

CS1231

Proof Techniques:

Direct, Contrapositive, Induction & Strong Induction, Contradiction

Propositional Logic:

Impt Tables:

1	Commutative laws	$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$	$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$
2	Associative laws	$(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$	$(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$
3	Distributive laws	$p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	$p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$
4	Identity laws	$p \wedge \mathbf{t} \equiv p$	$p \vee \mathbf{c} \equiv p$
5	Negation laws	$p \vee \sim p \equiv \mathbf{t}$	$p \wedge \sim p \equiv \mathbf{c}$
6	Double negative law	$\sim(\sim p) \equiv p$	
7	Idempotent laws	$p \wedge p \equiv p$	$p \vee p \equiv p$
8	Universal bound laws	$p \vee \mathbf{t} \equiv \mathbf{t}$	$p \wedge \mathbf{c} \equiv \mathbf{c}$
9	De Morgan's laws	$\sim(p \wedge q) \equiv \sim p \vee \sim q$	$\sim(p \vee q) \equiv \sim p \wedge \sim q$
10	Absorption laws	$p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$	$p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$
11	Negation of t and c	$\sim \mathbf{t} \equiv \mathbf{c}$	$\sim \mathbf{c} \equiv \mathbf{t}$

Importance of Operations:

NOT > (AND=OR) > (IMPLIES==IF AND ONLY IF (BICONDITIONAL))

Valid and Invalid Arguments:

Rule of inference		Rule of inference		
Modus Ponens	$p \rightarrow q$ p • q	Elimination	$p \vee q$ $\sim q$ • p	$p \vee q$ $\sim p$ • q
Modus Tollens	$p \rightarrow q$ $\sim q$ • $\sim p$	Transitivity	$p \rightarrow q$ $q \rightarrow r$ • $p \rightarrow r$	
Generalization	p • $p \vee q$	Proof by Division Into Cases	$p \vee q$ $p \rightarrow r$ $q \rightarrow r$ • r	
Specialization	$p \wedge q$ • p	Contradiction Rule	$\sim p \rightarrow c$ • p	
Conjunction	p q • $p \wedge q$			

DEFINITIONS:

Divisibility (Definiton 1.3.1):

If n and d are integers and d ≠ 0

n is divisible by d iff n equals d times some integer

i.e. $d|n \Leftrightarrow \exists \text{ integer } k \text{ such that } n = dk \text{ and } d \neq 0$

Even and Odd Numbers (Definition 1.6.1):

An integer is even iff it is twice some other integer. It is odd iff it is twice some other integer + 1

n is even $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ integer k such that $n = 2k$

n is odd $\Leftrightarrow \exists$ integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$

Prime Numbers (Definition 4.2.1):

An integer n is prime or composite according to the following:

n is prime $\Leftrightarrow n > 1$ and $\forall r, s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, if $n = rs$ then $(r = 1 \text{ and } s = n)$ OR $(r = n \text{ and } s = 1)$

n is composite $\Leftrightarrow n > 1$ and $\exists r, s \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $n = rs$ and $1 < r, s < n$

Lower Bound:

An integer b is said to be a lower bound for a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ if $b \leq x, \forall x \in X$

Greatest Common Divisor (Definition 4.5.1):

Let a and b not both zero integers.

The greatest common divisor of a and b (denoted $\gcd(a, b)$), is the integer d which satisfies the following

(i) $d|a$ and $d|b$ and (ii) $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}$ if $c|a$ and $c|b$ then $c \leq d$

Co-prime (Definition 4.5.3):

Integers a and b are co – prime $\Leftrightarrow \gcd(a, b) = 1$

Least Common Multiple (Definition 4.6.1):

An integer $m = \text{lcm}(a, b)$ where a, b are not both zero is defined such that

(i) $a|m$ and $b|m$ (ii) for all integers c , if $a|c$ and $b|c$ then $m \leq c$.

Modular congruence (Definition 4.7.1):

Let m and n be integers, and let d be a positive integer. We say that m is congruent to n modulo d and write $m \equiv n \pmod{d}$, if and only if $d|(m - n)$

Multiplicative inverse modulo n (Definition 4.7.2):

For any integers a, n with $n > 1$, if an integer s is such that $as \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$,

then s is called the **multiplicative inverse of a modulo n** .

We may write it as a^{-1} . Also note that $a^{-1}a \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ due to commutativity

Second-order Linear Homogeneous Recurrence Relation with Constant Co-efficients:

The above is defined as a recurrence relation with the form:

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

where A, B are real constants and $B \neq 0$ and k_0 is an integer constant

Set Theory Definitions:**Empty Set (Definition 6.3.1):**

The empty set has no element and is denoted by ϕ or $\{\}$.

Set Equality (Definition 6.3.2):

Two sets are equal iff they have the same elements:

$$i. e. \forall X \forall Y ((\forall Z (Z \in X \leftrightarrow Z \in Y)) \leftrightarrow X = Y)$$

Power Set (Definition 6.3.4):

Given any set S , the power set of S denoted as $\mathcal{P}(S)$ or 2^S , is the set whose elements are all subsets of the set S , nothing less and nothing more.

$$i. e. \text{ If } T = \mathcal{P}(S), \text{ then } \forall X ((X \in T) \leftrightarrow (X \subseteq S))$$

Union (Definition 6.4.1):

Let S be a set of sets. We say T is the union of all sets in S iff each element in T belongs to some set in S nothing less, nothing more. We write it as such:

$$T = \bigcup S = \bigcup_{X \in S} X \text{ such that } \forall Y ((Y \in T) \leftrightarrow \exists Z ((Z \in S) \wedge (Y \in Z)))$$

Intersection (Definition 6.4.3):

Let S be the set of nonempty sets. We say T is the intersection of all sets in S iff each element in T belongs to all the sets in S , nothing less, nothing more. We write it as such:

$$T = \bigcap S = \bigcap_{X \in S} X \text{ such that } \forall Y ((Y \in T) \leftrightarrow \forall Z ((Z \in S) \rightarrow (Y \in Z)))$$

Disjoint Sets (Definition 6.4.5):

Two sets S and T are disjoint iff $S \cap T = \phi$

Mutually Disjoint (Definition 6.4.6):

Let V be a set of sets. The sets $T \in V$ are said to be mutually disjoint iff:

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

Partition (Definition 6.4.7):

Let S be set, and let V be a set of nonempty subsets of S . V is partition iff:

$$(i) V \text{ is mutually disjoint and } (ii) \bigcup V = S$$

Non-symmetric difference (A-B) (Definition 6.4.8):

$A - B$ is defined as elements that are in A but not in B , nothing less nothing more.

$$i. e. \forall X (X \in (A - B) \leftrightarrow (X \in A \wedge X \notin B))$$

Symmetric-Difference (Definition 6.4.9):

The symmetric difference $(A \oplus B)$ is defined as elements that are in A or in B but not both

$$\forall X (X \in (A \ominus B) \leftrightarrow ((X \in A) \oplus (X \in B)))$$

Complement (Definition 6.4.10):

Let \mathcal{U} be the Universal Set where $A \subseteq \mathcal{U}$. Then the complement A^c , is $\mathcal{U} - A$

Cartesian product (Definition 8.1.3 & 8.1.4 (general)):

Let S and T be two sets. Their Cartesian product, written as $S \times T$ is defined as:

$$\forall X \forall Y ((X, Y) \in S \times T \leftrightarrow (X \in S \wedge Y \in T)). \text{ It is not commutative or associative.}$$

Generalizing for n sets it can be represented as the sets S in V :

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

Relation (Definition 8.2.1 & 8.2.7 (generalized))

For any two sets S and T , a binary relation \mathcal{R} from S to T is subset of $S \times T$. Therefore:

$$x \mathcal{R} y \rightarrow (x, y) \in S \times T$$

$$x \nmathcal{R} y \rightarrow (x, y) \notin S \times T$$

Can be generalized to n – ary relation, where n is the arity/degree of the relation

Domain, Range, Co-domain (Definition 8.2.2 to 8.2.4):

For any binary relation from S to T :

$$\text{Domain} = \{s \in S \mid \exists t \in T (s \mathcal{R} t)\}, \text{Codomain} = T, \text{Range/Image} = \{t \in T \mid \exists s \in S (s \mathcal{R} t)\}$$

Therefore $\text{Range} \subseteq \text{Codomain}$ (Proposition 8.2.5)

Inverse Relation (Definition 8.2.6):

The inverse relation \mathcal{R}^{-1} from T to S is such that:

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

Composition (Definition 8.2.9):

For the three sets S, T & U , let a relation \mathcal{R} be from S to T and a relation \mathcal{R}' be from T to U .

The composition of that relation $\mathcal{R}' \circ \mathcal{R}$ is such that $\mathcal{R}' \circ \mathcal{R} \subseteq S \times U$ and:

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

Reflexivity, Symmetry and Transitivity of Relations (8.3.1 to 8.3.3):

The following are used to describe relations on a set A and itself:

(8.3.1) Reflexive: $\forall x \in A (x \mathcal{R} x) \leftrightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is reflexive.

Irreflexive: \mathcal{R} is irreflexive $\forall x \in A (x \nmathcal{R} x)$

(8.3.2) Symmetric: \mathcal{R} is symmetric $\leftrightarrow \forall x, y \in A (x \mathcal{R} y \rightarrow y \mathcal{R} x)$

(8.6.1) Anti – symmetric: \mathcal{R} is anti – symmetric $\leftrightarrow \forall x, y \in A (x \mathcal{R} y \wedge y \mathcal{R} x \rightarrow x = y)$

Asymmetric: \mathcal{R} is asymmetric $\leftrightarrow \forall x, y \in A (x \mathcal{R} y \rightarrow y \not\mathcal{R} x)$

i. e. \mathcal{R} is antisymmetric and irreflexive

(8.3.3) Transitive: \mathcal{R} is transitive $\leftrightarrow \forall x, y, z \in A ((x \mathcal{R} y \wedge y \mathcal{R} z) \rightarrow x \mathcal{R} z)$

Definition 8.3.4 (Equivalence Relation):

If a relation \mathcal{R} on A is reflexive, transitive and symmetric, \mathcal{R} is said to be an equivalence relation

Definition 8.3.5 (Equivalence Class):

Let \mathcal{R} be an equivalence relation

Let $x \in A$. The equivalence class of x , denoted as $[x]$, is the set of all $y \in A$ such that $x \mathcal{R} y$:

i. e. $[x] = \{y \in A | x \mathcal{R} y\}$

Definition 8.5.1 (Transitive Closure):

Let \mathcal{R} be a relation on set A . The transitive closure of \mathcal{R} , denoted as \mathcal{R}^t , is a relation that satisfies the following:

(1) It is transitive, (2) $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^t$, (3) For any transitive relation \mathcal{S} on A , where $\mathcal{R} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$, $\mathcal{R}^t \subseteq \mathcal{S}$

Definition 8.6.2 (Partial Order):

\mathcal{R} is said to be a partial order iff it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive. Partial orders are denoted by \preceq . A is poset if \preceq is a partial order relation on A .

Definition 8.6.3 (Comparable):

Let \preceq be partial order relation on A . For $a, b \in A$ are said to be comparable iff $a \preceq b$ or $b \preceq a$. If no such relation exists between a and b , they are said to be noncomparable

Definition 8.6.4 (Total Order):

*If \preceq is a partial order on set A , \preceq is a **total order** iff:*

$\forall a, b \in A (a \preceq b \vee b \preceq a)$. i. e. All elements in A are comparable to each other

Definitions 8.6.5-8.6.8 (Minimax definitions):

*8.6.5 Maximal: An element $b \in A$ is said to be **maximal element** iff $\forall c \in A (b \preceq c \rightarrow b = c)$*

*8.6.7 Minimal: An element $a \in A$ is a **minimal element** iff $\forall b \in A (b \preceq a \rightarrow b = a)$*

(Note vacuous truth for non comparable elements. Same hold for maximal)

*8.6.6 Maximum: An element $\top \in A$ is said to be the **maximum** iff $\forall y \in A (y \preceq \top)$*

*8.6.8 Minimum: An element $\perp \in A$ is said to be the **minimum** iff $\forall y \in A (\perp \preceq y)$*

(Note minimum/maximum requires \preceq to be a total order)

Definition 8.6.9.

Let \preceq be a total order on A . If every nonempty subset of A contains a minimum element, A is said to be well ordered. Formally: $\forall S \in \mathcal{P}(A) (S \neq \emptyset \rightarrow (\exists x \in S (\forall y \in S (x \preceq y))))$

Definition 7.1.1 (Function):

Let f be a relation from S to T . f is a function from S to T iff $\forall x \in S (\exists! y \in T (x f y))$

Definition 7.1.2-7.1.5:

Let f be a function from S to T

7.1.2 x is the pre – image for y if $f(x) = y$

7.1.3 The inverse image of $y = \{x \in S | f(x) = y\}$

7.1.4 For any $U \subseteq T$, the inverse image of U is the set of all inverse images of $y \in U$.

7.1.5 The restriction of f to $U \subseteq S$ is the set : $\{(x, y) \in U \times T | f(x) = y\}$

Definition 7.2.1-7.2.3(Injective, Surjective, Bijective, Identity):

7.2.1 Let f be a function from S to T . f is injective/ f is one-to-one/ f is an injection iff:

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

7.2.2 Let f be a function from S to T . f is surjective/ f is onto/ f is a surjection iff:

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

7.2.3 A function is bijective iff it is injective and surjective. We call such an f a bijection

7.3.2 The identity function (I_A) on A from A is defined as $\forall x \in A (I_A(x) = x)$

Counting and Probability:**Sample Space:**

A sample space, S is the set of all possible event outcomes of a random process or experiment.

An event, E is the subset of the sample space.

Probability:

For a finite sample space, S in which all outcomes are equally likely and E is an event in S , then

the probability of E occurring is : $P(E) = \frac{\text{The number of outcomes in } E}{\text{The number outcomes in } S} = \frac{N(E)}{N(S)}$

r-Combinations:

Let n and 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.

Expected Value:

Suppose events $a_1, a_2, a_3 \dots a_k$ occur with probabilities $p_1, p_2, p_3 \dots p_k$. Then the expected value of

of this process is: $\sum_{i=1}^k a_i \cdot p_i$

Conditional probability:

Given two events A and B in sample space S . If $P(A) \neq 0$, then conditional probability

of B given A , written as $P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$

Independent Events:

If A and 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 Independent:

Events A, B and C in a sample space S are pairwise independent, if 1 – 3 are satisfied.

If 4 is satisfied, they are said to be mutually independent.

$$1. P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B),$$

$$2. P(A \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(C),$$

$$3. P(B \cap C) = P(B) \cdot P(C),$$

$$4. P(A \cap B \cap C) = P(A) \cdot P(B) \cdot P(C)$$

Note: Pairwise and mutual independence are unrelated. One doesn't imply the other.

GRAPH THEORY:**Graph:**

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

If an edge connects 2 vertices, they are said to be adjacent, even if it is a self loop.

Edges incident on the same endpoint are said to be adjacent as well. An edge e with endpoints v and w are represented as given: $e = \{v, w\}$

Directed: If a graph G is directed, the edges set is now a set of **ordered pairs** $D(G)$. If the edges goes from v to w , the directed edge is represented as $e = (v, w)$

Simple: A simple graph has no parallel edges or self loops

Complete: A complete graph with n vertices, is a simple graph where each vertex is adjacent to an other vertex in the vertex set.

Complete Bipartite: A bipartite graph, denoted $K_{m,n}$, is a complete graph with two disjoint vertex sets of m and n vertices respectively. Note that there will be no edge connecting two vertices of the same set but there will be one edge between each and every vertex in set 1 to every vertex in set 2

Subgraph: A graph H is said to be subgraph iff every vertex in H is in G , every edge in H is in G and each edge in H has the same endpoints as the same edge in G .

Connected Graph: A graph is connected iff given any two vertices v and w in G , there will be a walk from v to w along the edges in G . i. e. $\forall v, w \in V(G) \exists$ a walk P from v to w

Degree:

The degree of a vertex is the number of edges incident on that vertex in the graph G . Note that self – loops are counted twice. The total degree of the graph is the sum of all the degrees of each vertex in G

Trails, Walks, Paths, Circuits, Closed walks, closed circuits, Simple circuits:

Let G be a graph and let v and w be any two vertices in G .

Walk: A finite alternating sequence of adjacent vertices and edges of G from v to w .

A walk is usually written as $v_0 e_0 v_1 e_1 \dots v_k$. A walk to itself (one vertex only) is considered trivial.

Trail: A walk from v to w without repeating edges

Path: A walk from v to w without repeating edges or vertices

Closed Walk: A walk from vertex v to itself

Circuit: A closed walk that does not have repeated edges

Simple Circuit: A circuit that is path with only the endpoints being repeated

Connected: Two vertices v and w are connected iff there is a walk from v to w

Connected component: A graph H is called a connected component of G iff

1. H is a subgraph of G , 2. H is connected, 3. No larger subgraph has edges or vertices that are not in H

Euler circuit: A circuit in G that contains every vertex and edge in G . Vertices can be repeated.

Euler trail: A trail in G that contains every vertex and edge in G . Vertices can be repeated.

Hamiltonian circuit: A simple circuit containing every vertex in G .

Isomorphic Graph:

Two graphs G and G' are isomorphic to itself iff there exists a one-to-one correspondence between $V(G) \rightarrow V(G')$ and $E(G) \rightarrow E(G')$ that preserve edge endpoint functions. preserve of both graphs for all $v \in V(G), V(G')$ and $e \in E(G), E(G')$.

Trees:

A graph is a tree iff it is connected and is circuit free. If it is not connected it is called a forest

A tree with one vertex is a trivial tree.

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

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.

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

Theorems:

Theorem 4.1.1:

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

Proposition 4.2.2:

For any two primes p and p' if $p|p'$ then $p = p'$

Theorem 4.2.3:

If p is a prime and x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are any integers such that $p \mid x_1 x_2 \dots x_n$, then $p|x_i$ for some $i \in [1, n]$

Theorem 4.3.1 (Epp):

$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, if $a|b$ then $a \leq b$

Theorem 4.3.3 (Epp):

$\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a|b$ and $b|c$, then $a|c$

Theorem 4.3.4 (Epp):

Any integer $n > 1$ is divisible by a prime number

Theorem 4.3.5 (Epp):

Given any integer $n > 1$,

There exist a positive integer k , distinct prime numbers p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k and positive integers e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k such that

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

and any other expression for n as a product of its prime factors will be identical

Proposition 4.7.3 (Epp):

For any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and any prime p , if $p|a$ then $p \nmid (a + 1)$

Theorem 4.7.4 (Epp):

The set of primes is infinite

Theorem 4.3.2 (Well Ordering Principle):

If a nonempty subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ has a lower bound then S has a least element (minimum).

Similarly if the same subset S has an upper bound then S has a most element (maximum)

Proposition 4.3.3:

If a set S has a least element, its least element is unique

Theorem 4.4.1 (Quotient Remainder Theorem):

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

$$a = bq + r, 0 \leq r < b$$

Theorem 4.5.2 (Bezout's Identity):

Let a and b be integers where at most one among a and b can be zero. Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

Then there exists $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ax + by = d$. Note that this identity is non-unique.

Proposition 4.5.4

For any integers a, b both nonzero if $c|a$ and $c|b$ then $c|\gcd(a, b)$

Theorem 8.4.1 (Epp) (Modular Equivalences)

Let a, b and n be integers where $n > 1$. The following statements are 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 remainder when divided by n
5. $a \pmod{n} = b \pmod{n}$

Theorem 8.4.3 (Epp):

Let a, b, c, d and n be integers where $n > 1$ and suppose

1. $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$ and 2. $b \equiv d \pmod{n}$.

Then the following are equivalent:

1. $(a \pm b) \equiv (c \pm d) \pmod{n}$
2. $ab \equiv cd \pmod{n}$
3. $a^m \equiv c^m \pmod{n}$, for positive integers m

Corollary 8.4.4 (Epp):

Let a, b, n be integers with $n > 1$. Then,

$$ab \equiv [(a \pmod{n})(b \pmod{n})] \pmod{n} \text{ (i.e. } ab \pmod{n} = (a \pmod{n})(b \pmod{n}) \pmod{n})$$

$$\text{Consequently, } a^m \equiv [(a \pmod{n})^m] \pmod{n}$$

Theorem 4.7.3 (Existence of Multiplicative Inverse)

For any integer a , its multiplicative inverse modulo n (where $n > 1$), a^{-1} , exists if and only if a and n are coprime

Corollary 4.7.4 (Special case: n is prime):

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

Theorem 8.4.9 (Epp)

For all integers a, b, c, n with $n > 1$ and a and n are coprime,
if $ab \equiv ac \pmod{n}$, then $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$

Theorem 5.1.1 (Epp)

For any sequences of real numbers $a_m, a_{m+1} \dots a_n$ and $b_m, b_{m+1}, \dots b_n$, the following equations are valid for any $m \leq n$ and $c \in \mathbb{R}$

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

$$2. c \left(\sum_{k=m}^n a_k \right) = \sum_{k=m}^n (c \cdot a_k)$$

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

Theorem 5.8.3(Epp) Distinct Roots Theorem:

Suppose a sequence $a_0, a_1, a_2 \dots$ satisfies the SLHRCC. If the characteristic eqn of $t^2 - At - B$ has two distinct roots, then the explicit formula for a_n can be denoted as :

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

where r and s are the roots of the characteristic equation and C and D are constants determined by the initial conditions a_0 and a_1

Theorem 5.8.5(Epp)

Suppose a sequence $a_0, a_1, a_2 \dots$ satisfies the SLHRCC. If the characteristic eqn of $t^2 - At - B$ has only one real root, then the explicit formula for a_n can be denoted as :

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

where r is the real root of the characteristic equation and C and D are constants determined by the initial conditions a_0 and a_1

Theorem 6.2.1 (Epp):

For all sets A, B and C

1. $A \cap B \subseteq A$ and $A \cap B \subseteq B$, 2. $A \subseteq A \cup B$ and $B \subseteq A \cup B$, 3. $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq C$, then $A \subseteq C$

Theorem 6.2.2 (Epp):

For all sets, A, B and C :

Same as tables regarding logical equivalences (\cup by OR and \cap by AND, $1 \equiv U$ and $\phi \equiv 0$).

With the addition of set difference where $A - B = A \cap B^c$

Theorem 6.2.3 (Epp):

Under proposition 6.4.4 and 6.4.2

Theorem 6.2.4 (Epp):

The empty set is the subset of all sets

Proposition 6.3.3 & Corollary 6.2.5(Epp):

For any two sets X and Y , $X \subseteq Y \wedge Y \subseteq X$ iff $X = Y$. Corollary: The empty set is unique.

Proposition 6.4.2:

Let A, B and C be sets, then

$$\bigcup \phi = \bigcup_{A \in \phi} A \rightarrow A = \phi \text{ and } \bigcup \{A\} = A$$

$$A \cup \phi = A, A \cup B = B \cup A, (A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C), A \cup A = A \text{ and } A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow A \cup B = B$$

Proposition 6.4.4:

Let A, B and C be sets, then

$$A \cap \phi = \phi, A \cap B = B \cap A, A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C, A \subseteq B \leftrightarrow A \cap B = A$$

$$\text{Distributivity laws: } A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C), A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Proposition 8.2.9 and 8.2.10:

8.2.9. Composition is associative. 8.2.10 And its inverse is such that: $(\mathcal{R} \circ \mathcal{R}')^{-1} = \mathcal{R}'^{-1} \circ \mathcal{R}^{-1}$

Theorem 8.3.1

Any partition of a set can be represented by an equivalence relation whose equivalence classes make up the sets in the partition.

Lemma 8.3.2 & 8.3.3 (Epp):

Given an equivalence relation \mathcal{R} on A , and where $a, b \in A$, $a \mathcal{R} b \rightarrow [a] = [b]$. (8.3.2)

Similarly if $a \not\mathcal{R} b \rightarrow [a] \cap [b] = \phi$. So $[a] = [b]$ or $[a] \cap [b] = \phi$ (8.3.3)

Theorem 8.3.4 (Epp):

Any equivalence relation \mathcal{R} on set A will form a partition of set A by its distinct equivalence classes

Proposition 8.5.2:

The transitive closure of a relation \mathcal{R} can be obtained by the union of repeated compositions of \mathcal{R}

$$i.e \mathcal{R}^t = \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathcal{R}^i$$

Proposition 7.2.4 (Existence of f^{-1})

Let f be a function from S to T . Then f^{-1} is the inverse **relation** from T to S . f^{-1} is a function iff f is bijective.

Proposition 7.3.1 (Composition):

Let f be a function from S to T , and g be a function from T to U . Then the composition of $g \circ f$ from S to U and $f \circ g$ from U to S are also functions.

Proposition 7.3.3

Let $f: A \rightarrow A$ be an injective function. Then $f \circ f^{-1}$ is the identity function.

($f^{-1} \circ f = \text{identity}$ also if f is bijective)

Theorem 9.1.1:

If m and n are integers and $m \leq n$, then there are $x = n - m + 1$ integers from m to n inclusive of m and n .

Theorem 9.2.1 (The Multiplication Rule):

If an operation consists of k steps and each step i can be performed in n_i number of ways, independent of the number of steps preceding step i the total number of the ways to complete the operation will be

$$\text{Number of ways} = \prod_{i=1}^k n_i$$

Theorem 9.2.2 (Permutations of n objects):

The number of permutations of a set with n ($n \geq 1$) elements is $n!$

Theorem 9.2.3 r -Permutations from a set of n elements

The number of r – permutations from a set of n elements is given by the formula

$$P(n, r) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!} \text{ where } 1 \leq r \leq n$$

Theorem 9.3.1 The Addition Rule

Suppose a finite set A is equivalent to the union of k distinct mutually disjoint subsets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k .

Then, $N(A) = N(A_1) + N(A_2) + \dots + N(A_k)$

Theorem 9.3.2 The Difference Rule

The A is a finite set and B is a subset of A , then $N(A - B) = N(A) - N(B)$

Theorem 9.3.3 The Inclusion-Exclusion Principle

If A, B and C are finite sets, then the following hold true:

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

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

Generalized Pigeonhole Principle (Contrapositive):

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

For any function f from a finite set X with n elements to a finite set Y with m elements and for any positive integer k , if for each $y \in Y$, $f^{-1}(y)$ has at most k elements, then X has at most km elements; in other words, $n \leq km$.

Theorem 9.4.2

If f is a function from X to Y , where X and Y are finite, f is one-to-one iff f is onto

Theorem 9.5.1

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

Theorem 9.5.2

The number of ways to permute a collection of n objects with n distinguishable sets

$$\text{is } \frac{n!}{n_1! n_2! n_3! n_4! \dots n_k!}$$

Theorem 9.6.1

The number of r – combinations with repetition that can be selected from n elements is

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

Pascal's Formula(Theorem 9.7.1):

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

Binomial Theorem (Theorem 9.7.2):

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

Probability Axioms:

$$1. 0 \leq P(A) \leq 1,$$

$$2. P(\phi) = 0,$$

$$3. \text{If } A \text{ and } B \text{ are disjoint } (A \cap B = \phi), \text{ then } P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$$

Theorem 9.9.1-9.9.3:

$$9.9.1 \ P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

$$9.9.2 \ P(A \cap B) = P(B|A) \cdot P(A)$$

$$9.9.3 \ P(A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B|A)}$$

Bayes' Theorem:

Suppose S is a sample space with n disjoint events $B_1 - B_n$. Suppose A is an event in S and assume $P(A), P(B_i) \neq 0$ where $0 \leq i \leq n$. Then for any particular i :

$$P(B_i|A) = \frac{P(A|B_i) \cdot P(B_i)}{P(A|B_1) \cdot P(B_1) + P(A|B_2) \cdot P(B_2) + \dots + P(A|B_n) \cdot P(B_n)}$$

Theorem 10.1.1 (Handshake Theorem):

A graph G with n edges has a total degree of $2n$. i. e. $\sum_{i=1}^n \deg(v_i) = 2n$, where $v_i \in G$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) \cdot P(B)$$

Corollary 10.1.2:

The total degree of a graph is always even

Proposition 10.1.3:

In any graph there are an even number of vertices of an odd degree.

Lemma 10.2.1:

Let G be a graph.

(a) If G is connected then there is a path between any two vertices

(b) If v and w vertices are part of a circuit in G , and one edge is removed, there exists a trail between v and w

(c) If G is connected and G contains a circuit, then an edge of the circuit can be removed without disconnecting G

Theorem 10.2.2:

If a graph has an Euler circuit, every vertex in the graph has an even degree. If there exists any vertex with an odd degree, no Euler circuit exists in that graph

Theorem 10.2.3:

Given a graph G is connected and all vertices have a positive even degree, then it has an Euler circuit.

Theorem 10.2.4:

Graph G has an Euler circuit iff G is connected and every vertex in G has an even degree

Corollary 10.2.5:

Let G be a graph, and let v and w be two distinct vertices of G . Then there is an Euler trail from v to w if v and w have odd degrees and the rest of the vertices in G have a positive even degree

Proposition 10.2.6

If a graph G has a Hamiltonian circuit, then G has 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

Adjacency Matrices:

If a vertex i is adjacent to vertex j and there are k edges from i to j , then $m_{ij} = k$. Also,

in an undirected graph, its adjacency matrix is always symmetric. An adjacency matrix A of a graph G displays the walks from i to j of length 1 at the entry m_{ij} . Subsequent powers of n will give the walks of length n from i to j at the i, j^{th} entry. (Theorem 10.3.2)

Theorem 10.4.1 (Isomorphism)

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

Theorem 10.4.2 Graph Isomorphism invariants:

If two graphs G and G' are isomorphic then the following hold true:

1. Both have n vertices
2. Both have m edges
3. Both have vertex of degree k , if exists in G
4. Both have m vertices of degree k if exists in G
5. Both have a circuit of length k , if exists in G
6. If G has a simple circuit of length k , G' has it too
7. Has m simple circuits of length k , if exists in G
8. If G is connected, so is G'
9. If G has an Euler circuit, so does G'
10. If G has a Hamiltonian circuit, so does G'

Lemma 10.5.1:

Any nontrivial tree has at least one vertex of degree one

Theorem 10.5.2:

Any nontrivial tree with n vertices has $n - 1$ edges

Lemma 10.5.3:

If G is a connected graph, C is any circuit in G , and one of the edges of C is removed from G , then the graph remains connected

Theorem 10.5.4:

A graph with n vertices and $n - 1$ edges is a tree

Theorem 10.6.1: Full Binary Tree

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

Theorem 10.6.2

For non – negative integers h , if T is a binary tree with height h and t terminal vertices, then $t \leq 2^h$, i. e. $\log_2 t \leq h$

Proposition 10.7.1

Every connected graph has a spanning tree. Any two spanning trees have the same number of edges.

A spanning tree for a graph G is a subgraph which is a tree and contains every vertex in G

F1. *Commutative Laws* For all real numbers a and b ,
 $a + b = b + a$ and $ab = ba$.

F2. *Associative Laws* For all real numbers a , b , and c ,
 $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ and $(ab)c = a(bc)$.

F3. *Distributive Laws* For all real numbers a , b , and c ,
 $a(b + c) = ab + ac$ and $(b + c)a = ba + ca$.

F4. *Existence of Identity Elements* There exist two distinct real numbers, denoted 0 and 1, such that for every real number a ,
 $0 + a = a + 0 = a$ and $1 \cdot a = a \cdot 1 = a$.

F5. *Existence of Additive Inverses* For every real number a , there is a real number, denoted $-a$ and called the **additive inverse** of a , such that
 $a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0$.

F6. *Existence of Reciprocals* For every real number $a \neq 0$, there is a real number, denoted $1/a$ or a^{-1} , called the **reciprocal** of a , such that
 $a \cdot \frac{1}{a} = \frac{1}{a} \cdot a = 1$

A - 2 Appendix A Properties of the Real Numbers

T1. *Cancellation Law for Addition* If $a + b = a + c$, then $b = c$. (In particular, this shows that the number 0 of Axiom F4 is unique.)

T2. *Possibility of Subtraction* Given a and b , there is exactly one x such that $a + x = b$. This x is denoted by $b - a$. In particular, $0 - a$ is the additive inverse of a , $-a$.

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* If $ab = ac$ and $a \neq 0$, then $b = c$. (In particular, this shows that the number 1 of Axiom F4 is unique.)

T8. *Possibility of Division* Given a and b with $a \neq 0$, there is exactly one x such that $ax = b$. This x is denoted by b/a and is called the **quotient** of b and a . In particular, $1/a$ is the reciprocal of a .

T9. If $a \neq 0$, then $b/a = b \cdot a^{-1}$.

T10. If $a \neq 0$, then $(a^{-1})^{-1} = a$.

T11. *Zero Product Property* If $ab = 0$, then $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

T12. *Rule for Multiplication with Negative Signs*

$(-a)b = a(-b) = -(ab)$, $(-a)(-b) = ab$,

and

$$-\frac{a}{b} = \frac{-a}{b} = \frac{a}{-b}$$

T13. *Equivalent Fractions Property*

$$\frac{a}{b} = \frac{ac}{bc} \text{ if } b \neq 0 \text{ and } c \neq 0$$

T14. *Rule for Addition of Fractions*

$$\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+bc}{bd} \quad b \neq 0 \text{ and } d \neq 0$$

T15. *Rule for Multiplication of Fractions*

$$\frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ac}{bd} \quad b \neq 0 \text{ and } d \neq 0$$

T16. *Rule for Division of Fractions*

$$\frac{\frac{a}{b}}{\frac{c}{d}} = \frac{ad}{bc} \quad b \neq 0 \text{ and } c \neq 0 \text{ and } d \neq 0$$

The real numbers also satisfy the following axioms, called the **order axioms**. It is assumed that among all real numbers there are certain ones, called the **positive real numbers**, that satisfy properties Ord1–Ord3.

Ord1. For any real numbers a and b , if a and b are positive, so are $a + b$ and ab .

Ord2. For every real number $a \neq 0$, either a is positive or $-a$ is positive but not both.

Ord3. The number 0 is not positive.

The symbols $<$, $>$, \leq , and \geq , and negative numbers are defined in terms of positive numbers.

Given real numbers a and b ,

$a < b$ means $b + (-a)$ is positive. $b > a$ means $a < b$.

$a \leq b$ means $a < b$ or $a = b$. $b \geq a$ means $a \leq b$.

If $a < 0$, we say that a is **negative**. If $a \geq 0$, we say that a is **nonnegative**.

From the order axioms Ord1–Ord3 and the above definition, all the usual rules for calculating with inequalities can be derived. The most important are collected as theorems

T17–T27 as follows. In all these theorems the symbols a , b , c , and d represent arbitrary real numbers.

T17. *Trichotomy Law* For arbitrary real numbers a and b , exactly one of the three relations $a < b$, $b < a$, or $a = b$ holds.

T18. *Transitive Law* If $a < b$ and $b < c$, then $a < c$.

T19. If $a < b$, then $a + c < b + c$.

T20. If $a < b$ and $c > 0$, then $ac < bc$.

T21. If $a \neq 0$, then $a^2 > 0$.

T22. $1 > 0$.

T23. If $a < b$ and $c < 0$, then $ac > bc$.

T24. If $a < b$, then $-a > -b$. In particular, if $a < 0$, then $-a > 0$.

T25. If $ab > 0$, then both a and b are positive or both are negative.

T26. If $a < c$ and $b < d$, then $a + b < c + d$.

T27. If $0 < a < c$ and $0 < b < d$, then $0 < ab < cd$.