Absorption laws

CS1231: Reference

Proof Language

- $\bullet \ \exists ! : \ Exists \ a \ unique...$
- \equiv : Logical Equivalence: identical truth table (Definition 2.1.6)

Order of Operations

• \neg , followed by $\land\lor$, followed by $\rightarrow\leftrightarrow$

Proving Methods

- Construction: just sub in all $x \in D$
- Counterexample: show one condition that leads to contradiction
- Contraposition: To prove $P \to Q$, prove $\neg Q \to \neg P$
- Contradiction: To prove A, prove $\neg A$ is not true (Clearly this is absurd)

Thm 2.1.1 Logical Equivalences

(Aaron, pp 21 - 22)

- Commutative Law: $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$
- Associative Law: $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$ (same with \vee)
- Distributive Law: $p \land (q \lor r) \equiv (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$ (swap $\lor \& \land$)
- Identity Law: $p \wedge \mathbf{t} \equiv p \text{ or } p \vee \mathbf{c} \equiv p$
- Negation Law: $p \lor \neg p \equiv \mathbf{t}$ or $p \land \neg p \equiv \mathbf{c}$
- Double Negation Law: $\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$
- Idempotent Law: $p \wedge p \equiv p$ (same for \vee)
- Universal Bound Law: $p \lor \mathbf{t} \equiv \mathbf{t} \text{ or } p \land \mathbf{c} \equiv \mathbf{c}$

• De Morgan's laws: $p \lor (p \land q) = p$ $\neg (p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q \quad p \land (p \lor q) = p$ $\neg (p \lor q) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q$

Conditional Statements

- $\bullet \ p \to q \equiv \neg p \vee q$
- Contrapositive (Def 2.2.2): $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$
- Converse (2.2.3): $q \rightarrow p$
- Inverse (2.2.4): $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$
- $p \to q \not\equiv (q \to p \equiv \neg p \to \neg q)$
- Only If (2.2.5): p only if $q \equiv p \rightarrow q$
- Biconditional (2.2.6): $p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \land (q \rightarrow p)$
- Necessary & Sufficient Cond (2.2.7): r necessary $s \equiv r \rightarrow s$ r sufficient $s \equiv \neg r \rightarrow \neg s$

Valid Arguments

- **Argument** (2.3.1): If all premise true, conclusion must be true
- **Syllogism**: Two premises and one conclusion
- Modus Ponens: $p \to q, p, : q$
- Modus Tollens: $p \to q, \neg q, \therefore \neg p$

Rules of Inference

- Generalization: $p, : p \lor q$
- Specialization: $p \wedge q$, : p
- Elimination: $p \lor q, \neg p, \therefore q$
- Transitivity: $p \to q, q \to r, : p \to r$
- Proof by Division into Cases: $p \lor q, p \to r, q \to r, \therefore r$

Rules of Inference (Wei Quan)

- Conjunction Intro $A, B, : A \wedge B$
- Conjunction Elim $A \wedge B$, : A, B
- Disjunction Intro $A, :: A \vee B, B \vee A$
- **Disjunction Elim** : $A \lor B, A \to C, B \to C, \therefore C$
- Contradiction Intro $A, \neg A, : Cont.$
- Contradiction Elim: $A \to \text{Contradiction}, \therefore \neg A$
- Double Negation Elim $\neg \neg A, : A$

Fallacies

- Converse Error: $p \to q, q, \therefore p$
- Inverse Error: $p \to q, \neg p, \therefore \neg q$
- Sound & Unsound Argument: Sound iff valid and premises are true

Predicates & Quantified Stmt

- Predicate (3.1.1): A predicate sentence contains a finite number of variables and becomes a stmt when specific values are subst in the vars. The domain of a predicate var is the set of all values that may be subst in place of the var.
- Truth Set (3.1.2): If P(x) is a predicate and $D_x \equiv D$, the truth set is the set of all elements of D that make P(x) true when they are subst for x. The truth set of P(x) is $\{x \in D | P(x)\}$.
- Universal Stmt (3.1.3): $\forall x \in D, Q(x)$
 - Equivalent to $Q(x_1) \wedge Q(x_2) \wedge ... \wedge Q(x_n)$
- Stmt is true iff Q(x) true $\forall x \in D$

- Stmt is false iff Q(x) false for at least one $x \in D$
- Existential Stmt (3.1.4):
 - $\exists x \in D$, such that Q(x)
 - Equivlent to $Q(x_1) \vee Q(x_2) \vee ... \vee Q(x_n)$
 - Stmt is true iff Q(x) true for at least one $x \in D$
 - Stmt is false iff Q(x) false $\forall x \in D$
- Implicit Quantification: $\implies \iff$
 - $-P(x) \Longrightarrow Q(x)$: truth set $P(x) \subset$ truth set Q(x)
 - $-P(x) \iff Q(x)$: truth set $P(x) \equiv$ truth set Q(x)

Negation of Quantified Stmt

- Negation of Universal Stmt (Thm 3.2.1)
 - $\sim (\forall x \in D, P(x)) \equiv \exists x \in D, \text{ s.t. } \sim P(x)$
- Negation of Existential Stmt (Thm 3.2.1)
 - $\sim (\exists x \in D, \text{ s.t. } P(x)) \equiv \forall x \in D, \sim P(x)$

Universal Conditional Stmt

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

- Vacuously True: iff P(x) false $\forall x \in D$
- Contrapositive: $\forall x \in D, \sim Q(x) \implies \sim P(x)$
- Converse: $\forall x \in D, Q(x) \implies P(x)$
- Inverse: $\forall x \in D, \sim P(x) \implies \sim Q(x)$
- Refer to 2.2.5 and 2.2.7 for only if, necessary & sufficient conditions
- Universal Modus Ponens & Tollens: $\forall x \in D, P(x) \implies Q(x), P(a) \text{ for } a \in D$ $\therefore Q(a)$ $(\sim Q(a), : \sim P(a) \text{ for tollens})$

CS1231: Number Theory

Def/Thm in Lecture Slides

• Even & Odd (Def 1.6.1, Proofs Handout, TS):

n is even $\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } n = 2k$ n is odd $\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } n = 2k + 1$

- Divisibility (Def 1.3.1, PH): $d \mid n \iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ s.t. } n = dk$
- Thm 4.1.1 (pg 4, Number Theory Week 4, TS) : $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a \mid b \& a \mid c$, then $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, a \mid (bx + cy)$
- Prop 4.2.2 (p9, NTW4, TS): For any two primes p and p', if $p \mid p'$ then p = p'
- Thm 4.2.3 (pg 16, NTW4): If p is prime and $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ are any integers s.t.:

$$p \mid x_1 x_2 ... x_n,$$

then $p \mid x_i$ for some $x_i (1 \le i \le n)$

- Lower Bound (Def 4.3.1, NTP2, p3): $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ is lower bound for set $X \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ if $b \le x, \forall x \in X$
- Well Ordering Principle (Thm 4.3.2, NTP2, p5): If non-empty set $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ has lower/upper bound, then S has a least/greatest element
- Uniqueness of least element (Prop 4.3.3, NTP2, p8): If set $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ has least/greatest element, then least/greatest elem is unique
- Quotient-Remainder Thm (Thm 4.4.1): Given any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ & any $b \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \exists !q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t.:

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

• G.C.D. (Def 4.5.1, NTP2, p21): Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero, g.c.d. of a, b, gcd(a, b), is $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ satisfying:

$$d \mid a \& d \mid b \tag{1}$$

$$\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{if } c \mid a \& c \mid b \text{ then } c \leq d$$
 (2)

- Existence of gcd (Prop 4.5.2): For any $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$, not both zero, their gcd exists and unique
- Bézout's Identity (Thm 4.5.3): Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero, & $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then, $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t.:

$$ax + by = d$$

- Relatively Prime/Coprime (Def 4.5.4): $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ are coprime $\iff \gcd(a, b) = 1$
- Prop 4.5.5: $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero, if c is common divisor of a & b, then $c \mid \gcd(a, b)$
- NTP2, p38: $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+, a \mid b \iff \gcd(a, b) = a$
- L.C.M. (Def 4.6.1, NTP2, p41): $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, their l.c.m, denoted lcm(a, b), is $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ s.t.

$$a \mid m \& b \mid m \tag{3}$$

$$\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \text{if } a \mid c \& b \mid c, \text{then } m \le c$$
 (4)

• NTP2, p43: $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \gcd(a, b) \mid \operatorname{lcm}(a, b)$

Theorems By Epp

- Thm 4.3.1: $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, if $a \mid b$ then $a \leq b$
- Thm 4.3.3: $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$ then $a \mid c$
- Thm 4.3.5: Given any integer n > 1, $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, distinct primes $p_1, p_2, ..., p_k$ & positive integers $e_1, e_2, ..., e_k$, s.t.

$$n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} p_3^{e_3} ... p_k^{e_k}$$

and any other \exp for n as a product of prime numbers is identical to this (except ordering)

- Thm 4.7.1: $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational
- Prop 4.7.3: For any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and any prime p, if $p \mid a$ then $p \nmid (a+1)$
- Thm 4.7.4: The set of primes is infinite

Appendix A (Epp)

- T1 (Cancellation Law for Add): $a+b=a+c \implies b=c$
- T2 (Possibility of Subtraction): Given $a, b, \exists !x$ such that a + x = b. This x is denoted by b a.
- T3: b a = b + (-a) T4: -(-a) = a
- T5: a(b-c) = ab ac T6: $0 \cdot a = a \cdot 0 = 0$
- T7 (Cancellation Law for Multiplication): $ab = ac, a \neq 0 \implies b = c$
- T8 (Possibility of Division): Given a, b with $a \neq 0$, $\exists ! x$ such that ax = b. This x is denoted b/a and is called the **quotient** of b and a
- T9: $a \neq 0 \implies b/a = b \cdot a^{-1}$
- T10: $a \neq 0 \implies (a^{-1})^{-1} = a$
- T11 (Zero Product Property): $ab = 0 \implies a \lor b = 0$
- T12 (Rule for Multiplication with Negative Signs): (-a)b = a(-b) = -(ab), (-a)(-b) = ab& $-\frac{a}{b} = \frac{-a}{b} = \frac{a}{-b}$
- T13 (Equivalent Fractions Property): $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{ac}{bc}; b, c \neq 0$
- T14 (Rule for Addition of Fractions): $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad + bc}{bd}$; $b, d \neq 0$
- T15 (Rule for Multiplication of Fractions): $\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd}, b \neq 0, d \neq 0$
- T16 (Rule for Division of Fractions): $\frac{a}{\frac{b}{c}} = \frac{ad}{bc}, b \neq 0, c \neq 0, d \neq 0$
- T17 (Trichotomy Law): $a < b, b < a \text{ or } a = b, \forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$
- T18 (Transitive Law): $a < b, b < c \implies a < c$
- T19: $a < b \implies a + c < b + c$

CS1231: Number Theories

Basics

• Even & Odd (Def 1.6.1, Proofs Handout, TS):

n is even $\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } n = 2k$ n is odd $\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } n = 2k + 1$

- The sum of two even Z is even (Thm 4.1.1, Epp)
- Rational Number $r \in \mathbb{Q} \iff \exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, r = \frac{a}{b} \& b \neq 0$
- Every \mathbb{Z} is a rational number (Thm 4.2.1, Epp)
- The sum of any two rational numbers is rational (Thm 4.2.2, Epp)
- The double of a rational number is rational (Col 4.2.3, Epp)

Divisibility

- Divisibility (Def 1.3.1, PH): $d \mid n \iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ s.t. } n = dk$
- Thm 4.1.1 (pg 4, Number Theory Week 4, TS) : $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a \mid b \& a \mid c$, then $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, a \mid (bx + cy)$
- Thm 4.3.1 (Epp): $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, if $a \mid b$ then $a \leq b$
- **Thm 4.3.2** (Epp): $d \mid 1$, d is only 1, -1
- Thm 4.3.3 (Epp): $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a \mid b \& b \mid c$ then $a \mid c$
- Thm 4.3.4 (Epp): Any integer n > 1 is divisible by a prime number

Prime Numbers

• Definition of Prime

 $n \in \mathbb{Z} \& n > 1$ then,

$$\begin{array}{ll} n \text{ is prime} & \leftrightarrow & \forall r,s \in \mathbb{Z}^+, n = rs \to \\ & ((r = 1 \land s = n) \lor (r = n \land s = 1)) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} n \text{ is composite} & \leftrightarrow & \exists r, s \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ s.t.} \\ & (n = rs) \land (1 < r < n \land 1 < s < n) \end{array}$$

- Proposition 4.2.2 (NTW4) For any two primes p & p', if $p \mid p'$ then p = p'
- Proposition 4.7.3 (Epp) For any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and any prime p, if $p \mid a$ then $p \nmid (a+1)$
- The set of primes is infinite (Thm 4.7.4, Epp)
- Theorem 4.2.3 (pg 16, NTW4): If p is prime and $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ are any integers s.t.:

$$p \mid x_1 x_2 ... x_n,$$

then $p \mid x_i$ for some $x_i (1 \le i \le n)$

• Unique Prime Factorization (Thm 4.3.5, Epp): Given any integer n > 1, $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, distinct primes $p_1, p_2, ..., p_k$ & positive integers $e_1, e_2, ..., e_k$, s.t.

$$n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} p_3^{e_3} ... p_k^{e_k}$$

and any other exp for n as a product of prime numbers is identical to this (except ordering)

Well Ordering Principle

- Lower Bound (Def 4.3.1, NTP2): An integer b is said to be a **lower bound** for a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ if $b \le x$ for all $x \in X$
- Well Ordering Principle (Thm 4.3.2, NTP2): If a non-empty set $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ has a lower/upper bound, then S has a least/greatest element
- Uniqueness of least element (Prop 4.3.3, NTP2): If a set S of integers has a least/greatest element, then the least/greatest element is unique

Quotient-Remainder Theorem

• Quotient-Remainder Theorem (Thm 4.4.1, NTP2): Given any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and any $b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, there exist unique integers q, r such that:

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

GCD/LCM

- Greatest Common Divisor (Def 4.5.1, NTP2): Let a, b be integers, not both zero. The greatest common divisor of a and b, denoted gcd(a, b), is the integer d satisfying:
 - (i) $d \mid a \text{ and } d \mid b$
 - (ii) $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, then $c \leq d$
- Existence of gcd (Prop 4.5.2, NTP2): For any integers a, b, not both zero, their gcd exists and is unique
- **Bézout's Identity** (Thm 4.5.3, NTP2): Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero, and let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then, there exists $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that: ax + by = d
- Relatively Prime/Coprime (Def 4.5.4, NTP2): Integers a, b are (relatively prime)/coprime iff gcd(a, b) = 1
- Proposition 4.5.5 (NTP2): For any $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero, if c is a common divisor of a and b then $c \mid \gcd(a, b)$
- Some Theorem (NTP2): $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+, a \mid b \iff \gcd(a, b) = a$
- Theorem in Assignment 1: $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero & $d = \gcd(a, b)$, then $\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d} \in \mathbb{Z}$ with no common divisor that is greater than 1
- Least Common Multiple (Def 4.6.1, NTP2): For any non-zero integers a, b, their least common multiple, denoted lcm(a, b), is the positive integer m such that:
 - (i) $a \mid m$ and $b \mid m$
 - (ii) $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, if $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c$, then $m \leq c$
- Some other Theorem (NTP2, last page): $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \gcd(a, b) \mid \operatorname{lcm}(a, b)$

Modulo Arithmetic

• Congruence Modulo (4.7.1, NTP3): Let $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ & $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. m is congurent to n modulo d:

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

- Modular Equivalences (8.4.1, Epp): For $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$. Then the following are *equivalent*:
 - 1. n | (a b)
 - 2. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$
 - 3. $a = b + kn, k \in \mathbb{Z}$
 - 4. a, b have same (non-negative) remainder when divided by n
 - 5. $a \mod n = b \mod n$
- Modulo Arithmetic (8.4.3, Epp): Let $a, b, c, d, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$ and suppose:

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

Then

- 1. $(a \pm b) \equiv (c \pm d) \pmod{n}$
- 2. $ab \equiv cd \pmod{n}$
- 3. $a^m \equiv c^m \pmod{n}, \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- Corollary 8.4.4 (Epp):

For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$. Then,

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

If $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, then,

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

• Multiplicative inverse modulo n (4.7.2, NTP3): For $a, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1$, if $s \in \mathbb{Z}, as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, then s is the multiplicative inverse of a modulo n. We write inverse as a^{-1} .

Since commutative law applies in modulo, $a^{-1}a \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

- Existence of multiplicative inverse (4.7.3, NTP3): For any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, its multiplicative inverse mod n (where n > 1), a^{-1} , exists iff, a, n are coprime
- Corollary 4.7.4 (n is prime): If n = p is prime, then all $a \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 < a < p$ have multiplicative inverses mod p
- Cancellation Law (8.4.9, Epp): $\forall a, b, c, n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 1 \text{ and } a, n \text{ coprime, if } ab \equiv ac \pmod{n}$, then $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$

CS1231: Sequences & Recursion

Definitions

ullet Sequences

Denote a seq. of numbers by: $a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots a_n = f(n)$ for some fn f and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The indexing variable is n.

• Recursion Relations

Seq. relating a_n to its predecessors: a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots

Summation & Product

• Summation:

$$\sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i = a_m + a_{m+1} + \ldots + a_{n-1} + a_n = S_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i = \begin{cases} 0, & n < m \\ (\sum_{i=m}^{n-1} a_i) + a_n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• Product:

$$\prod_{i=m}^{n} a_i = a_m \times a_{m+1} \times \ldots \times a_{n-1} \times a_n = P_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\prod_{i=m}^{n} a_i = \begin{cases} 1, & n < m \\ (\prod_{i=m}^{n-1} a_i) \cdot a_n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

• **Theorem 5.1.1** (Epp):

If a_m, a_{m+1}, \ldots and b_m, b_{m+1}, \ldots are sequences of real numbers and for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, then the following equations hold for any integer $n \geq m$:

1.
$$\sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k + \sum_{k=m}^{n} b_k = \sum_{k=m}^{n} (a_k + b_k)$$

2.
$$c \cdot \sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k = \sum_{k=m}^{n} c \cdot a_k$$
 (generalized distributive law)

3.
$$\left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} a_k\right) \cdot \left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} b_k\right) = \prod_{k=m}^{n} (a_k \cdot b_k)$$

Common Sequences

• Arithmetic Sequence $(a_n = a_{n-1} + d)$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_n = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} a, & \text{if } n = 0, \\ a_{n-1} + d, & \text{otherwise.} \end{array} \right.$$

Explicit Formula:

$$a_n = a + nd, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \& a, r \in \mathbb{R}$$

Closed Form:

$$S_n = \frac{n}{2}[2a + (n-1)d], \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \& a, r \in \mathbb{R}$$

• Geometric Sequence $(a_n = ra_{n-1})$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_n = \begin{cases} a, & \text{if } n = 0, \\ ra_{n-1}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Explicit Formula:

$$a_n = ar^n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \& a, r \in \mathbb{R}$$

Closed Form:

$$S_n = \frac{a(r_n - 1)}{r - 1}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a, r \in \mathbb{R}$$

- Square Numbers (sum of first n odd numbers) Explicit Formula: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \Box_n = n^2$
- Triangle Numbers (sum of first n+1 integers)

 Explicit Formula: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \triangle_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ Interesting:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \triangle_n + \triangle_{n-1} = \square_n = (\triangle_n - \triangle_{n-1})^2$$

• Fibonacci Numbers

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$$

 $Explicit\ Formula:$

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, F_n = \frac{\phi^n - (-\phi)^{-n}}{\sqrt{5}}$$

where $\phi = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$

Solving Recurrences

relation

• Second-order Linear Homogeneous Recurrence Relation with Constant Coefficients (Def 5.4.1, Slides)

This is a recurrence relation in the form:

$$a_k = Aa_{k-1} + Ba_{k-2}, \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq k_0}$$

where $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$ constants, $B \neq$ and $k_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ constant

• Distinct-Roots Theorem (Thm 5.8.3, Epp): Suppose a sequence a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots satisfies a recurrence

$$a_k = Aa_{k-1} + Ba_{k-2}$$

for $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$ constants, with $B \neq 0$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$. If characteristic equation

$$t^2 - At - B = 0$$

has two distinct roots r & s then a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots is given by **explicit formula**

$$a_n = Cr^n + Ds^n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

where $C, D \in \mathbb{R}$ as determined by initial conditions a_0, a_1

• Single-Roots Theorem (Thm 5.8.5, Epp): Suppose a sequence a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots satisfies a recurrence relation

$$a_k = Aa_{k-1} + Ba_{k-2}$$

for $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$ constants, with $B \neq 0$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 2}$. If characteristic equation

$$t^2 - At - B = 0$$

has a single real root r then $a_0, a_1, a_2, ...$ is given by **explicit formula**

$$a_n = Cr^n + Dnr^n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

where $C, D \in \mathbb{R}$ as determined by the value a_0 and any other known value of the sequence

CS1231: Sets

Basics

- Subset (Def 6.1.1, Slides): S is subset of T (S is contained in T, T contains S) if all elements of S are elements of T. We write it as $S \subset T$
- Empty set (Def 6.3.1, Slides): Empty set has no element, denoted by \emptyset or $\{\}$
- Empty set is a subset of all sets (6.2.4, Epp): $\forall X \forall Z ((\forall Y \sim (Y \in X)) \rightarrow (X \subseteq Z))$
- Set Equality (Def 6.3.2, Slides):
 Two sets are equal iff they have same elements in them

$$\forall X \forall Y ((\forall Z (Z \in X \leftrightarrow Z \in Y)) \leftrightarrow X = Y)$$

N.B. duplicates and order does not matter!

• Prop 6.3.3:

For any sets X, Y; $X \subseteq Y \& Y \subseteq X$ iff, X = Y:

$$\forall X \forall Y ((X \subseteq Y \land Y \subseteq X) \leftrightarrow X = Y)$$

- Empty Set is Unique (Col 6.2.5, Epp): $\forall X_1 \forall X_2, ((\forall Y (\sim (Y \in X_1)) \land (\forall Y \sim (Y \in X_2)) \rightarrow X_1 = X_2)$
- Power Set (Def 6.3.4, Slides): Given set S, the power set of S, denoted $\mathcal{P}(S)$ or 2^{S} , is the set whose elements are all the subsets of S, nothing less and nothing more. That is, given set S, if $T = \mathcal{P}(S)$, then

$$\forall X ((X \in T) \leftrightarrow (X \subseteq S))$$

• No. of elements in Power Set (Thm 6.3.1, Epp) For all integers $n \geq 0$, if a set X has n elements, then $\mathcal{P}(X)$ has 2^n elements.

Operation on Sets

• Union (Def 6.4.1): Let S be a set of sets, then we say that T is the u

Let S be a set of sets, then we say that T is the **union** of the sets in S:

$$T = \bigcup S = \bigcup_{X \in S} X$$

iff each element of T belongs to some set S, nothing less and nothing more. That is, given S, T is such that:

$$\forall Y ((Y \in T) \leftrightarrow \exists Z ((Z \in S) \land (Y \in Z)))$$

- Proposition 6.4.2 (Slides):
 - $-\bigcup \varnothing = \bigcup_{A \in \varnothing} A = \varnothing$
 - $-\bigcup\{A\}=A$
 - $-A \cup B = B \cup A$ (commutative)
 - $-A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ (associative)
 - $-A \cup A = A$
 - $-A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow A \cup B = B$
- Intersection (Def 6.4.3, Slides):

Let S be a **non-empty set** of sets. The **intersection** of the sets in S is the set T whose elements belong to all the sets in S, nothing less and more:

$$\forall Y ((Y \in T) \leftrightarrow \forall Z ((Z \in S) \to (Y \in Z)))$$

We write it as:

$$T = \bigcap S = \bigcap_{X \in S} X$$

- Proposition 6.4.4 (Slides):
 - $-A \cap \varnothing = \varnothing$
 - $-A \cap B = B \cap A$
 - $-A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$ (associative)
 - $-A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow A \cap B = A$
 - $-\ A\cap (B\cup C)=(A\cap B)\cup (A\cap C)$
 - $-A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$

- **Disjoint** (Def 6.4.5, Slides): S, T, being two sets, are disjoint iff $S \cap T = \emptyset$
- Mutually disjoint (Def 6.4.6, Slides):
 Let V be set of sets. The sets T ∈ V are mutually disjoint iff every two distinct sets are disjoint.

$$\forall X, Y \in V(X \neq Y \to X \cap Y = \varnothing)$$

(e.g.
$$V = \{\{1, 2\}, \{3\}, \{\{1\}, \{2\}\}\}\}$$
)

- Partition (Def 6.4.7, Slides): Let S be set and let V be a set of non-empty subsets of S. V is a partition of S iff
 - 1. The sets in V are mutually disjoint
 - 2. The union of the sets in V equals S.
- Non-symmetric difference (Def 6.4.8, Slides): Let S, T be two sets. The difference (or relative complement) of S and T, denoted S - T is the set whose elements belong to S and do not belong to T

$$\forall X(X \in S - T \iff (X \in S \land \sim (X \in T)))$$

• Symmetric Difference [XORing] (Def 6.4.9, Slides): Let S, T be two sets. The symmetric difference of S and T, denoted $S \ominus T$ is the set whose elements belong to S or T but not both

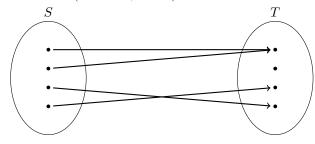
$$\forall X(X \in S \ominus T \leftrightarrow (X \in S \oplus X \in T))$$

• Set Complement (Def 6.4.10, Slides): Let \mathcal{U} be the Universal set, let $A \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. Then, the complement of A, denoted A^c , is $\mathcal{U} - A$ s

CS1231: Functions

Basics

• Function (Def 7.1.1, Slides):



Let f be a relation such that $f \subseteq S \times T$. Then f is **function** from S to T $(f: S \to T)$

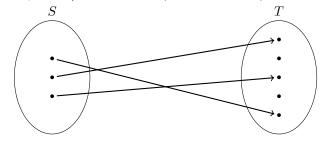
$$\forall x \in S, \exists ! y \in T(x f y)$$

Basic Function Definitions

- Pre-image (Def 7.1.2): Let $f: S \to T$ be a function. Let $x \in S$ and $y \in T$ such that f(x) = y. Then, x is the **pre-image** of y
- Inverse image (Def 7.1.3): Let $f: S \to T$ be a function. Let $y \in T$. The inverse image of y is the set of all its pre-images: $\{x \in S \mid f(x) = y\}$
- Inverse image (Def 7.1.4): Let $f: S \to T$ be a function. Let $U \subseteq T$. The inverse image of U is the set that contains all the pre-images of all elements in $U: \{x \in S \mid \exists y \in U, f(x) = y\}$
- Restriction (Def 7.1.5): Let $f: S \to T$ be a function. Let $U \subseteq S$. The restriction of f to U is the set: $\{(x,y) \in U \times T \mid f(x) = y\}$

Properties of Functions

• Injective/One-to-One (Def 7.2.1, Slides):

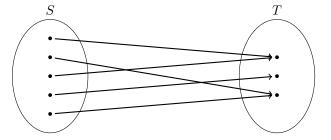


Let $f: S \to T$ be a function. f is **injective** iff

$$\forall Y \in T, \forall x_1, x_2 \in S((f(x_1) = y \land f(x_2) = y) \to x_1 = x_2$$

We can also say: f is an **injection** or **one-to-one** (i.e. every dot in T has AT MOST one incoming arrow)

• Surjective/Onto (Def 7.2.2, Slides):

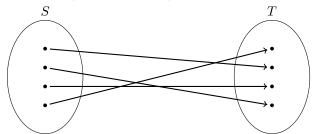


Let $f: S \to T$ be a function. f is **surjective** iff

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

We can also say: f is a **surjection** or **onto** (i.e. every dot in T has **AT LEAST** one incoming arrow)

• **Bijective** (Def 7.2.3, Slides):



Let $f: S \to T$ be a function. f is **bijective** iff f is both **injective and surjective**. We can also say: f is a **bijection**.

- Inverse (Prop 7.2.4, Slides): Let $f: S \to T$ be a function and f^{-1} be the inverse relation o f from T to S. Then, f is bijective iff f^{-1} is a function.
- Composition (Prop 7.3.1, Slides): Let $f: S \to T$ and $g: T \to U$ be functions. The composition of f and $g, g \circ f$, is a function from S to U.
- Identity Function (Def 7.3.2, Slides): Given a set A, define function \mathcal{I}_A from A to A by:

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

 \mathcal{I}_A is the **identity function** on A

• Composition of Inverse (Prop 7.3.3, Slides): Let $f: A \to A$ be injective function on A. Thus, $f^{-1} \circ f = \mathcal{I}_A$

Generalization

- Unary operation (Def 7.3.5, Slides): A unary operation on a set A is a function $f: A \to A$
- Binary operation (Def 7.3.6): A **binary operation** on a set A is a function f: $A \times A \rightarrow A$

CS1231: Relations

Basic Definitions

• Ordered Pair (Def 8.1.1):

Let S be a non-empty set and let

Let S be a non-empty set and let $x, y \in S$. The **ordered pair**, denoted (x, y), is a mathematical object in which the first element is x and second element is y.

$$(x,y) = (a,b) \iff x = a, y = b$$

- Ordered n-tuple (Def 8.1.2)
- Cartesian product (Def 8.1.3): Let S, T be two sets. The Cartesian product (cross product) of S & T, denoted $S \times T$, is the set such that:

$$\forall X \forall Y ((X,Y) \in S \times T \leftrightarrow (X \in S) \land (Y \in T))$$

N.B. Cartesian product is **NOT** commutative nor associative and size of $S \times T = \text{size of } S \times \text{size of } T$

• Generalized Cartesian Product (Def 8.1.4): If V is a set of sets, the Generalized Cartesian product of its elements is:

$$\prod_{S \in V} S$$

 \bullet Binary relations (Def 8.2.1):

Let S, T be two sets. A **binary relation** from S to T, denoted \mathcal{R} , is a subset of the Cartesian product $S \times T$

N.B.
$$s \mathcal{R} t$$
 is $(s,t) \in \mathcal{R}$ and $s \mathcal{R} t$ is $(s,t) \notin \mathcal{R}$

Properties of Binary Relations

Let $R \subseteq S \times T$ be a binary relation from S to T

• **Domain** (Def 8.2.2): The **domain** of \mathcal{R} is the set

$$\mathcal{D}om(\mathcal{R}) = \{ s \in S \mid \exists t \in T(s \ \mathcal{R} \ t) \}$$

• Image (Def 8.2.3): The image of \mathcal{R} is the set

$$\mathcal{I}m(\mathcal{R}) = \{ t \in T \mid \exists s \in S(s \ \mathcal{R} \ t) \}$$

• Co-domain (Def 8.2.4): The co-domain (range) of \mathcal{R} is the set

$$co\mathcal{D}om(\mathcal{R}) = T$$

• Inverse (Def 8.2.6):

Let S, T be sets and $R \subseteq S \times T$ be a binary relation. The **inverse** of the relation \mathcal{R} , denoted \mathcal{R}^{-1} , is the relation from T to S such that:

$$\forall s \in S, \forall t \in T(t \ \mathcal{R}^{-1} \ s \leftrightarrow s \ \mathcal{R} \ t)$$

• **n-ary relation** (Def 8.2.7):

Let S_i , for i = 1 to n, be n sets. An **n-ary relation** on the sets S_i , denoted \mathcal{R} , is a subset of the Cartesian product $\prod_{i=1}^{n} S_i$. We call n the **arity** or **degree** of the relation.

• Composition (Def 8.2.8):

Let S, T, U be sets. Let $\mathcal{R} \subseteq S \times T$ be a relation. Let $\mathcal{R}' \subseteq T \times U$ be a relation. The composition of \mathcal{R} with \mathcal{R}' , denoted $\mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{R}'$, is the relation from S to U such that:

$$\forall X \in S, \forall z \in U(x \mathcal{R}' \circ \mathcal{R} z \leftrightarrow (\exists y \in T(x \mathcal{R} y \land y \mathcal{R}' z)))$$

• Associativity of Composition (Prop 8.2.9):

Let S, T, U, V be sets. Let $\mathcal{R} \subseteq S \times T$, $\mathcal{R}' \subseteq T \times U$, $\mathcal{R}'' \subseteq U \times V$ be relations. Therefore,

$$\mathcal{R}'' \circ (\mathcal{R}' \circ \mathcal{R}) = (\mathcal{R}'' \circ \mathcal{R}') \circ \mathcal{R} = \mathcal{R}'' \circ \mathcal{R}' \circ \mathcal{R}$$

• Proposition 8.2.10:

Let S, T, U be sets. Let $\mathcal{R} \subseteq S \times T$ and $\mathcal{R}' \subseteq T \times U$ be relations.

$$(\mathcal{R}' \circ \mathcal{R})^{-1} = \underbrace{\mathcal{R}^{-1} \circ \mathcal{R}'^{-1}}_{\text{reversed order}}$$

Properties of Relations on a Set

Let A be a set and $\mathcal{R} \subseteq A \times A$ be a relation. We say that \mathcal{R} is a **relation on** A.

• Reflexive (Def 8.3.1) \mathcal{R} is reflexive $\iff \forall x \in A, (x \mathcal{R} x)$

- Symmetric (Def 8.3.2) \mathcal{R} is symmetric $\iff \forall x, y \in A, (x \mathcal{R} y \to y \mathcal{R} x)$
- Anti-Symmetric (Def 8.6.1) \mathcal{R} is anti-symmetric $\iff \forall x, y \in A, ((x \mathcal{R} y \land y \mathcal{R} x) \rightarrow x = y)$
- Asymmetric (Tutorial 7) \mathcal{R} is asymmetric $\iff \forall x, y \in A, (x \mathcal{R} y \to y \mathcal{R} x)$
- Transitive (Def 8.3.3) \mathcal{R} is transitive $\iff \forall x, y, z \in A, ((x \mathcal{R} y \land y \mathcal{R} z) \rightarrow x \mathcal{R} z)$
- Equivalence Relations (Def 8.3.4):

Let \mathcal{R} be a relation on set A.

 \mathcal{R} is called an **equivalence relation** iff \mathcal{R} is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

• Equivalence Class (Def 8.3.5):

Let $x \in A$ and \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation on A. The **equivalence class** of x, denoted [x] is the set of all elemetrs $y \in A$ that are in relation with x.

$$[x] = \{ y \in A \mid x \mathcal{R} y \}$$

• Partition induced by an equivalence relation (Thm 8.3.4, Epp):

Let \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation on a set A. Then, the set of distinct equivalence classes form a partition of A.

• Lemma 8.3.2, Epp:

Let \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation on a set A and let a, b be two elements in A. If $a \mathcal{R} b$ then [a] = [b]

• Lemma 8.3.3, Epp:

If \mathcal{R} is an equivalence relation on a set A and a, b are elements in A, then, either $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$ or [a] = [b].

• Equivalence relation induced by a partition (Thm 8.3.1, Epp):

Given a partition $S_1, S_2, ...$ of a set A, there exists an equivalence relation \mathcal{R} on A whose equivalence classes make up precisely that partition.

Additional Definitions

• Transitive closure (Def 8.5.1)

Let A be a set, \mathcal{R} be a relation on A. The **transitive** closure of \mathcal{R} , denoted \mathcal{R}^t is a relation that satisfies these three properties:

- 1. \mathcal{R}^t is transitive
- 2. $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^t$
- 3. If S is any other transitive relation such that $\mathcal{R} \subseteq S$, then $\mathcal{R}^t \subseteq S$
- Repeated compositions

Let \mathcal{R} be a relation on a set A. We adopt the following notation for the composition of \mathcal{R} with itself:

- 1. We define $\mathcal{R}^1 \triangleq \mathcal{R}$
- 2. We define $\mathcal{R}^2 \triangleq \mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{R}$
- 3. We define $\mathcal{R}^n \triangleq \underbrace{\mathcal{R} \circ \ldots \circ \mathcal{R}}_{n} = \bigodot_{i=1 \text{ to } n} \mathcal{R}$
- Proposition 8.5.2

Let \mathcal{R} be a relation on set A. Then

$$\mathcal{R}^t = igcup_{i=1}^\infty \mathcal{R}^i$$

Partial & Total Orders

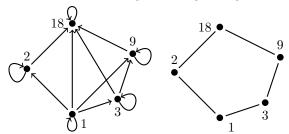
• Partial Order (Def 8.6.2)

 \mathcal{R} is said to be a **partial order** iff it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive

N.B. Partial order is denoted by \leq (note the curl)

• Hasse Diagrams

To convert from left diagram to right diagram:



N.B. Only works for partially ordered sets!

Converting to Hasse:

- 1. Draw the directed graph so that all arrows point upwards
- 2. Eliminate all self-loops
- 3. Eliminate all arrows implied by the transitive property
- 4. Remove the direction of the arrows
- Comparable (Def 8.6.3)

Let \leq be a partial order on a set A. Elements $a, b \in A$ are **comparable** iff either $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$. Otherwise, a, b are **noncomparable**.

• Total Order (Def 8.6.4)

Let \leq be a partial order on a set A. \leq is a **total order** iff

$$\forall x, y \in A(x \leq y \lor y \leq x)$$

i.e. \leq is a total order if \leq is a partial order and all x,y are comparable

• **Maximal** (Def 8.6.5)

An element x is a maximal element iff

$$\forall y \in A, (x \leq y \rightarrow x = y)$$

• **Maximum** (Def 8.6.6)

An element, usually noted \top , is the **maximum element** iff

$$\forall x \in A, (x \leq \top)$$

• **Minimal** (Def 8.6.7)

An element x is a minimal element iff

$$\forall y \in A, (y \leq x \rightarrow x = y)$$

• **Minimum** (Def 8.6.8)

An element, usually noted \perp , is the **minimum element** iff

$$\forall x \in A, (\bot \preceq x)$$

• Well Ordering of Total Orders (Def 8.6.9)

Let \leq be a total order on a set A. A is **well ordered** iff every non-empty subset of A contains a minimum element

$$\forall S \in \mathcal{P}(A)(S \neq \emptyset \rightarrow (\exists x \in S, \forall y \in S, (x \leq y)))$$

CS1231: Counting & Probability

Basic Definition

• Sample Space & Event

A **sample space** is the set of all possible outcomes of a random process or experiment. An **event** is a subset of a sample space.

• Equally Likely Probability Formula

If S is a finite sample space in which all outcomes are **equally likely** & E is an event in S, then the **probability** of E, denoted P(E) is

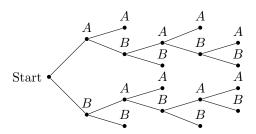
$$P(E) = \frac{\text{No. of outcomes in E}}{\text{Total no. of outcomes in S}} = \frac{N(E)}{N(S)}$$

- Probability of the Complement of an Event If S is a finite sample space and A is an event in S, then $P(A^c) = 1 P(A)$
- Number of Elements in a List (Thm 9.1.1) If $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $m \leq n$, then there are (n m) + 1 integers from m to n inclusive
- Multiplication Rule (Thm 9.2.1)

If an operation consists of k steps and the first step can be preformed in n_1 ways the second step can be performed in n_2 ways (regardless of how first step was performed)

the kth step can be performed in n_k ways (regardless of how preceding steps was performed) Then, the entire operation can be performed in $n_1 \times n_2 \times \ldots \times n_k$ ways

Possibility Tree



• Possible Ways in Tree

Possible ways are represented by the distinct paths from "root" (start) to "leaf" (terminal point) in the tree

Permutation

• Definition

A **permutation** of a set of objects is an ordering of the objects in a row.

• No of Permutations (Thm 9.2.2) The number of permutations of a set with $n \ (n \ge 1)$ elements is n!

• r-permutation

An **r-permutation** of a set of n elements is an ordered selection of r elements taken from the set. The number of r-permutations of a set of n elements is denoted P(n,r)

• r-permutations from a set of n elements (Thm 9.2.3)

If $n, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $1 \le r \le n$, then the **number of r-permutations of a set of n elements** is given by the formula

$$P(n,r) = n(n-1)\dots(n-r+1)$$

or, equivalently

$$P(n,r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$$

Counting Elements of Sets

• Addition Rule (Thm 9.3.1) Suppose a finite set A equals the union of k distinct mutually disjoint subsets A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_k . Then, $N(A) = N(A_1) + N(A_2) + \ldots + N(A_k)$

• Difference Rule (Thm 9.3.2) If A is a finite set and B is a subset of A, then N(A-B) = N(A) - N(B) • Inclusion-Exclusion rule for 2 or 3 sets (Thm 9.3.3)

If A, B, C are any finite sets, then

$$N(A \cup B) = N(A) + N(B) - N(A \cap B)$$

and

$$N(A \cup B \cup C) = N(A) + N(B) + N(C) - N(A \cap B)$$
$$-N(A \cap C) - N(B \cap C) + N(A \cap B \cap C)$$

Pigeonhole Principle

• Pigeonhole Principle

A function from one finite set to a smaller finite set cannot be one-to-one: There must be at least 2 elements in the domain that have the same image in the co-domain

• Pigeonhole Principle (Thm 9.4.1)
For any function f from a finite set X with n elements

for any function f from a finite set X with n elements to a finite set Y with m elements, if n > m, then f is not one-to-one.

• One-to-one and Onto for Finite Sets

Let X, Y be finite sets with the same number of elements and suppose f is a function from X to Y. Then f is one-to-one iff f is onto.

• Generalised Pigeonhole Principle

For any function f from a finite set X with n elements to a finite set Y with m elements and for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, if k < n/m, then there is some y inY such that y is the image of at least k+1 distinct elements of X.

• Contrapositive Form of GPP

For any function f from a finite set X with n elements to a finite set Y with m elements and for any $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, if for each $y \in Y$, $f^{-1}(y)$ has at most k elements, then X has at most km elements, i.e., $n \leq km$

Combinations

• r-combination

Let n, r be non-negative integers with $r \leq n$. An **r-combination** of a set of n elements is a subset of r of the n elements. $\binom{n}{r}$, denotes the no. of subsets of size r, that can be chosen from a set of n elements.

• Formula for $\binom{n}{r}$ (Thm 9.5.1)

The no. of subsets of size r (r-combinations) that can be chosen from a set of n elements, $\binom{n}{r}$, is given by the formula

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{P(n,r)}{r!}$$

or, equivalently

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}$$

where n, r are non-negative integers with $r \leq n$.

• Permutations with sets of indistinguishable objects (Thm 9.5.2)

Suppose a collection consists of n objects of which

 n_1 of type 1 & are indistinguishable from each other n_2 of type 2 & are indistinguishable from each other

:

 n_k of type k & are indistinguishable from each other

and suppose that $n_1 + n_2 + ... + n_k = n$. Then, the **no.** of distinguishable permutations of the n objects is

$$\binom{n}{n_1} \binom{n-n_1}{n_2} \cdots \binom{n-n_1-n_2-\dots n_{k-1}}{n_k}$$

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

• No. of Partitions of a Set into r subsets (Stirling numbers of the Second Kind)

 $S_{n,r} = \text{no.}$ of ways a set of size n can be partitioned into r subsets

• r-combination with repetition
An r-combination with repetition allowed, or multiset of size r, chosen from a set X of n elements is an

unordered selection of elements taken from X with repetition allowed. If $X = \{x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n\}$, we write an r-combination with repetition allowed as $[x_{i_1}, x_{i_2}, \ldots, x_{i_r}]$ where each x_{i_j} is in X and some of the x_{i_j} may equal each other

• No. of r-combinations with repetition (Thm 9.6.1) The no. of r-combination with repetition allowed (multisets of size r) that can be selected from a set of n elements is

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

This equals the number of ways r objects can be selected from n categories of objects with repetitions allowed

• Pascal's Formula (Thm 9.7.1) Suppose $n, r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ & $r \le n$. Then

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

• Binomial Theorem (Thm 9.7.2) Given any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ and any non-negative integer n,

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

= $a^n + \binom{n}{1} a^{n-1} b^1 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} a^1 b^{n-1} + b^n$

Probability

• Probability Axioms

Let S be a sample space. A **probability function** P from the set of all events in S to the set of real numbers satisfies the following axioms: For all events A and B in S.

- 1. $0 \le P(A) \le 1$
- 2. $P(\emptyset) = 0 \text{ and } P(S) = 1$
- 3. If A and B are disjoint $(A \cap B = \emptyset)$, then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$

• Probability of a General Union of Two Events If A and B are any events in a sample space S, then $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$

• Expected Value

Suppose the possible outcomes of an experiment, or random process, are real numbers a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n which occur with probabilities p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n . The **expected value** of the process is

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k p_k = a_1 p_1 + a_2 p_2 + \ldots + a_n p_n$$

• Conditional Probability

Let A and B be events in a sample space S. If $P(A) \neq 0$, then the **conditional probability of B given A**, denoted $P(B \mid A)$ is

$$P(B \mid A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

• Bayes' Theorem (Thm 9.9.1)

Suppose that a sample space S is a union of mutually disjoint events B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_n .

Suppose A is an event in S, and suppose A and all the B_i have non-zero probabilities.

If $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $1 \le k \le n$, then

$$P(B_k \mid A) = \frac{P(A \mid B_k) \cdot P(B_k)}{P(A \mid B_1) \cdot P(B_1) + \ldots + P(A \mid B_n) \cdot P(B_n)}$$

• Independent Events

If A, B are events in a sample space S, then A and B are **independent** iff $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$

• Pairwise/Mutually Independent

Let A, B, C be events in a sample space S. A, B, C are **pairwise independent**, iff, they satisfy conditions 1 - 3 below. They are **mutually independent**, if, they satisfy all four conditions below.

- 1. $P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$
- 2. $P(A \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(C)$
- 3. $P(B \cap C) = P(B) \cdot P(C)$
- 4. $P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(B) \cdot P(C)$
- Generalised Mutually Independent Definition Events A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n in a sample space S are mutually dependent iff the probability of the intersection of any subset of the events is the product of the probabilities of the events in the subset

CS1231: Graphs

Basic Definitions

• Graph

A graph G consists of 2 finite sets: a nonempty set V(G) of vertices and a set E(G) of edges, where each edge is associated with a set consisting of either one or two vertices called its **endpoints**.

A edge is said to **connect** its endpoints; two vertices that are connected by an edge are called **adjacent vertices**; and a vertex that is an endpoint of a loop is said to be **adjacent to itself**.

An edge is said to be **incident on** each of its endpoints, and two edges incident on the same endpoint are called **adjacent edges**.

We write $e = \{v, w\}$ for an edge e incident on vertices v and w.

• Directed Graph

A directed graph, or digraph, G, consists of 2 finite sets: a nonempty set V(G) of vertices and a set D(G) of directed edges, where each edge is associated with an ordered pair of vertices called its endpoints.

If edge e is associated with the pair (v, w) of vertices, then e is said to be the (directed) edge from v to w. We write e = (v, w).

• Simple Graph

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

• Complement of Simple Graph (Tutorial 10)

If G is a simple graph, the complement of G, denoted G', is obtained as follows: The vertex set of G' is identical to the vertex set of G. However, two distinct vertices v and w of G' are connected by an edge iff v & w are not connected by an edge in G.

ullet 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

A graph H is said to be a **subgraph** of graph G, iff, every vertex in H is also a vertex in G, every edge in H is also an edge in G, and every edge in H has the same endpoints as it has in G.

• Complete Bipartite Graphs

A complete bipartite graph on (m, n) vertices, where m, n > 0, denoted $K_{m,n}$, is a simple graph with distinct vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m and w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n that satisfies the following properties:

For all i, k = 1, 2, ..., m and for all j, l = 1, 2, ..., n,

- 1. There is an edge from each vertex v_i to each vertex w_j
- 2. There is no edge from any vertex v_i to any other vertex v_k
- 3. There is no edge from any vertex w_j to any other vertex w_l

• Degree of a Vertex and Total Degree of a Graph Let G be a graph and v a vertex of G. The degree of v, denoted deg(v), equals the number of edges that are **incident on** v, with an edge that is a loop counted twice.

The **total degree of** G is the sum of the degrees of all the vertices of G.

• Handshake Theorem (Thm 10.1.1)

If G is any graph, then the sum of the degrees of all the vertices of G equals twice the number of edges of G. Specifically, if the vertices of G are v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n , where $n \geq 0$, then

Total degree of $G = \deg(v_1) + \deg(v_2) + \ldots + \deg(v_n)$ = $2 \cdot (\text{the no. of edges of } G)$

• Corollary 10.1.2

The total degree of a graph is ${\bf even}$

• Proposition 10.1.3

In any graph there are an even numer of vertices of odd degree

Trails, Paths and Circuits

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

• Walk

A walk from v to w is a finite alternating sequence of adjacent vertices and edges of G. Thus, a walk has the form

$$v_0e_1v_1e_2\ldots v_{n-1}e_nv_n$$

where the v's represent vertices, the e's represent edges, $v_0 = v, v_n = w$ and for all $i \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}, v_{i-1}$ and v_i are the endpoints of e_i

• Trivial Walk

A **trivial walk** from v to v consists of the single vertex v

• Trail

A trail from v to w is a walk from v to w that does not contain a repeated edge

• Path

A path from \boldsymbol{v} to \boldsymbol{w} is a trail that does not contain a repeated vertex

• Closed Walk

A **closed walk** is a walk that starts and ends at the same vertex

• Circuit/Cycle

A circuit/cycle is a closed walk that contains at least one edge and does not contain a repeated edge

• Simple Circuit/Cycle

A simple circuit/cycle is a circuit that does not have any other repeated vertex except first and last

• Triangle

A simple circuit of **length three** is called a triangle

• Connectedness

Vertices v and w in graph G are **connected** iff there is a walk from v to w

• Connected Graph

The graph G is **connected**, iff, given any two vertices v and w in graph G, there is a walk from v to w

• Lemma on Connectedness

Let G be a graph

- 1. If G is connected, then any two distinct vertices in G can be connected by a path
- 2. 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
- 3. If G is connected and G contains a circuit, then an edge of the circuit can be removed without disconnected G

• Connected Component

A graph H is a **connected component** of a graph G iff,

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

Euler Circuits

• Euler Circuit

Let G be a graph. An **Euler circuit** for G is a circuit that contains every vertex and every edge of G.

That is, an **Euler circuit** for G is a sequence of adjacent vertices and edges in G that has at least one edge, starts and ends at the same vertex, uses every vertex of G at least once, and uses every edge of G exactly once.

• Theorem 10.2.2

If a graph is an Euler circuit, then every vertex of the graph has positive even degree

• Contrapositive of 10.2.2

If some vertex of a graph has odd degree, then the graph does not have an Euler circuit

• Theorem 10.2.3

If a graph G is **connected** and the degree of every vertex of G is a **positive even integer**, then G has an Euler circuit

• Theorem 10.2.4: USE THIS FOR EULER

A graph G has an Euler circuit $\iff G$ is connected and every vertex of G has positive even degree

• Euler Trail

Let G be a graph, and let v and w be two distinct vertices of G. An Euler trail/path from v to w is a sequence of adjacent edges and vertices that starts at v, ends at w, passes through every vertex of G at least once, and traverses every edge of G exactly once.

• Corollary 10.2.5

Let G be a graph and let v and w be two distinct vertices of G. There is an Euler trail from v to $w \iff G$ is connected, v and w have odd degree, and all other vertices of G have positive even degree.

Hamiltonian Circuits

• Hamiltonian Circuit

Given a graph G, a **Hamiltonian circuit** for G is a simple circuit that includes every vertex of G.

That is, a Hamiltonian circuit for G is a sequence of adjacent vertices and distinct edges in which every vertex of G appears exactly once, **except for the first and last**, which are the same.

N.B. Hamiltonian circuit does not have to use all edges, but since it is a circuit, it cannot use the same edge more than once.

• Proposition 10.2.6

If a graph G has a Hamiltonian circuit, then G has a subgraph H with the following properties:

- 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

Matrix Representation of Graphs

• Matrix

An $m \times n$ matrix A over a set S is a rectangular array of elements of S arranged into m rows and n columns

• Adjacency Matrix of a Directed Graph

Let G be a directed graph with ordered vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n . The **adjacency matrix of** G is the $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})$ over the set of non-negative integers such that

 a_{ij} = the number of arrows from v_i to v_j

for all i, j = 1, 2, ..., n.

• Adjacency Matrix of an Undirected Graph

let G be an undirected graph with ordered verices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n . The **adjacency matrix of** G is the $n \times n$ matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})$ over the set of non-negative integers such that

 a_{ij} = the number of edges connecting v_i and v_j for all i, j = 1, 2, ..., n.

• Symmetric Matrix

An $n \times n$ square matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})$ is called **symmetric** \iff for all i, j = 1, 2, ..., n

$$a_{ij} = a_{ji}$$

(i.e. mirror image along main diagonal)

• Theorem 10.3.1

Let G be a graph with connected components G_1, G_2, \ldots, G_k . If there are n_i vertices in each connected component G_i and these vertices are numbered consecutively, then the adjacency matrix of G has the form:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_1 & O & O & & O & O \\ O & A_2 & O & \dots & O & O \\ O & O & A_3 & & O & O \\ & \vdots & & & \vdots & \vdots \\ O & O & O & \dots & O & A_k \end{bmatrix}$$

where each A_i is $n_i \times n_i$ adjacency matrix of G_i for all i = 1, 2, ..., k, and the O's represent matrices whose entries are all 0s

• Scalar Product

Suppose that all entries in matrices A and B are real numbers. If the number of elements, n, in the ith row of A equals the number of elements in the jth column of B, then the scalar product or dot product of the ith row of A and the jth column of B is the real number obtained as follows

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{i1} & a_{i2} & \dots & a_{in} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{1j} \\ b_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ b_{nj} \end{bmatrix} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots + a_{in}b_{nj}$$

• Matrix Multiplication

Let $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})$ be an $m \times k$ matrix and $\mathbf{B} = (b_{ij})$ an $k \times n$ matrix with real entries. The (matrix) product of \mathbf{A} times \mathbf{B} , denoted \mathbf{AB} , is the matrix (c_{ij}) defined as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1j} & \vdots & c_{1n} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2j} & \vdots & c_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{i1} & c_{i2} & \dots & c_{ij} & \vdots & c_{in} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ c_{k1} & c_{k2} & \dots & c_{1j} & \vdots & c_{kn} \end{bmatrix}$$

where

$$c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \ldots + a_{ik}bkj = \sum_{r=1}^{k} a_{ir}b_{rj}$$

for all i = 1, 2, ..., m and j = 1, 2, ..., n.

• Identity Matrix

For each $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, the $n \times n$ identity matrix, denoted $I_n = (\delta_{ij})$ or just **I**, if the size of matrix is obvious from context, is the $n \times n$ matrix in which all the entries in the main diagonal are 1's and all other entries are 0's. In other words,

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = j \\ 0, & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

for all i, j = 1, 2, ..., n.

• Identity Matrix II

For any $n \times n$ matrix **A**, the **powers of A** are defined as follows:

 $\mathbf{A^0} = \mathbf{I}$ where \mathbf{I} is the $n \times n$ identity matrix $\mathbf{A^n} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A^{n-1}}$ for all integers $n \ge 1$

• No. of walks in Adjacency Matrix (Thm 10.3.2) If G is a graph with vertices v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m and \mathbf{A} is the adjacency matrix of G, then for each $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and for all integers $i, j = 1, 2, \ldots, m$, the ij-th entry of $\mathbf{A}^n =$ the number of walks of length n from v_i to v_j .

Isomorphisms of Graphs

• Isomorphic Graph

Let G and G' be graphs with vertex sets V(G) and V(G') and edge sets E(G) and E(G') respectively. G is isomorphic to $G' \iff$ there exist one-to-one correspondences $g: V(G) \to V(G')$ and $h: E(G) \to E(G')$ that preserve the edge-endpoint functions of G and G' in the sense that for all $v \in V(G)$ and $e \in E(G)$,

v is an endpoint of $e \iff g(v)$ is an endpoint of h(e).

• Graph Isomorphism is an Equivalence Relation (Thm 10.4.1)

Let S be a set of graphs and let R be the relation of graph isomorphism on S. Then, R is an equivalence relation on S.

• Self-Complementary Graph (Tutorial 10) A self-complementary graph is isomorphic with its complement

• Invariant-ness

A property P is called an **invariant** for graph isomorphism \iff given any graphs G ad G', if G has property P and G' is isomorphic to G, then G' has property P.

• Invariants for Graph Isomorphism (Thm 10.4.2) Each of the following properties is an invariant for graph isomorphism, where n, m, k are all non-negative integers

- 1. has n vertices
- 2. has m edges
- 3. has a vertex of degree k

- 4. has m vertices of degree k
- 5. has a circuit of length k
- 6. has a simple circuit of length k
- 7. has m simple circuits of length k
- 8. is connected
- 9. has an Euler circuit
- 10. has a Hamiltonian circuit

• Graph Isomorphism for Simple Graphs

If G and G' are simple graphs, then G is isomorphic to $G' \iff$ there exists a one-to-one correspondence g from vertex set V(G') of G' that preserves the edge-endpoint functions of G and G' in the sense that for all vertices u and v of G,

 $\{u,v\}$ is an edge in $G \iff \{g(u),g(v)\}$ is an edge in G'

CS1231: Trees

Basic Definition

• Circuit-Free

A graph is said to be circuit-free \iff it has no circuits

• Tree

A graph is said to be a $\mathbf{tree} \iff it$ is circuit-free and connected

• Trivial Tree

A **trivial tree** is a graph that consists of a single vertex

• Forest

A graph is called a **forest** \iff it is circuit-free and not connected

• Minimum vertex of non-trivial tree (Lem 10.5.1) Any non-trivial tree has at least one vertex of degree 1

• Terminal vertex (leaf) & internal vertex

Let T be a tree. If T has only one or two vertices, then each is called a **terminal vertex** (or **leaf**). If T has at least three vertices, then a vertex of degree 1 in T is called a **terminal vertex** (or **leaf**), and a vertex of degree greater than 1 in T is called an **internal vertex**.

• Theorem 10.5.2

Any tree with n vertices (n > 0) has n - 1 edges

• Lemma 10.5.3

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

• Determining a Tree (Thm 10.5.4)

If G is a connected graph with n vertices and n-1 edges, then G is a tree

Rooted Trees

• Rooted Tree

A **rooted tree** is a tree in which there is one vertex that is distinguished from the others and is called the **root**

• Level

The **level** of a vertex is the number of edges along the unique path between it and the root

• Height

The **height** of a rooted tree is the maximum level of any vertex of the tree

• Children

Given the root or any internal vertex v of a rooted tree, the **children** of v are all those vertices that are adjacent to v and are one level farther away from the root than v

• Parent

If w is a child of v, then v is called the **parent** of w, and two distinct vertices that are both children of the same parent are called **sibilings**

• Ancestor/Descendant

Given two distinct vertices v and w, if v lies on the unique path between w and the root, then v is an **ancestor** of w, and w is a **descendant** of v

Binary Trees

• Binary Tree

A binary tree is a rooted tree in which every parent has at most two children. Each child is designated either a left child or a right child (but not both), and every parent has at most one left and one right child.

• Full Binary Tree

A full binary tree is a binary tree in which each parent has exactly two children

\bullet Left/Right Subtree

Given any parent v in a binary tree T, if v has a left child, then the **left subtree** of v is the binary tree whose root is the left child of v, whose vertices consist of the left child of v and all its descendants, and whose edges consists of all those edges of T that connect the vertices of the left subtree

The **right subtree** of v is defined analogously

ullet Full Binary Tree Theorem (Thm 10.6.1)

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 (leaves)

• Maximum no. of terminal vertices (Thm 10.6.2) For non-negative integers h, if T is any binary tree with height h and t terminal vertices (leaves), then

$$t < 2^{h}$$

Equivalently: $\log_2 t \leq h$

Binary Tree Traversal

• Breath-First Search

In BFS, start at the root and visit the adjacent vertices, then move on to the next level

• Depth-First Search

There are three kinds of DFS, \mathbf{pre} -order, \mathbf{in} -order and \mathbf{post} -order.

Pre-Order

- Print the data of the root (or current vertex)
- Traverse the **left** subtree by recursively calling the pre-order f(x)
- Traverse the **right** subtree by recursively calling the pre-order f(x)

In-Order

- Traverse the \mathbf{left} subtree by recursively calling the pre-order f(x)
- Print the data of the root (or current vertex)
- Traverse the **right** subtree by recursively calling the pre-order f(x)

Post-Order

- Traverse the **left** subtree by recursively calling the pre-order f(x)
- Traverse the **right** subtree by recursively calling the pre-order f(x)
- Print the data of the root (or current vertex)

Spanning Trees & Shortest Paths

• Spanning Tree

A **spanning tree** for a graph G is a subgraph of G that contains every vertex of G and is a tree

• Proposition 10.7.1

- 1. Every connected graph has a spanning tree
- 2. Any two spanning trees for a graph have the same no. of edges

• Weighted Graph

A **weighted graph** is a graph for which each edge has an associated positive real number **weight**. The sum of the weights of all edges is the **total weight** of the graph

• Minimum Spanning Tree

A minimum spanning tree for a connected weighted graph is a spanning tree that has the least possible total weight compared to all other spanning trees for the graph

• w(e) & w(G)

If G is a weighted graph and e is an edge of G, then w(e) denotes the weight of e and w(G) denotes the total weight of G

• Kruskal's Algorithm (Alg 10.7.1)

Input: G [a connected weighted graph with n vertices] Algorithm:

- 1. Init T to have all the vertices of G and no edges
- 2. Let E be the set of all edges of G, and let m=0
- 3. While (m < n 1)
 - (a) Find an edge e in E of least weight
 - (b) Delete e from E
 - (c) If addition of e to the edge set of T does not produce a circuit, then add e to the edge set of T and set m = m + 1
- 4. End While

Output: T [T is the MST for G]

• Prim's Algorithm (Alg 10.7.2)

Input: G [a connected weighted graph with n vertices] Algorithm:

- 1. Pick a 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 = 1 to n 1
 - (a) Find an edge e of G such that (1) e connects T to one of the vertices in V, and (2) e has the least weight of all edges connecting T to a vertex in V. Let w be the endpoint of e that is in V
 - (b) Add e and w to the edge and vertex sets of T, delete w from V.

Output: T [T is the MST for G]

• Dijkstra's Algorithm (Alg 10.7.3)

Input: G [a connected weighted graph with positive weight for every edge], ∞ [a no. greater than the sum of the weights of all the edges in G], w(u,v) [the weight of edge $\{u,v\}$], a [the source vertex], z [the dest vertex] **Algorithm:**

- 1. init T to be the graph with vertex a and no edges. Let V(T) be the set of vertices of T, and let E(T) be the set of edges of T
- 2. Let L(a) = 0, and for all vertices in G except a, let $L(u) = \infty$ [The number L(x) is called the label of x]
- 3. Init v to equal a and F to be $\{a\}$. [The symbol v is used to denote the vertex most recently added to T]
- 4. Let Adj(x) denote the set of vertices adjacent to vertex x
- 5. while $(z \notin V(T))$
 - (a) $F \leftarrow (F \{v\}) \cup \{\text{vertices} \in \text{Adj}(v) \text{ and } \notin V(T)\}$ [Set F is set of fringe vertices]
 - (b) For each vertex $u \in Adj(v)$ and $\notin V(T)$,
 - If L(v) + w(v, u) < L(u) then
 - $-\ L(u) \leftarrow L(v) + w(v,u)$

- $-D(u) \leftarrow v$
- (c) Find a vertex x in F with the smallest label. Add vertex x to V(T), and add edge $\{D(x), x\}$ to E(T). $v \leftarrow x$

Output: L(z) [this is the length of the shortest path from a to z]