# CS 70 Midterm 1 Cheat Sheet

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The following material comes from the official CS 70 notes and CSM worksheets, along with my own personal intuition.

## Graphs

A path is a sequence of edges.

A **simple path** is a sequence of edges with no repeated vertices.

A walk is a sequence of edges that may have repeated vertices/edges.

A tour is a walk that starts and ends at the same vertex.

A cycle is a tour that does not repeat vertices other than the start/end vertex.

A **tournament** is a complete graph but with directed edges, i.e. for all pairs of vertices in the graph u, v there exists the edge  $u \to v$  or  $v \to u$ .

A Hamiltonian path is a path that visits every vertex exactly once.

A Hamiltonian tour/cycle is a cycle that goes through every vertex exactly once.

A Eulerian path is a path that traverses every edge exactly once.

A Eulerian tour is a Eulerian path that starts and ends on the same edge.

**Euler's theorem**: A Eulerian tour exists in every undirected connected graph where every vertex has an even degree.

A corollary – Eulerian paths exist when at most two vertices have odd degree.

#### Trees

Each of the following defines a tree:

- A connected graph without a cycle
- A connected graph with |V| 1 edges, where |V| is the number of vertices
- A connected graph that is minimally connected the removal of any edge disconnects it

#### Hypercubes

- $2^n$  vertices,  $n \cdot 2^{n-1}$  edges
- nth degree built by making two copies of n-1th degree hypercube and creating an edge between corresponding elements
- Numbering with bitstrings vertices conneted by an edge are different in only one bit position

Two-colorable

### Stable Marriage

- Traditional Marriage Algorithm (TMA) men propose, women reject
- TMA is Male optimal, female pessimal
- Algorithm terminates in a stable pairing
- Improvement Lemma the fortunes of the women in the TMA increase each day (i.e. a woman likes her partner-on-a-string on day k + 1 at least as much as she liked her partner-on-a-string on day k; vice versa for men)

## **Bijections**

A function is **injective** (one-to-one) if, for any elements of the domain  $a, b \in D$ ,  $f(a) = f(b) \implies a = b$ . In other words, a function is injective if there does not exist an element in the range/codomain that is pointed to by two different elements of the range.

$$f(x) = x^3$$
 is injective, while  $f(x) = x^2$  is **not** injective; for example,  $f(3) = f(-3)$ , but  $3 \neq -3$ .

A function is **surjective** (onto) if, for all elements of the range  $y \in R$ ,  $\exists x \mid y = f(x)$ . In order words, a function is surjective if element in the range is mapped to by some element in the domain.

A function is then **bijective** if it is both injective and surjective.

### Modular Arithmetic

When dealing with operations  $\operatorname{mod} p$ , we mean "taking the remainder when divided by p". For example,  $13 + 25 \pmod{3} \equiv 38 \pmod{3} \equiv 36 + 2 \pmod{3} \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . Note that we could've obtained the same result by taking  $\operatorname{mod} 3$  in the beginning  $-13 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ ,  $25 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ ,  $1+1 \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \Longrightarrow$  the order in which we take our  $\operatorname{mod} does$  not matter.

 $Z_p$  denotes that we are working in the field of integers  $\operatorname{mod} p$ , meaning that the only integers that exist in the set  $Z_p$  are  $0, 1, \ldots, p-1$ . When dealing with  $Z_p$ , we must take all operations  $\operatorname{mod} p$ .

Multiplicative Inverses – The multiplicative inverse of some integer n in mod p is defined as follows: x is the multiplicative inverse of n in mod p iff

$$nx \equiv 1 \mod p$$

Furthermore, the multiplicative inverse exists iff

$$gcd(n,p) = 1$$

The problem of finding a multiplicative inverse can be written as finding an integral solution to the equation

```
nx + py = 1.
```

For determining these inverses, on the midterm, the almighty guess and check should suffice, but just in case:

```
1 algorithm extended-gcd (x, y)
2    if y = 0 then return (x, 1, 0)
3    else
4         (d, a, b) := extended-gcd(y, x mod y)
5         return ((d, b, a - div(x,y) * b))
```

Where in the above, div(x, y) represents the floor of the division x/y.

#### Fermat's Little Theorem

FLT states, for any prime p and integer a < p, the following holds:

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

This makes several calculations easier:

$$7^{1000} \pmod{11} \equiv (7^{10})^{100} \pmod{11} \equiv (7^{10} \pmod{11})^{100} \pmod{11} \equiv 1^{100} \pmod{11} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

Another trick to making arithmetic calculations easier – check if the exponential base is one greater or one less than the modulo base. For example:

$$18^{4096} \pmod{17} \equiv 1^{4096} \pmod{17} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$$

#### Chinese Remainder Theorem

Given

$$x \equiv a_1 \mod n_1$$
 $x \equiv a_2 \mod n_2$ 
 $\vdots$ 
 $x \equiv a_k \mod n_k$ 

The solution to x is

$$x = (\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_i b_i) \mod N$$

where  $N = n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$ , and  $b_i$  is defined as  $b_i = \frac{N}{n_i} \operatorname{inv}(N/n_i, n_i)$ , where  $\operatorname{inv}(N/n_i, n_i)$  is the multiplicative inverse of  $\frac{N}{n_i}$  taken in modulo  $n_i$ . A sample application of this is as follows:

Consider  $x \equiv 3 \mod 4$  and  $x \equiv 5 \mod 13$ . Then,

$$N = 4 * 13 = 52$$

$$b_1 = 13 * inv(13, 4) = 13 * 1 = 13$$
  
 $b_2 = 4 * inv(4, 13) = 4 * 10 = 40$ 

Our solution for x is then

$$x = 3 * 13 + 5 * 40 \pmod{52} = 239 \pmod{52}$$
  
= 31 (mod 52)