

CS1231(S) Cheatsheet

for Mid-term of AY 19/20 Semester 1, by Howard Liu

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

Proofs

Basic Notation

- \mathbb{R} : the set of all real numbers
- \mathbb{Z} : the set of integers
- \mathbb{N} : the set of natural numbers (include 0, i.e. $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$)
- \mathbb{Q} : the set of rationals
- \exists : there exists...
- $\exists!$: there exists a unique...
- \forall : for all...
- \in : member of...
- \ni : such that...
- \sim : not ...

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.
 1. $P(a)$
 2. $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}, k \geq a (P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))$
 3. $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq a (P(n))$
- **By Strong Induction**: mathematical induction assuming $P(k), P(k-1), \dots, P(a)$ are all true.
- **By Structural Induction**: MI assuming $P(x)$ is true, prove $P(f(x))$ is true ($f(x)$ is the recursion set rule, i.e. if $x \in S, f(x) \in S$)

Order of Operations

In the ascending order (1 executes first, 3 is the latest, can be overwritten by parenthesis)

1. **Negation**: \sim (also represented as \neg)
2. **Logic AND & OR**: \wedge and \vee
3. **Implication**: \rightarrow

Universal & Existential Generalisation

‘All boys wear glasses’ is written as

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

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

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

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

Valid Arguments as Tautologies

All valid arguments can be *restated* as tautologies.

Rules of Inference

Modus ponens

$$p \rightarrow q$$

$$p$$

$$\cdot q$$

Modus tollens

$$p \rightarrow q$$

$$\sim q$$

$$\cdot \sim p$$

Generalization

$$p$$

$$\cdot p \vee q$$

Specialization

$$p \wedge q$$

$$\cdot p$$

Elimination

$$p \vee q$$

$$\sim q$$

$$\cdot p$$

Transitivity

$$p \rightarrow q$$

$$q \rightarrow r$$

$$\cdot p \rightarrow r$$

Proof by Division into Cases

$$p \vee q$$

$$p \rightarrow r$$

$$q \rightarrow r$$

$$\cdot r$$

Contradiction Rule

$$\sim p \rightarrow \mathbf{c}(\text{contradiction})$$

$$\cdot p$$

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

$$p \rightarrow q \equiv \sim p \vee q$$

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

$$P(0)$$

$$\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$$

$$\vee$$

Epp T2.1.1 Logical Equivalences

Commutative Laws

$$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$$

$$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$$

Associative Laws

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

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

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

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

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

Negation Laws

$$p \vee \sim p \equiv \mathbf{true}$$

$$p \wedge \sim p \equiv \mathbf{false}$$

Double Negative Law

$$\sim(\sim p) \equiv p$$

Idempotent Laws

$$p \wedge p \equiv p$$

$$p \vee p \equiv p$$

Universal Bound Laws

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

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

De Morgan's Laws

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

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

Absorption Laws

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

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

Negations of **true** and **false**

$$\sim \mathbf{true} \equiv \mathbf{false}$$

$$\sim \mathbf{false} \equiv \mathbf{true}$$

Definition 2.2.1 (Conditional)

If p and q are statement variables, the conditional of q by p is “if p then q ” or “ p implies q ”, denoted $p \rightarrow q$. It is false when p is true and q is false; otherwise it is true. We call p the *hypothesis* (or *antecedent*), and q

the *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 $p \rightarrow q$ is $\sim q \rightarrow \sim p$. Note: one will always be equivalent to the other.

Definition 2.2.3 (Converse)

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

Definition 2.2.4 (Inverse)

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

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 $r \rightarrow s$, “ r is necessary for s ” means $\sim r \rightarrow \sim s$ 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 3.1.2 (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 3.1.3 (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 3.1.6 (Equivalent Forms of Universal and Existential State.)

By narrowing U to be the domain D consisting of all values of the variable x that makes $P(x)$ **true**,

$$\forall x \in U, P(x) \implies Q(x) \equiv \forall x \in D, Q(x)$$

Similarly,

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

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

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

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

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

Note: for negation of $\exists!$, consider

$$\exists!x \text{ s.t. } P(x) \equiv \exists x \text{ s.t. } (P(x) \wedge (\forall y \in U P(y) \rightarrow (y = x)))$$

Theorem 3.2.4 (Vacuous Truth of Universal State.)

In general, a statement of the form

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

is called **vacuously true/true by default** iff $P(x)$ is **false** for every x in D

Sets

Definition 6.1.1 (Subsets & Supersets)

S is a subset of T if all the elements of S are elements of T , denoted $S \subseteq T$. Formally,

$$S \subseteq T \longleftrightarrow \forall x \in S (x \in T)$$

Definition 6.2.1 (Empty Set)

An empty set has no element, and is denoted \emptyset or $\{\}$. Formally, where U is the universal set:

$$\forall Y \in \mathcal{U} (Y \not\subseteq \emptyset)$$

Epp T6.24

An empty set is a subset of all sets.

$$\forall S, S \text{ is a set, } \emptyset \subseteq S$$

Definition 6.2.2 (Set Equality)

Two sets are equal iff they have the same elements.

Proposition 6.2.3

For any two sets X, Y , X and Y are subsets of each other iff $X = Y$. Formally,

$$\forall X, Y ((X \subseteq Y \wedge Y \subseteq X) \longleftrightarrow X = Y)$$

Epp C6.2.5 (Empty Set is Unique)

It's what it says.

Definition 6.2.4 (Power Set)

The power set of a set S denoted $\mathcal{P}(S)$, or 2^S ; is the set whose elements are all possible subsets of S . Formally,

$$\mathcal{P}(S) = \{X \mid X \subseteq S\}$$

Theorem 6.3.1

If a set X has n elements, $n \geq 0$, then $\mathcal{P}(X)$ has 2^n elements.

Definition 6.3.1 (Union)

Let S be a set of sets. T is the union of sets in S , iff each element of T belongs to some set in S . Formally,

$$T = \bigcup S = \bigcup_{x \in S} X = \{y \in U \mid \exists X \in S (y \in X)\}$$

Definition 6.3.3 (Intersection)

Let S be a non-empty set of sets. T is the intersection of sets in S , iff each element of T also belongs to all the sets in S . Formally,

$$\begin{aligned} T &= \bigcap S = \bigcap_{x \in S} X \\ &= \{y \in U \mid \forall X ((X \in S) \rightarrow (y \in X))\} \end{aligned}$$

Definition 6.3.5 (Disjoint)

Let S, T be sets. S and T are disjoint iff $S \cap T = \emptyset$.

Definition 6.3.6 (Mutually Disjoint)

Let V be a set of sets. The sets $T \in V$ are mutually disjoint iff every two distinct sets are disjoint. Formally,

$$\forall X, Y \in V (X \neq Y \rightarrow X \cap Y = \emptyset)$$

Definition 6.3.7 (Partition)

Let S be a set, and V a set of non-empty subsets of S . Then V is a partition of S iff

1. The sets in V are mutually disjoint
2. The union of sets in V equals S

Definition 6.3.8 (Non-symmetric Difference)

Let S, T be two sets. The (non-symmetric) difference of S and T denoted $S - T$ or $S \setminus T$ is the set whose elements belong to S and do not belong to T . Formally,

$$S - T = \{y \in U \mid y \in S \wedge y \notin T\}$$

This is analogous to subtraction for numbers.

Definition 6.3.10 (Set Complement)

Let $A \subseteq U$. Then, the complement of A denoted \overline{A} is $U - A$.

Set Properties

Let A, B, C be sets, some properties are:

- $\bigcup \emptyset = \bigcup_{A \in \emptyset} A = \emptyset$
- $\bigcup \{A\} = A$
- **Commutative Laws:** $A \cup B = B \cup A, A \cap B = B \cap A$
- **Associative Laws:** $A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C, A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$
- **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:** $A \cup \emptyset = A, A \cap U = A$
- **Complement Laws:** $A \cup \overline{A} = U, A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$
- **Double Complement Law:** $\overline{(\overline{A})} = A$
- **Idempotent Laws:** $A \cup A = A, A \cap A = A$
- **Universal Bound Laws:** $A \cup U = U, A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$
- **De Morgan's Laws:** $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}, \overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$
- **Adsorption Laws:** $A \cup (A \cap B) = A, A \cap (A \cup B) = A$
- **Set Difference Law:** $A - B = A \cap \overline{B}$
- $\overline{\overline{U}} = \emptyset, \overline{\emptyset} = U$
- $A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow A \cup B = B \leftrightarrow A \cap B = A$

Functions

Definition 7.1.1 (Function)

Let f be a relation such that $f \subseteq S \times T$. Then f is a function from S to T denoted $f : S \rightarrow T$ iff

$$\forall x \in S, \exists! y \in T (x f y)$$

(Intuitively, this means that every element in S must have exactly one 'outgoing arrow', **AND** the 'arrow' must land in T .)

Definitions 7.1.[2-5]

Let $f : S \rightarrow T$ be a function, $x \in S$ and $y \in T$ such that $f(x) = y$; $U \subseteq S$, and $V \subseteq T$.

x is a pre-image (7.1.2) of y .

The inverse image of the element (7.1.3) y is the set of all its pre-images, i.e. $\{x \in S \mid f(x) = y\}$.

The inverse image of the set (7.1.4) V is the set that contains all the pre-images of all the elements of V , i.e. $\{x \in S \mid \exists y \in V (f(x) = y)\}$.

The restriction (7.1.5) of f to U is the set $\{(x, y) \in U \times T \mid f(x) = y\}$.

Definition 7.2.1 (Injective, or One-to-one)

Let $f : S \rightarrow T$ be a function. f is injective (or one-to-one) iff

$$\forall y \in T, \forall x_1, x_2 \in S ((f(x_1) = y \wedge f(x_2) = y) \rightarrow x_1 = x_2)$$

(Intuitively, this means that every element in T has **at most** one 'incoming arrow'.)

Definition 7.2.2 (Surjective, or Onto)

Let $f : S \rightarrow T$ be a function. f is surjective (or onto) iff

$$\forall y \in T, \exists x \in S (f(x) = y)$$

(Intuitively, this means that every element in T has **at least** one 'incoming arrow'.)

Definition 7.2.3 (Bijective)

A function is bijective (or is a bijection) iff it is injective and surjective.

(Intuitively, this means that every element in T has exactly one incoming arrow.)

Definition 7.2.4 (Inverse)

Let $f : S \rightarrow T$ be a function and let f^{-1} be the inverse relation of f from T to S . Then f is bijective iff f^{-1} is a function.

(Note: f^{-1} is defined but not necessary a function. When $A \subseteq T$, $f^{-1}(A)$ means finding all the preimages of each image in A , and this is not a function if the f is not bijective.)

Definition 7.3.1 (Composition)

Let $f : S \rightarrow T, g : T \rightarrow U$ be functions. The composition of f and g denoted $g \circ f$ is a function from S to U .

Definition 7.3.2 (Identity)

The identity function on a set A , \mathcal{I}_A is defined by,

$$\forall x \in A (\mathcal{I}_A(x) = x)$$

Proposition 7.3.3

Let $f : A \rightarrow A$ be an injective function of A . Then $f^{-1} \circ f = \mathcal{I}_A$.

Inclusive Map

Let B be a subset of A . Then function $\iota_B^A : B \rightarrow A; b \mapsto b$ is called the **inclusive map** of B in A

Equality of Functions Two functions f and g are equal, denoted $f = g$, iff:

- the domains of f and g are equal;
- the codomains of f and g are equal;
- $f(x) = g(x)$ for all x in their domains

Properties of Composite Functions

Let $f : A \rightarrow B, g : B \rightarrow C$ and $h : C \rightarrow D$ to be functions. Then

- $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$
- If f and g are injective, $g \circ f$ is injective.
- If f and g are surjective, $g \circ f$ is surjective.
- If $g \circ f$ is injective, then f is injective.
- If $g \circ f$ is surjective, then g is surjective.

Cantor-Bernstein Theorem

Let $f : A \rightarrow B, g : B \rightarrow A$ be injective functions. Then there exists a bijective function $h : A \rightarrow B$