

Note 6: Modular Arithmetic 0183 dot

Thrm 6.1. For all $n \geq 1$ and $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$, the following are true: 1. If $a \equiv_n b$ and $c \equiv_n d$, then $a+c \equiv_n b+d$ 2. If $a \equiv_n b$ and $c \equiv_n d$, then $a \cdot c \equiv_n b \cdot d$ (Direct proof)

Multiplicative Inverse: $a \cdot b \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Thrm 6.2. Let n, x be positive integers. Then x has a multiplicative inverse modulo n if and only if $\gcd(n, x) = 1$. Moreover, if it exists, then the multiplicative inverse is unique. (Two-step proof by contradiction)

Euclid's Algorithm: Assumes $x \geq y \geq 0$ and $x > 0$. Outputs $\gcd(x, y)$.

$\gcd(x, y)$: if $y = 0$, then return x ; else, return $\gcd(y, x \pmod{y})$

Thrm 6.3. Let $x \geq y$ and let q, r be natural numbers such $x = yq + r$ and $r < y$. Then $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(y, r)$. (Direct proof)

Extended Euclid GCD: Assumes $x \geq y \geq 0$ and $x > 0$. Outputs (d, a, b) where $d = \gcd(x, y)$ and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $d = ax + by$.

extended-gcd(x, y): if $y = 0$, then return $(x, 1, 0)$; else, let $(d, a, b) := \text{extended-gcd}(y, x \pmod{y})$; return $(d, b, a - [x/y]b)$

Thrm 6.4. If x and y satisfy the preconditions of extended-gcd, then the output (d, a, b) of extended-gcd(x, y) satisfy its postconditions. (Strong induction)

Note 7: Bijections and RSA 8707 \exists 8704 \forall 8715 \exists

Bijection: a function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a bijection iff for all $b \in B$, \exists a unique pre-image $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$.

onto or surjective: $\forall b \in B, \exists a \in A$ s.t. $f(a) = b$.

one-to-one or injective: no two inputs \rightarrow same output unless they are the same input

Lemma 7.1. A function $f : A \rightarrow A$ is a bijection iff there is an inverse function $g : A \rightarrow A$ such that $g(f(x)) = x$ and $f(g(y)) = y$ for all $x, y \in A$ (Direct proof)

Thrm 7.1. [Fermat's Little Theorem] For any prime p and any $a \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, we have $ap-1 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. (Two-step direct proof)

RSA: two-key cipher using primes and bijections; $E(x) \equiv x^e \pmod{N}$; $D(y) \equiv y^d \pmod{N}$; where $N=pq$ for large primes $p \& q$, e relatively prime to $(p-1)(q-1)$, $E=\{0, \dots, N-1\}$. Inverse functions.

Thrm 7.2. For E and D as defined above, we have $D(E(x)) = x \pmod{N}$ for all $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$

Note 8: Polynomials (also 9)

Property 1: A non-zero polynomial of degree d has at most d roots. (Two-step direct proof)

Property 2: Given $d+1$ pairs $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$, with all the x_i distinct, there is a unique polynomial $p(x)$ of degree (at most) d such that $p(x_i) = y_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq d+1$.

Polynomial Division: $p(x) = q(x)q'(x) + r(x)$

GF(m) [Galois Field]: polynomials in mod m (prime m)

Lagrange Interpolation: $p(x) = \sum_{d+1} y_i \Delta_i(x)$; where $\Delta_i(x) = \prod_{j \neq i} (x - x_j) / \prod_{j \neq i} (x_i - x_j)$.

Secret Sharing: create $n-1$ degree polynomial where any n people can decode secret via interpolation, $GF(m)$ where m is a large prime, secret is $P(0)$

Erasure Correction: create $n-1$ degree polynomial, send $n+k$ packets, work over $GF(q)$ where q is sufficiently large (k is errors)

Corruption Correction: same as erasure, send $2k$ additional packets; need $\geq n+k$ packets in agreement (k is possible errors)

Berlekamp-Welch algorithm:

$$Q(x) = a_{n+k-1}x^{n+k-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$$

$$E(x) = x^k + b_{k-1}x^{k-1} + \dots + b_1x + b_0$$

$n+2k$ linear equations in $n+2k$ unknowns. Unknowns correspond to the coefficients of $E(x)$ and $Q(x)$. (where we define $Q(x) = P(x)E(x)$). Once $Q(x)$ and $E(x)$ are known, we can divide $Q(x)$ by $E(x)$ to obtain $P(x)$.

$$Q(x) = P(x)E(x) = r_x E(x), \text{ where } E(x) = (x - e_1) \dots (x - e_k)$$

Note 10: Infinity and Countability

Cardinality: size of a set; to prove same cardinality demonstrate a bijection between sets

Countable: bijection between S and \mathbb{N} or a subset of \mathbb{N}

Cantor-Bernstein Thrm: If there is a one-to-one function $f : A \rightarrow B$, then the cardinality of A is less than or equal to that of B . Show cardinality of A and B are equal by showing $|A| \leq |B|$ and $|B| \leq |A|$ (there is a one-to-one function $f : A \rightarrow B$ and a one-to-one function $g : B \rightarrow A$). The existence of these two one-to-one functions implies that there is a bijection $h : A \rightarrow B$, thus showing that A and B have the same cardinality.

Cantor's Diagonalization Proof: Suppose towards a contradiction that there is a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}[0,1]$. Enumerate list with real numbers $0.d_1d_2d_3\dots$; diagonal is a real number D , make number s by adding 2 mod 10 to every each digit. Number is either n^{th} on the list (contradiction b/c of n^{th} digits of n^{th} number, D , and s) or not (contradictions f 's bijectivity)

Note 11: Self-Reference and Uncomputability

Quine: a program that prints itself

Recursion Thrm: given any program $P(x, y)$, can always convert it to another program $Q(x)$ such that $Q(x) = P(x, Q)$, i.e., Q behaves exactly as P would if its second input is the description of the program Q

Halting Problem: does the program go in an infinite loop? (*Proof involving self-reference and non-separation of programs and data. Proof by diagonalization*)

TestHalt(P,x): if halts on P , "yes"; else, "no"

Consider $\text{TestHalt}(P, P)$. Define $\text{Turing}(P)$.

Turing(P): if $\text{TestHalt}(P, P)$, then loop; else, halt

What about $\text{Turing}(\text{Turing})$? If halts, $\text{TestHalt}()$ should have returned "no" in $\text{Turing}()$, but by definition should have returned "yes". Vice versa.

All halting problems reduce to this. (e.g. show if we can solve Easy Halting Problem, we can solve Halting Problem; but we can't solve Halting Problem)

Godel's Incompleteness Theorem: Arithmetic cannot be both consistent and complete (i.e. axioms exist). If a system T contains statement of its own consistency, T is inconsistent.

(You're probably fucked for this section.)

Note 12: Counting

First Rule of Counting: With k choices, n_1 ways for first choice, n_2 for the second for each result of first choice, etc, to the k^{th} choice (n_k ways), total number of results is product of number of ways.

Second Rule of Counting: If order of choices doesn't matter, use first rule then divide by number of orderings. (e.g. $A_1NA_2GRA_3M = 7!/3!$)

N choose K: $(n \ k) = n! / [(n-k)!k!]$

Balls and bins: How many ways to put k balls into n bins? (e.g. 3 balls 5 bins; dist = distinguishable)

Balls dist, bins dist: n^k (e.g. 5^3)

Balls indist, bins dist: $(k+n-1 \ k)$ (e.g. $(7 \ 3)$)

Balls indist, bins indist: brute force (e.g. 3)

Balls dist, bins indist: brute force/Stirling #'s (e.g. 5)

Bins need to be dist for ez stuff. Bit strings similar. Indist. balls = replacement, order does not matter.

Note 25: Probability (also 13-16)

Probability Space: a sample space Ω , together with a probability $\text{Pr}[\omega]$ for each sample point ω , such that

- $0 \leq \text{Pr}[\omega] \leq 1$ for all $\omega \in \Omega$.
- $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} \text{Pr}[\omega] = 1$, i.e., the sum of the probabilities of all outcomes is 1.
- For any event $A \subseteq \Omega$, we define the probability of A to be $\text{Pr}[A] = \sum_{\omega \in A} \text{Pr}[\omega]$.

Sample point: outcome of random experiment

Sample space: Ω , set of all possible outcomes

Definition 14.1 (Conditional Probability). For events A, B in the same probability space, such that $\text{Pr}[B] > 0$, the conditional probability of A given B is $\text{Pr}[A | B] = \text{Pr}[A \cap B] / \text{Pr}[B]$.

Bayes' Rule: (useful when given $\text{Pr}[B | A]$)
 $\text{Pr}[A | B] = \text{Pr}[A \cap B] / \text{Pr}[B] = \text{Pr}[B | A] \text{Pr}[A] / \text{Pr}[B]$.
 $(\text{Pr}[B | A] = \text{Pr}[B \cap A] / \text{Pr}[A])$

Total Probability Rule: (dividing $\text{Pr}[B]$ into cases)
 $\text{Pr}[B] = \text{Pr}[A \cap B] + \text{Pr}[A^c \cap B] = \text{Pr}[B | A] \text{Pr}[A] + \text{Pr}[B | A^c] \text{Pr}[A^c]$.
 $\text{Pr}[A | B] = \text{Pr}[B | A] \text{Pr}[A] / \text{Pr}[B | A] \text{Pr}[A] + \text{Pr}[B | A^c] \text{Pr}[A^c]$.

Definition 14.2 (Independence). Two events A, B in the same probability space are independent if $\text{Pr}[A \cap B] = \text{Pr}[A] \times \text{Pr}[B]$

Definition 14.3 (Mutual independence). Events A_1, \dots, A_n are mutually independent if for every subset $I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$, $\text{Pr}[\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i] = \prod_{i \in I} \text{Pr}[A_i]$. (Basically everything is independent of everything else.)
 $\text{Pr}[A_{i1} \cap A_{i2} \cap \dots \cap A_{in}] = \text{Pr}[A_{i1}] \times \dots \times \text{Pr}[A_{in}]$

Definition 16.1 (Random Variable). A random variable X on a sample space Ω is a function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that assigns to each sample point $\omega \in \Omega$ a real number $X(\omega)$.

Random variables discrete; countably infinite. Not actually random and not actually a variable. What is random is which sample point of the experiment is realized and hence the value that the random variable maps the sample point to. (Kinda like a histogram?)

Definition 16.2 (Distribution). The distribution of a discrete random variable X is the collection of values $\{(a, \text{Pr}[X = a]) : a \in A\}$, where A is the set of all possible values taken by X .

Definition 16.3 (Expectation). The expectation of a discrete random variable X is defined as $E(X) = \sum_{a \in A} a \times \text{Pr}[X = a]$, where the sum is over all possible values taken by the r.v. (Think back to Buhler)