

Proof techniques

- direct proof
- vacuous proof
- trivial proof
- proof by contrapositive
- proof by contradiction
- proof by cases
- constructive existence proof
- non-constructive existence proof
- uniqueness proof
- mathematical induction
- structural induction
- well-ordering principle
- Cantor diagonalization argument
- combinatorial proof

Eg:- proof it by giving a solution.

{ Constructive }
{ Existence proof }

$$\text{(1)} \quad \begin{cases} x = a_1 \pmod{n_1} \\ x = a_2 \pmod{n_2} \\ \vdots \\ x = a_k \pmod{n_k} \end{cases} \quad n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k \rightarrow \text{pairwise relatively prime (coprime)}$$

$$N = \textcircled{N} n_1 \cdot n_2 \cdot n_3 \cdots n_k$$

solution of (1) mod N

$$N_i = \frac{N}{n_i}, \quad M_i = N_i^{-1} \pmod{n_i}$$

$\hookrightarrow M_i N_i = 1 \pmod{n_i}$

Claim

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i M_i N_i \pmod{N} \\ \{ \end{array} \right\} \text{ solution of } (1).$$

e.g. $\mathbb{Z}_{13} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 12\}$.
 $2^{-1} \pmod{13}$.

$a \in \mathbb{Z}_{13}$ such that $a(2) \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$.

$$a^{-1} = 2.$$

$$a = 2^{-1}$$

$$\boxed{a=7}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x &= a_1 M_1 N_1 + a_2 M_2 N_2 + \dots + a_k M_k N_k \pmod{n} \\ &= 0 + 0 \dots + \underbrace{a_i M_i N_i}_{\substack{\equiv 1 \\ a_i \pmod{n}}} + 0 + 0 \dots + 0 \end{aligned}$$

similarly Non-constructive proof \Rightarrow giving the proof without constructing a solution.

Uniqueness proof :-

Division Algorithm or FTA (fundamental theorem of arithmetic)

$$a = bq + r, \quad 0 \leq r < b; \quad q, r \text{ unique} \quad (a > b)$$

$$\text{FTA} \Rightarrow N = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot p_3^{\alpha_3} \cdots p_n^{\alpha_n}$$

p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n are distinct primes

unique $\Rightarrow p_1 < p_2 < p_3 < \dots < p_n$

{any integer N can be expressed in the above stated way}.

Centre Diagonalization Argument:

↳ deals with set theory.

- * compare between two set of infinite size (cardinality).

Russell's paradox:

let S be the set of all sets that do not include themselves.
Does S contain itself?

$S = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$, domain of discourse be the set of all sets.
Case ① Suppose. $\rightarrow S$ is not a member of itself
or

Case ② Suppose. $\rightarrow S$ is a member of itself.

Illustration of Russell's paradox:

\rightarrow suppose every library in the US is preparing a database of all its collections
 \rightarrow from across the country, all the databases are submitted to the Library of Congress.
National Librarian merges two databases.

Database 1	Database 2
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that do not include themselves.

where to put Database 2 that do not include themselves.
— if listed, it should be listed in Database 1 (giving a contradiction).
— if not listed \rightarrow not a true database.
no solution exists to this type of problem $S = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$.
* want to make a database that do not include themselves.
NEXT CLASS \rightarrow cardinality of sets.

27.2.2017

Cardinality of Sets. (infinite)

{ Dedekind, 1888 }.

→ If $A \& B$ are infinite sets, and $A \subset B$, then $|A| = |B|$.
 (TRUE).

Eg:- $N = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$. (Unbounded).

$S = \{3, 6, 9, 12, \dots\}$, multiple of 3.

$S \subset N$. (We can always make one-to-one

$f: N \rightarrow S$. correspondence matching).

↙ one-to-one correspondence (bijection).

{ A part of it is the whole }.

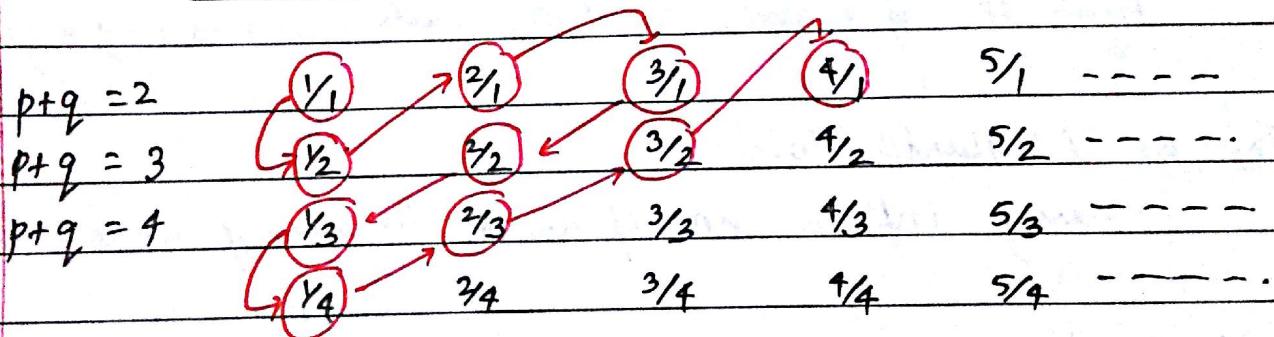
$S \rightarrow$ infinite sets.

$P(S) \leftarrow$ power set.

Example:-

all rational nos. (p/q)

countable or

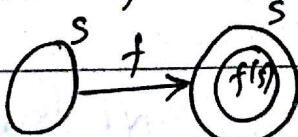


Finite set \rightarrow S finite with cardinality n if \exists a bijection.

Infinite set \rightarrow A set S is infinite if \nexists an $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ to

countable
uncountable

injection $f: S \rightarrow S$ such that $f(S)$ is a proper sub



elements of S can be listed as a sequence $\{a_n\}$.

Eg:- $N \rightarrow$ the set S of all numbers (natural). Is infinite.

Injection: $f: N \rightarrow N$ defined by $f(x) = 3x$.

$f(N) = \{3, 6, 9, \dots\} \subset N = \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$

$\Rightarrow N$ is an infinite set.

$\mathbb{N} \rightarrow$ infinitely countable.

Rational nos. \rightarrow infinitely countable.

classmate

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Countable set \rightarrow that has the same cardinality as the set of natural nos.

$|\mathbb{N}| = \aleph_0$ (aleph null).

Uncountable set \rightarrow that is not countable.

Example (coffee beans). {Finite # of coffee beans}.

• dark & light roasted coffee beans.

• without counting them explicitly, to decide whether there is an equal no. of dark roasted and light roasted coffee beans.

(try to find a match between dark & light roasted)

now, consider if there are.

INFINITE.

Example (Finite Hotel)

Finite # of rooms, say 100, each occupied by a guest.

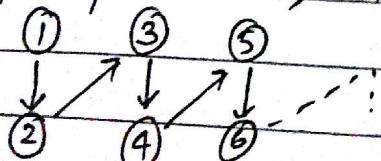
Example (Hilbert's Hotel)

\hookrightarrow having infinite no. of rooms in each of which a guest is staying.

\rightarrow Suppose if a new guest comes, if finite hotel, then he cannot fit in the hotel.

\rightarrow In case of infinite hotel, ask guest in room n to shift to room $n+1$.

$$|\mathbb{N}| = \aleph_0$$



$$\mathbb{N}_0 + 1 = \mathbb{N}_0$$

$$\mathbb{N}_0 + 2 = \mathbb{N}_0$$

$$\mathbb{N}_0 + \mathbb{N}_0 = \mathbb{N}_0$$

a transfinite no.

$$|P(\mathbb{N})| = \aleph_1$$
 (aleph null)

$$|P(P(\mathbb{N}))| = \aleph_2$$

$$|\mathbb{N}| < |P(\mathbb{N})| < |P(P(\mathbb{N}))| < \dots$$

$\mathbb{N}_0 \quad \mathbb{N}_1 \quad \mathbb{N}_2$

$$(\mathbb{N} \quad P(\mathbb{N}) \quad P(P(\mathbb{N})))$$

S is any infinite set then $|S| < |P(S)|$.

$|A| \leq |B|$, if \exists a injection from A to B. ; A & B are infinite sets.
 $|A| = |B|$; A & B are equipotent, if \exists a bijection from A to B.

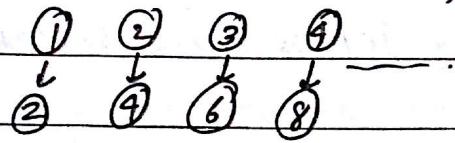
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~~More~~ if $|A| < |B| \rightarrow$ no bijection from A to B but an injection from A to B.

now, suppose, if infinite no. of guests come. then we may ask guest in n^{th} room to shift to $2n^{\text{th}}$ room.

All the even rooms are then vacated, then fit the new guests in the $(2i-1)$ rooms.



$$\aleph_0 \times 1 = \aleph_0.$$

$$\aleph_0 \times 2 = \aleph_0.$$

$$\aleph_0 \times 3 = \aleph_0.$$

⋮

$$\aleph_0 \times \aleph_0 = \aleph_0$$

NEXT CLASS \rightarrow set of Real nos. (\mathbb{R})
↓
[0, 1]. (subset) } uncountable. } proof
by contradiction }

Uncountable set \rightarrow not countable

$|S| \neq |\mathbb{N}| \Rightarrow \text{No.}$

\rightarrow no listing of elements of S in a row? (any)

\rightarrow no bijection from S to \mathbb{N} .

definition \rightarrow (Enumeration)

let S be a set.

An enumeration of S is a surjection from the initial line segment of \mathbb{N} to S .

not enumerable.

with repetition without repetition.

- additionally if f is also injective, then f :

is an enumeration without repetition.

- if not injective, then f is an enumeration with repetition.

Example. $\rightarrow S = \text{the set of natural nos. of the form } 3n, n \in \mathbb{N}$

- $\cdot <0, 3, 6, 9, 12, \dots> \rightarrow f(n) = 3n. (k=0)$

- $\cdot <6, 3, 0, 15, 12, 9, \dots>$

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} 3n+6, & \text{if } n=3k \text{ for some integer } k. \\ 3n, & \text{if } n=3k+1 \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N} \\ 3n-6, & \text{if } n=3k+2 \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{N} \end{cases}$$

examples

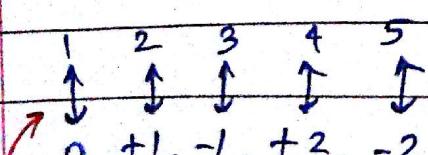
1. set of all odd integers.

2. set of all even integers.

3. set of all natural nos. (rational nos.).

4. set of all integers. $\rightarrow 0, +1, -1, +2, -2, \dots$

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} n/2, & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \frac{n-1}{2}, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$



one-to-one mapping.

Example (uncountable set)

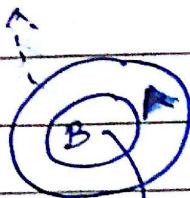
Theorem $\rightarrow R$, the set of all real nos. is uncountable

Proof \rightarrow (by contradiction).

given A: suppose R is countable.

Claim 1 \rightarrow Any subset of a countable set is also countable.

Claim 2 \rightarrow Any superset of an uncountable set is uncountable.



given B is uncountable.

prove that superset A of B is uncountable. (Claim 2)

If not i.e. if A is countable.



there exists a listing $\{a_n\}$ of elements of A.

take the subsequence $\{b_n\}$ of elements of $B \subseteq A$
B is countable $\{\text{contradiction}\}.$ ($\rightarrow \leftarrow$)

Similarly, proof Claim 1.

Proof of the theorem.

Suppose R is countable.

$[0,1] \subset R$ by Claim 1 is countable.

* If it is countable then there is a listing.

r_1, r_2, \dots , a listing of the elements of $[0,1]$ in some order.

$$\text{LIST } ① \quad r_1 = 0 \cdot d_{11} d_{12} d_{13} d_{14} \dots$$

$$r_2 = 0 \cdot d_{21} d_{22} d_{23} d_{24} \dots$$

$$r_3 = 0 \cdot d_{31} d_{32} d_{33} d_{34} \dots$$

$$r_4 = 0 \cdot d_{41} d_{42} d_{43} d_{44} \dots$$

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construct a real no. as follows.



different different different different
from d_{11} from d_{22} from d_{33} from d_{44} ---

This is a real no. but it cannot be in the list. ①.

\therefore contradicting ($\rightarrow \leftarrow$) that $[0, 1]$ is countable.

so $[0, 1]$ is uncountable.

\therefore By Claim 2, \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

$[0, 1] \rightarrow$ sometimes called continuum

other consequences

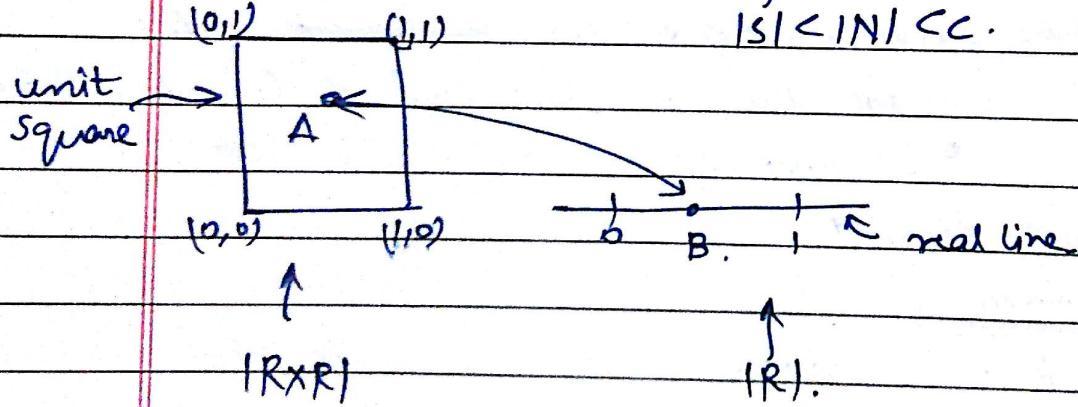
$$|N| = N_0$$

$$|\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}| = |\mathbb{R}|.$$

$$|[0, 1]| = c.$$

$S \rightarrow$ finite set

$$|S| < |N| < c.$$



every point on a unit square can be mapped to a point on the real line $[0, 1]$.

example

$$\Sigma = \{a, b\}.$$

$\Sigma^* \rightarrow$ set of all strings over Σ

$\{\epsilon, a, b, aa, ab, ba, bb, \dots\}.$
 ϵ (epsilon) \rightarrow string of length zero.

countable set.

enumeration T of Σ^* $T(31) = ?$

power set of Σ^* $P(\Sigma^*)$ is uncountable.

Theorem

$\Sigma \rightarrow$ a finite alphabet.

$\Sigma^* \rightarrow$ the set of all strings over Σ

The $P(\Sigma^*)$, the power set of Σ^* , is uncountable.

proof:- (Using Sator's diagonalization argument).
↳ (by contradiction).

Suppose $P(\Sigma^*)$ is countable.

$\langle A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots \rangle$ be an enumeration of the elements of $P(\Sigma^*)$.

As Σ^* is countable, let $\langle x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots \rangle$ be an enumeration of strings in Σ^*

construct a binary matrix M as follows.

$x_0 \ x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \ \dots$

A_0	$a_{00} \ a_{01} \ a_{02} \ a_{03} \ \dots$
A_1	$a_{10} \ a_{11} \ a_{12} \ a_{13} \ \dots$
A_2	$a_{20} \ a_{21} \ a_{22} \ a_{23} \ \dots$
\vdots	\ddots

$$B = (a_{ij})$$

$$= \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x_i \in A_j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Now, construct a set A as follows:-

$x_i \in A$ if $q_{ii} = 0$.

i.e. if $x_i \notin A_i$

$$A = \{x_i \in \Sigma^* \mid x_i \notin A_i, i \in N\} \subseteq P(\Sigma^*)$$

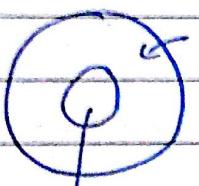
$\Downarrow x_i \in A \Rightarrow x_i \notin A_i$

$\Rightarrow A$ cannot be any of A_i in the list M.

$P(\Sigma^*) \}$ both uncountable.
 $[0, 1] \}$

Q. Can we compare the cardinality of two uncountable sets?

\rightarrow all wantable sets having the same cardinality No.



sequence (a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots) identify a subset that is infinitely countable.

Theorem \rightarrow . Consider any infinite set S.

Then S has a countably infinite subset.

$a_0 \in S$.

$a_1 \in S - \{a_0\}$.

$a_2 \in S - \{a_0, a_1\}$.

\vdots
 $a_{n+1} \in S - \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$. \leftarrow CLAIM

infinite.

If not, i.e. $S - \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ is finite.

then $\{S - \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}\} \cup \{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ finite.
 $\therefore S \rightarrow$ finite (\rightarrow \neg).

If a bijection is involved then we can compare.

definition \rightarrow Let S, T be two sets.

Then S & T are equipotent or have the same cardinality, denoted by $|S| = |T|$, if there is a bijection from S to T .

Theorem \rightarrow equipotence is an equivalence relation.

- Definition \rightarrow
- $|S| \leq |T|$ if there is an injection from S to T .
 - $|S| < |T|$ if there is an injection from S to T but no bijection
 - either $|S| < |T|$ or $|S| = |T|$ or $|S| > |T|$.
 - $|S| \leq |T| \& |T| \leq |S| \Rightarrow |S| = |T|$.

Theorem $\rightarrow S \rightarrow$ finite set.

$$|S| \leq \aleph_0 < c.$$

$$c = [0, 1]$$

\leftarrow cardinality of ω, \mathbb{N}

proof: $\because |S| = n$.

$$= |\mathbb{Z}_n|$$

$$z_n = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, n-1\}.$$

$\downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \quad \quad \downarrow$
 $1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad \dots \quad n$

$$f(x) = x + 1.$$

$$f: z_n \rightarrow \mathbb{N}.$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{n+2}$$

$$f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \dots \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} & \dots \end{array}$$

also as $[0, 1]$ is uncountable there is no bijection from

$$[0, 1] \text{ to } \mathbb{N}$$

$$|\mathbb{N}| < |[0, 1]| \quad \text{i.e. } \underline{|\mathbb{N}| < c}$$

Theorem: \rightarrow If S is an infinite set, then $\aleph_0 \leq |S|$.

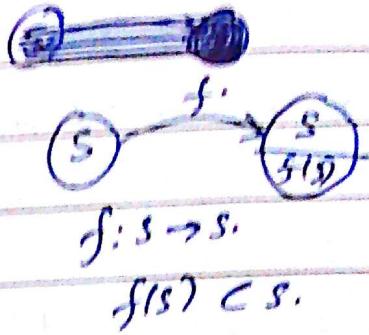
Proof: \rightarrow e.g.: - $\underline{\mathbb{N}}$

$$3\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$$

$$f(x) = 3x.$$

$$f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

$$f(\mathbb{N}) = 3\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{N}$$



proof:

$$S' = \{a_n\} \quad S \rightarrow \text{infinite.}$$

\hookrightarrow Infinitely countable subset of S .

Consider the mapping:

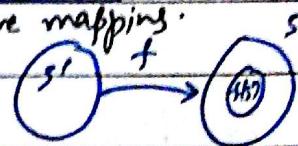
$$f: S' \rightarrow S.$$

$$f: S' \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$$

defined by $f(x) = x$.

$$|\mathbb{N}| = |S'| = \aleph_0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \aleph_0 &= |S'| = |f(S')| \\ &\leq |S| \end{aligned}$$



NEXT CLASS \rightarrow Try to prove the following:

$S \rightarrow \text{infinite}$

$P(S) \rightarrow \text{power set}$

$$|S| < |P(S)|.$$

Well-Ordering and Mathematical Induction

$N \rightarrow$ set of all natural nos.

$S \subseteq N$, ~~$S \neq \emptyset$~~ \downarrow $S \neq \emptyset$ well-ordering principle.
 \Rightarrow has a least element

Example:-

Prove that $n < 2^n$, $n \geq 1$.

solution:-
using well-ordering principle.

$S =$ set of natural nos. for which the inequality does not equality. $= \{n \in N | n \geq 2^n\}$.

claim $\rightarrow S = \emptyset$

proof of the claim.

$$S \subseteq N$$

if $S = \emptyset$, then by well-ordering principle,
 S has a smallest element, say m .

so for this m , $m \geq 2^m$ holds.

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{m}{2} \geq 2^{m-1}} - ①$$

$$\text{Also, } 1 \not> 2^1$$

$$1 \notin S$$

$$m \neq 1, \boxed{m \geq 2}$$

$$m + m \geq 2 + m$$

$$2m - 2 \geq m \Rightarrow \boxed{m-1 \geq \frac{m}{2}} - ②$$

using ① & ②

$$\frac{2^{m-1}}{2} \leq m \leq m-1.$$

→ we are getting $(m-1)$ which is smaller than m . element smaller than
try to find an

This contradicts to the choice of m as m is the smallest element of S & $m-1 < m$.

Mathematical Induction

First principle of finite induction.

Given $S \subseteq N$, if (i) $1 \in S$ (base case)

(ii) $n \in S \Rightarrow n+1 \in S$,
then $S = N$.

proof this by using (Well-ordering principle).

$S \subseteq N$ with conditions ① & ②, let $T = N/S$ ($N-S$)

claim :- $T = \emptyset$

↪ if $T \neq \emptyset$, get a contradiction.

Well-ordering principle; a is the smallest element of T .

$a \in T \Rightarrow (a-1) < a \rightarrow a-1 > 0$??

$\notin T$

$a-1 \in S$.

claim that $a \neq 1$.

$a-1 \in S$

↳ implies by (ii) ($a \in S$) is a contradiction.

claim

$0 < a-1 < a$.

• Second principle of finite induction.

↳ stronger version.

Given $S \subseteq N$, if (i) $1 \in S$ (base case)

(ii) $1, 2, 3, \dots, n \in S \Rightarrow n+1 \in S$.
then $S = N$ (inductive case).

Proof → (Try the same for second principle also). ← EXERCISE.

$$T = N \setminus S \quad (N - S)$$

claim, $T = \emptyset$

↳ proof of the claim. (by contradiction).

$$\text{det } T \neq \emptyset$$

Then $T \subseteq N$; non-empty

By well-ordering principle, T has a least element, say a

$$1 \in S$$

$$1 \in N$$

$$\downarrow a > 1$$

⁴ smallest element of N .

$$0 < a-1 < a$$

$$\in T.$$

$$1 \in S \quad \} \Rightarrow a \in S$$

$$a-1 \in S \quad \} \text{(contradiction)}$$

as $a-1 < a$, $a-1 \notin T$

$$\Rightarrow \text{a-1} \in S.$$

$\therefore a \in T$

$$\Rightarrow S = T.$$

Example (Mathematical Induction)

$$P(n) : 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n-1) = n^2$$

Proof :- Base step., $1 = 1^2 \Rightarrow P(1)$ true.

Inductive step.; $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(k)$ true.

claim: $P(k+1) \rightarrow$ true.

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k-1) + (2k+1) = k^2 + (2k+1)$$

by induction hypothesis.
= k^2

$$\Rightarrow P(k+1) \text{ is True.} \quad = (k+1)^2.$$

→ The main disadvantage of this is that we have to guess.

$$1 = 1^2$$

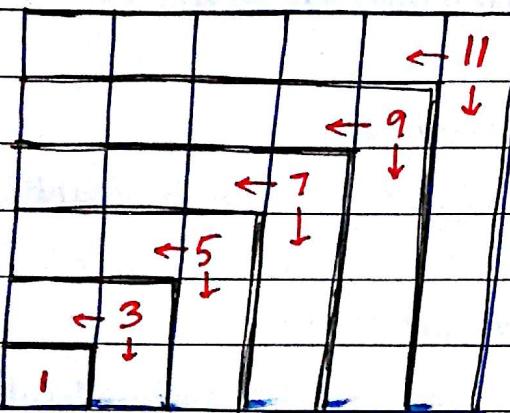
$$1+3 = 2^2$$

$$1+3+5 = 3^2$$

!

$$n=6$$

Consider a 6×6 square.



$$\text{Area} = 6 \times 6 = 36 \text{ unit}^2$$

$$= (1+3+5+\dots+11) = 36.$$

Example. (educated guess may not work)

$p(n) \rightarrow \# \text{ of partitions of } n$.

$$n=1 \quad p(1)=1 \quad p(1)=1 \quad 1 \rightarrow 1.$$

$$n=2 \quad p(2)=2 \quad 2 \rightarrow 2 \text{ or } (1+1)$$

$$n=3 \quad p(3)=3 \quad 3 \rightarrow 3 \text{ or } (1+2) \text{ or } (1+1+1)$$

(1+2) and (2+1) considered SAME

$$n=4 \quad p(4)=5 \quad 5 \rightarrow (1+1+1+1) \text{ or } (2+3) \text{ or } (1+1+3)$$

or (1+1+1+2) or (1+1+1+1)

↑
all were
prime

but $p(7)=15 \rightarrow$ not a prime {Gauss did not work}

Read About

Conjecture $\rightarrow P(n)$ is prime

FALSE

• $p(n) \rightarrow$ complicated function

G.H. Hardy, Ramanujan
London, Cambridge University

Press 1990?
Ch. 6, 8

Division Algorithm.

a, b two integers, $b \geq 1$
then, $a = bq + r$; $0 \leq r < b$.

$q, r \rightarrow$ an integer (UNIQUE).

→ we have to ensure the bound on r and the uniqueness.

proof: → (Using Well Ordering Principle)

consider the set $S = \{a - bx \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}, a - bx \geq 0\}$.

Claim $\rightarrow S \neq \emptyset$

$$b \geq 1 \Rightarrow |ab| \geq |a|.$$

$$a + |a| \cdot b \geq |a| + a \geq 0$$

$$x = -|a|.$$

$$\therefore a + |a| \cdot b \in S.$$

~~PROOF~~ By well-ordering principle,

S has a least element, say r .

$$r = 0 \text{ or } r > 0.$$

separate case.

(since well ordering principle defined for
greater than zero.)

$\therefore \exists q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $r = a - bq$.

next claim $\rightarrow r < b$.

if not, let $r \geq b$.

then, $a - (q+1)b = (a - bq) - b = r - b \geq 0$.

and $a - (q+1)b$ is smaller than $a - bq$.] implies

$$\underline{a - (q+1)b \in S}$$

↳ which is a contradiction.

Division Algorithm

($b \neq 0$)

a, b integers, $b \geq 1$.

\exists unique integers q (quotient) and r (remainder) such that $a = b \cdot q + r$, $0 \leq r < b$.

Uniqueness.

If not, let $\begin{cases} a = b \cdot q_1 + r_1, 0 \leq r_1 < b & 0 \leq r_2 < b \\ a = b \cdot q'_1 + r_2, 0 \leq r_2 < b & -b \leq -r_1 \leq 0 \\ \downarrow b \cdot (q_1 - q'_1) = r_2 - r_1. & -b < r_2 - r_1 < b, \\ |b| \cdot |q_1 - q'_1| = |r_2 - r_1| < |b|. & |r_2 - r_1| < |b|. \end{cases}$

$|q_1 - q'_1| < 1 \Rightarrow q_1 = q'_1$ (since q & q' are integers)

Theorem.

Given integers a, b , $b \neq 0$, \exists unique integers q, r such that $a = b \cdot q + r$, $0 \leq r < b$.

Proof:- Case 1 $\rightarrow b > 0$, i.e. $b \geq 1$. (already proved)

Case 2 $\rightarrow b < 0 \Rightarrow |b| > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \text{By previous case, } a &= |b| \cdot q' + r, 0 \leq r < |b| \\ &= -b \cdot q' + r, (|b| = -b, b < 0) \\ &= b \cdot q + r, q = q' \end{aligned}$$

Bézout's Identity.

Let a, b be two integers, not both zero.

Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$

then \exists integers x and y such that $d = ax + by$
(Extended Euclidean Algorithm).

a, n be two integers.

$$\gcd(a, n) = 1 \Rightarrow ax + ny = 1, x, y \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

$\xrightarrow{\text{congruence}}$ $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. * This method provides a way to find modular inverse.

$$a^{-1} \equiv x \pmod{n}$$

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

$$n \mid (a-b)$$

$$\text{then } a = nq + r.$$

$$b = nq' + r.$$

CONGRUENCE

0	1	\dots	$-$	(partition)
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	(concept)
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	r	\vdots

from congruence

→ find $2^{-1} \pmod{5}$

$$\text{then } 2x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$\therefore x = 3 \quad \therefore 2^{-1} = x = 3.$$

Extended Euclidean Algorithm → gives a procedure (algorithm) to find the inverse of any number.

$$\text{mod } 5 = 3. \quad 2^{-1} \pmod{253} = ?$$

Input $\rightarrow a, b$.

$$d = ax + by$$

find $\rightarrow (x, y, d)$

$a^{-1} \pmod{n}$ means - $\exists x \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$
 $\hookrightarrow (x)$ such that $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Proof (by Bezout's identity)

$$S = \{ax + by > 0 \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

Then $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$

claim $\rightarrow S \neq \emptyset$

$$0 < |a| = ax + b.$$

$$\text{Take } x = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } a > 0 \\ -1, & \text{if } a < 0. \end{cases}$$

\Rightarrow false.

So, S is a non-empty subset of the set of natural nos. and therefore, by well-ordering principle, S must have \Leftrightarrow a smallest element, say d .

d = smallest element of S .

as $d \in S \Rightarrow d = ax + by$ for some integers x, y .

claim $\rightarrow d \mid a, d \mid b$.

proof of the claim \hookrightarrow By division algorithm, $a = d \cdot q + r$, $0 \leq r < d$.

claim if $r \neq 0$, then $r = a - d \cdot q = a - (ax + by) \cdot q$
i.e., $r > 0$ $= a(1 - xq) + b(-y)$
so $\boxed{r = 0}$. \hookrightarrow RTS,

claim $\rightarrow d = \gcd(a, b)$

\hookrightarrow proof of the claim:

let c be any other common divisor of a, b , i.e. $c \mid a, c \mid b$

$\Rightarrow c \mid ax + by \Rightarrow c \mid d \Rightarrow d$ is the gcd of a, b .

definition: ; $d = \gcd(a, b)$

i) $d \mid a, d \mid b$.

ii) any other common divisor, say, c , then $c \mid d$.

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic (FTA)

Every (tve) integer, $a > 1$ can be uniquely expressed as the product of primes. In other words, there exists unique prime nos. $p_1 < p_2 < p_3 < \dots < p_n$ and corresponding positive exponents $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, such that

$$a = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot p_3^{\alpha_3} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{\alpha_n}$$

That's why 1 is not considered as a prime because.

$15 = 1 \times 3 \times 5 = 1^2 \times 3 \times 5 = 1^3 \times 3 \times 5$, therefore, not a unique representation.

Proof (by contradiction)

Suppose there were some (tve) integers greater than 1 that were not expressible as a product of primes.

Let S be collection of these (tve) integers.

Then S is a non-empty subset of N, therefore by well-ordering principle, S has a smallest element, say n.

• 'n' is not a prime.

$\Rightarrow n$ is composite

$$\text{i.e., } n = a \cdot b, \quad 1 < a, b < n.$$

\hookrightarrow contradiction. ($\rightarrow \leftarrow$)

$a, b \notin S \Rightarrow a, b$ have their unique

prime factorisation, which in turn gives a prime factorization of n.

$\Rightarrow n \in S$ ($\rightarrow \leftarrow$) as $n \notin S$.

form:

Uniqueness:

$$a = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdot p_3^{\alpha_3} \cdots \cdot p_n^{\alpha_n}$$

$$= q_1^{\beta_1} \cdot q_2^{\beta_2} \cdot q_3^{\beta_3} \cdots \cdot q_m^{\beta_m}$$

$\alpha_i, \beta_i > 0$
(integers)

distinct
sets: $p_1 < p_2 < \cdots < p_n$
 $q_1 < q_2 < \cdots < q_m$.

$$p_i | p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_n^{\alpha_n} = q_1^{\beta_1} \cdot q_2^{\beta_2} \cdots q_m^{\beta_m}$$

as p_i, q_j are primes $p_i = q_j$
 $(\rightarrow \leftarrow)$ contradiction.

$$\Rightarrow p_i | q_j ; \text{ for some } j$$

Existence proof of FTA (using weak induction).

$P(n) \rightarrow n$ can be written as product of primes.

Basis step $\rightarrow 2$ can be written as product of 1 prime,
namely 2.
 $\Rightarrow P(2)$ is true.

Inductive step (let $P(k)$ be true, i.e. k is written as a product of primes)

claim $\rightarrow P(k+1)$ is true.

consider integers $k+1$



prime composite.

$$k+1 = ab ; 2 \leq a \leq b < k+1$$

$P(k+1)$ is true \leftarrow
we need strong induction, we cannot go beyond
forward this with weak induction.

now, using strong induction:

$$k+1 = a \cdot b , 2 \leq a \leq b < k+1$$

apply induction hypothesis.

One interesting Example (Postage stamp problem)

2 types of stamps \rightarrow 4-cent, 5-cent.

make a postage of n cents, $n \geq 12$.

a, b be two integers.

$$\gcd(a, b) = 1.$$

linear Diophantine equation.

$$ax + by = n; x, y \geq 0.$$

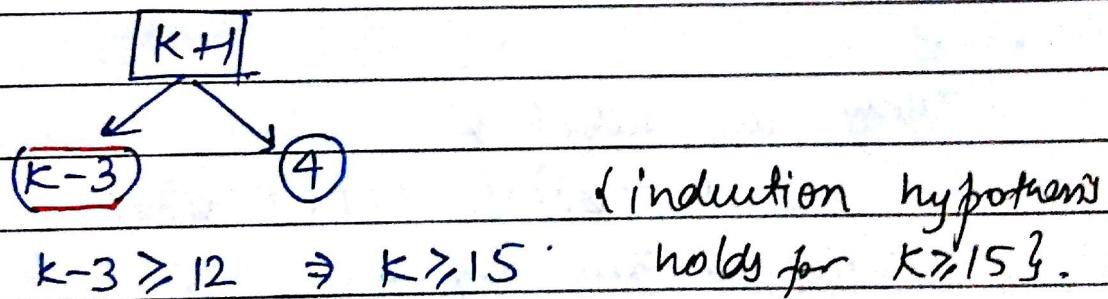
n is feasible if $n > ab - a - b$.

proof \rightarrow L.(Strong) induction proof {.

Basis step $\rightarrow P(12)$ is true.

Inductive Step $\rightarrow P(12), P(13), \dots, P(k)$ is true.
(Assume).

Claim. $\rightarrow P(k+1)$ is True.



$$P(12) = 4 \times 3$$

so basis step must be.

$$P(13) = 4 \times 2 + 5 \times 1$$

$P(12), P(13), P(14), P(15)$

$$P(14) = 4 \times 1 + 5 \times 2$$

$$P(15) = 5 \times 3.$$

proof (weak induction).

Basis step: $\rightarrow P(12)$ is True. $12 = 3 \times 4$.

Inductive step: \rightarrow Assume $P(k)$ is True.

Claim $\rightarrow P(k+1)$ is True.

Case 1 \rightarrow at least one 4-cent stamp is used to form postage of (k) cents, $k \geq 12$.

Case 2 \rightarrow no 4-cent used to form k -cent postage.
 $15 = 3 \times 5$, $16 = 4 \times 4$

Example $\rightarrow |S| = n$, S is a finite set.

[Then $|P(S)| = 2^n$] use mathematical induction.

$\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}$

$|\emptyset| = 0$

$|\{\emptyset\}| = 1$.

Power set $P(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$.

$S \rightarrow$ non-empty.

at least two subsets.

$S \subseteq S$, $\emptyset \subseteq S$.

$\hookrightarrow \emptyset$
only one subset \emptyset .

find $P(P(\emptyset)) = ?$, $P(P(P(\emptyset))) = ?$

Solution \rightarrow Basis Step $\rightarrow S = \emptyset$.

$|S| = 0$.

$P(S) = \{\emptyset\}$, $|P(S)| = 1 = 2^0$

$P(0)$ is True.

Inductive step \rightarrow Assume that $P(n)$ is True.

Claim $\rightarrow P(n+1)$ is true.

let T be any set, $|T| = n+1$

$a \in T$

$S = T - \{a\}$. $\Rightarrow |S| = n$.