## **CS 13:** Mathematical Foundations of Computer Science

## **Definitions and Theorems**

## What Is This?

This is a complete<sup>1</sup> listing of definitions and theorems relevant to CS 13. The goal of this document is less as a reference and more as a way of indicating what is and is not allowed to be assumed in proofs.

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 $^{1}$ It's not actually complete. It's probably missing a lot. If you find an error or a missing theorem, please let us know! We will give you a rubber ducky.

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## **1** Arithmetic

This section is all about arithmetic. You'll find that you can basically assume anything about arithmetic that you learned in high school algebra or earlier.

### 1.1 Definitions

Arithmetic Expression of Real Numbers

An arithmetic expression of real numbers is an expression made up of real numbers, variables representing real numbers, addition, multiplication, subtraction, division, exponentiation, and logarithms.

DEFINITION

CONSTANT

CONSTANT

THEOREM

Zero

Zero (0, the additive identity) is the constant real number such that for any arithmetic expression X, 0 + X = X = X + 0.

One

One (1, the multiplicative identity) is the constant real number such that for any arithmetic expression X,  $1 \cdot X = X = X \cdot 1$ .

## 2 Equality

This section is all about equalities. You'll find that you can basically assume anything about arithmetic that you learned in high school algebra or earlier.

### 2.1 Definitions

Equality for Real NumbersDEFINITIONIf X and Y are two real numbers, then X = Y ("X equals Y") when both expressions "evaluate" to the<br/>same real number.(This means you should use what you learned in high school about these types of expressions.)

Inequality for Real Numbers	DEFINITION
If X and Y are two real numbers, then $X \neq Y$ ("X does not equal Y") when $\neg(X = Y)$ .	

### 2.2 Theorems

Reflexivity of Equality for Real Numbers	Theorem
If $x$ is a real number, then $x = x$ .	

Symmetry of Equality for Real Numbers

t	х,	y	are	real	numbers,	then	x =	y	$\iff$	y =	x.

Transitivity of Equality for Real Numbers	Theorem
If x, y, and z are real numbers, then $(x = y \land y = z) \implies x = z$ .	

### Identities for Real Numbers

If x is a real number, then:

- x + 0 = x = 0 + x
- $x \cdot 1 = x = 1 \cdot x$
- $x^0 = 1$  (unless x evaluates to 0, in which case  $x^0$  is undefined)
- $0^x = 0$  (unless x evaluates to 0, in which case  $0^x$  is undefined)
- $1^x = 1$
- x/1 = x

### Domination for Real Numbers

If x is a real number, then:

- $x \cdot 0 = 0 = 0 \cdot x$
- $x \cdot 1 = x = 1 \cdot x$

### Inverse Operations for Real Numbers

If a and b are real numbers, then:

- a b = a + (-b)
- $a \cdot \frac{b}{a} = b$

### Inverses for Real Numbers

If x and b are real numbers, then:

- x + (-x) = 0 = (-x) + x
- $x \cdot \frac{1}{x} = 1 = \frac{1}{x} \cdot x$  (unless x evaluates to 0)
- $b^{\log_b(x)} = x$
- $\log_b(b^x) = x$

$$-(-x) = x$$

### Associativity of Arithmetic Expressions

If x, y, and z are real numbers, then: • (x+y) + z = x + (y+z)• (xy)z = x(yz)

As a consequence, we can omit the parentheses in these expressions.

### Commutativity of Arithmetic Expressions

If x and y are real numbers, then:

- x + y = y + x
- xy = yx

### 4

### THEOREM

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

### Distributivity of Arithmetic Expressions

If a, b, c, and d are real numbers, then:

- a(b+c) = ab + ac
- (a+b)(c+d) = ac + ad + bc + bd

### Algebraic Properties of Real Numbers

If a, b, c, and d are real numbers, then:

- $\frac{\frac{a}{b}}{\frac{c}{d}} = \frac{ad}{bc}$
- $\frac{a}{b} + \frac{c}{d} = \frac{ad+bc}{bd}$
- $(a^b)(a^c) = a^{b+c}$
- $(a^b)^c = a^{bc}$
- $\log_c(ab) = \log_c(a) + \log_c(b)$
- $\log_c\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = \log_c(a) \log_c(b)$

### Adding Equalities

If a and b are real numbers, a = b, and c = d, then a + c = b + d.

### **Multiplying Equalities**

If a and b are real numbers, a = b, and c = d, then ac = bd.

### **Dividing Equalities**

If a and b are real numbers, a = b, and  $c \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{a}{c} = \frac{b}{c}$ 

### Subtracting Equalities

If a and b are real numbers, a = b, and c = d, then a - c = b - d.

### Raising Equalities To A Power

If a and b are real numbers and a = b, then  $a^c = b^c$ .

## Log Change-Of-Base Formula

If x, a, and b are real numbers, x, a, b > 0,  $a \neq 1$ ,  $b \neq 1$ , then  $\log_a(x) = \frac{\log_b(x)}{\log_b(a)}$ 

Power	s of $-1$
-------	-----------

For any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $(-1)^{2n} = 1$  and  $(-1)^{2n+1} = -1$ .

THEOREM

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

THEOREM

THEOREM

Theorem

### 3 Inequalities

This section is all about inequalities. You'll find that you can basically assume anything about arithmetic that you learned in high school algebra or earlier.

### 3.1 Definitions

### Less-Than for Real Numbers

If x and y are two real numbers, then x < y ("x is less than y") when x "evaluates" to a smaller real number than y evaluates to.

(This means, use what you learned in high school about these types of expressions.)

Greater-Than for Real Numbers

If x and y are two real numbers, then x > y ("x is greater than y") when y < x.

Less-Than-Or-Equal-To for Real Numbers DEFINITION If x and y are two real numbers, then  $x \leq y$  ("x is less than or equal to y") when  $\neg(x > y)$ .

Greater-Than-Or-Equal-To for Real Numbers If x and y are two real numbers, then  $x \ge y$  ("x is greater than or equal to y") when  $\neg(x < y)$ .

### 3.2 Theorems

### Trichotomy for Real Numbers

If x and y are two real numbers, then  $x = y \lor x < y \lor x > y$ .

Antisymmetry of Inequality for Real Numbers	THEOREM
If x, y are real numbers, then $(x \le y \land y \le x) \implies x = y$ .	

Transitivity of Inequality for Real Numbers	THEOREM
If x, y, and z are real numbers, then $(x < y \land y < z) \implies x < z$ .	

Adding Inequalities	THEOREM
If $a$ and $b$ are real numbers, $a < b$ and $c < d$ , then $a + c < b + d$ .	

### Subtracting Inequalities

If a and b are real numbers and a < b and c > d, then a - c < b - d.

Multiplying (Positive) Inequalities

If a and b are real numbers, 0 < a < b and 0 < c < d, then 0 < ac < bd.

Multiplying (Negative) Inequalities	THEOREM
If a and b are real numbers, $a < 0$ , and $b < 0$ , then $ab > 0$ .	

DEFINITION

DEFINITION

DEFINITION

THEOREM

THEOREM

THEOREM

If a and b are real numbers and 0 < a < b, then  $\frac{1}{a} > \frac{1}{b} > 0.$ 

### Same Sign

If a and b are real numbers and ab > 0, then a and b are both positive or a and b are both negative.

Squares Are Non-negative	THEOREM
If a is a real number, then $a^2 \ge 0$ .	

## 4 Absolute Value

This section is all about absolute values. In general, we don't care much about absolute values, but they're something easy to prove things about. So, we list out a bunch of theorems you may use here.

### 4.1 Definitions

Absolute Value			DEFINITION
If $x$ is a real number, then			
	$ Y  = \int X$	$\text{ if } X \geq 0$	
	$ X  = \int -X$	if X<0	

### 4.2 Theorems

Absolute Value Magnitude	THEOREM
If $x$ and $M$ are real numbers and $M \ge 0$ , then $ x  \le M \iff -M \le x \le M$ .	

Positive Definite	THEOREM
If x is a real number, then $ x  \ge 0$ and $ x  = 0 \iff x = 0$ .	

Multiplying Absolute Values	THEOREM
If $x$ and $y$ are real numbers, then $ xy = x  y $	
Triangle Inequality	THEOREM

## If x and y are real numbers, then $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$ .

## 5 Parity

This section is all about parity (even-ness/odd-ness) of integers. Unlike all the previous sections, we will use this as a starting point for discussing proofs. This means that you may *only* assume what is written here explicitly and nothing more.

THEOREM

THEOREM

. .. .

### 5.1 Definitions

Even	DEFINITION
An integer $n$ is even iff $\exists k \ (n = 2k)$	

DEFINITION

DEFINITION

An integer n is odd iff  $\exists k \ (n = 2k + 1)$ 

### Perfect Square

Odd

An integer n is a *perfect square* iff there exists an integer x for which  $n = x^2$ .

Closure Under *	Definition
A set S is <i>closed</i> under a binary operation $\star$ iff $x \star x$ is an element of S.	

### 5.2 Theorems

 ${\mathbb Z}$  is closed under +

The integers are closed under addition.

 ${\mathbb Z}$  is closed under imes

The integers are closed under multiplication.

The square of every even integer is even

If n is even, then  $n^2$  is even.

The square of every odd number is odd

If n is odd, then  $n^2$  is odd.

The sum of two odd numbers is even	Theorem
If $n$ and $m$ are odd, then $n + m$ is even.	

No even number is the largest even number	Theorem

For all even numbers n, there exists a larger even number m.

### ${\mathbb Z}$ is closed under -

The integers are closed under subtraction.

 ${\mathbb Z}$  is not closed under /

The integers are *not* closed under division.

No Integer	is	Odd	and	Even	
------------	----	-----	-----	------	--

If n is an integer, n is not both odd and even.

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

If n is an integer, n is even or odd.

## 6 Logic

### 6.1 Definitions

Boolean True	DEFINITION
op is a logical formula that is always true.	

Bool	lean	False
------	------	-------

 $\perp$  is a logical formula that is always false.

### Boolean Not

If p is a logical formula, then  $\neg p$  is true exactly when  $p = \bot$  and false otherwise.

### Boolean And

If p and q are logical formulae, then  $p \wedge q$  is true exactly when both  $p = \top$  and  $q = \top$  and false otherwise.

### Boolean Or

If p and q are logical formulae, then  $p \lor q$  is true exactly when at least one of  $p = \top$  and  $q = \top$  and false otherwise.

### Boolean Implication

If p and q are logical formulae, then  $p \implies q$  is true exactly when  $\neg p \lor q$  is true.

Boolean Equivalence	DEFINITION
If $p$ and $q$ are logical formulae, then $p \iff q$ is true exactly when $p$ and $q$ have the same truth	n value.

### 6.2 Theorems

DeMorgan's Laws for Logic	Theorem
If $p$ and $q$ are logical formulae, then $\neg(p \lor q) \iff \neg p \land \neg q$ and $\neg(p \land q) \iff \neg p \lor \neg q$ .	

Distributivity for Logic	Theorem
If $p,q,$ and $r$ are logical formulae, then $p \wedge (q \vee r) \iff$	$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \text{ and } p \vee (q \wedge r) \iff (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r).$

## 7 Rationals

This section is all about rational numbers. We also use proofs about rational numbers as a starting point for discussing proofs. This means that you may *only* assume what is written here explicitly and nothing more.

9

Definition

DEFINITION

DEFINITION

DEFINITION

Theorem

Definitio

### 7.1 Definitions

Rational	DEFINITION
A real number x is rational iff there are two integers p and $q \neq 0$ such that $x = \frac{p}{q}$ .	

### 7.2 Theorems

$\mathbb{Q}$ is	close	ed un	der +	-									The	EORF	EM
					1.15.2	(	1.	 )							

Theorem

DEFINITION

The rationals are closed under addition (and subtraction)

 $\mathbb{Q}$  is closed under  $\times$ The rationals are closed under multiplication

$\mathbb{R}\setminus\mathbb{Q}$ is not closed under $+$	THEOREM
The irrationals are not closed under addition.	

## 8 Sets

### 8.1 Definitions

The Set of Natural Numbers	DEFINITION
$\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ is the set of <i>Natural Numbers</i>	
$\mathbb{N}_{+} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ is the set of positive natural numbers. (Note that this is the same as $\mathbb{Z}_{+}$ .)	

## The Set of Integers

 $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  is the set of *Integers*.  $\mathbb{Z}_+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$  is the set of positive integers.

The Set of Rationals	DEFINITION
$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \land q \neq 0 \right\} \text{ is the set of } Rational \ Numbers.$ $\mathbb{Q}_{+} = \left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \land p, q > 0 \right\} \text{ is the set of positive rational numbers.}$	

The Set of Reals	DEFINITION
$\mathbb R$ is the set of <i>Real Numbers</i> .	
$\mathbb{R}_+$ is the set of positive real numbers.	

Set Inclusion	DEFINITION
If A and B are sets, then $x \in A$ ("x is an <i>element</i> of A") means that x is an element of A, are	nd $x \not\in A$ (" $x$
is not an element of $A$ ") means that x is not an element of A.	

### The Empty Set

 $\varnothing$ , also written as  $\emptyset$  or  $\{\}$ , is the *empty set*. It contains nothing; that is, for all  $x, x \notin \varnothing$ .

### Set Equality

If A and B are sets, then A = B iff  $\forall x \ (x \in A \iff x \in B)$ .

### Subset and Superset

If A and B are sets, then  $A \subseteq B$  ("A is a *subset* of B") means that all the elements of A are also in B, and  $A \supseteq B$  ("A is a *superset* of B") means that all the elements of B are also in A.

### Set Comprehension

If P(x) is a predicate, then  $\{x : P(x)\}$  is the set of all elements for which P(x) is true. Also, if S is a set, then  $\{x \in S : P(x)\}$  is the subset of all elements of S for which P(x) is true.

## If A and B are sets, then $A \cup B$ is the union of A and B. $A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \lor x \in B\}$ .

### Set Intersection

Set Union

If A and B are sets, then  $A \cap B$  is the *intersection* of A and B.  $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \land x \in B\}.$ 

### Set Difference

If A and B are sets, then  $A \setminus B$  is the *difference* of A and B.  $A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \land x \notin B\}.$ 

### Set Symmetric Difference

If A and B are sets, then  $A \oplus B$  is the symmetric difference of A and B.  $A \oplus B = \{x : x \in A \oplus x \in B\}$ .

### Set Complement

If A is a set, then  $\overline{A}$  is the *complement* of A. If we restrict ourselves to a "universal set",  $\mathcal{U}$  (a set of all possible things we're discussing), then  $\overline{A} = \{x \in \mathcal{U} : x \notin A\}$ .

### Brackets *n* DEFINITION If $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then [n] ("brackets *n*") is the set of natural numbers from 1 to *n*. $[n] = \{x \in \mathbb{N} : 1 \le x \le n\}$ .

### Cartesian Product

Powerset

If A and B are sets, then  $A \times B$  is the *cartesian product* of A and B.  $A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}.$ 

If A is a set, then $\mathcal{P}(A)$ is the <i>power set</i> of A	$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{S : S \subseteq A\}.$

in *B*.

DEFINITION

### **Disjoint Sets**

Two sets A and B are disjoint if they share no elements, i.e., they are disjoint if

 $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

### 8.2 Theorems

Subast Containment

Subset Containment	
If A and B are sets, then $(A = B) \iff (A \subseteq B \land B \subseteq A)$ .	

Russell's Paradox

The set of all sets that do not contain themselves does not exist. That is,  $\{x : x \notin x\}$  does not exist.

DeMorgan's Laws for Sets

If A and B are sets, then  $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$  and  $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ .

Distributivity for Sets

If A and B are sets, then  $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$  and  $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ .

 $A \cap B \subseteq A$ If A and B are sets, then  $A \cap B \subseteq A$ .

### Modular Arithmetic 9

### 9.1 Definitions

$a \mid b$ (" $a$ divides $b$ ")	Definition	ON
For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , where $a \neq 0$ :	$a \mid b \text{ iff } \exists (k \in \mathbb{Z}) \ b = ka$	

$a \equiv_m b$ ("a is congruent to b modulo	<i>m</i> )	DEFINITION
For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ :	$a \equiv_m b$ iff $m \mid (a - b)$	

### Multiplicative group of integers mod m

The multiplicative group of integers mod m is made up of the set of integers relatively prime to m from the set  $\{0, 1, \ldots, m-1\}$  with multiplication performed mod m, and is denoted  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ .

Multiplicative inverse	DEFINITION
The multiplicative inverse of an element $n \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ is the unique element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ such that $an \equiv 1$ .	

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

### 9.2 Theorems

Mod is idempotent

 $E_1 \mod m = a$ , then  $a \mod m = a$  for any  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

### Mod preserves equality

If you have an equality  $E_1 = E_2$ , then  $E_1 \mod m = E_2 \mod m$  for any  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

### **Division Theorem**

If  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then there exist unique  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ , where  $0 \le r < d$  such that a = dq + r. We call q = a div d and  $r = a \mod d$ .

### Relation Between Mod and Congruences

 $\text{If } a,b\in\mathbb{Z} \text{ and } m\in\mathbb{Z}^+ \text{, then } a\equiv_m b \iff a \ \text{mod} \ m=b \ \text{mod} \ m.$ 

### Adding Congruences

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then  $(a \equiv_m b \land c \equiv_m d) \implies a + c \equiv_m b + d$ .

### Multiplying Congruences

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then  $(a \equiv_m b \land c \equiv_m d) \implies ac \equiv_m bd$ .

Squares are congruent to 0 or  $1 \mod 4$ 

If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $n^2 \equiv_4 0$  or  $n^2 \equiv_4 1$ .

### Multiplicativity of mod

If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , then  $(ab) \mod m = ((a \mod m)(b \mod m)) \mod m$ 

# Base b Representation of Integers

Then,  $n = \sum d_i b^i$ , where  $d_i$  is a constant representing the *i*-th digit of n.

### 10 **Functions**

## Suppose n is a positive integer (in base b) with exactly m digits.

Additivity of mod	Theore
f $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$ and $m\in\mathbb{Z}^+$ , then $(a+b)  ext{ mod } m = ((a  ext{ mod } m) + (b  ext{ mod } m))  ext{ mod } m$	

	Raising Congruences To A Power
J	If $a,b,i\in\mathbb{Z}$ and $m\in\mathbb{Z}^+$ , then $a\equiv_m b\implies a^i\equiv_m b^i.$

THEOREM

### Definitions 10.1

Function

A function  $f: X \to Y$  is a mapping from each element of a set X to exactly one element of Y. The set X is called the *domain* of f and the set Y is called the *codomain*.

### Injection

A function  $f : X \to Y$  is called an *injection* iff, for all  $x, y \in X$ ,  $f(x) = f(y) \implies x = y$  (i.e., f does not map distinct elements of its domain to the same element in its codomain).

### Surjection

A function  $f : X \to Y$  is called a *surjection* iff for all elements  $y \in Y$ , there exists  $x \in X$  such that f(x) = y (i.e., every element in its codomain Y is mapped to by at least one element of its domain X).

### **Bijection**

A function  $f : X \to Y$  is called a *bijection* iff it is injective and surjective (i.e., it defines a one-to-one correspondence between elements of X and Y).

### Increasing

A function  $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$  defined on  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is *increasing* iff  $x < y \implies f(x) \leq f(y)$ . If this inequality is strict (i.e.  $x < y \implies f(x) < f(y)$ ), the function is *strictly increasing*.

### Decreasing

A function  $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$  defined on  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  is *decreasing* iff  $x < y \implies f(x) \ge f(y)$ . If this inequality is strict (i.e.  $x < y \implies f(x) > f(y)$ ), the function is *strictly decreasing*.

Monotonic	Definition
A function $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ defined on $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is <i>monotonic</i> if it is increasing or decreasing.	It is strictly
<i>monotonic</i> if it is strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.	

### 11 **Summations**

### 11.1 **Closed Forms**

Gauss Summation	THEOREM
For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , $\sum_{i=0}^{n} i = rac{n(n+1)}{2}$ .	

Infinite Geometric Series	Theorem
For $-1 < x < 1$ , $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} x^i = \frac{1}{1-x}$ .	

DEFINITION

DEFINITION

DEFINITION

# DEFINITION

DEFINITION

Finite Geometric Series

THEOREM

For 
$$x \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N}$$
,  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} x^{i} = \left(\frac{1}{1-x}\right) - \left(\frac{x^{n+1}}{1-x}\right) = \frac{1-x^{n+1}}{1-x}$ 

### 11.2 Theorems

Binomial Theorem	Theorem
For all $x,y\in \mathbb{R}$ and $n\in \mathbb{N}$ , $(x+y)^n=\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k}y^k.$	

### 12 **Primes**

### 12.1 Definitions

Factor	DEFINITION
A factor of an integer $n$ is an integer $f$ such that $\exists x \ (n = fx)$ . Alternatively, $f$ is a factor of $n$	iff $f \mid n$ .

Prime	DEFINITION
A integer $p > 1$ is <i>prime</i> iff the only positive factors of $p$ are 1 and $p$ .	

### Composite

A integer p > 1 is *composite* iff it's not prime. That is, an integer p > 1 is composite iff it has a factor other than 1 and p.

### Trivial Factor

A trivial factor of an integer n is 1 or n. We call it a "trivial factor", because all numbers have these factors.

### Coprime / Relatively Prime

Two integers, a and b, are coprime (or relatively prime) if the only positive integer that divides both of them is 1. That is, their prime factorizations don't share any primes.

### 12.2 Theorems

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic Theorem Every natural number can be *uniquely* expressed as a product of primes raised to powers.

### All Composite Numbers Have a Small Non-Trivial Factor

If n is a composite number, then it has a non-trivial factor  $f \in \mathbb{N}$  where  $f \leq \sqrt{n}$ .

DEFINITION

# DEFINITION

DEFINITION

There are infinitely many primes.

### GCD 13

### 13.1 Definitions

	GCD (Greatest Common Divisor)	DEFINITION
I	The gcd of two integers, a and b, is the largest integer d such that $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ .	

	Euclidean Algorithm	Algorithm
1 2 3	gcd(a, b) {     if (b == 0) {         return a:	
4	} else {	
6 7	return gcd(b, a mod b); }	
8 l	ι <u>,</u> ΄	

### 13.2 Theorems

GCD Property	Theorem
For any $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , $gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, a \mod b)$ .	

### GCD Equation

For any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

 $gcd(a,b) = \min\{ax + by : x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } ax + by > 0\}$ 

### 14 **Structures**

### 14.1 Definitions

Lists A list L defined over a set A is either empty (denoted []) or x :: L' where  $x \in A$  and L' is also a list over A. The operator :: is denoted "concatenation".

Trees

A tree defined over a set A is either empty (denoted Nil) or is defined and **Tree**(x, L, R) where L and R are also trees over A.

### 14.2 Theorems

Theorem

DEFINITION

### Counting 15

### 15.1 Definitions

Size

## The size of a finite set A, denoted |A|, is the number of elements in the set.

### **Counting Permutations**

The number of ways to order a set A with |A| = n elements is denoted by n!. This quantity is called the factorial of n.

### **Counting Choices**

The number of ways to choose a subset B of a set A where |B| = k and |A| = n is denoted by  $\binom{n}{k}$ . This quantity is called n choose k.

### 15.2 Theorems

Rule of Product Theorem For any two finite sets A, B, the size of their Cartesian product is the product of their sizes, i.e.,

 $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|$ 

Rule of Sum	Theorem
A and B are disjoint finite sets if and only if $ A \cup B  =  A  +  B $ .	

### **Counting Permutations**

The value of n! is the product  $1 \cdot 2 \cdots n$ .

The value of	$\binom{n}{k}$	is	$\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$

**Counting Choices** 

### Inclusion-Exclusion (two sets)

The size of the union of two sets is given by:

$$|A\cup B|=|A|+|B|-|A\cap B|.$$

### Inclusion-Exclusion (n sets)

The size of the union of n sets,  $S_i$ , is given by:

$$|\cup_{i=1}^{n} S_{i}| = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left( (-1)^{k-1} \sum_{\substack{I \subseteq \{1,\dots,n\}\\|I|=k}} |S_{I}| \right)$$

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Where  $S_I$  denotes the intersection of the events  $S_i$  for  $i \in I$ .

DEFINITION

DEFINITION

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

Theorem

# 16 Probability

## 16.1 Definitions

### Random Primitive

A random primitive is a piece of code with a set of possible return values V, which it selects between using randomness.

## FlipCoin(p)

FlipCoin(p) is a random primitive. It returns HEADS with probability  $0 \le p \le 1$  and TAILS otherwise.

## RollDice(N)

RollDice(N) is a random primitive. It returns  $x \in [N]$  with probability 1/N.

### Outcome

An *outcome* for a piece of code R with random primitives is a sequence of values for all random results in R.

## Sample Space

The sample space of R is the set of all possible outcomes of running R.

## Event

An event  $E \subseteq S, E$  is a subset of the sample space S, i.e. a collection of possible outcomes.

## Probability

Let S be a sample space and  $E \subseteq S$  be an event. Then, we say Pr(E) is the *probability* that running R results in an outcome in E. We define:

- $0 \leq \Pr(E) \leq 1.$
- $\Pr(S) = 1.$
- If events  $E_1, E_2, \ldots, E_n \subseteq S$  are pairwise disjoint, then

# $\mathsf{Pr}(E_1 \cup E_2 \cup \cdots \cup E_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{Pr}(E_i).$

• For any set X which is not an event (i.e.  $X \not\subseteq S$ ),  $\Pr(X) = 0$ .

• 
$$\Pr(\varnothing) = 0.$$

## Equiprobable

Let S be the sample space of R. We say that the outcomes of R are *equiprobable* if and only if, for all events  $E \subseteq S$ 

 $\Pr(E) = \frac{|E|}{|S|}.$ 

## DEFINITION

DEFINITION

### DEFINITION

## Definition

### DEFINITION

# DEFINITION

Definition

### **Conditional Probability**

The conditional probability of an event A given that an event B has occurred is denoted  $Pr(A \mid B)$ ,

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

provided that  $\Pr(B) \neq 0$ .

### Independent Events

Two events A and B are said to be *independent* if the occurrence of one does not affect the occurrence of the other. Formally, A and B are independent if and only if the probability that both A and B occur is given by  $\Pr(A \cap B) = \Pr(A) \cdot \Pr(B)$ .

### Random variable

A random variable is a variable whose value is dependent on a random primitive. In this class, random variables take on values in the natural numbers (in general, you can have other kinds). Formally, a random variable is a function from the sample space to the natural numbers.

### Expectation

The expectation of a random variable is a weighted average over all of its outcomes. Formally, for a random variable X over a sample space  $\Omega$  the expectation is,

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X(\omega) \cdot \Pr(\omega) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} x \cdot \Pr(X = x)$$

### 16.2 Theorems

### Independence and Conditional Probability

Consider any two events A and B and suppose Pr(B) > 0. Then A and B are independent if and only if  $\Pr(A \mid B) = \Pr(A).$ 

Similarly, if Pr(A) > 0, then A and B are independent if and only if  $Pr(B \mid A) = Pr(B)$ .

### Inclusion-Exclusion (two events)

The probability that either of two events A or B occurs (or both) is given by:

$$\Pr(A \cup B) = \Pr(A) + \Pr(B) - \Pr(A \cap B).$$

### Inclusion-Exclusion (n events)

The probability that any of the events  $E_i$  occurs is given by:

$$\Pr(\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} E_i) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left( (-1)^{k-1} \sum_{I \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\} \atop |I| = k} \Pr(E_I) \right)$$

Where  $E_I$  denotes the intersection of the events  $E_i$  for  $i \in I$ .

# THEOREM

Theorem

DEFINITION

### DEFINITION

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### Law of Total Probability

Let  $B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_n$  be a partition of the sample space S. Then for any event A:

$$\Pr(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Pr(A \mid B_i) \times \Pr(B_i)$$

### Linearity of Expectation

If  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$  is a sequence of n arbitrary random variables and  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n$  is a sequence of real numbers,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_k X_k\right] = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \alpha_k \mathbb{E}\left[X_k\right]$$

Common forms of this result are when  $\alpha_1 = \alpha_2 = \cdots = \alpha_n = 1$ , in which case we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{k=1}^{n} X_{k}\right] = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}\left[X_{k}\right]$$

and the case where n = 1, in which case we have

If you are only using one of the two simplified forms, you can cite the simplified form directly as "linearity of expectation," you do not need to bring in the full form.

 $\mathbb{E}[\alpha X] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[X].$ 

### 17 Graph Theory

### **17.1 Definitions**

Graph	Definition
A graph G is an ordered pair $(V, E)$ where:	

• V is a finite set of vertices.

• E is a finite set of edges, where each edge is a set  $\{v_1, v_2\}$  containing two vertices.

### Degree

Given a graph G = (V, E), the *degree* of a vertex  $v \in V$  is the total number of edges adjacent to the vertex. Formally,

$$d(v) = |\{e \in E : v \in e\}|.$$

### Neighbor

Given a graph G = (V, E), a vertex  $v \in V$  is a *neighbor* of a vertex  $w \in V$  (where  $v \neq w$ ) if they are connected with an edge. Formally, v is a neighbor of w if and only if  $\{v, w\} \in E$ .

### Walk

A *walk* in a graph is a sequence of vertices such that each adjacent pair of vertices in the sequence is connected by an edge.

### Theorem

### Theorem

### DEFINITION

DEFINITION

Trail

A trail in a graph is a walk in which all connecting edges are distinct.

### Path

A *path* in a graph is a walk in which all vertices are distinct.

### Connected

A graph G is connected iff for every pair of vertices  $u, v \in V(G)$ , there exists a path in G connecting u and v.

### Cycle

A cycle in a graph is a trail that starts and ends at the same vertex.

Acyclic

A graph is *acyclic* if it contains no cycles.

### Tree

A *tree* is a connected, acyclic graph.

### Component

A component of a graph is a maximal connected subgraph, meaning that it is not possible to add any more edges or vertices from the graph and still have a connected subgraph.

### Bipartite

A graph G = (V, E) is *bipartite* if V can be partitioned into two disjoint sets, A and B, such that every edge connects a vertex in A to a vertex in B.

### *n*-colorable

A graph G = (V, E) is *n*-colorable if there exists a function  $c: V \to \{1, 2, ..., n\}$  such that there does not exist an edge  $(u, v) \in E$  with c(u) = c(v).

### 17.2 Theorems

Handshake Theorem	THEOREM
In any graph, the sum of all vertex degrees is equal to twice the number of edges.	

### Trees and Edges

Euler's Formula

A tree with n vertices has exactly n-1 edges.

Euler's Formula	Theorem
For any connected planar graph with $n$ vertices,	, $m$ edges, and $f$ faces, the following equation holds:

n - m + f = 2.

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Theorem

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DEFINITION

Theorem

THEOREM

A graph is bipartite if and only if it is two-colorable.

# Existence of Cycles

If G is a connected graph with n vertices and  $m \geq n$  edges, then G contains a cycle.

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