0 Review of Concepts & Notation

0.1 Modular Arithmetic

We write the set of integers and the set of natural numbers as:

$$\mathbb{Z} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\};$$
$$\mathbb{N} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}.$$

Theorem 0.1 (Division Theorem) *For all $a, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n \neq 0$, there exist* unique *$q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying $a = qn + r$ and $0 \leqslant r < |n|$. Since q and r are unique, we use $\lfloor a/n \rfloor$ to denote q and $a \,\%\, n$ to denote r. Hence:*

$$a = \left\lfloor \frac{a}{n} \right\rfloor n + (a \,\%\, n).$$

The % symbol is often called the **modulo** operator. Beware that some programming languages also have a % operator in which *$a \% n$ always has the same sign* as a. We will instead use the convention that $a \,\%\, n$ is always always nonnegative.

Definition 0.2 *For $x, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we say that n **divides** x (or x **is a multiple of** n), and write $n \mid x$, if there exists an integer k such that $kn = x$.*

*We say that a and b are **congruent modulo** n, and write $a \equiv_n b$, if $n \mid (a - b)$. Equivalently, $a \equiv_n b$ if and only if $a \,\%\, n = b \,\%\, n$.*

*We write $\mathbb{Z}_n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{0, \ldots, n-1\}$ to denote the set of **integers modulo** n.*

In other textbooks you may have seen "$a \equiv_n b$" written as "$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$".

There is a subtle — and often confusing — distinction between the expressions "$a \% n = b$" and "$a \equiv_n b$." In the first expression, "$a \% n$" refers to an integer that is always between 0 and $n - 1$, and the equals sign denotes equality *over the integers.* In the second expression, the "$\equiv_n$" symbol denotes congruence modulo n, which is a weaker condition than equality over the integers. Note that $a = b$ implies $a \equiv_n b$, but not vice-versa.

Example *$99 \equiv_{10} 19$ because 10 divides $99 - 19$ according to the definition. But $99 \neq 19 \,\%\, 10$ because the right-hand side evaluates to the integer $19 \,\%\, 10 = 9$, which is not the same* integer *as the left-hand side 99.*

When adding, subtracting, and multiplying modulo n, it doesn't affect the final result to reduce intermediate steps modulo n. That is, we have the following facts about modular arithmetic:

$$(a + b) \,\%\, n = \Big[(a \,\%\, n) + (b \,\%\, n)\Big] \,\%\, n;$$
$$(a - b) \,\%\, n = \Big[(a \,\%\, n) - (b \,\%\, n)\Big] \,\%\, n;$$
$$ab \,\%\, n = \Big[(a \,\%\, n)(b \,\%\, n)\Big] \,\%\, n.$$

Division is not always possible in $\mathbb{Z}_n$; we will discuss this fact later in the class.

0.2 Strings

We write $\{0,1\}^n$ to denote the set of n-bit binary strings, and $\{0,1\}^*$ to denote the set of all (finite-length) binary strings. When x is a string of bits, we write $|x|$ to denote the length (in bits) of that string, and we write $\overline{x}$ to denote the result of flipping every bit in x. When it's clear from context that we're talking about strings instead of numbers, we write 0^n and 1^n to denote strings of n zeroes and n ones, respectively.

When x and y are strings of the same length, we write $x \oplus y$ to denote the bitwise exclusive-or (XOR) of the two strings. So, for example, $0011 \oplus 0101 = 0110$. The following facts about the XOR operation are frequently useful:

$x \oplus x = 0^{\lvert x\rvert}$	XOR'ing a string with itself results in zeroes.
$x \oplus 0^{\lvert x\rvert} = x$	XOR'ing with zeroes has no effect.
$x \oplus 1^{\lvert x\rvert} = \overline{x}$	XOR'ing with ones flips every bit.
$x \oplus y = y \oplus x$	XOR is symmetric.
$(x \oplus y) \oplus z = x \oplus (y \oplus z)$	XOR is associative.

As a corollary:

$$a = b \oplus c \iff b = a \oplus c \iff c = a \oplus b.$$

We use notation $x \| y$ to denote the concatenation of two strings x and y.

0.3 Functions

Let X and Y be finite sets. A function $f : X \to Y$ is:

injective (1-to-1) if it never maps two different inputs to the same output. Formally: $x \neq x' \Rightarrow f(x) \neq f(x')$.

surjective (onto) if every element in Y is a possible output of f. Formally: for all $y \in Y$ there exists an $x \in X$ with $f(x) = y$.

bijective (1-to-1 correspondence) if f is both injective and surjective. If this is the case, we say that f is a *bijection.* Note that bijectivity implies that $|X| = |Y|$.

0.4 Probability

Definition 0.3 *A **(discrete) probability distribution** $\mathcal{D}$ over a set X of **outcomes** is a function $\mathcal{D} : X \to [0,1]$ that satisfies the condition:*

$$\sum_{x \in X} \mathcal{D}(x) = 1.$$

*We say that $\mathcal{D}$ **assigns** probability $\mathcal{D}(x)$ to outcome x. The set X is referred to as the **support** of $\mathcal{D}$.*

*A special distribution is the **uniform** distribution over a finite set X, which assigns probability $1/|X|$ to every element of X.*

Let $\mathcal{D}$ be a probability distribution over X. We write $\Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[A]$ to denote the probability of an event A, where probabilities are according to distribution $\mathcal{D}$. Typically the distribution $\mathcal{D}$ is understood from context, and we omit it from the notation. Formally, an event is a subset of the support X, but it is typical to write Pr[cond] where "cond" is the condition that defines an event $A = \{x \in X \mid x \text{ satisfies condition cond}\}$. Interpreting A strictly as a set, we have $\Pr_{\mathcal{D}}[A] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{x \in A} \mathcal{D}(x)$.

The **conditional probability** of A given B is defined as $\Pr[A \mid B] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \Pr[A \wedge B] / \Pr[B]$. When $\Pr[B] = 0$, we let $\Pr[A \mid B] = 0$ by convention, to avoid dividing by zero.

Below are some convenient facts about probabilities:

$$\Pr[A] = \Pr[A \mid B] \Pr[B] + \Pr[A \mid \neg B] \Pr[\neg B];$$

$$\Pr[A \vee B] \leqslant \Pr[A] + \Pr[B]. \qquad \text{(union bound)}$$

Precise Terminology

It is common and tempting to use the word "random" when one really means "*uniformly* at random." We'll try to develop the habit of being more precise about this distinction.

It is also tempting to describe an *outcome* as either random or uniform. For example, one might want to say that "the string x is random." But **an outcome is not random; the *process* that generated the outcome is random.** After all, there are many ways to come up with the same string x, and not all of them are random. So randomness is a property of the *process* and not an inherent property of the *result of the process.*

It's more precise and a better mental habit to say that an outcome is "*sampled* or *chosen* randomly," and it's even better to be precise about what the random process was. For example, "the string x is *chosen uniformly*."

Notation in Pseudocode

We'll often describe algorithms/processes using pseudocode. In doing so, we will use several different operators whose meanings might be easily confused:

$\leftarrow$ When $\mathcal{D}$ is a probability distribution, we write "$x \leftarrow \mathcal{D}$" to mean "sample x according to the distribution $\mathcal{D}$."

If $\mathcal{A}$ is an algorithm that takes input and also makes some internal random choices, then it is natural to think of its output $\mathcal{A}(y)$ as a distribution — possibly a different distribution for each input y. Then we write "$x \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(y)$" to mean the natural thing: "run $\mathcal{A}$ on input y and assign the output to x."

We overload the "$\leftarrow$" notation slightly, writing "$x \leftarrow X$" when X is a *finite set* to mean that x is sampled from the *uniform distribution* over X.

$:=$ We write $x := y$ for assignments to variables: "take the value of expression y and assign it to variable x."

$\stackrel{?}{=}$ We write comparisons as $\stackrel{?}{=}$ (analogous to "==" in your favorite programming language). So $x \stackrel{?}{=} y$ doesn't modify x (or y), but rather it is an expression which returns `true` if x and y are equal.

You will often see this notation in the conditional part of an if-statement, but also in return statements as well. The following two snippets are equivalent:

```
return x ?= y
```

$\Leftrightarrow$

```
if x ?= y:
  return true
else:
  return false
```

In a similar way, we write $x \stackrel{?}{\in} S$ as an expression that evaluates to true if x is in the set S.

0.5 Asymptotics (Big-O)

Let $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ be a function. We characterize the asymptotic growth of f in the following ways:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(n) \text{ is } O(g(n)) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{\Leftrightarrow} \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty \\
&\Leftrightarrow \exists c > 0 : \text{for all but finitely many } n : f(n) < c \cdot g(n) \\
f(n) \text{ is } \Omega(g(n)) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{\Leftrightarrow} \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} > 0 \\
&\Leftrightarrow \exists c > 0 : \text{for all but finitely many } n : f(n) > c \cdot g(n) \\
f(n) \text{ is } \Theta(g(n)) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{\Leftrightarrow} f(n) \text{ is } O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) \text{ is } \Omega(g(n)) \\
&\Leftrightarrow 0 < \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty \\
&\Leftrightarrow \exists c_1, c_2 > 0 : \text{for all but finitely many } n : \\
&\qquad\qquad c_1 \cdot g(n) < f(n) < c_2 \cdot g(n)
\end{aligned}
$$