

## Mathematical Terms and Identities

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This handout covers mathematical notation and identities that may be useful over the course of CS166. Feel free to refer to this handout for reference on a variety of topics. If you have any suggestions on how to improve this handout, please let us know!

### Set Theory

The set  $\mathbb{N}$  consists of all natural numbers. That is,  $\mathbb{N} = \{ 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \}$

The set  $\mathbb{Z}$  consists of all integers:  $\mathbb{Z} = \{ \dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots \}$

The set  $\mathbb{R}$  consists of all real numbers.

The set  $\emptyset$  is the empty set consisting of no elements.

If  $x$  belongs to set  $S$ , we write  $x \in S$ . If  $x$  does not belong to  $S$ , we write  $x \notin S$ .

The **union** of two sets  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  is denoted  $S_1 \cup S_2$ . Their **intersection** is denoted  $S_1 \cap S_2$ , **difference** is denoted  $S_1 - S_2$  or  $S_1 \setminus S_2$ , and **symmetric difference** is denoted  $S_1 \Delta S_2$ .

If  $S_1$  is a **subset** of  $S_2$ , we write  $S_1 \subseteq S_2$ . If  $S_1$  is a **strict subset** of  $S_2$ , we denote this by  $S_1 \subsetneq S_2$ .

The **power set** of a set  $S$  (denoted  $\wp(S)$ ) is the set of all subsets of  $S$ .

The **Cartesian product** of two sets  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  is the set  $S_1 \times S_2 = \{ (a, b) \mid a \in S_1 \text{ and } b \in S_2 \}$

### First-Order Logic

The negations of the basic propositional connectives are as follows:

$$\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$$

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

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

$$\neg(p \rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$$

$$\neg(p \leftrightarrow q) \equiv p \leftrightarrow \neg q$$

The negations of the  $\exists$  and  $\forall$  quantifiers are as follows:

$$\neg \forall x. \varphi \equiv \exists x. \neg \varphi$$

$$\neg \exists x. \varphi \equiv \forall x. \neg \varphi$$

The statement “iff” abbreviates “if and only if.”

## Summations

The sum of the first  $n$  natural numbers ( $0 + 1 + 2 + \dots + n - 1$ ) is given by

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

The sum of the first  $n$  terms of the arithmetic series  $a, a + b, a + 2b, \dots, a + (n - 1)b$  is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (a + i b) = a \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 1 + b \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i = an + \frac{b n(n-1)}{2}$$

The sum of the first  $n$  terms of the geometric series  $1, r, r^2, r^3, \dots, r^{n-1}$  is given by

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r^i = \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1}$$

As a useful special case, when  $r = 2$ , we have

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n - 1$$

In the case that  $|r| < 1$ , the sum of all infinite terms of the geometric series is given by

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} r^i = \frac{1}{1 - r}$$

The following summation often arises in the analysis of algorithms: when  $|r| < 1$ , we have

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} i r^i = \frac{r}{(1 - r)^2}$$

## Inequalities

The following identities are useful for manipulating inequalities:

If  $A \leq B$  and  $B \leq C$ , then  $A \leq C$

If  $A \leq B$  and  $C \geq 0$ , then  $CA \leq CB$

If  $A \leq B$  and  $C \leq 0$ , then  $CA \geq CB$

If  $A \leq B$  and  $C \leq D$ , then  $A + C \leq B + D$

If  $A, B \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $A \leq B$  iff  $A < B + 1$

If  $f$  is any monotonically increasing function and  $A \leq B$ , then  $f(A) \leq f(B)$

If  $f$  is any monotonically decreasing function and  $A \leq B$ , then  $f(A) \geq f(B)$

The following inequalities are often useful in algorithmic analysis:

$$e^x \geq 1 + x$$

$$\sqrt[n]{x_1 x_2 \dots x_n} \leq \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$$

## Floors and Ceilings

The **floor function**  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  denotes the largest integer less than or equal to  $x$ . The **ceiling function**  $\lceil x \rceil$  denotes the smallest integer greater than or equal to  $x$ . These functions obey the rules

$$\lfloor x \rfloor \leq x < \lfloor x \rfloor + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lfloor x \rfloor \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\lceil x \rceil - 1 < x \leq \lceil x \rceil \quad \text{and} \quad \lceil x \rceil \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Additionally,  $\lfloor x + n \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + n$  and  $\lceil x + n \rceil = \lceil x \rceil + n$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

## Asymptotic Notation

Let  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ . Then

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \quad \text{if} \quad \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}. \exists c \in \mathbb{R}. \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. (n \geq n_0 \rightarrow f(n) \leq cg(n))$$

$$f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \quad \text{if} \quad \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}. \exists c > 0 \in \mathbb{R}. \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. (n \geq n_0 \rightarrow f(n) \geq cg(n))$$

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \quad \text{if} \quad f(n) = O(g(n)) \wedge f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$$

When multiple variables are involved in an expression, big-O notation generalizes as follows: we say that  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = O(g(x_1, \dots, x_n))$  if there are constants  $N$  and  $c$  such that for any  $x_1 \geq N, x_2 \geq N, \dots, x_n \geq N$ , we have  $f(x_1, \dots, x_n) \leq c \cdot g(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ .

The following rules apply for O notation:

$$\text{If } f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ and } g(n) = O(h(n)), \text{ then } f(n) = O(h(n)) \quad (\text{also } \Omega, \Theta, o, \omega)$$

$$\text{If } f_1(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ and } f_2(n) = O(g(n)), \text{ then } f_1(n) + f_2(n) = O(g(n)) \quad (\text{also } \Omega, \Theta, o, \omega)$$

$$\text{If } f_1(n) = O(g_1(n)) \text{ and } f_2(n) = O(g_2(n)), \text{ then } f_1(n)f_2(n) = O(g_1(n)g_2(n)) \quad (\text{also } \Omega, \Theta, o, \omega)$$

We can use  $o$  and  $\omega$  notations to denote strict bounds on growth rates:

$$f(n) = o(g(n)) \quad \text{if} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0 \quad \quad f(n) = \omega(g(n)) \quad \text{if} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty$$

Polynomials, exponents, and logarithms are related as follows:

$$\log_a n = \Theta(\log_b n) \text{ for any fixed constants } a, b > 1$$

$$\text{Any polynomial of degree } k \text{ with positive leading coefficient is } \Theta(n^k)$$

$$\log_b n = o(n^k) \text{ for any } k > 0$$

$$n^k = o(b^n) \text{ for any } b > 1$$

$$b^n = o(c^n) \text{ for any } 1 < b < c$$

In a graph,  $n$  denotes the number of nodes ( $|V|$ ) and  $m$  denotes the number of edges ( $|E|$ ). In any graph,  $m = O(n^2)$ . In a dense graph,  $m = \Theta(n^2)$ ; a sparse graph is one where  $m = o(n^2)$ .

## The Master Theorem

If  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $d$  are constants, then the recurrence relation

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + O(n^d)$$

solves as follows:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^d) & \text{if } \log_b a < d \\ O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } \log_b a = d \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } \log_b a > d \end{cases}$$

## Logarithms and Exponents

Logarithms and exponents are inverses of one another:  $b^{\log_b x} = \log_b b^x = x$

The *change-of-base formula* for logarithms states that

$$\log_b a = \frac{\log_c a}{\log_c b}$$

Sums and differences of logarithms translate into logarithms of products and quotients:

$$\log_b xy = \log_b x + \log_b y \quad \log_b (x/y) = \log_b x - \log_b y$$

The *power rule* for logarithms states

$$\log_b x^y = y \log_b x$$

In some cases, exponents may be interchanged:

$$(a^b)^c = a^{bc} = (a^c)^b$$

We can change the base of an exponent using the fact that logarithms and exponents are inverses:

$$a^c = b^{c \log_b a}$$

## Probability

If  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are mutually exclusive events, then

$$P(E_1) + P(E_2) = P(E_1 \cup E_2)$$

For any events  $E_1, E_2, E_3, \dots$ , including overlapping events, the **union bound** states that

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(E_i)$$

The probability of  $E$  given  $F$  is denoted  $P(E|F)$  and is given by

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

The **chain rule** for conditional probability is

$$P(E_n \cap E_{n-1} \cap \dots \cap E_1) = P(E_n | E_{n-1} \cap \dots \cap E_1) \cdot P(E_{n-1} | E_{n-2} \cap \dots \cap E_1) \cdot \dots \cdot P(E_1)$$

Two events  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are called **independent** if

$$P(E_1 \cap E_2) = P(E_1) P(E_2)$$

For any event  $E$ , the **complement** of that event (denoted  $\bar{E}$ ) represents the event that  $E$  does not occur.  $E$  and  $\bar{E}$  are mutually exclusive, and

$$P(E) + P(\bar{E}) = 1$$

## Expected Value

The **expected value** of a discrete random variable  $X$  is defined as

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} (i P(X=i))$$

The expected value operator is linear: for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and any random variable  $X$ :

$$E[aX + b] = aE[X] + b$$

More generally, if  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$  are any random variables, then

$$E\left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n E[X_i]$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables, then

$$E[XY] = E[X]E[Y]$$

## Variance and Covariance

The **variance** of a random variable  $X$  is defined as

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[(X - E[X])^2]$$

Equivalently:

$$\text{Var}[X] = E[X^2] - E[X]^2$$

Given two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ , the **covariance** of  $X$  and  $Y$  is defined as

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = E[(X - E[X])(Y - E[Y])]$$

Equivalently:

$$\text{Cov}[X, Y] = E[XY] - E[X]E[Y]$$

Accordingly:

$$\text{Var}[X] = \text{Cov}[X, X]$$

Variance is not a linear operator:

$$\text{Var}[aX + bY] = a^2\text{Var}[X] + 2ab\text{Cov}[X, Y] + b^2\text{Var}[Y]$$

The variance of a summation of random variables, including dependent variables, can be simplified using the following rule:

$$\text{Var}\left[\sum_{i=1}^n X_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}[X_i] + \sum_{i \neq j} \text{Cov}[X_i, X_j]$$

If  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent random variables, then  $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = 0$ . However, if  $\text{Cov}[X, Y] = 0$ , it is not necessarily the case that  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.

## Concentration Inequalities

**Markov's inequality** says that for any nonnegative random variable  $X$  with finite expected value and any  $c > 0$ , we have both

$$P(X \geq cE[X]) \leq \frac{1}{c} \quad \text{and} \quad P(X \geq c) \leq \frac{E[X]}{c}.$$

**Chebyshev's inequality** states that for any random variable  $X$  with finite expected value that

$$P(|X - E[X]| \geq c\sqrt{\text{Var}[X]}) \leq \frac{1}{c^2} \quad \text{and} \quad P(|X - E[X]| \geq c) \leq \frac{\text{Var}[X]}{c^2}.$$

The **Chernoff bound** says that if  $X \sim \text{Binom}(n, p)$  for  $p < 1/2$ , that

$$P(X \geq \frac{n}{2}) \leq e^{\frac{-n(1/2-p)^2}{2p}}$$

In the case where  $p$  is a fixed constant, notice that the right-hand side is  $e^{O(1) \cdot n}$ .

## Useful Probability Equalities and Inequalities

An *indicator random variable* is a random variable  $X$  where

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if event } F \text{ occurs} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

For any indicator variable,  $E[X] = P(F)$ . Indicator variables are Bernoulli random variables, so if  $X$  is an indicator variable, then  $\text{Var}[X] = P(F)(1 - P(F))$ .

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are random variables, then

$$P(\max\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\} \leq k) = P(X_1 \leq k \cap X_2 \leq k \cap \dots \cap X_n \leq k)$$

$$P(\min\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\} \geq k) = P(X_1 \geq k \cap X_2 \geq k \cap \dots \cap X_n \geq k)$$

On expectation, repeatedly flipping a biased coin that comes up heads with probability  $p$  requires  $1/p$  trials before the coin will come up heads.

## Harmonic Numbers

The  $n$ th *harmonic number*, denoted  $H_n$ , is given by

$$H_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}$$

The harmonic numbers are close in value to  $\ln n$ : for any  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$\ln(n+1) \leq H_n \leq \ln n + 1,$$

so  $H_n = \Theta(\log n)$