

Propositional Equivalences

$p \wedge T \Leftrightarrow p$ $p \vee F \Leftrightarrow p$	Identity laws
$p \vee T \Leftrightarrow T$ $p \wedge F \Leftrightarrow F$	Domination laws
$p \vee p \Leftrightarrow p$ $p \wedge p \Leftrightarrow p$	Idempotent laws
$\neg(\neg p) \Leftrightarrow p$	Double negation law
$p \vee q \Leftrightarrow q \vee p$ $p \wedge q \Leftrightarrow q \wedge p$	Commutative laws
$(p \vee q) \vee r \Leftrightarrow p \vee (q \vee r)$ $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \Leftrightarrow p \wedge (q \wedge r)$	Associative laws
$p \vee (q \wedge r) \Leftrightarrow (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ $p \wedge (q \vee r) \Leftrightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	Distributive laws
$\neg(p \wedge q) \Leftrightarrow \neg p \vee \neg q$ $\neg(p \vee q) \Leftrightarrow \neg p \wedge \neg q$	De Morgan's laws

Rules of Inference

$\frac{p}{p \vee q}$	Addition
$\frac{p \wedge q}{p}$	Simplification
$\frac{p, q}{p \wedge q}$	Conjunction
$\frac{p, p \rightarrow q}{q}$	Modus ponens
$\frac{\neg q, p \rightarrow q}{\neg p}$	Modus tollens
$\frac{p \rightarrow q, q \rightarrow r}{p \rightarrow r}$	Hypothetical syllogism
$\frac{p \vee q, \neg p}{q}$	Disjunctive syllogism
$\frac{\forall x P(x)}{P(c) \text{ if } c \in U}$	Universal instantiation
$\frac{P(c) \text{ for an arbitrary } c \in U}{\forall x P(x)}$	Universal generalization
$\frac{\exists x P(x)}{P(c) \text{ for some } c \in U}$	Existential instantiation
$\frac{P(c) \text{ for some } c \in U}{\exists x P(x)}$	Existential generalization

Sets

- $\mathcal{P}(S)$: The **power set** of S is the set of all subsets of the set S .
- $A \times B$: The **Cartesian product** of A and B is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b) where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$.
- $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$: The **Cartesian product** of the sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n is the set of ordered n -tuples (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) , where a_i belongs to A_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Functions

- $f : A \rightarrow B$: A **function** from A to B is an assignment of exactly one element of B to each element of A .
- A is the **domain** of f and B is the **codomain** of f .

- If $f(a) = b$, we say that b is the **image** of a and a is a **pre-image** of b . The **range** of f is the set of all images of elements of A .
- **Injection:** Function f is said to be **one-to-one**, if and only if $f(x) = f(y)$ implies that $x = y$ for all x and y in the domain of f .
- **Surjection:** Function f is said to be **onto / surjective**, if and only if for every element $b \in B$ there is an element $a \in A$ with $f(a) = b$.
- **Bijection:** Function f is a **one-to-one correspondence**, or **bijection**, if it is both one-to-one and onto.
- **Inverse function:** Let f be a one-to-one correspondence from A to B . The **inverse function** of f assigns to an element b in B the unique element a in A such that $f(a) = b$. The inverse function of f is denoted by f^{-1} . Hence, $f^{-1}(b) = a$ when $f(a) = b$.
- $f \circ g$: $g : A \rightarrow B$, $f : B \rightarrow C$. The **composition** of the functions f and g is defined by $(f \circ g)(a) = f(g(a))$

Integers

- Let a , b , and c be integers, $a \neq 0$.
- $a \mid b$: a **divides** b if there is an integer c such that $b = ac$. When a divides b we say that a is a **factor** of b and that b is a **multiple** of a .
- **Prime:** A positive integer p greater than 1 is called prime if the only positive factors of p are 1 and p . A positive integer that is greater than 1 and is not prime is called **composite**.
- **Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic:** Every positive integer can be written uniquely as the product of primes, where the prime factors are written in order of increasing size.
- **Division algorithm:** Let a be an integer and d a positive integer. Then there are unique integers q and r , with $0 \leq r < d$, such that $a = dq + r$.
- **gcd(a, b):** Let a and b be integers, not both zero. The largest integer d such that $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ is called the **greatest common divisor** of a and b .
- The integers a and b are **relatively prime** if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.
- $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ If a and b are integers and m is a positive integer, then a is **congruent to b modulo m** if m divides $a - b$.
- **Theorem 1:** Let m be a positive integer. The integers a and b are congruent modulo m if and only if there is an integer k such that $a = b + km$.
- **Theorem 2:** Let m be a positive integer. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$ and $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$.
- **Lemma 1:** Let $a = bq + r$, where a , b , q , and r are integers. Then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Counting Principles

- **Pascal's Identity:** Let n and k be positive integers with $n \geq k$. Then $C(n+1, k) = C(n, k-1) + C(n, k)$
- **Binomial Theorem:** Let x and y be variables, and let n be a positive integer. Then

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{j=0}^n C(n, j)x^{n-j}y^j$$

Probability Theory

- Let S be the sample space of an experiment with a finite or countable number of outcomes. We assign **probability $p(s)$ to each outcome s** . The following two conditions have to be met:
 - $0 \leq p(s) \leq 1$ for each $s \in S$
 - $\sum_{s \in S} p(s) = 1$
- The **probability of the event E** is the sum of the probabilities of the outcomes in E . That is, $p(E) = \sum_{s \in E} p(s)$.

- Let E and F be events with $p(F) > 0$. The **conditional probability** of E given F is defined

$$p(E | F) = \frac{p(E \cap F)}{p(F)}.$$

- The events E and F are said to be **independent** if

$$p(E \cap F) = p(E)p(F).$$

- **Bernoulli Trial**: Experiment with only two possible outcomes: success or failure.
- **Probability of k successes in n independent Bernoulli trials** with probability of success p and probability of failure $q = 1 - p$, is $C(n, k)p^k q^{n-k}$.
- A **random variable** is a function from the sample space of an experiment to the set of real numbers.

- The **expected value** (or expectation) of a random

$$E(X) = \sum_{s \in S} p(s)X(s).$$

- **Theorem 3**: If X and Y are random variables on a space S , then $E(X + Y) = E(X) + E(Y)$. Furthermore, if $X_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, with n a positive integer, are random variables on S , and $X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$, then $E(X) = E(X_1) + E(X_2) + \dots + E(X_n)$.

- The random variables X and Y on a sample space S are **independent** if for all real numbers r_1 and r_2 $p(X(s) = r_1 \text{ and } Y(s) = r_2) = p(X(s) = r_1)p(Y(s) = r_2)$.

- **Theorem 4**: If X and Y are independent random variables on a space S , then $E(XY) = E(X)E(Y)$.

- Let X be random variables on a sample space S . The **variance** of X , denoted by $V(X)$, is

$$V(X) = \sum_{s \in S} (X(s) - E(X))^2 p(s).$$

- **Theorem 5**: If X is a random variable on a space S , then $V(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2$.

Relations

- Let A and B be sets. A **binary relation from A to B** is a subset of $A \times B$. If $(a, b) \in R$, we write aRb and say a is related to b by R .
- Let R be a relation from a set A to a set B and S be a relation from B to a set C . The **composite** of R and S is the relation consisting of ordered pairs (a, c) , where $a \in A, c \in C$, and for which there exists an element $b \in B$ such that $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in S$. We denote the composite of R and S by $S \circ R$.
- Let R be a relation on the set A . The **powers** $R^n, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, are defined inductively by $R^1 = R$ and $R^{n+1} = R^n \circ R$.
- Let P be a property of relations (e.g. transitivity, reflexivity, symmetry). A relation S is **closure of R w.r.t. P** if and only if S has property P , S contains R , and S is a subset of every relation with property P containing R .
- There is a **path** from a to b in a relation R if there is a sequence of elements $a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, b$ with $(a, x_1) \in R, (x_1, x_2) \in R, \dots, (x_{n-1}, b) \in R$.
- **Theorem 6**: Let R be a relation on a set A . There is a path of length n from a to b if and only if $(a, b) \in R^n$.
- Let R be a relation on a set A . The **connectivity relation** R^* consists of pairs (a, b) such that there is a path between a and b in R .
- **Theorem 7**: The transitive closure of a relation R equals the connectivity relation R^* .
- A relation on a set A is called an **equivalence relation** if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive. Two elements that are related by an equivalence relation are called equivalent.
- Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A . The set of all elements that are related to an element a of A is called the **equivalence class** of a . $[a]_R$: equivalence class of a w.r.t. R . If $b \in [a]_R$ then b is **representative** of this equivalence class.

- **Theorem 8:** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set A . The following statements are equivalent:
 - (1) aRb
 - (2) $[a] = [b]$
 - (3) $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$
- A **partition** of a set S is a collection of disjoint nonempty subsets $A_i, i \in I$ (where I is an index set) of S that have S as their union: $A_i \neq \emptyset$ for $i \in I, A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$, when $i \neq j, \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i = S$
- **Theorem 9:** Let R be an equivalence relation on a set S . Then the equivalence classes of R form a partition of S . Conversely, given a partition $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$ of the set S , there is an equivalence relation R that has the sets $A_i, i \in I$, as its equivalence classes.

Graphs

- The **degree** of a vertex in an undirected graph is the number of edges incident with it, except that a loop at a vertex contributes twice to the degree of that vertex. The degree of the vertex v is denoted by $\deg(v)$.
- **The Handshaking Theorem:** Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph with e edges. Then $2e = \sum_{v \in V} \deg(v)$.
- **Theorem 10:** An undirected graph has an even number of vertices of odd degree.
- In a graph with directed edges the **in-degree** of a vertex v , denoted by $\deg^-(v)$, is the number of edges with v as their terminal vertex. The **out-degree** of v , denoted by $\deg^+(v)$, is the number of edges with v as their initial vertex.
- **Theorem 11:** Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with directed edges. Then $\sum_{v \in V} \deg^-(v) = \sum_{v \in V} \deg^+(v) = |E|$.
- A simple graph is G is called **bipartite** if its vertex V can be partitioned into two disjoint nonempty sets V_1 and V_2 such that every edge in the graph connects a vertex in V_1 and a vertex in V_2 (so that no edge in G connects either two vertices in V_1 or two vertices in V_2).
- The simple graphs $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ are **isomorphic** if there is a one-to-one and onto function f from V_1 to V_2 with the property that a and b are adjacent in G_1 if and only if $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ are adjacent in G_2 , for all a and b in V_1 . Such a function f is called an **isomorphism**.