CS1231

AY22/23 sem 2 github.com/NeoHW

01. Propositional Logic

sets of numbers

 \mathbb{N} : natural numbers ($\mathbb{Z}_{>0}$) Z: integers ① : rational numbers R: real numbers C: complex numbers $\mathbb{N}\subseteq\mathbb{Z}\subseteq\mathbb{Q}\subseteq\mathbb{R}\subseteq\mathbb{C}$

basic properties of integers

closure (under addition and multiplication) $x + y \in \mathbb{Z} \land xy \in \mathbb{Z}$ commutativity $a + b = b + a \wedge ab = ba$ associativity a + b + c = a + (b + c) = (a + b) + cabc = a(bc) = (ab)cdistributivity a(b+c) = ab + actrichotomy $(a < b) \lor (a > b) \lor (a = b)$ transitive law $(a < b) \land (b < c) \implies (a < c)$

definitions

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even/odd
                 n is even \leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n = 2k
              n \text{ is odd} \leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n = 2k + 1
                           prime/composite
n is prime \leftrightarrow n > 1 and \forall r, s \in \mathbb{Z}^+, n = rs \to (r = rs)
                             n) \vee (r = s)
   n is composite \leftrightarrow n > 1 and \exists r, s \in \mathbb{Z}^+ s.t.n =
              rs and 1 < r < n and 1 < s < n
                       divisibility (d divides n)
                    d \mid n \leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n = kd
                                rationality
       r is rational \leftrightarrow \exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \mid r = \frac{a}{L} and b \neq 0
                               floor/ceiling
           |x|: largest integer y such that y \le x
          [x]: smallest integer y such that y \ge x
                        rules of inference
```

generalisation $p, \therefore p \vee q$ specialisation $p \wedge q$, :. p

elimination $p \vee q$; $\sim q$, $\therefore p$ transitivity $p \to q; \ q \to r; \ \therefore p \to r$

03. PROOFS

1. list out possible cases

Proof by Exhaustion/Cases

1.1. Case 1: n is odd OR If n = 9, ...1.2. Case 2: n is even OR If n = 16. ...

2. therefore ...

Proof by Contradiction

 Suppose that . . . 1.1. ¡proof¿

1.2. ... but this contradicts ...

2. Therefore the assumption that ... is false. Hence

Proof by Contraposition

1. Contrapositive statement: $\sim q \rightarrow \sim p$

2. let $\sim q$

2.1. ¡proof¿ 2.2. hence $\sim p$

3. $p \rightarrow q$

Proof by Construction

1. Let x = 3, y = 4, z = 5.

2. Then $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ and $x^2 + y^2 = 3^2 + 4^2 = 9 + 16 = 25 = 5^2$.

3. Thus $\exists x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ such that $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$.

Proof by Induction

1. For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$, let P(n) be the proposition "..."

2. (base step) P(1) is true because imanual method.

3. (induction step)

3.1. let $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ s.t. P(k) is true

3.2. Then ...

3.3. proof that P(k+1) is true - e.g. $P(k+1) = P(k) + term_{k+1}$

3.4. So P(k + 1) is true.

4. Hence $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1} P(n)$ is true by MI.

INDUCTION

mathematical induction

to prove that $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq m}(P(n))$ is true,

• base step: show that P(m) is true

• induction step: show that $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq m}(P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1))$

• induction hypothesis: assumption that P(k) is true

strong MI

to prove that $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}(P(n))$ is true,

• base step: show that P(0), P(1) are true

· induction step: show that

 $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}(P(0) \cdots \wedge P(k+1) \Rightarrow P(k+2))$ is true. iustification:

• $P(0) \wedge P(1)$ by base case

• $P(0) \wedge P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$ by induction with k=0

• $P(0) \wedge P(1) \wedge P(2) \rightarrow P(3)$ by induction with k=1

• we deduce that $P(0), P(1), \ldots$ are all true by a series of modus ponens

Proofs for Sets

Equality of Sets (A=B) $1. (\Rightarrow)$ 1.1. Take any $z \in A$. 1.2. ... 1.3. $\therefore z \in B$. 2. (\(\phi\)) 2.1. Take any $z \in B$. 2.2. ...

2.3. $z \in A$.

Element Method

```
1. A \cap (B \setminus C) = \{x : x \in A \land x \in (B \setminus C)\} (by def. of \cap)
2. = \{x : x \in A \land (x \in B \land x \notin C)\} (by def. of \)
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3. ...

4. = $(A \cap B) \setminus C$ (by def. of \)

Other Proofs

iff $(A \leftrightarrow B)$

1. (\Rightarrow) Suppose A.

1.1. ... ¡proof¿ ...

1.2. Hence $A \rightarrow B$

2. (\Leftarrow) Suppose B. 2.1. ... ¡proof; ...

2.2. Hence $B \rightarrow A$

02. PREDICATE LOGIC

operations

 $1 \sim$: negation (not)

2 ∧ : conjunction (and)

 $2 \lor$: disjunction (or) - coequal to \land

 $3 \rightarrow$: if-then

logical equivalence

· identical truth values in truth table

definitions

· to show non-equivalence:

truth table method (only needs 1 row)

· counter-example method

conditional statements

hypothesis → conclusion

 $antecedent \rightarrow consequent$

vacuously true: hypothesis is false

• implication law : $p \rightarrow q \equiv \sim p \vee q$

• common statements for $p \to q$:

• if p then a

• a if p

p only if q

p iff q

· p is sufficient for q

· q is necessary for p

• contrapositive : $\sim q \rightarrow \sim p$ statement \equiv contrapositive • inverse : $\sim p \rightarrow \sim q$ converse ≡ inverse

• converse : $q \rightarrow p$

• r is a **necessary** condition for s: $\sim r \rightarrow \sim s$ and $s \rightarrow r$

• r is a **sufficient** condition for s: $r \rightarrow s$

necessary & sufficient : ↔

valid arguments

· determining validity: construct truth table

• valid \leftrightarrow conclusion is true when premises are true • syllogism : (argument form) 2 premises, 1 conclusion

• modus ponens : $p \rightarrow q; \; p; \; \therefore q$

• modus tollens : $p \rightarrow q$; $\sim q$; $\therefore \sim p$ · sound argument : is valid & all premises are true converse error $p \rightarrow q$ q $\therefore p$

fallacies

inverse error $p \rightarrow q$ $\sim p$ $\therefore \sim q$

QUANTIFIED STATEMENTS

• truth set of $P(x) = \{x \in D \mid P(x)\}$

• $P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x) : \forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$

• $P(x) \Leftrightarrow Q(x) : \forall x (P(x) \leftrightarrow Q(x))$

relation between $\forall . \exists . \land . \lor$

• $\forall x \in D, Q(x) \equiv Q(x_1) \land Q(x_2) \land \cdots \land Q(x_n)$ • $\exists x \in D \mid Q(x) \equiv Q(x_1) \lor Q(x_2) \lor \cdots \lor Q(x_n)$

relation between \sim , \forall , \exists

• $\sim \forall P(x) \leftrightarrow \exists x \sim P(x)$

• $\sim \exists P(x) \leftrightarrow \forall x \sim P(x)$

04. SETS

notation

• set roster notation [1]: $\{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$

• set roster notation [2]: $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$

• set-builder notation: $\{x \in \mathbb{U} : P(x)\}$

• replacement notation: $\{t(x): x \in A\}$

definitions

• equal sets : $A = B \leftrightarrow \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$

• $A = B \leftrightarrow (A \subseteq B) \land (A \supseteq B)$

· order and repetition does not matter

• subset : $A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow \forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$

• proper subset : $A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow (A \subseteq B) \land (A \neq B)$

• power set of A : $\mathcal{P}(A) = \{X \mid X \subseteq A\}$

• $|\mathcal{P}(A)| = 2^{|A|}$, given that A is a finite set

• $\mathcal{P}(\emptyset) = \{\emptyset\}$; $\mathcal{P}(\mathcal{P}(\emptyset)) = \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}$ • $\mathcal{P}(\{1,2\}) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1,2\}\}$

• cardinality of a set, |A|: number of distinct elements

• singleton : sets of size 1

• disjoint : $A \cap B = \emptyset$

methods of proof for sets

· direct proof

· element method

· truth table

boolean operations

• union: $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \lor x \in B\}$

• intersection: $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \land x \in B\}$

• complement (of B in A): $A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \land x \notin B\}$

• complement (of B): \bar{B} or $B^c = U \backslash B$ • set difference law: $A \setminus B = A \cap \bar{B}$

05. RELATIONS

ordered pairs

• ordered pair : (x, y)

• $(x,y) = (x',y') \leftrightarrow x = x'$ and y = y'

· Cartesian product :

 $A \times B = \{(x, y) : x \in A \text{ and } y \in B\}$

 $\bullet |A \times B| = |A| \times |B|$ • $\{a,b\} \times \{1,2,3\} =$

 $\{(a,1),(a,2),(a,3),(b,1),(b,2),(b,3)\}$

- ordered tuples : expression of the form (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)
- · defined recursively:

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+1}) = ((x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n), x_{n+1})$$

• $(1, 2, 5) \neq (2, 1, 5)$ although $\{1, 2, 5\} = \{2, 1, 5\}$

relations

Let R be a relation from A to B and $(x,y)\in A\times B.$ Then: $xRy \text{ for } (x,y)\in R \text{ and } xRy \text{ for } (x,y)\notin R$

- a relation from A to B is a subset of $A \times B$.
- a (binary) relation on set A is a relation from A to A. • subset of A^2
- inverse relation: $xR^{-1}y \Leftrightarrow yRx$

operations on relations

- $S \circ R =$ undergo R relation then S relation
- $(S \circ R)^{-1} = R^{-1} \circ S^{-1}$

06. EQUIVALENCE RELATIONS AND PARTIAL ORDERS

reflexivity, symmetry, transitivity

Let A be a set and R be a relation on A.

$$\label{eq:continuous_problem} \begin{split} & \text{reflexive} \\ & \forall x \in A \; (xRx) \\ & \text{symmetric} \\ & \forall x, y \in A \; (xRy \Rightarrow yRx) \\ & \text{transitive} \\ & \forall x, y, z \in A \; (xRy \land yRz \Rightarrow xRz) \end{split}$$

- equivalence relation: a relation that is reflexive, symmetric and transitive
- equivalence class: the set of all things equivalent to x

equivalence classes

Let A be a set and R be an equivalence relation on A.

- $[x]_{\sim}$: equivalence class of x with respect to R
- the set of all elements of A that x is related to

$$\forall x \in A, [x]_{\sim} = \{ y \in A : xRy \}$$

• A/\sim : The set of all equivalent classes

$$A/R = \{ [x]_{\sim} : x \in A \}$$

$$xRy \Rightarrow [x] = [y] \Rightarrow [x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$$

partitions

- a partition of a set A is a set $\mathscr C$ of non-empty subsets of A such that
- $0. \ \forall S \in \mathscr{C}, \ (\emptyset \neq S \subseteq A)$
- % is a set of nonempty subsets of A
- 1. $\forall x \in A, \exists S \in \mathscr{C}(x \in S)$
- every element of A is in some element of $\mathscr C$
- 2. $\forall x \in A, \forall S_1, S_2 \in \mathscr{C}(x \in S_1 \land x \in S_2 \Rightarrow S_1 = S_2)$
- if two items of $\mathscr C$ have a nonempty intersection, then they are equal
- components: elements of a partition
- · every partition comes from an equivalence relation

partial orders

Let A be a set and R be a relation on A.

- R is antisymmetric if $\forall x, y \in A \ (xRy \land yRx \rightarrow x = y)$ • includes vacuously true cases (e.g. $xRy \Leftrightarrow x < y$)
- *R* is a (non-strict) partial order if *R* is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive.
- x and y are comparable if $\forall x, y \in A (xRy \vee yRx)$
- R is a **(non-strict) total order** if R is a partial order and every pair of elements are comparable
- a smallest element of A is an element $m\in A$ such that mRx for all $x\in A$

well-ordering principle

- every nonempty subset of $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ has a smallest element.
- application: recursion has a base case

07. FUNCTIONS

definitions

- function/map from A to B : each element of A exactly f-related to one element of B.
 - Important : $(x, y) \in f \leftrightarrow y = f(x)$
 - (F1): every element in A f-related to at least one of B $\forall x \in A \ \exists y \in B \ (x,y) \in f$
 - (F2): every element in A f-related to at most one of B $\forall x \in A \ \exists y_1, y_2 \in B \ ((x,y_1) \in f \land (x,y_1) \in f \rightarrow y_1 = y_2)$
 - $f: A \rightarrow B$: "f is a function from A to B"
 - $f: x \rightarrow y$: "f maps x to y"
 - domain of f = A
 - codomain of f = B
 - range/image of f = $\{f(x): x \in A\}$ = $\{y \in B \mid y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in A\}$
 - * range $(f) \in \text{codomain}$
 - $\star \text{ if } f \text{ is surjective: } \operatorname{range}(f) \in \operatorname{codomain} \in \operatorname{range}(f)$
- identity function on A, $id_A : A \rightarrow A$
- $id_A: x \to x$
- range = domain = codomain = A
- (P7.4.13) $f \circ \operatorname{id}_{\mathsf{A}} = f$ and $\operatorname{id}_{\mathsf{A}} \circ f = f$
- well-defined function: every element in the domain is assigned to exactly one element in the codomain

equality of functions

- · same codomain and domain
- for all $x \in \text{codomain}$, same output

function composition

- $(q \circ f)(x) = q(f(x))$
- for $(g \circ f)$ to be well defined, codomain of f must be equal to the domain of g
- \times commutative $(g \circ f)(x) \neq (f \circ g)(x)$
- \checkmark associative (T6.1.26) $f \circ (g \circ h) = (f \circ g) \circ h$

image & pre-image

for $f:A\to B$

- if $X \subseteq A$, image of X,
- $f(X) = \{ y \in B : y = f(x) \text{ for some } x \in X \}$
- if $Y\subseteq B$, pre-image of Y, $f^{-1}(Y)=\{x\in A:y=f(x)\text{ for some }y\in Y\}$

injection & surjection

- surjective (onto) : codomain = range
 - for every B, there is a A
 - $\forall y \in B \ \exists x \in A \ (y = f(x))$ a function is **not** surjective iff
 - $\exists y \in B \ \forall x \in A \ (y \neq f(x))$
- injective : one-to-one
 - ullet for every B, at most one A

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in A (f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2)$$

 \bullet a function is \boldsymbol{not} injective iff

$$\exists x_1, x_2 \in A \ (f(x_1) = f(x_2) \land x_1 \neq x_2)$$

• bijective : both surjective & injective

inverse

- $\forall x \in A, \forall y \in B(f(x) = y \Leftrightarrow g(y) = x)$
- uniqueness of inverses (P2.6.16)
 - if g, g' are inverses of $f: A \to B$, then g = g'

8. CARDINALITY

pigeonhole principle

For any function f from a finite set A with n elements to a finite set B with m elements if there is an injection $A \to B$, then $n \le m$

dual pigeonhole principle

For any function f from a finite set A with n elements to a finite set B with m elements if there is an surjection

$$A \rightarrow B$$
, then $n \ge m$

T8.1.3

For any function f from a finite set A with n elements to a finite set B with m elements if there is a bijection $A \to B$, then n = m

- A function from a finite set to a smaller finite set cannot be injective.
- presentation:
 - There are m pigeons and n pegionholes
 - Thus, by Pigeonhole Principle, ...

same cardinality

- A set A is said to have the same cardinality (HSC) as a set B if there is a bijection $A \to B$
- reflexivity: A HSC A.
- symmetry: if A HSC B, then B HSC A.
- transitivity: if A HSC B, and B HSC C, then A HSC C.

finite sets

- A set A is finite if it HSC $\{1,2,\ldots,n\}$ for some $n\in\mathbb{N}$
- n is the cadinality/size of A, denoted by |A|
- Let A and B be sets that HSC, then A is finite iff B is finite

9. COUNTABILITY

10. COUNTING

permutations

$$P(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$
 (also ${}_{n}P_{r},P_{r}^{n}$)

 multiplication/product rule: An operation of k steps can be performed in n₁ × n₂ × · · · × n_k ways. - addition/sum rule: Suppose a finite set A equals the union of k distinct mutually disjoint subsets

$$A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k$$
. Then $|A| = |A_1| + |A_2| + \dots + |A_k|$

• difference rule: if
$$A$$
 is a finite set and $B\subseteq A$, then $|A\backslash B|=|A|=|B|$

- complement: $P(\bar{A}) = 1 P(A)$
- inclusion/exclusion rule: $|A \cup B \cup C| = |A| + |B| + |C| |A \cap B| |B \cap C| |C \cap A| + |A \cap B \cap C|$

permutations with indistinguishable objects

For n objects with n_k of type k indistinguishable from each other, the total number of distinguishable permutations n!

$$= \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! \dots n_k!}$$

combinations

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!} \text{ (also } C(n,r),\, {}_{n}C_{r},\, C_{n,r},\, {}^{n}C_{r} \text{)}$$

$$r\text{-combinations from } n \text{ elements with } \textbf{repetition}$$

$$= \binom{r+n-1}{r}$$

pascal's formula

Suppose
$$n, r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$
 with $r \leq n$. Then $\binom{n+1}{r} = \binom{n}{r-1} + \binom{n}{r}$

binomial theorem

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$

binomial coefficient: $\binom{n}{k}$

11. GRAPHS

• mathematical structures used to model pairwise relations between objects

types of graphs

undirected graph v_1 e_4 e_5 e_7 e_8 e_8

directed graph e_5

 $e_1 = \{v_1, v_2\}$

 v_{2} e_{1} e_{4} e_{3} e_{6} e_{2} e_{7} e_{7} e_{1} e_{1} e_{1} e_{2} e_{3}

undirected graph

- denoted by G = (V, E), comprising
 - nonempty set of *vertices/nodes*, $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$
 - a set of *edges*, $E = \{e_1, e_2, \cdots, e_k\}$
- $e = \{v, w\}$ for an undirected edge E incident on vertices v and w

directed graph

- denoted by G = (V, E), comprising
- nonempty set V of vertices
- a set E of directed edges (ordered pair of vertices)
- $\boldsymbol{e} = (\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w})$: an directed edge E from vertex \boldsymbol{v} to vertex \boldsymbol{w}

simple graph

• undirected graph with no loops or parallel edges

complete graph

• a complete graph on n vertices, n>0, denoted K_n , is a simple graph with n vertices and exactly one edge connecting each pair of distinct vertices

subgraph of a graph

H is a subgraph of $G \Leftrightarrow$

- every vertex in H is also a vertex in G
- every edge in H is also an edge in G
- ullet every edge in H has the same endpoints as it has in G

paths and walks

Let G be a graph; let v and w be vertices of G.

- walk (from v to w): a finite alternating sequence of adjacent vertices and edges of G.
 - e.g. $v_0e_1v_1e_2\dots v_{n-1}e_nv_n$
- length of walk: the number of edges, n
- path (from v to w): a trail that does not contain a repeated vertex
- closed walk: walk that starts and ends at the same vertex

cycles

- circuit/cycle: an undirected graph G(V,E) where
 - $V = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$
 - $E = \{\{x_1, x_2\}, \{x_2, x_3\}, \dots, \{x_{n-1}, x_n\}, \{x_n, x_1\}\}$
 - $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 3}$
 - aka a closed walk that does not contain a repeated edge
- simple circuit/cycle: does not have any other repeated vertex except the first and last
- (an undirected graph is) cyclic if it contains a loop/cycle

connectedness

- vertices v and w are connected $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ a walk from v to w
- graph G is connected $\Leftrightarrow \forall$ vertices $v,w \in V, \exists$ a walk from v to w

connected component

- · a connected subgraph of the largest possible size
- graph H is a connected component of graph $G \Leftrightarrow$

- 1. H is a subgraph of G
- 2. *H* is connected
- 3. no connected subgraph of G has H as a subgraph and contains vertices or edges that are not in H

Hamiltonian circuit

- Hamiltonian circuit (for G): a simple circuit that includes every vertex of G.
 - does not need to include all the edges of G (unlike Euler circuit)
- Hamilton(ian) graph: contains a Hamiltonian circuit
- If ${\cal G}$ is a Hamiltonian circuit, then ${\cal G}$ has subgraph ${\cal H}$ where:
 - 1. H contains every vertex of G
 - 2. *H* is connected
 - 3. H has the same number of edges as vertices
 - 4. every vertex of *H* has degree 2

counting walks of length N

number of walks of length n from v_i to v_j = the ij-th entry of A^n

isomorphism

• graph isomorphism (\cong) is an equivalence relation.

Let $G=(V_G,E_G)$ and $G'=(V_{G'},E_{G'})$ be two graphs. $G\cong G'\Leftrightarrow$ there exist bijections $g:V_G\to V_G'$ and $h:E_G\to E_G'$ that preserve the edge-edgepoint functions of G and G' in the sense that $\forall v\in V_G$ and $e\in E_G$, v is an endpoint of $e\Leftrightarrow g(v)$ is an endpoint of h(e).

11. TREES

- tree is a connected acyclic undirected graph
 - (L10.5.4) If G is a connected graph with n vertices and n-1 edges, then G is a tree.
- trivial tree: graph that comprises a single vertex
- · forest ⇔ graph is circuit-free and not connected
 - a group of trees
- terminal vertex: a vertex of degree 1

• internal vertex: a vertex of degree greater than 1









rooted trees

- rooted tree: a tree in which there is one vertex that is distinguished from the others and is called the root.
- level (of a vertex): the number of edges along the unique path between it and the root
- height (of a rooted tree): the maximum level of any vertex of the tree
- children, parent, siblings, ancestor, decendant

binary tree

- binary tree: a rooted tree in which every parent has at most 2 children
 - at most one left child and at most one right child
- full binary tree: a binary tree in which every parent has exactly 2 children
- (left/right) **subtree**: Given any parent v in a binary tree T, the binary tree whose root is the (left/right) child of v, whose vertices consist of the left child of v and all its descendants, and whose edges consist of all those edges of T that connect the vertices of the left subtree.

T10.6.1: Full Binary Tree Theorem

If T is a full binary tree with k internal vertices, then T has a total of 2k+1 vertices and has k+1 terminal vertices.

binary tree traversal



starts at the root

- starts at the root
- visits its adjacent vertices

Breadth-First Search (BFS)

· visits the next level

Depth-First Search (DFS)

pre-order

- current vertex \rightarrow left subtree \rightarrow right subtree
- · in-order
- left subtree → current vertex → right subtree
- · post-order
 - left subtree \rightarrow right subtree \rightarrow current vertex

spanning trees

- spanning tree (for a graph G): a subgraph of G that contains every vertex of G and is a tree.
 - w(e) weight of edge e
 - w(G) total weight of G
- weighted graph: each edge has an associated positive real number weight
- total weight: sum of the weights of all edges
- minimum spanning tree: least possible total weight compared to all other spanning trees

Kruskal's algorithm

For a connected weighted graph G with n vertices:

- 1. initialise T to have all the vertices of G and no edges.
- 2. let E be the set of all edges in G; let m=0
- 3. while (m < n 1)
 - 3.1. find and remove the edge e in E of least weight
- 3.2. if adding e to the edge set of T does not produce a circuit:
 - i. add e to the edge set of T
 - ii. set m=m+1

Prim's algorithm

For a connected weighted graph G with n vertices:

- 1. pick any vertex v of G and let T be the graph with this vertex only
- 2. Let V be the set of all vertices of G except v
- 3. for (i = 0 to n 1)
- 3.1. find the edge e in G with the least weight of all the edges connected to T. let w be the endpoint of e.
- 3.2. add e and w to the edge and vertex sets of T
- 3.3. delete w from v

| LOGICAL EQUIVALENCES | | | SET IDENTITIES | | |
|----------------------|--|---|-----------------------|--|--|
| commutative laws | $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$ | $p \lor q \equiv q \lor p$ | commutative laws | $A \cap B = B \cap A$ | $A \cup B = B \cup A$ |
| associative laws | $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$ | $(p \lor q) \lor r \equiv p \lor (q \lor r)$ | associative laws | $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$ | $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$ |
| distributive laws | $p \land (q \lor r) \equiv (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$ | $p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)$ | distributive laws | $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ | $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ |
| identity laws | $p \wedge true \equiv p$ | $p \lor false \equiv p$ | identity laws | $A \cap U = A$ | $A \cup \emptyset = A$ |
| idempotent laws | $p \land p \equiv p$ | $p \lor p \equiv p$ | idempotent laws | $A \cap A = A$ | $A \cup A = A$ |
| annihilators laws | $p \lor true \equiv true$ | $p \wedge false \equiv false$ | annihilators laws | $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$ | $A \cup U = U$ |
| negation laws | $p \lor \sim p \equiv true$ | $p \land \sim p \equiv false$ | complement laws | $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$ | $A \cup \overline{A} = U$ |
| double negation law | $\sim (\sim p) \equiv p$ | | double complement law | $\overline{(\overline{A})} = A$ | _ |
| absorption laws | $p \lor (p \land q) \equiv p$ | $p \land (p \lor q) \equiv p$ | absorption laws | $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$ | $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$ |
| De Morgan's Laws | $\sim (p \lor q) \equiv \sim p \land \sim q$ | $\sim (p \land q) \equiv \sim p \lor \sim q$ | De Morgan's Laws | $\overrightarrow{A \cup B} = \overrightarrow{A} \cap \overline{B}$ | $\overrightarrow{A \cap B} = \overrightarrow{A} \cup \overline{B}$ |
| Implication law | $p 	o q \equiv \sim p \lor q$ | - | Set difference | $A \backslash B \equiv A \cap \overline{B}$ | - |

proven:

number theory

- - the product of 2 consecutive odd numbers is always odd.
- - the difference between 2 consecutive squares is always odd
- P3.2.4 the square of any 2 even integers is even
- · there is no greatest integer
- - there are infinitely many prime numbers
- - for all positive integers a and b, if a|b, then $a \leq b$.
- P3.2.8 for all integers n, if n^2 is even then n is even
- - all integers are rational numbers
- - the sum of any 2 rational numbers is rational
- - there exist irrational numbers p and q such that p^q is rational
- - $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.
- ullet the only divisors of 1 are 1 and -1.

divisibility

- L8.1.5 Let $d, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $d \neq 0$. Then $d \mid n \Leftrightarrow n/d \in \mathbb{Z}$
- L8.1.9 Let $d, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $d \mid n$, then $-d \mid n$ and $d \mid -n$ and $-d \mid -n$
- L8.1.10 Let $d, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $d \mid n$ and $d \neq 0$, then $|d| \leq |n|$
- L8.2.5 Prime Divisor Lemma (non-standard name):
 - Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$. Then n has a prime divisor.
- P8.2.6 sizes of prime divisors:
 - Let n be a composite positive integer. Then n has a prime divisor $p < \sqrt{n}$.

logic

- negation of a universal statement:
 - $\sim \forall P(x) \leftrightarrow \exists x \sim P(x)$
- negation of an existential statement:
 - $\sim \exists P(x) \leftrightarrow \forall x \sim P(x)$
- · negation for more predicates :
 - $\sim \forall x \exists y \ Q(x,y) \leftrightarrow \exists x \forall y \sim Q(x,y)$

sets

• P4.2.7 - ∅ ⊂ all sets

- T4.1.18 there exists a unique set with no element. It is denoted by ∅.
- E4.3.7 for all $A, B: (A \cap B) \cup (A \setminus B) = A$
- E4.3.9(1) $(A \cap B) \subseteq A$
- E4.3.9(2) $A \subseteq (A \cup B)$
- E4.3.10 $A \subseteq B \land B \subseteq C \rightarrow A \subseteq (B \cap C)$
- T4.6 $A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow A \cup B = B$
- T5.3.11(1) let A, B be disjoint finite sets. Then $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$
- T5.3.11(2) let A_1,A_2,\ldots,A_n be pairwise disjoint finite sets. Then $|A_1\cup A_2\cup\cdots\cup A_n|=|A_1|+|A_2|+\cdots+|A_n|$
- T5.3.12 Inclusion-Exclusion Principle:
 - for all finite sets A and B, $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| |A \cap B|$

relations

- E6.2.2 The equality relation R on a set A has equivalence classes of the form $[x] = \{y \in A : x = y\} = \{x\}$ where $x \in A$
- L6.3.11 Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A. Then A/R is a partition of A
- - If $\mathscr C$ is a partition of A, then there is an equivalence relation of R on A such that $A/R=\mathscr C$.
- L6.3.5 Let \sim be an equivalence relation a set A.
 - $x \in [x]$ for all $x \in A$
 - any equivalence class is non empty
- L6.3.6 $\forall x, y \in A$ if $(x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$, then [x] = [y]
- - Consider a partial order \leq on set A.
 - · A smallest element is minimal.
 - · There is at most one smallest element.
- T6.4 $x \sim y \leftrightarrow [x] = [y]$, where \sim is an equivalence relation
- P7.4.3 if f is a bijection $A \to B$, then f^{-1} is a bijection $B \to A$

functions

- P7.4.13 $f \circ id_A = f$ and $id_A \circ f = f$
- P7.4.3 if f is a bijection $A \to B$, then f^{-1} is a bijection $B \to A$
- T7.6 if f is surjective, and $g \circ f = id_A$, then g is injective

- E7.9 Let $f: A \to B$. if f^{-1} is a function $B \to A$, then f^{-1} is bijective
- range(f) \in codomain
- if f is surjective: range(f) \in codomain \in range(f)

graphs

- L10.2.1 Let G be a graph.
 - L10.2.1a If G is connected, then any two distinct vertices of G can be connected by a path
 - L10.2.1b If vertices v and w are part of a circuit in G and one edge is removed from the circuit, then there still exists a trail from v to w in G.
 - L10.2.1c If G is connected and G contains a circuit, then an edge of the circuit can be removed without disconnecting G.
- L10.5.1 Any non-trivial tree has at least one vertex of degree 1.
- T10.5.2 Any tree with n vertices (n > 0) has n 1 edges.
- L10.5.3 If G is any connected graph, C is any circuit in G, and one of the edges of C is removed from G, then the graph that remains is still connected.
- L10.5.4 If G is a connected graph with n vertices and n-1 edges, then G is a tree.
- T10.6.1 If T is a full binary tree with k internal vertices, then T has a total of 2k+1 vertices and has k+1 terminal vertices.
- T10.6.2 For non-negative integers h, if T is any binary tree with height h and t terminal vertices, then $t < 2^h$.
- P10.7.1 -
 - 1. Every connected graph has a spanning tree.
 - 2. Any two spanning trees for a graph have the same number of edges

abbreviations

- L lemma
- E example
- P proposition
- T theorem