CS1231 Cheatsheet

for midterms, by ning

Appendix A of Epp is not covered. Theorems, corol- Generalization laries, lemmas, etc. not mentioned in the lecture notes are marked with an asterisk (*).

Proofs

Basic Notation

- \mathbb{R} : the set of all real numbers
- Z: the set of integers (includes 0)
- \mathbb{Q} : the set of rationals
- ∃: there exists...
- ∃!: there exists a unique...
- ∀: for all...
- \in : member of...
- \ni : such that...

Proof Types

- By Construction: finding or giving a set of directions to reach the statement to be proven true.
- By Contraposition: proving a statement through its logical equivalent contrapositive.
- By Contradiction: proving that the negation of the statement leads to a logical contradiction.
- By Exhaustion: considering each case.
- By Mathematical Induction: proving for a base case, then an induction step.

Order of Operations

First \sim (also represented as \neg). No priority within \wedge and \vee , so $p \wedge q \vee r$ is ambiguous and should be written as $(p \land q) \lor r$ or $p \land (q \lor r)$. The implication. \rightarrow is performed last. Can be overwritten by parenthesis.

Universal & Existential Generalisation

'All bous wear glasses' is written as

$$\forall x (\text{Boy}(x) \to \text{Glasses}(x))$$

If conjunction was used, this statement would be falsified by the existence of a 'non-boy' in the domain of x.

'There is a boy who wears glasses' is written as

$$\exists x (\text{Boy}(x) \land \text{Glasses}(x))$$

If implication was used, this statement would true even if the domain of x is empty.

 $\neg q$

· ¬p

Valid Arguments as Tautologies

All valid arguments can be restated as tautologies.

Rules of Inference

Modus ponens

$$\begin{array}{c} p \rightarrow q \\ p \\ \cdot q \end{array}$$
 Modus tollens
$$p \rightarrow q$$

$$\begin{aligned} p &\to q \\ q &\to r \\ \cdot p &\to r \end{aligned}$$

Proof by Division into Cases

$$egin{aligned} p \lor q \ p &
ightarrow r \ q &
ightarrow r \
ightarrow r \end{aligned}$$

Contradiction Rule

$$\neg p \rightarrow \mathbf{c}$$
 $\cdot p$

Universal Rules of Inference

Only modus ponens, modus tollens, and transitivity have universal versions in the lecture notes.

Implicit Quantification

The notation $P(x) \implies Q(x)$ means that every element in the truth set of P(x) is in the truth set of Q(x), or equivalently, $\forall x, P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$.

The notation $P(x) \iff Q(x)$ means that P(x)and Q(x) have identical truth sets, or equivalently, $\forall x, P(x) \leftrightarrow Q(x).$

Implication Law

$$p \to q \equiv \neg p \lor q$$

Universal Instantiation

If some property is true of everything in a set, then it is true of any particular thing in the set.

Universal Generalization

If P(c) must be true, and we have assumed nothing about c, then $\forall x, P(x)$ is true.

Regular Induction

$$\begin{array}{c} P(0) \\ \forall k \in \mathbb{N}, P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1) \\ \forall \end{array}$$

Epp T2.1.1 Logical Equivalences

Commutative Laws

$$p \land q \equiv q \land p$$
$$p \lor q \equiv q \lor p$$

Associative Laws

$$(p \land q) \land r \equiv p \land (q \land r)$$
$$(p \lor q) \lor r \equiv p \lor (q \lor r)$$

Distributive Laws

$$p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$$
$$p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$$

Identity Laws

$$p \wedge \mathbf{t} \equiv p$$

 $p \vee \mathbf{c} \equiv p$

Negation Laws

$$p \lor \neg p \equiv \mathbf{t}$$
$$p \land \neg p \equiv \mathbf{c}$$

Double Negative Law

$$\neg (\neg p) \equiv p$$
 Idempotent Laws
$$p \wedge p \equiv p$$

 $p \lor p \equiv p$ Universal Bound Laws

$$p \lor \mathbf{t} \equiv \mathbf{t}$$
$$p \land \mathbf{c} \equiv \mathbf{c}$$

De Morgan's Laws

$$\neg (p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$$
$$\neg (p \lor q) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q$$

Absorption Laws

$$p \lor (p \land q) \equiv p$$
$$p \land (p \lor q) \equiv p$$

Negations of t and c

$$\neg \mathbf{t} \equiv \mathbf{c}$$
$$\neg \mathbf{c} \equiv \mathbf{t}$$

Definition 2.2.1 (Conditional)

If p and q are statement variables, the conditional of qby p is "if p then q" or "p implies q", denoted $p \to q$. It is false when p is true and q is false; otherwise it is true. We call p the hypothesis (or antecedent), and qthe conclusion (or consequent).

A conditional statement that is true because its hypothesis is false is called vacuously true or true by default.

Definition 2.2.2 (Contrapositive)

The contrapositive of $p \to q$ is $\neg q \to \neg p$.

Definition 2.2.3 (Converse)

The converse of $p \to q$ is $q \to p$.

Definition 2.2.4 (Inverse)

The inverse of $p \rightarrow q$ is $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$.

Definition 2.2.6 (Biconditional)

The biconditional of p and q is denoted $p \leftrightarrow q$ and is true if both p and q have the same truth values, and is false if p and q have opposite truth values.

Definition 2.2.7 (Necessary & Sufficient)

"r is sufficient for s" means $r \to s$, "r is necessary for s" means $\neg r \rightarrow \neg s$ or equivalently $s \rightarrow r$.

Definition 2.3.2 (Sound & Unsound Arguments)

An argument is called sound, iff it is valid and all its premises are true.

Definition 3.1.3 (Universal Statement)

A universal statement is of the form

$$\forall x \in D, Q(x)$$

It is defined to be true iff Q(x) is true for every x in D. It is defined to be false iff Q(x) is false for at least one x in D.

Definition 3.1.4 (Existential Statement)

A existential statement is of the form

$$\exists x \in D \text{ s.t. } Q(x)$$

It is defined to be true iff Q(x) is true for at least one x in D. It is defined to be false iff Q(x) is false for all x in D.

Theorem 3.2.1 (Negation of Universal State.)

The negation of a statement of the form

$$\forall x \in D, P(x)$$

is logically equivalent to a statement of the form

$$\exists x \in D \text{ s.t. } \neg P(x)$$

Theorem 3.2.2 (Negation of Existential State.)

The negation of a statement of the form

$$\exists x \in D \text{ s.t. } P(x)$$

is logically equivalent to a statement of the form

$$\forall x \in D, \neg P(x)$$

Number Theory

tients a_i we get.

Representation of Integers

Given any positive integer n and base b, repeatedly apply the Quotient-Remainder Theorem to get.

$$n = bq_0 + r_0$$

$$q_0 = bq_1 + r_1$$

$$q_1 = bq_2 + r_2$$

$$\dots$$

 $q_{m-1} = bq_m + r_m$ The process stops when $q_m = 0$. Eliminating the quo-

$$n = r_m b^m + r_{m-1} b^{m-1} + \dots + r_1 b + r_0$$

Which may be represented compactly in base b as a

sequence of the digits r_i ,

$$n = (r_m r_{m-1} \cdots r_1 r_0)_b$$

Properties (of Numbers)

Closure, i.e.

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, \ x + y \in \mathbb{Z}, \ \text{and} \ xy \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Commutativity, i.e.

$$a+b=b+a$$
 and $ab=ba$

Distributivity, i.e.

$$a(b+c) = ab + ac$$
 and $(b+c)a = ba + ca$

Trichotomy, i.e.

$$(a < b) \oplus (b < a) \oplus (a = b)$$

(Can be used without proof)

Definition 1.1.1 (Colorful)

An integer n is said to be colorful if there exists some integer k such that n = 3k.

Definition 1.3.1 (Divisibility)

If n and d are integers and $d \neq 0$,

$$d|n\iff \exists k\in\mathbb{Z}\text{ s.t. }n=dk$$

Proposition 1.3.2 (Linear Combination)

$$\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, \ a|b \land a|c \to \forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, \ a|(bx + cy)$$

If a divides b and c, then it also divides their linear combination (bx + cy).

Theorem 4.1.1 (Linear Combination)

$$\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, \ a|b \land a|c \rightarrow \forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, a|(bx + cy)$$

Epp T4.3.3 (Transitivity of Divisibility)

$$\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, \ a|b \wedge b|c \rightarrow a|c$$

Theorem 4.4.1 (Quotient-Remainder Theorem) Given any integer a and any positive integer b, there exist unique integers q and r such that

$$a = bq + r$$
 and $0 \le r < b$

Definition 4.2.1 (Prime number)

$$n \text{ is prime} \iff \forall r,s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

$$n = rs \to \\ (r = 1 \land s = n) \lor (r = n \land s = 1)$$

$$n \text{ is composite} \iff \exists r,s \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ s.t.}$$

$$n = rs \land \\ (1 < r < n) \land (1 < s < n)$$

Proposition 4.2.2

For any two primes p and p',

$$p \mid p' \rightarrow p = p'$$

Theorem 4.2.3

If p is a prime and x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are any integers s.t. $p \mid x_1 x_2 \cdots x_n$, then $p \mid x_i$ for some $x_i, i \in \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}.$

Epp T4.3.5 (Unique Prime Factorisation)

Given any integer n > 1

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+,$$

$$\exists p_1, p_2, \cdots, p_k \in \text{ primes},$$

$$\exists e_1, e_2, \cdots, e_k \in \mathbb{Z}^+,$$

such that

$$n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$$

and any other expression for n as a product of prime numbers is identical, except perhaps for the order in which the factors are written.

Epp Proposition 4.7.3

For any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and any prime p,

$$p \mid a \rightarrow p \nmid (a+1)$$

Epp T4.7.4 (Infinitude of Primes)

The set of primes is infinite.

Definition 4.3.1 (Lower Bound)

An integer b is said to be a lower bound for a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ if b < x for all $x \in X$.

Does not require b to be in X.

Theorem 4.3.2 (Well Ordering Principle)

If a non-empty set $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ has a lower bound, then S has a least element.

Note three conditions: |S| > 0, $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$, and S has lower bound.

Likewise, if ... upper bound ... has a greatest element.

Proposition 4.3.3 (Uniqueness of least element)

If a set S has a least element, then the least element is unique.

Proposition 4.3.4 (Uniqueness of greatest e.)

If a set S has a greatest element, then the greatest element is unique.

Theorem 4.4.1 (Quotient-Remainder Theorem)

Given any integer a and any positive integer b, there exist unique integers q and r such that

$$a = bq + r$$
 and $0 \le r < b$

Definition 4.5.1 (Greatest Common Divisor)

Let a and b be integers, not both zero. The greatest common divisor of a and b, denoted gcd(a, b), is the integer d satisfying

1.
$$d \mid a \text{ and } d \mid b$$

2. $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z} ((c \mid a) \land (c \mid b) \rightarrow c \leq d)$

Proposition 4.5.2 (Existence of gcd) For any integers a, b, not both zero, their gcd exists **Epp Corollary 8.4.4** and is unique.

Theorem 4.5.3 (Bézout's Identity)

Let a, b be integers, not both zero, and let d =gcd(a, b). Then there exists integers x, y such that

$$ax + by = d$$

Or, the gcd of two integers is some linear combination of the said numbers, where x, y above have multiple solution pairs once a solution pair (x, y) is found. Also solutions, for any integer k,

$$(x + \frac{kb}{d}, y - \frac{ka}{d})$$

*Epp T8.4.8 (Euclid's Lemma)

For all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if gcd(a, c) = 1 and $a \mid bc$, then

 $a \mid b$.

*Epp Lemma 4.8.2

If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, and $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. a = bq + r, then

$$gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r)$$

Definition 4.5.4 (Relatively Prime)

Integers a and b are relatively prime (or coprime) iff gcd(a, b) = 1.

Proposition 4.5.5

For any integers a, b, not both zero, if c is a common divisor of a and b, then $c \mid \gcd(a, b)$.

Definition 4.7.1 (Congruence modulo)

Let $m, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. We say that m is congruent to n modulo d and write

$$m \equiv n \pmod{d}$$

iff

$$d \mid (m-n)$$

More concisely,

$$m \equiv n \pmod{d} \iff d \mid (m-n)$$

Epp T8.4.1 (Modular Equivalences)

Let $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and n > 1. The following statements are all equivalent.

- 1. n | (a b)
- 2. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$
- 3. a = b + kn for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$
- 4. a and b have the same non-negative remainder when divided by n
- 5. $a \mod n = b \mod n$

Epp T8.4.3 (Modulo Arithmetic)

Let $a, b, c, d, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$, and suppose

$$a \equiv c \pmod{n}$$
 and $b \equiv d \pmod{n}$

Then

- 1. $(a+b) \equiv (c+d) \pmod{n}$
- 2. $(a-b) \equiv (c-d) \pmod{n}$
- 3. $ab \equiv cd \pmod{n}$
- 4. $a^m \equiv c^m \pmod{n}$, for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Let $a, b, c, d, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$, then

$$ab \equiv [(a \mod n)(b \mod n)] \pmod n$$

or equivalently,

$$ab \mod n = [(a \mod n)(b \mod n)] \mod n$$

In particular, if m is a positive integer, then

$$a^m \equiv [(a \bmod n)^m] \pmod n$$

Definition 4.7.2 (Multiplicative inv. modulo n)

For any integers a, n with n > 1, if an integer s is such that $as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, then s is the multiplicative inverse of a modulo n. We may write s as a^{-1} .

Because the commutative law still applies in modulo arithmetic, we also have

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

Multiplicative inverses are not unique. If s is an inverse, then so is (s + kn) for any integer k.

Theorem 4.6.3 (Existence of multiplicative in-

For any integer a, its multiplicative inverse modulo nwhere n > 1, a^{-1} , exists iff a and n are coprime.

Corollary 4.7.4 (Special case: n is prime)

If n = p is a prime number, then all integers a in the range 0 < a < p have multiplicative inverses modulo

Epp T8.4.9 (Cancellation Law for mod. arith.) For all $a, b, c, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, n > 1, and a and n are coprime,

$$ab \equiv ac \pmod{n} \to b \equiv c \pmod{n}$$