written as a product of primes, from there n can be written as a product of primes.

Now for uniqueness. Again for $n = 1$ it is clear, there's no other way to write it. Now we'll use well ordering and proof by contradiction. Let n be the smallest number for which there are 2 distinct way to prime factorize it. Say $n = p_1p_2 \dots p_n = q_1q_2 \dots q_m$. None of p_i, q_j for all i, j can be equal as if they were, we could just cancel those terms and get a smaller number with 2 different prime factorizations. Now WLOG assume p_n is the largest prime in both representations. $p_n \mid q_1q_2 \dots q_m$, $p_n \nmid q_1$ as $p_n > q_1$, so $p_n \mid q_2 \dots q_m$. Similarly since $p_n \nmid q_2$, $p_n \mid q_3 \dots q_m$. We can continue doing this and get that $p_n \mid q_m$ which is a contradiction.

8 Lecture 08

We're going to do some questions regarding divisibility and binomial coefficients. To prove that n is divisible by d, you can think of a situation where's there a collection of n objects. If we can divide this collection into groups such that each group has d elements, we are done. Another way to prove is to divide the collection into d groups such that each group has the same number of elements.

When we're dealing with binomial coefficients like $\binom{n}{k}$, we can think of this as the number of collections of k objects out of n objects in total.

Exercise 8.1. *If $gcd(n, k) = 1$, prove that $n \mid \binom{n}{k}$*

Solution. It's possible to prove this directly.
$k\binom{n}{k} = n\binom{n-1}{k-1}$. So n divides $k\binom{n}{k}$ and since $gcd(n, k) = 1$, n divides $\binom{n}{k}$. But let's prove this combinatorially.

We can think of $\binom{n}{k}$ as the number of collections with k objects from the set $\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$. Suppose we have a collection $\{a_1, a_2, \dots a_k\}$. We claim that we can extend this to a group of n collections from this collection. How we do this is by adding $0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$ to each element, and taking $\mod n$. So the first collection is formed by adding 0 to each element, so it's our original collection itself. For the second collection you add 1 to each element, and so on.

It's not possible that 2 groups have one common element. Suppose collection C is formed from adding i from a collection C_1 and j from a collection C_2. C_1 and C_2 have to be a part of the same group as you get one from adding $i - j$ to the other.

How do we know these n collections are distinct? Assume 2 of them are same, say the ones where you add i and j to the original collection. The difference of their sums $\mod n$ must be 0, and this difference is $k(i - j)$. Since $n \mid k(i - j)$ and $gcd(n, k) = 1$, $n \mid (i - j)$. This isn't possible as $(i - j) < n$. So now that we can bunch up all collections into groups of size n, we conclude $\binom{n}{k}$ is divisible by n.

Another solution could be to divide the collections based on their sum $\mod n$. There are clearly n groups. And for any collection in a group, you can find a corresponding collection in any other group by adding a suitable i to each element. The proof for this is very similar. Once this is shown, we basically have shown each group is of equal size. So $\binom{n}{k}$ is divisible by n.

Exercise 8.2. *Is the converse of the above statement true? If $n \mid \binom{n}{k}$ can we say that $gcd(n,k) = 1$?*

Solution. Nope this is false. There are actually infinitely many counterexamples. If we try $k = 2$ or $k = 3$ the statement is true. In fact for any prime k it doesn't work, here's a short proof.

Since that $gcd(n,k) \neq 1$ and k is prime, $gcd(n,k) = k$ i.e. $n = kq$ for some q. $\binom{kq}{k} = \frac{(kq)(kq-1)\ldots(kq-k+1)}{k!}$. If this is divisible by $n = kq$, $\frac{(kq-1)\ldots(kq-k+1)}{k!}$ has to be an integer. But this is false, none of the term in the numerator is divisible by k. So we'll try counterexamples for $k = 4$.

Take numbers of the form $\binom{24k+2}{4}$. This equals $\frac{(24k+2)(24k+1)(24k)(24k-1)}{(4)(3)(2)(1)}$ $= (24k+2)[(24k+1)(k)(24k-1)]$ which is divisible by $24k+2$. But clearly $gcd(24k+2,k) = 2 \neq 1$.

Exercise 8.3. *Prove or disprove that if $1 < k < n$ and $k \mid n$ then $n \nmid \binom{n}{k}$.*

Solution. This is also false. Again when k is prime the statement is true, so let's first try $k = 4$.
$\binom{4n}{4} = (4n)\frac{(4n-1)(4n-2)(4n-3)}{(24)} = (4n)\frac{(4n-1)(2n-1)(4n-3)}{(12)}$. If we want to disprove the statement, the fraction must be an integer. But this isn't possible, as the numerator is odd.

Let's try to construct counterexamples of the form $\binom{6n}{6}$. We need this to be divisible by $6n$.
$\binom{6n}{6} = \frac{(6n)(6n-1)(6n-2)(6n-3)(6n-4)(6n-5)}{(720)} = 6n\frac{(6n-1)(3n-1)(2n-1)(3n-2)(6n-5)}{(60)}$.
We just need the fraction part to simplify, let's try to find n such that $15 \mid (2n-1)$ and $4 \mid (3n-1)$. Or equivalently, $2n = 1 \mod 15$ and $3n = 1 \mod 4$. For this we just to find inverses of 2 and 3 mod 15 and 4 respectively. That we can do, $n = 8 \mod 15$ and $n = 3 \mod 4$. $n = 23$ (by trial and error) [10] satisfies both of these and adding 23 with any multiple of 60 will keep it the same mod 15 and 4. So $n = 60k + 23$ is a set of infinite solutions.

9 Lecture 09

We prove prime factorization in this lecture. [11] A number $n > 1$ is prime if it is not divisible by any number m where $1 < m < n$. The theorem states that every number n can be written uniquely as a product of prime numbers. We don't really care about the order of the primes in this statment, if we interchange primes we still consider it as the same representation. Also the primes aren't necessarily distinct, you could have multiple copies of the same prime.

So we can write $n = p_1p_2\ldots p_k$ where each p_i is prime, and $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \cdots \leq p_k$.

The existence of such a representation follows from the well ordering principle. If there's an n for which it doesn't exist, let the smallest example be n_0. There are 2 cases:

[10] Chinese Remainder Theorem actually guarantees a unique solution $\mod 60$ for this, and also gives an algorithm better than trial and error.
[11] which I already did in Exercise 7.4 but just giving what's done in class

1. $\exists m$, $1 < m < n_0$ such that m divides n_0
2. There is no such m i.e n_0 itself is prime

In our second case $n_0 = n_0$ is a valid representation. What about case 1? If $1 < m < n_0$, $n_0 = mq$ for some q then also $1 < q < n_0$. From well ordering, m can be written as a product of primes, q can be written as a product of primes $\implies$ n_0 can be written as a product of primes.

Now for uniqueness: suppose $n = p_1p_2 \dots p_k = q_1q_2 \dots q_m$, where
$p_1 \le p_2 \le \dots \le p_k$ and
$q_1 \le q_2 \le \dots \le q_m$
Here we're considering the smallest such n for which we have 2 representations. We can say $p_1 \neq q_1$ as if not $n/p_1 = n/q_1$, $p_2 \dots p_k = q_2 \dots q_m$. So we get a smaller number wtih 2 different factorizations. WLOG $p_1 < q_1$. Since $p_1 \mid n$, $p_1 \mid q_i$ for some i. Here we're repeatedly using the fact that if $a \mid bc$ and $gcd(a, b) = 1$ then $a \mid c$. We know gcd of p_1 with any q_i is 1 so we can keep applying this property. So we have a contradiction, we know $1 < p_1 < q_i$ for all i so it can't divide q_i for any i.

With our new foundation on modular arithmetic, we can now go back to defining multiplicative inverse. If we observe numbers modulo p (usually denoted by the set $Z_p = \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$), it turns out every number other than 0 has a multiplicative inverse. The proof is similar to stuff we have seen before, consider the set $a \times Z_p$ (where $a \in Z_p$, $a \neq 0$) i.e. $\{0, a, 2a, \dots, (p-1)a\}$. All these numbers will be distinct modulo p, as if 2 numbers were the same, their difference must be a multiple of p. That's not possible as if $p \mid (i-j)a$, $p \mid (i-j)$ or $p \mid a$, both of which aren't possible. This means that the set $a \times Z_p$ is just a permutation, and has the same elements as Z_p. One of these elements must be 1 which means there is an a' such that $aa' = 1 \mod p$. This a' is the multiplicative inverse of a.

Another way to convince yourself of this is that $ax = 1 \mod p$ has a solution for $x \iff gcd(a, p) = 1$.

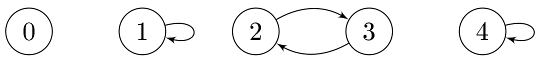

Figure 7: Each number points to its inverse modulo 5

Another thing we can deduce from the fact that $a \times Z_p$ is the same set as Z_p is Fermat's Little Theorem. Ignore 0 from both the sets and take their product. When we equate this, we get: $1 \times 2 \times \dots \times (p-1) = a \times 2a \times \dots \times (p-1)a \mod p$. Simplifying, $(a^{p-1}-1)(p-1)! = 0 \mod p$ and since $gcd((p-1)!, p) = 1$, $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$.

Fermat's little theorem can also be used to prove EGZ theorem, which we'll see in the next lecture.

10 Lecture 10

We will now do another proof of EGZ theorem for the case where n is prime. It's enough to prove this theorem for numbers belonging to Z_p, as we only care about remainders when divided by p.

Given a set $S = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{2p-1}\}$, there exists a subset $A \subseteq S$, $|A| = p$ and $sum(A) = 0 \mod p$.

Assume it is not true, that is for all sets the sum is not 0. Let's look at the following sum: $\sum_{A\subseteq S,|A|=p}(sum(A))^{p-1}$ (1). This is just adding the sum power $p-1$ for all subsets of size p. If none of the sums are 0, we can use FLT to show $(sum(A))^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$. So the weird sum we're looking at just becomes a summation of 1, which just counts the number of subsets. This is clearly $\binom{2p-1}{p}$. Is this divisible by p?
$\binom{2p-1}{p} = \frac{(2p-1)(2p-2)\dots(p)}{(p)(p-1)\dots(1)}$. The p's cancel, and nothing else in the numerator is divisible by p, so no.

We'll now show that actually the sum is 0, by showing that each term in (1) expanded is $0 \mod p$. What are possible terms in the summation? For set $A = \{a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, \dots, a_{i_p}\}$. We multinomially expand $(a_{i_1} + \dots + a_{i_p})^{p-1}$. A general term of this expansion is $a_{i_1}^{k_1} a_{i_2}^{k_2} \dots a_{i_m}^{k_m}$ (call this term t) where $1 \le m \le p-1$ as you can have maximum $p-1$ different a_i's in a term. We also have $k_1 + \dots k_m = p-1$. Note that t appears multiple times in set A itself, so each set will have a contribution of $k \times t$. What we now prove is that the *number* of sets A for which term t appears is divisible by p (which makes its contribution in the final sum as $0 \mod p$). [12]

The number of sets in which the term t appears is equivalent to the number of sets that can be formed using the elements $a_{i_1}, a_{i_2}, \dots, a_{i_m}$. Since we have m elements already chosen and we need to choose p in total, number of elements to be chosen is $\binom{2p-1-m}{p-m}$.
$\binom{2p-1-m}{p-m} = \frac{(2p-1-m)(2p-2-m)\dots(p)}{(p-m)(p-m-1)\dots(1)}$. Since there's a p in the numerator, and none of the terms in the denominator are divisible by p, so the full term is divisible by p.

So we're done, we got a contradiction. We got that (1) is both 0 and not 0 at the same time.

$2p-1$ is also a tight bound. We have proved the statement for $2p-1$ numbers, but for $2p-2$ numbers we can actually get a counterexamples. Consider the set with 0 appearing $p-1$ times and 1 appearing $n-1$ times. Any p numbers we choose, we'll have to choose 2 numbers that differ. If this is the case, the sum is strictly between 0 and p, which means that the sum is not divisible by p.

The theorem can be extended to 2 dimensions. If you have a set of $4p-3$ 2D integer coordinates, You can find p of them with their centroid (basically mean of both coordinates) as an integer. This theorem was proven and again there's a counterexample with $4p-4$ points. Take the set:
$\{\binom{0}{0}, \dots, \binom{0}{0}, \binom{0}{1}, \dots, \binom{0}{1}, \binom{1}{0}, \dots, \binom{1}{0}, \binom{1}{1}, \dots, \binom{1}{1}\}$ where each point appears $p-1$ times. You will have to choose 2 unequal points, and in whichever coordinate they are unequal, that coordinate's sum will be strictly between 0 and p.

Another theorem we can prove for primes is **Wilson's Theorem:** a number n is prime $\iff (n-1)! + 1 = 0 \mod n$.

The proof of Wilson's Theorem follows from the fact that every number in Z_p (except 0) has a unique inverse. So while multiplying all of them, we can just pair each element with its inverse and it will become multiplication of a bunch of 1's. But we have to be a bit careful, as what if a number is the inverse of itself? If $a^2 = 1 \mod p$, $(a+1)(a-1) = 0 \mod p$. $p \mid (a-1)$ or $p \mid (a+1)$ which means $a = 1$ or $a = p-1$. So ignoring these 2 numbers, if we multiply the rest, the product is $1 \mod p$. Including 1 and $p-1$ now, the product is $(p-1) \mod p$, so $(p-1)! + 1 = (p-1) + 1 = 0 \mod p$.

[12] Note that if the term appears in different sets, it will appear the same number of times in each set.

The converse isn't too hard to prove. One number in $(p-1)!$ will be a divisor of p (say $k > 1$), which will make $(p-1)!$ also divisible by k. Even while taking this modulo p, the remainder will be divisible by k as if $(p-1)! = qp + r$, $k \mid (p-1)!$, $k \mid p$, so $k \mid r$. From here we can say $r \neq p-1$ as if $k \mid r = p-1$ and $k \mid p$, $k \mid p-(p-1) = 1$.

Wilson's theorem is true both ways and can be used as a test for primes, although not efficient. The same can't be said for FLT, it is possible when there's a composite n, $gcd(a, n) = 1$, and $a^{n-1} = 1 \mod n$. In fact there are numbers called Carmichael numbers (pseudo primes). These are the strongest counterexamples, they are composite n such that for *all* a such that $gcd(a, n) = 1$, $a^{n-1} = 1 \mod n$. The first 3 Carmichael numbers are 561, 1105, and 1729.

There is a way to improve FLT to test more accurately for primes, called the Miller Rabin primality test. It's based on FLT as well as the fact that if $x^2 = 1 \mod n$, $x = 1 \mod n$ or $x = n-1 \mod n$. To test if n is prime, we pick a random number $1 < a < n$. If $a^{n-1} \neq 1 \mod n$, we confirm n is composite. But if it's equal, we're still not guaranteed that n is prime. What we do is we divide the exponent by 2 whenever possible, and check if it's still $\pm 1 \mod n$. So we check $a^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \mod n$. If it's not $\pm 1 \mod n$, n is composite. If it's $1 \mod n$ and the exponent is still even, we can continue this process and check for $a^{\frac{n-1}{4}} \mod n$. If it's $-1 \mod n$, or the exponent becomes odd, we stop, as we can't apply the property anymore.

Even this test doesn't guarantee if n is prime or composite, but it's better than just plain FLT, as we are checking more. If we do this process for more and more a's, our guarantee that n is prime becomes more and more certain. If we ever get that n is composite from the test, we are 100% sure that it is composite. But if can't disprove n is prime, we are never completely sure that n is prime.

11 Lecture 11

This lecture is basically discussion of 2 questions in the previous year's quiz.

Exercise 11.1. *Find natural numbers n, $0 \leq n < 1000$ such that n^2 has the same ending 3 digits as n. Let's generalize this question. What are the number of solutions $0 \leq n < b^d$ such that n^2 has the same d ending digits as n? It's given that b has a prime factorization $p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \dots p_m^{k_m}$*

Solution. Here's a proof for the general case, just substitute $b = 10$ and $d = 3$ for the first part. When we say the d ending digits are same, we just mean that $b^d \mid (n^2 - n)$ or $b^d \mid n(n-1)$. Since $b^d = p_1^{dk_1} p_2^{dk_2} \dots p_m^{dk_m}$, it is enough to verify that $p_i^{dk_i} \mid n(n-1)$ for all i. [13]

Now since $gcd(n, n-1) = 1$, $p_i^{dk_i} \mid n(n-1)$ is equivalent to $p_i^{dk_i} \mid n$ or $p_i^{dk_i} \mid (n-1)$. This is like an exclusive or also, we can't have both at the same time. So for every i we have a choice, we could make the term divide n or divide $n-1$. So there are 2^m total choices.

Now for each choice, do we always have a solution, and how many solutions do we have? For the extreme cases, when everything has to divide n, $n = 0$ is the solution. When everything has to divide $n-1$, $n = 1$ is the solution, but we can't keep checking every case manually. Let's say we choose some d_1 of these terms to divide n and the rest d_2 terms to divide $n-1$.

[13] This follows from the fact that if $gcd(d_1, d_2) = 1$, $d_1 \mid n$ and $d_2 \mid n \iff d_1 d_2 \mid n$. This can be proved using Exercise 7.1

Denote the product of the d_1 terms to be t_1, product of the d_2 terms to be t_2. We have $t_1 t_2 = b^d$.

Since $t_1 \mid n$, we can write $n = qt_1$. To keep n in our range, $0 \leq q < t_2$. We need $t_2 \mid n-1 = qt_1 - 1$ which is basically $qt_1 = 1 \mod t_2$. This is the same as saying q is the inverse of $t_1 \mod t_2$. And since $gcd(t_1, t_2) = 1$, q exists and is unique. So for each choice we have exactly 1 solution, so our final answer is 2^m.

Exercise 11.2. *If α, β are irrational and $1/\alpha + 1/\beta = 1$, show that for every integer n, there exists k such that $n = \lfloor k\alpha \rfloor$ or $n = \lfloor k\beta \rfloor$. If α, β are rational a general solution can be written as $\alpha = \frac{p}{q}$ and $\beta = \frac{p}{p-q}$ ($gcd(p,q) = 1$). For which n (if any) is the statment false?*

Solution. One of the fractions $1/\alpha$, $1/\beta$ must be greater than half. WLOG take it to be the first one i.e. $\alpha < 2$. Because it's smaller than 2, if we think about the set $\{\lfloor\alpha\rfloor, \lfloor 2\alpha\rfloor, \lfloor 3\alpha\rfloor, \dots\}$, it can only skip 1 number in a row. If it skips a particular n, we try to show that there is a k such that $\lfloor k\beta \rfloor = n$.

When it skips a particular n, say $\lfloor k\alpha \rfloor = n-1$ and $\lfloor (k+1)\alpha \rfloor = n+1$ So the first equation can be written like $n - 1 < k\alpha < n$. Note that there's no equality as α is irrational. Let's try to manipulate this to be in terms of β.
$\frac{k}{n-1} > \frac{1}{\alpha} > \frac{k}{n}$
$\frac{k}{n-1} > 1 - \frac{1}{\beta} > \frac{k}{n}$
Simplifying, we get $(n-k)\beta > n$ and $(n-k-1)\beta < n-1$.
We can do this for the other inequality too (or just sub $n = n+2$ and $k = k+1$), we get: $(n-k)\beta < n+1$ and $(n-k+1)\beta < n+2$.
Now from these inequalities, we get $\lfloor (n-k)\beta \rfloor = n$ so we have found $k' = n-k$ for which $\lfloor k'\beta \rfloor = n$.

In the case of rationals, the only change in our proof is equality in a few inequalities. The changes are $n-1 \leq k\alpha < n$ and $n+1 \leq \lfloor (k+1)\alpha \rfloor < n+2$. This changes the inequality in the last step to $(n-k)\beta \leq n+1$. So our proof fails for rationals whenever equality occurs. Tracing this back, it is when $(k+1)\alpha = n+1$. i.e. $n = (k+1)\frac{p}{q} - 1$. Since n is natural and $gcd(p,q) = 1$, $\frac{k+1}{q}$ must be an integer, say k'. So $n = k' - 1$. Our proof for rationals fails whenever $n = -1 \mod p$.

12 Lecture 12

Euler's ϕ function: $\phi(n)$ is the number of no.s m such that $1 \leq m \leq n$ and $gcd(m,n) = 1$ or in other words, the number of numbers m smaller than n and relatively prime to n. This set of numbers is commonly denoted by Z_n^*, just like how numbers modulo n are denoted with Z_n. Z_n^* is just a subset of these numbers which are coprime with n.

Z_n^* is also the set of numbers which have a multiplicative inverse modulo n. To see why this is true, we first show that if $gcd(n,k) = d > 1$, k doesn't have a multiplicative inverse. If k had a multiplicative inverse k', $kk' = 1 \mod n$, which is same as saying $kk' = qn + 1$. But $d \mid kk'$, and $d \mid qn$, so $d \mid 1$, which is a contradiction. To show that any element a in Z_n^* has a multiplicative inverse, we just consider the set $a \times Z_n$ and observe that all elements are distinct. If $n \mid a(i-j)$, $n \mid (i-j)$ as $gcd(a,n) = 1$, so $i = j$. You can also think of $\phi(n)$ as $|Z_n^*|$ (number of elements in the set).

Let's try to work out $\phi(n)$ for different n. When p is prime, $\phi(p) = p-1$ as all numbers smaller than p are coprime with it. We can also work out $\phi(p^k)$. If n is a power of a prime, the only numbers which can possibly share a common factor (> 1) with n are multiples of

p. So $\phi(p^k) = p^k - p^{k-1} = p^k(1 - \frac{1}{p})$, subtracting all multiples of p. For other cases it's a bit more complicated.

A useful property of ϕ is that it's multiplicative. If $gcd(m, n) = 1$ then $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$. This actually follows from the *Chinese Remainder Theorem*, so let's prove that first.

Chinese remainder theorem: If $gcd(m, n) = 1$ then for any $a \in Z_m$ and $b \in Z_n$ there is a unique $c \in Z_{mn}$ such that $c = a \mod m$ and $c = b \mod n$.

Proof: First we show the existence of such a c. $gcd(m, n) = 1$ means that there are x, y such that $xm + yn = 1$. Now we cleverly consider $c = xbm + yan$.

$$\begin{aligned}
c &= xbm + yan \mod m \\
&= yan \mod m \\
&= (1 - xm)a \mod m \\
&= a \mod m
\end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned}
c &= xbm + yan \mod n \\
&= xbm \mod n \\
&= (1 - yn)b \mod n \\
&= b \mod n
\end{aligned}$$

Now we need to prove that such a c is unique, suppose there are c_1 and c_2 which satisfy the conditions. This would mean $c_1 - c_2 = 0 \mod m$ and $c_1 - c_2 = 0 \mod n$. Since $gcd(m, n) = 1$, we can say $c_1 - c_2 = 0 \mod mn$ so $c_1 = c_2$ (in Z_{mn} at least).

We can use this theorem to prove $|Z^*_{mn}| = |Z^*_m||Z^*_n|$. From the above theorem, we know that for every $a \in Z^*_m$ and $b \in Z^*_n$ we have a unique c in Z_{mn}. (Since if a number is in Z^*_m it's obviously in Z_m, and then we can use CRT). Is c also in Z^*_{mn}? If c shared a common factor with mn, there would be a common prime factor of c and either m or n, cause $gcd(m, n) = 1$. WLOG say $d \mid m$ and $d \mid c$. But since $c = a \mod m$, $c = qm + a$, so d will also divide a. But if $d \mid m$ and $d \mid a$, d has to be 1 as a, m are coprime. Similarly we can prove that if d is a common divisor of n and c, $d = 1$ is forced. So either way we can say $c \in Z^*_{mn}$.

So each pair of numbers in Z^*_m and Z^*_n corresponds to a unique number in Z^*_{mn}. So equating the number of cases on both sides, we get $|Z^*_{mn}| = |Z^*_m||Z^*_n|$ i.e. $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$.

This property helps in deriving a general formula for $\phi(n)$ with its prime factorization. If $n = p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \dots p_m^{k_m}$,

$$\begin{aligned}
\phi(n) &= \phi(p_1^{k_1})\phi(p_2^{k_2}) \dots \phi(p_m^{k_m}) \\
&= p_1^{k_1}(1 - \frac{1}{p_1})p_2^{k_2}(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}) \dots p_m^{k_m}(1 - \frac{1}{p_m}) \\
&= n(1 - \frac{1}{p_1})(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}) \dots (1 - \frac{1}{p_m})
\end{aligned}$$

There are many ways to derive this formula for $\phi(n)$. Another way is using the principle of inclusion exclusion. We want to subtract all numbers which share a *gcd* greater than 1 with n. So we subtract multiples of $p_1, p_2, \dots p_m$ from n. For each p_i, there are $\frac{n}{p_i}$ multiples of p_i which are $\leq n$. But if we do this, we are overcounting. Some are multiples of p_i and p_j, so they are subtracted twice, so we need to add them back. But again if we re-add all these cases we'll again face an issue with multiples of 3 or more primes, so we continue this process until we deal with all cases.

In the end, we get:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi(n) \quad = \quad & n \\
& -\frac{n}{p_1} - \frac{n}{p_2} \cdots - \frac{n}{p_m} \\
& +\frac{n}{p_1p_2} + \frac{n}{p_1p_3} \cdots + \frac{n}{p_{m-1}p_m} \\
& \vdots \\
& +(-1)^m \frac{n}{p_1p_2\dots p_m}
\end{aligned}
$$

This huge mess is just the expansion of $n(1-\frac{1}{p_1})(1-\frac{1}{p_2})\dots(1-\frac{1}{p_m})$.

There's a similar way to think about this formula, which is more of an intuition rather than a proof, but still might be useful. Again the idea is to delete all the multiples of $p_1, p_2, \dots p_m$. Out of all the numbers from 1 to n a fraction $\frac{1}{p_1}$ of them are multiples of p_1, so we remove them and have $n(1-\frac{1}{p_1})$ remaining numbers. Out of these again a fraction $\frac{1}{p_2}$ of them will be divisible by p_2. Here it's less obvious why it's exactly that fraction (as we don't have a set of consecutive numbers) , but here's the intuition. All we have done is removed multiples of p_1, and in no way does that tell you anything about if it's a multiple of p_2, i.e. divisibility by p_1 and p_2 are like independent events. So again we multiply by $1-\frac{1}{p_2}$ to remove the multiples and we continue this idea. In the end, we directly get the formula.

Exercise 12.1. *It turns out that CRT can be generalized. Let $n_1, n_2, \dots n_k$ be pairwise coprime numbers. There's a unique number c in Z_n such that $c = a_i \mod n_i$ for all i. (a_i's are some fixed numbers) How would you find such a c given a_i's and n_i's. (Here $n = n_1n_2\dots n_k$)*

Solution. We can just induct on k. Given n_1, n_2 we know $c = xa_2n_1 + ya_1n_2$ will satisfy the first 2 modular conditions. Also $c \mod n_1n_2$ is fixed from the uniqueness of CRT. Now that we know what c is modulo n_1n_2 and modulo n_3, we can find $c \mod n_1n_2n_3$ (as n_1n_2 and n_3 are also coprime). We can keep continuing this process to find a c which satisfies everything.

Another method: let's try find a solution of the form

$$c = x_1\frac{n}{n_1} + x_2\frac{n}{n_2} + \dots x_k\frac{n}{n_k}$$

We try to toggle the x_i's such that our condition holds. Note that $\frac{n}{n_i}$ is just the product of all n_j's where $j \neq i$. So how does this help, how do we ensure $c = a_i \mod n_i$. In this representation, all $\frac{n}{n_j}$'s are divisible by n_i, where $j \neq i$. So every term modulo n_i is 0, except for the term $x_i\frac{n}{n_i}$. This is the benefit of our representation, $c \mod n_i$ is only affected by x_i. Since n_i and $\frac{n}{n_i}$ are coprime, we will have a unique x_i such that $x_i\frac{n}{n_i} = a_i \mod n_i$. We just do this for all i and that fixes $c \mod n_i$ for each and every i.

13 Lecture 13

Here's another property of $\phi(n)$: $\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = n$. This is saying, for every divisor d of n, if you sum $\phi(d)$, the result is n. We can prove this combinatorially. The RHS is just number of elements in the set $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$. For the RHS if we can somehow partition this set into groups where each group has size equal to each term in our summation, we are done.

Partition the set based on the gcd of each number with n. For example one group will be Z_n^*, where each number has gcd 1 with n. All groups will have gcd as some divisor of n, and all these groups are non-empty, as d (the divisor itself) should be in its own group. But how many elements are in each group? So if $gcd(a, n) = d$, we can write $a = da', n = dn'$. gcd of a', n' must be 1 as if not, a, n would have a common divisor bigger than d. This is a necessary and sufficient condition to ensure $gcd(a, n) = d$. So we just need to count the number of a' coprime with $n' = \frac{n}{d}$ This is just $\phi(\frac{n}{d})$. So adding the number of elements in each set, we get $\sum_{d|n} \phi(\frac{n}{d}) = n$. But we can just rewrite this summation to get our result. If d is a divisor of n, clearly $\frac{n}{d}$ is also a divisor. So intead of summing over d, we could sum over $\frac{n}{d}$, and we get our result.

There's another way to show this using the same idea. Look at all the fractions
$\{\frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \ldots, \frac{n-1}{n}, \frac{n}{n}\}$
after each fraction is reduced to the simplest form. Once reduced, all fractions would have a denominator as some factor of n. For each denominator d, how many fractions are there? Clearly the numerator must be coprime with d so there can be atmost $\phi(d)$ fractions. We can also say all these fractions will appear, as we can just multiply numerator and denominator to make the denominator n, and that fraction reduced gives our desired fraction. So if we partition our set based on the denominator of the most simplified fraction, we prove that $\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = n$.

We now look at Euler's Theorem which is a generalization of FLT. For any $a \in Z_n^*$ (that is $gcd(a, n) = 1$), $a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \mod n$.

The proof comes from ideas we've seen before. We consider the set $a \times Z_n^*$. Every element of this set is different as if $n \mid a(i-j)$, $n \mid (i-j)$ as $gcd(a, n) = 1$ which would imply $i = j$. Since every element of this set is different, and also every element is in Z_n^*, the set is just a permutation of Z_n^* itself. Equatiing the products of each set, we get that
$a_1 a_2 \ldots a_{\phi(n)} = (aa_1)(aa_2) \ldots (aa_{\phi(n)}) \mod n$
$(a^{\phi(n)} - 1)(a_1 a_2 \ldots a_{\phi(n)}) = 0 \mod n$
Since a_i's are all coprime with n, we get $a^{\phi(n)} - 1 = 0 \mod n$ i.e. $a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \mod n$.

RSA Public Key Cryptography

Number theory is widely used in cryptography. A common way of encrypting messages which is still used today is known as RSA Public Key Cryptography. The challenge of cryptography is that we need a message to be able to be decoded very easily if and only if you have a key (secret data). But anyone should be able to encode a message and send it to you easily. As encoding is the inverse operation of decoding, we need to find some operation which is is easy to do but the inverse is very hard to do, unless you have extra information.

A common idea is factorization. This is something we still don't know how to do efficiently, but obviously we know how to multiply numbers easily. First we choose 2 large primes, p and q, and multiply them to get $n = pq$. Clearly $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$. We then choose e which is used to encode messages. An important criteria for e that we want is $gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$. So this is how our information is shared:

- Public Key: e, n
- Private Key: p, q

The public key is information which is shared to everyone, so that anyone can encode and message to you. The private key is information which only you should have, used to decode the message. So how does encoding work? If you want to encode a message m, we send $m^e \mod n$ instead. How do we decode the message? We first find the multplicative inverse d of $e \mod \phi(n)$. We then raise the encoded message to the power of d. This works because of the following:

$(m^e)^d \mod n$
$= m^{ed} \mod n$
$= m^{k\phi(n)+1} \mod n$ (as $ed = 1 \mod \phi(n)$)
$= (m^{\phi(n)})^k \times m \mod n$
$= m \mod n$ (as $m^{\phi(n)} = 1 \mod n$)

So we got back our original message. We can see why we needed $gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$ we required e to have a multiplicative inverse. There's another small thing, in order to use Euler's theorem, we require $gcd(m, n) = 1$. But how do we ensure this for all m, we want the sender to send whatever they want right... So what we do is we make sure our message is small, smaller than both p and q to be exact. This forces m not to be a multiple of p or q, so $gcd(m, n) = 1$ is ensured. If a bigger message is to be sent, break it into chunks and send each chunk separately.

Now we just have to be sure that this is easy to decode with the private key and hard without it. Firstly, encoding is easy, as m^e can be done very quickly. Note that this takes $O(log(e))$ time and not $O(e)$ time, doing exponentiation efficiently (without this our algorithm is no good). Now for decoding. We first have to find d. For this we can use Euclid's algorithm to find x, y such that $ex + \phi(n)y = gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$. x is actually our required d, as from this equation $ex = 1 \mod \phi(n)$. Euclid's algorithm is also logarithmic time, so this is fast. We then raise our encoded message to the power d, again fast. Now how can one decode this message without the private key? They would need to find d, for which they would need to find $\phi(n)$ first. But $\phi(n)$ can only be found if you know p and q. This is technically crackable, as n is public knowledge, but computationally not feasible at all. So the algorithm is a successful one.

We move to a new concept called *primitive root*. We know number $a \in Z_p^*$ satisfies $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$ by FLT. Here p is prime so Z_p^* is just $\{1, 2, \ldots, p-1\}$. a is called a primitive root if the exponent $p-1$ is the smallest k such that $a^k = 1 \mod p$. Take the example $p = 7$. See the powers of 2, $2^0 = 1, 2^1 = 2, 2^2 = 4, 2^3 = 8 = 1$, so 2 isn't a primitive root. But 3 is a primitive root modulo 7 (can be checked manually).

If a is a primtive root, the set $\{a, a^2, a^3, \ldots, a^{p-1}\}$ is just a permutation of Z_p^*. If 2 elements were the same, $a^i = a^j \mod p$, so $a^j(a^{i-j} - 1) = 0 \mod p$. a^j isn't divisible by p so we get $a^{i-j} = 1 \mod p$. But this contradicts the fact that $p-1$ is the smallest number, $i - j$ is a smaller exponent.

Exercise 13.1. *If k is the smallest (non zero) number such that $a^k = 1 \mod p$, prove that $k \mid p-1$.*

Solution. If $k \nmid p-1$, say the remainder when $p-1$ is divided by k is r. So $p-1 = qk + r$. So $a^{p-1} = a^{qk+r} = (a^k)^q \times a^r$. Taking modulo p on both sides, we get $a^r = 1 \mod p$ which contradicts the fact that k is the smallest exponent.

This argument can be generalized. Note that the only thing we have used in this theorem about p being prime is that $a^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$. If p was not prime, we could have just replaced $p-1$ with $\phi(p)$ and our argument still holds. In fact, we can further replace $\phi(p)$ with any x such that $a^x = 1 \mod p$. We get a pretty strong result here, any solution to $a^x = 1 \mod p$ will be a multiple of k.

Exercise 13.2. *From the previous exercise we got that the smallest d such that $a^d = 1 \mod p$ is a divisor of $p-1$. But how many such a are there for this d such that d is actually the smallest exponent?*

Solution. There could be 0 such a, but let's try to find the maximum number of solutions for a. If there's one a, we know that $a, a^2, a^3, \ldots, a^d$ form distinct a set of numbers in Z_p^*. All these numbers satisfy $x^d = 1 \mod p$, as $(a^i)^d = (a^d)^i = 1 \mod p$. These are all the solutions too, as the equation can have at most d solutions. But out of these, we need to check how many have d as the smallest exponent.

Take a general term in this set a^i, suppose gcd of d, i is $g > 1$. In that case, we can find a smaller exponent, $\frac{d}{g}$. Because $(a^i)^{\frac{d}{g}} = (a^{\frac{i}{g}})^d = 1 \mod p$. If suppose i is coprime with d, then it turns out that a^i is a primitive root. If $(a^i)^x = 1 \mod p$, from the generalization of the previous exercise, we get that ix should be a multiple of d. But since i, d are coprime x should be a multiple of d so $x = d$ is the smallest solution.

So we get the following result, there are either 0 solutions, or if there is a solution for d, there are $\phi(d)$ solutions as that's the number of i's which are coprime with d.

We can prove that every prime p will have a primitive root. Let's partition the set Z_p^* based on the smallest exponent d such that $a^d = 1 \mod p$. We have proved that all possible d will be divisors of $p-1$, and also for each d, there are either 0 or $\phi(d)$ solutions. For each d let $S(d)$ be the number of solutions. We know $\sum_{d|p-1} S(d) = p-1$, as this is just a partition of Z_p^*. But $S(d) \leq \phi(d)$ as $S(d)$ is either 0 or $\phi(d)$. So we can say

$$p - 1 = \sum_{d|p-1} S(d) \leq \sum_{d|p-1} \phi(d) = p - 1$$

But since we have equality, we must have $S(d) = \phi(d)$ for all divisors d of $p-1$. And since $S(d) = S(p-1)$ represent how many numbers have smallest exponent as $p-1$, we can say there are $\phi(p-1)$ primitive roots.

14 Lecture 14

Tutorial with questions on $\phi(n)$

Exercise 14.1. *Find all natural numbers n such that $\phi(n) \mid n$*

Solution. We can solve this using the formula for $\phi(n)$ We need $\frac{n}{\phi(n)}$ to be an integer. This simplifies to

$$\frac{1}{\prod_{p_i|n}(1 - \frac{1}{p_i})} = \prod_{p_i|n} \frac{p_i}{p_i - 1}$$

where p_i's are distinct primes that divide n. WLOG assume p_i's are in ascending order. If $p_1 \neq 2$, each product term in the numerator is odd and the denominator is even, that's not possible. So we must have $p_1 = 2$. This gives us one infinite family of solutions $n = 2^k, k \geq 0$

($k = 0$ includes $n = 1$ as a solution). What about $p_2, p_3, \ldots$? Even when $p_1 = 2$, the power of 2 is the numerator is just 1 so we can have only 1 extra odd prime, else the denominator won't be divided fully. So p_2 can exist but no other prime. So we want $\frac{2}{1}\frac{p_2}{p_2-1}$ to be an integer. We know $\frac{2p_2}{p_2-1} > 2$ so the integer it should simplify to must be ≥ 3. Simplifying $\frac{2p_2}{p_2-1} \geq 3$, we get $p_2 \leq 3$ so $p_2 = 3$ is forced. This gives another set of solutions, $n = 2^a 3^b, a \geq 1, b \geq 1$.

Exercise 14.2. *Prove that if $m \mid n$, $\phi(m) \mid \phi(n)$*

Solution. This follows from the fact that the ϕ function is multiplicative. If $m \mid n$, every prime power that appears in the prime factorisation of m appears in the factorisation of n, and the power is higher. That is, if ${p_i}^{a_i}$ appears in m, we can say ${p_i}^{b_i}$ will appear in n, where $b_i \geq a_i$. So $\phi(m) = \phi({p_1}^{a_1})\phi({p_2}^{a_2})\ldots\phi({p_k}^{a_k})$, and $\phi(n) = \phi({p_1}^{b_1})\phi({p_2}^{b_2})\ldots\phi({p_k}^{b_k})\phi(n')$.

From here we can see that $\phi(m) \mid \phi(n)$, because corresponding terms divide each other. $\phi({p_i}^{b_i}) = {p_i}^{b_i}(1 - \frac{1}{p_i})$, and $\phi({p_i}^{a_i}) = {p_i}^{a_i}(1 - \frac{1}{p_i})$, so $\phi({p_i}^{b_i}) = p^{b_i - a_i}\phi({p_i}^{a_i})$. Since each term divides the other, the product will also divide the other product.

This fact can also be proved combinatorially when m and $\frac{n}{m}$ are coprime, forming a bijection between Z_n^* and $Z_m^* \times Z_{n/m}^*$ using CRT, as done before. But no idea how do do it when they aren't coprime.

15 Lecture 15

We move to a new topic, sets relations and functions. Informally a set is just a collection of objects. We would like our sets to have some concrete mathematical properties, so let's try to build them as we go.

A first property could be that given any element, it should be either in the set, or not in the set. Mathematically, we can say $\forall S\ \forall x, x \in S$ should be a proposition, either true or false. It would seem like this is the only restriction/condition we need on sets, but this isn't the case.

Consider the set S which contains all the objects/sets which don't contain itself. That is $S = \{x | x \notin x\}$. We now look at the proposition $S \in S$, is it true or false? Suppose it is true i.e $S \in \mathbf{S}$. This would mean S, being in $\mathbf{S}$, satisfies the property $S \notin S$. But this is a contradiction. Suppose it is false, $S \notin S$. But since $\mathbf{S}$ has all objects which satisfy $x \notin x$, S must be in $\mathbf{S}$, which is again a contradiction.

How do we resolve this paradox? We need to add more restrictions on how we build sets, we can't just define sets in this way. There are rigorous axioms of set theory which forbid things like what we did above. But for this course, we will make it simpler. We shall assume there are some 'base' sets which are given to exist, like the natural numbers. And given any set, we are allowed to construct subsets. What does this mean? Say S is well-defined. We are allowed to construct set $X = \{x | x \in S \wedge P(x)\}$, where P is some predicate which decides if elements are in X or not. In the above paradox, while defining S, we didn't say from which set we are picking x from, so it's not allowed.

Given these conditions, can we say there's a universal set U. That is, is there a set U such that $x \in U$ is always true? Because of the same paradox, we can prove that it's not possible. Suppose there is such a U. We now construct $S = \{x | x \in U \wedge x \notin x\}$. Look at the proposition $S \in S$. If $S \in \mathbf{S}$, we know S should satisfy the property of the set which is $S \notin S$ which is a contradiction. What if $S \notin S$? We can also say $S \in U$ as U is universal, but that would mean S would then satisfy the property of the elements of set $\mathbf{S}$ which would make $S \in \mathbf{S}$. So we have the same contradiction.

Where exactly is our contradiction? It is the fact that we assumed that a universal set U exists. We could argue that maybe we're not allowed to write statements like $S = \{x | x \in U \wedge x \notin x\}$. But that's a property we *want*, we would like to allow constructing subsets from any given set, so we allow it to be true, and conclude that the contradiction is at assuming such a U exists.

This type of proof is also seen in something known as the *Halting problem*. The question is as follows: does there exists a program H which tells if any other program terminates for an input?

Assume there exists H such that $H(P, input) = yes$, if $P(input)$ terminates and otherwise, $H(P, input) = no$. Now let's define a new program H'. This takes just P as an input. It works as follows: it first runs $H(P, P)$[14], if the output is yes, H' runs forever. If the output is no, the program terminates.

Now what's the output of **H'**(H')? Let's go step by step, so in order for **H'** to run H' it first runs $H(H', H')$. We don't really know what's the output of this, say the output is yes. Then the program (**H'**(H')) would decide to run forever. But $H(H', H')$ giving output yes means that $H'(H')$ halts, by the definition of H. So we have a contradiction. If the output of $H(H', H')$ is no, then the main program (**H'**(H')) decides to halt. But giving output no means by definition $H'(H')$ runs forever. Again we have a contradiction.

Even though there's no universal U, we can still have a U and talk about only sets which are subsets of U. There are other sets but we can limit our focus to exclude them.

Here are a few operations on sets that we've seen before.

- Union $A \cup B = \{x | x \in A \vee x \in B\}$
- Intersection $A \cap B = \{x | x \in A \wedge x \in B\}$
- Set Difference $A - B = \{x | x \in A \wedge x \notin B\}$
- Complement $A^c = \{x | x \notin A\}$
- Cartesian Product $A \times B = \{(a, b) | a \in A \wedge b \in B\}$ (We assume $U \times U$ is defined)
- Subset $S \subseteq A$ if $\forall x \; x \in S \implies x \in A$
- Powerset $2^A = \{x | x \subseteq A\}$ (We assume 2^U is defined)

In fact, real numbers are also defined as subsets of rational numbers which the following property: $x \in S \wedge y \leq x \implies y \in S$. That is if there's a number is S, all numbers smaller that it are in S. The real number denoted by this set is basically the supremum (smallest upper bound) of this set.

For example $\sqrt{2}$ can be denoted by the set $S = \{x | x < 0 \vee x^2 < 2\}$. This satisfies the given property, as if $y \leq x \in S$, either $y < 0$ or we can say $y^2 \leq x^2 < 2$, so $y \in S$ in both cases.

[14] The second argument to H can also be a program as you can convert programs to integers if you want

16 Lecture 16

Now that we've defined set, we can define relations and functions.

A relation R is just a subset of $A \times B$. That is, it contains elements of the form (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$, satisfying some predicate $P(a, b)$. If $(a, b) \in R$, we say 'a is related to b by R', or we could write it as aRb too. When R is defined from A to A itself, we call R a relation on set A.

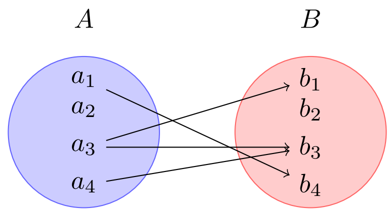

Figure 8: Mapping diagram of relation R

A function is just a special type of relation. It adds the restriction that each element $a \in A$ is related to one and only one element $b \in B$ i.e all elements in A have 1 image. How do we write this mathematically? We can say that $\forall a \in A\ \exists b \in B\ (a, b) \in R$ which says that every element has at least one image. We also add the uniqueness condition now, that's just $(a, b_1) \in R\ \wedge\ (a, b_2) \in R \implies b_1 = b_2$. So when we write $f(a) = b$, it's just notation for $(a, b) \in f$.

We call a function one-to-one if no 2 elements map to the same number. A function is one-one (injective) when it satisfies $f(a_1) = f(a_2) \implies a_1 = a_2$. A function is onto if all elements of B have an element mapping to it (pre-image). A function is onto (surjective) when it satisfies $\forall b \in B\ \exists a \in A\ f(a) = b$. functions which are both one-one and onto are called bijective functions, they are special as there is a one-to-one correspondence between both sets. They also have an inverse which is also bijective.

Exercise 16.1. *If f is a bijective function, define g to be $(b, a)|(a, b) \in f$. Prove that g is a function and is bijective.*

Solution. We first have to show g is a function. We have to show $\forall a\ \exists b\ g(a) = b$, this is identical to showing $\forall a\ \exists b\ f(b) = a$ which comes from onto-ness of f. Then we have to show $g(a) = b_1, g(a) = b_2 \implies b_1 = b_2$ which is equivalent to $f(b_1) = a, f(b_2) = a \implies b_1 = b_2$ which comes from one-one-ness of f.

Now to show g is one-one. $g(a_1) = g(a_2) = b$ (say) $\implies a_1 = a_2$. This is equivalent to $f(b) = a_1, f(b) = a_2 \implies a_1 = a_2$ which is true as f is a function. For showing g is onto we have to show $\forall b\ \exists a\ g(a) = b$ which is same as $\forall b\ \exists a\ f(b) = a$ which is true as f is a function.

When we want to compare the size of sets, it seems like we can just count the number of elements. But this only works when our sets are finite. How we compare 2 sets is by making functions from one set to another actually. We can denote $|A| \leq |B|$ if there's a one-one function from A to B. We can denote $A = B$ if there's a bijection from A to B.

This definition can be a bit counterintuitive for infinite sets, for example it might seem like the set of multiples of 3 is smaller than the set of natural numbers, but the function $f(x) = 3x$ is a bijection from N to $3 \times N$. Granted it's correct to say $3 \times N \subset N$ but still we say $|3 \times N| = |N|$.

We'll now try to prove the theorem $|A| < |2^A|$, which is saying that the power set is strictly smaller than the set itself. To do this we can first show $|A| \leq |2^A|$, as we have the one-one function $f(x) = \{x\}$ (we map $x \in A$ to the singleton set $\{x\}$). This is clearly one-one as if $f(x) = f(y) \implies \{x\} = \{y\} \implies x = y$.

Now for the hard part, we still have do disprove equality, by showing there's no bijection from A to 2^A. Assume such a mapping f exists. This maps every element $x \in A$ to a set $S \subseteq A$. Now let's look at the set $B = \{x | x \in A \land x \notin f(x)\}$. B is well-defined as it's constructed as a subset of A, it could even be an empty set but that has nothing to do with whether it's defined. Since B is a subset of A, $B \in 2^A$, and as f is surjective there is a b such that $f(b) = B$. Now let's consider the proposition $b \in B$. If $b \in B$ is true, b must satisfy the predicate inside B, which is $b \notin f(b)$. But $f(b) = B$ which would mean $b \notin B$ which is a contradiction. If $b \in B$ is false. We can say $b \notin f(b)$ as $f(b)$ is same as B. But then this would mean $b \in B$ as b satisfies the predicate condition of B. Either ways, we have a contradiction.

It turns out that N and $N \times N$. To show this, we need to find a bijection. For finding bijection of any set S with naturals, it's enough to find a way to index the elements of S with naturals, as our function can be just $f(i) = S[i]$. So we just need to find a way to traverse all the numbers in $N \times N$. If you visualize a $N \times N$ as a grid of coordinates, we can traverse all of them by just moving along the diagonals, and going to the next one once all elements of a diagonal are covered.

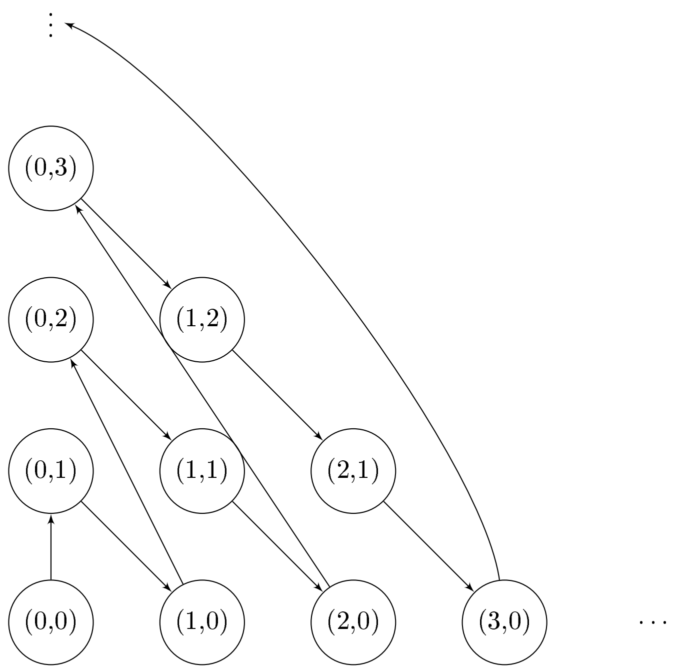

Figure 9: Bijection from N to $N \times N$

It turns out this can be generalized, $|N| = |N^k|$ for any finite k. However $|N| \neq |N^N|$ where N^N can be thought of the set of all functions from N to N.

From a theorem we proved, we know that $|N| < |2^N|$. But is there any infinite set S is the middle i.e $|N| < |S| < |2^N|$? In words, is there a set S such that there's a non-bijective one-one function from N to S and a non-bijective one-one function from S to 2^N?

The claim that there's no such S is called the *Continuum Hypothesis*. This stood as an unsolved problem for a long time. It was finally proven that the hypothesis was not true, not false, but unsolvable. That is, it was shown that using the axioms of set theory, it is impossible to prove or disprove the Continuum Hypothesis.[15]

So based on if you assume the hypothesis to be true or false, you can get different axioms of set theory, which will be consistent in their own constructions, but disagree with each other.

17 Lecture 17

Quiz paper distribution and solutions :|

18 Lecture 18

Schröder-Bernstein Theorem: For any 2 sets A and B, there exists a bijection between A and B if and only if there exists a one-one function from A to B and there exists a one-one function from B to A.

If there exists a one-one function from A to B, we denote it by $|A| \leq |B|$. So this theorem is basically $|A| \leq |B| \wedge |B| \leq |A| \iff |A| = |B|$.

One way of proving this theorem is easy, if there's a bijection, that function itself is one-one, and its inverse exists and is one-one too. But the other way is much harder.

Assume we have $g : A \to B$ and $h : B \to A$ are both one-one. We have to construct f such that f is bijective. We first look at the image of h, define set A_0 as the set of all the elements of A which are not mapped to by h. Or rigorously, $A_0 = \{a \in A | \forall b \in B\ h(b) \neq a\}$. Now after we define A_0, we map all the elements of it to B using g, and all the elements of this set back to A using h. We now call this set A_1. Now in A_1, we map everything to B and back to A to get set A_2. We continue this process and define A_i inductively.
$A_i = \{a \in A | \exists a' \in A_{i-1}\ h(g(a')) = a\}$
Now what we do is we take union of all such A_i's, until infinity and make a new set. So $A_\infty = \cup_{i=0}^{\infty} A_i$ [16].

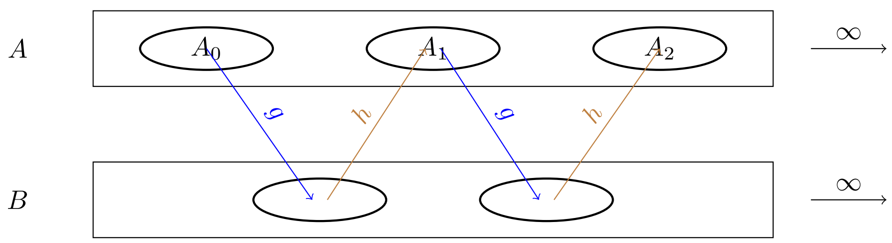

Figure 10: Diagrammatic explanation as to how A_i is defined

Now we finally construct our bijection f.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & \text{if } x \in A_\infty \\ h^{-1}(x) & \text{if } x \notin A_\infty \end{cases}$$

[15] How does someone even prove something can't be proven

[16] If you're confused as to how this is well defined think of the set as $\{a | \exists i\ x \in A_i\}$

Now what do we even mean by h^{-1}, h is not necessarily a bijective function right. But we can still say there's a unique $b \in B$ such that $h(b) = x$ only when $x \notin A_\infty$. Why? Firstly, if $x \notin A_\infty$, $x \notin A_0$ as A_∞ is a superset of A_0. But if $x \notin A_0$, we do have a b such that $h(b) = x$ because A_0 is defined as all elements not in the image of h, any element not in it will have an image. And this image is unique, as h is one-one. So even though we don't have bijectivity of h, h^{-1} is well defined here.

First let's prove f is one-one, say $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, we have to prove $x_1 = x_2$. We split by cases. If both x_1 and x_2 are in A_∞, we have $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$ so $x_1 = x_2$ as g is one-one. If both aren't in A_∞, we have $h^{-1}(x_1) = h^{-1}(x_2)$, applying h on both sides, we get $x_1 = x_2$. Now if they are in different sets, say $x_1 \in A\infty$ and $x_2 \notin A\infty$. We have $g(x_1) = h^{-1}(x_2)$, $h(g(x_1)) = x_2$. But since $x \in A_i$ for some i, $h(g(x_1))$ is in A_{i+1} by how A_{i+1} is constructed. This is a contradiction as we assumed that $x_2 \notin A_\infty$.

Now to prove onto. For all $b \in B$ we need to prove there's an $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$. We smartly choose $a = h(b)$. Now if we are lucky enough that $a \notin A_\infty$, $f(a) = h^{-1}(a) = h^{-1}(h(b)) = b$, so $a = h(b)$ works. But what if $a \in A_\infty$? $a \in A_i$ for some i. We can say for sure $i \neq 0$, as $a = h(b)$ and h doesn't map anything to A_0. So $i > 0$. We have some $a' \in A_{i-1}$ such that $h(g(a')) = a$ by construction of A_i's. But as h is one-one and $h(g(a')) = h(b)$, $g(a') = b$. Also since $a' \in A_\infty$, $f(a') = g(a') = b$, so we found a pre-image of b in this case too.

Since we prove f is one-one and onto, it is a bijection.

This theorem is very useful when we want to prove that there exists a bijection between 2 sets, but it's hard to construct an explicit bijection. For example take the sets 2^N and N^N. We'll prove that they have the same cardinality by creating a one-one function both ways. Here 2^N is the set of all subsets of N and N^N is the set of all functions from N to N.

For one-one function from 2^N to N^N, map each subset of N to the boolean function which decides if a number is inside the set. Basically for set A, map it to the function f which is like this:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in A \\ 0 & x \notin A \end{cases}$$

Why is this one-one? Given the function f we should be able to get A. We just look at where the function is 1, and only those elements are in our set.

Now for the other way. We have to map every function to a subset of N. So we map f to the following set:
$A = \{f(0), f(0) + f(1) + 1, f(0) + (1) + f(2) + 2, \dots\}$. Now we have to show this is one-one, we have to retrieve f from set A. The way we have written it, the elements of the set are in strictly increasing order. So to retrieve $f(0)$ we find the smallest element in the set. To get $f(1)$, we just see the second smallest element. Since we already know $f(0)$ we can find $f(1)$. Similarly to find $f(2)$ we look at the third smallest element. Inductively, we can find $f(i)$ for every i.

Now that we have one-one functions both ways, we are guaranteed to have a bijection. Note that neither of the one-one functions we found are bijective. The first one only maps to boolean functions, and the second one only maps to infinite sets. Finding an explicit bijection will be too hard.

We now look at a few operations on relations. To really visualize these, we introduce another way to see relations. Since R is a subset of $A \times B$, we can mark which elements of $A \times B$ are in R, and which aren't. This is just a boolean matrix of $A \times B$.

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc}
R & b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_n \\
\hline
a_1 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\
a_2 & 1 & 0 & \dots & 1 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
a_m & 1 & 1 & \dots & 0
\end{array}$$

In this matrix, we have $a_i R b_j$ if $R[i][j] = 1$ in the matrix, and they're not related if $R[i][j] = 0$. When sets A and B are infinite, our matrix is also infinite.

So our first operation is *converse*. We define R^{-1} from B to A, such that $bR^{-1}a = aRb$. These are just the tuples in R which are swapped. If we want to represent this as a matrix, R^{-1} is just the transpose of R.

Another operation is composition. If we have $R_1 : A \to B$ and $R_2 : B \to C$. We define $R_1 \cdot R_2 = \{(a, c) | \exists b\ (a, b) \in R_1 \wedge (b, c) \in R_2\}$. Basically if aR_1b and bR_2c, we can say $a\ R_1 \cdot R_2\ c$. It turns out this is same as boolean matrix multiplication. Let's derive this. If $a_i R c_j$, there should be k such that $a_i R b_k$ and $b_k R c_j$. So we must have $a_i R b_1 \wedge b_1 R c_j$, or $a_i R b_2 \wedge b_2 R c_j$, or ... This is summation terms, simplifies to $\sum_{r=1}^{k} a_i R b_r \wedge b_r R c_j$ where we treat summation as logical or. This is exactly how we define matrix multiplication.

Other operations on relations are union and intersection. Since relations are just sets, these are defined just how we define them on sets.

For relations on a set A, that is $R : A \to A$, we have some more definitions.

- Identity Relation: $a_1 R a_2 \iff a_1 = a_2$. This would be represented as an identity matrix.
- Symmetric Relation: $a_1 R a_2 \implies a_2 R a_1$. This relations form symmetric matrices, and satisfy $R^{-1} = R$.
- Transitive Relation: $\forall a_1, a_2, a_3,\ a_1 R a_2 \wedge a_2 R a_3 \implies a_1 R a_3$
- Anti-symmetric Relation: $a_1 R a_2 \wedge a_2 R a_1 \implies a_1 = a_2$. This is like the opposite of symmetric, basically 2 distinct numbers are never related both ways.

19 Lecture 19

Relation $R : A \to A$ is said to be an equivalence relation if it is symmetric, reflexive and transitive.

Equivalence relations are special, and they can work as an equality operator too. This is because when we say 2 things are 'equal', we have some predefined notions of equality. Firstly, every element is equal to itself. Also if $a = b$ then $b = a$. And finally if $a = b$, $b = c$, $c = a$. Now if we just replace '=' with 'R' we get the definition of an equivalence relation.

In fact given a function $f : A \to B$, define R like this:
$a_1 R a_2 \iff f(a_1) = f(a_2)$. Any such R is an equivalence relation (it can be proved by

using the properties of '='). Such an R is called the kernel of f, it bascially says 2 elements are identical if f maps them to the same thing.

The converse also turns out to be true. If R is an equivalence relation on a set A, there exists a function $f : A \to B$ such that R is the kernel of f, that is $a_1 R a_2 \iff f(a_1) = f(a_2)$.

Exercise 19.1. *Can you prove the converse explicitly i.e. can you construct the function f given R?*

Solution. Yes you can, take the function as $f : A \to 2^A$ to be $f(a) = \{x | x \in A \wedge aRx\}$, or in words, $f(a)$ is the set of all elements related to a. Now to prove that this R is the kernel of f. First let's prove that if aRb, then $f(a) = f(b)$.

$f(a)$ and $f(b)$ are sets, so we do what we do normally to show 2 sets are equal. Assume $x \in f(a)$ i.e aRx. Since R is symmetric, xRa, and we already have aRb so xRb as R is transitive. This also implies bRx so $x \in f(b)$. So what we've done finally is $x \in f(a) \implies x \in f(b)$ i.e. $f(a) \subseteq f(b)$. Similarly we can show $f(b) \subseteq f(a)$ so $f(a) = f(b)$.

Now for the converse, what we'll do is prove if aRb is false, $f(a) \neq f(b)$. This is not too hard, as $b \in f(b)$ as R is reflexive, but $b \notin f(a)$ as aRb is false.

From this exercise, we can further say that the kernel of a function f basically partitions the set A into non-empty subsets of elements, such that inside a subset, all elements are related to each other. Define $R(a) = \{x | x \in A \wedge aRx\}$. For all a, this set is non-empty as $a \in R(a)$. But we need to show this is a valid partitioning i.e. there can't be overlaps between these sets. Specifically, we have to show for any a, b, $R(a) = R(b)$ or $R(a)$ and $R(b)$ are disjoint. So suppose they were not disjoint, and have a common element c. So aRc and bRc. But now using the properties of an equivalence relation, we can get aRb and once we got that, we can prove $R(a) = R(b)$ in the same way as the exercise (in the exercise, we weren't given an f so we defined $f(a)$ the same way as we did for $R(a)$ here). So we're done, R partitions A into disjoint sets. Now showing every element in a set is related to each other can be done by symmetric and transitive properties, as in each set $R(a)$ all elements are related to a. So equivalence classes form a partition of the set A, and 2 elements are related if and only if they are in the same equivalence class.

Take the example $g(n) = n \mod m$. This partitions N into m equivalence classes, which are $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots, m-1\}$ based on the remainder you get when you divide by m. Another example is $f(n) = gcd(n, m)$. The equivalence classes here are all the divisors of m, as $gcd(n, m)$ has to be a divisor of m.

In this particular case, are f and g related? Yes, as if we know $g(n)$, we also know $f(n)$. This is from the fact that $gcd(n, m) = gcd(n \mod m, m)$. This means $g(n)$ actually groups equivalence classes of $f(n)$ into bigger equivalence classes. We call $g(n)$ a *refinement* of $f(n)$, as looking at things the other way around, $g(n)$ takes equivalence classes of $f(n)$ and refines/divides them into more equivalence classes.

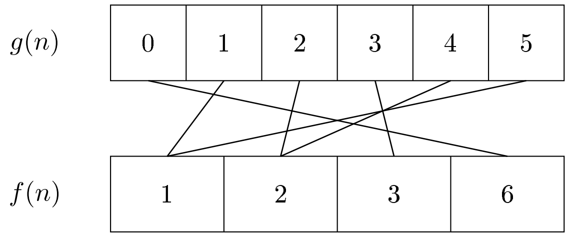

Figure 11: Showing how $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ are linked

Now just like equivalence relations, there's another special type of relation called partial order. R is called a partial order on a set A if it is reflexive, *anti*-symmetric, and transitive. An example of a partial order we have seen before is just $\leq$. Another partial order which can be defined on a set of sets. $A\ R\ B =$ there is a one-one function from A to B [17]. Here what makes this relation anti-symmetric is Schröder-Bernstein, reflexive and transitive are easier to prove. A subset relation between sets is also a partial order i.e. $X_1 R X_2$ only when $X_1 \subseteq X_2$.

Exercise 19.2. *Prove that R is a partial order on a set A if and only if there is an injective function $f : A \to 2^A$ such that $a_1 R a_2$ if and only if $f(a_1) \subseteq f(a_2)$*

Solution. Let's prove one way first, if the function exists then R is a partial order. R is reflexive as $aRa = f(a) \subseteq f(a)$ which is always true. R is also anti symmetric as $aRb \wedge bRa$ is basically $f(a) \subseteq f(b) \wedge f(b) \subseteq f(a)$. And this means $f(a) = f(b) \implies a = b$ as the function is injective. And for transitive, $aRb \wedge bRc$ means $f(a) \subseteq f(b) \wedge f(b) \subseteq f(c)$. From set properties, $f(a) \subseteq f(c)$ which means aRc.

Now for the other way, where we are given a partial order R and have to construct a function. We can just map each element to the set which it relates to actually. That is, $f(a) = \{x | x \in A \wedge xRa\}$. Now we have to prove the property $aRb \iff f(a) \subseteq f(b)$. Let's prove it forward first, say aRb. Now to prove one set is a subset of the other we do our usual method. $x \in f(a) \implies xRa$. But since aRb and R is transitive, we can say that $xRb \implies x \in f(b)$. So now that we have proved $x \in f(a) \implies x \in f(b)$ we conclude $f(a) \subseteq f(b)$. Now say $f(a) \subseteq f(b)$, we have to prove aRb. As R is reflexive, $aRa \implies a \in f(a)$. Since $f(a) \subseteq f(b)$, $a \in f(b)$. This means aRb, so we are done.

20 Lecture 20

Exercise 20.1. *Suppose there is a bijection from $A \times A$ to A. Prove that there exists a bijection from $A \times A \times A$ to A. Proceed by induction to show that there's a bijection from A^k to A.*

We define $A^+ = \cup_{k=1}^{\infty} A^k$ or in words, set of finite sequences of elements from A. If in addition it's given that A is infinite, then show there's a bijection from A^+ to A.

Solution. Suppose the bijection we are given is f. For the bijection from A^3 to A, define it as $g_3(a_1, a_2, a_3) = f(f(a_1, a_2), a_3)$. Let's first proof g_3 is injective. If $f(f(a_1, a_2), a_3) = f(f(b_1, b_2), b_3)$, $f(a_1, a_2) = f(b_1, b_2)$ and $a_3 = b_3$ from the fact that f is injective. And for the same reason, from the first equality we get $a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 = b_2$. So g is injective. Now for surjectivity, we know for all a we can find x_1, x_2 such that $f(x_1, x_2) = a$ from the fact that f is surjective. We can also find y_1, y_2 such that $f(y_1, y_2) = x_1$. So in the end we have found y_1, y_2, x_1 such that $f(f(y_1, y_2), x_2) = a$ which is $g_3(y_1, y_2, x_2) = a$ which proves that g_3 is surjective.

Induction will work very similarly. For $k = 1$, g_1 is the identity function, for $k = 2$ $g_2 = f$, for $k = 3$ we have done above. We define g_k inductively as follows:

$$g_k(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k) = f(g_{k-1}(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{k-1}), a_k)^{18}$$

[17] For this relation we consider 2 sets as equal if their cardinalities are equal, not them being equal in the normal sense

[18] I am not going to prove why inductive definitions are valid, but just assume this definition is fine for now, else check Tutorial solutions for rigorous stuff

Now that g_k is defined, we can prove it is bijective recursively, our base case is the identity function which is easy to prove. Suppose $g_k(\bar{a}) = g_k(\bar{b})$ that is $f(g_{k-1}(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{k-1}), a_k) = f(g_{k-1}(b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_{k-1}), b_k)$. From the one-one property of f, we can say $a_k = b_k$, and g_{k-1} of the rest of the a_i's is equal to g_{k-1} of the rest of the b_i's. But from our induction assumption g_{k-1} is one-one, so we get $a_i = b_i$ for all i from 1 to $k-1$. So this proves $\bar{a} = \bar{b}$.

For surjectivity, we need to find $\bar{x}$ such that $g_k(\bar{x}) = a$ for all a. Firstly we can find x_1, x_2 such that $f(x_1, x_2) = a$. Then from the surjectivity of g_{k-1} we can find $a_1, \ldots, a_{k-1}$ such that $g_{k-1}(a_1, \ldots, a_{k-1}) = x_1$. Now if we just choose $a_k = x_2$ we get $g_k(a_1, \ldots, a_k) = f(g_{k-1}(a_1, \ldots, a_{k-1}), a_k) = f(x_1, x_2) = a$.

Now for the A^+ part of the question. For this part we don't find a bijection explicitly, but find a one-one function both ways. For a one-one function from A to A^+, we can just have the identity function. Now for the other way.

Since we're given A is infinite, let us choose an infinite sequence of elements in A, such that all are distinct, say they are $x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots$ [19] Now for any element in $\bar{a} \in A$, we define our function as follows:

$$g(\bar{a}) = f(g_k(\bar{a}), x_k) \text{ where k is the number of elements of } \bar{a}$$

Now to prove that it is one-one, say $g(\bar{a}) = g(\bar{b})$ which means $g_m(\bar{a}) = g_n(\bar{b})$ and $x_m = x_n$ assuming $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{b}$ have m and n elements respectively. We can conclude $m = n$ as the set of x_i's are unique. This also means g_m and g_n are the same function, so if $g_m(\bar{a}) = g_n(\bar{b})$ then $\bar{a} = \bar{b}$ as g_m is bijective hence one-one. So we have proved g is one-one.

Now that we have a one-one function both ways, there exists a bijection from A to A^+

Exercise 20.2. *We have a set A with n elements, and a relation R on A. We define a* minimum *element of A as the following. $m \in A$ is minimum if mRa for all a, and $aRm \implies a = m$. Suppose that a_iRa_j takes some constant time to access, find an algorithm to find the minimum element of A in linear time.*

Solution. First of all, not all relations have a minimal element m, for example the identity relation. But we can say there can be only 1 minimal element. Say m_1 and m_2 are minimal elements. m_1Rm_2 as m_1 is minimum, but from the fact that m_2 is minimal, $m_1 = m_2$.

Now for the algorithm, we do something very similar to how we find minimum element of an array. We initialize the minimum variable to the first element of the set. Then we iterate through the set, and if a_iRmin, weupdate min to be a_i. At the end of this loop min will be a candidate for the minimum element.

Now why does this algorithm work here too? The idea is the following: no matter what the result of a_iRa_j [20], we can be sure one of them is not the minimum element. Suppose a_iRa_j is true, in that case a_j is not the min as a_iRmin is never true when $a_i \neq min$. If a_iRa_j is false, a_i is not the min as $minRa_j$ should always be true. So our algorithm will always have min as a candidate for the minimum. At any stage if we find a_iRmin is false, we continue as we already know a_i is not a candidate. If a_iRmin is true, we know a_i is a candidate so we update the value of min to a_i.

But at the end of this algorithm, we aren't guaranteed the min is actually the minimum of A. We need to check for all the elements of A whether $minRa$ is always true and $aRmin$ is only true when $a = min$. But this also takes linear time, so the algorithm overall is still linear.

[19] Again this might seem obviously possible but we need axioms before saying things like this

[20] Assuming $i \neq j$

21 Lecture 21

We'll discuss **Counting with Symmetries**, or counting the number of equivalence classes of an equivalence relation. Now what do we exactly mean by symmetries? Sometimes when we are counting, we'll consider some elements to be equal. Maybe when we're tossing a coin twice, and we only care about the number of heads, we'll consider HT and TH to be equivalent. So how do we know when 2 elements are equivalent in general? We will have a set of functions, which only maps elements to equivalent elements. In our coin toss example, we will have such a function, which is swapping the values of the 2 tosses (in general when there are n tosses the symmetry functions will be the set of all permutation functions).

Let A be a finite set, and G be a set of bijections from A to A with the property that

1. $I \in G$ (Identity relation)
2. $f \in G \implies f^{-1} \in G$
3. $f \in G \land g \in G \implies f \cdot g \in G$

With these set of symmetries defined, we define R on A such that $a_1 R a_2$ if and only if $\exists f \in G$ such that $f(a_1) = a_2$. The 3 restrictions on the set G we have placed actually ensure R is an equivalence relation. We know $I \in G$ and $I(a) = a$ so $aRa \forall a$. If aRb, $\exists f \in G$ $f(a_1) = a_2$ This means $f^{-1}(b) = a$ and $f^{-1} \in G$ so bRa. Say aRb and bRc i.e. $f \in G \land f(a) = b$ and $g \in G \land g(b) = c$. Now since $f \cdot g \in G$, $(f \cdot g)(a) = c$ so aRc too. Now given G, we desire to count the number of equivalence classes in R.

Let's define a new function $Fix : A \to 2^G$. $Fix(x)$ is defined as the set of functions $f \in G$ such that $f(x) = x$, or basically the set of functions which *fix* x. We claim that if xRy, the number of functions $f \in G$ such that $f(x) = y$ is $|Fix(x)|$ or the number of elements in $Fix(x)$. To prove this, first we'll find $|Fix(x)|$ solutions, and then show that these are the only solutions. For any function $g \in Fix(x)$, $f(g(x)) = f(x) = y$ so we have found $|Fix(x)|$ solutions already as we can do this for all g in $Fix(x)$. Now we'll show that all such functions are of the form $f(g(x))$. If we have a general function such that $h(x) = y$, $h(x) = f(f^{-1}(h(x)))$, so if we just show that the inside, $f^{-1}(h(x))$ is a function in $Fix(x)$ we are done. But $f^{-1}(h(x)) = f^{-1}(y) = x$. Since the function fixes x, it is in $Fix(x)$ so we are done.

This result is useful in answering the question: how many elements are related to x? This is just the number of unique elements $f \in G$ maps x to, but how to calculate this? If you just think the answer is $|G|$, it's not correct as we are overcounting, many functions could map x to the same element. But it turns out we are overcounting by a factor of *exactly* $|Fix(x)|$. This is because there are exactly $|Fix(x)|$ functions mapping x to x. And there are exactly $|Fix(x)|$ functions mapping x to y (where y is some element x is related to). So all we have to do is divide by this factor, so the number of elements related to x is $\frac{|G|}{|Fix(x)|}$

We can finally answer our question, just look at the summation

$$\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{\text{no. of elements related to } x}$$

We claim that this counts the number of equivalence relations. To see why this is true, evaluate the summation by adding terms of the same equivalence class together. Let's just take an example, say $\{x_1, x_2\}$ form one equivalence class, and $\{x_3, x_4, x_5\}$ form another. This summation would be $1/2 + 1/2 + 1/3 + 1/3 + 1/3 = 2$. We can see that the summation for each equivalence class is 1 because if it has size n, we are just adding $1/n$, n times. So this summations adds 1 for each equivalence class, which means it counts the number of equivalence classes.

Now that we have a formula for number of elements related to x too, the summation is just $\sum_{x \in A} \frac{|Fix(x)|}{|G|}$. Here's a way to think about the numerator, if we take the summation to the top. For each element in A, we are counting the number of functions that fix it. This is the number of element-function pairs where the function fixes the element. But if we can count this by iterating across the functions also. For each function, we can count the number of elements the function fixes. So we can rewrite our answer as

$$\sum_{f \in G} \frac{\text{no. of elements fixed by } f}{|G|}$$

This is the average number of elements fixed by the bijections in G.

22 Lecture 22

We have 2 ways to count the number of equivalence classes. Since the numerator is number of element-function pairs such that function(element) = element, we can count it by iterating on the elements, or the functions. One might be a lot easier than the other, depending on the question. This result is called **Burnside's Lemma**. Let's now solve the counting necklaces problem:

We have a necklace of n beads. Each bead can be coloured with any one of k colours. How many necklaces are there? Note that necklaces don't have a first bead so we consider circularly rotated necklaces as the same necklace. But we're not allowing flipping of the necklace, just for the sake of this question.

To solve this question, first we need a way to represent these necklaces. We represent them as a set of strings of length n, allowing each character to have k options (alphabet size is k). This set A has n^k strings, but not all of them are distinct necklaces. So we need a set of operations which change the string, but keep it as the same necklace. Clearly these functions have to be the set of circular shifts. So the set of bijections is $G = \{S_0, S_1, \ldots, S_{n-1}\}$ where S_i is a (left) circular shift by i characters. For example, $S_2(abcde) = cdeab$. It's easy to verify G has all the properties of a group. $I = S_0$ is in G. The inverse of S_i is just S_{n-i} as applying both is just shifting by n, which is equal to doing nothing. And composing S_a, S_b is just performing S_{a+b}[21].

Since we have just n symmetries, it's going to be easier to iterate over them. Let's just try a few examples. Firstly all strings are fixed in S_0, so $Fix(S_0) = k^n$. If a string is fixed in S_1, we have $a_1 a_2 \ldots a_{n-1} a_n = a_2 a_3 \ldots a_n a_1$. If these strings are equal, we must have $a_1 = a_2, a_2 = a_3, \ldots, a_n = a_1$, so basically all letters have to be equal. There are k such strings. Now for S_2, we actually have to take cases.

Say n is even, the indices in the equality will differ by 2. We will have $a_1 = a_3 = a_5 = \cdots = a_{n-1} = a_1$ and it repeats. Similarly we will have $a_2 = a_4 = \cdots = a_n = a_2$. So we will have 2 sets of elements which must be equal. There's one letter choice for the first equality chain, and another for the second equality chain, so k^2 strngs are possible. But take the case where n is odd, the equality chain will be $a_1 = a_3 = \cdots = a_n = a_2 = a_4 = \cdots = a_{n-1}$.

[21] after taking $a + b \mod n$, from now on whenever we use the notation S_i, we are considering $i \mod n$, as that's all that matters about i, shifting by a multiple of n does nothing

So we actually cover all letters of our string, which means there are only k^1 strings in this case.

From here we can see the pattern, the number of strings fixed by a function is just the number of equality strings, so all we have to do is calculate that in general. Say we are trying to find this quantity for S_m. We'll get the chain $a_i = a_{m+i} = a_{2m+i} = \dots$. It now just becomes a number theory problem, which elements are in the set $\{i, m+i, 2m+i, \dots\}$ after reducing everything modulo n. The answer is actually i + all multiples of d, where $d = gcd(m, n)$. Let's prove why this is true. Say p appears in our set. So we have a solution $p = xm + i \mod n$ or we have a solution for $p = xm + i - yn$. This can be rewritten as $p - i = xm - yn$. We have already seen that RHS can be any multiple of gcd by varying x, y, and can only be a multiple of the gcd. So we'll have a solution for p if and only if, $p - i$ is a multiple of the gcd.

We now need to count how many equality chains we have. The chains are multiples of d, 1+ multiples of d, ... So there are d chains actually as you have exactly d remainders. So to summarize, number of chains fixed by $S_m = k^{gcd(m,n)}$. So our final answer is going to be the following:

$$\frac{\sum_{m=0}^{n-1} k^{gcd(m,n)}}{|G|} = \frac{\sum_{m=0}^{n-1} k^{gcd(m,n)}}{n} = \frac{\sum_{d|n} \phi(\frac{n}{d}) k^d}{n}$$

How we get the last term is just by reordering the summation based on $gcd(m, n)$. For every divisor of d we have seen that there are $\phi(\frac{n}{d})$ m's with $gcd(m, n) = d$. So we'll have to add k^d that many times.

Now let's solve the problem allowing reflections too. Now G no longer has just S_0 to S_m, it also has RS_0 to RS_n, where R is a reflection operation. $R(a_0 a_1 \dots a_{n-1}) = a_{n-1} a_{n-2} \dots a_0$. RS_m is a function which shifts by m and then reverses. Being specific, since S_m takes a_i to a_{i+m} and R takes a_i to a_{n-1-i}. RS_m takes a_i to $a_{n-1-(i+m)}$. Something to note is that RS_m is the inverse of itself, this is because $RS_m(RS_m(a_i)) = RS_m(a_{n-1-(i+m)}) = a_{n-1-\{n-1-(i+m)\}+m)} = a_i$[22].

To extend our solution to the reflection case, we just need to add the number of strings fixed my RS_m to our summation, our old summation should still be there. Now since that RS_m is the inverse of itself, all equality chains can have a maximum size of only 2, because applying RS_m twice brings each element back to its original position. All that we have to be careful of is when does the equality chain have size 1. This happens whenever $i = n - 1 - (i + m)$ or $2i = n - 1 - m$.

We split into cases for this. When n is odd, $2i = n - 1 - m \mod n$ has a unique solution for i, as $2, n$ are coprime. So there'll be exactly 1 equality chain of length 1 and the rest will be paired up. This results in $\frac{n+1}{2}$ total chains. Now suppose n is even, and let $k = n - 1 - m$ to clean up the notation. If k is odd, we'll have no solution as $2i - k \neq 0 \mod n$, and odd number can't be divisible by n. All equality chains are of size 2, hence we have $\frac{n}{2}$ equality chains. If k is even, $2(i - \frac{k}{2})$ must be divisible by n i.e. $i - \frac{k}{2}$ must be divisible by $\frac{n}{2}$. This fixes $i \mod \frac{n}{2}$, so there are exactly 2 solutions for i modulo n. So we have $2 + \frac{n-2}{2} = \frac{n}{2} + 1$ equality chains. It's also easy to see that there are $\frac{n}{2}$ choices for m to make k odd, and $\frac{n}{2}$ choices for m to make k even.

[22] We can also prove this intuitively. Think about rotating a necklace and flipping it. Now if we do that again, the rotation undos the previous rotation as the necklace is flipped, so now flipping it back undos everything.

So here's the final answer for reflections:

$$\frac{\sum \phi(\frac{n}{d})k^d + nk^{\frac{n+1}{2}}}{2n} \text{ when n is odd}$$

$$\frac{\sum \phi(\frac{n}{d})k^d + \frac{n}{2}(k^{\frac{n}{2}} + k^{\frac{n}{2}+1})}{2n} \text{ when n is even}$$

23 Lecture 23

Midsem paper distribution and solutions :|

24 Lecture 24

Partial orders: a partial order on a set A is a relation $\leq$ which is reflexive, anti-symmetric and transitive. The normal $\leq$ is a partial order, but has the additional property that any 2 elements are comparable. We say a, b are *comparable* if $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$. A general partial order may not have comparable elements, for example take the partial order 'is a subset of' and the elements $a = \{1\}, b = \{2\}$. From now on we'll also assume A is a finite set.

Given a partial order $\leq$, we can define the relation $<$, $a < b$ if and only if $a \leq b \wedge a \neq b$. We can also define a covering relation $< \cdot$, we have $a < \cdot\, b$ if and only if $a < b$ and there is no c such that $a < c \wedge c < b$. This is called a covering relation, we say 'a is covered by b' if $a < b$ and there is no element between a and b. We call $\leq$ as the 'reflexive and transitive closure' of $< \cdot$. By this term, we mean the smallest superset of $< \cdot$ which contains all pairs which ensure reflexivity and transitivity of our new relation. In general if R is a relation, $\cup_{i=0}^{\infty} R^i$ is the reflexive and transitive closure of R. We add pairs in R^0 to ensure reflexity, and $R, R^2, \ldots$ to ensure transitivity.

Exercise 24.1. *Prove that $\cup_{i=0}^{\infty} R^i$ is the smallest superset of R such that it is reflexive and transitive*

Solution. Let's call our closure set that we need to be S. We know $I \subseteq S$ from reflexivity, and $R \subseteq S$. We can prove by induction on i that $R^i \subseteq S$. Any pair $(a, c) \in R^{i+1}$ must satisfy aR^ib and bRc for some b. But this would mean aSb and bSc too as $R^i, R \subseteq S$. By transitivity of S, aSc too. So what we have shown is that an arbitrary element of R^{i+1} is in S, so $R^{i+1} \subseteq S$. Now that we've shown this for all i, we can just take union of all these susbets, which should also be a subset of S. So $\cup_{i=0}^{\infty} R^i \subseteq S$.

Now to show to equality instead of subset, we just have to show that $R' = \cup_{i=0}^{\infty} R^i$ is reflexive and transitive itself. Firstly, it's clearly reflexive as $I \subseteq R'$, and aIa, so $aR'a$ for all a. Now to show transitivity, say $(a, b) \in R'$ and $(b, c) \in R'$. This would mean $(a, b) \in R^x$ and $(b, c) \in R^y$ for some (x, y). But then $(a, c) \in R^{x+y}$ and $R^{x+y} \subseteq R'$, so $aR'c$. This proves that R' is transitive. So we're done, as we've shown that elements in union of R^i are necessarily there in S, and it's sufficient to have just these elements.

Given a partial order, it's possible to construct something known as a *Hasse diagram.* This is represent all elements of the sets as nodes, and drawing arrows between a and b if a is covered by b.

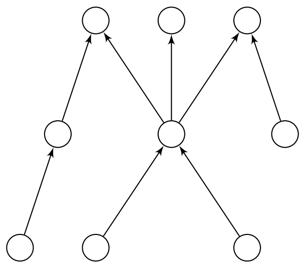

Figure 12: Example of Hasse Diagram

Such covering relations aren't always possible to define when we have posets which are infinite. Take the example of the set of integers with ∞ and $-\infty$. The $\leq$ is clearly defined, but $<\cdot$ can't really be defined as nothing covers $-\infty$ as there's no smallest integer, even though it's related to everything. A maximal chain also isn't a subset of any other chain.

A chain in a poset is a set of elements which are all pairwise comparable. In the Hasse diagram, they must all be part of the same linked list. But they need not be a set of adjacent elements in the list. But a *maximal chain* is one which has as many elements in the chain as possible. Here are a few examples of relations and their corresponding covering relation. An *antichain* is the opposite of a chain, it's a set of elements where none of them are pairwise comparable.

- $a \leq b$ if a is a subset of b. Covering relation is if $b = a \cup \{x\}$, basically has 1 element extra
- $a \leq b$ if b is a multiple of a. Covering relation is if $\frac{b}{a}$ is a prime
- $a \leq b$ if a is a refinement of b. Covering relation is if b is formed by merging 2 sets of a

Given a poset, a *minimum* element is one which is $\leq$ all other elements. It must be comparable to every element and must be lesser than it. Whereas a *minimal* element is one where no other element is $\leq$ it. Whenever a minimal element is comparable with something else, it must be lesser than it. Here are a few facts/dependencies between them:

- Every finite set need not have a minimum element but must have a minimal element
- There can be at most 1 minimum element but there can be multiple minimal elements
- A minimum element is always minimal, but minimal elements need not be minimum
- If a set has a minimum element, it is the only minimal element, and a set with multiple minimal elements doesn't have a minimum

We have analogous definitions for maximum and maximal element.

There's a result we have regarding chains and antichains: In a finite poset, the largest size of a chain is the minimum number of antichains into which the poset can be partitioned.

We can prove this by inducting on the size of the largest chain, say k. When $k = 1$, it means largest chain is 1. This is only possible if no elements are related, so the whole set is an antichain, and this is our partition. Now let's say largest chain size is k. Let's look at the set of all minimal elements in the poset. Can any of them be comparable? No, because if

$a < b$, it contradicts the fact that b is minimal. So since they're pairwise not comparable, they form an antichain. What we do is remove these elements and keep them as one set of our partition. Now from the remaining set, if we partition it into $k - 1$ antichains we are done. What's the largest size of a chain in the new set? It's actually at most $k - 1$, because we have removed all the minimal elements, and every maximal chain must have a minimal element (else you could extend the chain downwards). And also our old largest chain has size $k - 1$ now as we couldn't have deleted more than one element from the chain except the minimal element (we only deleted minimal elements). So from these 2 facts, the new largest chain has size $k - 1$. So we can apply induction to the remaining set, and we are done.

Dilworth's Theorem: In a finite poset, the largest size of an antichain is the minimum number of chains into which the poset can be partitioned.