

# Discrete Structures

## Logic Operators/Symbols

Conjunction	AND	$\wedge$
Disjunction	OR	$\vee$
Exclusive disjunction	XOR	$\oplus$
Implication	IF/THEN	$\rightarrow$
Biconditional	IFF	$\Leftrightarrow$

### $p$ [operator] $q$

$p$	$q$	$\wedge$	$\vee$	$\oplus$	$\rightarrow$	$\Leftrightarrow$
T	T	T	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	F	T	T	T	F
F	F	F	F	F	T	T

## Precedence of Operators

$() \neg \wedge \vee \oplus \rightarrow \Leftrightarrow$

## Rules of inference

$\frac{p}{p \rightarrow q}$ $\therefore q$	Modus ponens
$\frac{\neg q}{p \rightarrow q}$ $\therefore \neg p$	Modus tollens
$\frac{p}{\therefore p \vee q}$	Addition
$\frac{p \wedge q}{\therefore p}$	Simplification
$\frac{p}{q}$ $\therefore p \wedge q$	Conjunction
$\frac{p \rightarrow q}{q \rightarrow r}$ $\therefore p \rightarrow r$	Hypothetical syllogism
$\frac{p \vee q}{\neg p}$ $\therefore q$	Disjunctive syllogism
$\frac{p \vee q}{\neg p \vee r}$ $\therefore q \vee r$	Resolution

## Tree Method

Negate conclusion.  
Stack  $\wedge$ . Split  $\vee$ .

## Quantifiers

$\forall$  universal  
 $\exists$  existential

## Quantifiers: De Morgan's laws

$\neg \forall x P(x) \equiv \exists x \neg P(x)$   
 $\neg \exists x P(x) \equiv \forall x \neg P(x)$

## Quantifiers: Rules of inference

$AE$  = arbitrary element  
 $PE$  = particular element

$c$ is $AE/PE$ $\forall x P(x)$ $\therefore P(c)$	Universal instantiation
$c$ is $AE$ $\forall x P(c)$ $\therefore \forall x P(x)$	Universal generalization
$\exists x P(x)$ $\therefore c$ is $PE \wedge P(c)$	Existential instantiation*
$c$ is $AE/PE$ $\forall x P(c)$ $\therefore \exists P(x)$	Existential generalization

## Laws of propositional logic

Idempotent laws	$p \vee p \equiv p$	$p \wedge p \equiv p$
Associative laws	$(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$	$(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$
Commutative laws	$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$	$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$
Distributive laws	$p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$	$p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$
Identity laws	$p \vee F \equiv p$	$p \wedge T \equiv p$
Domination laws	$p \wedge F \equiv F$	$p \vee T \equiv T$
Double negation law	$\neg \neg p \equiv p$	
Complement laws	$p \wedge \neg p \equiv F$ $\neg T \equiv F$	$p \vee \neg p \equiv T$ $\neg F \equiv T$
De Morgan's laws	$\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$	$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$
Absorption laws	$p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$	$p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$
Conditional identities	$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$

## Set Symbols

Set of naturals	$\mathbb{N}$
Set of integers	$\mathbb{Z}$
Set of rationals	$\mathbb{Q}$
Set of real numbers	$\mathbb{R}$
Empty set	$\emptyset$
Universal set	$U$
Cardinality of a set	$ S $

## Naïve Set Theory

- A set is an unordered collection of objects, called members or elements.
- A set can be an element of another set.
- The empty set  $\emptyset$  contains no elements.
- No set can contain itself as a member, either directly or indirectly.

Set Membership	$x \in S$	$x$ is a member of $S$
Negation of set membership	$x \notin S$	$\neg (x \in S)$

Subset	$A \subseteq B$	$\forall x : (x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B)$
Proper Subset	$A \subset B$	$\forall x : (x \in A \Rightarrow x \in B) \wedge (\exists x : x \in B \wedge x \notin A)$

## Set Operations

Intersection	$A \cap B$	$\{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$
Union	$A \cup B$	$\{x : x \in A \text{ or } B \text{ or both}\}$
Difference	$A - B$	$\{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$
Symmetric difference	$A \oplus B$	$\{x : x \in A - B \text{ or } x \in B - A\}$
Complement	$\bar{A}$   $A^C$	$\{x : x \notin A\}$
Cartesian Product	$A \times B$	$\{(a, b) : (a \in A) \wedge (b \in B)\}$
Power Set	$P(S)$	$\{X : X \subseteq S\}$

## English expressions of the conditional operation

$p \rightarrow q$	If $p$ then $q$ (If $p, q$ ) $q$ if $p$ $p$ implies $q$ $q$ whenever $p$ $p$ only if $q$ $p$ is sufficient for $q$ $q$ is necessary for $p$
$q \rightarrow p$	$p$ is necessary for $q$ $p$ whenever $q$
$\neg q \rightarrow p$	$p$ unless $q$

	$p \rightarrow q$
Converse	$q \rightarrow p$
Contrapositive	$\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$
Inverse	$\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$

## Set identities

Idempotent laws	$A \cup A = A$	$A \cap A = A$
Associative laws	$(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$	$(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$
Commutative laws	$A \cup B = B \cup A$	$A \cap B = B \cap A$
Distributive laws	$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$	$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
Identity laws	$A \cup \emptyset = A$	$A \cap U = A$
Domination laws	$A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$	$A \cup U = U$
Double complement law	$\overline{\bar{A}} = A$	
Complement laws	$A \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$ $\bar{\bar{U}} = \emptyset$	$A \cup \bar{A} = U$ $\bar{\emptyset} = U$
De Morgan's laws	$\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$	$\overline{A \cap B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$
Absorption laws	$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$	$A \cap (A \cup B) = A$

## Relations

A relation  $R$  from domain  $A$  to  $B$  is a subset of  $A \times B$ .  
A relation  $R$  over a set  $A$  is a subset of  $A \times A$ .

### Properties of Relations

Reflexive	$\forall x \in A : (x, x) \in R$
Anti-Reflexive	$\forall x \in A : (x, x) \notin R$
Symmetric	$\forall x, y \in A : (x, y) \in R \Leftrightarrow (y, x) \in R$
Anti-Symmetric	$\forall x, y \in A : ((x, y) \in R \wedge (y, x) \in R) \Rightarrow (x = y)$
Transitive	$\forall x, y, z \in A : ((x, y) \in R \wedge (y, z) \in R \Rightarrow (x, z) \in R)$
Equivalence	Reflexive, symmetric, and transitive

### Closure Functions

Reflexive closure	$r(R) : r(R) \supseteq R$	$r(R) = R \cup I$
Symmetric closure	$s(R) : s(R) \supseteq R$	$s(R) = R \cup R^-$
Transitive closure	$t(R) : t(R) \supseteq R$	$t(R) = R \cup R^+$

$I$  is the identity.  $R^-$  is the inverse of  $R$ .

### Composing relations

Given two relations  $R : A \rightarrow B$ ,  $S : B \rightarrow C$ , the composition  $S \circ R : A \rightarrow C$  is defined as  
 $\{(a, c) : a \in A \wedge c \in C \wedge (\exists b \in B : (a, b) \in R \wedge (b, c) \in S)\}$

If  $R$  is a relation over a set  $A$ , then:

$$R \circ R = R^2 = \{(a, b) : \exists x \in A (a, x) \in R \wedge (x, b) \in R\}$$

$$R \circ (R \circ R) = R^3 = \{(a, b) : \exists x, y \in A (a, x) \in R \wedge (x, y) \in R \wedge (y, b) \in R\}$$

In general:  $(a, b) \in R^k$  iff there is a sequence of  $k$  flights from  $a$  to  $b$ .

**Theorem:** For any relation  $R$  over a set  $A$ ,  $|A| = n$ ,  
 $R^+ = R \cup R^2 \cup R^3 \cup \dots \cup R^n$

**Corollary:** If  $R$  is reflexive, then  $R^+ = R^n$  since

$$R \subseteq R^2 \subseteq R^3 \dots \subseteq R^n$$

## Uncountability

- $|\mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{Z}|$
- A set  $S$  is *countable* if there is an injective function  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ .
  - Every finite set is countable.
  - Every subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  is countable.
- A set  $S$  is *countably infinite* if there is a bijective function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow S$ .
  - $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$  are countably infinite.
  - Theorem: If  $A, B$  are countable sets, then  $A \times B$  is countable. ( $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  is countable.)
- $\mathbb{R}$  is uncountable.
- If a finite set  $S$  has  $m$  elements, then  $P(S)$  has  $2^m > m$  elements.
  - $P(\mathbb{N})$  is infinite and not countable.
  - For every set  $S$ ,  $|S| < |P(S)|$ .
- The Infinite Hierarchy of Infinite Sets:

$N$	$P(N)$	$P(P(N))$	$P(P(P(N)))$	$\dots$	$ P(N)  =  \mathbb{R} $
$\aleph_0$	$\aleph_1$	$\aleph_2$	$\aleph_3$	$\dots$	

## Functions

A function  $f$  from a domain  $A$  to a target  $B$  is a relation such that every domain element is mapped to exactly one element in the target.

• A function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is *one-to-one* (*injective*) if  
 $\forall x_1, x_2 \in A : (x_1 \neq x_2) \Rightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$

”Every domain element is mapped to a unique element in the target.”

• A function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is *onto* (*surjective*) if  
 $\forall y \in B \exists x \in A : f(x) = y$

”Every element in the target is the target of at least one domain element.”

• A function  $f : A \rightarrow B$  is a *one-to-one correspondence* (*bijective*) if  $f$  is both injective and surjective.

”Every domain element is matched with exactly one element in the target, and vice versa.”

### Composition of functions

$f$  and  $g$  are two functions, where  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g : Y \rightarrow Z$ . The composition of  $g$  with  $f$  is the function  $(g \circ f) : X \rightarrow Z$ , such that  
 $\forall x \in X, (g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$ .

$$f \circ g \circ h = (f \circ g) \circ h = f \circ (g \circ h) = f(g(h(x)))$$

Identity function ( $I_A : A \rightarrow A$ ) is defined as  $I_A(a) = a$ ,  $\forall a \in A$ .

**Pigeonhole principle:** If  $k + 1$  pigeons occupy  $k$  pigeonholes, then at least two pigeons share a pigeonhole.

No function from a domain of size  $k + 1$  to a target of size  $k$  is injective.

**Well-ordering principle:** Every non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{N}$  has a least element.

**Theorem:** The pigeonhole principle is logically equivalent to the well-ordering principle.

## Proofs

- Direct proofs
- Induction
  - **CLAIM:**  $P(n)$
  - **BASIS:**  $P(0)$  is true
  - **INDUCTIVE HYPOTHESIS:** For some  $k \geq 0, P(k)$
  - **INDUCTIVE STEP:**  $P(k) \Rightarrow P(k + 1)$
- Strong Induction
  - **CLAIM:**  $P(n)$
  - **BASE CASES:**  $P(x_1), P(x_2), \dots$  are true
  - **INDUCTIVE HYPOTHESIS:**  $\forall i, 0 \leq i \leq k P(k)$
  - **INDUCTIVE STEP:**  $(\forall i \leq k : P(i)) \Rightarrow P(k + 1)$
- Contrapositive
  - Prove  $p \rightarrow c$  by showing that  $\neg c \rightarrow \neg p$ .
- Contradiction
  - Prove  $t$  is true by first assuming  $\neg t$  is true and reaching the conclusion  $r \wedge \neg r$ , for some proposition  $r$ .
- Proof by cases (e.g. When  $x$  is odd..., when  $x$  is even...)

# Number Theory

- **Divisibility Lemma**

1.  $a|b \Rightarrow \forall c : a|bc$
2.  $a|b \wedge b|c \Rightarrow a|c$
3.  $a|b \wedge a|c \Rightarrow \forall s, t \in \mathbb{Z} : a|(sb + tc)$
4.  $\forall c \neq 0 : a|b \Leftrightarrow ca|cb$

- **Division Theorem**

$\forall n, d \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $d > 0, \exists$  a unique pair  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $n = qd + r, 0 \leq r < d$ .

- **GCD Theorem:** The smallest positive linear combination  $m$  of two integers  $a, b$  (at least one of which is non-zero) equals  $g = \gcd(a, b)$ .

Lemma: An integer is a linear combination of  $a, b$  if and only if it is a multiple of  $\gcd(a, b)$ .

- **GCD Lemma**

1.  $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z} : (c|a \wedge c|b \Rightarrow c|\gcd(a, b))$
2.  $\forall k > 0 : \gcd(ka, kb) = k \cdot \gcd(a, b)$
3.  $(\gcd(a, b) = 1 \wedge \gcd(a, c) = 1) \Rightarrow \gcd(a, bc) = 1$
4.  $(a|bc \wedge \gcd(a, b) = 1) \Rightarrow a|c$
5.  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, \text{rem}(a, b))$ ,  
where  $\text{rem}(a, b)$  is the remainder on dividing  $a$  by  $b$ .

- **Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic:** Every number greater than 1 is uniquely expressed as a product of primes. The natural number  $p > 1$  is prime if  $\forall n < p, \gcd(n, p) = 1$ .

- **Congruence modulo  $m$**

Definition: Integers  $a, b$  are congruent modulo  $m$  iff  $m|a - b$ .

Notation:  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

Theorem:  $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow \text{rem}(a, m) = \text{rem}(b, m)$

Lemma: Congruence mod  $m$  is an equivalence relation.

The following properties hold for every  $m \in \mathbb{N}^+$

1.  $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$  - Reflexive
2.  $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow b \equiv a \pmod{m}$  - Commutative
3.  $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \wedge b \equiv c \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a \equiv c \pmod{m}$  - Transitive

- **Modular Arithmetic**

Rules

- $[x + y] \pmod{m} = [(x \pmod{m}) + (y \pmod{m})] \pmod{m}$
- $[x \cdot y] \pmod{m} = [(x \pmod{m})(y \pmod{m})] \pmod{m}$
- $x^a \pmod{m} = (x \pmod{m})^a$

Lemma

1.  $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a + c \equiv b + c \pmod{m}$
2.  $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a \cdot c \equiv b \cdot c \pmod{m}$
3.  $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \wedge c \equiv d \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$
4.  $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \wedge c \equiv d \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a \cdot c \equiv b \cdot d \pmod{m}$

Theorem:

If  $a \cdot c \equiv b \cdot c \pmod{m}$  and  $\gcd(c, m) = 1$ , then  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

- **Modular inverses**

Definition: If  $a \cdot x \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  then we say that  $x$  is the inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$ . (Note:  $a, x \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ )

Notation:  $x \equiv a^{-1} \pmod{m}$ .

$x \equiv a^{-1} \pmod{m}$  also means that  $a \equiv x^{-1} \pmod{m}$

Theorem: If  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$  then  $a^{-1} \pmod{m}$  exists.

Corollary: If  $m$  is prime then every non-zero element in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  has an inverse.

- **Fermat's Last Theorem:** There are no non-zero integer solutions to  $a^n + b^n = c^n$  for  $n \geq 3$ .

- **Fermat's Little Theorem:** If  $p$  is prime and  $p \nmid a$  then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

- **Euler's Totient Function**

Definition: Euler's totient function  $\Phi(n)$  = number of numbers in  $[1, n]$  relatively prime to  $n$ .

Lemma:

1. If  $p$  is prime, then  $\Phi(p) = p - 1$ .
2. If  $p, q$  are primes, then  $\Phi(pq) = (p - 1)(q - 1) = \Phi(p)\Phi(q)$ .

- **Euler's Generalization of Fermat's Little Theorem**

If  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  then  $a^{\Phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

- **Euclidean Algorithm**

$\gcd(a, b) = r_n$

y	x	$r = y \bmod x$
a	b	$r_1$
b	$r_1$	$r_2$
$r_1$	$r_2$	$r_3$

$r_{n-2}$	$r_{n-1}$	$r_n$
$r_{n-1}$	<b><math>r_n</math></b>	0

- **Extended Euclidean Algorithm:** Expresses  $\gcd(a, b)$  as a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$  :  $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$ .

$r = y \bmod x$

$r = y - (y \text{ div } x) \cdot x$  ( $\text{div}$  represents integer division)

$r_1 = a - (a / b) \cdot b$

$r_2 = b - (b / r_1) \cdot r_1$

$r_3 = r_1 - (r_1 / r_2) \cdot r_2$

...

$r_n = r_{n-2} - (r_{n-2} / r_{n-1}) \cdot r_{n-1}$

Rewrite  $r_{n-2} - (r_{n-2} / r_{n-1}) \cdot r_{n-1} \rightarrow sa + tb$ .

- **Chinese Remainder Theorem**

If  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$  are pairwise relatively prime, the system:

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

...

$$x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a *unique* solution modulo  $m = m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot \dots \cdot m_n$ .

To solve, construct:

$$- m = m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot \dots \cdot m_n$$

$$- M_i = \frac{m}{m_i}$$

$$- y_i \equiv M_i^{-1} \pmod{m_i}$$

$$- X_i = a_i y_i M_i$$

Then:  $x \equiv X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n \pmod{m}$

- **RSA Cryptosystem**

1. Select two large prime numbers,  $p$  and  $q$ .
2. Compute  $N = pq$  and  $\Phi = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ .
3. Find integer  $e \rightarrow \gcd(e, \Phi) = 1$ .
4. Compute integer  $d \rightarrow (ed \bmod \Phi) = 1$ .
5. Public (encryption) key:  $N$  and  $e$ .
6. Private (decryption) key:  $d$ .

$c = m^e \bmod N$  (encryption)

$m = c^d \bmod N$  (decryption)

Validity of the RSA cryptosystem:

$c^d \bmod N$

$$= (m^e \bmod N)^d \bmod N$$

$$= m^{e \cdot d} \bmod N$$

$$= m^{1+k\Phi} \bmod N$$

$$= (m \cdot m^{k\Phi}) \bmod N$$

$$= (m \cdot 1) \bmod N$$

$$= m$$

## Exponent rules

$$a^m \cdot a^n = a^{m+n}$$

$$\frac{a^m}{a^n} = a^{m-n}$$

$$(a^m)^n = a^{mn}$$

$$(ab)^m = a^m b^m$$

# Graph Theory

- **Vertex:** Node
  - **Adjacent vertices:** Two vertices with an edge between them.
  - Vertices  $A$  and  $B$  are the **endpoints** of edge  $\{A, B\}$ . The edge  $\{A, B\}$  is **incident** to vertices  $A$  and  $B$ .
  - Vertex  $A$  is a **neighbor** to vertex  $B$  if  $\{A, B\}$  or  $\{B, A\}$  exists.
- **Degree of a vertex:** The number of edges incident to a vertex (the number of neighbors a vertex has).
  - **Total degree:** The sum of the degrees of all of the vertices.
  - **Outdegree of  $v(deg^+(v))$ :** # of outgoing edges; edges with  $v$  as initial node.
  - **Indegree of  $v(deg^-(v))$ :** # of incoming edges; edges with  $v$  as end node.
- **Edge:** A set of two nodes; a line connecting two nodes together.
  - **Undirected edge:**  $\bullet - - - - \bullet$
  - **Directed edge:**  $\bullet - - - - \rightarrow \bullet$
  - **Parallel edges:** Multiple edges between the same pair of vertices.
  - **Self-loop:** An edge between a vertex and itself.
- **Walk:** A sequence of alternating vertices and edges that starts and ends with a vertex.
  - **Open walk:** First and last vertices are not the same.
  - **Closed walk:** First and last vertices are the same.
  - **Length of a walk:** The number of edges in the walk.
- **Trail:** A walk in which no edge is repeated.
- **Circuit:** A closed walk in which no edge is repeated.
- **Path:** A trail in which no vertex is repeated.
- **Cycle:** A circuit of length  $\leq 1$  with the same first and last vertices and no repeated vertex.
- **Eulerian Trail/Circuit:** A trail/circuit that traverses every edge exactly once.
- **Undirected graph:** Edges are unordered pairs of vertices.
- **Directed graph:** Edges are ordered pairs of vertices.
  - $G = (V, E)$ 
    - $V$  is a set of vertices.
    - $E \subseteq V \times V$  is a set of directed edges, where each edge is an ordered pair  $(u, v) : u, v \in V$ .
  - $\sum_{v \in V} deg^{+/-}(v) = |E|$
  - $\sum_{v \in V} deg(v) = 2 \cdot |E|$
- **Simple graph:** A graph that does not have parallel edges or self-loops.
- **Regular graph:** All vertices have the same degree.
  - **D-regular graph:** All vertices have degree  $d$ .
- **Strongly connected graph:** A directed graph where there is a directed path from every node to every other node.
- **Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG):** A directed graph with no cycles.
  - If  $G = (V, E)$  is a DAG, then  $G$  has a node with indegree 0 and has a topological ordering.
- $K_n$  : A complete graph on  $n$  vertices. A complete graph has an edge between every pair of vertices.
- $C_n$  : A cycle on  $n$  vertices; well-defined only for  $n \geq 3$ .
- $K_{n,m}$  : A graph on  $n + m$  vertices. The vertices are divided into 2 sets: one with  $m$  vertices and one with  $n$  vertices. There are no edges between vertices in the same set, but there is an edge between every vertex in one set and every vertex in another set.

## • Eulerian Circuits/Trails

An undirected graph  $G$  has an Euler circuit iff it is connected and every vertex in  $G$  has even degree.

An undirected graph  $G$  has an Euler trail iff  $G$  is connected and has exactly two vertices with odd degree.

## • Trees

Tree: A connected acyclic graph.

Leaves of a tree: Vertices with degree 1.

Observations:

1. Every connected subgraph of a tree  $T$  is also a tree.
2. There is a unique path between every pair of vertices.
3. Adding an edge between any two nonadjacent vertices in a tree creates a cycle.
4. Removing any tree edge disconnects some pair of vertices.
5. Every tree with at least two vertices contains at least two leaves.
6. Every tree with  $n$  vertices has  $n - 1$  edges.

Full binary trees

- Every vertex is either a leaf or has exactly 2 children.
- **THEOREM:** A full binary tree has  $n$  leaves and  $n - 1$  non-leaves.
- **LEMMA:** Some two siblings are both leaves.

## • Map Coloring

- **Four-Color Theorem:** At most 4 colors are required to color a map such that no adjacent regions share the same color.
- For maps with non-contiguous states, 5 colors may be necessary.

## • Planar Graphs: A graph is planar if it can be drawn on the plane without crossing edges.

1. Each edge lies once on the boundary of 2 regions, or twice on the boundary of 1 region.
2. Therefore,  $X = \text{sum of the \# of edges of every region boundary} = 2m$ .
3. Also, since each region has 3 or more bounding edges, if the number of vertices is at least 3:  $X \geq 3r$ .
4. Therefore,  $2m \geq 3r$  for every connected planar graph with at least 3 vertices.
5. In general, if every cycle has length  $c$  or greater, than  $2m \geq cr$ .

## • Euler's Formula

Theorem: For every connected planar graph with  $n$  vertices,  $m$  edges, and  $r$  regions:  $n - m + r = 2$ .

Corollary: The number of regions in all drawings of a planar graph is invariant.

## • Planar graphs have few edges

Theorem: For every connected graph  $G$  with  $n \geq 3$  vertices:  $m \leq 3n - 6$ .

Corollary 1:  $K_5$  is not planar.

Corollary 2:  $K_{3,3}$  is not planar.

## • Five-Color Theorem: Every planar graph can be colored with 5 or fewer colors.