## **Discrete Math Review**

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Image: A matrix and a matrix

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## 2 Graph Theory







• Sets:  $A = \{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$  and  $B = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, ..., z\}$ 



• Sets:  $A = \{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$  and  $B = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, ..., z\}$ 



## • Sets: $A = \{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$ and $B = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, \dots, z\}$ b, c, d, f, g, h, ..., x, z• Union: $A \cup B = \{a, b, c, d, e, \dots, z\}$ 0,1,2,3,4, V 5,6,7,8,9 a, e, i, o, u 590 æ . 3 1 4 3 1

- Sets:
  *A* − { *a* ∈
  - $A = \{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$  and  $B = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, ..., z\}$
- Union:
  - $A \cup B = \{a, b, c, d, e, \dots, z\}$
- Intersection:  $A \cap B = \{y\}$



## • Sets: $A = \{a, e, i, o, u, y\}$ and $B = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, ..., z\}$ • Union: $A \cup B = \{a, b, c, d, e, ..., z\}$

- Intersection:  $A \cap B = \{y\}$
- Complement:  $A^{c} = (B \setminus \{y\}) \cup \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$



# Sets: A = {a, e, i, o, u, y} and B = {b, c, d, f, g, h, ..., z} Union: A ∪ B = {a, b, c, d, e, ..., z} Intersection:

- Intersection:  $A \cap B = \{y\}$
- Complement:  $A^c = (B \setminus \{y\}) \cup \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$
- Universal Set:  $\mathscr{U} = A \cup B \cup \{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$



## New Sets from Old

• 
$$A = \{a, b, c\}$$
 and  $B = \{0, 1, 2\}$ 





## New Sets from Old

- $A = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $B = \{0, 1, 2\}$
- Cartesian Product:

 $A \times B = \{(a,0), (a,1), (a,2), (b,0), (b,1), (b,2), (c,0), (c,1), (c,2)\}$ 

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## New Sets from Old

- $A = \{a, b, c\}$  and  $B = \{0, 1, 2\}$
- Cartesian Product:

 $A \times B = \{(a,0), (a,1), (a,2), (b,0), (b,1), (b,2), (c,0), (c,1), (c,2)\}$ 

• Power Set:

 $\begin{aligned} \mathscr{P}(A) &= \{ \emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{b, c\}, \{a, b, c\} \} \\ |\mathscr{P}(A)| &= 2^{|A|} \end{aligned}$ 

•  $A = \{0, 1\}$  and  $B = \{0, 1, 2\}$ 



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- $A = \{0,1\}$  and  $B = \{0,1,2\}$
- $\mathscr{P}(A) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$

•  $\mathcal{P}(B) = ?$ 

$$\begin{aligned} \mathscr{P}(B) &= \mathscr{P}(A) \cup \left( \bigcup_{s \in \mathscr{P}(A)} \{ s \cup \{ 2 \} \} \right) \\ &= \{ \emptyset, \{ 0 \}, \{ 1 \}, \{ 0, 1 \} \} \cup \{ \{ 2 \}, \{ 0, 2 \}, \{ 1, 2 \}, \{ 0, 1, 2 \} \} \\ &= \{ \emptyset, \{ 0 \}, \{ 1 \}, \{ 0, 1 \}, \{ 2 \}, \{ 0, 2 \}, \{ 1, 2 \}, \{ 0, 1, 2 \} \} \end{aligned}$$

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- $A = \{0, 1\}$  and  $B = \{0, 1, 2\}$
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•  $|\mathscr{P}(B)| = ?$ 

$$\begin{aligned} \mathscr{P}(B)| &= |\mathscr{P}(A)| + \left| \bigcup_{s \in \mathscr{P}(A)} \{s \cup \{2\}\} \right| \\ &= |\mathscr{P}(A)| + \sum_{s \in \mathscr{P}(A)} |\{s \cup \{2\}\}| \\ &= |\mathscr{P}(A)| + |\mathscr{P}(A)| \\ &= 2 \cdot |\mathscr{P}(A)| \end{aligned}$$

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- $A = \{0, 1\}$  and  $B = \{0, 1, 2\}$
- $\mathscr{P}(A) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$
- $\mathscr{P}(B) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{0, 1, 2\}\}$
- $|\mathscr{P}(B)| = 2 \cdot |\mathscr{P}(A)| = 2 \cdot 2^{|A|} = 2^{|A|+1} = 2^{|B|}$

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#### Definition (Relation)

A relation between two sets is a subset of their Cartesian product.





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Given:

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Image: Image:

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A sample relation might be:

 $\mathcal{R} = \{(a,0), (a,1), (a,2), (b,1), (b,2), (c,2)\}$ 

#### Definition (Relation)

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Given:

 $A \times A = \{(a, a), (a, b), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (b, c), (c, a), (c, b), (c, c)\}$ 



Image: Image:

#### Definition (Relation)

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Given:

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A sample relation might be:

 $\mathcal{O} = \{(a,b), (a,c), (b,c)\}$ 

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Definition (Equivalence Relation)

A relation between a set and its self is an **equivalence relation** if and only if it is **reflexive**, **symmetric**, and **transitive**.



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A relation between a set and its self is an **equivalence relation** if and only if it is **reflexive**, **symmetric**, and **transitive**.

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Given the relation on A:

$$\mathcal{O} = \{(a, b), (a, c), (b, c)\}$$

Since a does not relate to its self  $(a \not\sim a)$  this is not **reflexive**.

#### Definition (Equivalence Relation)

A relation between a set and its self is an **equivalence relation** if and only if it is **reflexive**, **symmetric**, and **transitive**.

Given the relation on A:

$$\mathcal{O} = \{(a, b), (a, c), (b, c)\}$$

Since *a* relates to *b* ( $a \sim b$ ) but *b* does not relate to *a* ( $b \not\sim a$ ) this is not symmetric.

#### Definition (Equivalence Relation)

A relation between a set and its self is an **equivalence relation** if and only if it is **reflexive**, **symmetric**, and **transitive**.

Given the relation on A:

$$\mathcal{O} = \{(a, b), (a, c), (b, c)\}$$

Since  $a \sim b$  and  $b \sim c$  and  $a \sim c$  this is **transitive**.

#### Definition (Equivalence Relation)

A relation between a set and its self is an **equivalence relation** if and only if it is **reflexive**, **symmetric**, and **transitive**.

Given the relation on A:

$$\mathcal{C} = \{(a, a), (a, b), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c)\}$$

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Given the relation on A:

$$\mathcal{C} = \{(a, a), (a, b), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c)\}$$

Since  $a \sim a$ ,  $b \sim b$ , and  $c \sim c$  this is **reflexive**.

#### Definition (Equivalence Relation)

A relation between a set and its self is an **equivalence relation** if and only if it is **reflexive**, **symmetric**, and **transitive**.

Given the relation on A:

$$C = \{(a, a), (a, b), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c)\}$$

Since  $a \sim b$  and  $b \sim a$  this is **symmetric**.

#### Definition (Equivalence Relation)

A relation between a set and its self is an **equivalence relation** if and only if it is **reflexive**, **symmetric**, and **transitive**.

Given the relation on A:

$$C = \{(a, a), (a, b), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c)\}$$

Since  $a \sim b$ ,  $b \sim a$  and  $a \sim a$  (also,  $b \sim a, a \sim b$ , and  $b \sim b$ ) this is **transitive**.

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#### Definition (Equivalence Relation)

A relation between a set and its self is an **equivalence relation** if and only if it is **reflexive**, **symmetric**, and **transitive**.

Given the relation on A:

$$\mathcal{C} = \{(a, a), (a, b), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c)\}$$

This relation is am equivalence relation.

## Function

#### Definition (Function)

A **function** is a relation between two sets, the first called the **domain** and the second the **co-domain**, such that for all x in the domain there exists a unique y in the co-domain such that (x, y) is in the relation.





## Function

#### Definition (Function)

A **function** is a relation between two sets, the first called the **domain** and the second the **co-domain**, such that for all x in the domain there exists a unique y in the co-domain such that (x, y) is in the relation.

Given:

$$A \times B = \{(a,0), (a,1), (a,2), (b,0), (b,1), (b,2), (c,0), (c,1), (c,2)\}$$

The relation:

$$\mathcal{R} = \{(a,0), (a,1), (a,2), (b,1), (b,2), (c,2)\}$$

is not a function

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## Function

#### Definition (Function)

A **function** is a relation between two sets, the first called the **domain** and the second the **co-domain**, such that for all x in the domain there exists a unique y in the co-domain such that (x, y) is in the relation.

Given:

$$A \times B = \{(a,0), (a,1), (a,2), (b,0), (b,1), (b,2), (c,0), (c,1), (c,2)\}$$

But, the relation:

$$\mathcal{S} = \{(a, 1), (b, 2), (c, 0)\}$$

is a function


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## Graphs



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# Graphs



#### • Vertex Set:

$$V = \{A, B, C, D\}$$



#### Graph Theory

## Graphs



• Vertex Set:

• Edge Set:

$$V = \{A, B, C, D\}$$

$$E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6\}$$



#### Graph Theory

## Graphs



• Vertex Set:

 $V = \{A, B, C, D\}$ 

• Edge Set:

$$E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6\}$$

• Edge Set:

$$E = \{(A, A), (A, B), (A, D), (B, B), (B, D), (C, D)\}$$

#### Graph Theory

#### Graphs



• Vertex Set:

- $V = \{A, B, C, D\}$
- Edge Set:

$$E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4, e_5, e_6\}$$

• Edge Set:

 $E = \{(A, A), (A, B), (A, D), (B, B), (B, D), (C, D)\}$ 

• Graph:

G = (V, E)= ({A, B, C, D}, {(A, A), (A, B), (A, D), (B, B), (B, D), (C, D)})









#### Directed Graph



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Directed Graph



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Directed Graph



Complete Graph





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Directed Graph



Complete Graph



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#### Equivalence Relation?

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#### Equivalence Relation?

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• Reflexive  $\checkmark$ 





#### Equivalence Relation?

- Reflexive  $\checkmark$
- Symmetric  $\checkmark$



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#### Equivalence Relation?

- Reflexive  $\checkmark$
- Symmetric  $\checkmark$
- Transitive  $\checkmark$

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#### Equivalence Relation?

- Reflexive  $\checkmark$
- Symmetric  $\checkmark$
- Transitive  $\checkmark$

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#### Equivalence Relation√

- Reflexive  $\checkmark$
- Symmetric  $\checkmark$
- Transitive  $\checkmark$
- Equivalence Classes

 $A = \{a, b, d\} \& C = \{c\}$ 

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2 Graph Theory







Theorem (De Morgan's Law)

Given two sets A and B, the complement of their union is equal to the intersection of their complements:

 $(A\cup B)^c=A^c\cap B^c.$ 



Image: A matrix and a matrix

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*Proof:* Let A and B be sets and  $x \in (A \cup B)^c$ , thus  $x \notin A \cup B$ .



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Theorem (De Morgan's Law)

Given two sets A and B, the complement of their union is equal to the intersection of their complements:

 $(A\cup B)^c=A^c\cap B^c.$ 

*Proof:* Let A and B be sets and  $x \in (A \cup B)^c$ , thus  $x \notin A \cup B$ . This means that  $x \notin A$  and  $x \notin B$ , so that  $x \in A^c$  and  $x \in B^c$ . By definition then,  $x \in A^c \cap B^c$  and  $(A \cup B)^c \subseteq A^c \cap B^c$ . Now suppose  $x \in A^c \cap B^c$  or equivalently  $x \in A^c$  and  $x \in B^c$ .

Theorem (De Morgan's Law)

Given two sets A and B, the complement of their union is equal to the intersection of their complements:

 $(A\cup B)^c=A^c\cap B^c.$ 

*Proof:* Let A and B be sets and  $x \in (A \cup B)^c$ , thus  $x \notin A \cup B$ . This means that  $x \notin A$  and  $x \notin B$ , so that  $x \in A^c$  and  $x \in B^c$ . By definition then,  $x \in A^c \cap B^c$  and  $(A \cup B)^c \subseteq A^c \cap B^c$ . Now suppose  $x \in A^c \cap B^c$  or equivalently  $x \in A^c$  and  $x \in B^c$ . This tells us that  $x \notin A$  and  $x \notin B$  and thus  $x \notin A \cup B$ , i.e.  $x \in (A \cup B)^c$ .



Theorem (De Morgan's Law)

Given two sets A and B, the complement of their union is equal to the intersection of their complements:

 $(A\cup B)^c=A^c\cap B^c.$ 

*Proof:* Let A and B be sets and  $x \in (A \cup B)^c$ , thus  $x \notin A \cup B$ . This means that  $x \notin A$  and  $x \notin B$ , so that  $x \in A^c$  and  $x \in B^c$ . By definition then,  $x \in A^c \cap B^c$  and  $(A \cup B)^c \subseteq A^c \cap B^c$ . Now suppose  $x \in A^c \cap B^c$  or equivalently  $x \in A^c$  and  $x \in B^c$ . This tells us that  $x \notin A$  and  $x \notin B$  and thus  $x \notin A \cup B$ , i.e.  $x \in (A \cup B)^c$ . Therefore,  $A^c \cap B^c \subseteq (A \cup B)^c$  and

$$(A\cup B)^c = A^c \cap B^c$$

as desired.

#### Theorem

Given any integer n, either  $n^2$  or  $n^2 - 1$  is divisible by four.





#### Theorem

Given any integer n, either  $n^2$  or  $n^2 - 1$  is divisible by four.

*Proof:* (Case 1) Let *n* be an even integer so that we may write n = 2k for some unique *k*. Then

$$n^2 = 4k^2$$

and  $n^2$  is divisible by four.



#### Theorem

Given any integer n, either  $n^2$  or  $n^2 - 1$  is divisible by four.

*Proof:* (Case 1) Let *n* be an even integer so that we may write n = 2k for some unique *k*. Then

$$n^2 = 4k^2$$

and  $n^2$  is divisible by four.

(Case2) Now, if *n* is an odd integer then we write n = 2k + 1 for some unique *k*. Thus,

$$n^2 - 1 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 - 1 = 4(k^2 + k)$$

and  $n^2 - 1$  is divisible by four.

#### Theorem

Given any integer n, either  $n^2$  or  $n^2 - 1$  is divisible by four.

*Proof:* (Case 1) Let *n* be an even integer so that we may write n = 2k for some unique *k*. Then

$$n^2 = 4k^2$$

and  $n^2$  is divisible by four.

(Case2) Now, if *n* is an odd integer then we write n = 2k + 1 for some unique *k*. Thus,

$$n^{2} - 1 = 4k^{2} + 4k + 1 - 1 = 4(k^{2} + k)$$

and  $n^2 - 1$  is divisible by four.

Therefore, for any integer *n* we have shown that either  $n^2$  or  $n^2 - 1$  is divisible by four.

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### Theorem

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





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*Proof:* Suppose that *n* is odd and is written n = 2k + 1 for some unique *k*. Then we can write

$$n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$$

which is odd.

Image: Image:

#### Theorem

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*Proof:* Suppose that *n* is odd and is written n = 2k + 1 for some unique *k*. Then we can write

$$n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$$

which is odd. Therefore, if n is odd, then  $n^2$  is odd and so if  $n^2$  is even, then n is even.

Theorem

No integer is both even and odd.





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*Proof:* Suppose that *n* is both even and odd so that n = 2k and n = 2l + 1 for some unique *k* and *l*.



Image: Image:

#### Theorem

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*Proof:* Suppose that *n* is both even and odd so that n = 2k and n = 2l + 1 for some unique *k* and *l*. Then we can write 2k = 2l + 1 and 1 = 2(k - l).

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#### Theorem

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*Proof:* Suppose that *n* is both even and odd so that n = 2k and n = 2l + 1 for some unique *k* and *l*. Then we can write 2k = 2l + 1 and 1 = 2(k - l). If k - l = 0, then 1 = 0 and if  $k - l \neq 0$ , then 2 divides 1.

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#### Theorem

No integer is both even and odd.

*Proof:* Suppose that *n* is both even and odd so that n = 2k and n = 2l + 1 for some unique *k* and *l*. Then we can write 2k = 2l + 1 and 1 = 2(k - l). If k - l = 0, then 1 = 0 and if  $k - l \neq 0$ , then 2 divides 1. In either case we derive a contradiction and therefore no integer is both even and odd.

### Theorem

Any tree with n vertices has n - 1 edges.





#### Theorem

Any tree with n vertices has n - 1 edges.

(Base Case) When there is only one vertex there are no edges since trees do not contain loops and there is not a second vertex to connect to.

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#### Theorem

Any tree with n vertices has n - 1 edges.



(Induction Step) Assume that the theorem is true for some  $k \ge 2$  and consider a tree with  $k + 1 \ge 3$  vertices.

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#### Theorem

Any tree with n vertices has n - 1 edges.



(Induction Step) Assume that the theorem is true for some  $k \ge 2$  and consider a tree with  $k + 1 \ge 3$  vertices. Since there are at least two vertices the tree must contain at least one leaf.

#### Theorem

#### Any tree with n vertices has n - 1 edges.



(Induction Step) Assume that the theorem is true for some  $k \ge 2$  and consider a tree with  $k + 1 \ge 3$  vertices. Since there are at least two vertices the tree must contain at least one leaf. Removing the leaf removes one vertex and one edge; we now have a subtree with k vertices and, by induction, k - 1 edges.



#### Theorem

#### Any tree with n vertices has n - 1 edges.



(Induction Step) Assume that the theorem is true for some  $k \ge 2$  and consider a tree with  $k + 1 \ge 3$  vertices. Since there are at least two vertices the tree must contain at least one leaf. Removing the leaf removes one vertex and one edge; we now have a subtree with k vertices and, by induction, k - 1 edges. Thus the original tree has k + 1 vertices and k edges.



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2 Graph Theory







### Next Class

### • Deterministic and Non-Deterministic Finite State Automata





### **Discrete Math Review**

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Image: A matrix and a matrix

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