

Math Facts

1 Logarithms

1.1 Definitions

If b and n are positive numbers with $b \neq 1$,

$$\log_b(n) = k \text{ iff } b^k = n$$

$$\log_b(x) = \log_b(y) \text{ iff } x = y$$

$$\log_b^i(x) = (\log_b(x))^i$$

$$\log(x) = \log_{10}(x)$$

$$\ln(x) = \log_e(x)$$

$$\lg(x) = \log_2(x)$$

1.2 Logarithmic Identities

$$\log_b(x^a) = a \cdot \log_b(x)$$

$$\log_b(xy) = \log_b(x) + \log_b(y)$$

$$\log_b\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_b(x) - \log_b(y)$$

$$\log_b(b) = 1$$

$$\log_b(1) = 0$$

$$\log_b(b^n) = n$$

$$\log_b(x) = \frac{\log_c(x)}{\log_c(b)}$$

$$\log_b\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = -\log_b(x)$$

$$\log_b(x) = \frac{1}{\log_x(b)}$$

$$x^{\log_b(y)} = y^{\log_b(x)}$$

$$b^{\log_b(x)} = x$$

1.3 Iterated Log Functions

Let $\lg^{(i)}$ be defined as follows:

$$\lg^{(i)}(n) = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } i = 0 \\ \lg(\lg^{(i-1)}(n)) & \text{if } i > 0 \end{cases}$$

Then the iterated log function (read as “log star n”) is defined as

$$\lg^*(n) = \min \left\{ i \geq 0 \mid \lg^{(i)}(n) \leq 1 \right\}$$

2 Limits

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n) + g(n)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n)) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n) - g(n)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n)) - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n) \cdot g(n)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n)) \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \right) = \frac{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n))}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (g(n))}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (mx + b) = ma + b$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b} b = b$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (k \cdot f(x)) = k \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x))$$

3 Exponents

$$a^0 = 1$$

$$a^1 = a$$

$$0^0 = \text{undefined}$$

$$a^{-m} = \frac{1}{a^m}$$

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

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

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

$$\frac{a^m}{a^n} = a^{m-n} \text{ if } m > n$$

$$\frac{a^m}{a^n} = \frac{1}{a^{m-n}} \text{ if } n > m$$

$$\left(\frac{a}{b} \right)^m = \frac{a^m}{b^m}$$

$$b^{\frac{p}{q}} = \left(\sqrt[q]{b} \right)^p \equiv \sqrt[q]{b^p} \quad \text{for } b > 0 \text{ and } p \text{ and } q \text{ integers with } q > 0$$

4 Summations

4.1 Identities

If $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ and $b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n$ are sequences, and c is a constant, then for every positive integer n ,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n ca_i = c \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i + b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i - b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i - \sum_{i=1}^n b_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (a_i + c) = \sum_{i=1+c}^{n+c} a_i$$

4.2 Closed Forms

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c = cn$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 1 = n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n n = n^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n r^i = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}, \text{ This is the Geometric Sequence.}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (n-i) = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

5 Logical Equivalences

Given any statement variables p , q , and r , a tautology \mathbf{t} , and a contradiction \mathbf{c} , the following logical equivalences hold:

1. Commutative laws: $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$ $p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$
2. Associative laws: $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$ $(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$
3. Distributive laws: $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$ $p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$
4. Identity laws: $p \wedge \mathbf{t} \equiv p$ $p \vee \mathbf{c} \equiv p$
5. Negation laws: $p \vee \sim p \equiv \mathbf{t}$ $p \wedge \sim p \equiv \mathbf{c}$
6. Double negative law: $\sim(\sim p) \equiv p$
7. Idempotent laws: $p \wedge p \equiv p$ $p \vee p \equiv p$
8. Universal bound law: $p \vee \mathbf{t} \equiv \mathbf{t}$ $p \wedge \mathbf{c} \equiv \mathbf{c}$
9. De Morgan's laws: $\sim(p \wedge q) \equiv \sim p \vee \sim q$ $\sim(p \vee q) \equiv \sim p \wedge \sim q$
10. Absorption law: $p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$ $p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$
11. Negations of \mathbf{t} and \mathbf{c} : $\sim \mathbf{t} \equiv \mathbf{c}$ $\sim \mathbf{c} \equiv \mathbf{t}$
12. Division into cases: $p \vee q \rightarrow r \equiv (p \rightarrow r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)$
13. Implication as or: $p \rightarrow q \equiv \sim p \vee q$
14. Negating a conditional: $\sim(p \rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \sim q$
15. Contrapositive: $p \rightarrow q \equiv \sim q \rightarrow \sim p$
16. iff as implications: $p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$

6 Sets

A set is a collection of objects, called elements. The elements must be distinct (each element can appear in the set only once). A set may have a finite or an infinite number of elements. The order of the elements doesn't matter.

6.1 Symbols and Terms

$a \in A$	a is an element of set A .
$a \notin A$	a is not an element of set A .
$\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$	The set with elements a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n .
$\{x \in D \mid \text{condition}\}$	The set of all elements x in D that satisfy the <i>condition</i> .
$\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R}^-, \mathbb{R}^+, \mathbb{R}^{\text{nonneg}}$	Set of all real numbers, negative reals, positive reals, and nonnegative reals.
$\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Z}^-, \mathbb{Z}^+, \mathbb{Z}^{\text{nonneg}}$	Set of all integers, negative integers, positive integers, and nonnegative integers.
$\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{Q}^-, \mathbb{Q}^+, \mathbb{Q}^{\text{nonneg}}$	Set of rational numbers, negative rationals, positive rationals, and nonnegative rationals.
\mathbb{N}	Set of natural numbers. $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots\}$.
\mathbb{W}	Set of whole numbers. $\mathbb{W} = \{0, 1, \dots\}$.
\mathbb{Z}_2	Set of binary digits. $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$.
$ A $	The number of elements in A ; The <i>cardinality</i> of A .
$A \subset B$	A is a proper subset of B . Equivalently $B \supset A$.
$A \subseteq B$	A is a subset of B . Equivalently $B \supseteq A$.
$A \not\subset B$	A is not a proper subset of B . Equivalently $B \not\supset A$.
$A \not\subseteq B$	A is not a subset of B . Equivalently $B \not\supseteq A$.
$A \supset B$	A is a proper superset of B . Equivalently $A \subset B$.
$A \supseteq B$	A is a superset of B . Equivalently $B \subseteq A$.
$A \not\supset B$	A is not a proper superset of B . Equivalently $B \not\subset A$.
$A \not\supseteq B$	A is not a superset of B . Equivalently $B \not\subseteq A$.
$A = B$	A equals B .
$A \neq B$	A does not equal B .
$A \cup B$	A union B .
$A \cap B$	A intersect B .
$A - B$	The difference of A minus B . An alternate notation for difference is $A \setminus B$.
A^c	The complement of A . An alternate notation is \overline{A} or A' .
(x, y)	Ordered pair.
(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)	n -tuple.
$A \times B$	The Cartesian product of A and B .
$A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$	The Cartesian product of A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n .
\emptyset	The empty set. An alternate notation for the empty set is \varnothing or $\{\}$.
$\mathcal{P}(A)$	The power set of A .
<i>Disjoint</i>	A and B are disjoint if $A \cap B = \emptyset$.
<i>Pairwise Disjoint</i>	A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are pairwise disjoint if, for every pair A_i and A_j , $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$.

6.2 Selected Examples

6.2.1 Set Definitions and Cardinality

We can define a set simply by listing its elements:

$$A_1 = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

$$A_2 = \{2, 4, 6\}.$$

$$A_3 = \{3, 5, 7\}.$$

$$A_4 = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}.$$

Sets can contain anything, not just numbers:

$$A_5 = \{\textit{Dalek}, \textit{Tardis}, \textit{Sonic Screwdriver}, \textit{Cyberman}\}.$$

Instead of listing every element, we can use notation with a condition:

$$A_6 = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid x \leq 6 \text{ and } x \text{ is even}\} \text{ is the set } \{2, 4, 6\}.$$

$$A_7 = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \text{ is even}\} \text{ is the set of all even integers.}$$

$$A_8 = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid x \leq 1,000,000,000\} \text{ is the set of all counting numbers up to one billion.}$$

Since the number 2 is an element of set A_1 , we say $2 \in A_1$.

Since *Bow Tie* is not a member of set A_5 , we say $\textit{Bow Tie} \notin A_5$.

We can see that there are 5 elements in A_1 . We write this as $|A_1| = 5$.

Similarly $|A_2| = 3$, $|A_3| = 3$, $|A_4| = 6$, $|A_5| = 4$, $|A_6| = 3$, $|A_7| = \infty$, and $|A_8| = 1,000,000,000$. Also, since the empty set contains no elements, $|\emptyset| = 0$.

6.2.2 Comparing Two Sets

Proper Subset

$A \subset B$ means every element in A is also in B , and there is at least one element in B that is not in A . Using the above sets, we have $A_2 \subset A_1$. However, $A_2 \not\subset A_4$ because $2 \in A_2$ but $2 \notin A_4$. Also, $A_2 \not\subset A_6$ because, while every element in A_2 is in A_6 , there is no element in A_6 that is not in A_2 .

Subset

$A \subseteq B$ means every element in A is also in B . We still have $A_2 \subseteq A_1$, but now we also have $A_2 \subseteq A_6$. Also, the empty set is a subset of every set. In other words, for any set A , $\emptyset \subseteq A$.

Set Equality

$A = B$ means A and B have exactly the same elements. This is often expressed as $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$. Using the above sets we have:

$$A_2 = A_6$$

$$\mathbb{N} = \mathbb{Z}^+$$

$$\mathbb{W} = \mathbb{Z}^{\textit{nonneg}}$$

6.2.3 Creating New Sets from Old

Union

$A \cup B$ is the set containing every element that is in A or in B . So:

$$A_1 \cup A_2 = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

$$A_1 \cup A_3 = \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}.$$

Intersection

$A \cap B$ is the set containing every element that is in A and in B . So:

$$A_1 \cap A_2 = \{2, 4, 6\}.$$

$$A_1 \cap A_3 = \{3\}.$$

$$A_2 \cap A_3 = \emptyset.$$

Set Difference

$A - B$ is the set containing all elements that are in A but not in B . You can think of this as starting out with the elements of A and removing everything that is also in B .

$$A_1 - A_2 = \{3, 5\}.$$

$$A_2 - A_1 = \emptyset.$$

$$A_4 - A_7 = \{5, 7, 9\}.$$

$$\mathbb{Z}^{nonneg} - \mathbb{Z}^+ = \{0\}.$$

Complement

If set A is a subset of a universal set U , then A^c is the set of all elements in U that are not in A . So if the universal set for A_1 is $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, then $A_2^c = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$.

Cartesian Product

$A \times B$ is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.

$$A_2 \times A_3 = \{(2, 3), (2, 5), (2, 7), (4, 3), (4, 5), (4, 7), (6, 3), (6, 5), (6, 7)\}$$

Notice that $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|$.

Power Sets

$\mathcal{P}(A)$ is the set containing all subsets of A .

$$\mathcal{P}(A_2) = \{\emptyset, \{2\}, \{4\}, \{6\}, \{2, 4\}, \{2, 6\}, \{4, 6\}, \{2, 4, 6\}\}$$

Note, $|\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^{|A|}$

6.3 Set Identities

Let all sets referred to below be subsets of a universal set U .

- | | | | |
|-----|--------------------------------------|--|--|
| 1. | Commutative laws: | $A \cap B = B \cap A$ | $A \cup B = B \cup A$ |
| 2. | Associative laws: | $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$ | $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$ |
| 3. | Distributive laws: | $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ | $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ |
| 4. | Identity laws: | $A \cap U = A$ | $A \cup \emptyset = A$ |
| 5. | Complementation laws: | $A \cup A^c = U$ | $A \cap A^c = \emptyset$ |
| 6. | Double complement law: | $(A^c)^c = A$ | |
| 7. | Idempotent laws: | $A \cap A = A$ | $A \cup A = A$ |
| 8. | De Morgan's laws: | $(A \cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$ | $(A \cap B)^c = A^c \cup B^c$ |
| 9. | Universal bound law: | $A \cup U = U$ | $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$ |
| 10. | Absorption law: | $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$ | $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$ |
| 11. | Complements of U and \emptyset : | $U^c = \emptyset$ | $\emptyset^c = U$ |
| 12. | Set Difference | $A - B = A \cap B^c$ | |

7 Graphs

A *graph* $G = (V, E)$ consists of an ordered pair of sets, V and E . The **vertex set** V is a non-empty set of objects called **vertices**. The **edge set** $E = \{\{u, v\} \mid u, v \in V\}$ is a set of unordered pairs of vertices, called **edges**. The vertex set of G can be written as $V(G)$ and the edge set of G can be written as $E(G)$.

The number of vertices in G is called the **order** of G . The order of a graph is commonly denoted as n .

The number of edges in G is called the **size** of G . The size of a graph is commonly denoted as m .

A **simple graph** is a graph that does not have any self-loops or parallel edges.

A **complete graph** on n vertices, denoted K_n , is a simple graph with n vertices whose set of edges contains exactly one edge for each pair of distinct vertices.

A graph is **k edge connected** if there does not exist a set of k edges whose removal disconnects the graph. The *maximum* edge connectivity of a given graph is the smallest degree of any vertex, since deleting these edges disconnects the graph.

A graph is **k vertex connected** (or simply k -connected) if there does not exist a set of k vertices whose removal disconnects the graph.

A **complete bipartite graph** on (m, n) vertices, denoted $K_{m,n}$, is a simple graph with vertices u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m and v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n that satisfies the following properties:

$$\forall i, k = 1, 2, \dots, m \text{ and } \forall j, l = 1, 2, \dots, n,$$

1. there is an edge from each vertex u_i to each vertex v_j
2. there is not an edge from any vertex u_i to any other vertex u_k
3. there is not an edge from any vertex v_j to any other vertex v_l

A simple graph is **planar** if it can be drawn in the plane with no intersecting edges.

A **Delauney Triangulation** is a triangulation in which for each $\triangle uvw$ the circumcircle $disk(u, v, w)$ does not contain any other vertices. The Delauney triangulation is a triangulation with the smallest possible edge length.

A **Gabriel graph**, denoted $GG(V)$ contains an edge $\{u, v\}$ iff the disk with diameter \overline{uv} contains no other vertices.

A **relative neighborhood graph**, denoted $RNG(V)$, is a graph in which $\{a, b\} \in E$ iff $\forall c \in V, \|ac\| \geq \|ab\|$ or $\|bc\| \geq \|ab\|$. In other words, no vertices lie in the intersection of the disks centered at a and b .

If $\{u, v\}$ is an edge of G , then u and v are **adjacent vertices** in G . u and v are then called **neighbors** in G . Edge $\{u, v\}$ is **incident** to vertex u and to vertex v .

Distinct edges that share a common vertex are **adjacent edges**.

A graph H is a **subgraph** of graph G iff $V(H) \subseteq V(G)$ and $E(H) \subseteq E(G)$. This is denoted as $H \subseteq G$.

A graph H is a **proper subgraph** of graph G iff $H \subseteq G$ and either $V(H) \subset V(G)$ or $E(H) \subset E(G)$. This is denoted as $H \subset G$.

A graph H is a **spanning subgraph** of graph G iff $H \subseteq G$ and $V(H) = V(G)$.

A subset of vertices $F \subseteq V(G)$ gives rise to the graph $\langle F \rangle$, called the **subgraph of G induced by F** . The vertices in the induced subgraph are $V(\langle F \rangle) = F$. The edges are $E(\langle F \rangle) = \{\{u, v\} \mid u, v \in F \text{ and } \{u, v\} \in E(G)\}$. To emphasize it is an induced subgraph of G , $\langle F \rangle$ is often written as $G[F]$.

A subset of edges $X \subseteq E(G)$ defines the graph $\langle X \rangle$, called the **subgraph of G induced by X** . The edges in $\langle X \rangle$ are given by $E(\langle X \rangle) = X$. The vertices are given by $V(\langle X \rangle) = \{u \mid \{u, v\} \in X \text{ or } \{v, u\} \in X\}$. To emphasize it is an induced subgraph of G , $\langle X \rangle$ is often written as $G[X]$.

A **directed graph** $G = (V, E)$ consists of an ordered pair of sets, V and E . The **vertex set** V is a non-empty set of objects called **vertices**. The **edge set** $E = \{(u, v) \mid u \in V \text{ and } v \in V\}$ is a set of ordered pairs of vertices.