

DEPARTMENT OF
MATHEMATICS
AND
DEPARTMENT OF
COMPUTER SCIENCE

CompSci 225 (S1 2018)

Discrete Structures in
Mathematics and Computer Science

Lecture/Study Guide

Contents

1	Integers and Divisibility	1
1.1	Definitions	1
1.2	Basic properties of integers	2
1.3	Finding all factors of a positive integer . .	3
1.4	Common Divisors	6
1.5	The Euclidean algorithm	7
1.6	Congruences and modular arithmetic . . .	9
2	Logic and Proofs	13
2.1	Introduction to logic	13
2.2	Truth values	15
2.3	Tautologies, contradictions and contingent propositions	17
2.4	Logical equivalence and logical implication	18
2.5	Introduction to proofs	19
2.6	Proofs by contraposition and contradiction	23
2.7	Counterexamples and proof by cases . . .	25
2.8	Proof by construction	26
2.9	Language in proofs	26
2.10	Predicate calculus	28
2.11*	Tautologies and implications in predicate logic	31
3	Sets and Operations on Sets	35
3.1	Sets	35
3.2	Set operations	37
3.3	Ordered pairs, Cartesian products	40
4	Relations and Partial Orders	43
4.1	Introduction	43
4.2	Equivalence relations	44
4.3	Partial ordering	47
5	Functions	61
5.1	Functions	61
5.2	Equality of functions	62
5.3	Function composition	63
5.4	Partial functions	63
5.5	Types of functions	64

6	Induction and Recursion	69
6.1	Induction	69
6.2	The second principle of mathematical induction	74
6.3	Recursive definitions	75
6.4	Recurrence relations	76
6.5	Solving recurrence relations	79
7	Enumeration	85
7.1	Introduction	85
7.2	Arrangement problems	85
7.3	Selections	87
7.4	Selections with repetitions allowed	90
7.5	Some properties of binomial coefficients	92
7.6	The inclusion/exclusion principle	93
7.7	The pigeonhole principle	94
7.8*	Some harder applications of the pigeonhole principle	97
8	Deterministic Finite Automata	99
8.1	Alphabet and strings	99
8.2	Operations on languages	100
9	Graphs	107
9.1	Introduction to graphs	107
9.2	Basic terminology	113
9.3	Representing graphs	124
9.4	Connectivity, paths and circuits	128
9.5	Euler paths	135
9.6*	Isomorphism of graphs	141
9.7*	Hamilton paths and circuits	145
9.8*	Shortest path problems	149
10	Trees	155
10.1	Introduction to trees	155
10.2	Some applications of Trees	162
10.3	Properties of trees	163
10.4	Spanning trees	166
11	Codes	173
11.1	Prefix codes and optimal binary trees	173
11.2	Introduction to error-correcting codes	177
	Index	183

Integers and Divisibility

1.1 Definitions

Basic objects we use in this course

- *Natural numbers*: These are $0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots$. The set of all natural numbers is denoted by \mathbb{N} .
There is no consensus about whether 0 is a natural number or not. In this course $0 \in \mathbb{N}$. We sometimes write $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$ or \mathbb{P} for the set $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ of natural numbers that are ≥ 1 .
- *Integers*: These are $\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$. The set of all integers is denoted by \mathbb{Z} .
- *Variables*: We use symbols such as m, n, r, s, t to denote integers whose values are variable or unknown; we call these *integer variables*.

Factors

Let m and n be integers. Then we say that m is a *factor* of n (or a *divisor* of n), or that m *divides* n , if $n = k \cdot m$ for some positive integer k .

Prime numbers

A *prime number* is a positive integer n which has exactly two positive factors, namely 1 and n itself.

Example 1.1 *Prove that if $n > 3$ then not all three of $n, n + 2, n + 4$ can be primes.*

Rational numbers

A *rational number* is any number r that can be written in the form $\frac{m}{n}$ where m and n are integers and $n > 0$.

The integer m is called the *numerator* and the integer n is called the *denominator* of the rational number $r = \frac{m}{n}$.

The set of all rational numbers is denoted by \mathbb{Q} .

Example 1.2 5 , 0 , $\frac{2}{3}$ ($= \frac{-2}{3}$), and $\frac{11}{123}$ are rational numbers.

Every integer k is a rational number (because $k = \frac{k}{1}$).

1.2 Basic properties of integers

The following hold for all integers k , m and n :

Associative laws:

$$k + (m + n) = (k + m) + n \quad k \cdot (m \cdot n) = (k \cdot m) \cdot n$$

Commutative laws:

$$k + m = m + k \quad k \cdot m = m \cdot k$$

Identity laws:

$$k + 0 = k \quad k \cdot 1 = k$$

Distributive law:

$$k \cdot (m + n) = (k \cdot m) + (k \cdot n)$$

Other properties:

$$k + (-k) = 0 \quad k \cdot 0 = 0$$

Transitivity

If k is a factor of m , and m is a factor of n , then k is a factor of n .

Proof. If $m = ku$ and $n = mv$ for integers u and v , then $n = mv = (ku)v = k(uv)$, with $uv \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Anti-symmetry

Let m, n be integers such that $m > 0$ and $n > 0$: If m is a factor of n , and n is a factor of m , then $m = n$.

Proof. Since m is a factor of n we have $n = mk$ for some integer $k \geq 1$. Hence $m \leq n$. Similarly, if n is a factor of m then $n \leq m$. Thus $m \leq n$ and $n \leq m$, which together imply that $m = n$.

Notation and summary

We often write $m \mid n$ when m is a factor of n .

With this notation, we can summarise properties of the “factor” relation as follows. For all positive integers m and n :

- $n \mid n$ [reflexive]
- If $k \mid m$ and $m \mid n$ then $k \mid n$ [transitive]
- If $m \mid n$ and $n \mid m$ then $m = n$ [anti-symmetric]

Further exercises

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Prove the following statements.

- $a \mid 0$ for all $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$ then $a = \pm b$.
- If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$ then $a \mid (b + c)$.
- If $a \mid b$ then $ac \mid bc$.

Is it true that if $a \mid (bc)$ then either $a \mid b$ or $a \mid c$?

Warning: Do not confuse the *statement* (or *relation*) $a \mid b$ with the *number* a/b .

1.3 Finding all factors of a positive integer

Let n be a positive integer. How do we find all factors of n ?

But first, why would we want to find all factors of n ?

Secure data transmission (e.g. for internet banking) requires methods of encryption that are impervious to interception.

One of the principal methods (called the ‘RSA algorithm’) uses arithmetic based on integers expressible as product of two large prime numbers, and the difficulty of ‘cracking’ messages encrypted using this method relies on the difficulty of factorising large integers (with 300 digits or more).

Algorithm for finding all factors of a positive integer

For any positive integer n , let $\text{Factors}(n)$ denote the set of all (positive) factors of n .

For example, $\text{Factors}(90) = \{1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 15, 18, 30, 45, 90\}$.

Question: Given n , how do we find $\text{Factors}(n)$?

Simple algorithm — called $\text{FindFactors}(n)$:

Given the positive integer n as input,

1. Initialise $k = 1$;
2. if $k > n$ then stop; otherwise if $k \mid n$ then output k ;
3. Increment k by 1 (i.e. $k \leftarrow k + 1$), then go to step 2.

Algorithm correctness

An algorithm is called *correct* if it terminates and satisfies its specification — that is, if it does what it is expected to do.

This algorithm terminates after n steps, since k is incremented at each iteration.

Correctness in this case means that the algorithm should find all factors of n .

Proof of correctness of FindFactors(n):

- If m is a factor of n , then the algorithm outputs m when step 2 is executed for the m th time (that is, when $k = m$), and
- If m is an output of the algorithm, then by step 2 it must be a factor of n .

These two things ensure that m is an output of the algorithm if and only if m is a factor of n , so the algorithm is correct.

Lemma 1.1 *Let n be any positive integer, and also suppose that $n > 1$. If k is the smallest factor of n with $k > 1$, then k is prime.*

For example, the smallest factor of 15 is 3, which is prime.

Proof (by contradiction).

Let k be the smallest factor of n with $k > 1$. Suppose, for a contradiction, that k is NOT prime. Then k has some factor j with $1 < j < k$. But now $j \mid k$ and $k \mid n$, so $j \mid n$, and therefore j is a factor of n smaller than k , and with $j > 1$. This contradicts the definition of k . Hence the supposition that k was not prime is false, which completes the proof.

The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

This theorem is fundamental to the study of integers: Every integer $n > 1$ can be written as a product of prime numbers.

For example, $90 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ and $2016 = 2^5 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 7$.

We will discuss this theorem again in Section 6.2. There are many ways to prove this. One of them is to prove the correctness of the following ‘constructive’ algorithm:

Given the integer $n > 1$ as input,

1. Initialise $m = n$;
2. Find and output the smallest factor k of m with $k > 1$;
3. If $k = m$ then stop; otherwise replace m by $\frac{m}{k}$, and go to step 2.

Proof of correctness

The algorithm always terminates, since the value of m decreases each time that step (3) is executed, unless $k = m$.

Next, let the outputs of the algorithm be k_1, k_2, \dots, k_s , and let m_1, m_2, \dots, m_s be the corresponding values taken by m .

By Lemma 1.1 each k_i is prime, since it is the smallest factor of some integer m_i greater than 1.

Also $m_1 = n = k_1 \cdot m_2$, and then $m_2 = k_2 \cdot m_3$, and so on, until $m_{s-1} = k_{s-1} \cdot m_s$, and then $m_s = k_s \cdot 1 = k_s$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} n &= k_1 \cdot m_2 = k_1 \cdot k_2 \cdot m_3 = \dots = k_1 \cdot k_2 \cdot k_3 \cdot \dots \cdot k_{s-2} \cdot m_{s-1} \\ &= k_1 \cdot k_2 \cdot k_3 \cdot \dots \cdot k_{s-1} \cdot m_s = k_1 \cdot k_2 \cdot k_3 \cdot \dots \cdot k_{s-1} \cdot k_s, \end{aligned}$$

which gives n as a product of the primes k_1, k_2, \dots, k_s .

Example 1.3 Take $n = 90$. Then the algorithm proceeds as follows:

- $m = 90$ [initialisation];
- Output $k = 2$, and replace m by $\frac{90}{2} = 45$;
- Output $k = 3$, and replace m by $\frac{45}{3} = 15$;
- Output $k = 3$, and replace m by $\frac{15}{3} = 5$;
- Output $k = 5$, and stop [since $k = 5 = m$].

This algorithm gives $90 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$.

Example 1.4 Take $n = 63756$. Then the algorithm proceeds as follows:

- $m = 63756$ [initialisation];
- Output $k = 2$, and replace m by $\frac{63756}{2} = 31878$;
- Output $k = 2$, and replace m by $\frac{31878}{2} = 15939$;
- Output $k = 3$, and replace m by $\frac{15939}{3} = 5313$;
- Output $k = 3$, and replace m by $\frac{5313}{3} = 1771$;
- Output $k = 7$, and replace m by $\frac{1771}{7} = 253$;
- Output $k = 11$, and replace m by $\frac{253}{11} = 23$;
- Output $k = 23$, and stop [since $k = 23 = m$].

This algorithm gives $63756 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 \cdot 23$.

1.4 Common Divisors

Let m and n be positive integers.

A *common divisor* of m and n is any (positive) integer k that divides both m and n .

The *greatest common divisor* of m and n is the largest integer k that divides both m and n . It is denoted by $\gcd(m, n)$.

Example 1.5 The divisors of 18 are 1, 2, 3, 6, 9 and 18, and the divisors of 24 are 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12 and 24, and therefore the common divisors of 18 and 24 are 1, 2, 3 and 6.

The greatest common divisor is $\gcd(18, 24) = 6$

Lemma 1.2 If k is a common divisor of m and n , then k divides $am + bn$ for all integers a and b .

Proof. Since k divides m and n , we know that $m = kr$ and $n = ks$ for integers r and s . It then follows that

$$am + bn = a(kr) + b(ks) = k(ar + bs)$$

and therefore k divides $am + bn$. \square

As a corollary, also k divides $am - bn$ for all integers a and b (because we can simply replace b by $-b$ in the above proof).

Example 1.6 Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be an integer such that $m > 0$. Show that $\gcd(m, 0) = m$.

Does $\gcd(0, 0)$ make sense?

The Division Theorem (Quotient and Remainder)

Let m and n be integers with $n > 0$. There there exist integers q and r such that $m = qn + r$, with $0 \leq r < n$.

The integers q and r are called the *quotient* and *remainder* of m on division by n , respectively.

Note that the remainder r has to be less than n . Also note that n is a factor of m if and only if the remainder r is zero.

Proof: Consider all multiples of n in increasing order, namely

$$\dots, -4n, -3n, -2n, -n, 0, n, 2n, 3n, 4n, \dots$$

Among these, find the largest multiple qn of n with the property that $qn \leq m$, and then take $r = m - qn$.

Then $r \geq 0$ (because $m \geq qn$), and if $r \geq n$ then we have $m - qn = r \geq n$, and therefore $m \geq n + qn = (q + 1)n$.

But this shows there is a LARGER multiple $(q + 1)n$ of n with $(q + 1)n \leq m$, and so contradicts the choice of q .

Thus $m = qn + r$, and $0 \leq r < n$, as required.

Example 1.7 When we divide $m = 111$ by $n = 15$ we get $111 = 7 \cdot 15 + 6$, with quotient $q = 7$ and remainder $r = 6$.

1.5 The Euclidean algorithm

This is a fast algorithm for finding greatest common divisors. It was written down by Euclid in about 300BC, and re-discovered independently in India and China centuries later.

Euclidean algorithm

Let the input be positive integers m and n .

The main idea of the algorithm is that if $m = qn + r$ then

$$\gcd(m, n) = \gcd(n, r).$$

Termination of the algorithm is provided by the case $\gcd(m, 0) = m$.

We give the algorithm in detail:

1. If $m < n$, then set $a = n$ and $b = m$;
 or if $m > n$, then set $a = m$ and $b = n$;
 or if $m = n$, then output n as $\gcd(m, n)$ and stop;
 2. Apply the division theorem to find integers q and r such that $a = qb + r$, with $0 \leq r < b$;
 3. If $r = 0$ then output b as $\gcd(m, n)$ and stop; otherwise re-set $a = b$ and then re-set $b = r$, and go to step 2.
-

Example 1.8 Take $m = 120$ and $n = 25$. Then proceed as follows:

1. $a = 120$ and $b = 25$ [initialisation]
2. Find $120 = 4 \cdot 25 + 20$, and re-set $a = 25$ and $b = 20$;
3. Find $25 = 1 \cdot 20 + 5$, and re-set $a = 20$ and $b = 5$;
4. Find $20 = 4 \cdot 5 + 0$, output $b = 5$ and stop [since $r = 0$].

This algorithm gives $\gcd(120, 25) = 5$.

Example 1.9 Take $m = 148$ and $n = 784$. Then proceed as follows:

1. $a = 784$ and $b = 148$ [initialisation]
2. Find $784 = 5 \cdot 148 + 44$, and re-set $a = 148$ and $b = 44$;
3. Find $148 = 3 \cdot 44 + 16$, and re-set $a = 44$ and $b = 16$;
4. Find $44 = 2 \cdot 16 + 12$, and re-set $a = 16$ and $b = 12$;
5. Find $16 = 1 \cdot 12 + 4$, and re-set $a = 12$ and $b = 4$;
6. Find $12 = 3 \cdot 4 + 0$, output $b = 4$ and stop [since $r = 0$].

This algorithm gives $\gcd(148, 784) = 4$.

Analysis of the Euclidean Algorithm

First, we can observe that the values of a and b decrease each time that step (3) is executed, except when $r = 0$, and it follows that the algorithm always terminates.

Now suppose the algorithm terminates after t steps. We wish to show that the value output by the algorithm is the greatest common divisor of the integers a and b . The simplest way to show this is to write $a = bq + r$, where $0 \leq r < b$, and to note that the correctness of the algorithm follows from the correctness, at each iteration, of the statement

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r).$$

Lemma 1.3 Let a, b be positive integers and let $a = bq + r$ where $0 \leq r < b$. Then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Proof. Consider the sets $S_1 = \{d \in \mathbb{P} : d \mid a \wedge d \mid b\}$ and $S_2 = \{d \in \mathbb{P} : d \mid b \wedge d \mid r\}$. So S_1 is the set of common divisors of a and b , while S_2 is the set of common divisors of b and r . We will show that $S_1 = S_2$, and hence they have the same largest element.

So let $d \in S_1$. Then $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ and so by Lemma 1.2 we have that d is a divisor of $a - bq = r$. Hence $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r$ and so $d \in S_2$. Conversely, suppose $d \in S_2$. Then $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r$ and so $d \mid (bq + r) = a$. So $d \mid a$ and $d \in S_1$. It follows that $S_1 = S_2$. \square

Extended Euclidean Algorithm

The extended Euclidean algorithm computes not only the integer $d = \gcd(a, b)$, but also integers s, t such that $d = as + bt$. These integers are interesting for some applications. These integers can also be computed by “reversing” the calculations in Euclid’s algorithm.

Example 1.10 *Recall the calculations from Example 1.5. Working backwards we have*

$$\begin{aligned} 5 &= 25 - 1 \cdot 20 \\ &= 25 - 1 \cdot (120 - 4 \cdot 25) \\ &= 5 \cdot 25 - 1 \cdot 120. \end{aligned}$$

Example 1.11 *Using the calculations from Example 1.5 find integers s, t such that $148s + 784t = 4$.*

1.6 Congruences and modular arithmetic

Binary arithmetic

The set of integers can be partitioned into two subsets:

Even integers $\{ \dots, -8, -6, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, \dots \}$

Odd integers $\{ \dots, -7, -5, -3, -1, 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, \dots \}$

These are the sets of integers that leave remainder 0 or 1 on division by 2, respectively, so we can label them as $[0]$ and $[1]$.

We can write $[0] + [0] = [0]$, $[0] + [1] = [1]$, $[1] + [0] = [1]$ and $[1] + [1] = [0]$, to indicate that

- if m is even and n is even then $m + n$ is even,

- if m is even and n is odd then $m + n$ is odd,
- if m is odd and n is even then $m + n$ is odd,
- if m is odd and n is odd then $m + n$ is even.

Similarly, we write $[0] \cdot [0] = [0]$, $[0] \cdot [1] = [0]$, $[1] \cdot [0] = [0]$ and $[1] \cdot [1] = [1]$.

Integer congruence

Let m be any integer greater than 1.

We say that two integers a and b are *congruent modulo* m , and write $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, if a and b leave the same remainder on division by m .

Example 1.12 $17 \equiv 37 \pmod{10}$, since both leave remainder 7 on division by 10.

Similarly, $a \equiv b \pmod{2}$ if and only if a and b are both even (leaving remainder 0 on division by 2) or both odd (leaving remainder 1 on division by 2).

Generally, $n \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ if and only if n is a multiple of m (leaving remainder 0 on division by m).

Example 1.13 What are the integers congruent to 1 mod 3?

These are $\dots -14, -11, -8, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, \dots$.

Note that any two of these differ by a multiple of 3.

For example, $16 - 4 = 12 = 3 \cdot 4$, and $10 - (-8) = 18 = 3 \cdot 6$.

In general, we have $(3a+1) - (3b+1) = 3a - 3b = 3(a-b)$.

Theorem 1.1 $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a - b$ is a multiple of m

Proof: Suppose that division by m gives $a = qm + r$ and $b = sm + t$, with remainders r and t (both less than m). Then we have

$$a - b = (qm + r) - (sm + t) = (q - s)m + (r - t).$$

‘Only if’ part: If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then by definition, $r = t$, and so $a - b = (q - s)m$, which is a multiple of m .

‘If’ part: If $a - b$ is a multiple of m , then so is

$$(a - b) - (q - s)m = r - t.$$

But $0 \leq r < m$ and $0 \leq t < m$, so $-m < r - t < m$. Since the only multiple of m strictly between $-m$ and $+m$ is 0, it follows that $r - t = 0$, so $r = t$, and thus $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$. \square

Properties of congruence mod m

- $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$ [*reflexive*]
- If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ then $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$ [*symmetric*]
- If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$ then $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ [*transitive*]

These are easy to prove from the definition of congruence mod m (viz. leaving the same remainder on division by m).

Congruence classes

Let k be any integer greater than 1, and let m be any integer.

By the division theorem, we have $m = qk + r$ with $0 \leq r < k$. Then the set of all integers congruent to $m \pmod{k}$ is the set of all integers leaving remainder r on division by k , namely

$$\dots, -3k+r, -2k+r, -k+r, r, k+r, 2k+r, 3k+r, \dots$$

This set is called the *congruence class* of $m \pmod{k}$, and is denoted by $[m]$.

Note that $[m]$ contains m (since $m = qk + r$). Also $[m] = [r]$, and more generally, $[m] = [n]$ if and only if $m \equiv n \pmod{k}$.

The number of congruence classes mod k is k

Let k be any integer greater than 1. Then we know that for any integer m , the congruence class $[m]$ consists of all integers leaving the same remainder r as m on division by k , and in particular, $[m] = [r]$, where $0 \leq r < k$.

It follows that every integer m lies in exactly one of the k congruence classes $[0], [1], [2], \dots, [k-1]$.

Example 1.14 *there are just two congruence classes mod 2, namely*

$$\begin{aligned} [0] &= \{ \dots, -8, -6, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, 6, \dots \} && \text{even integers} \\ [1] &= \{ \dots, -7, -5, -3, -1, 1, 3, 5, 7, \dots \} && \text{odd integers.} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the ten congruence classes mod 10 are

$$\begin{aligned} [0] &= \{ \dots, -50, -40, -30, -20, -10, 0, 10, 20, 30, 40, \dots \} \\ [1] &= \{ \dots, -49, -39, -29, -19, -9, 1, 11, 21, 31, 41, \dots \} \\ [2] &= \{ \dots, -48, -38, -28, -18, -8, 2, 12, 22, 32, 42, \dots \} \\ [3] &= \{ \dots, -47, -37, -27, -17, -7, 3, 13, 23, 33, 43, \dots \} \\ [4] &= \{ \dots, -46, -36, -26, -16, -6, 4, 14, 24, 34, 44, \dots \} \\ [5] &= \{ \dots, -45, -35, -25, -15, -5, 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, \dots \} \\ [6] &= \{ \dots, -44, -34, -24, -14, -4, 6, 16, 26, 36, 46, \dots \} \\ [7] &= \{ \dots, -43, -33, -23, -13, -3, 7, 17, 27, 37, 47, \dots \} \\ [8] &= \{ \dots, -42, -32, -22, -12, -2, 8, 18, 28, 38, 48, \dots \} \\ [9] &= \{ \dots, -41, -31, -21, -11, -1, 9, 19, 29, 39, 49, \dots \}. \end{aligned}$$

Some more exercises

Fix $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ be such that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$. Show that

1. $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$.
2. $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$.
3. $a^k \equiv b^k \pmod{m}$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Logic and Proofs

2.1 Introduction to logic

A *proposition* is a statement which is either true or false.
For example:

1. “The sun is a star.”
2. “The moon is made of cheese.”
3. “ $2 + 2 = 4$.”
4. “ $2 + 3 = 7$.”
5. “Every even integer greater than 4 is the sum of two prime numbers.”
6. “ $2 > 3$ or $2 < 3$.”
7. “If the world is flat then $2 + 2 = 4$.”

We only insist that the statement is true or false, we do not need to know which it is. Notice that the last two examples are formed by combining simpler propositions, namely “ $2 > 3$ ”, “ $2 < 3$ ”, “The world is flat”, and “ $2 + 2 = 4$ ”. A proposition which has been built up in this way is called a *compound* proposition, as opposed to a *simple* proposition which cannot be split into simpler propositions.

Example 2.1 *Identify which of the following are propositions, and which are not:*

1. “ $2x = 100$ ”
2. “ $2x = 100$ for some integer x ”
3. “Shake well before opening”
4. “CompSci 225 is the best course at the University of Auckland”
5. “John Key is the Prime Minister of New Zealand”

SOLUTION. *Statements 1, 3, and 4 are not propositions. Statements 2 and 5 are propositions.*

Notation

We use letters like p , q and r to stand for simple propositions: we call these *propositional variables*. We usually use capital letters like A , B and C to denote compound propositions, or propositions which might be simple or might be compound.

Connectives

When we want to build more complicated propositions out of simpler ones, we use *connectives*. If A and B are propositions, then so are the following:

$$\neg A \quad A \wedge B \quad A \vee B \quad A \rightarrow B \quad A \leftrightarrow B$$

We read these as “not A ”, “ A and B ”, “ A or B ”, “ A implies B ” (or “if A then B ”) and “ A is equivalent to B ” (or “ A if and only if B ”) respectively. We can combine compound propositions into more and more complicated propositions. For example, if p denotes the proposition “It is raining”, q denotes the proposition “The sun is shining” and r denotes the proposition “There is a rainbow”, then $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow r$ represents the proposition “If it is raining and the sun is shining, then there is a rainbow”, while $(p \wedge \neg r) \rightarrow \neg q$ represents the proposition “If it is raining and there is no rainbow, then the sun is not shining”.

Example 2.2 *How can the following advertising slogan be translated into a logical expression?*

“If you drink and drive, you’re a bloody idiot.”

SOLUTION. Let p denote the proposition “You drink”.
 Let q denote the proposition “You drive”.
 Let r denote the proposition “You’re a bloody idiot”.
 Then the slogan can be expressed as

$$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow r$$

Example 2.3 *How can the following English sentence be translated into a logical expression?*

“You cannot go to the pub if you are under 18 years old, unless you are accompanied by a parent.”

2.2 Truth values

We refer to the truth or falsity of a proposition as its *truth value*. The truth value of a compound proposition depends only on the truth or falsity of the propositions from which it was built, according to rules which we can give for each connective. We will consider these in detail later, but we can summarize them in the following table, which we call a “truth table”. In this table, 0 represents “false” and 1 represents “true”.

A	B	$\neg A$	$A \wedge B$	$A \vee B$	$A \rightarrow B$	$A \leftrightarrow B$
0	0	1	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1	1

Truth

The truth value of a compound proposition depends on the truth values of the propositions it was built from, according to the following rules:

- $\neg A$ is false if A is true, and it is true if A is false.
 - $A \wedge B$ is true if both A and B are true; otherwise it is false.
 - $A \vee B$ is true if either A or B is true, or if both are true (so \vee represents “inclusive or”).
 - $A \rightarrow B$ is true unless A is true and B is false. [This rule may seem odd—why is $(0 = 1) \rightarrow (2 + 2 = 5)$ true? This rule is a standard convention in logic. To help make sense of it, consider the statement “For any real number x , if $x > 2$ then $x^2 > 4$ ”. Try substituting the values $x = 1$ and $x = -3$ into “if $x > 2$ then $x^2 > 4$ ”.]
 - $A \leftrightarrow B$ is true if A and B have the same truth value, and false otherwise.
-

Example 2.4 Suppose that the implication “if it snows today, then we will go skiing” and its hypothesis, “it is snowing today,” are true. What is the truth value of the conclusion of the implication? (This rule is known as modus ponens.)

Modus Ponens can be written as $(p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \implies q$.

Truth tables

Using these rules, we can build up the truth table for any compound proposition. For example, here are the truth tables for $p \rightarrow (q \vee \neg r)$ and $(p \rightarrow q) \vee (q \rightarrow r)$.

p	q	r	$\neg r$	$q \vee \neg r$	$p \rightarrow (q \vee \neg r)$
0	0	0	1	1	1
0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	0	1	1

p	q	r	$(p \rightarrow q)$	\vee	$(q \rightarrow r)$
0	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	1	1	1

The second style becomes more useful as the propositions get more complicated. The column between the vertical lines gives the truth value of the whole proposition.

Example 2.5 Write out the truth table for $p \rightarrow (q \vee r)$.

Example 2.6 Let

p : Blaise Pascal invented several calculating machines,

q : The first all-electronic digital computer was constructed in the twentieth century,

r : π was calculated to 1,000,000 decimal digits in 1954.

Represent the following proposition symbolically and construct a truth table.

Either Blaise Pascal invented several calculating machines and it is not the case that the first all-electronic digital computer was constructed in the twentieth century: or π was calculated to 1,000,000 decimal digits in 1954,

Other connectives

We can define some other useful binary connectives besides the ones we have already mentioned. The most useful ones are \oplus , NAND and NOR, which denote “exclusive or”, “not-and” and “not-or”. Thus $A \oplus B$ is true if and only if either A is true or B is true, but not both. Also $A \text{ NAND } B$ is true if and only if $A \wedge B$ is false, and $A \text{ NOR } B$ is true if and only if $A \vee B$ is false.

Example 2.7 Complete the following truth table:

p	q	$p \oplus q$	$p \text{ NAND } q$	$p \text{ NOR } q$
0	0			
0	1			
1	0			
1	1			

2.3 Tautologies, contradictions and contingent propositions

A *tautology* is a proposition that is always true, no matter what truth values we assign to the propositional variables it contains. For example, the earlier example shows that $(p \rightarrow q) \vee (q \rightarrow r)$ is a tautology. A *contradiction* is a proposition that is always false, no matter what truth values we assign to the propositional variables it contains. A proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction is said to be *contingent*. Here are some examples.

1. $p \vee \neg p$ is a tautology.
2. $p \rightarrow p$ is a tautology.
3. $p \wedge \neg p$ is a contradiction.
4. $\neg(p \rightarrow q) \wedge \neg p$ is a contradiction.
5. $p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r)$ is contingent.
6. $p \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$ is contingent.

2.4 Logical equivalence and logical implication

Two propositions A and B are *logically equivalent*, written $A \Leftrightarrow B$, if, whenever we assign truth values to the propositional variables they contain, A and B have the same truth value. Thus $A \Leftrightarrow B$ holds if and only if $A \Leftrightarrow B$ is a tautology. To decide whether or not two propositions are logically equivalent, we can use truth tables. For example, to show that $p \rightarrow q \Leftrightarrow \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$, we build up the following truth table:

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$\neg q$	\rightarrow	$\neg p$
0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	0	1	0

Notice that columns 3 and 5 are identical.

Alternatively, we can try to convert one to the other using the following standard logical equivalences:

$\neg\neg p$	\Leftrightarrow	p	Double negation
$p \wedge q$	\Leftrightarrow	$q \wedge p$	Commutative laws
$p \vee q$	\Leftrightarrow	$q \vee p$	
$p \wedge (q \wedge r)$	\Leftrightarrow	$(p \wedge q) \wedge r$	Associative laws
$p \vee (q \vee r)$	\Leftrightarrow	$(p \vee q) \vee r$	
$p \wedge (q \vee r)$	\Leftrightarrow	$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	Distributive laws
$p \vee (q \wedge r)$	\Leftrightarrow	$(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$	
$p \wedge p$	\Leftrightarrow	p	Idempotent laws
$p \vee p$	\Leftrightarrow	p	
$\neg(p \wedge q)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\neg p \vee \neg q$	De Morgan's laws
$\neg(p \vee q)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\neg p \wedge \neg q$	
$p \rightarrow q$	\Leftrightarrow	$\neg p \vee q$	Implication laws
$p \rightarrow q$	\Leftrightarrow	$\neg(p \wedge \neg q)$	

For example, we can show that $p \rightarrow q \Leftrightarrow \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 p \rightarrow q &\Leftrightarrow \neg p \vee q \\
 &\Leftrightarrow q \vee \neg p \\
 &\Leftrightarrow \neg\neg q \vee \neg p \\
 &\Leftrightarrow \neg q \rightarrow \neg p
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 2.8 Show that $\neg(p \vee q)$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ are logically equivalent. This equivalence is one of De Morgan's laws

for propositions, named after the English mathematician Augustus De Morgan, of the mid-19th century.

Example 2.9 Use De Morgan's laws (and the other logic laws) to expand and simplify the negations of these statements.

1. $p \wedge \neg q$
2. $(p \rightarrow q)$
3. $(p \vee \neg q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)$
4. $(p \wedge \neg q \wedge \neg r) \vee \neg(q \vee \neg r)$.

Logical implication

Let A and B be propositions. We say that A *logically implies* B , written $A \Rightarrow B$, if, whenever we assign truth values to the propositional variables they contain, if A is true then B is also true. Thus $A \Rightarrow B$ if and only if $A \rightarrow B$ is a tautology, and $A \Leftrightarrow B$ if and only if $A \Rightarrow B$ and $B \Rightarrow A$. That is, $A \Leftrightarrow B$ if and only if $A \leftrightarrow B$ is a tautology.

To clarify, the symbol \rightarrow is a logical operation (defined using a truth table) while the symbol \Rightarrow usually denotes some process of deduction.

2.5 Introduction to proofs

Mathematics is different from many other facets of life, as it is based on logic and proof. One of the most important reasons to study mathematics is to improve your ability to think logically, precisely, carefully and critically.

Definitions

An important principle in mathematics is the need for precise definitions. Every technical word or symbol in mathematics has a precise definition. It must be unambiguous whether an object satisfies a definition or not.

Example 2.10 Which of the following are good definitions?

1. An integer is even if it is something like 2 or 4.
2. An integer n is even if there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k$.
3. An integer n is even if there exists an integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$.
4. An integer n is even if $n \in A$.
5. An integer n is even if $\sin(n) = \cos(n) = 0$.

Theorems

A *theorem* is a mathematical statement that is true.

Theorems are essentially conditional statements, although the wording of a theorem may obscure this fact. Since theorems are conditional then we have to start doing mathematics with some initial facts that are assumed to be true: these are given by definitions and axioms.

There are several basic types of theorem:

- ‘ a is a B ’ (i.e., the object a satisfies the definition B).
- ‘if A then B ’ (i.e., if a is an object that satisfies definition A then it also satisfies definition B).
- ‘there is an a that satisfies B ’ (i.e., a definition is not vacuous).

Example 2.11 Theorem: 8 is an even integer.

Example 2.12 Theorem: If n is even then n^2 is even.

Example 2.13 Theorem: Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. A set with n elements has exactly 2^n subsets. (In this wording the theorem does not seem to be a conditional statement; express this theorem as a conditional statement.)

Example 2.14 *Theorem:* Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. There exists a set with n elements.

Hypothesis and conclusion

When the theorem is expressed as a conditional statement $A \rightarrow B$ then A is called the *hypothesis* and B is called the *conclusion* of the theorem.

Proofs

Mathematics is about facts (theorems). The interesting question is how do facts become “accepted” or “agreed” as part of mathematics. The discoverer of a mathematical fact is required to communicate their ideas to the wider community of mathematicians. But mathematicians are a hard audience to please: they are sceptical and don’t want to be fooled. So they do not simply believe everything that they are told is true. Mathematicians first insist on precise definitions before even agreeing that a claim is meaningful. Then, mathematicians are not convinced that a statement is true until a precise, rigorous, logical argument has been provided and checked: a mathematical proof. The ability to think logically and to read proofs not only increases mathematical understanding, but also hones skills that can be used in other situations. In this section we will discuss some basic methods of proof.

Direct proofs

By a *proof* of a theorem we mean a logical argument that establishes the theorem to be true.

The most natural form of proof is a *direct* proof.

Suppose that we wish to prove the theorem $P \rightarrow Q$. Since $P \rightarrow Q$ is true whenever P is false, we need only show that whenever P is true, so is Q .

Therefore:

in a direct proof we assume that the hypothesis of the theorem, P , is true and demonstrate that the conclusion, Q is true.

It then follows that $P \rightarrow Q$ is always true.

Examples with integers

We will illustrate some types of proofs by proving certain elementary facts about the integers. (Later on we will prove results about Sets and Graphs using the same types of proofs). We will use the following two definitions.

1. An integer n is called *even* if it can be written in the form $n = 2k$ for some integer k .
2. An integer n is called *odd* if it can be written in the form $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

Example 2.15 *Prove the theorem: $n = 7$ is an odd integer.*

Example 2.16 *Prove the theorem: If n is an odd integer then $n + 1$ is an even integer.*

We will also use the fact that every integer is either even or odd but not both. The following theorem is proved using a direct proof.

Example 2.17 *Prove the theorem: If n is an even integer, then n^2 is an even integer.*

Example 2.18 *Is the following argument correct? It supposedly shows that n is an even integer whenever n^2 is an even integer.*

Suppose that n^2 is even. Then $n^2 = 2k$ for some integer k . Let $n = 2l$ for some integer l . This shows that n is even.

Example 2.19 *Prove the theorem: If x is a real number and $x^2 - 1 = 0$, then $x = -1$ or $x = 1$.*

Law of syllogism

Many proofs use the law of syllogism, which states

$$[(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)] \Rightarrow (p \rightarrow r).$$

Example 2.20 Suppose that x is some fixed real number, and let p , q , r and s be the statements

$$p: x^2 - 1 = 0$$

$$r: (x + 1)(x - 1) = 0$$

$$s: x + 1 = 0 \text{ or } x - 1 = 0$$

$$q: x = -1 \text{ or } x = 1.$$

Write out the logical expression established in the previous example. Hence, by two applications of the law of syllogism we conclude that $p \Rightarrow q$, that is, the theorem is proved.

2.6 Proofs by contraposition and contradiction

The law of contrapositive

The *contrapositive law* states that the statements $p \rightarrow q$ and $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$ are logically equivalent.

To prove a theorem $p \rightarrow q$ by this method, we give a direct proof of the statement $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$ by assuming $\neg q$ and proving $\neg p$. The contrapositive law allows us to conclude that $p \rightarrow q$.

Example 2.21 Find the contrapositive of the statement:

If I have studied hard enough, I will find the exam easy.

SOLUTION. *If I find the exam difficult, then I didn't study hard enough.*

Example 2.22 Prove the following theorem using the law of contrapositive: If $x + y > 100$, then $x > 50$ or $y > 50$.

Example 2.23 Prove the following theorem using the law of contrapositive: If n is an integer and n^2 is even, then n is even.

Proof by contradiction

A very different style of proof is *proof by contradiction*.

To prove the theorem $p \rightarrow q$: Assume p and $\neg q$ are true and deduce a false statement r . Since $(p \wedge \neg q) \rightarrow r$ is true but r is false, we can conclude that the premise $p \wedge \neg q$ of this conditional statement is false. But then its negation $\neg(p \wedge \neg q)$ is true, which is logically equivalent to the desired statement $p \rightarrow q$.

Example 2.24 Show that $\neg(p \wedge \neg q)$ is logically equivalent to $p \rightarrow q$.

Example 2.25 Prove by contradiction: If n is the sum of the squares of two odd integers, then n is not a perfect square.

Proving this theorem by contradiction seems natural because the theorem expresses a negative idea (that n is not a perfect square). Thus, when we negate the conclusion, we obtain the positive statement that n is a perfect square.

Example 2.26 Prove by contradiction that there is no rational number r such that $r^2 = 2$.

Recall that a rational number is one that can be written as the quotient of two integers. Note also that the theorem to be proved can be written as the conditional statement: If r is a rational number, then $r^2 \neq 2$. Again proving this theorem by contradiction seems natural because the theorem expresses a negative idea (that r^2 is not equal to 2). Thus, when we negate the conclusion, we obtain the positive statement that there is a rational number r such that $r^2 = 2$.

Example 2.27 Prove by contradiction that there are infinitely many prime numbers.

SOLUTION. (This proof is due to the great Euclid, who lived around 300 BC in ancient Greece.)

Assume, for a contradiction, that there are finitely many primes. Write them as $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ for some natural number n . Consider

the number $q = p_1 p_2 \dots p_n + 1$. By its construction, q is not divisible by any of the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n . Hence, q must itself be prime or it must be divisible by another prime that is not in the set $\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$. In either case, we find a prime that is not in our original set. Hence we achieve our contradiction.

If and only if statements

To prove: A if and only if B then we need to prove $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow A$. Sometimes “if and only if” is abbreviated as “iff”.

Example 2.28 *Prove that n is even if and only if n^2 is even.*

2.7 Counterexamples and proof by cases

Proof by cases

There are other types of proofs as well. One method of proof that is quite important in discrete mathematics is proof by *mathematical induction*, which is discussed later in the course. Another type of proof is a proof by cases, in which the theorem to be proved is subdivided into parts, each of which is proved separately. The next example demonstrates this technique.

Example 2.29 *Show that if n is an integer then $n^3 - n$ is even. (Since every integer n is either even or odd, consider these two cases.)*

Example 2.30 *Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Prove that $|xy| = |x| \cdot |y|$.*

Counterexamples

To close this section, we will briefly consider the problem of disproving a statement $p \rightarrow q$, that is, of showing that it is false. A conditional statement is false only when its premise is true and its conclusion is false, we must find an instance in which p is true and q is false. Such an instance is called a *counter-example* to the statement.

Example 2.31 *For example, consider the statement: If an integer n is the sum of the squares of two even integers, then n is not a perfect square. To disprove this statement, find a counterexample.*

2.8 Proof by construction

This method is a much more ‘positive’ method than proof by contradiction. It is a method for proving the existence of certain objects, by actually finding one.

Example 2.32 *Prove that for every positive integer k there exists a positive integer n greater than k such that the remainder of n when divided by 5 is 1.*

We can prove it by constructing such a positive integer n . Simply take $n = 5k + 1$. This is greater than k , and when we divide n by 5 we get remainder 1.

2.9 Language in proofs

Human understanding and communication rely on language. The purpose of a proof is to communicate the truth of a statement through language. Remember that a proof is supposed to convince a sceptical reader that a statement is true. The right way to read a proof is to not believe it, but to challenge the proof and argue with it, and to try to break it. The right way to write a proof is to make the argument so clear and natural that no-one can doubt that the statement is true. To write a beautiful and convincing proof you should give the reader clues to what is going on both locally and in the proof as a whole. In the previous sections we looked at the proof structure as a whole; now we look at the usage of ordinary English, which mostly gives the local information about the proof.

Rules of thumb for proofs

1. Tell the reader from the start what the general approach of the proof will be.
2. Introduce names for objects before you use them. Ensure that every technical word has a precise meaning that has been defined earlier (or is standard terminology in the subject).
3. Use words like “hence”, “therefore”, “thus”, “so”, “then”, “note,” “recall” etc as signposts.

A proof that is well laid-out and signposted is much easier to read.

We now outline some starting statements and end cues that you might use in some common proof formats.

Direct proof

To Prove: Implication $p \rightarrow q$. If p true then q true.

Method: Assume p true and deduce q true.

Start Cues: “We prove directly ...”, “Let p be as in the statement”.

End Cues: “ q , as required.” “Q.E.D.”, \square , “...as was to be shown” / Restatement of the result.

The logical structure of direct proof is the most simple-minded and most common: assume the hypothesis or hypotheses and deduce the conclusion. Direct proof is frequently cued in the first sentence.

The “Q.E.D.” abbreviating the Latin “Quod Erat Demonstrandum” that you may have seen or written ought to be a reliable cue to the end of a direct proof.

Proof by contraposition

To Prove: Implication $p \rightarrow q$. If p (true) then q (true).

Method: Prove “ $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$ ”. Assume not q , deduce not p .

Start Cues: “We prove the contrapositive”, “We show not q implies not p ”, “We procede indirectly”, “Assume not q ...”

End Cues: “So, by contraposition”, Restatement of the original ‘ $p \rightarrow q$ ’

The thing to remember is that once you start down this path assuming $\neg q$ and deducing $\neg p$, the proof is really a direct one, although something different than what you started with.

Proof by contradiction

To Prove: Implication $p \rightarrow q$. If p then q .

Method: Assume p AND not q , deduce a contradiction

Start Cues: “We prove by contradiction”, “Assume, for a contradiction”, “Suppose (not q)”

End Cues: “Which is a contradiction. Hence q must be true, which completes the proof.”

Proof by cases**To Prove:** $(p \vee q) \rightarrow r$ **Method:** Prove $p \rightarrow r$, then prove $q \rightarrow r$ **Start Cues:** “We prove by cases ...”**Case start:** “Case 1 (2, ...)”, “In the first case”**Case end:** “... finishes Case 1”, “So we are done in the first case”**End Cues:** “So in either case ...”**2.10 Predicate calculus**

Consider the argument “All men are mortal. Socrates is a man. Therefore, Socrates is mortal.” If we treat the three statements “All men are mortal”, “Socrates is a man” and “Socrates is mortal” as propositions, we see that none of them can be broken down into simpler propositions. So, as an argument in propositional logic, we have to treat it as $p \wedge q \rightarrow r$, which is clearly invalid in general. On the other hand, the reasoning seems sound. The problem is that our propositional logic does not take into account the meaning of the propositions we are looking at, and therefore does not take into account the possibility that the truth values of p , q and r are not independent of one another.

A *predicate* is a function on some domain D such that $P(x)$ is a proposition/statement for each value $x \in D$.

For example, for $D = \mathbb{N}$, $P(n)$ could be any of

1. n is even.
2. n is prime
3. $n = 3$
4. $n > 512$
5. $1 + 2 + \cdots + n = n(n+1)/2$

These are not predicates $P(n)$:

1. $n = x$
2. $1 + 2 + \cdots + n = n(n+1)/2$ for all n

A statement like $p(n)$ that includes the variable n is not a proposition, since it cannot be said to be true or false until we know what n is. There are two ways we can turn it into a proposition. The first is to substitute in some particular value of n , to get propositions like $p(4)$ and $p(17)$. The other way is to *quantify* the predicate. To do this we use one of the two quantifiers \forall and \exists . The first of these, \forall , is called the *universal quantifier*. It means

“For all —”, or “For every —”. So, for example, the statement $\forall n p(n)$ means “For every n , n is even”. The second quantifier, \exists , is called the *existential quantifier*. It means “For some —”, or “There exists — such that”. For example, $\exists n p(n)$ means “There is some n such that n is even”. So in this case $\forall n p(n)$ is false, whereas $\exists n p(n)$ is true. Sometimes we make the domain of definition more explicit: for example, we could have written these examples as $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} (p(n))$ and $\exists n \in \mathbb{N} (p(n))$.

If we quantify a predicate p to get a proposition, the truth value of a resulting proposition depends on the truth values of the various propositions $p(d)$ for the elements d of the domain of definition. To be precise, $\forall x p(x)$ is true if $p(d)$ is true for *every* element d of the domain of definition of p . On the other hand, $\exists x p(x)$ is true if $p(d)$ is true for *at least one* element d of the domain of definition.

We now return to the example about Socrates. There are essentially two predicates under consideration, namely “— is a man” and “— is mortal”. We will denote the first of these by p and the second by q . We will also introduce the *constant symbol* a to stand for the individual Socrates. Then the argument becomes $\forall x(p(x) \rightarrow q(x)), p(a), \therefore q(a)$.

Example 2.33 Consider the following statements (this example is due to Lewis Carroll, and is discussed in Rosen’s book). The first two are called premises and the third is called the conclusion. The entire set is called an argument.

“All lions are fierce”
 “Some lions do not drink coffee.”
 “Some fierce creatures do not drink coffee.”

Let $P(x)$, $Q(x)$, and $R(x)$ be the statements “ x is a lion,” “ x is fierce,” and “ x drinks coffee,” respectively. Assuming that the universe of discourse is the set of all creatures, express the statements in the argument using quantifiers and $P(x)$, $Q(x)$, and $R(x)$.

Example 2.34 The following is a well known quote from Shakespeare:

All that glitters is not gold

What exactly is the meaning of this statement? Do you think that the proposition is true or false?

Example 2.35 Consider the following argument:

*All humans make mistakes.
I do not make mistakes.
I am not a human.*

Express this argument using quantifiers.

SOLUTION. Let $p(x)$ be the statement " x is human".
Let $q(x)$ be the statement " x makes mistakes".
The statement "All humans make mistakes" is $\forall x, p(x) \rightarrow q(x)$.
Let the constant symbol a stand for the individual "I".
Then the argument becomes:

$$(\forall x(p(x) \rightarrow q(x))) \wedge \neg q(a) \rightarrow \neg p(a).$$

Free and bound variables

We refer to the variable n in a predicate $p(n)$ as a *free* variable. This is because we are free to substitute any particular value of n to get a proposition. In contrast, the variables n in $\forall n p(n)$ or in $\exists n p(n)$ are called *bound* variables. They are bound by the quantifiers, so we cannot substitute particular values in.

Predicates with more than one variable

We allow predicates to have two or more variables. For example, we may use $p(x, y)$ to denote the predicate " x is greater than y ", (" $x > y$ ") with domain of definition the set $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$. Then x and y are both free variables in $p(x, y)$. We can quantify either one of the variables, or we can quantify both of them. For example, $\forall y p(x, y)$ is a predicate that has only one free variable, namely x . In this case, it means " x is greater than every real number". Of course, this is false for every real number x (since $p(x, x + 1)$ is false), so $\exists x \forall y p(x, y)$ is a false proposition. On the other hand, consider the predicate $\exists x p(x, y)$, which has y as its only free variable. This means "Some real number is greater than y ". This is true for every y , since for example $p(y + 1, y)$ holds. So the proposition $\forall y \exists x p(x, y)$ is true. This example shows that we have to be careful about the order of the quantifiers: $\exists x \forall y p(x, y)$ and $\forall y \exists x p(x, y)$ do not have the same truth value.

If the predicate has more than one variable, it is not necessary for the domains of definition for the different variables to be the same. For example, if P denotes the set of all people, then we can use $p(x, y)$ to denote the relation "person x is more than y years old", with domain of definition $P \times \mathbb{N}$. Of course, if we intend to use both $p(x, y)$ and $p(y, x)$ then the domains should be the same.

Example 2.36 Suppose we define the predicates $p(x, y)$ for “ x knows y ”, $q(x, y)$ for “ x likes y ”, $r(x)$ for “ x is rich” and $s(x)$ for “ x is famous”, and the constant symbol a for Andrew. Here are some examples of statements we can translate into predicate logic.

- Everybody knows Andrew: $\forall x p(x, a)$.
- Everybody who knows Andrew likes him: $\forall x (p(x, a) \rightarrow q(x, a))$.
- Nobody likes a person who is famous but not rich: $\forall x \forall y ((s(x) \wedge \neg r(x)) \rightarrow \neg q(y, x))$.
- Some famous people are not rich: $\exists x (s(x) \wedge \neg r(x))$.
- Not every rich person is famous: either $\neg \forall x (r(x) \rightarrow s(x))$ or $\exists x (r(x) \wedge \neg s(x))$.
- Everybody likes anybody who is rich: $\forall x \forall y (r(y) \rightarrow q(x, y))$ or $\forall y (r(y) \rightarrow \forall x q(x, y))$.
- Andrew likes everybody who is not rich: $\forall x (\neg r(x) \rightarrow q(a, x))$.
- Everybody likes somebody: $\forall x \exists y q(x, y)$.

Notice that we actually translate “Some famous people are not rich” as “At least one famous person is not rich”.

Example 2.37 Let $Q(x, y, z)$ be the statement “ $x + y = z$ ”. What are the truth values of the statements

$$\forall x \forall y \exists z Q(x, y, z) \quad \text{and} \quad \exists z \forall x \forall y Q(x, y, z)?$$

Example 2.38 Use quantifiers to express the statement “There is a woman who has taken a flight on every airline in the world.”

2.11 * Tautologies and implications in predicate logic

A proposition in predicate logic that is always true, no matter what the domains of definition and meaning of the predicates it contains (so long as the domains of definition are non-empty) is said to be a *tautology*.

Example 2.39

1. $\forall x \forall y (p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y, x))$ is not a tautology.
2. $\exists x \exists y (p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y, x))$ is a tautology.
3. $\exists x \forall y p(x, y) \rightarrow \forall y \exists x p(x, y)$ is a tautology.
4. $\forall y \exists x p(x, y) \rightarrow \exists x \forall y p(x, y)$ is not a tautology.

Proof:

1. To show that a proposition is *not* a tautology, we need to find some domain of definition and some meaning for the predicate in which the proposition is false. In this case we can take the domain to be \mathbb{R} and $p(x, y)$ to be “ $x > y$ ”. Then $p(1, 0)$ is true and $p(0, 1)$ is false, so $p(1, 0) \rightarrow p(0, 1)$ is false. Thus there is some y such that $p(1, y) \rightarrow p(y, 1)$ is false, so $\forall y (p(1, y) \rightarrow p(y, 1))$ is false. Therefore there is some x for which $\forall y (p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y, x))$ is false, so $\forall x \forall y (p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y, x))$ is false. Thus $\forall x \forall y (p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y, x))$ is not a tautology.
2. To show that a proposition *is* a tautology, we need to show it is true in any non-empty domain of definition and any meaning of the predicate. So let D be a non-empty set, and let $p(x, y)$ be a predicate with domain of definition $D \times D$. Then, since D is non-empty, we can find some $d \in D$. Now $p(d, d)$ is either true or it is false: either way, $p(d, d) \rightarrow p(d, d)$ is true. Therefore there is some $y \in D$ such that $p(d, y) \rightarrow p(y, d)$ is true, so $\exists y (p(d, y) \rightarrow p(y, d))$ is true. Thus there is some $x \in D$ such that $\exists y (p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y, x))$ is true, so $\exists x \exists y (p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y, x))$ is true. Since this is true for any domain D and any predicate p , $\exists x \exists y (p(x, y) \rightarrow p(y, x))$ is a tautology.
3. Exercise
4. Exercise

Some implications

Recall that we say propositions A and B are *logically equivalent* (written $A \Leftrightarrow B$) if $A \leftrightarrow B$ is a tautology, in other words if A and B must have the same truth value. We say that A *logically implies* B (written $A \Rightarrow B$) if

$A \rightarrow B$ is a tautology, in other words, if A is true then B must be true.

Example 2.40

1. $\forall x p(x) \Rightarrow \exists x p(x)$.
2. $\forall x \forall y p(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \forall y \forall x p(x, y)$.
3. $\exists x \exists y p(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \exists y \exists x p(x, y)$.

Proof:

1. Let D be a non-empty set and let p be a predicate with domain of definition D . Suppose $\forall x p(x)$ is true. Since $D \neq \emptyset$, there is some $x \in D$. Then $p(x)$ is true, so $\exists x p(x)$ is true.
2. Let D and E be non-empty sets, and let p be a predicate with domain of definition $D \times E$. Then $\forall x \forall y p(x, y)$ is true if and only if $p(x, y)$ is true for every $(x, y) \in D \times E$, and the same holds for $\forall y \forall x p(x, y)$. So $\forall x \forall y p(x, y)$ and $\forall y \forall x p(x, y)$ always have the same truth value.
3. Exercise.

Negating quantifiers

1. $\neg(\forall n, p(n)) \Leftrightarrow \exists n, (\neg p(n))$
2. $\neg(\exists n, p(n)) \Leftrightarrow \forall n, (\neg p(n))$

Proof:

1. Let D be a non-empty set and let p be a predicate with domain of definition D . Suppose $\neg \forall x p(x)$ is true. Then $\forall x p(x)$ is false, in other words it is not the case that $p(x)$ is true for every $x \in D$. So there must be some $x \in D$ for which $p(x)$ is false. Then $\neg p(x)$ is true, so $\exists x \neg p(x)$ is true.

On the other hand, if $\neg \forall x p(x)$ is false, then $\forall x p(x)$ is true, so $p(x)$ is true for every $x \in D$. Thus $\neg p(x)$ is false for every $x \in D$, in other words there is no $x \in D$ for which $\neg p(x)$ is true, so $\exists x \neg p(x)$ is false.
2. Exercise.

Example 2.41 *Re-write these propositions without using any negation symbols.*

1. $\neg \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists y \in \mathbb{Z}, xy = 1.$
2. $\neg \exists x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists y \in \mathbb{Q}, xy > 1.$

SOLUTION.

1. $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}, \forall y \in \mathbb{Z}, xy \neq 1.$
2. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \forall y \in \mathbb{Q}, xy \leq 1.$

Sets and Operations on Sets

3.1 Sets

A *set* is a collection of objects. The objects in the set are called the *elements* of the set. We indicate that the object x is an element of the set A by writing $x \in A$; otherwise, we write $x \notin A$.

We have three basic ways of specifying a particular set; enumeration, comprehension and replacement.

Enumeration to describe a set by enumeration, we list the elements. The order is unimportant, and it makes no difference if we list an element more than once. So the following specifications are equivalent:

$$A = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$$

$$A = \{6, 8, 4, 2\}$$

$$A = \{2, 4, 2, 6, 2, 8\}$$

Comprehension or Abstraction to describe a set by comprehension, we give some rule to determine whether or not a given object is in the set. To use the same example as above, we have

$$A = \{x : x \text{ is an even integer and } 2 \leq x \leq 8\}$$

This is also often called “set builder” notation. Some authors use the symbol $|$ instead of $:$, e.g., $A = \{2n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 \leq n \leq 4\}$.

Replacement to describe a set by replacement, we take some set we already know and specify some rule for obtaining the elements of the new set from the elements of the old one. For example, if $B = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ then

$$A = \{2x : x \in B\}$$

When we use enumeration, we may need to use three dots, \dots , for example to describe $\{1, 2, \dots, 20\}$ or $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. When we use comprehension, we abbreviate

$$\{x : x \in S \text{ and } P(x)\} \quad \text{by} \quad \{x \in S : P(x)\}.$$

Notation

We also have standard symbols for the following sets:

\emptyset The empty set, which has no elements.

\mathbb{N} The set of natural numbers, $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$.

(This notation is not standard; some authors denote this as $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.)

\mathbb{P} The set of positive integers, $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.

(This notation is not standard; some authors denote this as \mathbb{N} or $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$.)

\mathbb{Z} The set of integers.

\mathbb{Q} The set of rational numbers,

$$\left\{ \frac{m}{n} : m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \in \mathbb{P} \right\}.$$

\mathbb{R} The set of real numbers.

Subsets, equality of sets, power set

Let A and B be sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B , written $A \subseteq B$, if every element of A is an element of B . For example, every natural number is a real number, so $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Notice that $\emptyset \subseteq A$ for every set A .

Again, let A and B be sets. We say that A and B are *equal*, written $A = B$, if they have exactly the same elements. Note that there is no notion of “repeated” elements in a set, so that $\{1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3\} = \{1, 2, 3\}$.

Example 3.1

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 - 5x + 6 = 0\} = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}.$$

Notice that if $A = B$ then $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, and conversely if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$ then $A = B$.

Example 3.2 Let $A = \{1\}$, $B = \{1, \{1\}\}$ and $C = \{2, 3, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$.

The integer 1 is an element of A , so $1 \in A$. Similarly, $1 \in B$ and $1 \notin C$. The set B also contains the element $\{1\}$. So we can say $\{1\} \in A$. Similarly, $2 \in C$ and $\{1, 2, 3\} \in C$.

We have $A \subseteq A$, $A \subseteq B$ and $A \not\subseteq C$.

We also have $A \not\subseteq A$ since A does not contain the element $\{1\}$, but, as we said, $A \in B$ since B does contain the element $A = \{1\}$.

Example 3.3 Let $A = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x = 2p, p \in \mathbb{Z}\}$,
 $B = \{y \in \mathbb{Z} : y = 2q + 2, q \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, and
 $C = \{z \in \mathbb{Z} : z = 3r - 1, r \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

- (a) Is $A = B$?
 (b) Is $A = C$?

SOLUTION.

- (a) Yes. We need to show that $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.
 Take $a \in A$. Then $a = 2p$ for some $p \in \mathbb{Z}$. If we set $q = p - 1$, then $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a = 2p = 2(q + 1) = 2q + 2$ so $a \in B$. Therefore, $A \subseteq B$.
 Next, take $b \in B$. Then $b = 2q + 2$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. If we set $p = q + 1$, then $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b = 2(p - 1) + 2 = 2p - 2 + 2 = 2p$. So $b \in A$. Therefore, $B \subseteq A$.
 Since $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$, we have $A = B$.
 (b) No. $4 \in A$ since $4 = 2(2)$. But $4 \notin C$ since if it were, then $4 = 3r - 1$, so $r = \frac{5}{3} \notin \mathbb{Z}$. So $4 \notin C$, and $A \neq C$.

Given a set A we can form the *power set* of A , denoted by $\mathcal{P}(A)$, containing all the subsets of A .

Example 3.4 If $A = \{1, 2\}$ then

$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

We will show later that if A has n elements then $\mathcal{P}(A)$ has 2^n elements.

3.2 Set operations

We can form new sets from old ones using the operations of union, intersection and complement. Given two sets A and B , we define

- the *union* of A and B , written $A \cup B$, by

$$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}.$$

[NB. we use “inclusive or”, in other words the above means “ $x \in A$, or $x \in B$, or possibly both”]

- the *intersection* of A and B , written $A \cap B$, by

$$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$$

- the *relative complement* or *difference* of B with respect to A , written $A \setminus B$, by

$$A \setminus B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}.$$

The easiest way to visualize these is by using *Venn diagrams*: we draw circles to represent the sets A and B , and shade the regions we are interested in.

Universal set

It is sometimes useful to fix some *universal set* U , and say that we are only interested in elements of U and subsets of U . For example, we might take $U = \mathbb{N}$ or $U = \mathbb{R}$. If we have fixed some universal set U , and $A \subseteq U$, then we define the *absolute complement* of A , written \overline{A} , by

$$\overline{A} = \{x \in U : x \notin A\}.$$

In other words, $\overline{A} = U \setminus A$. In a Venn diagram, we represent U by a rectangular box containing all the other sets.

Notice that $A \setminus B = A \cap \overline{B}$.

Laws for combining sets

The operations we have described satisfy certain laws, similar to the commutative law $x + y = y + x$ and the distributive law $x(y + z) = xy + xz$ for real numbers. For any subsets A , B and C of a universal set U we have

$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A \quad \text{Double complement}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A \cap B &= B \cap A \\ A \cup B &= B \cup A \end{aligned} \quad \text{Commutative}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A \cap (B \cap C) &= (A \cap B) \cap C \\ A \cup (B \cup C) &= (A \cup B) \cup C \end{aligned} \quad \text{Associative}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A \cap (B \cup C) &= (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \\ A \cup (B \cap C) &= (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C) \end{aligned} \quad \text{Distributive}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A \cap A &= A \\ A \cup A &= A \end{aligned} \quad \text{Idempotent}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A \setminus (B \cap C) &= (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C) \\ A \setminus (B \cup C) &= (A \setminus B) \cap (A \setminus C) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{(B \cap C)} &= \overline{B} \cup \overline{C} \\ \overline{(B \cup C)} &= \overline{B} \cap \overline{C} \end{aligned} \quad \text{De Morgan's}$$

Proof of laws

We won't prove all of these here: we will just give one example of how to prove them.

If A , B and C are sets, then

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C).$$

Proof: We will first show the lhs is a subset of the rhs. Suppose $x \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Then $x \in A$ and $x \in B \cup C$. Since $x \in B \cup C$, $x \in B$ or $x \in C$. If $x \in B$ then

$x \in A \cap B$, and if $x \in C$ then $x \in A \cap C$. Since $x \in B$ or $x \in C$, $x \in A \cap B$ or $x \in A \cap C$, so $x \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$. Hence

$$A \cap (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C). \quad (*)$$

We now show that $(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \subseteq A \cap (B \cup C)$. Conversely, suppose $y \in (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$. Then $y \in A \cap B$ or $y \in A \cap C$. If $y \in A \cap B$ then $y \in A$ and $y \in B$, and if $y \in A \cap C$ then $y \in A$ and $y \in C$. Either way, we must have $y \in A$. Also, we must have $y \in B$ or $y \in C$, so we have $y \in B \cup C$. So we have $y \in A \cap (B \cup C)$. Hence

$$(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C) \subseteq A \cap (B \cup C).$$

Combining this with (*), we get

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C),$$

as required.

Example 3.5 Prove that $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ by showing that each set is a subset of the other.

Proof: Suppose that $x \in \overline{A \cap B}$

It follows that $x \notin$ _____

This implies that $x \notin A$ _____ $x \notin B$.

Thus $x \in \overline{A}$ _____ $x \in \overline{B}$.

Hence _____

This shows that _____ \subseteq _____.

Now suppose that $x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$.

Then _____ or _____

It follows that $x \notin A$ _____ $x \notin B$

Hence, $x \in$ _____ $A \cap B$

Therefore $x \in$ _____

This demonstrates that _____ \subseteq _____.

Since we have demonstrated that each set is a subset of the other, these two sets must be equal and the identity is proved.

Cardinality

If A is a finite set, we denote the number of elements of A , (cardinality of A), by $|A|$.

Example 3.6 Let $A = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\}$ and $B = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$

Find $|A|$, $|B|$, $|A \setminus B|$, $|B \setminus A|$, $|A \cup B|$, $|A \cap B|$.

SOLUTION. $|A| = 6$
 $|B| = 5$
 $|A \setminus B| = |\{2, 11, 13\}| = 3$
 $|B \setminus A| = |\{1, 9\}| = 2$
 $|A \cup B| = |\{1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13\}| = 8$
 $|A \cap B| = |\{3, 5, 7\}| = 3$

3.3 Ordered pairs, Cartesian products

Given two objects x and y , we can form the *ordered pair* (x, y) . Unlike the pair set $\{x, y\}$, the order in which the elements appear is important: given two ordered pairs (x, y) and (u, v) , we have

$$(x, y) = (u, v) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x = u \text{ and } y = v.$$

Similarly, we have ordered triples (x, y, z) , ordered 4-tuples (w, x, y, z) , and so on, where if (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) and (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) are ordered n -tuples then

$$(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \Leftrightarrow x_i = y_i$$

for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Cartesian product

Given sets A and B , we form the *Cartesian product* of A and B , written $A \times B$, defined by

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) : a \in A, b \in B\}.$$

If A and B are finite sets then $|A \times B| = |A| \cdot |B|$.

If A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n are sets, we define $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$ to be the set of all n -tuples (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) where $a_i \in A_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

We sometimes write A^n for $\underbrace{A \times A \times \dots \times A}_{n \text{ times}}$. In partic-

ular, we often write A^2 for $A \times A$.

Example 3.7 *The grid of squares used in the game of battleships is the example*

$$\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\} \times \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h\}$$

of a Cartesian product.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
a								
b								
c								
d								
e								
f								
g								
h								

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
a								
b								
c								
d								
e								
f								
g								
h								

Example 3.8 *What is the Cartesian product $A \times B \times C$ where $A = \{0, 1\}$, $B = \{1, 2\}$, and $C = \{0, 1, 2\}$? What is $(A \times B) \times C$?*

Relations and Partial Orders

4.1 Introduction

Let A and B be sets. A *binary relation from A to B* is a subset of $A \times B$. A *binary relation on A* is a subset of $A \times A$.

We use binary relations to represent relationships between the elements of A and the elements of B . If R is a binary relation from A to B , and $(x, y) \in A \times B$, then $(x, y) \in R$ if and only if the relationship holds between the element x and the element y .

Example 4.1 Take $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$, and let R be the relation on A defined by

$$(x, y) \in R \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad x < y.$$

Then we have $R = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)\}$.

Example 4.2 Let A be the set of students at Auckland University, and let B be the set of courses. Let R be the relation that consists of those pairs (a, b) where a is a student in course b . For instance, if Jason Goodfriend and Deborah Sherman are enrolled in 225, the pair $(\text{Jason Goodfriend}, 225)$ and $(\text{Deborah Sherman}, 225)$ belong to R . If Jason Goodfriend is also enrolled in 251, then the pair $(\text{Jason Goodfriend}, 251)$ is also in R . However, if Deborah Sherman is not enrolled in 251, then the pair $(\text{Deborah Sherman}, 251)$ is not in R .

Properties of relations

We often use *infix* notation for relations. In other words, we write $(x, y) \in R$ as $x R y$. This is particularly common with relations like $<$, $=$, \subseteq and so on that have standard names. If $(x, y) \notin R$, we write $x \not R y$.

There are various properties that a relation on a set might or might not have. We say that a relation R on a set A is

- *reflexive* if for all $x \in A$, $x R x$.

- *symmetric* if for all $x, y \in A$, if $x R y$ then $y R x$.
- *antisymmetric* if for all $x, y \in A$, if $x R y$ and $y R x$ then $x = y$.
- *transitive* if for all $x, y, z \in A$, if $x R y$ and $y R z$ then $x R z$.

Example 4.3 Consider the relation $=$ on any set A . Which of the above properties hold?

Example 4.4 Consider the relation $<$ on \mathbb{R} . Which of the above properties hold?

Example 4.5 Consider the relation $|$ on \mathbb{Z} , defined by

$$a \mid b \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \text{for some } c \in \mathbb{Z}, b = ac.$$

Which of the above properties hold?

Example 4.6 Can a relation be both symmetric and antisymmetric?

4.2 Equivalence relations

Let A be a set. An *equivalence relation* on A is a binary relation on A that is reflexive, symmetric and transitive. We often use symbols like \sim , \equiv and \cong for equivalence relations.

Example 4.7 On the set of students attending Auckland University, define one student to be related to another whenever their surnames begin with the same letter. Is this an equivalence relation?

Example 4.8 Let S denote the set of all people in New Zealand. Define a relation R on S by letting $x R y$ mean that x has the same mother as y . Is this an equivalence relation?

Does the answer change if we define $x R y$ to mean that x has the same mother or father as y ?

Example 4.9 Consider the set \mathbb{Z} of integers. Fix some integer $m > 1$. Then the relation of congruence modulo m , defined by

$$x \equiv y \pmod{m} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad m \mid x - y,$$

is an equivalence relation.

Example 4.10 Let $G = (V, E)$ be a simple graph. Consider the binary relation on V such that, for $u, v \in V$, $u R v$ if and only if there is a path from u to v . This is an equivalence relation, which we call connectivity.

Example 4.11 Let \mathcal{C} denote the set of all computer programs. Define a relation \sim on \mathcal{C} as follows: For $C, C' \in \mathcal{C}$ (in other words, for any two computer programs C and C') we write $C \sim C'$ if, for all possible program inputs x , either C and C' both do not terminate on input x , or else both C and C' terminate on input x and return the same output.

Example 4.12 Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a function. Then the relation \sim_f on A , defined by

$$x \sim_f y \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad f(x) = f(y)$$

is an equivalence relation. We call this relation the equivalence relation induced by f .

Equivalence classes, partitions

Let \sim be an equivalence relation on a set A , and let $x \in A$. The equivalence class of x under \sim , denoted by

$[x]$, is the set of all elements of A that are related to x under \sim , i.e.

$$[x] = \{y \in A : x \sim y\}$$

We denote the set of equivalence classes of elements of A under \sim by $[A]$ or by A/\sim .

Example 4.13 Consider the relation of congruence modulo 2 on the set \mathbb{Z} . What are $[0]$, $[1]$?

Example 4.14 Let G be a simple graph and let R be the relation of connectivity. The equivalence classes are the connected components of the graph.

SOLUTION. $[1] = \{1, -1\}$, $[14] = \{14, -14\}$, and $[0] = \{0\}$.

Equivalence class lemma

If \sim is an equivalence relation on A , and $x, y \in A$, then the following are equivalent:

1. $x \sim y$.
2. $[x] = [y]$.
3. $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$.

Proof: We show that (1) implies (2), (2) implies (3) and (3) implies (1).

(1) \Rightarrow (2) Suppose $x \sim y$. Let $z \in [y]$. Then $y \sim z$, so we have $x \sim y \sim z$, and so by transitivity we have $x \sim z$. Thus $z \in [x]$. Hence $[y] \subseteq [x]$. Conversely, let $w \in [x]$. Then $x \sim w$, so by symmetry we have $w \sim x$. So $w \sim x \sim y$, and so $w \sim y$. Hence $y \sim w$, so $w \in [y]$. Thus $[x] \subseteq [y]$, so $[x] = [y]$.

(2) \Rightarrow (3) Suppose $[x] = [y]$. Then $[x] \cap [y] = [x] \cap [x] = [x]$. By reflexivity, $x \sim x$, so $x \in [x]$, so $[x] \neq \emptyset$. Thus $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$.

(3) \Rightarrow (1) Suppose $[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$. Let $z \in [x] \cap [y]$. Then $x \sim z$ and $y \sim z$. By symmetry, we have $z \sim y$, so $x \sim z \sim y$, and therefore by transitivity we have $x \sim y$.

Hence (1), (2) and (3) are equivalent.

In other words, if $[x]$ and $[y]$ are equivalence classes then either $[x] = [y]$ or $[x]$ and $[y]$ are disjoint. We say that the relation \sim *partitions* the set A .

Definition 4.1 A (finite) partition of a set X is a set $\{X_1, \dots, X_t\}$ where $X_i \subseteq X$, $X_i \neq \emptyset$ and:

1. $X_i \cap X_j = \emptyset$ when $1 \leq i < j \leq t$;
2. $X_1 \cup X_2 \cup \dots \cup X_t = X$.

An example of a partition is cutting a cake into pieces: No slice of cake is empty, slices of cake have no crumbs in common, putting the slices together forms the whole cake.

Example 4.15 Let R be the relation on \mathbb{Z} such that $x R y$ if and only if $x = y$ or $x = -y$. Show that R is an equivalence relation. What are $[1]$, $[-14]$, and $[0]$?

SOLUTION. $[1] = \{1, -1\}$, $[14] = \{14, -14\}$, and $[0] = \{0\}$.

4.3 Partial ordering

Introduction

A commonly used type of relation is an ordering. For instance, words in a dictionary are ordered using a relation called “lexicographical ordering”. We also order real numbers and integers in familiar ways.

Consider the usual ordering on \mathbb{Z} . Then the set of integers satisfying the relation is $\{(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \mid x \leq y\}$. One can verify that this relation is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive. Other relations that have these properties can be considered to be somehow “analogous” to familiar orderings.

Poset

A relation R on a set S is called a *partial ordering* or *partial order* if it is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive. A set S together with a partial ordering R is called a *partially ordered set*, or *poset*, and is denoted by (S, R) .

Example 4.16 Show that the “greater than or equal” relation (\geq) is a partial ordering on the set of integers.

Example 4.17 The divisibility relation $|$ is a partial ordering on the set of positive integers $\mathbb{P} = \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$, since it is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive, as was shown in Example 4.1. We see that $(\mathbb{P}, |)$ is a poset.

Example 4.18 Show that the inclusion relation \subseteq is a partial ordering on the power set of a set S .

Example 4.19 Let A be the set of all strings over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$. We say that $x \in A$ is a prefix of $y \in A$ if $y = xv$ for some $v \in A$. For example 01 is a prefix of 01111 , while 01 is not a prefix of 1111 . Show that this relation is a partial ordering.

Notation

In a poset the notation $a \preceq b$ denotes that $(a, b) \in R$. This symbol is used to emphasise the similarity to the familiar “less than or equal to” relation. But be careful: Just because a relation is denoted by a symbol like \preceq does not automatically imply it has exactly the same properties as \leq . We write $a \prec b$ to mean $a \preceq b$, but $a \neq b$. Also, we say “ a is less than b ” or “ b is greater than a ” if $a \prec b$.

Comparable

When a and b are elements of the poset (S, \preceq) , it is not necessary that either $a \preceq b$ or $b \preceq a$. For instance, in $(\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Z}), \subseteq)$, $\{1, 2\}$ is not related to $\{1, 3\}$, and vice versa, since neither set is contained within the other. Similarly, in $(\mathbb{P}, |)$, 2 is not related to 3 and 3 is not related to 2 , since $2 \nmid 3$ and $3 \nmid 2$. This leads to the following definition.

The elements a and b of a poset (S, \prec) are called *comparable* if either $a \preceq b$ or $b \preceq a$. When a and b are elements of S such that neither $a \preceq b$ nor $b \preceq a$, a and b are called *incomparable*.

Example 4.20 In the poset $(\mathbb{P}, |)$, are the integers 3 and 9 comparable? Are 5 and 7 comparable?

Example 4.21 In the poset $(\mathcal{P}(S), \subseteq)$, where $S = \{a, b, c\}$, $\{a\}$ is not comparable to $\{b\}$, and $\{a, b\}$ is not comparable to $\{b, c\}$.

Totally ordered set

The adjective “partial” is used to describe partial orderings since pairs of elements may be incomparable. When every two elements in the set are comparable, the relation is called a *total ordering*.

Definition 4.2 If (S, \preceq) is a poset and every two elements of S are comparable, S is called a *totally ordered* or *linearly ordered* set, and \preceq is called a *total order* or a *linear order*. A *totally ordered set* is also called a *chain*.

Example 4.22 The poset (\mathbb{Z}, \leq) is totally ordered, since $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ whenever a and b are integers.

Example 4.23 Let S be the set of all students in 225. Define a partial ordering \preceq such that $x \preceq y$ if and only if x 's height is less than or equal to y 's height. Then the poset (S, \preceq) is totally ordered.

Example 4.24 The poset $(\mathbb{P}, |)$ is not totally ordered since it contains elements that are incomparable, such as 5 and 7.

Well ordered set

We say that (S, \preceq) is a *well-ordered set* if it is a poset such that \preceq is a total ordering and such that every nonempty subset of S has a least element. (a is a least element of (S, \preceq) if $a \preceq b$ for all $b \in S$.)

Example 4.25 *The most familiar example of a well-ordered set is the set (\mathbb{N}, \leq) of natural numbers, with the usual “less than or equals” ordering.*

Example 4.26 *The set of ordered pairs of positive integers, $\mathbb{P} \times \mathbb{P}$, with $(a_1, a_2) \preceq (b_1, b_2)$ if $a_1 < b_1$, or if $a_1 = b_1$, and $a_2 \leq b_2$ (the lexicographic ordering), is a well-ordered set.*

Example 4.27 *The set \mathbb{Z} , with the usual \leq ordering, is not well ordered since the set of negative integers, which is a subset of \mathbb{Z} , has no least element.*

Lexicographic order

The letters of the alphabet have a standard ordering ‘a’ < ‘b’ < ... < ‘z’. The “dictionary” or “lexicographic” ordering turns this ordering on letters into an ordering on words. This is a special case of a general principle: given an alphabet set A that is a poset one can impose an ordering on strings over the alphabet A . We now explain this construction.

First, we will show how to construct a partial ordering on the Cartesian product of two posets, (A_1, \preceq_1) and (A_2, \preceq_2) . The *lexicographic ordering* \preceq on $A_1 \times A_2$ is defined by specifying that one pair is less than a second pair if the first entry of the first pair is less than (in A_1) the first entry of the second pair, or if the first entries are equal, but the second entry of this pair is less than (in A_2) the second entry of the second pair. In other words, (a_1, a_2) is less than (b_1, b_2) , that is

$$(a_1, a_2) \prec (b_1, b_2),$$

either if $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$ or if both $a_1 = b_1$ and $a_2 \prec_2 b_2$.

We obtain a partial ordering \preceq by adding equality to the ordering \prec on $A \times B$. The verification of this is left as an exercise.

Example 4.28 *Determine whether $(3, 5) \prec (4, 8)$, whether $(3, 8) \prec (4, 5)$, and whether $(4, 9) \prec (4, 11)$ in the poset $(\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}, \preceq)$, where \preceq is the lexicographic ordering con-*

structed from the usual \leq relation on \mathbb{Z} .

Example 4.29 On Figure 4.1, indicate the set of ordered pairs in $\mathbb{P} \times \mathbb{P}$ that are less than $(3, 4)$.

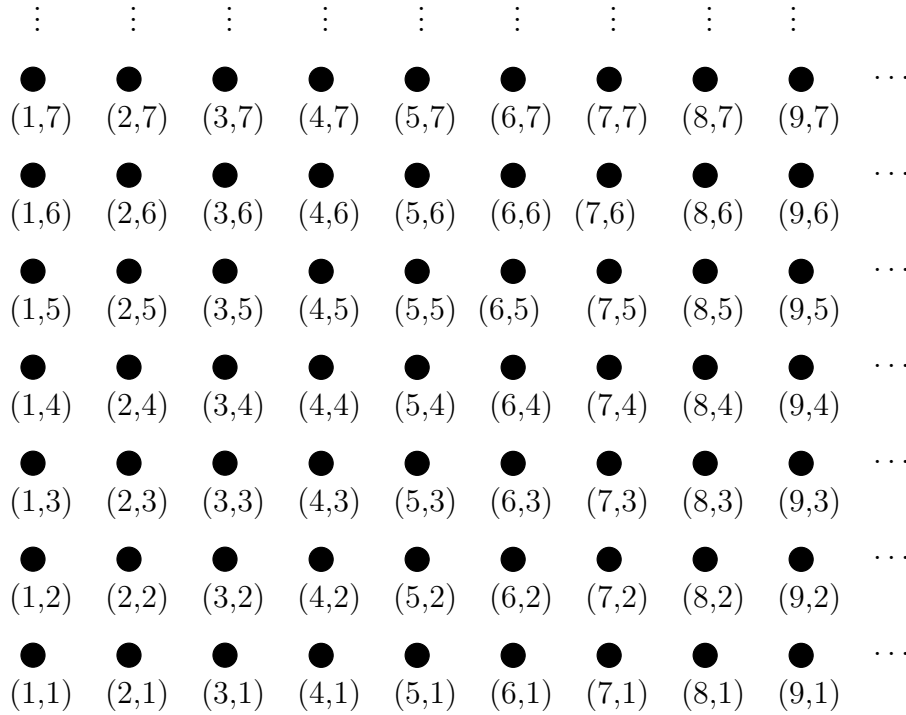


Figure 4.1:

Cartesian product of posets

A lexicographic ordering can be defined on the Cartesian product of n posets $(A_1, \preceq_1), (A_2, \preceq_2), \dots, (A_n, \preceq_n)$. Define the partial ordering \preceq on $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$ by

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \prec (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$$

if $a_1 \prec_1 b_1$, or if there is an integer $i > 0$ such that $a_1 = b_1, \dots, a_i = b_i$, and $a_{i+1} \prec_{i+1} b_{i+1}$. In other words, one n -tuple is less than a second n -tuple if the entry of the first n -tuple in the first position where the two n -tuples disagree is less than the entry in that position in the second n -tuple.

Example 4.30 Note that $(1, 2, 3, 5) \prec (1, 2, 4, 3)$, since the entries in the first two positions of these 4-tuples agree, but in the third position the entry in the first 4-tuple, 3, is less than that in the second 4-tuple, 4. (Here

the ordering on 4-tuples is the lexicographic ordering that comes from the usual “less than or equals” relation on the set of integers.)

Lexicographic ordering of strings

Consider the strings $a_1a_2 \cdots a_m$ and $b_1b_2 \cdots b_n$ on a partially ordered set S . Suppose these strings are not equal in length. Let t be the minimum of m and n . The definition of lexicographic ordering is that the string $a_1a_2 \cdots a_m$ is less than $b_1b_2 \cdots b_n$ if and only if

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t) \prec (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_t), \text{ or} \\ (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_t) = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_t) \text{ and } m < n,$$

where \prec in this inequality represents the lexicographic ordering of S^t . In other words, to determine the ordering of two different strings, the longer string is truncated to the length of the shorter string, namely, to $t = \min(m, n)$ terms. Then the t -tuples made up of the first t terms of each string are compared using the lexicographic ordering on S^t . One string is less than another string if the t -tuple corresponding to the first string is less than the t -tuple of the second string, or if these two t -tuples are the same, but the second string is longer. The verification that this is a partial ordering is left as an exercise.

Directed graph

We can draw a *directed graph* of a poset (called a Hasse diagram or lattice diagram) as follows. Each element of the poset is represented by a dot, called a *vertex*. An arrow, called a *directed edge*, is drawn from element a to element b if $a \preceq b$. The diagram in Figure 4.2(a) is a digraph of the poset $(\{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \leq)$.

Redundant edges

Many edges in the directed graph for a finite poset do not have to be shown since they must be present. For instance, consider the directed graph for the partial ordering $\{(a, b) \mid a \leq b\}$ on the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, shown in Figure 4.2(a). Since this relation is a partial ordering, it is reflexive, and its directed graph has loops at all vertices.

Consequently, we do not have to show these loops since they must be present; in Figure 4.2(b) loops and arrows are not shown.

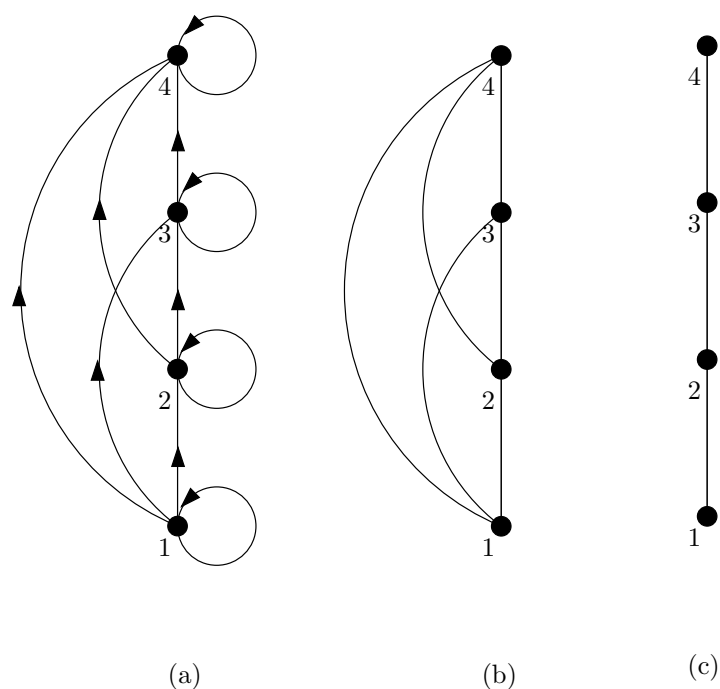


Figure 4.2:

Because a partial ordering is transitive, we do not have to show those edges that must be present because of transitivity. For example, in Figure 4.2(c) the edges $(1,3)$, $(1,4)$, and $(2,4)$ are not shown since they must be present. If we assume that all edges are pointed “upward” (as they are drawn in the figure), we do not have to show the directions of the edges; Figure 4.2(c) does not show directions.

Hasse diagrams

Finite posets can often be conveniently represented using a Hasse diagram. To draw the diagram, execute the following procedure. Start with the directed graph for this relation. Draw it so that arrows are always pointing upwards. Because a partial ordering is reflexive, a loop is present at every vertex. Remove these loops. Remove all edges whose presence is imposed by transitivity. For instance, if (a,b) and (b,c) are in the partial ordering, remove the edge (a,c) , since it must be present also. Furthermore, if (c,d) is also in the partial ordering, remove the edge (a,d) , since it must be present also. Finally, arrange each edge so that its initial vertex is below its terminal vertex (as it is drawn on paper). Remove all the arrows on the directed edges, since the direction on the edges is now indicated by which vertices are “higher” on the page.

These steps are well-defined, and only a finite number of steps need to be carried out for a finite poset. When all the steps have been taken, the resulting diagram contains sufficient information to find the partial ordering. This

diagram is called a *Hasse diagram*, named after the 20th century German mathematician Helmut Hasse.

Example 4.31 Draw the Hasse diagram representing the partial ordering $\{(a, b) : a \mid b\}$ on $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12\}$.

Example 4.32 Draw the Hasse diagram for the poset $(\mathcal{P}(S), \subseteq)$, where S is the set $\{a, b, c\}$.

Maximal and minimal elements

For many applications it is useful to be able to identify certain extremal elements of partially ordered students. For example, a prize might be given to the student in a course with the highest grade.

An element of a poset is called maximal if it is not less than any element of the poset. That is, a is *maximal* in the poset (S, \preceq) if there is no $b \in S$ such that $a \prec b$. Similarly, an element of a poset is called minimal if it is not greater than any element of the poset. That is, a is *minimal* if there is no element $b \in S$ such that $b \prec a$. Maximal and minimal elements are easy to spot using a Hasse diagram. They are the elements with nothing above them or with nothing below them.

Example 4.33 Which elements of the poset

$$(\{2, 4, 5, 10, 12, 20, 25\}, |)$$

are maximal, and which are minimal?

Greatest and least elements

Sometimes there is an element in a poset that is greater than every other element. Such an element is called the greatest element. That is, a is the *greatest element* of the poset (S, \preceq) if $b \preceq a$ for all $b \in S$. The greatest element is unique when it exists. Likewise, an element is called the least element if it is less than all the other elements in the poset. That is, a is the *least element* of (S, \preceq) if $a \preceq b$ for all $b \in S$. The least element is unique when it exists.

Example 4.34 Determine whether the posets represented by the Hasse diagrams in Figure 4.3 have a greatest element and a least element. Determine whether the posets have maximal and minimal elements. Is a maximal element always a greatest element? Is a greatest element always a maximal element?

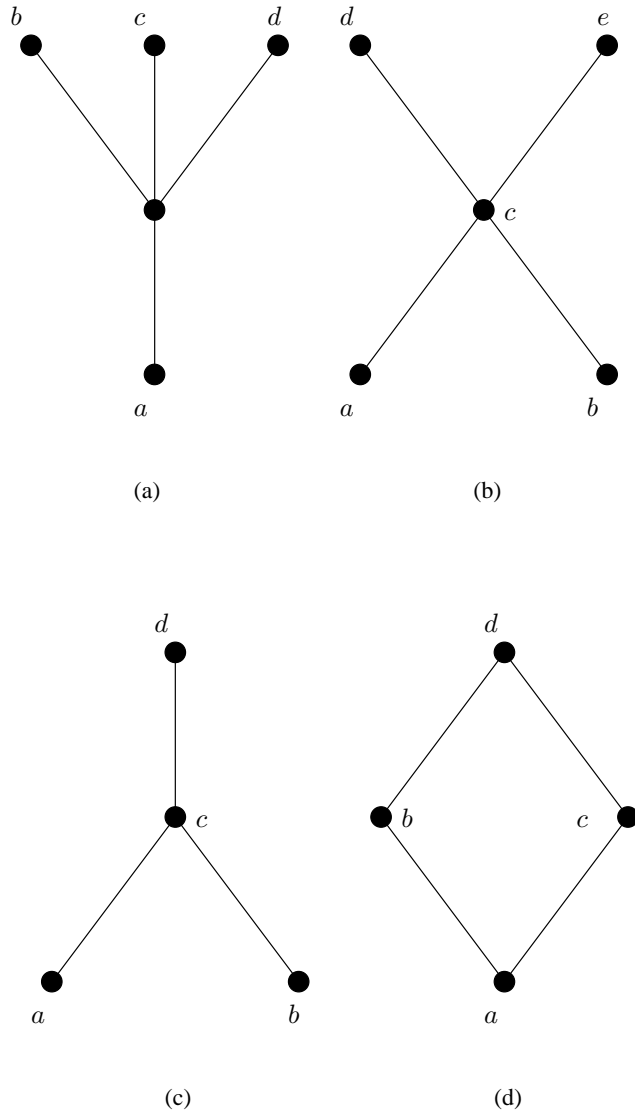


Figure 4.3:

Example 4.35 Let S be a set. Determine whether there is a greatest element and a least element in the poset $(\mathcal{P}(S), \subseteq)$.

SOLUTION. The least element is the empty set, since $\emptyset \subseteq T$ for any subset T of S . The set S is the greatest element in this poset, since $T \subseteq S$ whenever T is a subset of S .

Example 4.36 Is there a greatest element and a least element in the poset $(\mathbb{P}, |)$?

SOLUTION. The integer 1 is the least element since $1 \mid n$ whenever n is a positive integer. Since there is no integer that is divisible by all positive integers, there is no greatest element.

Upper and lower bounds

Let (S, \preceq) be a poset and $A \subseteq S$ a subset of it. Then (A, \preceq) is also a poset. Sometimes it is possible to find an element in S that is greater than all the elements in the subset A . An element $u \in S$ such that $a \preceq u$ for all elements $a \in A$ is called an *upper bound* of A . Likewise, an element $l \in S$ such that $l \preceq a$ for all elements $a \in A$ is called a *lower bound* of A .

Example 4.37 Find the lower and upper bounds of the subsets $\{a, b, c\}$, $\{j, h\}$, and $\{a, c, d, f\}$ in the poset with the Hasse diagram shown below

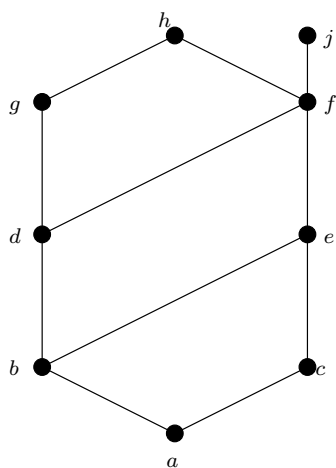


Figure 4.1

Least upper bound and greatest lower bound

An element x is called the *least upper bound* of the subset A if x is an upper bound that is less than every other upper bound of A . Since there is only one such element, if it exists, it makes sense to call this element *the* least upper bound. That is, x is the least upper bound of A if $a \preceq x$ whenever $a \in A$, and $x \preceq z$ whenever z is an upper bound of A . Similarly, the element y is called the *greatest lower bound* of A if y is a lower bound of A and $z \preceq y$ whenever z is a lower bound of A . The greatest lower bound of A is unique if it exists. The greatest lower bound and least upper bound of a subset A are denoted by $\text{glb}(A)$ and $\text{lub}(A)$, respectively.

Example 4.38 Find the greatest lower bound and the least upper bound of $\{b, d, g\}$, if they exist, in the poset shown in Figure 4.3.

Example 4.39 Find the greatest lower bound and the least upper bound of the sets $\{3, 9, 12\}$ and $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 10\}$ if they exist, in the poset $(\mathbb{P}, |)$.

SOLUTION. An integer is a lower bound of $\{3, 9, 12\}$ if 3, 9, and 12 are divisible by this integer. The only such integers are 1 and 3. Since $1 \mid 3$, 3 is the greatest lower bound of $\{3, 9, 12\}$. The only lower bound for the set $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 10\}$ with respect to $|$ is the element 1. Hence, 1 is the greatest lower bound for $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 10\}$.

Relational Calculus

There are various operations that can be performed on relations to obtain a new relation.

Complement relation

Let R be a binary relation from A to B , so that $R \subseteq A \times B$. The *complement* relation is $R' = (A \times B) \setminus R$. In other words, $a R b$ if and only if $a \not R' b$.

Example 4.40 The complement of the binary relation $<$ on \mathbb{R} is \geq .

The complement of the binary relation $=$ on \mathbb{R} is \neq .

Converse relation

Let R be a binary relation from A to B , so that $R \subseteq A \times B$. The *converse* relation is $R' \subseteq B \times A$ defined by

$$R' = \{(b, a) \in B \times A : (a, b) \in R\}.$$

Example 4.41 The converse of the binary relation $<$ on \mathbb{R} is \geq .

The converse of the binary relation $=$ on \mathbb{R} is $=$.

Notice that, unlike the inverse function f^{-1} , which only exists if f is a bijection, the converse relation always exists for any relation.

Relational images and preimages

If R is a relation from A to B and we have $C \subseteq A$, $D \subseteq B$, then we define the *relational image of C under R* , $R(C)$, by

$$R(C) = \{y \in B : \exists x \in C (x R y)\}$$

and we define the *relational preimage of D under R* by

$$R^{\leftarrow}(D) = \{x \in A : \exists y \in D (x R y)\}.$$

In the special case where the relation is a function f , we can rewrite these definitions as

$$\begin{aligned} f(C) &= \{f(x) : x \in C\} \\ f^{\leftarrow}(D) &= \{x \in A : f(x) \in D\}. \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.42 Let $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Define a relation R from S to S by letting $x R y$ mean $x < y$. Then find

a $R(\{1, 2\})$

b $R(\{3\})$

c $R^{\leftarrow}(\{2, 3\})$

d $R^{\leftarrow}(\{4\})$

Example 4.43 Consider the relation $|$ on \mathbb{Z} , defined by

$$a | b \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \text{for some } c \in \mathbb{Z}, b = ac.$$

Find:

a $R(\{12\})$

b $R^{\leftarrow}(\{12\})$

SOLUTION. $R(\{12\}) = \{\dots - 36, -24, -12, 0, 12, 24, 36, \dots\}$
 $R^{\leftarrow}(\{12\}) = \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 12\}$

Union and Intersection operations

Let R_1 and R_2 be two binary relations on $A \times B$. We define the union

$$R_1 \cup R_2 = \{(a, b) \in A \times B : (a, b) \in R_1 \vee (a, b) \in R_2\}.$$

Example 4.44 The union of the relations $=$ and $>$ on \mathbb{R} is \geq .

Let R_1 and R_2 be two binary relations on $A \times B$. We define the intersection

$$R_1 \cap R_2 = \{(a, b) \in A \times B : (a, b) \in R_1 \wedge (a, b) \in R_2\}.$$

Example 4.45 The intersection of the relations \geq and \leq on \mathbb{R} is $=$.

Functions

5.1 Functions

Let A and B be sets. Informally, a *function* f from A to B is a rule that assigns, to each element x of A a unique element $f(x)$ of B , called the *image* of x under f .

Formally, a function is a special type of relation. A *function* from A to B is a binary relation f from A to B such that for every $x \in A$ there is exactly one $y \in B$ such that $(x, y) \in f$. We never use infix notation for functions: instead, we use the notation we are already familiar with, by abbreviating $(x, y) \in f$ as $y = f(x)$.

We indicate that f is a function from A to B by writing $f : A \rightarrow B$. We call A the *domain* of f , denoted by $\text{Dom}(f)$, and B the *codomain* of f . Note that not every element of B has to be the image of some element of A : the set of all such elements of B is called the *range* or *image* of f , in other words

$$\text{Im}(f) = \{ y : \text{for some } x \in \text{Dom}(f), y = f(x) \}.$$

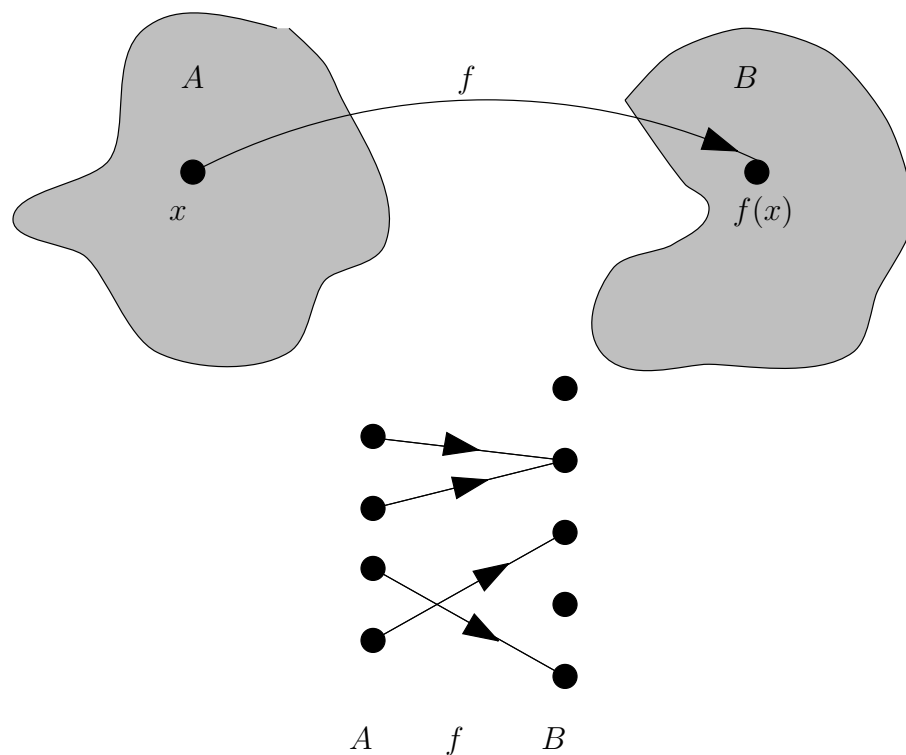


Figure 5.1

Example 5.1 Let X be the set of all real numbers between 0 and 100 inclusive, and let Y be the set of all real numbers between 32 and 212 inclusive. The function $F : X \rightarrow Y$ that assigns to each Celsius temperature c its corresponding Fahrenheit temperature $F(c)$ is defined by

$$F(c) = \frac{9}{5}c + 32$$

What are the domain, codomain and image of F ?

5.2 Equality of functions

We say the functions $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : C \rightarrow D$ are *equal* if

- $A = C$ (the functions have the same domain);
- $B = D$ (the functions have the same codomain);
- $f(a) = g(a)$ for all $a \in A$ (the functions ‘agree’ on A).

In other words, all three things making up the function must be the same.

The range of a function

We define the *range* or *image* of $f : A \rightarrow B$ as the set

$$\text{Im}(f) = \{f(a) : a \in A\}.$$

This is the set of all values of f taken (in B) by f .

Example 5.2

- The negation function $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ (taking n to $-n$) has range \mathbb{Z} itself.
- The successor function $S : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ (which takes n to $n + 1$) has range $\mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, \dots\}$.
- The squaring function $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ (which takes n to n^2) has range $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, \dots\}$.
- The range of the sign function $\sigma : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ is $\{-1, 0, 1\}$.

5.3 Function composition

Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ and $g : B \rightarrow C$ be functions. We define the composition $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$ by declaring that, for every $x \in A$,

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)).$$

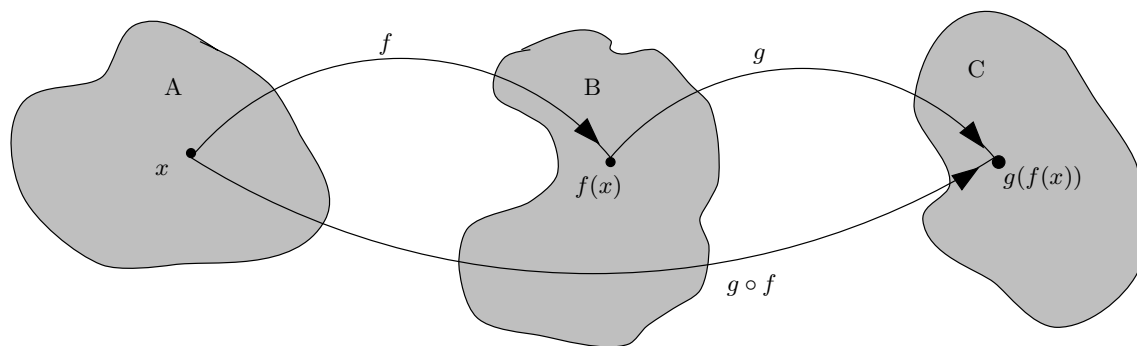


Figure 5.2

Composition is associative

If $f : A \rightarrow B$, $g : B \rightarrow C$ and $h : C \rightarrow D$ are functions then

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f.$$

Proof: Notice that $h \circ (g \circ f)$ and $(h \circ g) \circ f$ both have domain A . For every $x \in A$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} (h \circ (g \circ f))(x) &= h(g \circ f(x)) \\ &= h(g(f(x))) \\ &= h \circ g(f(x)) \\ &= ((h \circ g) \circ f)(x) \end{aligned}$$

So $h \circ (g \circ f)$ and $(h \circ g) \circ f$ have the same domain, and take the same values for every element of the domain, that is they are equal.

5.4 Partial functions

A *partial function* $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a weaker form of a function, still having an input set A and an output set or codomain B , but with a rule f that assigns to each element a of a subset of A a unique element $f(a)$ of B .

In other words, a partial function is defined for just some of the elements of its input set.

For example, take $A = B = \mathbb{R}$ and define $f(x) = 1/x$ when x is non-zero.

The *domain* of a partial function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is the set of all $a \in A$ for which $f(a)$ is defined. Hence if D is the domain of f , then the restriction h of f to D is a function $h: D \rightarrow B$.

The range of a partial function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is still the set of values it takes, i.e. $\{f(a) : a \in D\}$, where D is the domain.

A partial function $f: A \rightarrow B$ is called a *total function* (or just a function) if its domain is A .

Equality of partial functions

The partial functions $f: A \rightarrow B$ and $g: X \rightarrow Y$ are equal if

- $A = X$ (the functions have the same input set).
- $B = Y$ (the functions have the same output set).
- The functions have the same domain, say D , and
- $f(a) = g(a)$ for all $a \in D$ (i.e. the functions ‘agree’ on D).

5.5 Types of functions

1-1 and onto

We say that $f: A \rightarrow B$ is *1-1* or *injective* if, for every $x, y \in A$ with $x \neq y$ we have $f(x) \neq f(y)$ (or, equivalently, if $f(x) = f(y)$ implies that $x = y$).

We say that f is *onto* or *surjective* if, for every $y \in B$ there is some $x \in A$ with $f(x) = y$ (or, equivalently, if $\text{Im}(f) = B$).

We say that f is a *1-1 correspondence* or *bijection* if it is both 1-1 and onto.

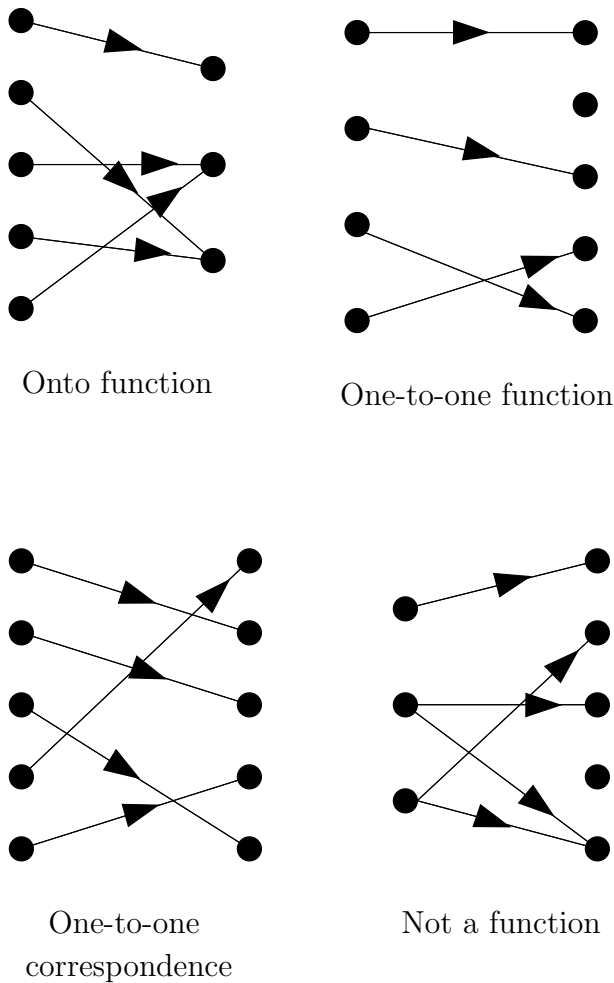


Figure 5.3

Identity function, inverse function

For any set A , we define the *identity* function $1_A : A \rightarrow A$ by declaring that, for every $x \in A$,

$$1_A(x) = x.$$

Notice that 1_A is a bijection. If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a function then $f \circ 1_A = f = 1_B \circ f$.

Warning: Be careful not to confuse the identity function 1_A with the constant function $f(x) = 1$ for all $x \in A$.

Let $f : A \rightarrow B$ be a function. An *inverse* of f is a function $g : B \rightarrow A$ such that $g \circ f = 1_A$ and $f \circ g = 1_B$.

Inverses are unique

If f has an inverse g , then it is unique. To prove this, note that if h is also an inverse of f then

$$\begin{aligned} h &= h \circ 1_B \\ &= h \circ (f \circ g) \\ &= (h \circ f) \circ g \\ &= 1_A \circ g \\ &= g \end{aligned}$$

If f has an inverse, it is denoted by f^{-1} .

Invertible functions are bijections

Theorem 5.1 *If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a function, then f has an inverse if and only if f is a bijection.*

Proof: Suppose first that f is a bijection. If $y \in B$ then there is some $x \in A$ with $f(x) = y$. Since f is 1-1, this x is unique. So we can define $g : B \rightarrow A$ by

$$g(y) = \text{the unique } x \in A \text{ such that } f(x) = y.$$

For any $x \in A$ we have $g(f(x)) = x$, and for every $y \in B$ we have $f(g(y)) = y$. So $g = f^{-1}$.

Conversely, suppose that f has an inverse. We must show f is 1-1 and onto.

f is 1-1 Suppose $x, y \in A$ with $f(x) = f(y)$. Then $f^{-1}(f(x)) = f^{-1}(f(y))$, that is $x = y$.

f is onto Let $y \in B$. Put $x = f^{-1}(y)$. Then $y = f(x)$.

So f is a bijection, as required.

Example 5.3 *Let f be the function from $\{a, b, c\}$ to $\{1, 2, 3\}$ such that $f(a) = 2$, and $f(b) = 3$, and $f(c) = 1$. Is f invertible, and if it is, what is its inverse?*

Example 5.4 *Let f be the function from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z} with $f(x) = x^2$. Is f invertible?*

What about if we restrict it to a function from \mathbb{N} to \mathbb{N} ?

Example 5.5 Let f be the function from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z} with $f(x) = 2x$. Is f invertible?

SOLUTION. No. f is not onto as $\text{Im}(f) = \{x : x = 2p, p \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, and $\text{Im}(f) \subset \mathbb{Z}$. So f is not invertible.

Preimages

If a function is not invertible all is not lost. We call the set of elements in the domain of a function $f : S \rightarrow T$ that are mapped to $y \in T$ by f the *preimage* of y under f . This is denoted by $f^{\leftarrow}(y)$.

$$f^{\leftarrow}(y) = \{x : f(x) = y\}$$

We can also consider the preimage of a set.

$$f^{\leftarrow}(B) = \{x : f(x) \in B, B \subseteq T\}$$

Example 5.6 Let f be the function from \mathbb{Z} to \mathbb{Z} with $f(x) = x^2$. What is the preimage of 4? What is the preimage of $\{4, 9\}$?

Induction and Recursion

6.1 Induction

The well-ordering property

The following fundamental fact about the set of integers $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ is useful for proofs. It leads to the idea of proof by induction.

Theorem 6.1 (The Well-Ordering Property) *Every nonempty set of nonnegative integers has a least element.*

Mathematical induction

Many theorems are that a statement $P(n)$ is true for all positive integers n (here, $P(n)$ is a predicate or propositional function). Mathematical induction is a technique for proving theorems of this kind. In other words, mathematical induction is used to prove propositions of the form $\forall n P(n)$, where the universe of discourse is the set $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ of non-negative integers, or sometimes the set $\{1, 2, \dots\}$.

A proof by mathematical induction that $P(n)$ is true for every positive integer n consists of two steps:

Basis step The proposition $P(0)$ (or sometimes $P(1)$) is shown to be true.

Inductive step The implication

$$P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$$

is shown to be true for every non-negative integer n .

The inductive hypothesis

Here $P(n)$ is called the *inductive hypothesis*. When we complete both steps of a proof by mathematical induction, we have proved that $P(n)$ is true for all positive integers n ; that is, we have shown that $\forall n P(n)$ is true.

Expressed as a rule of inference, this proof technique can be stated as

$$[P(0) \wedge \forall n (P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1))] \rightarrow \forall n \in \mathbb{N} P(n).$$

How to write a proof by induction

The first step in the proof is to show that $P(0)$ is true. This amounts to showing that the particular statement $P(n)$ obtained when n is replaced by 0 is true.

The next step is to show that $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ is true for every positive integer n . This can be done by assuming that $P(n)$ is true and showing that *under this hypothesis* $P(n+1)$ must also be true.

The final step of the proof is to invoke the “principle of mathematical induction” which implies the theorem $\forall n, P(n)$ is true.

Example 6.1 *When doing an inductive proof, think of a (business) letter format.*

Let $P(n)$ be the statement “...”.

$P(m)$ is true because ...

Assume $P(k)$, for some $k \geq m$, is true:

*Here is an argument that $P(k+1)$
must be true, assuming that $P(k)$
is true. ...*

Thus, by the principle of mathematical induction,

$P(n)$ is true for every integer $n \geq m$.

Although we are taking $m = 0$ in this discussion it is sometimes convenient to start with $m = 1$, or $m = 2$, etc.

Important remark

In a proof by mathematical induction it is not assumed that $P(n)$ is true for all positive integers! It is only shown that *if* $P(n)$ is true, then $P(n+1)$ is also true, that is, $P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$. Thus, a proof by mathematical induction is not a circular argument.

When we use mathematical induction to prove a theorem, we first show that $P(0)$ is true. Then we know that $P(1)$ is true, since $P(0)$ implies $P(1)$. Further, we know that $P(2)$ is true, since $P(1)$ implies $P(2)$. Continuing along these lines, we see that $P(k)$ is true, for any positive integer k .

The domino illustration

A way to illustrate the principle of mathematical induction is to consider an infinite row of dominoes, labelled

$1, 2, 3, \dots, n$, where each domino is standing up. Let $P(n)$ be the proposition that domino n is knocked over. If $P(1)$ is true (meaning: the first domino is knocked over), and if $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ is true (meaning: if the n -th domino is knocked over then it also knocks over the $(n+1)$ -th domino), then all the dominoes are knocked over.

Why mathematical induction is valid

The validity of mathematical induction as a proof technique comes from the well-ordering property of the natural numbers.

Suppose we know that $P(0)$ is true and that the proposition $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ is true for all positive integers n . To show that $P(n)$ must be true for all positive integers, assume that there is at least one positive integer for which $P(n)$ is false.

- Then the set S of non-negative integers for which $P(n)$ is false is nonempty.
- Thus, by the well-ordering property, S has a least element, which will be denoted by k . We know that k cannot be 0 since $P(0)$ is true.
- Since k is positive, $k-1$ is a non-negative integer.
- Furthermore, since $k-1$ is less than k , it is not in S , so $P(k-1)$ must be true.
- Since the implication $P(k-1) \rightarrow P(k)$ is also true, it must be the case that $P(k)$ is true. This contradicts the choice of k .
- Hence, $P(n)$ must be true for every positive integer n .

We will use a variety of examples to illustrate how theorems are proved using mathematical induction. (Many theorems proved in this section via mathematical induction can be proved using different methods. However, it is worthwhile to try to prove a theorem in more than one way, since one method of attack may succeed whereas another approach may not.)

Summation example

Mathematical induction is often used to verify summation formulae.

Example 6.2 *Use mathematical induction to prove that the sum of the first n odd positive integers is n^2 .*

SOLUTION.

Let $P(n)$ denote the proposition that the sum of the first n odd positive integers is n^2 .

Basis step: $P(0)$ is the claim that the sum of the first zero odd positive integers is $0^2 = 0$. This is true.

Some students may be more comfortable starting with $n = 1$ in this case. $P(1)$ states that the sum of the first odd positive integer is 1^2 . This is true since the sum of the first odd positive integer is 1.

Inductive step: Show that $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ is true $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

Suppose that $P(n)$ is true for a positive integer n ; that is

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2n - 1) = n^2$$

(Note that the n^{th} odd positive integer is $(2n - 1)$, since this integer is obtained by adding 2 a total number of $n - 1$ times to 1). We must show that $P(n+1)$ is true, assuming that $P(n)$ is true. Note that $P(n+1)$ is the statement that

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2n - 1) + (2n + 1) = (n + 1)^2$$

So, assuming that $P(n)$ is true, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2n - 1) + (2n + 1) &= [1 + 3 + 5 + \cdots + (2n - 1)] + (2n + 1) \\ &= n^2 + (2n + 1) \\ &= (n + 1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

This shows that $P(n+1)$ follows from $P(n)$. Note that we used the inductive hypothesis $P(n)$ in the second equality to replace the sum of the first n odd positive integers by n^2 . Since $P(1)$ is true and the implication $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ is true $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, the principle of mathematical induction shows that $P(n)$ is true for all positive integers n .

Example 6.3 Use mathematical induction to show that

$$1 + 2 + 2^2 + \cdots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$$

for all nonnegative integers n .

Inequality example

The next example uses the principle of mathematical induction to prove an inequality.

Example 6.4 Use mathematical induction to prove the inequality

$$n < 2^n$$

for all positive integers n .

Divisibility examples

Example 6.5 Let x be a fixed integer. Use mathematical induction to prove that, for all integers $n \geq 1$,

$$x^n - 1 = (x - 1)(x^{n-1} + x^{n-2} + \cdots + x + 1).$$

[Hint: $x^{n+1} - 1 = (x - 1)x^n + (x^n - 1)$.]

Example 6.6 Use mathematical induction to prove that $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3 whenever n is a positive integer.

Number of subsets example

Example 6.7 Use mathematical induction to show that if S is a finite set with n elements, then S has 2^n subsets.

Factorial example

Example 6.8 Use mathematical induction to prove that $2^n < n!$ for every positive integer n with $n \geq 4$.

Geometric examples

Example 6.9 Let n be a positive integer. Show that any $2^n \times 2^n$ chessboard with one square removed can be tiled using L-shaped pieces, where these pieces cover three squares at a time.

Example 6.10 A finite number of straight lines divides the plane into regions. Prove that these regions can be coloured using two colours so that adjacent regions (i.e., regions that meet in more than just one corner) do not have the same colour.

Basis at other than 0 or 1

Sometimes we need to show that $P(n)$ is true for $n = k, k+1, k+2, \dots$, where k is an integer other than 0 or 1. We can use mathematical induction to accomplish this as long as we change the basis step.

Example 6.11 *Prove using induction that if $n > 4$ is an integer then $n^2 > n + 16$.*

6.2 The second principle of mathematical induction

There is another form of mathematical induction that is often useful in proofs. With this form we use the same basis step as before, but we use a different inductive step. We assume that $P(k)$ is true for all values $k = 1, \dots, n$ and show that $P(n+1)$ must also be true based on this assumption. This is called the *second principle of mathematical induction*. We summarize the two steps used to show that $P(n)$ is true for all positive integers n :

Basis step: The proposition $P(1)$ is shown to be true.

Inductive step: It is shown that

$$[P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n)] \rightarrow P(n+1)$$

is true for every positive integer n .

The two forms of mathematical induction are equivalent; that is, each can be shown to be a valid proof technique assuming the other. We leave it as an exercise for the student to show this.

Example 6.12 *Show that if n is an integer greater than 1, then n can be written as the product of primes.*

SOLUTION.

Let $P(n)$ denote the proposition that n can be written as a product of primes.

Basis step: $P(2)$ is true since it can be written as the product of one prime, itself.

Inductive step: Assume that $P(k)$ is true for all positive integers k with $k \leq n$. To complete the inductive step it must be shown that $P(n+1)$ is true under this assumption. There are two cases to consider, namely, when $n+1$ is prime and when $n+1$ is composite. If $n+1$ is prime then we can immediately see that $P(n+1)$ is true. Otherwise $n+1$ is

composite and thus can be written as a product of two positive integers a and b with $2 \leq a \leq b < n + 1$. By the induction hypothesis, both a and b can be written as the product of primes. Thus, if $n + 1$ is composite, then it can be written as the product of primes, namely, those primes in the factorizations of a and b .

Example 6.13 *Prove that every amount of postage of 12 cents or more can be formed using just 4-cent and 5-cent stamps.*

6.3 Recursive definitions

Sometimes it is difficult to define an object explicitly. However, it may be easy to define this object in terms of itself. This process is called *recursion*.

We can use recursion to define sequences, functions, and sets. In previous discussions, we specified the terms of a sequence using an explicit formula.

Example 6.14 *The sequence of powers of 2 is given by $a_n = 2^n$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. However, this sequence can also be defined by giving the first term of the sequence, namely, $a_0 = 1$, and a rule for finding a term of the sequence from the previous one, namely, $a_{n+1} = 2a_n$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$.*

Recursively defined functions

To define a function with the set of nonnegative integers as its domain,

1. Specify the value of the function at zero (and possibly 1, 2, ...).
2. Give a rule for finding its value at an integer from its values at smaller integers.

Such a definition is called a *recursive* or *inductive definition*.

Example 6.15 *Suppose that f is defined recursively by*

$$\begin{aligned} f(0) &= 3, \\ f(n+1) &= 2f(n) + 3. \end{aligned}$$

Find $f(1)$, $f(2)$, $f(3)$, and $f(4)$.

Example 6.16 Give an inductive definition of the factorial function $F(n) = n!$.

Specifying the first few values of a function

In some recursive definitions of functions, the values of the function at the first k positive integers are specified, and a rule is given for determining the value of the function at larger integers from its values at some or all of the preceding k integers.

Example 6.17 The Fibonacci numbers, f_0, f_1, f_2, \dots , are defined by the equations $f_0 = 0$, $f_1 = 1$, and

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$$

for $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$. What are the Fibonacci numbers f_2, f_3, f_4, f_5, f_6 ?

Example 6.18 Show that $f_n > \alpha^{n-2}$, where $\alpha = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$, whenever $n \geq 3$.
(Hint: first show that $\alpha^2 = 1 + \alpha$)

6.4 Recurrence relations

Consider the following type of counting problem:

Example 6.19 How many bit strings of length n do not contain two consecutive zeros?

Example 6.20 *The number of bacteria in a colony doubles every hour. If a colony begins with five bacteria, how many will be present in n hours?*

Recurrence relations introduction

In the previous section we discussed how sequences can be defined recursively. Recursive definitions can be used to solve counting problems. When they are, the rule for finding terms from those that precede them is called a recurrence relation.

Definition 6.1 *A recurrence relation for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a formula that expresses a_n in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} , for all integers n with $n \geq n_0$, where n_0 is a nonnegative integer.*

A sequence is called a solution of a recurrence relation if its terms satisfy the recurrence relation.

Example 6.21 *Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$ for $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$, and suppose that $a_0 = 3$ and $a_1 = 5$. What are a_2 and a_3 ?*

Example 6.22 *Determine whether the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = 2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$ for $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$, where $a_n = 3n$ for every nonnegative integer n . Answer the same question where $a_n = 2^n$ and where $a_n = 5$.*

Initial conditions

The *initial conditions* for a sequence specify the terms that precede the first term where the recurrence relation takes effect.

The recurrence relation and initial conditions uniquely determine a sequence. This is the case since a recurrence relation, together with initial conditions, provide a recursive definition of the sequence. Any term of the sequence can be found from the initial conditions using the recurrence relation a sufficient number of times. However, there are better ways for computing the terms of certain

classes of sequences defined by recurrence relations and initial conditions.

We can use recurrence relations to model a wide variety of problems, such as finding compound interest, counting rabbits on an island, determining the number of moves in the tower of Hanoi puzzle, and counting bit strings with certain properties.

Compound interest

Example 6.23 *Suppose that a person deposits \$10,000 in a savings account at a bank yielding 11% per year with interest compounded annually. How much will be in the account after 30 years?*

Rabbits and the Fibonacci numbers

The next example shows how the population of rabbits on an island can be modelled using a recurrence relation.

Example 6.24 *Consider the following problem, which was originally posed by Leonardo di Pisa, also known as Fibonacci, in the 13th century in his book Liber abaci. A young pair of rabbits (one of each sex) is placed on an island. A pair of rabbits does not breed until they are two months old. After they are two months old, each pair of rabbits produces another pair each month. Find a recurrence relation for the number of pairs of rabbits on the island after n months, assuming that no rabbits ever die.*

The towers of Hanoi

The next example involves a famous puzzle.

Example 6.25 *A popular puzzle of the late 19th century, called the Towers of Hanoi, consists of three pegs mounted on a board together with discs of different sizes. Initially these discs are placed on the first peg in order of size, with the largest on the bottom. The rules of the puzzle allow discs to be moved one at a time from one peg to another as long as a disc is never placed on top of a smaller disc.*

The goal of the puzzle is to have all the discs on the second peg in order of size, with the largest on the bottom.

Let H_n denote the number of moves needed to solve the Towers of Hanoi problem with n discs. Set up a recurrence relation for the sequence $\{H_n\}$.

Non-consecutive 0's

Example 6.26 Find a recurrence relation and give initial conditions for the number of bit strings of length n that do not have two consecutive 0's. How many such bit strings are there of length five?

Codewords

The next example shows how a recurrence relation can be used to model the number of codewords that are allowable using certain validity checks.

Example 6.27 A computer system considers a string of decimal digits a valid codeword if it contains an even number of 0 digits. For instance, 1230407869 is valid, whereas 120987045608 is not valid.

Let a_n be the number of valid n -digit codewords. Find a recurrence relation for a_n .

6.5 Solving recurrence relations

A wide variety of recurrence relations occur in models. Some of these recurrence relations can be solved using iteration or some other ad hoc technique. However, one important class of recurrence relations can be explicitly solved in a systematic way. These are recurrence relations that express the terms of a sequence as linear combinations of previous terms.

Linear homogeneous recurrence relations

Definition 6.2 A linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree k with constant coefficients is a recurrence relation of the form

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k}$$

where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k are real numbers, and $c_k \neq 0$.

The recurrence relation in the definition is *linear* since the right-hand side is a sum of constant multiples of the previous terms of the sequence. The recurrence relation is *homogeneous* since no terms occur that are not multiples of the a_j 's. The coefficients of the terms of the sequence are all *constants*, rather than functions that depend on n . The *degree* is k because a_n is expressed in terms of the previous k terms of the sequence.

A consequence of the second principle of mathematical induction is that a sequence satisfying the recurrence relation in the definition is uniquely determined by this recurrence relation and the k initial conditions

$$a_0 = C_0, a_1 = C_1, \dots, a_{k-1} = C_{k-1}.$$

Linear homogeneous recurrence relations are studied for two reasons. First, they often occur in modelling of problems. Second, they can be systematically solved.

Solving linear homogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients

The basic approach for solving linear homogeneous recurrence relations is to look for solutions of the form $a_n = r^n$, where r is a constant. Note that $a_n = r^n$ is a solution of the recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \dots + c_k a_{n-k}$$

if and only if

$$r^n = c_1 r^{n-1} + c_2 r^{n-2} + \dots + c_k r^{n-k}.$$

Characteristic equation

When both sides of this equation are divided by r^{n-k} and the right-hand side is subtracted from the left, we obtain the equivalent equation

$$r^k - c_1 r^{k-1} - c_2 r^{k-2} - \dots - c_{k-1} r - c_k = 0.$$

Consequently, the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with $a_n = r^n$ is a solution if and only if r is a solution of this last equation, which is called the *characteristic equation* of the recurrence relation. The solutions of this equation are called the *characteristic roots* of the recurrence relation. As we will see, these characteristic roots can be used to give an explicit formula for all the solutions of the recurrence relation.

Linear homogeneous recurrence relations of degree two: distinct roots

We now turn our attention to linear homogeneous recurrence relations of degree two. First, consider the case when there are two distinct characteristic roots.

Theorem 6.2 Let c_1 and c_2 be real numbers. Suppose that $r^2 - c_1r - c_2 = 0$ has two distinct roots r_1 and r_2 . Then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2}$$

if and only if $a_n = \beta_1 r_1^n + \beta_2 r_2^n$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, where β_1 and β_2 are constants.

Proof: See lecture.

The actual procedure for solving the recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2}$$

with initial values a_0 and a_1 is the following (provided that the roots of the characteristic equation are distinct.):

Step 1 : Identify the characteristic polynomial $p(x)$ and find its roots r_1 and r_2

Step 2 : If $r_1 \neq r_2$ then the general solution is of the form

$$a_n = \beta_1 r_1^n + \beta_2 r_2^n$$

where β_1 and β_2 are constants.

Step 3 : Determine the values of β_1 and β_2 by using the initial conditions a_0 and a_1 .

Example 6.28 Solve the recurrence relation

$$a_{n+2} + 2a_{n+1} - 3a_n = 0$$

with initial values $a_0 = 1$ and $a_1 = -1$.

SOLUTION.

Step 1 Determine the characteristic equation by substituting

$$a_n = r^n \text{ and factoring out } r^n$$

$$r^{n+2} + 2r^{n+1} - 3r^n = 0$$

$$r^2 + 2r - 3 = 0$$

$$(r+3)(r-1) = 0$$

$$\text{Take } r_1 = -3 \text{ and } r_2 = 1.$$

Step 2 The general solution is

$$a_n = \beta_1(-3)^n + \beta_2(1)^n$$

Step 3 Using the initial values $a_0 = 1$ and $a_1 = -1$ we obtain

$$a_0 = 1 = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \quad (n = 0)$$

$$a_1 = -1 = \beta_2 - 3\beta_1 \quad (n = 1)$$

and this gives us $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \frac{1}{2}$.

Thus $a_n = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}(-3)^n$, $n \geq 0$ is the unique solution to the given recurrence relation.

Example 6.29 What is the solution of the recurrence relation

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$$

with $a_0 = 2$ and $a_1 = 7$?

Example 6.30 Find an explicit formula for the Fibonacci numbers.

Linear homogeneous recurrence relations of degree two: one root of multiplicity two

Theorem 4.2 does not apply when there is one characteristic root of multiplicity two. This case can be handled using the following theorem.

Theorem 6.3 Let c_1 and c_2 be real numbers with $c_2 \neq 0$. Suppose that $r^2 - c_1r - c_2 = 0$ has only one root r_1 . A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2}$ if and only if $a_n = \beta_1r_1^n + \beta_2nr_1^n$, for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, where β_1 and β_2 are constants.

The actual procedure for solving the recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2}$$

with initial values a_0 and a_1 is the following (provided that the roots of the characteristic equation are not distinct):

Step 1 : Identify the characteristic polynomial $p(x)$ and find its roots r_1 and r_2

Step 2 : If $r_1 = r_2$ then the general solution is of the form

$$a_n = \beta_1r_1^n + \beta_2nr_1^n = (\beta_1 + n\beta_2)r_1^n$$

where β_1 and β_2 are constants.

Step 3 : Determine the values of β_1 and β_2 by using the initial conditions a_0 and a_1 .

Example 6.31 Solve the recurrence relation

$$a_n + 2a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} = 0$$

with initial values $a_0 = 1$ and $a_1 = -3$.

Example 6.32 *What is the solution of the recurrence relation*

$$a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 9a_{n-2}$$

with initial conditions $a_0 = 1$ and $a_1 = 6$?

Enumeration

7.1 Introduction

In this section we will consider problems involving counting the number of ways that we can choose a number of objects. These basically fall into two types: *arrangement* problems in which the order in which we make the choices is significant, and *selection* problems in which the order is not significant.

We have three basic rules in solving these problems.

The union rule: Let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k be finite, *disjoint* sets (i.e. finite sets such that, for $i \neq j$, $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$). Then $|\bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i| = \sum_{i=1}^k |A_i|$.

The product rule: Let S be a set of ordered k -tuples (s_1, s_2, \dots, s_k) such that, for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ and each possible choice of s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{i-1} , there are n_i possible choices for s_i . Then $|S| = n_1 n_2 \cdots n_k$.

The counting lemma: Let A and B be finite sets and let $\psi : A \rightarrow B$ be a function such that, for every $b \in B$, $|\psi^{-1}(b)| = r$. Then $|B| = |A|/r$. (Here $\psi^{-1}(b) = \{a \in A : \psi(a) = b\}$.)

7.2 Arrangement problems

Arrangements with replacement

We have n different types of object and we want to put r of them in a row. The ordering matters. We have an unlimited supply of each type of object. How many ways can we do this?

This is a straightforward use of the product rule. For example consider 4 consecutive throws of a 6-sided dice. The first throw gives us one out of six numbers, as does the second, third and fourth. Hence the number of possible results is 6^4 . In general, the number of arrangements of r things from a set of n things with replacement is

$$n^r.$$

Example 7.1 How many car number plates can be made up out of 3 letters ('A', ..., 'Z') followed by 4 digits ('0', ..., '9')

Arrangements without replacement

Given a set X , an r -permutation of X is an arrangement of r of the elements of X in order, with no repetition of elements. We denote the number of r -permutations of a set with n elements by $P(n, r)$. By the product rule, there are $n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-r+1)$ r -permutations of X . So we have

$$P(n, r) = n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-r+1) = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!}.$$

In the case $r = n$, we simply refer to a *permutation* of X . The number of permutations of an n -element set is $P(n, n) = n!$.

Example 7.2 *In how many ways can we choose a chairperson, vice-chairperson, secretary, and treasurer from a group of 10 persons?*

Example 7.3 *Imagine a row of 5 chairs in a room. There are 7 persons in the room. In how many ways can 5 among them sit on the row of chairs?*

Example 7.4 *Three men and three women are going to occupy a row of six seats. In how many different orders can they be seated so that men occupy the two end seats?*

Arrangements with repetitions

In many cases, we do not want to consider all the permutations of X as being distinct. For example, if we regard the two Gs in EGG as being identical, then there are only 3 ways to arrange the letters of the word EGG, rather than $3! = 6$.

Suppose that the elements of a set X are partitioned into k disjoint sets X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k with $|X_i| = n_i$.

- We wish to count the number of types of arrangement of the elements of X , in which two arrangements are deemed to be of the same type if the corresponding terms come from the same set X_i .
- We let A denote the set of arrangements of the elements of X , and B the set of types of arrangement.

- If $\psi : A \rightarrow B$ is the function which takes a given arrangement to its type, then, for every $b \in B$, $|\psi^{\leftarrow}(b)| = n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!$.
- So by the counting lemma we have

$$|B| = \frac{|A|}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!} = \frac{n!}{n_1!n_2!\cdots n_k!}.$$

Example 7.5 *How many strings can be formed using the following letters?*

OUAGADOUGOU

Example 7.6 *How many distributions of ten different books are possible if Vanessa is to receive 5 books, Paul is to receive 3 books, and Rachel is to receive 2 books?*

Example 7.7 *A playoff between two teams consists of at most five games. No games end in a draw. The first team that wins three games wins the playoff. In how many ways can the playoff occur?*

Example 7.8 *Three jars of jam and three jars of honey are to be put in a row on a shelf. In how many different orders can they be placed so that there are jars of jam at both ends?*

7.3 Selections

We now consider counting problems in which the order we make our choices does not matter. In other words, instead of choosing an ordered r -tuple of elements of a set X , we are going to choose an r -element subset of X . We denote the number of r -element subsets of an n -element set by $C(n, r)$, or $\binom{n}{r}$.

To calculate $\binom{n}{r}$, let X be an n -element set, let A be the set of r -permutations of X and let B be the set of r -element subsets of X . Define $\psi : A \rightarrow B$ by

$$\psi((x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r)) = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_r\}.$$

Then, for any $Y \in B$, $\psi^{\leftarrow}(Y)$ is the set of permutations of Y , which has cardinality $P(r, r) = r!$. So, by the counting lemma, we have

$$\binom{n}{r} = |B| = \frac{|A|}{r!} = \frac{n!}{(n-r)!r!}.$$

The numbers $\binom{n}{r}$ are called *binomial coefficients*. Some of their properties are given in section 7.5.

Example 7.9 *An ordinary deck of 52 cards consists of four suits (clubs, diamonds, hearts, and spades) of 13 denominations each (ace, 2-10, jack, queen, king).*

- (a) *How many (unordered) five-card poker hands, selected from an ordinary 52-card deck, are there?*
- (b) *How many poker hands contain cards all of the same suit?*
- (c) *How many poker hands contain three cards of one denomination and two cards of a second denomination?*

Example 7.10 *In a non-standard set of 40 playing cards (10 cards of 4 different suits) how many distinct four-card hands contain cards comprising of exactly*

- (a) *one suit?*
- (b) *two suits?*
- (c) *three suits?*
- (d) *four suits?*

SOLUTION.

- (a) $\binom{4}{1}\binom{10}{4} = 840$.
- (b) $\binom{4}{2} \left[\binom{10}{3}\binom{10}{1} + \binom{10}{2}\binom{10}{2} + \binom{10}{1}\binom{10}{3} \right] = 26,550$.
- (c) $\binom{4}{3} \left[\binom{10}{2}\binom{10}{1}\binom{10}{1} + \binom{10}{1}\binom{10}{2}\binom{10}{1} + \binom{10}{1}\binom{10}{1}\binom{10}{2} \right] = 54,000$.
- (d) $\binom{4}{4}\binom{10}{1}\binom{10}{1}\binom{10}{1}\binom{10}{1} = 10,000$.

Example 7.11 *Suppose a class of 12 students is to be divided into four study groups of three students. In how*

many ways can this be done (a) if the groups study different subjects; (b) if the groups study the same subject?

Example 7.12 *A certain class consists of 16 men and 13 women. How many different committees can be chosen from this class if the committees consist of:*

- (a) 9 people?
- (b) 5 men and 4 women?
- (a) 9 men or 9 women?

SOLUTION.

(a) $\binom{29}{9} = 10,015,005$.

(b) $\binom{16}{5} \times \binom{13}{4} = 3,123,120$.

(c) $\binom{16}{9} + \binom{13}{9} = 11,440 + 715 = 12,155$.

Example 7.13 *How many routes are there from the lower left corner of an $n \times n$ square grid to the upper right corner if we are restricted to traveling only to the right or upward?*

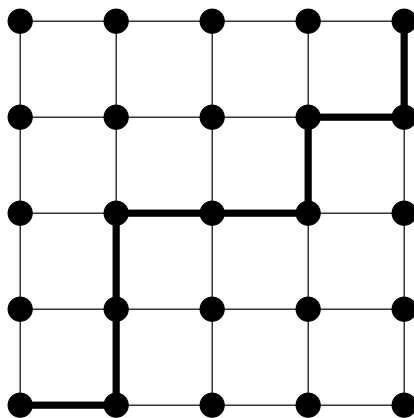


Figure 7.1

Example 7.14 *An investor is going to invest \$16,000 in four stocks chosen from a list of twelve prepared by her broker. How many different investments are possible if*

- (a) *\$4000 is to be invested in each stock?*
- (b) *\$6000 is to be invested in one stock, \$5000 in another, \$3000 in the third, and \$2000 in the fourth?*

7.4 Selections with repetitions allowed

Suppose we have a bag containing a large number of marbles in each of three colors: brown, yellow and blue. In how many ways can we select 5 marbles from the bag? In this case we are selecting 5 objects from 3 types, with order unimportant and with repetition allowed.

To answer this question, we will exhibit a 1–1 correspondence between the set of solutions and the set of sequences of 5 0s and 2 1s. The correspondence is as follows: a selection of i brown marbles, j blue marbles and p yellow marbles corresponds to the sequence of i 0s followed by a 1 followed by j 0s followed by a 1 followed by p 0s. For example, the selection “1 brown, 0 blue, 4 yellow” corresponds to the sequence 0110000.

So now we just need to work out how many sequences of 5 0s and 2 1s there are. Well, there are 7 symbols, and we must select the 2 places to put the 1s. So the answer is $\binom{7}{2}$.

In general, the number of ways of selecting n objects from k types, with order unimportant but with repetition allowed, is

$$\binom{n+k-1}{k-1}.$$

- = number of ways of selecting n objects of k different types
- = number of ways of placing n indistinguishable objects into k bins
- = number of ways of arranging n objects and $k-1$ dividers

In Section 7.5 we learn that

$$\binom{n+k-1}{k-1} = \binom{n+k-1}{n}.$$

If k is greater than n then it is easier to calculate the expression to the right.

Example 7.15 *A bakery sells 8 varieties of muffins. Apple, banana, blueberry, cheese, chocolate, double chocolate, peach and everyone's favorite, broccoli. How many ways are there to select*

1. 16 muffins?
2. 16 muffins with at least one of each kind?
3. 16 muffins with at least two peach and at least three chocolate?
4. 16 muffins with no more than two broccoli?
5. 16 muffins with at least two cheese, at least three chocolate and no more than two broccoli muffins?

Example 7.16 *Donut King makes four different types of donuts.*

- (a) *How many different assortments of one dozen donuts can be purchased?*
- (b) *How many different assortments of one dozen donuts can be purchased that include at least one donut of each type?*
- (c) *How many different assortments of one dozen donuts can be purchased that include no more than three chocolate donuts?*

Example 7.17 *A math lecturer is about to assign grades of A, B, C or D, where D is a failing grade, to his class of 100 students. How many different grade distributions are possible if:*

1. *Any distribution is allowed.*
2. *No more than 80% of the students may pass.*
3. *No fewer than 50% of the students may pass.*
4. *No more than 20% of the students may get A grades.*
- 5* *Conditions 2, 3 and 4 apply.*

Example 7.18 *A generous eccentric withdraws \$700 in \$100 notes from the bank. He meets 3 strangers in the street on his way home and gives all this money away to them.*

- (a) *In how many ways can the money be distributed among the 3 strangers?*
- (b) *In how many ways can the money be distributed among the 3 strangers if each stranger gets at least \$100?*

SOLUTION.

- (a) $\binom{7+3-1}{3-1} = 36$.
- (b) $\binom{4+3-1}{3-1} = 15$. *First give \$100 to each stranger and then share out the remaining \$400.*

7.5 Some properties of binomial coefficients

We now describe some of the facts about the binomial coefficients $\binom{n}{k}$. First, the reason for the name.

Fact 1: for any real numbers a and b , and any $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

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

This is the *binomial theorem*. We will prove this later, using induction and Fact 3 (below).

Fact 2: For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$,

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k} \quad \text{and} \quad \binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1.$$

This is because the number of ways of selecting k objects is the same as the number of ways of selecting which $n-k$ objects to omit.

Fact 3 (Pascal's Identity): For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$,

$$\binom{n+1}{k+1} = \binom{n}{k+1} + \binom{n}{k}.$$

This is because we can choose $k+1$ of the $n+1$ objects either by choosing $k+1$ of the first n objects or by choosing k of the first n objects together with the $(n+1)^{\text{th}}$ object.

Example 7.19 *Let n be a positive integer. Show that*

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n.$$

7.6 The inclusion/exclusion principle

We know that if A and B are disjoint sets then $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$. What if A and B are not disjoint? In counting $|A| + |B|$, we have counted the elements of $A \cap B$ twice, so if we subtract $|A \cap B|$, we will get the right number. In other words,

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

What about three sets A , B and C ? As before, in counting $|A| + |B| + |C|$ the elements of $A \cap B$, $A \cap C$, and $B \cap C$ will be counted more than once. If we subtract $(|A \cap B| + |A \cap C| + |B \cap C|)$, we will have dealt properly with elements which are in two of the sets. However, elements of $A \cap B \cap C$ will have been added three times and subtracted three times, so we must add them in again to get

$$\begin{aligned} |A \cup B \cup C| = & (|A| + |B| + |C|) \\ & - (|A \cap B| + |A \cap C| + |B \cap C|) \\ & + |A \cap B \cap C|. \end{aligned}$$

In general, let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be sets. Let $I = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. For $1 \leq k \leq n$, let $\mathcal{P}_k = \{J \subseteq I : |J| = k\}$. Then

$$\left| \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i \right| = \sum_{k=1}^n \left[(-1)^{k-1} \sum_{J \in \mathcal{P}_k} \left| \bigcap_{i \in J} A_i \right| \right]. \quad (*)$$

This result is known as the **inclusion/exclusion principle**.

Proof of the inclusion/exclusion principle

To prove this result, consider the contribution of a typical element x of $\bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$ to the right hand side of the equation. Suppose that x is in m of the sets, namely $A_{i_1}, A_{i_2}, \dots, A_{i_m}$. First, fix some k with $1 \leq k \leq n$. The contribution of x to $\sum_{J \in \mathcal{P}_k} \left| \bigcap_{i \in J} A_i \right|$ is the number of sets in \mathcal{P}_k which are subsets of $\{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m\}$, in other words the number of k -element subsets of an m -element set, which is $\binom{m}{k}$. In particular, x contributes nothing if $k > m$. So the total contribution of x to the right hand side of $(*)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^m \left[(-1)^{k-1} \binom{m}{k} \right] &= 1 - \left(\sum_{k=0}^m \binom{m}{k} (-1)^k \right) \\ &= 1 - (1 + (-1))^m \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Using the inclusion/exclusion principle

Example 7.20 Suppose that there are 1807 first year students at Auckland University. Of these, 453 are taking a course in biology, 567 are taking a course in chemistry, and 299 are taking courses in both biology and chemistry. How many are not taking a course in either biology or in chemistry?

Example 7.21 How many numbers between 1 and 1000 are divisible by 3, 5 or 7?

SOLUTION. For each $n \in \mathbb{P} = \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 1}$, let M_n denote the set of numbers between 1 and 1000 which are divisible by n . Then $|M_n| = \lfloor \frac{1000}{n} \rfloor$. Notice that $M_m \cap M_n = M_l$, where l is the least common multiple of m and n . By the inclusion/exclusion principle, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & |M_3 \cup M_5 \cup M_7| \\ &= (|M_3| + |M_5| + |M_7|) \\ &\quad - (|M_3 \cap M_5| + |M_3 \cap M_7| + |M_5 \cap M_7|) \\ &\quad + (|M_3 \cap M_5 \cap M_7|) \\ &= (|M_3| + |M_5| + |M_7|) \\ &\quad - (|M_{15}| + |M_{21}| + |M_{35}|) + (|M_{105}|) \\ &= (333 + 200 + 142) - (66 + 47 + 28) + 9 \\ &= 543 \end{aligned}$$

Example 7.22 Among a group of 200 Auckland University students, 19 study French, 10 study German, and 28 study Spanish. If 3 study both French and German, 8 study both French and Spanish, 4 study both German and Spanish, and 1 studies French, German, and Spanish, how many of these students are not studying French, German, or Spanish?

Example 7.23 At McDonald's restaurants a Happy Meal box contains one of four possible gifts. If you buy 5 Happy Meals, what is the probability that you will receive every one of the four gifts?

7.7 The pigeonhole principle

In its simplest form, the pigeonhole principle states that if m objects (maybe letters or pigeons) are placed into n boxes (called “pigeonholes”), and $m > n$, then one pigeonhole must receive at least two objects.

General pigeonhole principle

In general, if the number of objects is more than k times the number of pigeonholes, then some pigeonhole must contain at least $k + 1$ objects.

In general, if the elements of a set with N elements are partitioned into k subsets, then one of the subsets must contain at least $\lceil \frac{N}{k} \rceil$ elements.

(Note $\lceil \cdot \rceil$ is the ceiling function. $\lceil x \rceil$ means take the smallest integer which is greater than or equal to x . For example $\lceil 9.1 \rceil = 10$.)

Proof: Suppose A is a set with $|A| = N$, and A is partitioned into subsets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k . In other words, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k are disjoint sets whose union is the whole of A . Let $x = \frac{N}{k}$. Suppose that $|A_i| < x$ for each i . Then

$$\begin{aligned} N &= \sum_{i=1}^k |A_i| \\ &< \sum_{i=1}^k x \\ &= kx \\ &= N \end{aligned}$$

This contradiction shows that there must be at least one i such that $|A_i| \geq x$. But then, since $|A_i|$ is an integer, we must have $|A_i| \geq \lceil x \rceil$, ie $|A_i| \geq \lceil \frac{N}{k} \rceil$, as required.

Example 7.24 *How many students must be in a class to guarantee that at least two students receive the same score on the final exam, if the exam is graded on a scale from 0 to 100 points?*

Example 7.25 *Suppose that 83 marbles are to put into 9 bags. Then one bag must receive at least $\lceil \frac{83}{9} \rceil = \lceil 9.22 \rceil = 10$ marbles.*

Example 7.26 *How many people must be selected from a collection of fifteen married couples to ensure that at least*

two of the persons chosen are married to each other?

Example 7.27 Choose any five points from the interior of an equilateral triangle having sides of length 1. Show that the distance between some pair of these points does not exceed $\frac{1}{2}$.

Example 7.28 Show that, among a collection of $n^2 + 1$ objects, there are either $n + 1$ which are identical or $n + 1$ which are all different.

SOLUTION. Let $p =$ ‘the number of sets of identical objects’.

There are now two possibilities, either $p \leq n$ or $p > n$.

(i) Suppose that $p \leq n$, then $\frac{n^2+1}{p} > n$, therefore some set of identical objects contains at least $n + 1$ objects. That is, at least $n + 1$ objects are identical.

(ii) Suppose that $p > n$, then there are at least $n + 1$ sets of identical objects. That is, at least $n + 1$ objects are all different.

Hence, among a collection of $n^2 + 1$ objects, there are either $n + 1$ which are identical or $n + 1$ which are all different.

7.8 * Some harder applications of the pigeonhole principle

We now give some examples which show how the pigeonhole principle can be used to solve non-trivial problems.

Example 7.29 *Let $A \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, 14\}$ with $|A| = 6$. Show that A has distinct subsets B and C such that the sum of the elements of B equals the sum of the elements of C .*

Example 7.30 *Assume that in a group of six people, each pair of individuals consists of two friends or two enemies. Show that there are either three mutual friends or three mutual enemies.*

Example 7.31 *During a month with 30 days a netball team plays at least 1 game a day, but no more than 45 games. Show that there must be a period of some number of consecutive days during which the team must play exactly 14 games.*

Deterministic Finite Automata

8.1 Alphabet and strings

Alphabet

Let Σ be a finite alphabet. When Σ contains k letters, we say Σ is a k -letter alphabet. A 1-letter alphabet is a *unary alphabet*, and a 2-letter alphabet is a *binary alphabet*. Our typical binary alphabet is $\{a, b\}$. A finite sequence of symbols from Σ is called a *string* or *word*.

Strings

Each string v is of the form $\sigma_1\sigma_2\ldots\sigma_n$, where $\sigma_i \in \Sigma$. The *length* of v , denoted by $|v|$, is the number of symbols it has. Thus, $|abb| = 3$, $|baba| = 4$, and $|a| = 1$.

The string of length 0 is called the *empty string*. Its notation is λ .

There are k^n strings of length n over a k -letter alphabet.

Concatenation operation

The set of all strings over the alphabet Σ is

$$\Sigma^* = \{\sigma_1\sigma_2\ldots\sigma_m \mid \sigma_1, \sigma_2, \ldots, \sigma_m \in \Sigma, m \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

We denote strings by the letters u, v, w, \ldots

The *concatenation* of u and v is obtained by writing u followed by v . Concatenation is denoted by $u \cdot v$. We have:

$$u \cdot (v \cdot w) = (u \cdot v) \cdot w.$$

For any string u we have $\lambda \cdot u = u \cdot \lambda$.

We sometime write uv , instead of $u \cdot v$.

Substrings

For a string u we denote by u^n the following string:

$$u^n = \underbrace{u \cdot u \cdot \ldots \cdot u}_{n \text{ times}}$$

If a string w occurs in a string u , we say that w is a *substring* of u . That is, w is a substring of u if $u = u_1wu_2$ for some strings u_1 and u_2 . One can see that every string u is a substring of itself (take $u_1 = u_2 = \lambda$).

A string w is a *prefix* of a string u if u can be written as wu_1 .

For example, The prefixes of $aabbba$ are λ , a , aa , aab , $aabb$, $aabbb$ and $aabbba$.

Languages

A *language* over an alphabet Σ is a subset of Σ^* .

Here are some examples of languages:

1. \emptyset , Σ^* , $\{a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, $\{aba, bab\}$.
2. $\{w \in \{a, b\}^* \mid bab \text{ is a substring of } w\}$.
3. $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ has even length}\}$.
4. $\{w \in \Sigma^* \mid w \text{ has a substring } aba\}$.

We denote languages by U , V , W , L , \dots

8.2 Operations on languages

Boolean operations

Let U and V be languages over an alphabet Σ . The following operations on languages are called *Boolean operations*:

1. The *union* of U and V is $U \cup V$,
2. The *intersection* of U and V is $U \cap V$,
3. The *complement* of U is $\Sigma^* \setminus U$.

Concatenation operation

Let U and W be languages on some alphabet set Σ . The *concatenation* of U and W , denoted by $U \cdot W$, is the language $U \cdot W = \{u \cdot w \mid u \in U, w \in W\}$.

Example 8.1 Let $U = \{aba, bab\}$ and $W = \{aab, bba\}$. Then $U \cdot W = \{abaaab, ababba, babaab, babbba\}$.

The Kleene star operation

Let U be a language (over some alphabet), and consider the sequence $U^0, U^1, U^2, U^3, U^4, \dots$, where the language U^n , for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is defined by the rule $U^0 = \{\lambda\}$, $U^1 = U$, $U^2 = U \cdot U$, and $U^n = U^{n-1} \cdot U$.

We take the union of all these languages: $U^* = U^0 \cup U^1 \cup U^2 \cup U^3 \cup \dots$

The language U^* is called *the star of the language U* .

Deterministic finite automata

Let U be a language over an alphabet Σ . Suppose we are given a string v , and we would like to check whether v belongs to U . A *deterministic finite automaton (DFA)* is an algorithm that determines whether v belongs to U or not.

Formally,

Definition 8.1 *A deterministic finite automaton (DFA) is a 5-tuple (S, q_0, T, F, Σ) , where*

- S is the set of states.
- q_0 is the initial state and $q_0 \in S$.
- T is the transition function $T : S \times \Sigma \rightarrow S$.
- F is a subset of S called the set of accepting states.
- Σ is an alphabet.

We sometime write (S, q_0, T, F) instead of (S, q_0, T, F, Σ) since Σ is explicitly given by the transition function T .

We use letters $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \dots$ to denote finite automata.

Example 8.2 *Let us look at the language U that consists of all strings u such that u contains the substring baa . We want to design an algorithm that, given a string v , determines whether $v \in U$. The following is the Find- $baa(v)$ -algorithm that on input*

$$v = \sigma_1 \dots \sigma_n$$

determines if v contains baa as a sub-string (and if it does, then $v \in U$).

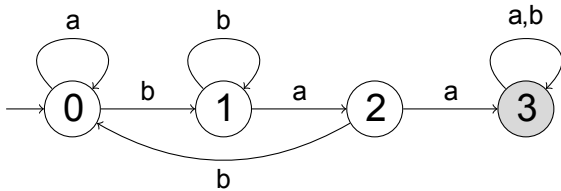
Find-baa(v)-algorithm

1. Initialize variables $i = 1$ and $state = 0$.
2. If $state = 0$ and $\sigma_i = a$ then set $state = 0$.
3. If $state = 0$ and $\sigma_i = b$ then set $state = 1$.
4. If $state = 1$ and $\sigma_i = a$ then set $state = 2$.
5. If $state = 1$ and $\sigma_i = b$ then set $state = 1$.
6. If $state = 2$ and $\sigma_i = a$ then set $state = 3$.
7. If $state = 2$ and $\sigma_i = b$ then set $state = 0$.
8. If $state = 3$ and $\sigma_i \in \{a, b\}$ then $state = 3$.
9. Increment i by one.
10. If $i = n + 1$ then go to Line 11. Otherwise go to Line 2.
11. If $state = 3$ then output accept. Otherwise output reject.

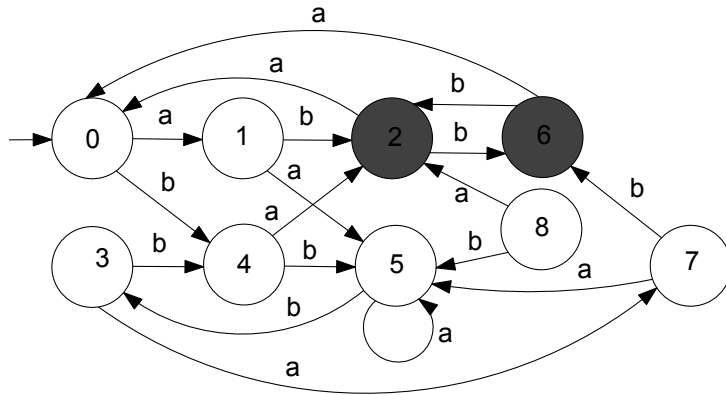
The algorithm makes its transitions from one state to another depending on the input symbol σ read. Therefore, we have a transition function $T : \{0, 1, 2, 3\} \times \{a, b\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$ given by the following Table.

	a	b
0	0	1
1	2	1
2	3	0
3	3	3

We can represent a finite automata as a labeled directed graph. We call this graph transition diagram. Therefore we have the following transition diagram for the Find-baa(v)-algorithm.



Example 8.3 What is the transition table for the following transition diagram?



Runs and acceptance

Let $\mathcal{M} = (S, q_0, T, F, \Sigma)$ be a DFA and $u = \sigma_1 \dots \sigma_n$ be a string. The *run* of the automaton on u is the sequence of states $s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n, s_{n+1}$ such that s_1 is the initial state and $T(s_i, \sigma_i) = s_{i+1}$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$.

The run of \mathcal{M} on a string $u = \sigma_1 \dots \sigma_n$ can be viewed of as the execution the following algorithm $Run(\mathcal{M}, u)$:

1. Initialize $s = q_0$, $i = 1$, and print s .
2. While $i \leq n$ do
 - (a) Set $\sigma = \sigma_i$.
 - (b) Set $s = T(s, \sigma)$.
 - (c) Print s .
 - (d) Increment i

Let $\mathcal{M} = (S, q_0, T, F, \Sigma)$ be a DFA and $u = \sigma_1 \dots \sigma_n$ be a string. We say that \mathcal{M} *accepts* u if the run s_1, \dots, s_n, s_{n+1} of \mathcal{M} on u is such that the last state $s_{n+1} \in F$. Such a run is called an *accepting run*.

DFA recognizable languages

Let $\mathcal{M} = (S, q_0, T, F, \Sigma)$ be a DFA. The *language accepted by* \mathcal{M} , denoted by $L(\mathcal{M})$, is the language $L(\mathcal{M}) = \{w \mid \text{the automaton } \mathcal{M} \text{ accepts } w\}$.

A language $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ is *DFA recognizable* if there exists a DFA \mathcal{M} such that $L = L(\mathcal{M})$.

Example 8.4 Consider a DFA with exactly one state. If the state is an accepting state, then the automaton accepts the language Σ^* . If the state is not an accepting state, then the automaton recognizes the empty language \emptyset .

Example 8.5 Consider the language $L = \{u\}$ consisting of one word $u = \sigma_1 \dots \sigma_n$.

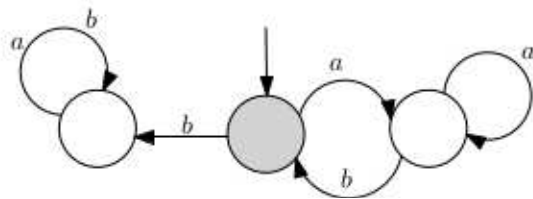
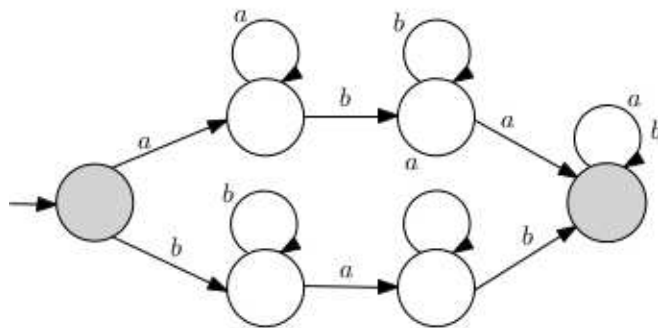
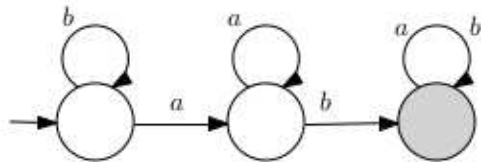
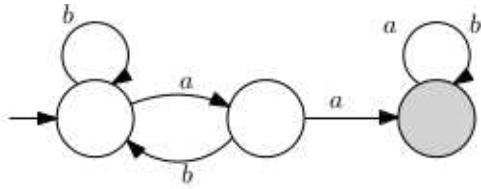
This language L is recognized by the following DFA $(S, 0, T, F)$:

1. $S = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots, n+1\}$ with 0 being the initial state.

2. For all $i \leq n-1$, $T(i, \sigma_{i+1}) = i+1$. In other cases $T(s, \sigma) = n+1$.

3. The accepting state is n .

Example 8.6 Describe languages accepted by the DFA below:



Graphs

The subject of graph theory was initiated by Leonhard Euler. He used it to solve the famous Königsberg bridge problem, which we will discuss later in this chapter.

Graph theory has turned out to be an important tool for solving problems in many fields. For example, one can model the internet by representing webpages as dots and hyperlinks as arrows from one dot to another. Social networks and power infrastructures can also be represented as graphs. By analysing the graph one can determine which nodes have the most influence, or one can evaluate the vulnerability of a network against failure or attack. Problems such as finding the shortest tour through a number of cities can be expressed and solved using graph theory. There are many more applications.

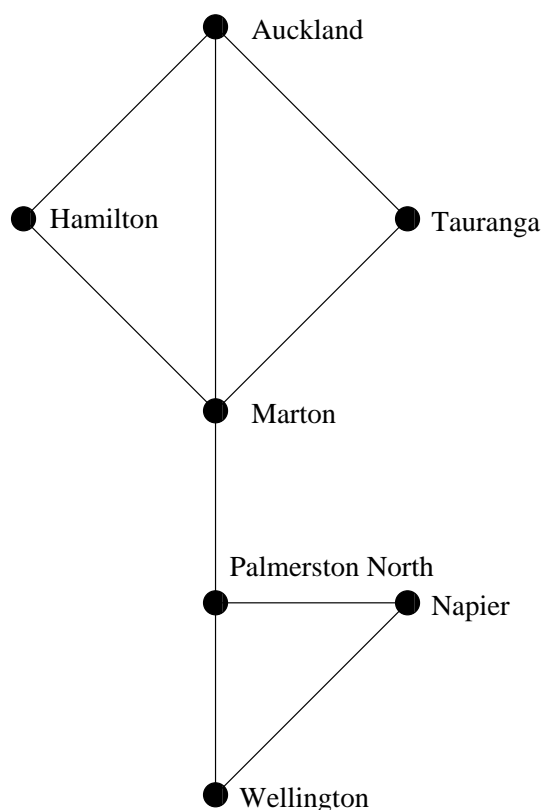
9.1 Introduction to graphs

Graphs are discrete structures formed of dots (called vertices) and lines (called “edges” or “arcs”) that run between the vertices.

Examples of graphs

Example 9.1 *A simple example of a graph is the following representation of roads between some towns in New Zealand. In such a picture we are not concerned with the roads within the towns, so it suffices to represent each town as a single dot, or vertex. Similarly, we are not concerned with the length of the road, or the exact route it takes across the land. So it suffices to represent the road with a single line.*

Note that all the roads are two-way roads (can drive from Auckland to Hamilton or from Hamilton to Auckland along the same road).



Example 9.2 Now suppose the above graph is not a graph of roads, but of fibre optic cables between some computer data centres in these towns. Each data centre is represented by a vertex, and each optical cable by an edge.

Note that there is at most one cable between two computers in this network and that each cable operates in both directions. In other words, this network can be modeled using a simple graph.

Definition 9.1 A simple graph $G = (V, E)$ consists of V , a nonempty set of vertices, and E , a set of unordered pairs of distinct elements of V called edges.

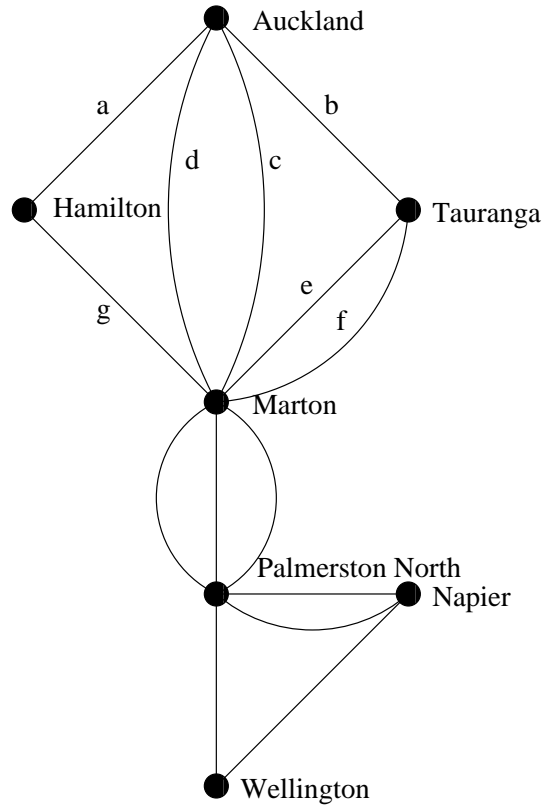
Multigraphs

Sometimes there are multiple optical cables between computers in a network. This is the case when there is heavy traffic between computers. A network with multiple lines is displayed below. Simple graphs may not be sufficient to model such networks. Instead, multigraphs are used, which consist of vertices and undirected edges between

these vertices, with multiple edges between pairs of vertices allowed.

Every simple graph is also a multigraph. However, not all multigraphs are simple graphs, since in a multigraph two or more edges may connect the same pair of vertices.

Example 9.3 *The following is a multigraph. Note that we label the edges, so that c and d are both edges from Auckland to Marton, representing different cables from Auckland to Marton data centres.*



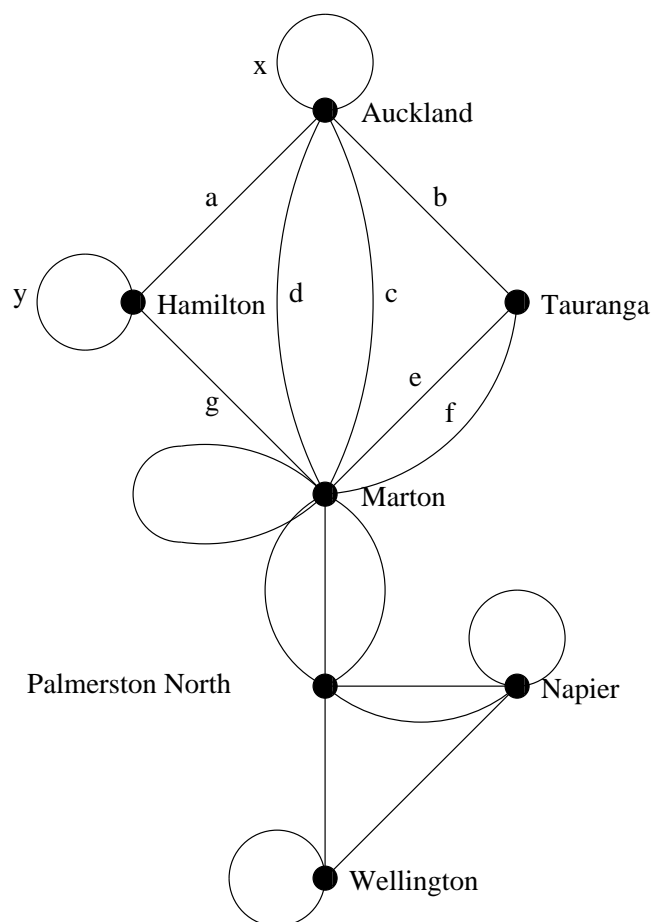
We cannot use a pair of vertices to specify an edge of a graph when multiple edges are present. This makes the formal definition of multigraphs somewhat complicated.

Definition 9.2 A Multigraph $G = (V, E)$ consists of a set V of vertices, a set E of edges, and a function f from E to $\{\{u, v\} | u, v \in V, u \neq v\}$. The edges e_1 and e_2 are called multiple or parallel edges if $f(e_1) = f(e_2)$.

Loops and pseudographs

Example 9.4 A graph may contain edges between a vertex and itself. These are called loops. The definitions above for graphs and multigraphs do not allow loops, so

we define pseudographs below. The following image has some loops added to the previous graph.



Definition 9.3 A pseudograph $G = (V, E)$ consists of a set V of vertices, a set E of edges, and a function f from E to $\{\{u, v\} | u, v \in V\}$. An edge is a loop if $f(e) = \{u, u\}$ for some $u \in V$.

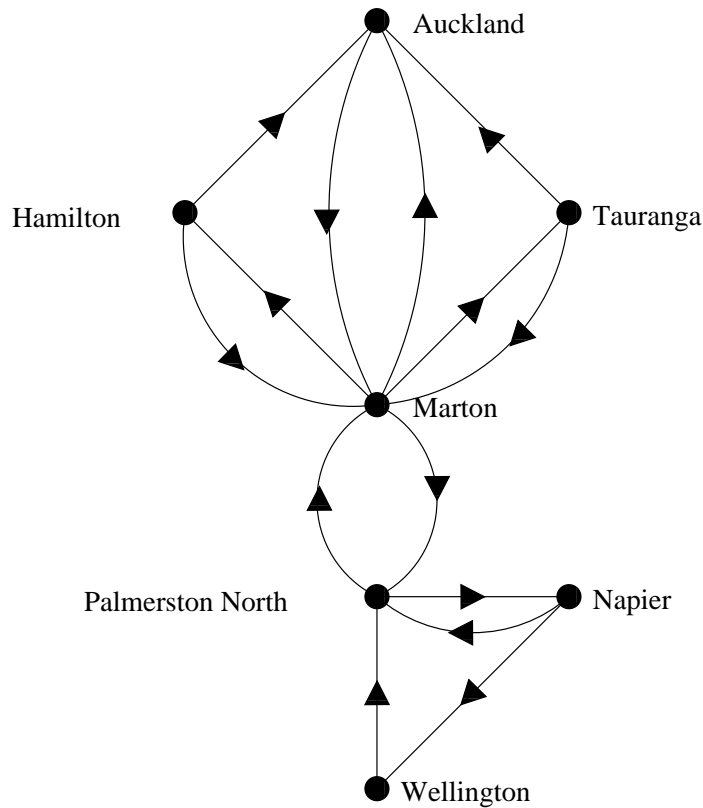
We often say “ $\{u, v\}$ is an edge of G ” for a graph $G = (V, E)$ if there is at least one edge e with $f(e) = \{u, v\}$.

To summarize, pseudographs are the most general type of undirected graphs since they may contain loops and multiple edges. Multigraphs are undirected graphs that may contain multiple edges but may not have loops. Finally, simple graphs are undirected graphs with no multiple edges or loops.

Directed graphs

Example 9.5 The optical cables in a computer network may not operate in both directions. For instance, in the

following graph, the host computer in Auckland can only send data to Marton.

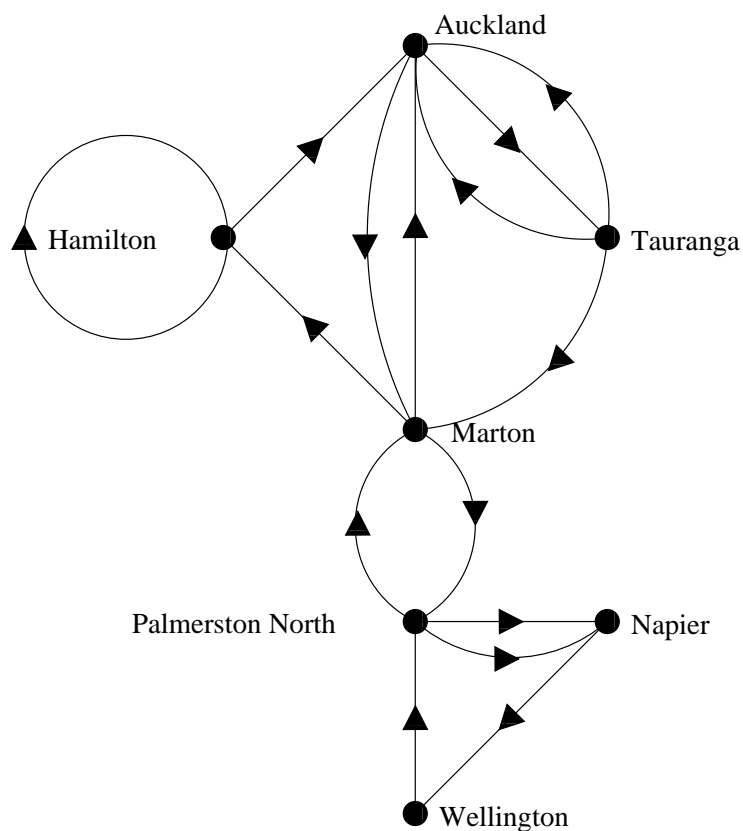


We use directed graphs to model such networks. The edges of a directed graph are ordered pairs rather than sets. Loops, ordered pairs of the same element, are allowed, but multiple edges in the same direction between two vertices are not.

Definition 9.4 A directed graph (V, E) consists of a set of vertices V and a set of edges E that are ordered pairs of elements of V .

Directed multigraphs

Example 9.6 There may be several one-way fibre cables between two data centres. Such a network is shown next.



Directed graphs are not sufficient for modeling such a network, since multiple edges are not allowed in these graphs. Instead we use *directed multigraphs*.

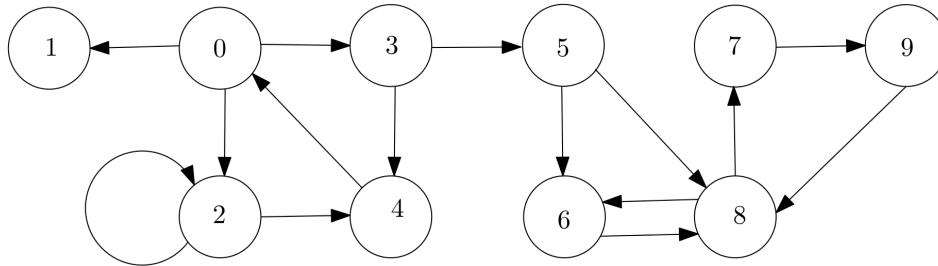
Definition 9.5 A *directed multigraph* $G = (V, E)$ consists of a set V of vertices, a set E of edges, and a function f from E to $\{(u, v) | u, v \in V\}$. The edges e_1 and e_2 are *multiple edges* if $f(e_1) = f(e_2)$.

As before, we will say that (u, v) is an edge of $G = (V, E)$ as long as there is at least one edge e with $f(e) = (u, v)$. We will often interchangeably use the edge e and the ordered pair (u, v) associated to it, unless the identity of individual multiple edges is important.

Example 9.7 We give one more example of a directed graph. Let $G = (V, E)$ where $V = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ and the set E of edges is

$$E = \{(0, 1), (0, 2), (0, 3), (2, 2), (2, 4), (3, 4), (3, 5), (4, 0), (5, 6), (5, 8), (6, 8), (7, 9), (8, 6), (8, 7), (9, 8)\}.$$

Then the graph is pictured below.



Summary of terminology

The definitions of the various types of graphs are summarized in Table 9.1.

Graph theory has been applied and developed in a wide range of subjects and applications. Hence, the terminology is not completely standard. When reading other books and webpages you should be careful that the notions “graph” and “multigraph” may have slightly different meanings.

Table 9.1: Graph Terminology

Type	Edges	Multiple Edges Allowed?	Loops Allowed?
Simple graph	Undirected	No	No
Multigraph	Undirected	Yes	No
Pseudograph	Undirected	Yes	Yes
Directed graph	Directed	No	Yes
Directed multigraph	Directed	Yes	Yes

9.2 Basic terminology

We introduce some basic vocabulary used in graph theory.

Terminology on vertices and edges

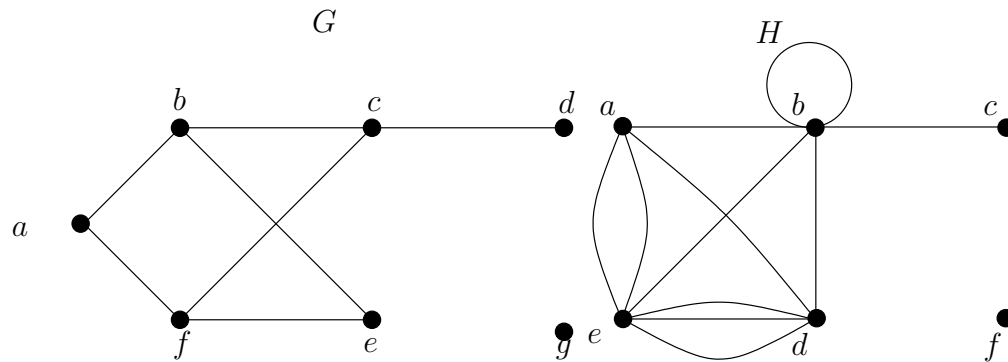
Definition 9.6 Two vertices u and v in an undirected graph G are called adjacent (or neighbors) in G if $\{u, v\}$ is an edge of G . If $e = \{u, v\}$, the edge e is called incident with the vertices u and v . The edge e is also said to connect u and v . The vertices u and v are called endpoints of the edge $\{u, v\}$.

Degree

To keep track of how many edges are incident to a vertex, we make the following definition.

Definition 9.7 *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 $\deg(v)$.*

Example 9.8 What are the degrees of the vertices in the graphs G and H ?



Isolated and pendant vertices

A vertex of degree 0 is called *isolated*. It follows that an isolated vertex is not adjacent to any vertex. A vertex is *pendant* if and only if it has degree 1. Consequently, a pendant vertex is adjacent to exactly one other vertex.

Example 9.9 What are the isolated and pendant vertices in the graphs G and H above?

The handshaking theorem

Every edge is incident with exactly two (possibly equal) vertices. Hence, the sum of the degrees of the vertices is twice the number of edges. This result is sometimes called the Handshaking Theorem, because of the analogy between an edge having two endpoints and a handshake involving two hands.

Theorem 9.1 [The Handshaking Theorem] Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph with $|E|$ edges. Then

$$2|E| = \sum_{v \in V} \deg(v)$$

(Note this applies even if multiple edges and loops are present.)

Proof: See lecture.

Example 9.10 *How many edges are there in a graph with 10 vertices each of degree 6?*

Theorem 9.1 shows that the sum of the degrees of the vertices of an undirected graph is even. This simple fact has many consequences, one of which is given as Theorem 9.2.

Theorem 9.2 *An undirected graph has an even number of vertices of odd degree.*

Proof: See lecture.

Terminology for directed graphs

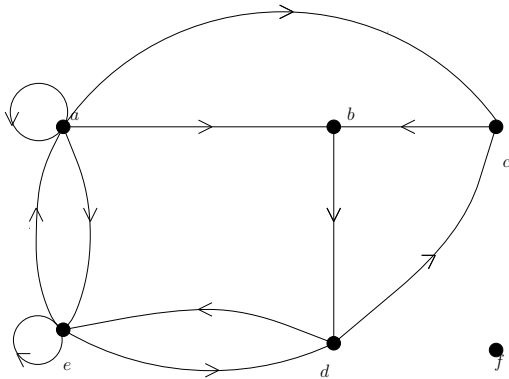
We now give some useful terminology for graphs with directed edges.

Definition 9.8 *When (u, v) is an edge of the graph G with directed edges, u is said to be adjacent to v and v is said to be adjacent from u . The vertex u is called the initial vertex of (u, v) , and v is called the terminal or end vertex of (u, v) . The initial vertex and terminal vertex of a loop are the same. We say an edge (u, v) is outgoing from u and ingoing to v .*

In-degree and out-degree

Definition 9.9 *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. (Note that a loop at a vertex contributes 1 to both the in-degree and the out-degree of this vertex.)*

Example 9.11 Find the in-degree and out-degree of each vertex in the graph G with directed edges shown below.



Since each edge has an initial vertex and a terminal vertex, the sum of the in-degrees and the sum of the out-degrees of all vertices in a graph with directed edges are the same. Both of these sums are the number of edges in the graph. This result is stated as the following theorem.

Theorem 9.3 Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph with directed edges. Then

$$\sum_{v \in V} \deg^-(v) = \sum_{v \in V} \deg^+(v) = |E|.$$

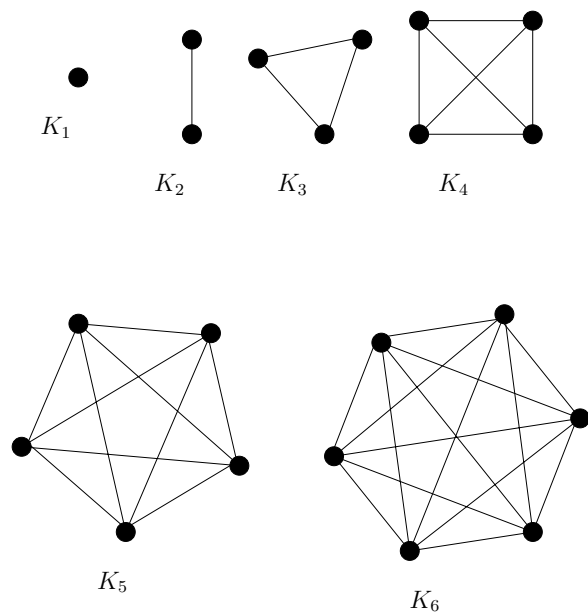
Underlying graph

There are many properties of a graph with directed edges that do not depend on the direction of its edges. Consequently, it is often useful to ignore these directions. The undirected graph that results from ignoring directions of edges is called the *underlying undirected graph*. A graph with directed edges and its underlying undirected graph have the same number of edges.

We will now introduce several classes of simple graphs. These graphs are often used as examples and arise in many applications.

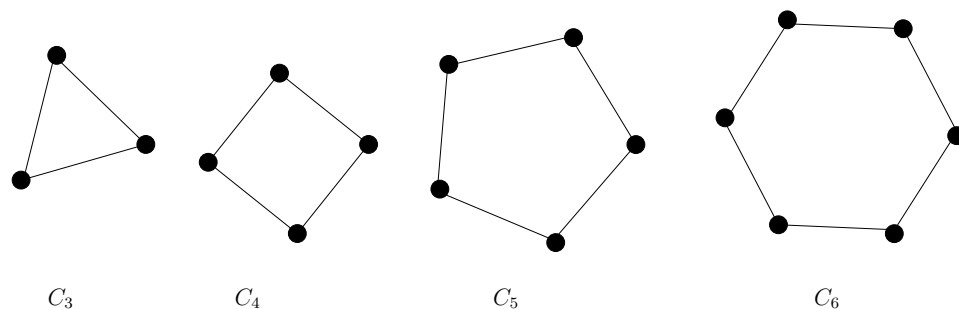
Complete graphs

The *complete graph* on n vertices, denoted by K_n , is the simple graph that contains exactly one edge between each pair of distinct vertices. The graphs K_n , for $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$ are displayed below.



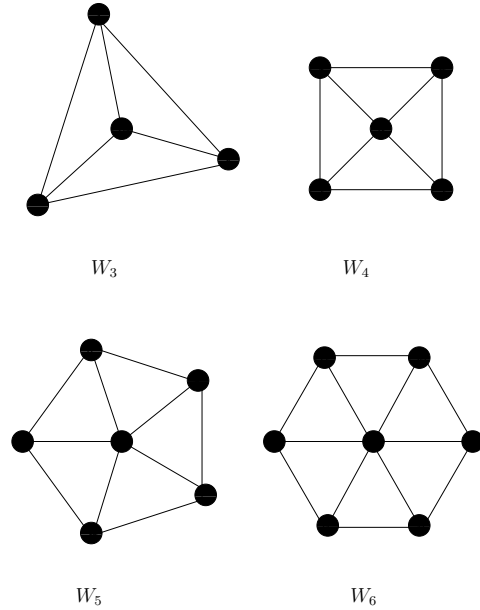
Cycle graphs

The *cycle graph* C_n , $n \geq 3$, consists of n vertices v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n and edges $\{v_1, v_2\}, \{v_2, v_3\}, \dots, \{v_{n-1}, v_n\}$ and $\{v_n, v_1\}$. The cycle graphs C_3, C_4, C_5 , and C_6 are displayed below.



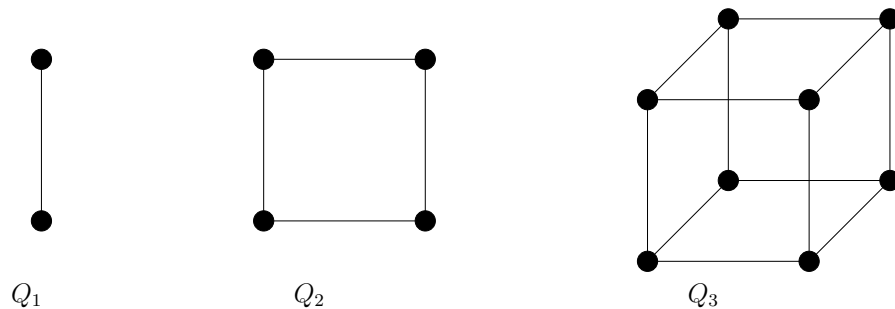
Wheel graphs

We obtain the *wheel graph* W_n when we add an additional vertex to the cycle C_n , for $n \geq 3$, and connect this new vertex to each of the n vertices in C_n by new edges. The wheel graphs W_3 , W_4 , W_5 , and W_6 are displayed below.



n -Cubes

The n -cube, denoted by Q_n is the graph that has vertices representing the 2^n bit strings of length n . Two vertices are adjacent if and only if the bit strings that they represent differ in exactly one bit position. The graphs Q_1 , Q_2 , and Q_3 are displayed below.



Bipartite graphs

Sometimes a graph has the property that its vertex set can be divided into two disjoint subsets such that each edge connects a vertex in one of these subsets to a vertex in the other subset. For example, consider the graph

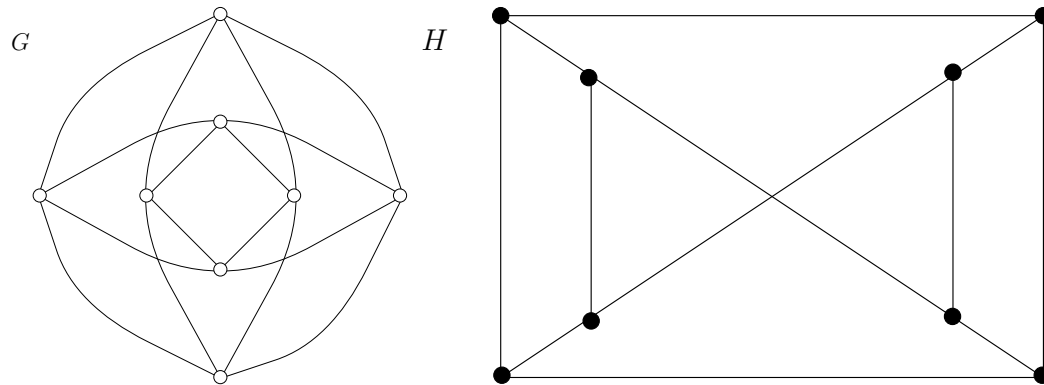
representing all the students in this class and the set of courses they are taking. We draw an edge between a student and a course if the student is taking that course. The vertex set is the union $S \cup C$ where S is the set of students and C is the set of courses.

Definition 9.10 *A simple graph G is called bipartite if its vertex set 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).*

Example 9.12 *Show that C_6 is bipartite.*

Example 9.13 *Show that K_3 is not bipartite.*

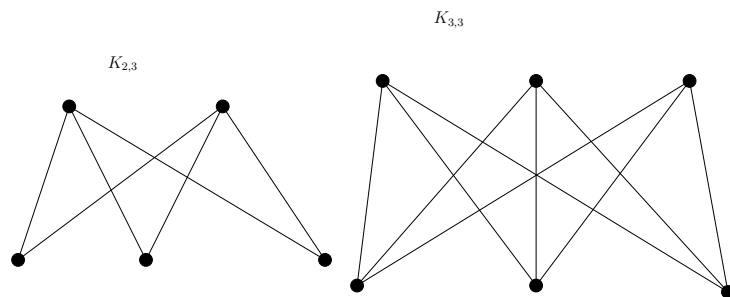
Example 9.14 Are the graphs G and H displayed below bipartite?



Complete bipartite graphs

The *complete bipartite graph* $K_{m,n}$ is the graph that has its vertex set partitioned into two subsets of m and n vertices, respectively. There is an edge between two vertices if and only if one vertex is in the first subset and the other vertex is in the second subset.

Example 9.15 The complete bipartite graphs $K_{2,3}$ and $K_{3,3}$ are displayed below.



Subgraphs

Sometimes we need only part of a graph to solve a problem. For instance, we may care only about one part of

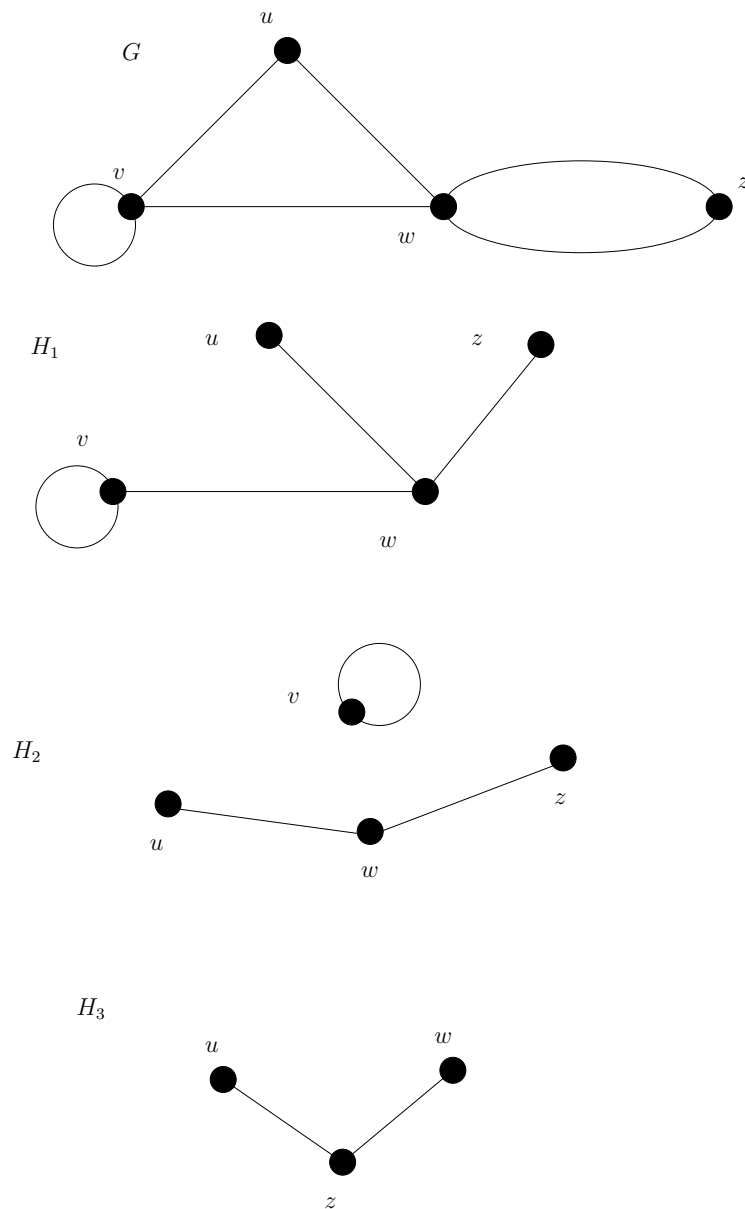
a large computer network, such as the part that involves the data centres in Auckland, Hamilton, Wellington, and Christchurch. We can ignore the other centres and cables. In the graph model we remove the vertices corresponding to the computer centres other than the four of interest, and we remove all edges incident with any vertex that was removed.

When edges and vertices are removed from a graph, without removing endpoints of any remaining edges, a smaller graph is obtained. Such a graph is called a *subgraph* of the original graph.

Definition 9.11 A subgraph of a graph $G = (V, E)$ is a graph $H = (W, F)$ where $W \subseteq V$ and $F \subseteq E$. (Note: $\{u, v\} \in F \implies \{u, v\} \subseteq W$)

Notice that, in the definition of a subgraph, we *must* remove any edges which have had one of their endpoints removed. This does not mean that we may not also remove some of the other edges. For example, for any graph $G = (V, E)$, the graph $H = (V, \emptyset)$ counts as a (rather uninteresting) example of a subgraph.

Example 9.16 Let G be the graph shown below. Which of the graphs H_1 , H_2 , H_3 are subgraphs of G ?

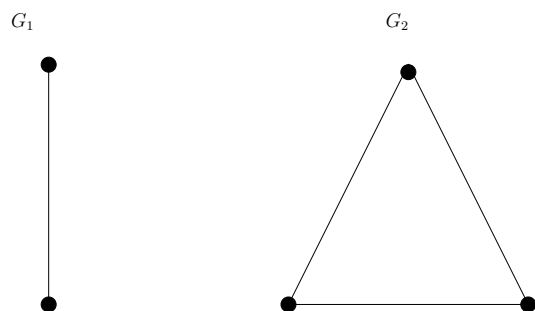


Union of two graphs

Two or more graphs can be combined in various ways. The new graph that contains all the vertices and edges of these graphs is called the *union* of the graphs. We will give a more formal definition for the union of two simple graphs.

Definition 9.12 The union of two simple graphs $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ is the simple graph with vertex set $V_1 \cup V_2$ and edge set $E_1 \cup E_2$. The union of G_1 and G_2 is denoted by $G_1 \cup G_2$. (Note: we assume $V_1 \cap V_2 = \emptyset$.)

Example 9.17 Find the union of the graphs G_1 and G_2 shown below.



9.3 Representing graphs

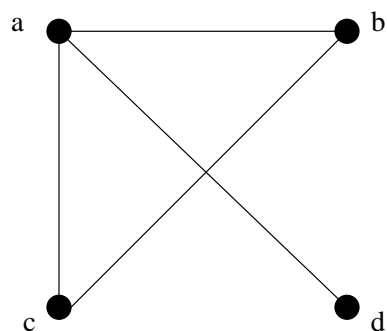
There are many useful ways to represent graphs. When working with graphs, it is helpful to be able to choose the most convenient representation. In this section we will show how to represent graphs in several different ways.

Sometimes, two graphs have exactly the same structure, in the sense that there is a one-to-one correspondence between their vertex sets that preserves edges. In such a case, we say that the two graphs are *isomorphic*. Determining whether two graphs are isomorphic is an important problem of graph theory that we will study in this section.

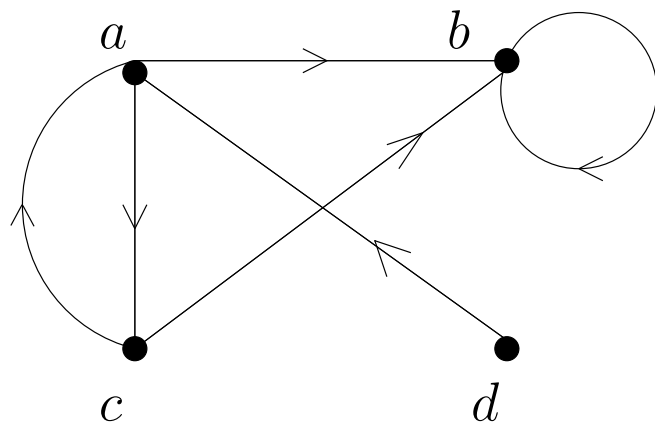
Adjacency lists

One way to represent a graph without multiple edges is to list all the edges of this graph. Another way to represent a graph with no multiple edges is to use *adjacency lists*, which specify the vertices that are adjacent to each vertex of the graph.

Example 9.18 Use adjacency lists to describe the simple graph given below.



Example 9.19 Represent the directed graph shown below by listing all the vertices that are the terminal vertices of edges starting at each vertex of the graph.



Adjacency matrices

Carrying out graph algorithms using the representation of graphs by lists of edges, or by adjacency lists, can be cumbersome if there are many edges in the graph. To simplify computation, graphs can be represented using matrices. Two types of matrices commonly used to represent graphs will be presented here. One is based on the adjacency of vertices, and the other is based on incidence of vertices and edges.

Suppose that $G = (V, E)$ is a simple graph where $|V| = n$. Suppose that the vertices of G are listed as v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n . The *adjacency matrix* A (or A_G) of G with respect to this listing of the vertices, is the $n \times n$ zero-one matrix with 1 as its (i, j) th entry when v_i and v_j are adjacent, and 0 as its (i, j) th entry when they are not adjacent. In other words, if its adjacency matrix is $A = [a_{ij}]$, then

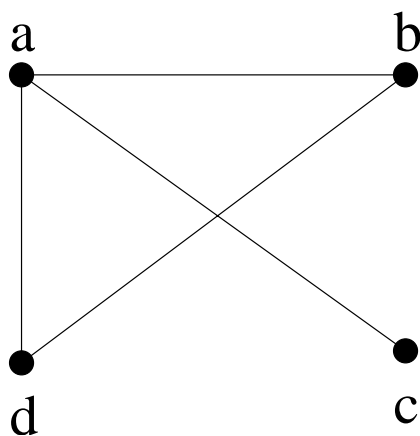
$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \{v_i, v_j\} \text{ is an edge of } G \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Note that an adjacency matrix of a graph is based on the

ordering chosen for the vertices. Hence, there are potentially as many as $n!$ different adjacency matrices for a graph with n vertices, since there are $n!$ different orderings of n vertices. However, once a listing v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n of the vertices has been decided, the adjacency matrix is uniquely determined by the graph.

The adjacency matrix of a simple graph is symmetric, meaning that $a_{ij} = a_{ji}$, since both of these entries are 1 when v_i and v_j are adjacent, and both are 0 otherwise. Furthermore, since a simple graph has no loops, each entry a_{ii} , $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n$, is 0.

Example 9.20 Use an adjacency matrix to represent the graph shown below.

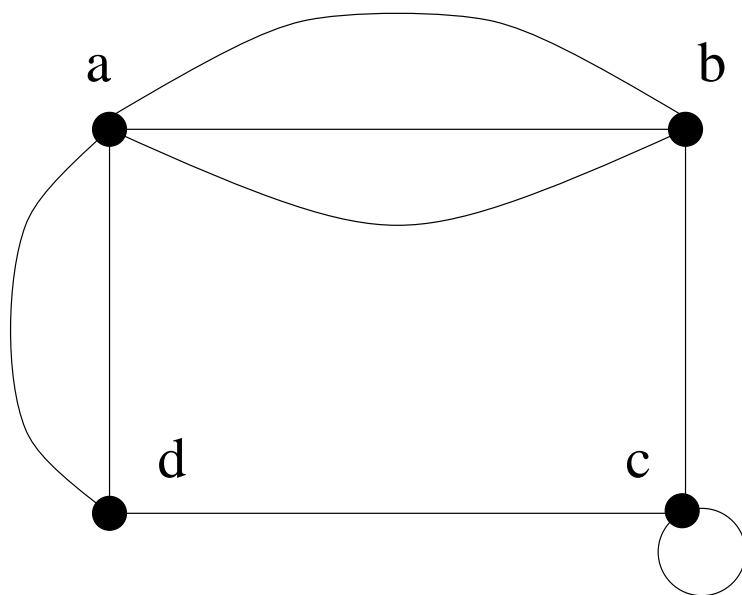


Example 9.21 Draw a graph with the adjacency matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Adjacency matrices can also be used to represent undirected graphs with loops and with multiple edges. A loop at the vertex v_i is represented by a 1 at the (i, i) th position of the adjacency matrix. When multiple edges are present, the adjacency matrix is no longer a zero-one matrix, since the (i, j) th entry of this matrix equals the number of edges that are associated to $\{v_i, v_j\}$. All undirected graphs, including multigraphs and pseudographs, have symmetric adjacency matrices.

Example 9.22 Use an adjacency matrix to represent the pseudograph shown below.



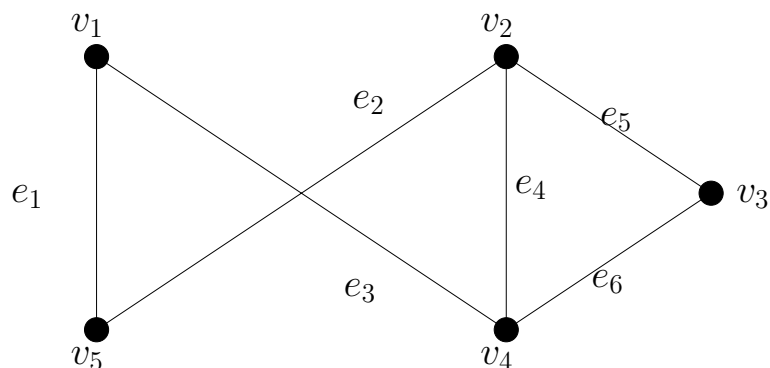
The adjacency matrix for a directed graph does not have to be symmetric, since there may not be an edge from v_j to v_i when there is an edge from v_i to v_j . Adjacency matrices can also be used to represent directed multigraphs. Again, such matrices are not zero-one matrices when there are multiple edges in the same direction connecting two vertices. In the adjacency matrix for a directed multigraph, a_{ij} equals the number of edges that are associated to (v_i, v_j) .

Incidence matrices

Another common way to represent graphs is to use *incidence matrices*. Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph. Suppose that v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n are the vertices and e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m are the edges of G . Then the incidence matrix with respect to this ordering of V and E is the $n \times m$ matrix $M = [m_{ij}]$ where

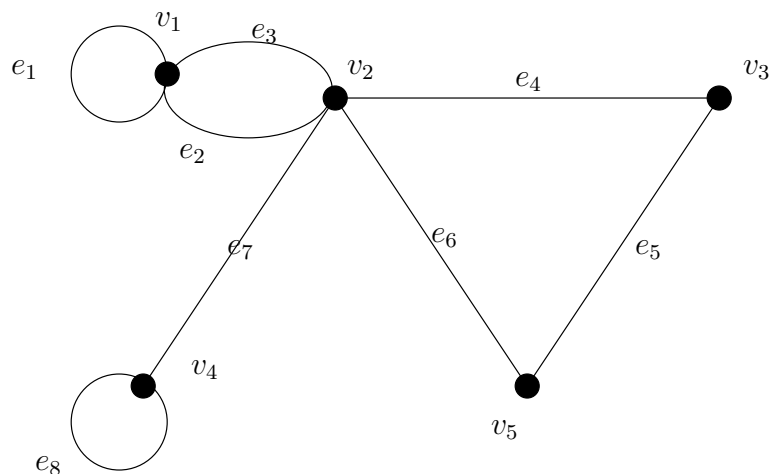
$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } e_j \text{ is incident with } v_i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example 9.23 Represent the graph shown below with an incidence matrix.



Incidence matrices can also be used to represent multiple edges and loops. Multiple edges are represented in the incidence matrix using columns with identical entries, since these edges are incident with the same pair of vertices. Loops are represented using a column with exactly one entry equal to 1, corresponding to the vertex that is incident with this loop.

Example 9.24 Represent the pseudograph shown below using an incidence matrix.



9.4 Connectivity, paths and circuits

Many problems can be studied by considering paths formed by traveling along the edges of graphs. For instance, the problem of determining whether a message can be sent

between two computers using intermediate links can be studied with a graph model.

Paths and circuits

We begin by defining the basic terminology of paths and circuits.

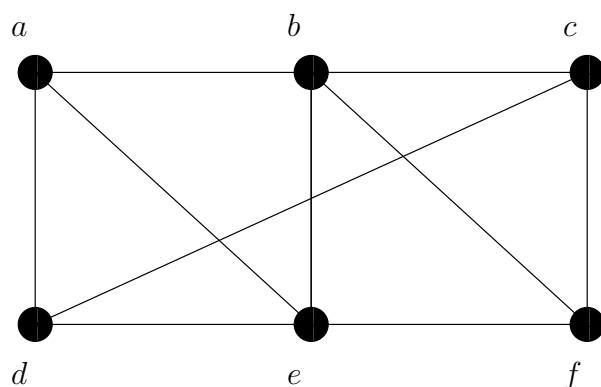
Definition 9.13

- A **path of length n** from u to v , where n is a non-negative integer, in an undirected graph is a sequence of edges e_1, \dots, e_n of the graph such that $f(e_1) = \{x_0, x_1\}$, $f(e_2) = \{x_1, x_2\}, \dots, f(e_n) = \{x_{n-1}, x_n\}$, where $x_0 = u$ and $x_n = v$. When the graph is simple, we denote this path by its vertex sequence x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n (since listing these vertices uniquely determines the path).
- The path is a **circuit** (or **cycle**) if it begins and ends at the same vertex, that is, if $u = v$. The path or circuit is said to **pass through** or **traverse** the vertices x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1} .
- A path or circuit is **simple** if it does not contain the same edge more than once.

We remark that the graph theory literature does not agree on whether or not a simple path is allowed to visit any vertex twice (except perhaps the initial vertex being equal to the final vertex, in the case of a circuit). The graph theory literature contains other notions, such as “walk” and “trail” that are more general than the notion of “simple path”.

When it is not necessary to distinguish between multiple edges, we will denote a path e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n where $f(e_i) = \{x_{i-1}, x_i\}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ by its vertex sequence x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n . This notation identifies a path only up to the vertices it passes through. There may be more than one path that passes through this sequence of vertices.

Example 9.25 In the simple graph given below, show that a, d, c, f, e is a simple path of length 4. Why is d, e, c, a is not a path? Show that b, c, f, e, b is a circuit. What is the length of the circuit b, c, f, e, b ? Is the path a, b, e, d, a, b simple?



Theorem 9.4 Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph and let $u, v \in V$. If there is a path from u to v then there is a simple path from u to v .

Proof: See lecture.

Theorem 9.5 Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph and let $u, v, w \in V$. If there is a path from u to v and a path from v to w then there is a path from u to w .

Proof: See lecture.

Connectedness in undirected graphs

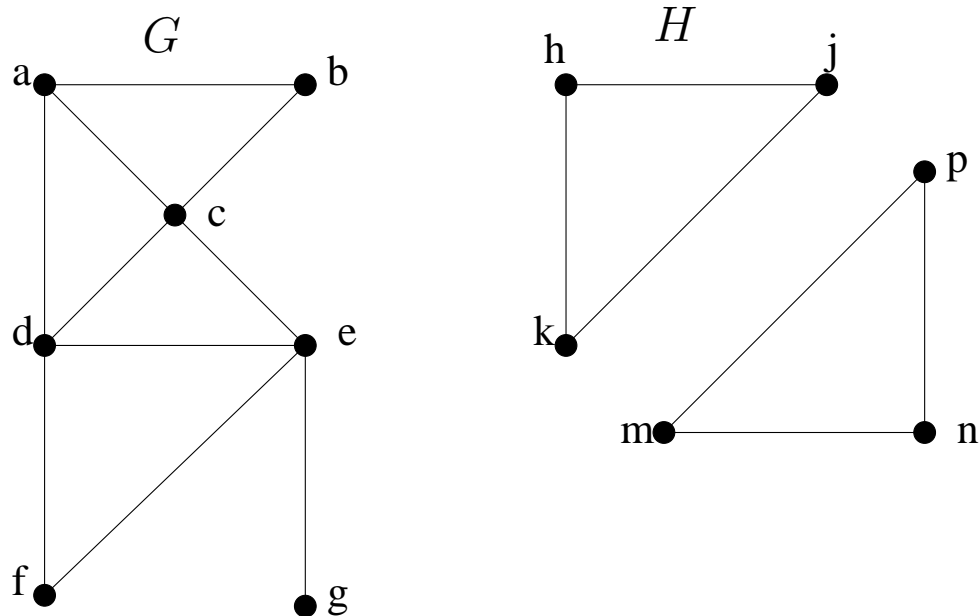
A fundamental problem is to determine whether or not a network has the property that every pair of nodes can communicate with one another. For example, in a network of computers or data centres, two devices can communicate if there is a cable between them or if their messages can be sent through one or more intermediate computers. If the network is represented by a graph, where edges represent the communication links, this problem becomes: When is there always a path between two vertices in the graph?

Definition 9.14 An undirected graph is called connected if there is a path between every pair of distinct vertices of the graph.

For this definition we always allow a path of length 0 from a vertex to itself.

Thus, any two computers in the network can communicate if and only if the graph of this network is connected.

Example 9.26 Is the graph G shown below connected? Why or why not? Is the graph H shown below connected? Why or why not?



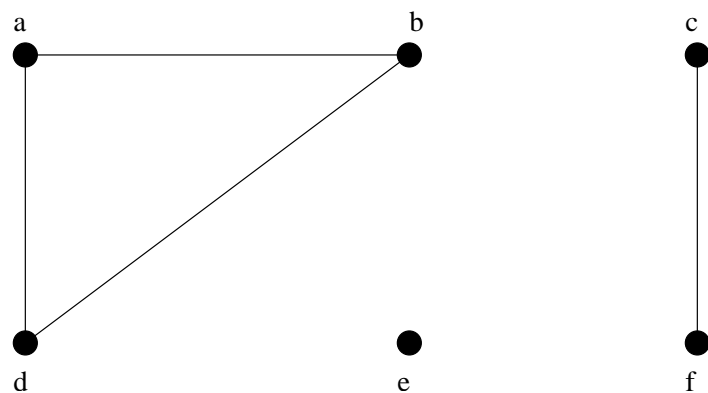
Theorem 9.6 *There is a simple path between every pair of distinct vertices of a connected undirected graph.*

Proof: See lecture.

Components

A graph that is not connected is the union of two or more connected subgraphs, each pair of which has no vertex in common. These disjoint connected subgraphs are called the *connected components* of the graph.

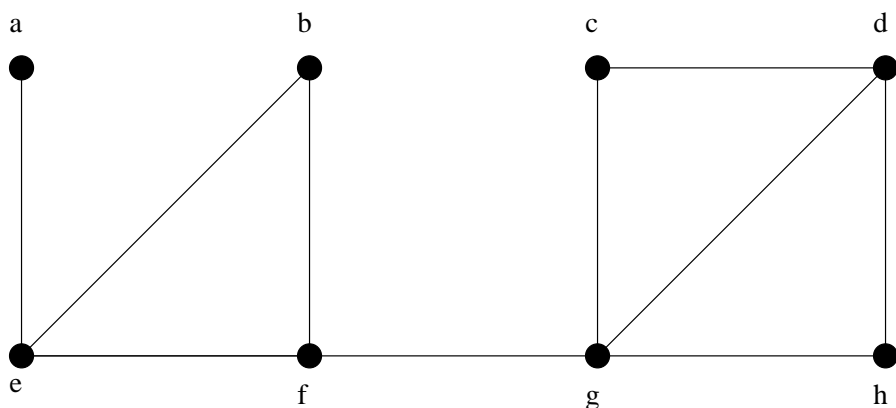
Example 9.27 *What are the connected components of the graph G shown below?*



Cut vertices and cut edges

Sometimes the removal of a vertex and all edges incident with it produces a subgraph with more connected components than in the original graph. Such vertices are called *cut vertices* (or *articulation points*). The removal of a cut vertex from a connected graph produces a subgraph that is not connected. Analogously, an edge whose removal produces a graph with more connected components than in the original graph is called a *cut edge* or *bridge*.

Example 9.28 Find the cut vertices and cut edges in the graph G shown below.



Paths and circuits in directed multigraphs

Definition 9.15

- A **path** of length n , where n is a positive integer, from u to v in a directed multigraph is a sequence of edges e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n of the graph such that $f(e_1) = (x_0, x_1)$, $f(e_2) = (x_1, x_2)$, \dots , $f(e_n) = (x_{n-1}, x_n)$, where $x_0 = u$ and $x_n = v$. When there are no multiple edges in the graph, this path is denoted by its vertex sequence $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$.
- A path that begins and ends at the same vertex is called a **circuit** or **cycle**.
- A path or circuit is called **simple** if it does not contain the same edge more than once and each vertex only appears once unless the initial vertex is the final vertex or there is a loop in the graph.

When it is not necessary to distinguish between multiple edges, we will denote a path e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n where $f(e_1) = (x_{i-1}, x_i)$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ by its vertex sequence x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n . The notation identifies a path only up to the vertices it passes through. There may be more than one path that passes through this sequence of vertices.

Connectedness in directed graphs

There are two notions of connectedness in directed graphs, depending on whether the directions of the edges are considered. Again we declare that a vertex is always strongly connected with itself (by a path of length zero).

Definition 9.16 *Two vertices a, b in a directed graph are strongly connected if there is a path from a to b and a path from b to a .*

A directed graph is strongly connected if there is a path from a to b and a path from b to a whenever a and b are vertices in the graph.

For a directed graph to be strongly connected there must be a sequence of directed edges from any vertex in the graph to any other vertex. A directed graph can fail to be strongly connected but still be in “one piece.” To make this precise, the following definition is given.

Definition 9.17 *A directed graph is weakly connected if there is a path between any two vertices in the underlying undirected graph.*

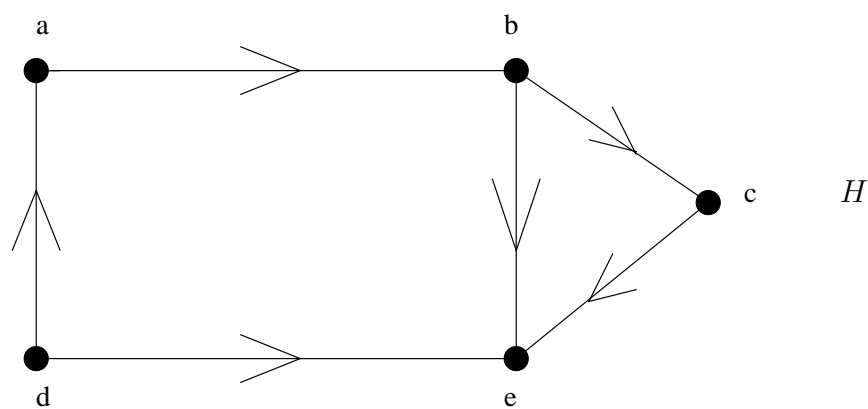
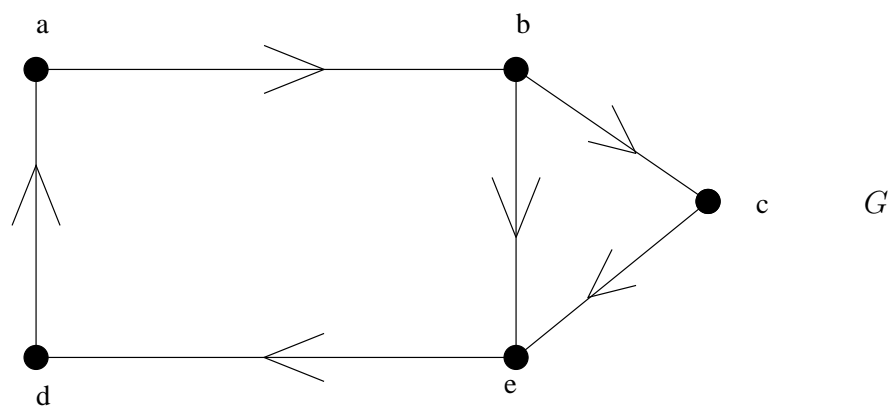
That is, a directed graph is weakly connected if and only if there is always a path between two vertices when the directions of the edges are disregarded. Clearly, any strongly connected directed graph is also weakly connected.

Theorem 9.7 *Let $G = (V, E)$ be a directed graph.*

1. *Every vertex is strongly connected to itself.*
2. *Let $u, v \in V$. If u is strongly connected to v then v is strongly connected to u .*
3. *Let $u, v, w \in V$. If u is strongly connected to v and v is strongly connected to w then u is strongly connected to w .*

Proof: See lecture.

Example 9.29 *Are the directed graphs G and H shown below strongly connected? Are they weakly connected?*

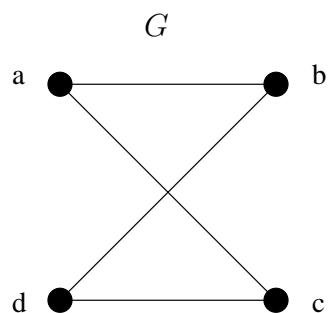


Counting paths between vertices

The number of paths between two vertices in a graph can be determined using its adjacency matrix.

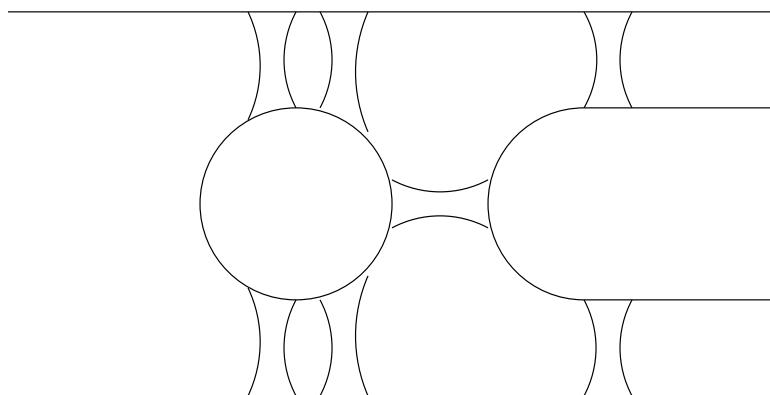
Theorem 9.8 Let G be a graph with adjacency matrix A with respect to the ordering v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n (with directed or undirected edges, with multiple edges and loops allowed). The number of different paths of length r from v_i to v_j , where r is a positive integer, equals the (i, j) th entry of A^r .

Example 9.30 How many paths of length 4 are there from a to d in the simple graph G shown below?



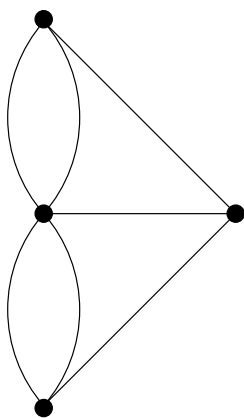
9.5 Euler paths

We now tell a famous story in the history of graph theory. Back in the 18th century, the town of Königsberg was part of Prussia (it is now called Kaliningrad and is part of the Russian republic). The town was divided into four sections by the Pregel River. These four sections included the two regions on the banks of the Pregel, Kneiphof Island, and the region between the two branches of the Pregel. In the 18th century seven bridges connected these regions. The figure below depicts these regions and bridges.



The people in the town enjoyed walking through the town on Sundays. They wondered whether it was possible to start at some location in the town, travel across all the bridges without crossing any bridge twice, and return to the starting point.

The Swiss mathematician Leonhard Euler showed that no such Sunday stroll exists. His solution was published in 1736, and is considered to be the birth of graph theory. Euler studied this problem using the multigraph obtained when the four regions are represented by vertices and the bridges are represented by edges. This multigraph is shown below.

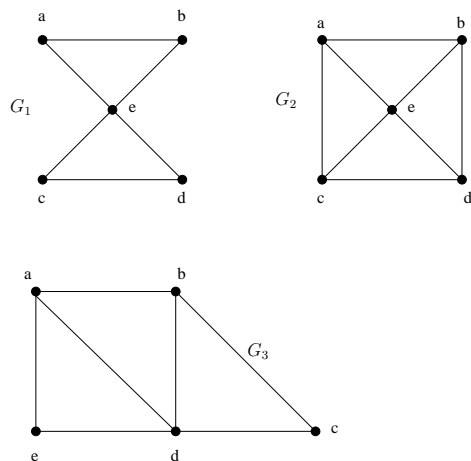


Euler circuits and paths

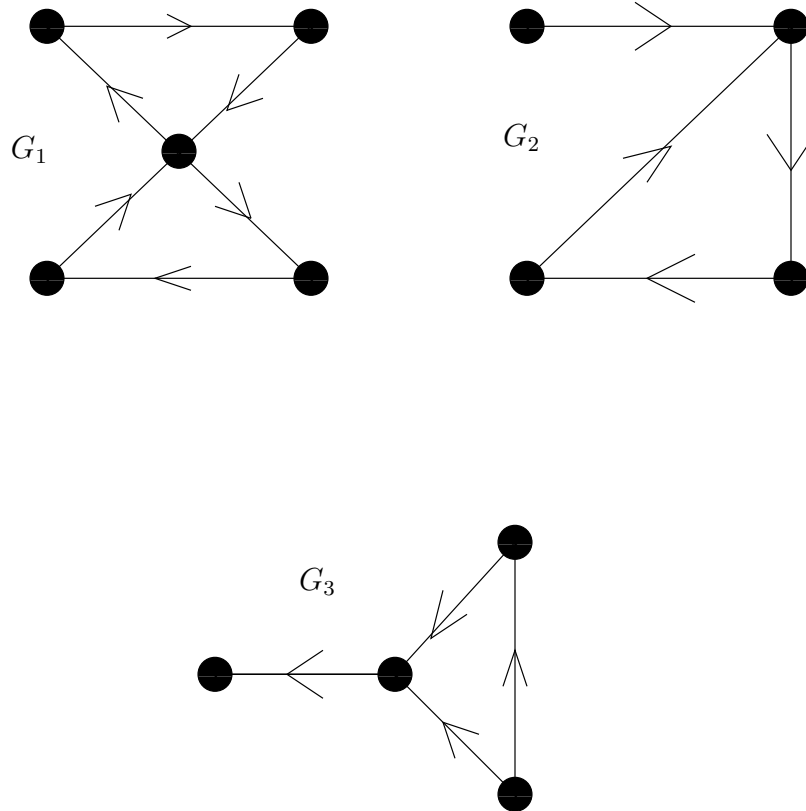
The problem of traveling across every bridge without crossing any bridge more than once can be rephrased in terms of this model. The question becomes: Is there a circuit in this multigraph that contains every edge exactly once? (Note that this circuit is required to visit every edge, so it must visit vertices of degree > 2 more than once.)

Definition 9.18 *An Euler circuit in a graph G is a simple circuit containing every edge of G . An Euler path in G is a path containing every edge of G exactly once.*

Example 9.31 *Which of the undirected graphs below have an Euler circuit? Of those that do not, which have an Euler path?*



Example 9.32 *Which of the directed graphs below have an Euler circuit? Of those that do not, which have an Euler path?*



Weak Euler circuits

A closed walk with no repeated edges will be called *weak Euler circuit*.

Note: If it uses all edges, it is an Euler circuit.

We now have an algorithm to find a weak-Euler circuit starting at any vertex v (when every vertex has even degree):

- Choose any edge $e = \{v, x\}$ incident with v , set W to be the path (v, x) , and remove the edge e from the graph;
- While the last vertex x of W is not v , do the following:
 - Choose any edge $e = \{x, y\}$ incident with x ;
 - Adjoin e to W and delete e from the graph;
 - Re-define x to be y .
- Output W and stop.

Building larger weak Euler circuit

Suppose

$$\begin{aligned} T &= (v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k, v_0) \text{ and} \\ U &= (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_\ell, w_0) \end{aligned}$$

are weak Euler circuits with a common vertex, say $v_i = w_j$, but with no edges in common.

Then we can attach T and U together at the common vertex $v_i = w_j$ to create a longer weak-Euler circuit, namely

$$(v_0, v_1, \dots, \textcolor{red}{v_i}, w_{j+1}, \dots, w_\ell, w_0, \dots, w_{j-1}, \textcolor{red}{w_j}, v_{i+1}, \dots, v_k, v_0).$$

In other words, follow T from v_0 to $v_i = w_j$, then follow U from w_j (through w_ℓ and w_0) to w_j again, and then complete the tour by taking T the rest of the way from $w_j = v_i$ to v_0 .

Necessary and sufficient condition for Euler circuits

There are simple criteria for determining whether a multigraph has an Euler circuit or an Euler path. Euler discovered them when he solved the famous Königsberg bridge problem. We will assume that all graphs discussed in this section have a finite number of vertices and edges.

What can we say if a connected multigraph has an Euler circuit? What we can show is that every vertex must have *even degree*.

- To do this, first note that an Euler circuit begins with a vertex a and continues with an edge incident to a , say $\{a, b\}$. The edge $\{a, b\}$ contributes 1 to $\deg(a)$.
- Each time the circuit passes through a vertex it contributes 2 to the vertex's degree, since the circuit enters via an edge incident with this vertex and leaves via another such edge.
- Finally, the circuit terminates where it started, contributing 1 to $\deg(a)$. Therefore, $\deg(a)$ must be even, because the circuit contributes 1 when it begins, 1 when it ends, and 2 every time it passes through a (if it ever does).
- A vertex other than a has even degree because the circuit contributes 2 to its degree each time it passes through the vertex.
- We conclude that if a connected graph has an Euler circuit, then every vertex must have even degree.

Example 9.33 Solve the Königsberg bridge problem.

Is this necessary condition for the existence of an Euler circuit also sufficient? That is, must an Euler circuit exist in a connected multigraph if all vertices have even degree?

Theorem 9.9 *A connected multigraph has an Euler circuit if and only if each of its vertices has even degree.*

The algorithm below gives the constructive procedure for finding Euler circuits.

procedure *Euler*(G : connected multigraph with all vertices of even degree)

C := a circuit in G beginning at an arbitrarily chosen vertex with edges successively added to form a path that returns to this vertex.

H := G with the edges of C removed

while H has edges

begin

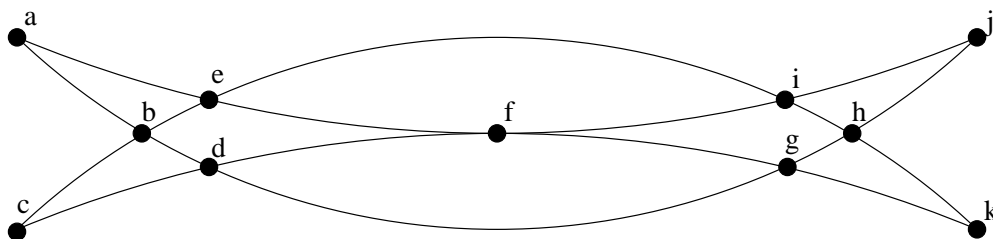
S := a circuit in H beginning at a vertex v in C

C := C with S inserted at the vertex v

H := H with edges of S and all isolated vertices removed

end { C is an Euler circuit}

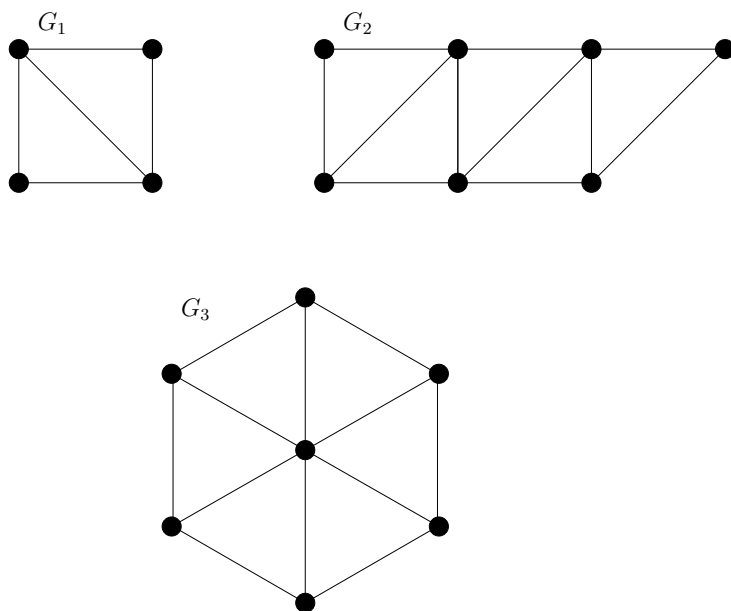
Example 9.34 Many puzzles ask you to draw a picture in a continuous motion, without lifting the pencil off the page, so that no part of the picture is retraced. We can solve such puzzles using Euler circuits and paths. For example, can Mohammed's scimitars, shown below, be drawn in this way, where the drawing begins and ends at the same point?



Necessary and sufficient condition for Euler paths

Theorem 9.10 *A connected multigraph has an Euler path but not an Euler circuit if and only if it has exactly two vertices of odd degree.*

Example 9.35 *Which graphs shown below have an Euler path?*



Example 9.36 *Returning to 18th-century Königsberg, is it possible to start at some point in the town, travel across all the bridges exactly once, and end up at some other point in town?*

Example 9.37 *A domino is a rectangle divided into two squares with each square numbered one of $0, 1, \dots, 6$. Two squares on a single domino **cannot** have the same number. Show that the twenty-one dominoes so obtained can be arranged in a circle so that touching dominoes have adjacent squares with identical numbers. (Hint : Consider the complete graph K_7 with vertices labeled $0, 1, \dots, 6$. This has a Euler circuit since each of its vertices has degree 6.)*

9.6 * Isomorphism of graphs

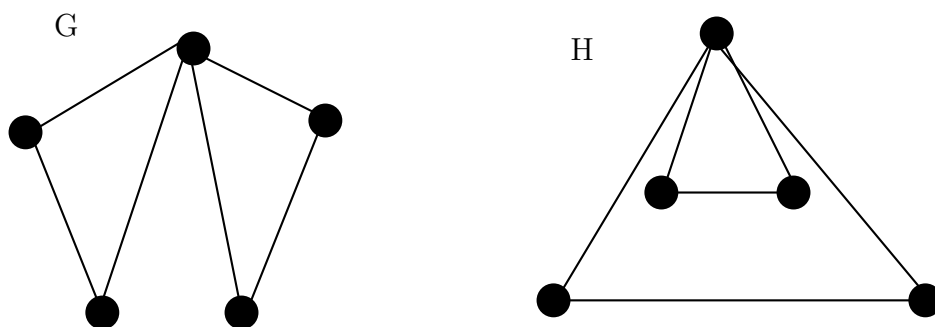
We often need to know whether it is possible to draw two graphs in the same way. For instance, in chemistry, graphs are used to model compounds. Different compounds can have the same molecular formula but can differ in structure. Such compounds will be represented by graphs that cannot be drawn in the same way. The graphs representing previously known compounds can be used to determine whether a supposedly new compound has been studied before.

Isomorphic graphs

Definition 9.19 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 $h : V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ with the property that a and b are adjacent in G_1 if and only if $h(a)$ and $h(b)$ are adjacent in G_2 , for all a and b in V_1 . Such a function h is called an isomorphism.

To extend the definition to multigraphs, say that there is the same number of edges between a, b as there is between $h(a), h(b)$.

Example 9.38 Show that the graphs $G = (V, E)$ and $H = (W, F)$, displayed below, are isomorphic.



Invariant properties

It is often difficult to determine whether two simple graphs are isomorphic. There are $n!$ possible one-to-one correspondences between the vertex sets of two simple graphs with n vertices. Testing each such correspondence to see whether it preserves adjacency and nonadjacency is impractical if n is at all large.

However, we can often show that two simple graphs are not isomorphic by showing that they do not share a property that isomorphic simple graphs must both have. Such a property is called an *invariant* with respect to isomorphism of simple graphs. For instance:

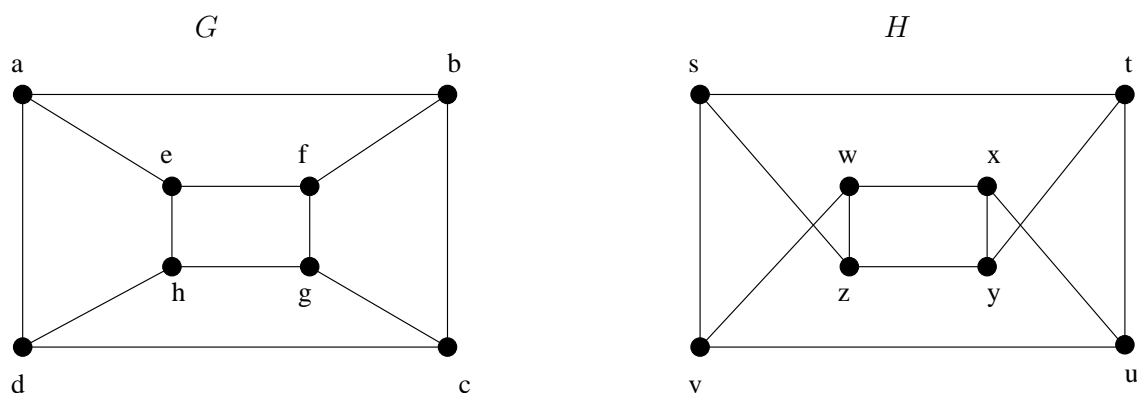
- Isomorphic simple graphs must have the same number of vertices, since there is a one-to-one correspondence between the sets of vertices of the graphs.
- Isomorphic simple graphs must have the same number of edges, because the one-to-one correspondence between vertices establishes a one-to-one correspondence between edges.
- The degrees of the vertices in isomorphic simple graphs must be the same. That is, a vertex v of degree d in G must correspond to a vertex $h(v)$ of degree d in H , since a vertex w in G is adjacent to v if and only if $h(v)$ and $h(w)$ are adjacent in H .

Number of vertices and edges in isomorphic graphs

The number of vertices, the number of edges, and the degrees of the vertices are all invariants under isomorphism. If any of these quantities differ in two simple graphs, these graphs cannot be isomorphic.

However, when these invariants are the same, it does not necessarily mean that the two graphs are isomorphic. There are no useful sets of invariants currently known that can be used to determine whether simple graphs are isomorphic.

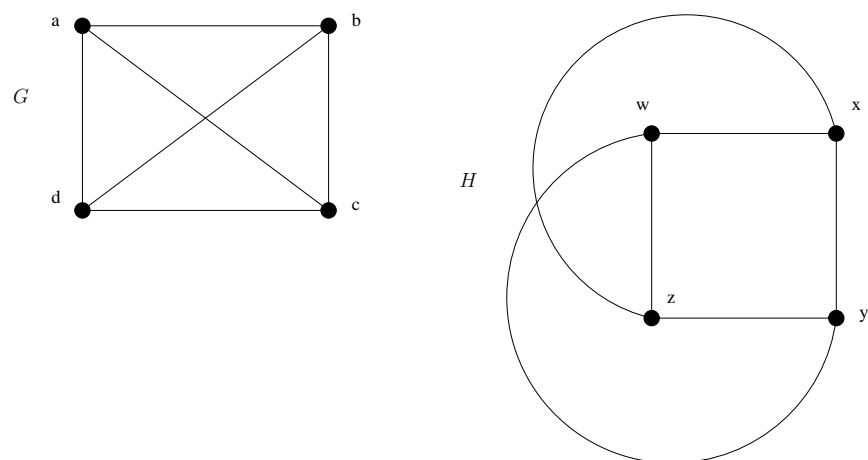
Example 9.39 *Determine whether the graphs G and H shown below are isomorphic.*



To show that a function h from the vertex set of a graph G to the vertex set of a graph H is an isomorphism, we need to show that h preserves edges. One helpful way to do this is to use adjacency matrices. In particular, to show that h is an isomorphism, we can show that the adjacency matrix of G is the same as the adjacency matrix

of H , when rows and columns are labeled to correspond to the images under h of the vertices in G that are the labels of these rows and columns in the adjacency matrix of G .

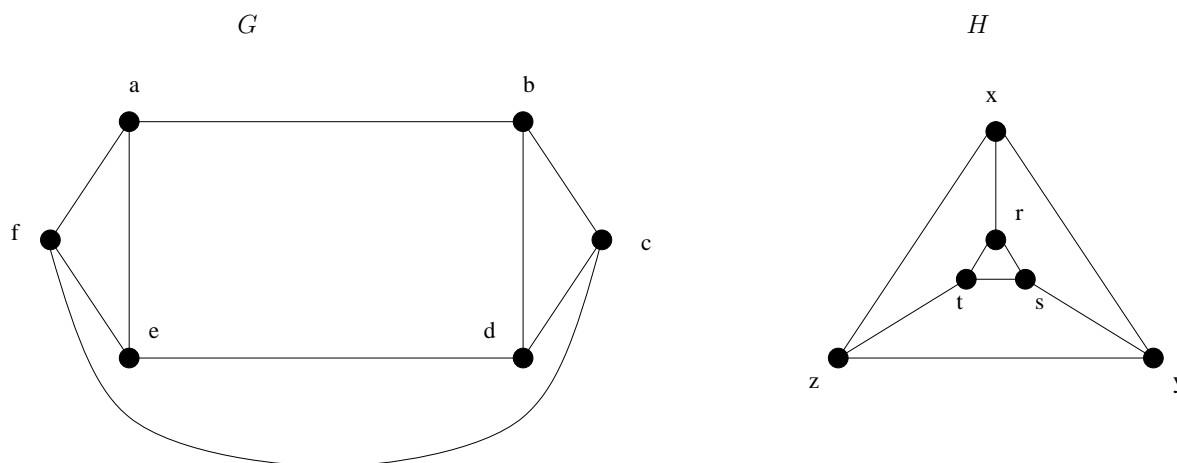
Example 9.40 Determine whether the graphs G and H displayed below are isomorphic.



Paths and isomorphism

There are several ways that paths and circuits can help determine whether two graphs are isomorphic. For example, the existence of a simple circuit of a particular length is a useful invariant that can be used to show that two graphs are not isomorphic. In addition, paths can be used to construct mappings that may be isomorphisms.

Example 9.41 Determine whether the graphs shown below are isomorphic.

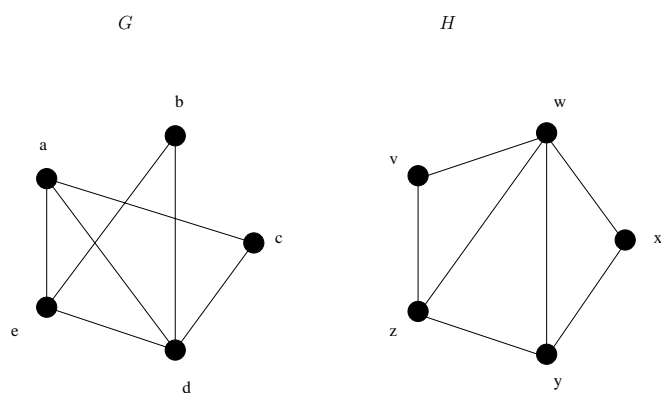


Solution: yes, isomorphic. Each one can be described by “two

triangles connected at the corners”.

We have shown how the existence of a type of path, namely, a simple circuit of a particular length, can be used to show that two graphs are not isomorphic. We can also use paths to find mappings that are potential isomorphisms.

Example 9.42 Determine whether the graphs shown below are isomorphic.



9.7 * Hamilton paths and circuits

We have developed necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of paths and circuits that contain every

edge of a multigraph exactly once. Can we do the same for simple paths and circuits that contain every vertex of the graph exactly once?

Definition 9.20 A path $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n$ in the graph $G = (V, E)$ is called a *Hamilton path* if

$$V = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n\}$$

and $x_i \neq x_j$ for $0 \leq i < j \leq n$.

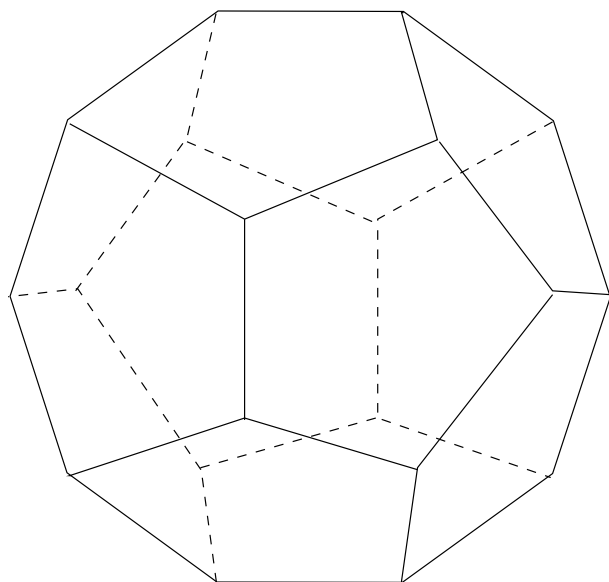
A circuit

$$x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n, x_0$$

(with $n > 1$) in a graph $G = (V, E)$ is called a *Hamilton circuit* if $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n$ is a *Hamilton path*.

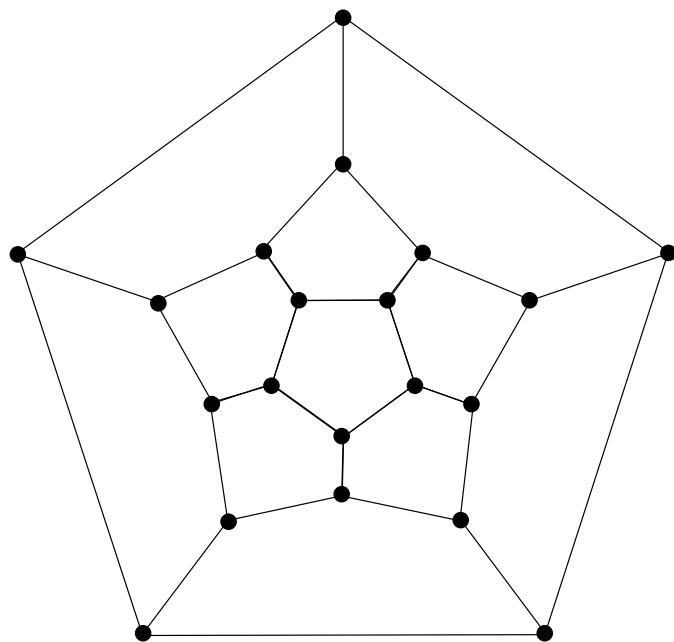
Hamilton's puzzle

This terminology comes from a puzzle invented in 1857 by the Irish mathematician Sir William Rowan Hamilton. Hamilton's puzzle consisted of a wooden dodecahedron (a polyhedron with 12 regular pentagons as faces, as shown below, with a peg at each vertex of the dodecahedron, and string. The 20 vertices of the dodecahedron were labeled with different cities in the world. The object of the puzzle was to start at a city and travel along the edges of the dodecahedron (see the following picture), visiting each of the other 19 cities exactly once, and end back at the first city. The circuit traveled was marked off using the strings and pegs.

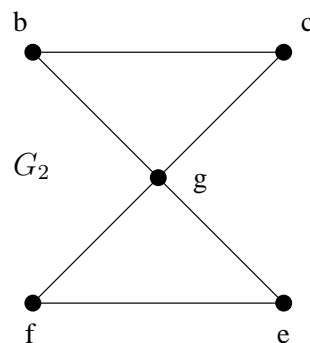
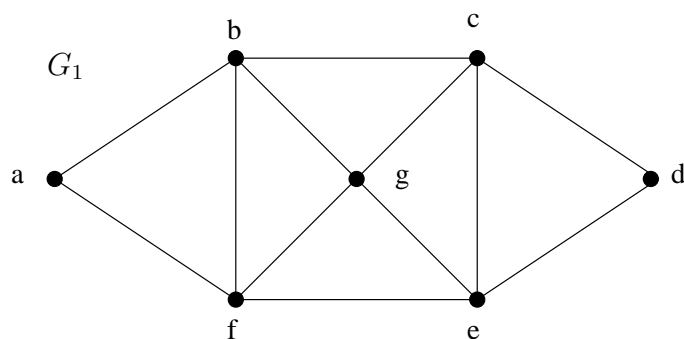


Example 9.43 Since we cannot supply each student with a wooden solid with pegs and string, we will consider the equivalent question: Is there a circuit in the graph shown below that passes through each vertex exactly once? This solves the puzzle since this graph is isomorphic to the

graph consisting of the vertices and edges of the dodecahedron.



Example 9.44 Which of the simple graphs below have a Hamilton circuit or, if not, a Hamilton path?



Determining if a graph contains a Hamilton circuit

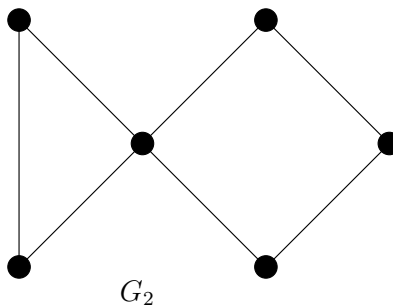
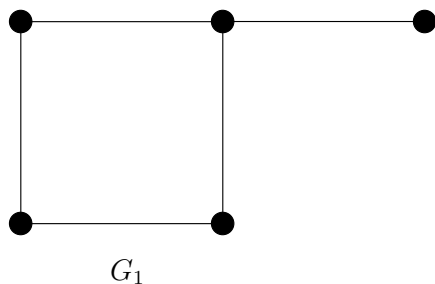
Is there a simple way to determine whether a graph has a Hamilton circuit or path? At first, it might seem that there should be an easy way to determine this, since there is a simple way to answer the similar question of whether a graph has an Euler circuit.

Surprisingly, there are no known simple necessary and sufficient criteria for the existence of Hamilton circuits.

However, many theorems are known that give sufficient conditions for the existence of Hamilton circuits. Also, certain properties can be used to show that a graph has no Hamilton circuit.

- A graph with a vertex of degree 1 cannot have a Hamilton circuit, since in a Hamilton circuit each vertex is incident with two edges in the circuit.
- If a vertex in the graph has degree 2, then both edges that are incident with this vertex must be part of any Hamilton circuit.
- When a Hamilton circuit is being constructed and this circuit has passed through a vertex, then all remaining edges incident with this vertex, other than the two used in the circuit, can be removed from consideration.
- A Hamilton circuit cannot contain a smaller circuit within it.

Example 9.45 *Show that neither graph displayed below has a Hamilton circuit.*

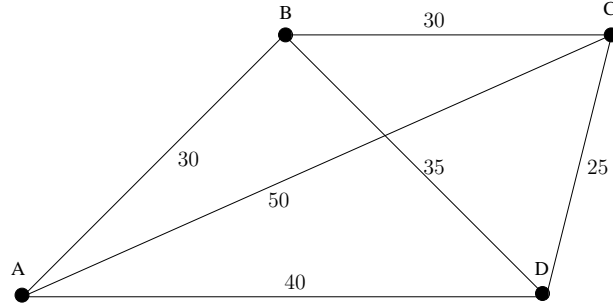


Example 9.46 *Show that K_n has a Hamilton circuit whenever $n \geq 3$.*

The traveling salesperson problem

Suppose the drawing below is a map showing four cities and the distances in kilometers between them. Suppose that a salesperson must visit each city exactly once, starting and ending in city A. Which route from city to city

will minimize the total distance that must be traveled?



This problem can be solved by writing all possible Hamiltonian circuits starting and ending at A and calculating the total distance traveled for each.

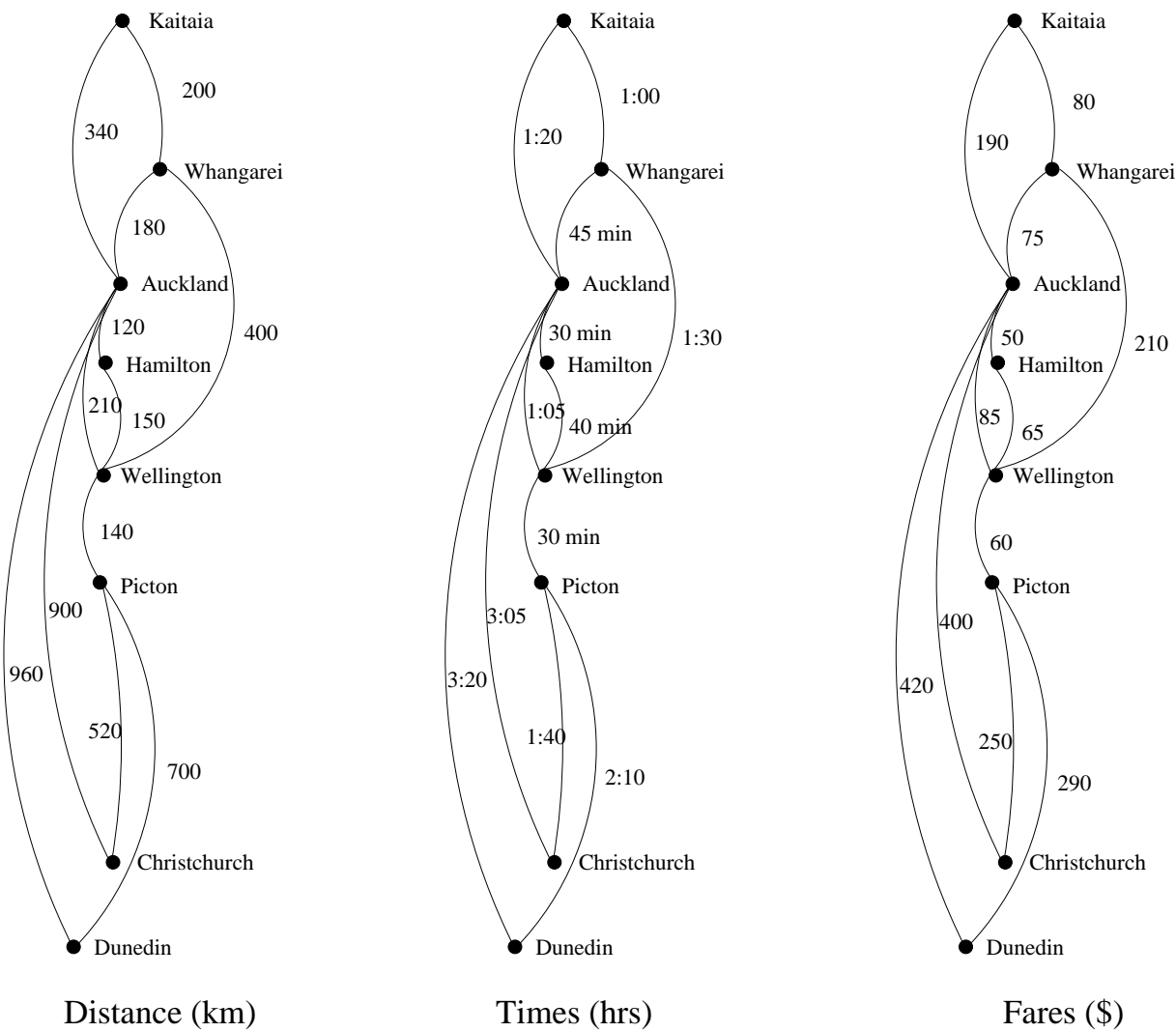
Route	Total Distance (in kilometers)
ABCD	$30+30+25+40=125$
ABDC	$30+35+25+50=140$
ACBD	$50+30+35+40=155$
ACDB	140 [ABDC backwards]
ADBC	155 [ACBD backwards]
ADCBA	125 [ABCD backwards]

Thus either route ABCD or ADCBA gives a minimum total distance of 125 kilometers.

The general traveling salesperson problem involves finding a Hamiltonian circuit to minimize the total distance traveled for an arbitrary graph with n vertices in which each edge is marked with a distance. One way to solve the general problem is to use the above method. Write down all Hamiltonian circuits starting and ending at a particular vertex, compute the total distance for each, and pick one for which this total is minimal. However, even for medium-sized values of n this method is impractical. At present, there is no known algorithm for solving the general traveling salesperson problem that is more efficient. However, there are efficient algorithms that find ‘pretty good’ solutions, that is, circuits that, while not necessarily having the least possible total distance, have smaller total distances than most other Hamiltonian circuits.

9.8 * Shortest path problems

Many problems can be modeled using graphs with weights assigned to their edges. As an illustration, consider how an airline system can be modeled. We set up the basic graph model by representing cities by vertices and flights by edges. Problems involving distances can be modeled by assigning distances between cities to the edges. Problems involving flight time can be modeled by assigning flight times to edges. Problems involving fares can be modeled by assigning fares to the edges. The following graphs display three different assignments of weights to the edges of a graph representing distances, flight times, and fares respectively.

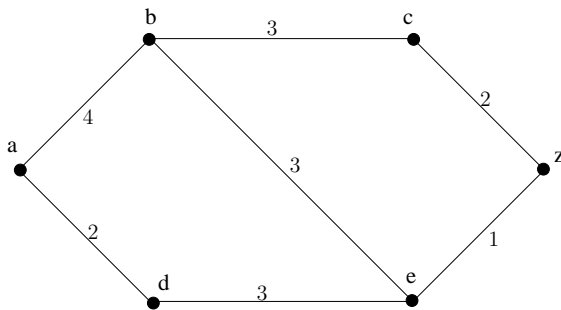


Graphs that have a number assigned to each edge are called *weighted graphs*. Several types of problems involving weighted graphs arise frequently. Determining the path of least length between two vertices in a network is one such problem. To be more specific, let the *length* of a path in a weighted graph be the sum of the weights of the edges of this path. (Note that this use of the term *length* is different from the use of *length* to denote the number of edges in a path in a graphs without weights.) The question is: What is the shortest path, that is, the path of least length, between two given vertices? For instance, in the airline system represented by the weighted graph shown previously, what is the shortest in air distance between Auckland and Dunedin? What combinations of flights has the smallest total flight time (that is, total time in the air, not including time between flights) between Auckland and Dunedin? What is the cheapest fare between these two cities?

A shortest path algorithm

There are several different algorithms that find the shortest path between two vertices in a weighted graph. We will present an algorithm discovered by the Dutch mathematician Edsger W. Dijkstra in 1959. The version we will describe solves this problem in undirected weighted graphs where all the weights are positive. It is easy to adapt it to solve shortest-path algorithms in directed graphs.

Example 9.47 What is the length of the shortest path between a and z in the weighted graph shown below?



This example illustrates the general principles used in Dijkstra's algorithm. Note that the shortest path from a to z could have been found by inspection. However, inspection is impractical for both humans and computers for graphs with large numbers of edges.

We will now consider the general problem of finding the length of the shortest path between a and z in an undirected connected simple weighted graph. Dijkstra's algorithm proceeds by finding the length of the shortest path from a to a first vertex, the length of the shortest path from a to a second vertex, and so on, until the length of the shortest path from a to z is found.

The algorithm relies on a series of iterations. A distinguished set of vertices is constructed by adding one vertex at each iteration. A labeling procedure is carried out at each iteration. In this labeling procedure, a vertex w is labeled with the length of the shortest path from a to w that contains only vertices already in the distinguished set. The vertex added to the distinguished set is one with a minimal label among those vertices not already in the set.

We now give the details of Dijkstra's algorithm. It begins by labeling a with 0 and the other vertices with ∞ . We use the notation $L_0(a) = 0$ and $L_0(v) = \infty$ for these labels before any iterations have taken place (the subscript 0 stands for the '0th' iteration). These labels are the length of the shortest paths from a to the vertices,

where the paths contain only the vertex a . (Since no path from a to a vertex different from a exists, ∞ is the length of the shortest path between a and this vertex.)

Dijkstra's algorithm proceeds by forming a distinguished set of vertices. Let S_k denote this set after k iterations of the labeling procedure. We begin with $S_0 = \emptyset$. The set S_k is formed from S_{k-1} by adding a vertex u not in S_{k-1} with the smallest label. Once u is added to S_k , we update the labels of all vertices not in S_k , so that $L_k(v)$, the label of the vertex v at the k^{th} stage, is the length of the shortest path from a to v that contains only vertices in S_k (that is vertices that were already in the distinguished set together with u).

Let v be a vertex not in S_k . To update the label of v , note that $L_k(v)$ is the length of the shortest path from a to v containing only vertices in S_k . The updating can be carried out efficiently when the following observation is used: The shortest path from a to v containing only elements of S_k is either the shortest path from a to v that contains only elements of S_{k-1} (that is, the distinguished vertices not including u), or it is the shortest path from a to u at the $(k-1)^{st}$ stage with the edge (u, v) added. In other words, if $w(u, v)$ is the weight of edge (u, v) ,

$$L_k(a, v) = \min \{L_{k-1}(a, v), L_{k-1}(a, u) + w(u, v)\}$$

This procedure is iterated by successively adding vertices to the distinguished set until z is added. When z is added to the distinguished set, its label is the length of the shortest path from a to z . Dijkstra's algorithm is given below.

Dijkstra's Algorithm

procedure Dijkstra(G : weighted connected simple graph,
with all weights positive)

{ G has vertices $a = v_0, v_1, \dots, v_n = z$ and weights $w(v_i, v_j)$ where $w(v_i, v_j) = \infty$ if $\{v_i, v_j\}$ is not an edge in G }

for $i := 1$ [to] n

$L(v_i) := \infty$

$L(a) := 0$

$S := \emptyset$

{The labels are now initialized so that the label of a is zero and all other labels are ∞ , and S is the empty set}

while $z \notin S$

begin

$u :=$ a vertex not in S with $L(u)$ minimal

$S := S \cup \{u\}$

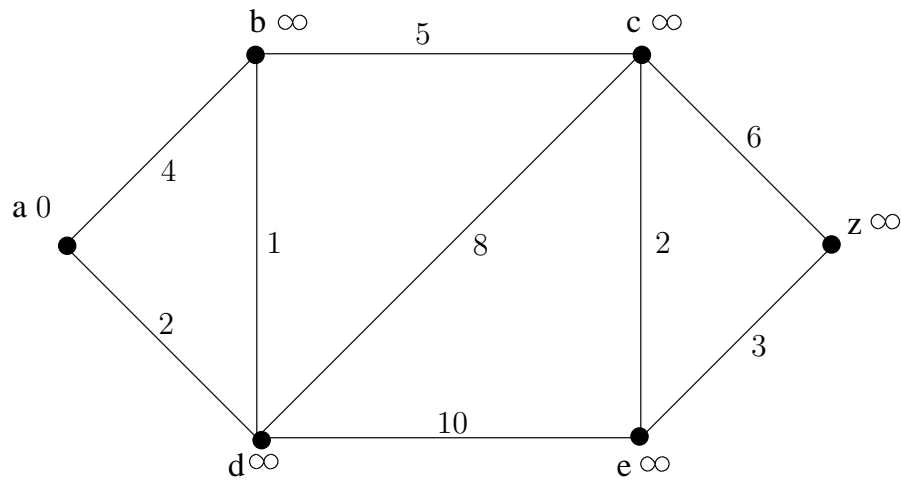
for all vertices v not in S

```

if  $L(u) + w(u, v) < L(v)$  [then]
     $L(v) := L(u) + w(u, v)$ 
{This adds a vertex to  $S$  with minimal label and
 updates the labels of vertices not in  $S$ }
end {  $L(z)$  = length of shortest path from  $a$  to  $z$  }

```

Example 9.48 Use Dijkstra's algorithm to find the length of the shortest path between the vertices a and z in the weighted graph displayed below.



Theorem 9.11 Dijkstra's algorithm finds the length of a shortest path between two vertices in a connected simple undirected weighted graph.

Proof: See lecture.

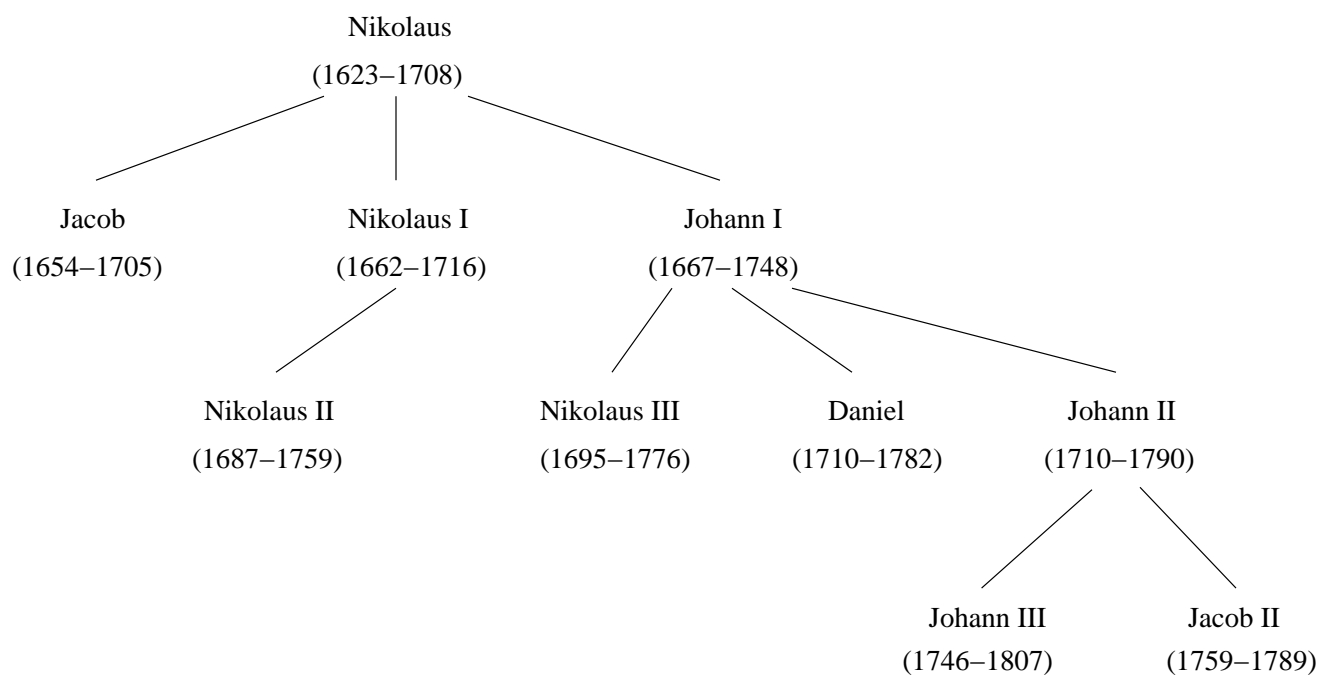
Trees

The word “tree” is used slightly differently between mathematicians and computer scientists. For a mathematician, a tree is a connected graph that contains no simple circuits. In this sense, trees were used by Arthur Cayley in 1857 to count certain types of chemical compounds. They have many other applications.

Trees are particularly useful in computer science. Here, it is usual to study “rooted trees”, which are trees with a distinguished vertex called the “root”. Rooted trees often also have a sense of “direction”. A family tree is an example of a rooted tree. Rooted trees allow efficient algorithms for locating items in a list, and the construction of efficient codes for storing and transmitting data.

10.1 Introduction to trees

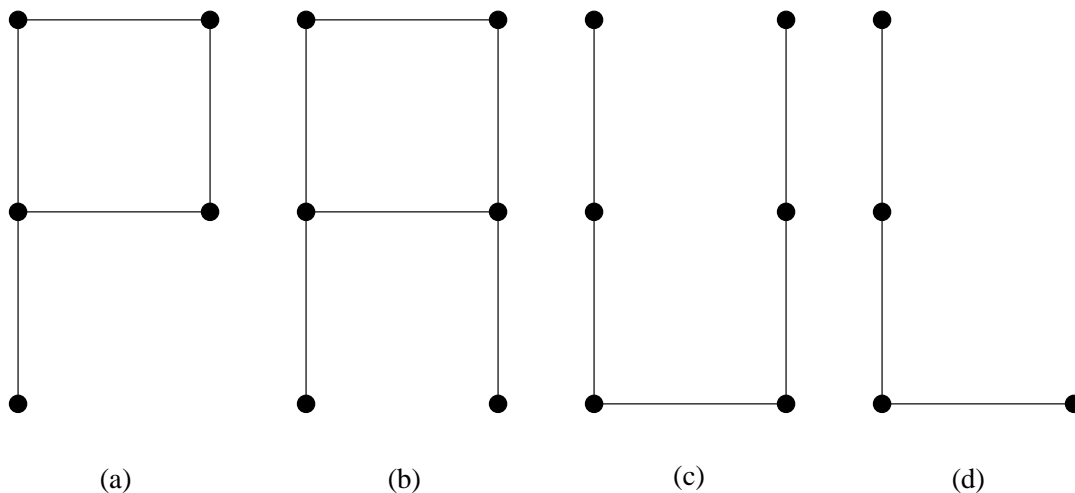
Our first example is the genealogical *family tree* of the Bernoulli family. (This family includes a number of famous Swiss mathematicians). This is a graph where the vertices represent family members and the edges represent parent-child relationships. This is a rooted tree with Nikolaus Bernoulli being the “root” vertex. If we forget the root and the “ordering” then we obtain an undirected connected graph with no simple circuits, which is the mathematicians notion of a tree.



Definition 10.1 A tree is a connected undirected graph with no simple circuits.

Since a tree cannot have a simple circuit, a tree cannot contain multiple edges or loops. Therefore any tree must be a simple graph.

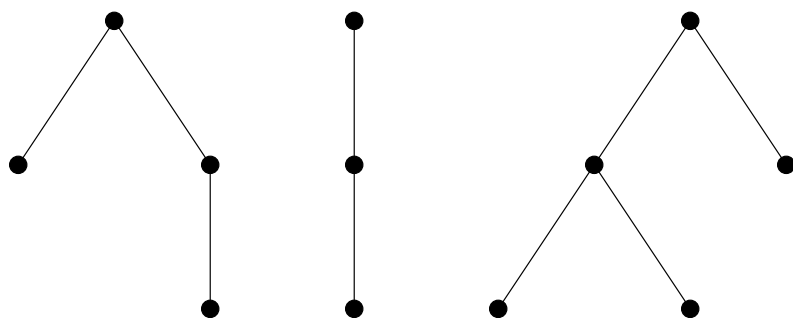
Example 10.1 Which of the graphs shown below are trees?



Forests

Any connected graph that contains no simple circuits is a tree. What about graphs containing no simple circuits that are not necessarily connected? These graphs are called *forests* and have the property that each of their connected components is a tree.

Example 10.2 The figure shown below displays a forest.



Unique simple paths

Trees are often defined as undirected graphs with the property that there is a unique simple path between every pair of vertices. The following theorem shows that this alternative definition is equivalent to our definition.

Theorem 10.1 *An undirected graph is a tree if and only if there is a unique simple path between any two of its vertices.*

Proof: See lecture.

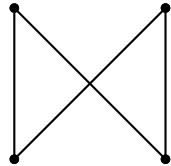
Example 10.3 *Prove that every tree is a bipartite graph and show that the converse of this statement is not true.*

SOLUTION. Fix any vertex v_0 . Let V_1 be the set of all vertices whose unique path length from v_0 is even and let V_2 be the set of all vertices whose unique path length from v_0 is odd.

So every vertex of the tree can be partitioned into two subsets V_1 and V_2 such that every edge of the tree joins some vertex in V_1 to some vertex in V_2 .

Therefore, every tree is a bipartite graph.

The converse of the statement is not true. The complete bipartite graph $K_{2,2}$ (shown below) forms a counter example as it has a simple circuit. There are also bipartite graphs that are not connected, which is another way to write down a counterexample.

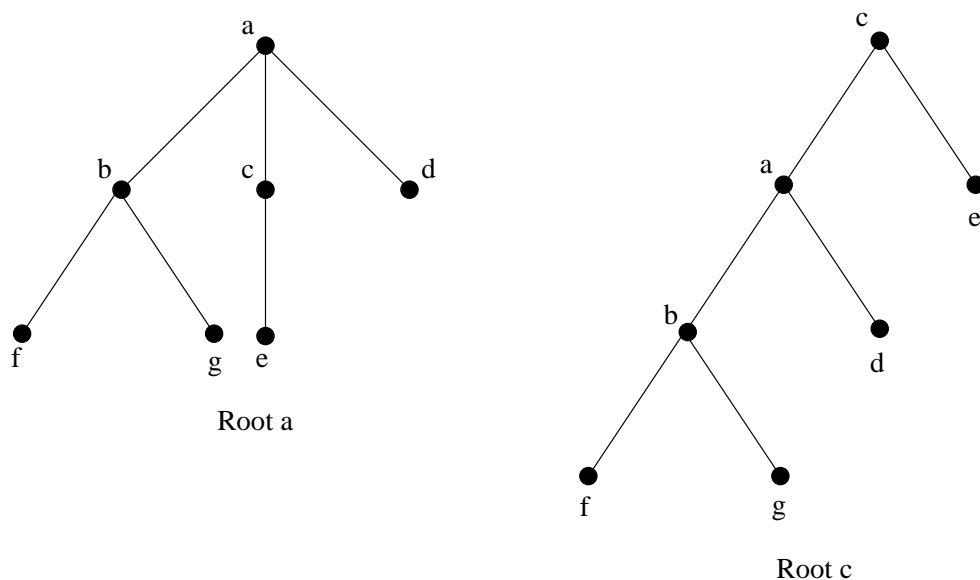


Rooted trees

In many applications of trees a particular vertex of a tree is designated as the *root*. Once we specify a root, we can assign a direction to each edge as follows. Since there is a unique path from the root to each vertex of the graph (from Theorem 10.1), we direct each edge away from the root. Thus, a tree together with its root produces a directed graph called a *rooted tree*.

We can change an unrooted tree into a rooted tree by choosing any vertex as the root. Note that different choices of the root produce different rooted trees.

Example 10.4 The figure shown below displays the rooted trees formed by designating a to be the root and c to be the root, respectively, in a tree.



We usually draw a rooted tree with its root at the top of the graph. The arrows indicating the directions of the edges in a rooted tree can be omitted, since the choice of root determines the directions of the edges.

Terminology for rooted trees

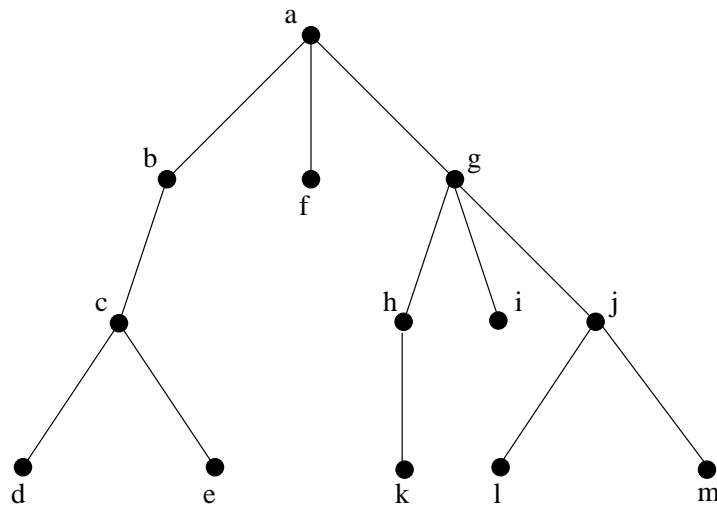
The terminology for rooted trees has botanical and genealogical origins. Suppose that T is a rooted tree.

- If v is a vertex in T other than the root, the *parent* of v is the unique vertex u such that there is a directed edge from u to v .
- When u is the parent of v , v is called a *child* of u .
- Vertices with the same parent are called *siblings*.
- The *ancestors* of a vertex other than the root are the vertices in the path from the root to this vertex, excluding the vertex itself and including the root (that is, its parent, its parent's parent, and so on, until the root is reached).
- The *descendants* of a vertex v are those vertices that have v as an ancestor.
- A vertex of a tree is called a *leaf* (or *terminal vertex*) if it has no children.

- Vertices that have children are called *internal vertices*. The root is an internal vertex unless it is the only vertex in the graph, in which case it is a leaf.
- If a is a vertex in a tree, the *subtree* with a as its root is the subgraph of the tree consisting of a and its descendants and all edges incident to these descendants.

We cannot use terms like parent/child/ancestor/descendant when discussing un-rooted trees, but *leaf* (only one edge), *internal vertices* (at least 2 edges) make sense. The word *subtree* is a dangerous word since a subgraph of a tree is not necessarily the same as a subtree of a rooted tree. We will try not to cause confusion with these words.

Example 10.5 In the rooted tree T (with root a) shown below, find the parent of c , the children of g , the siblings of h , all ancestors of e , all descendants of b , all internal vertices, and all leaves. What is the subtree rooted at g ?

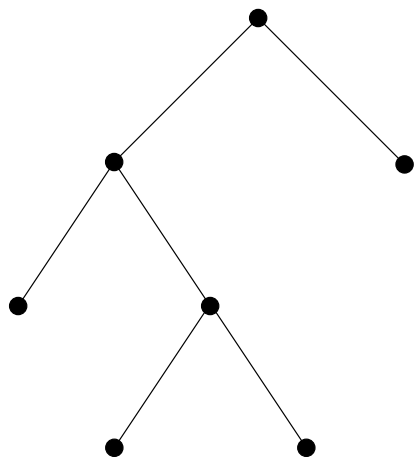


m-ary trees and binary trees

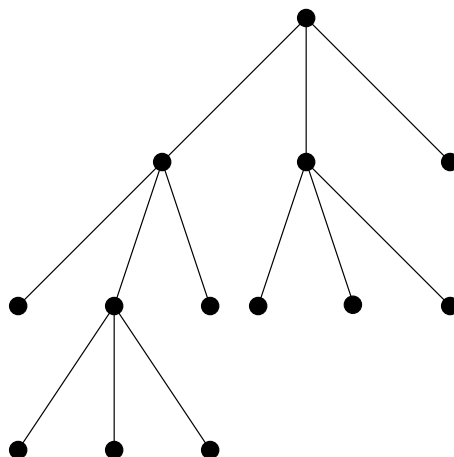
Rooted trees with the property that all of their internal vertices have the same number of children are used in many different applications. Later in this topic we will use such trees to study problems involving coding.

Definition 10.2 A rooted tree is called an *m*-ary tree if every vertex has no more than m children. The tree is called a *full m*-ary tree if every internal vertex has exactly m children. An *m*-ary tree with $m = 2$ is called a *binary tree*.

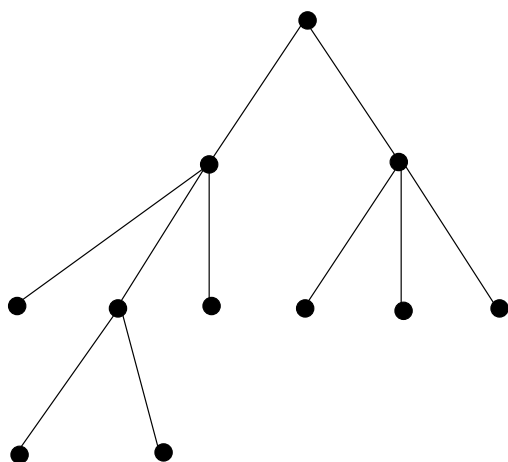
Example 10.6 *Are the rooted trees shown below full m -ary trees for some positive integer m ?*



(Full) Binary tree



Full 3-ary tree



3-ary tree

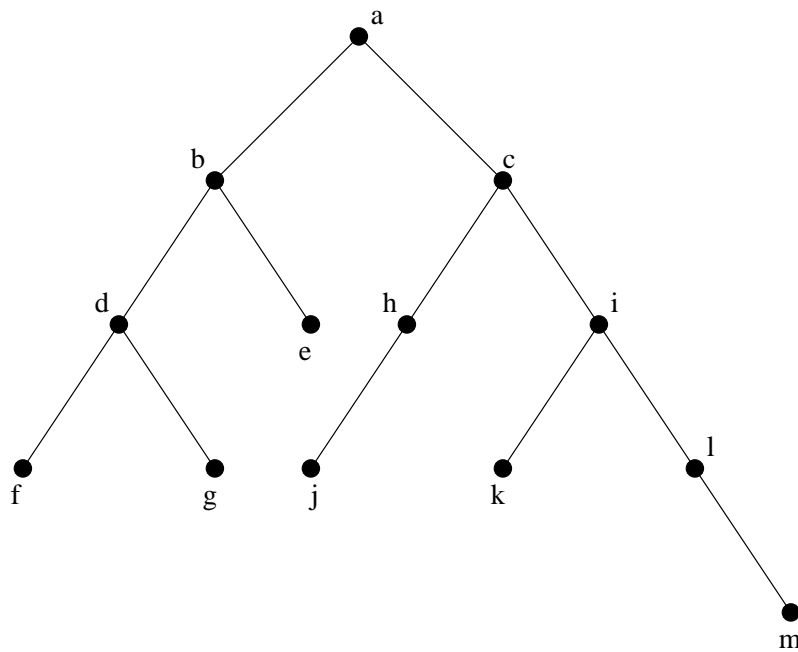
Ordered rooted tree

An *ordered rooted tree* is a rooted tree where the children of each internal vertex are ordered. Ordered rooted trees are drawn so that the children of each internal vertex are shown in order from left to right. Note that a representation of a rooted tree in the conventional way determines an ordering for its edges. We will use such orderings of edges in drawings without explicitly mentioning that we are considering a rooted tree to be ordered.

- In an ordered binary tree, if an internal vertex has two children, the first child is called the *left child* and the second child is called the *right child*.
- The tree rooted at the left child of a vertex is called the *left subtree* of this vertex, and the tree rooted at the right child of a vertex is called the *right subtree* of the vertex.

The student should note that for some applications every vertex of a binary tree, other than the root, is designated as a right or a left child of its parent. This is done even when some vertices have only one child. We will make such designations whenever it is necessary, but not otherwise.

Example 10.7 What are the left and right children of d in the binary tree T shown below (where the order is that implied by the drawing)? What are the left and right subtrees of c ?



Given an ordered rooted tree one can consider several methods to list all the vertices in the tree.

One approach is called the *preorder algorithm*: $\text{Preorder}(T)$ runs on a tree T with root r by printing the root, then if x_1, \dots, x_k are the children (in order) the algorithm recursively calls $\text{Preorder}(T_1), \dots, \text{Preorder}(T_k)$ where each T_i is the sub-tree with root x_i .

The *postorder algorithm* is: $\text{Postorder}(T)$ on a tree T with root r and children x_1, \dots, x_k in order runs $\text{Postorder}(T_1), \dots, \text{Postorder}(T_k)$ and then prints the root r .

Just as in the case of graphs, there is no standard terminology used to describe trees, rooted trees, ordered rooted trees, and binary trees. This nonstandard terminology occurs since trees are used extensively throughout computer science, which is a relatively young field. The student should carefully check meanings given to terms dealing with trees whenever they occur.

10.2 Some applications of Trees

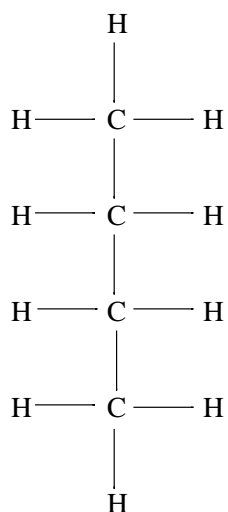
We now discuss some applications of trees in computer science, chemistry, and business.

Trees in Chemistry

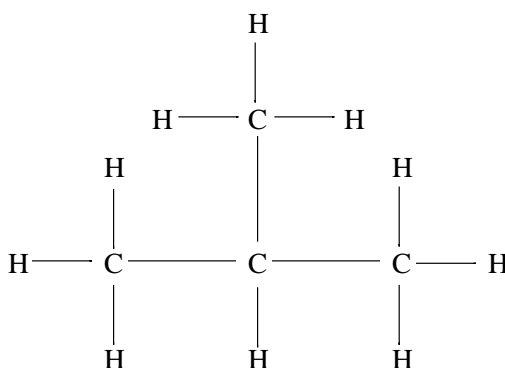
An important abstraction in chemistry is to write molecules as graphs. Atoms are represented as vertices and chemical bonds are written as edges. Sometimes the graphs have cycles (e.g., Benzene) but in many important cases they are trees. Note that, in these cases, they naturally arise as trees without a root. The English mathematician Arthur Cayley discovered trees in 1857 when he was trying to enumerate the isomers of compounds of the form C_nH_{2n+2} , which are called *saturated hydrocarbons*.

In graph models of saturated hydrocarbons, each carbon atom is represented by a vertex of degree 4, and each hydrogen atom is represented by a vertex of degree 1. There are $3n + 2$ vertices in a graph representing a compound of the form C_nH_{2n+2} . The number of edges in such a graph is half the sum of the degrees of the vertices. Hence, there are $(4n + 2n + 2)/2 = 3n + 1$ edges in this graph. Since the graph is connected and the number of edges is one less than the number of vertices (Theorem 10.2 below), it must be a tree.

The nonisomorphic trees (i.e., ones that really do correspond to different molecules) with n vertices of degree 4 and $2n + 2$ of degree 1 represent the different isomers of C_nH_{2n+2} . For instance, when $n = 4$, there are exactly two nonisomorphic trees of this type (it is a good exercise to verify this). Hence, there are exactly two different isomers of C_4H_{10} . Their structures are displayed below. These two isomers are called butane and isobutane.



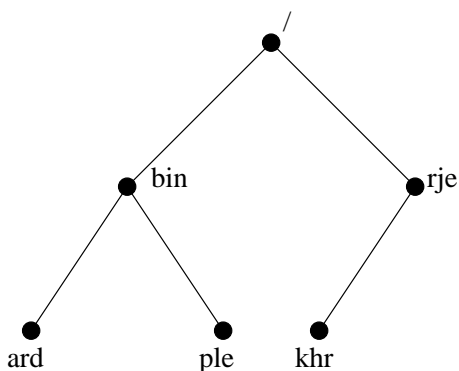
Butane



Isobutane

Computer file systems

Folders/directories on a computer disk have a tree structure corresponding to sub-folders/sub-directories. The root directory contains the entire file system. Thus, a file system may be represented by a rooted tree, where the root represents the root directory, internal vertices represent subdirectories, and leaves represent ordinary files or empty directories. One such file system is shown below. In this system, the file `chr` is in the directory `rj`.



10.3 Properties of trees

Counting vertices and edges in trees

We will often need results relating the numbers of edges and vertices of various types in trees.

Theorem 10.2 *A tree with n vertices has $n - 1$ edges.*

Proof: See lecture.

The number of vertices in a full m -ary tree with a specified number of internal vertices is determined, as the

following theorem shows. As in Theorem 10.2, we will use n to denote the number of vertices in a tree.

Theorem 10.3 *A full m -ary tree with i internal vertices contains $n = mi + 1$ vertices.*

Proof: See lecture.

Example 10.8 *Let T be a full m -ary tree with 28 vertices. What are the possible values of m ?*

SOLUTION. $i = 27/m$. Since i must be an integer, m must be 1, 3, 9, or 27.

Counting leaves

Suppose that T is a full m -ary tree with n vertices. Let i be the number of internal vertices and l the number of leaves in this tree. Once one of n, i , and l is known, the other two quantities are determined. How to find the other two quantities from the one that is known is given in the following theorem.

Theorem 10.4 *A full m -ary tree*

1. *with n vertices has*

- $i = \frac{n-1}{m}$ internal vertices and
- $l = \frac{(m-1)n+1}{m}$ leaves,

2. *with i internal vertices has*

- $n = mi + 1$ vertices and
- $l = (m-1)i + 1$ leaves,

3. *with l leaves has*

- $n = \frac{ml-1}{m-1}$ vertices and
- $i = \frac{l-1}{m-1}$ internal vertices.

Proof: See lecture.

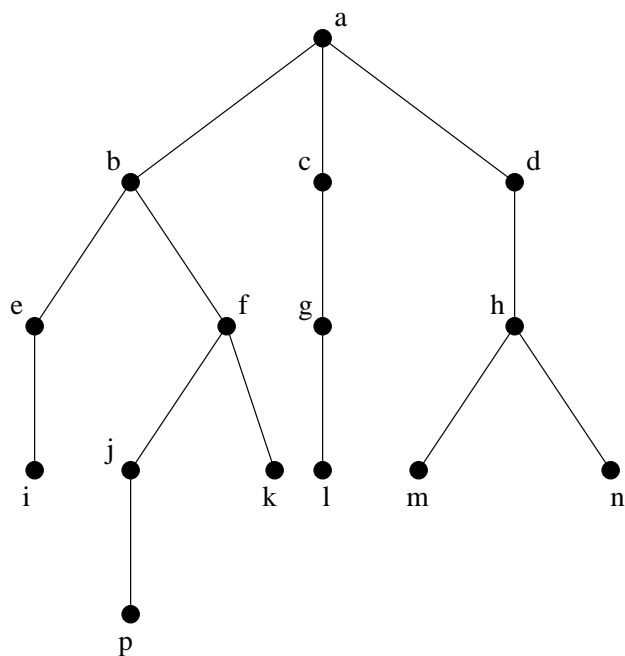
Example 10.9 *Suppose that someone starts a chain letter. Each person who receives the letter is asked to send it on to four other people. Some people do this, but others do not send any letters. How many people have seen the letter, including the first person, if no one receives more than one letter and if the chain letter ends after there have been 100 people who read it but did not send it out? How many people sent out the letter?*

Height and levels

For many applications it is desirable to use rooted trees that are “balanced,” so that the subtrees at each vertex contain paths of approximately the same length. Some definitions will make this concept clear.

- The *level* of a vertex v in a rooted tree is the length of the unique path from the root to this vertex. The level of the root is defined to be zero.
- The *height* of a rooted tree is the maximum of the levels of vertices. In other words, the height of a rooted tree is the length of the longest path from the root to any vertex.

Example 10.10 Find the level of each vertex in the rooted tree shown below. What is the height of this tree?



Example 10.11 Let T be a full m -ary tree with 50 vertices. What must m be if T has height 2?

SOLUTION. $i = 49/m$. Since i must be an integer, m must be 1, 7, or 49.

If $m = 1$, then a tree of height 2 has precisely 3 vertices.

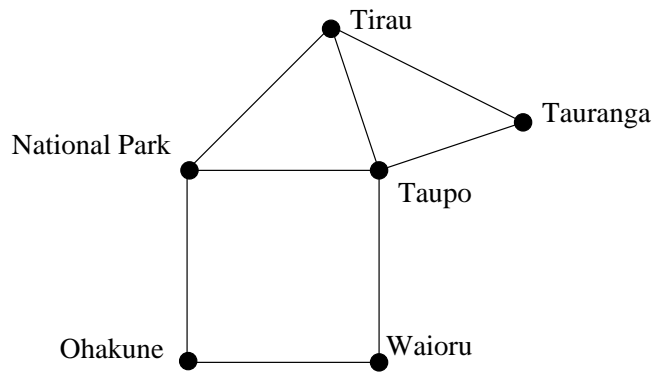
If $m = 7$, then a tree of height 2 with 50 vertices can exist.

If $m = 49$, then T has precisely 1 internal vertex and hence height 1.

So if T has height 2, then it $m = 7$.

10.4 Spanning trees

Consider the system of roads in the North Island represented by the simple connected graph shown below. If it snows, the only way a road can be kept open is using a snow-plough, but this costs a lot of money. The transport department wants to plough the fewest roads so that it will be possible to drive between any pair of towns. How can this be done?



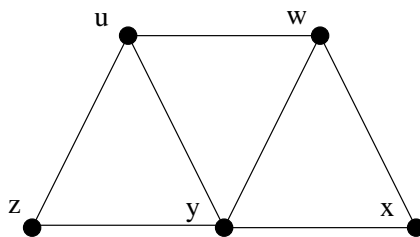
At least five roads must be ploughed to ensure that there is a path between any two towns. Note that the subgraph representing these roads is a tree, since it is connected and contains six vertices and five edges.

This problem was solved with a connected subgraph with the minimum number of edges containing all vertices of the original simple graph. Such a graph must be a tree.

Definition 10.3 Let G be a simple graph. A spanning tree of G is a subgraph of G that is a tree containing every vertex of G .

A simple graph with a spanning tree must be connected, since there is a path in the spanning tree between any two vertices. The converse is also true; that is, every connected simple graph has at least one spanning tree. We will give an example before proving this result.

Example 10.12 Find a spanning tree of the simple graph G shown below.



Another characterization of connected graphs

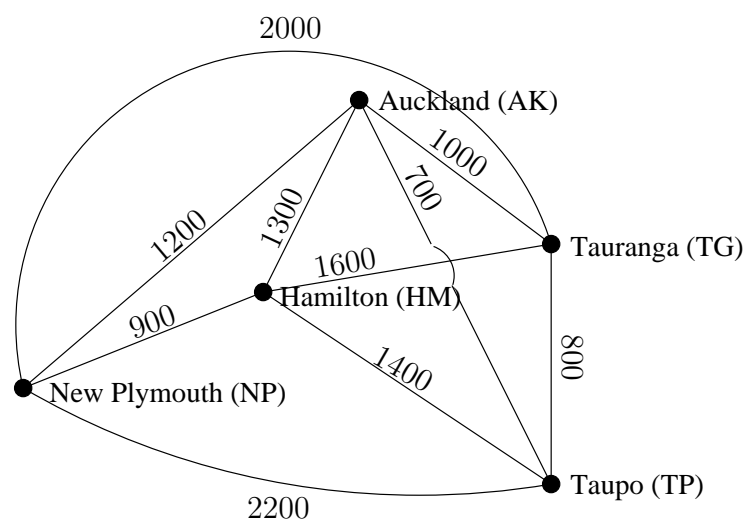
Theorem 10.5 A simple graph is connected if and only if it has a spanning tree.

Proof: See lecture.

Minimum spanning trees introduction

A company wishes to network its five computer centers. Any pair of these centers can be linked with a fibre optic cable. Which links should be made to ensure that

there is a path between any two computer centers so that the total cost of the network is minimized? We can model this problem using the weighted graph shown below, where vertices represent computer centers, edges represent possible cable routes, and the weights on edges are the monthly lease rates of the lines represented by the edges. We can solve this problem by finding a spanning tree so that the sum of the weights of the edges of the tree is minimized. Such a spanning tree is called a *minimum spanning tree*.

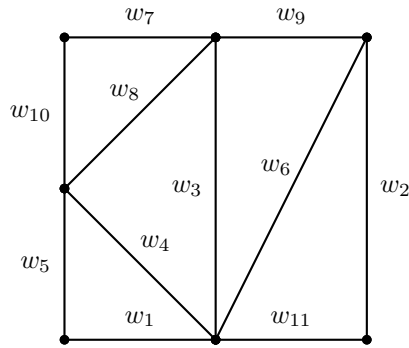


Minimum spanning trees

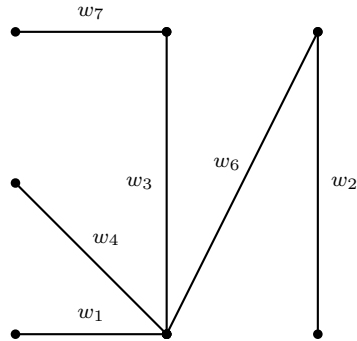
A wide variety of problems can be solved by finding a spanning tree in a weighted graph such that the sum of the weights of the edges in the tree is a minimum.

Definition 10.4 A minimum spanning tree in a connected weighted graph is a spanning tree that, compared with all possible spanning trees, has the smallest possible sum of weights of its edges.

Example 10.13 Let G be the weighted graph pictured below, where $w_i < w_j$ for $i < j$. Draw a minimum spanning tree for G .



SOLUTION.



Greedy algorithms

We give two algorithms for constructing minimum spanning trees. Both proceed by successively adding edges of smallest weight from those edges with a specified property that have not already been used. These algorithms are examples of *greedy algorithms*. A greedy algorithm is a procedure that makes an optimal choice at each of its steps. Optimizing at each stage of an algorithm does not guarantee that the optimal overall solution is produced. However, the two algorithms presented in this section for constructing minimum spanning trees are greedy algorithms that do produce optimal solutions.

The first algorithm

The first algorithm that we discuss was given by Robert Prim in 1957, although the basic ideas of this algorithm have an earlier origin. To carry out *Prim's algorithm*, begin by choosing any edge with smallest weight, putting it into the spanning tree. Successively add to the tree edges of minimum weight that are incident to a vertex already in the tree and not forming a simple circuit with

those edges already in the tree. Stop when $n - 1$ edges have been added.

Later in this section, we will prove that this algorithm produces a minimum spanning tree for any connected weighted graph. The algorithm below gives a pseudocode description of Prim's algorithm.

Prim's algorithm

procedure *Prim*(G : weighted connected undirected graph
with n vertices)

$T :=$ a minimum-weight edge

for $i := 1$ **to** $n - 2$

begin

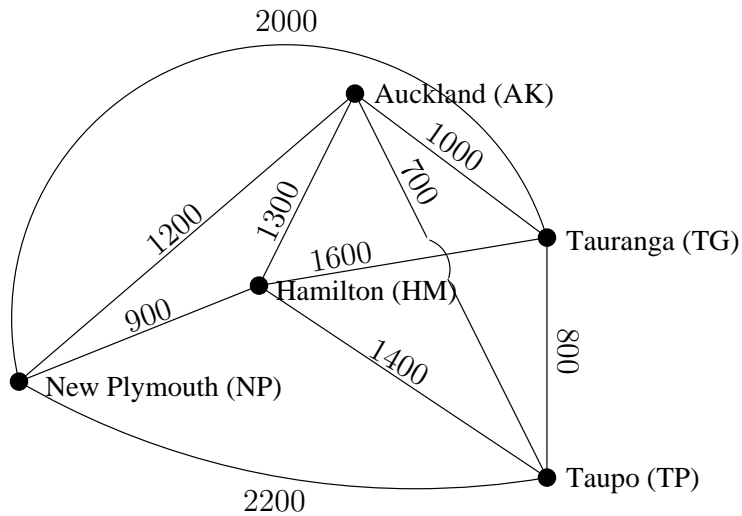
$e :=$ an edge of minimum weight incident to a
 vertex in T and not forming a simple circuit
 in T if added to T

$T := T$ with e added

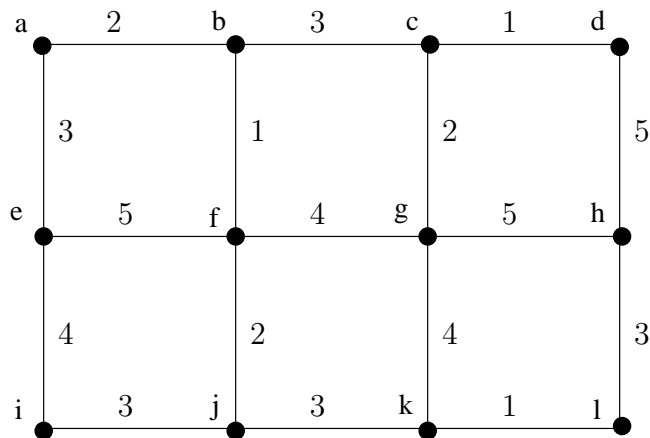
end { T is a minimum spanning tree of G }

Note that the choice of an edge to add at a stage of the algorithm is not determined when there is more than one edge with the same weight that satisfies the appropriate criteria. We need to order the edges to make the choices deterministic. We will not worry about this in the remainder of the section. Also note that there may be more than one minimum spanning tree for a given connected weighted simple graph. The following examples illustrate how Prim's algorithm is used.

Example 10.14 Use *Prim's algorithm* to design a minimum-cost communications network connecting all the computers represented by the graph below.



Example 10.15 Use *Prim's algorithm* to find a minimum spanning tree in the graph shown below.



A second algorithm

The second algorithm that we discuss was discovered by Joseph Kruskal in 1956, although it is also based on ideas that were known earlier. To carry out *Kruskal's algorithm*, choose an edge in the graph with minimum weight.

Successively add edges with minimum weight that do not form a simple circuit with those edges already chosen. Stop after $n - 1$ edges have been selected.

Kruskal's algorithm

procedure Kruskal(G : weighted connected undirected graph with n vertices)

$T :=$ empty graph

for $i := 1$ **to** $n - 1$

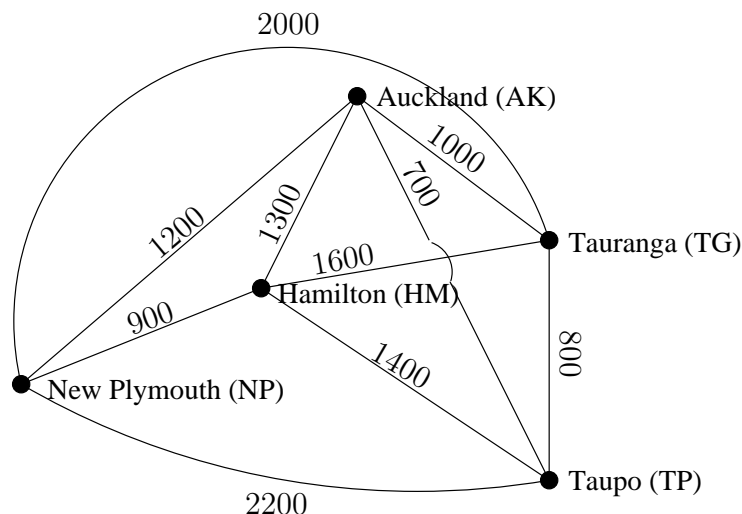
begin $e :=$ any edge in G with smallest weight that does not form a simple circuit when added to T

$T := T$ with e added

end $\{T$ is a minimum spanning tree of $G\}$

The difference between Prim's and Kruskal's algorithms is as follows. In Prim's algorithm edges of minimum weight that are incident to a vertex already in the tree, and not forming a circuit, are chosen; whereas, in Kruskal's algorithm edges of minimum weight that are not necessarily incident to a vertex already in the tree and that do not form a circuit, are chosen. Note that as in Prim's algorithm, if the edges are not ordered, there may be more than one choice for the edge to add at a stage of this procedure. Consequently, the edges need to be ordered for the procedure to be deterministic. The following example illustrates how Kruskal's algorithm is used.

Example 10.16 Use Kruskal's algorithm to find a minimum spanning tree in the weighted graph shown below.



Codes

11.1 Prefix codes and optimal binary trees

Codewords

To represent symbols, computers use strings of 0's and 1's called *codewords*. For example, in the ASCII (American Standard Code for Information Interchange) code, the letter A is represented by the codeword 01000001, B by 01000010, and C by 01000011. In this system each symbol is represented by some string of eight bits, where a bit is either a 0 or a 1. To translate a long string of 0's and 1's into its ASCII symbols we use the following procedure: Find the ASCII symbol represented by the first 8 bits, the ASCII symbol represented by the second 8 bits, etc. For example, 010000110100000101000010 is decoded as CAB.

For many purposes this kind of representation works well. However, there are situations, as in large-volume storage, where this is not an efficient method. In a fixed length representation, such as ASCII, every symbol is represented by a codeword of the same length. A more efficient approach is to use codewords of variable lengths, where the symbols used most often have shorter codewords than the symbols used less frequently. For example, in normal English usage the letters E, T, O, and A are used much more frequently than the letters Q, J, X, and Z. ???

Example 11.1 *Is there a way to assign the shortest codewords to the most frequently used symbols?*

In this way we have assigned the shortest possible codewords to the most frequently used letters and longer codewords to the other letters. This appears to be a more efficient approach than assigning all these letters a codeword of the same fixed length, which would have to be three or more.

But how can we decode a string of 0's and 1's? For example, how should the string 0110110 be decoded? Should we start by looking at only the first digit, or the first two, or the first three? Depending upon the number of digits used, the first letter could be E, O, or Z. We see that in order to use variable length codewords we need to select representations that permit unambiguous decoding.

Prefix property and prefix codes

A way to do this is to construct codewords so that no codeword is the first part of any other codeword. Such a set of codewords is said to have the *prefix property*. This property is not enjoyed by the above choice of codewords since the codeword for E is also the first part of the codeword for T. On the other hand, the set of codewords $S = \{000, 001, 01, 10, 11\}$ has the prefix property since no codeword appears as the first part of another codeword. The method to decode a string of 0's and 1's into codewords having the prefix property is to read one digit at a time until this string of digits becomes a codeword, then repeat the process starting with the next digit, and continue until the decoding is done.

Example 11.2 *Using the set of codewords S above, decode the string 001100100011.*

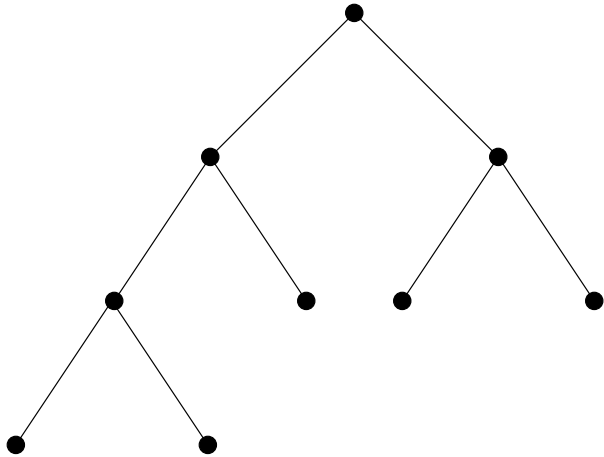
An efficient method of representation should use codewords such that :

1. the codewords have the prefix property; and
2. the symbols used frequently have shorter codewords than those used less often.

Using a binary tree to construct prefix codes

Any binary tree can be used to construct a set of codewords with the prefix property by assigning 0 to each edge from a parent to its left child and 1 to each edge from a parent to its right child. Following the unique directed path from the root to a terminal vertex will give a string of 0's and 1's. The set of all strings formed in this way will be a set of codewords with the prefix property, because corresponding to any codeword we can find the unique directed path by working down from the root of the binary tree, going left or right accordingly as each digit is 0 or 1. By definition we finish at a terminal vertex, and so this codeword cannot be the first part of another codeword.

Example 11.3 For the binary tree in the figure below, assign 0's and 1's to its edges as implied above. What codewords are produced?



By using a binary tree we have found a way to produce codewords that have the prefix property. It remains to find a method for assigning shorter codewords to the more frequently used symbols.

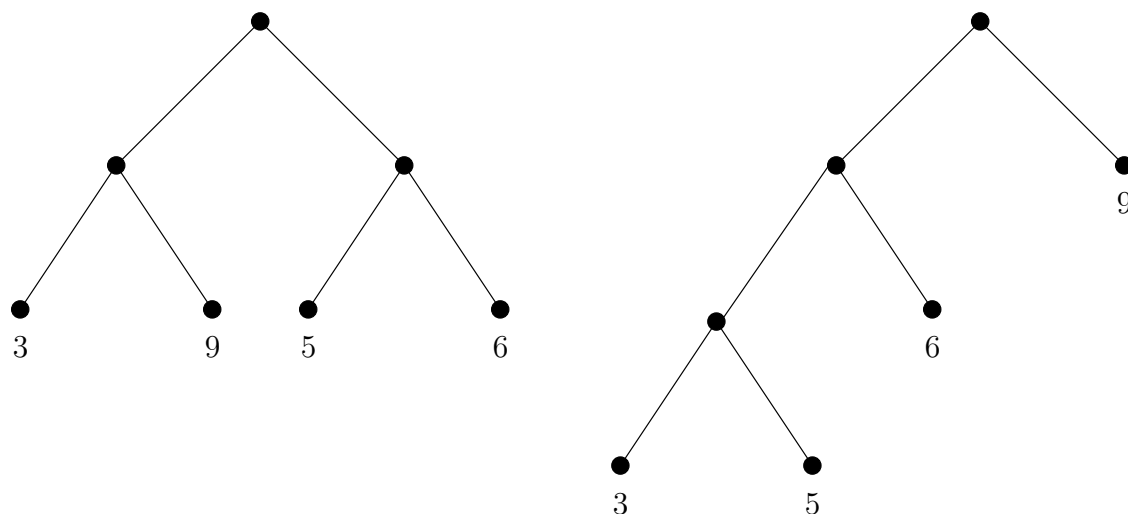
Example 11.4 For the codewords produced in the previous example, which should be used for the more frequent symbols?

Notice that these codewords correspond to the terminal vertices that are closest to the root. Thus, to obtain an efficient method for representing symbols by variable length codewords, we can use a binary tree and assign the most frequent symbols to the terminal vertices that are closest to the root.

Weighted trees

Suppose w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k are nonnegative real numbers. A *binary tree for the weights* w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k is a binary tree with k terminal vertices labeled w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k . A binary tree for the weights w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k has *total weight* $d_1 w_1 + d_2 w_2 + \dots + d_k w_k$, where d_i is the length of the directed path from the root to the vertex labeled w_i ($i = 1, \dots, k$).

Example 11.5 What are the total weights of the binary trees shown below?



For the coding problem we want to find a binary tree of smallest possible total weight in which the frequencies of the symbols to be encoded are the weights. A binary tree for the weights w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k is called an *optimal binary tree for the weights* w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k when its total weight is as small as possible.

The following algorithm due to David A. Huffman produces an optimal binary tree for the weights w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k . The idea is to create a binary tree by using the two smallest weights, say w_1 and w_2 , replace w_1 and w_2 by $w_1 + w_2$ in the list of weights, and then repeat the process.

Huffman's optimal binary tree algorithm

For nonnegative real numbers w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k , this algorithm constructs an optimal binary tree for the weights w_1, w_2, \dots, w_k .

Step 1 (select smallest weights). If there are two or more weights in the list of weights, select the two smallest weights, say V and W . (Ties can be broken arbitrarily.) Otherwise, we are done.

Step 2 (make binary tree). Construct a binary tree with the root assigned the label $V + W$, its left child assigned the label V , and its right child assigned the label W . Include in this construction any binary trees that have the labels V or W assigned to a root. Replace V and W in the list of weights by $V + W$. Go to step 1.

Example 11.6 *Construct the optimal binary tree for the weights 2, 3, 4, 7, 8. What is the total weight of this tree?*

In order to find codewords with the prefix property such that the most frequently used symbols are assigned the shortest codewords, we construct an optimal binary tree with the stated frequencies of the symbols as its weights. Then by assigning 0's and 1's to the edges of this tree as described previously, codewords can be efficiently assigned to the various symbols.

Example 11.7 *Suppose the characters E, T, A, Q, and Z have expected usage rates of 32, 28, 20, 4, and 1, respectively. Construct an efficient assignment of prefix codes to these characters.*

Example 11.8 *Given a text, let w_i be the number of occurrences of the i -th symbol. Suppose a binary tree for those weights has total weight $W = \sum_i d_i w_i$. If we encode our text using the corresponding prefix code, then the resulting file has length W . (So it is shortest when we minimize W .)*

11.2 Introduction to error-correcting codes

When a radio message is sent through space, interference with the transmission of a single letter or character may result in the receipt of an incorrect communication.

If the message NEXT STOP JOME is received, it may be clear that this was not the intended message. Perhaps the actual message was NEXT STOP ROME or NEXT STOP NOME, or something else.

It is often essential that a message be received as intended. For this reason, such messages are rarely sent in English (or French or German or any other common language), since transmission error often results in a misinterpretation.

Alphabets and words

To ensure the accuracy of a message, it is useful to *encode* it, that is, to use a new language in which it is less likely that two words will be confused with each other.

Definition 11.1 For an integer $b \geq 2$, the set

$$A = \{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$$

of b symbols is an alphabet. An ordered n -tuple of symbols in A is called a word of length n or simply an n -word (over A .)

The Hamming distance

Definition 11.2 For two n -words x and y , the distance $d(x, y)$, often called the Hamming distance, between x and y is the number of coordinates at which x and y differ.

Example 11.9 Let $x = 0101101$, $y = 1011110$ and $z = 0111101$. Then $d(x, y) = 5$, $d(x, z) = 1$, $d(y, z) = 4$.

Theorem 11.1 The Hamming distance has the following properties.

1. $d(u, v) \geq 0$, and $d(u, v) = 0$ if and only if $u = v$;
2. $d(u, v) = d(v, u)$ for all $u, v \in V(G)$;
3. $d(u, v) \leq d(u, w) + d(w, v)$ for all $u, v, w \in V(G)$
(The triangle inequality)

Proof: See lecture.

Codes

Definition 11.3 Let n be a positive integer and A an alphabet of b elements. A fixed-length code C is a collection of words of length n over A . The fixed-length code C is also called an (n, b) -code. If $b = 2$, then C is a binary code.

Example 11.10 Give an example of a $(6, 2)$ -code.

Distance of a code

Definition 11.4 The distance $d(C)$ of C is

$$d(C) = \min\{d(x, y)\},$$

where the minimum is taken over all pairs x, y of distinct code words.

Example 11.11 *What is the distance of the following code?*

$$C = \{000000, 001101, 010011, 100101\}.$$

The challenge in coding theory is to construct a code that

1. uses as simple an alphabet as possible to facilitate transmission of messages,
2. uses a sufficiently large n so that many code words are available and so that there is a great enough distance between every two code words, and
3. uses a sufficiently small n to simplify transmission of messages.

Example 11.12 *Suppose a code word of the code in the previous example is transmitted, but that one symbol gets changed. If the received word is*

110011

then what word was sent?

t-error correcting codes

We now turn to the problem of constructing codes. Ideally, a code should be constructed so that even if a small number of errors do occur due to interference, the message can still be understood.

Definition 11.5 *A code is t -error correcting if, whenever a code word x is transmitted, then x is the unique code word closest to the word received, even when up to t errors have occurred in the transmission of x .*

Example 11.13 *Let $C = \{00000, 11111\}$. Then C is a 2-error correcting code.*

We assume that if there is a unique code word at minimum distance from the received word, then the received word was intended to be the code word.

What can we say about $d(C)$?

Example 11.14 Suppose that an (n, b) -code is 1-error correcting. Is it possible for two code words to be at distance 1? Is it possible for two code words to be at distance 2?

Theorem 11.2 A code C is t -error correcting if and only if $d(C) \geq 2t + 1$.

Proof: See lecture.

Perfect codes

If an (n, b) -code C is t -error correcting, there is a limit on how many code words C can contain.

Theorem 11.3 If C is a t -error correcting (n, b) -code, then

$$|C| \leq \left\lfloor \frac{b^n}{s} \right\rfloor,$$

where

$$s = \binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1}(b-1) + \binom{n}{2}(b-1)^2 + \cdots + \binom{n}{t}(b-1)^t.$$

Definition 11.6 A t -error correcting (n, b) -code C is perfect if $|C| = b^n/s$, where s is given by the above theorem. (That is, for every n -word w over the alphabet $\{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}$, there is exactly one code word in C within a distance of at most t from w .)

A graphical representation of codes

Consider the graph G on $\{0, 1, \dots, b-1\}^n$ where there is an edge between vertices $u = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ and $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ if and only if $u_i \neq v_i$ for exactly one i ($1 \leq i \leq n$). A code can be considered as a subset of G .

Example 11.15 How many vertices does G have? Describe the graph when $b = 2$.

The Hamming distance between two code words is the same as the length of the shortest path in G between the two corresponding vertices. For a good code (i.e., one with a large distance), the code words are placed at suitably selected vertices of G so that the minimum distance among all pairs of code words is as large as possible.

Hardy- Ramanujan approximation formula for partitions (not examinable)

Go see the movie “The man who knew infinity” for background.

$p(n)$ is the number of ways to write n as a sum of positive numbers.

For instance, $p(5) = 7$ because there are 7 sums making 5 (with order unimportant)

5

4 + 1

3 + 2

3 + 1 + 1

2 + 2 + 1

2 + 1 + 1 + 1

1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1

The approximation formula of Hardy and Ramanujan is

$$p(n) \sim \frac{1}{4n\sqrt{3}} e^{\pi\sqrt{\frac{2n}{3}}}.$$

The \sim means that in the limit, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the two values are equal.

If we try $n = 1000$, the approximation gives about 2.4402×10^{31} , which is only 1.415% too large.

Index

- absolute complement, 38
- abstraction (set), 35
- accepting states, 155
- adjacent vertices, 85
- alphabet, 153
- and (\wedge), 14
- antisymmetric, 43
- arrangements with repetitions, 142
- arrangements with replacement, 141
- associative laws, 18, 38

- bijection, 62
- binary relation, 43
- binomial coefficients, 144, 147
- binomial theorem, 148
- bipartite graph, 91
- bound variable, 29
- bridge, 102

- cardinality, 39
- Cartesian product ($A \times B$), 40
- circuit in graph, 100
- codewords, 159
- coding theory, 163
- codomain, 59
- commutative laws, 18, 38
- complement, 38
 - absolute, 38
 - relative (\setminus), 37
- complement (\setminus), 37
- complete bipartite graph, 92
- complete graph, 89
- component of graph, 102
- composition of functions, 60
- compound proposition, 13, 16
- comprehension (set), 35
- concatenation, 153, 154
- congruence, 9
- congruence class, 11
- connected graph, 101
- connectives (\neg , \wedge , \vee , \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow , \oplus , NAND, NOR), 14, 17
- contingent proposition, 17
- contradiction, 17
- contrapositive, 22
- counterexample, 25
- counting lemma, 141
- cut edge, 102
- cycle graph, 89
- cycle in graph, 100

- De Morgan's laws, 18, 38
- degree of vertex, 85
- deterministic finite automaton, 155
- DFA, 155
- DFA recognizable, 157
- directed graph, 83
- disjoint sets, 141
- distance of a code, 164
- distributive laws, 18, 38
- divisor, 1
- domain, 59
- double negation, 18

- element, 35
- empty set (\emptyset), 35
- enumeration, 35
- equivalence class, 45
- equivalence relation, 44
- error correcting codes, 165
- Euclidean algorithm, 7
- Euler circuit, 106
- Euler path, 106
- exists (\exists), 28

- factor, 1
- for all (\forall), 28
- free variable, 29
- function, 59
 - composition, 60
 - domain, 59
 - identity, 63
 - image, 60
 - injective, 62
 - inverse, 63
 - range, 60
 - surjective, 62

- graph, 80
 - adjacency list, 95
 - adjacency matrix, 96
 - adjacent, 85
 - degree, 85
 - edge, 80
 - endpoints, 85
 - incident, 85
 - neighbour, 85
 - vertex, 80

- greatest element, 53
- Hamilton circuit, 115
- Hamilton path, 115
- Hamming distance, 164
- handshaking theorem, 86
- Hasse diagram, 53
- Huffman's algorithm, 162
- idempotent laws, 18, 38
- identity function, 63
- image (function), 59, 60
- implication laws, 18
- in-degree, 87
- incidence matrix of graph, 98
- incident edge, 85
- inclusion/exclusion principle, 148–150
- inclusive or (\vee), 15
- initial state, 155
- injective, 62
- integers (\mathbb{Z}), 1, 36
- intersection (\cap), 37
- inverse function, 63
- isolated, 86
- language, 154
- language accepted, 157
- lattice diagram, 53
- laws
 - associative, 18, 38
 - commutative, 18, 38
 - De Morgan's, 18, 38
 - distributive, 18, 38
 - for sets, 38–39
 - idempotent, 18, 38
 - implication, 18
- least element, 54
- lexicographic ordering, 50
- logical connectives
 - (\neg , \wedge , \vee , \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow), 14
 - (\oplus , NAND, NOR), 17
- logical equivalence (\Leftrightarrow), 17
- logical implication (\Rightarrow), 19
- loop, 82
- lower bound, 55
- maximal, 53
- minimal, 53
- modus ponens, 15
- multigraph, 81
- n-cube, 90
- natural numbers (\mathbb{N}), 1, 35
- not (\neg), 14
- one-to-one, 62
- onto, 62
- or (\vee), 14
- ordered pair, 40
- out-degree, 87
- partial order, 47
- partition, 46
- Pascal's identity, 148
- path in graph, 100
- pendant, 86
- permutation, 142
 - r -permutation, 142
- pigeonhole principle, 150–152
- poset, 47
- positive integers (\mathbb{P}), 36
- postorder algorithm, 129
- power set, 37
- prefix, 153
- prefix property, 160
- preimage ($f^{\leftarrow}(y)$), 64
- preorder algorithm, 129
- prime, 1
- product rule (enumeration), 141
- proof by contradiction, 23
- proposition, 13
 - compound, 13, 16
 - contingent, 17
 - contradiction, 17
 - simple, 13
 - tautology, 17
- pseudograph, 82
- quotient, 6
- r -permutation, 142
- range (function), 60
- rational numbers (\mathbb{Q}), 1, 36
- real numbers (\mathbb{R}), 36
- reflexive, 43
- relative complement (\setminus), 37
- remainder, 6
- replacement, 35
- selections, 143, 146
- selections with repetitions, 145
- set, 35
 - complement (\setminus), 37
 - difference (\setminus), 37
 - disjoint, 141
 - empty (\emptyset), 35
 - equal, 36
 - intersection, 37
 - laws, 38–39
 - subset, 36
 - union, 37
- set builder, 35
- simple graph, 80
- simple proposition, 13
- state, 155
- statement, 13
- strongly connected, 103

-
- subgraph, 93
 - subset, 36
 - substring, 153
 - surjective, 62
 - symmetric, 43

 - tautology, 17, 30
 - total order, 48
 - transition diagram, 156
 - transition function, 155
 - transitive, 44
 - truth table, 15–17
 - truth value, 14

 - union (\cup), 37
 - union of graphs, 94
 - union rule (enumeration),
141
 - universal set, 38
 - upper bound, 55

 - variable, 1
 - Venn diagram, 37

 - well-ordered, 49
 - wheel graph, 90
 - word, 153