

DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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Tree Traversal

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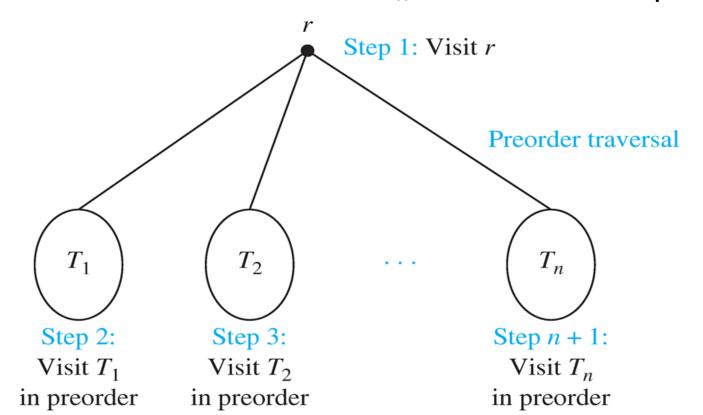
The three most commonly used traversals are *preorder* traversal, inorder traversal, postorder traversal.



■ **Definition** Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r. If T consists only of r, then r is the *preorder traversal* of T. Otherwise, suppose that T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n are the subtrees of r from left to right in T. The *preorder traversal* begins by visiting r, and continues by traversing T_1 in preorder, then T_2 in preorder, and so on, until T_n is traversed in preorder.

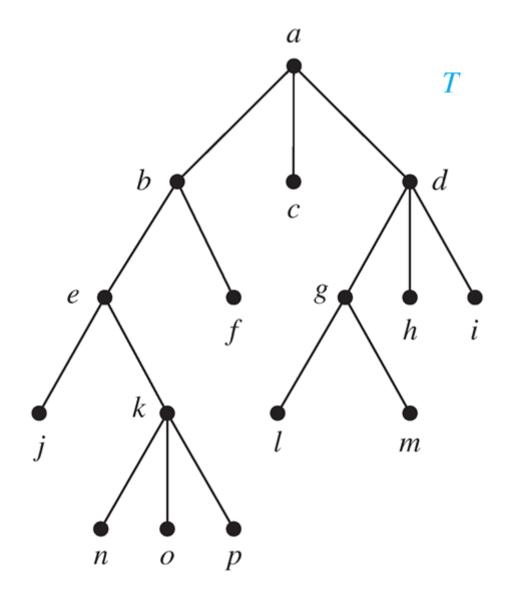


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Example





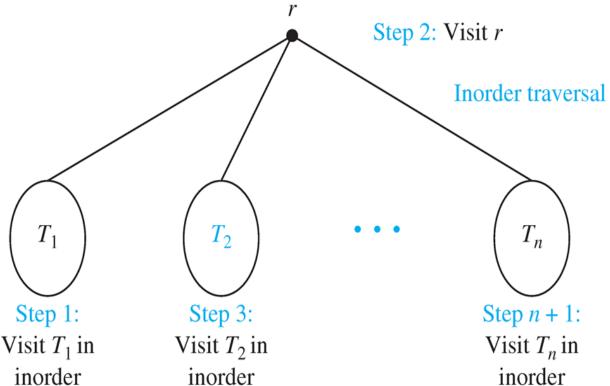
```
procedure preorder (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := root of T
list r
for each child c of r from left to right
    T(c) := subtree with c as root
    preorder(T(c))
```



■ **Definition** Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r. If T consists only of r, then r is the *inorder traversal* of T. Otherwise, suppose that T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n are the subtrees of r from left to right in T. The *inorder traversal* begins by traversing T_1 in inorder, then visiting r, and continues by traversing T_2 in inorder, and so on, until T_n is traversed in inorder.

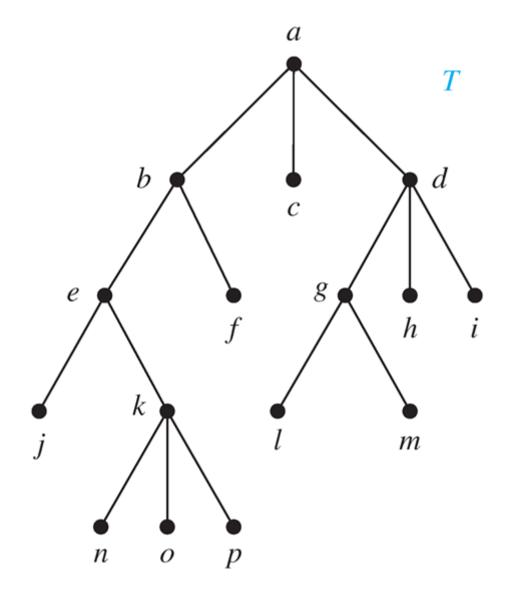


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Example





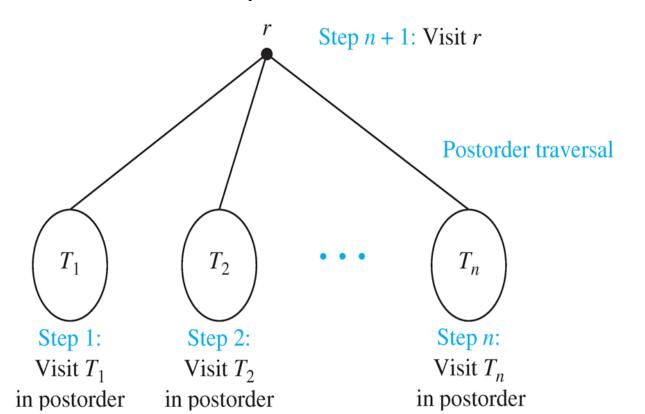
```
procedure inorder (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := \text{root of } T
if r is a leaf then list r
else
   l := first child of r from left to right
  T(l) := subtree with l as its root
  inorder(T(l))
  list(r)
  for each child c of r from left to right
      T(c) := subtree with c as root
      inorder(T(c))
```



■ **Definition** Let T be an ordered rooted tree with root r. If T consists only of r, then r is the *postorder traversal* of T. Otherwise, suppose that T_1, T_2, \ldots, T_n are the subtrees of r from left to right in T. The *postorder traversal* begins by traversing T_1 in postorder, then T_2 in postorder, and so on, after T_n is traversed in postorder, r is visited.

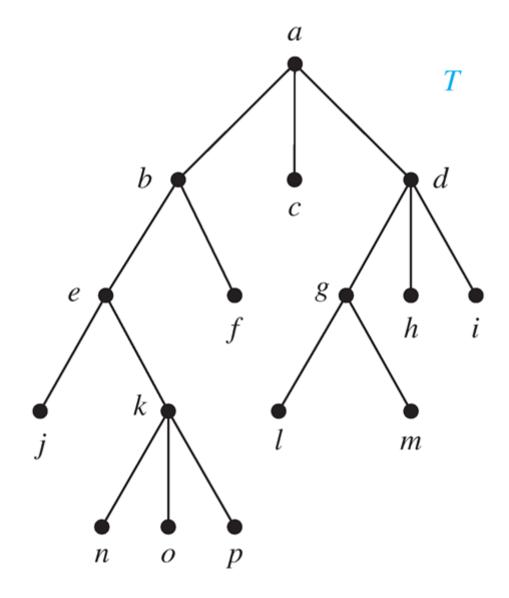


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Example

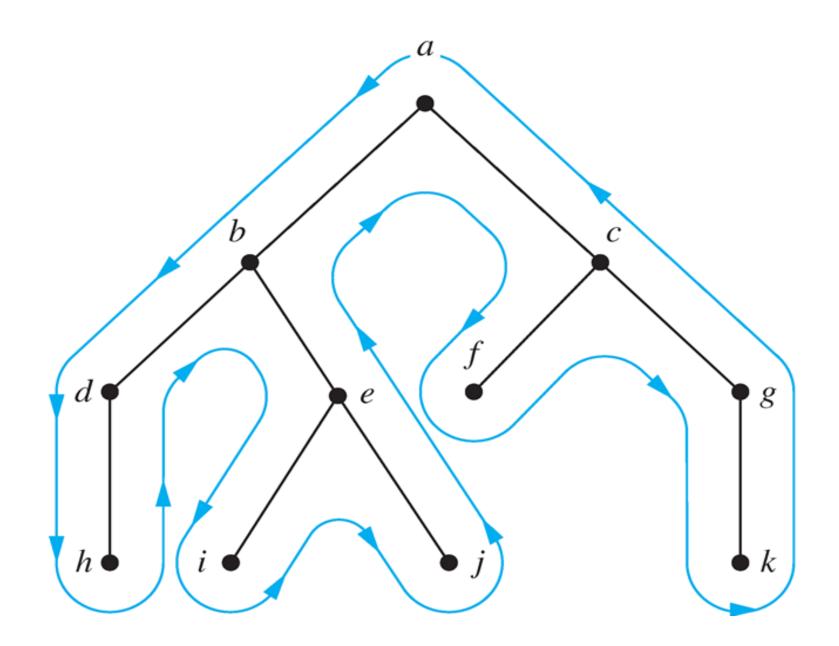




```
procedure postordered (T: ordered rooted tree)
r := root of T
for each child c of r from left to right
    T(c) := subtree with c as root
    postorder(T(c))
list r
```



Preorder, Inorder, Postorder Traversal





Expression Trees

 Complex expressions can be represented using ordered rooted trees



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Example

consider the expression $((x + y) \uparrow 2) + ((x - 4)/3)$

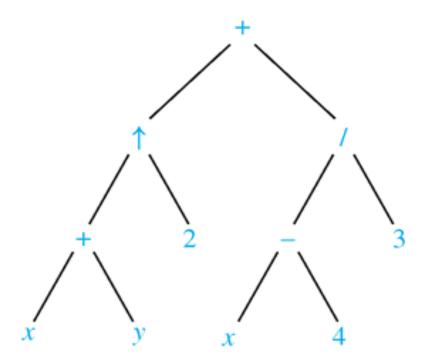


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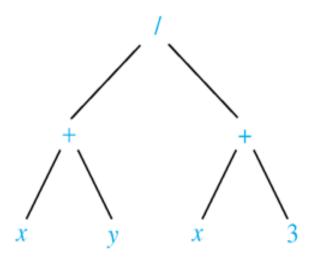
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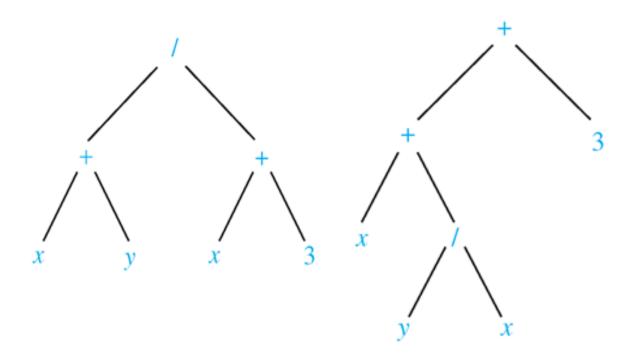


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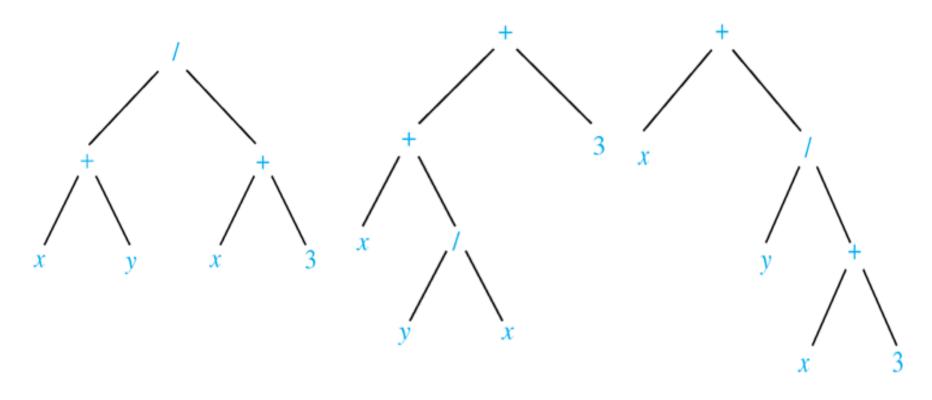


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Operators precede their operands in the prefix notation. Parentheses are not needed as the representation is unambiguous.

Prefix expressions are evaluated by working from right to left. When we encounter an operator, we perform the operation with the two operands to the right.



Example

$$+ \ - \ * \ 2 \ 3 \ 5 \ / \ \uparrow \ 2 \ 3 \ 4$$



Example



■ The postorder traversal of expression trees leads to the postfix form of the expression (reverse Polish notation).



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Operators follow their operands in the postfix notation. Parentheses are not needed as the representation is unambiguous.

Postfix expressions are evaluated by working from left to right. When we encounter an operator, we perform the operation with the two operands to the left.



Example

$$7\ 2\ 3\ *\ -\ 4\ \uparrow\ 9\ 3\ /\ +$$



Example

$$723*-4 + 93/+
723*-4 + 93/+
2*3=6
76-4 + 93/+
7-6=1
14+1 93/+
14=1
193/+
9/3=3
13+1
1+3=4$$



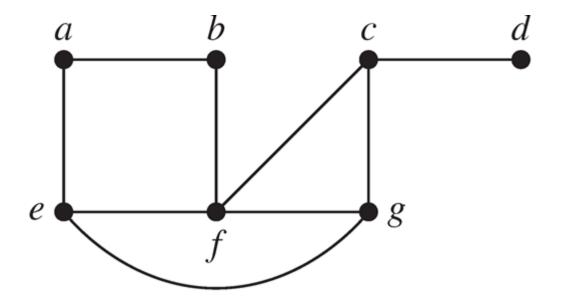
Spanning Trees

■ **Definition** 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*.



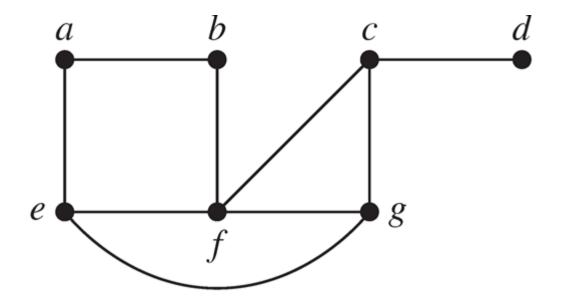
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remove edges to avoid circuits



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The spanning tree can be obtained by removing edges from simple circuits.

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"if" part easy
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- First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.
- Form a path by successively adding vertices and edges.
 Continue adding to this path as long as possible.



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- First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.
- Form a path by successively adding vertices and edges.
 Continue adding to this path as long as possible.
- ♦ If the path goes through all vertices of the graph, the tree is a spanning tree.



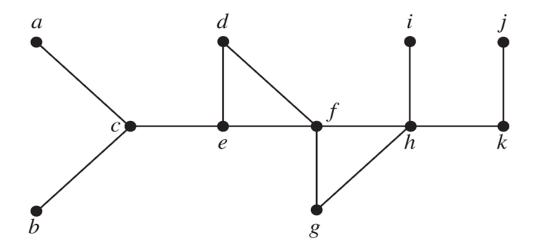
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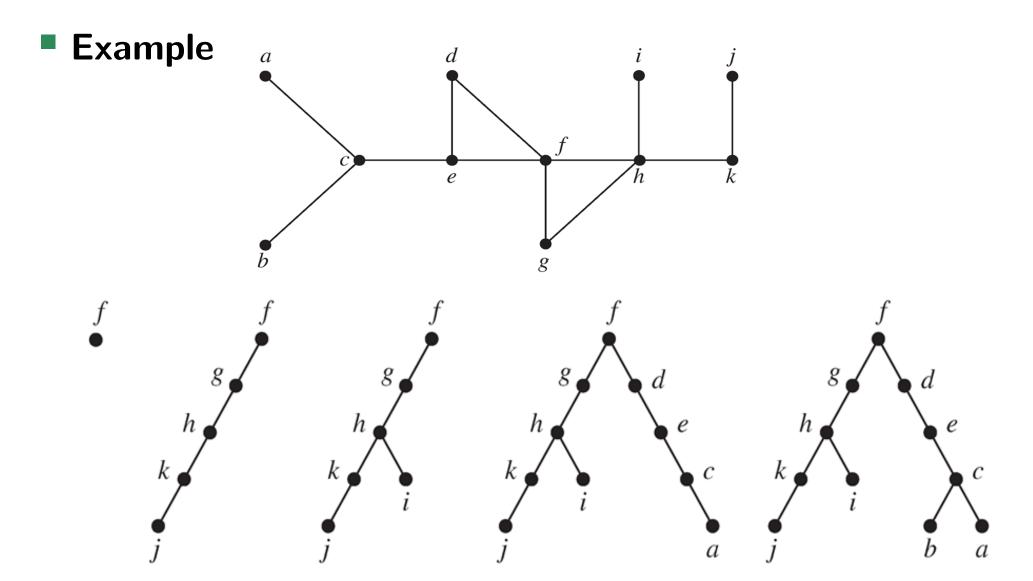
- First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.
- Form a path by successively adding vertices and edges.
 Continue adding to this path as long as possible.
- If the path goes through all vertices of the graph, the tree is a spanning tree.
- Otherwise, move back to some vertex to repeat this procedure (backtracking)



Example









Depth-First Search Algorithm

```
procedure DFS(G: connected graph with vertices v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, ..., v<sub>n</sub>)
T := tree consisting only of the vertex v<sub>1</sub>
visit(v<sub>1</sub>)

procedure visit(v: vertex of G)
for each vertex w adjacent to v and not yet in T
  add vertex w and edge {v,w} to T
  visit(w)
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Depth-First Search Algorithm

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time complexity: O(e)



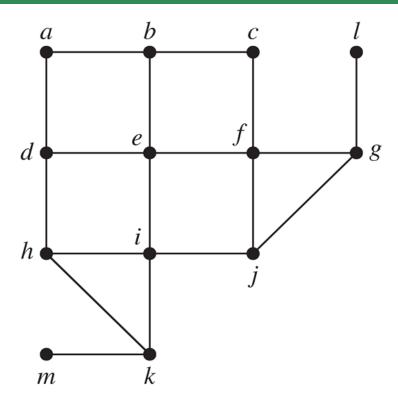
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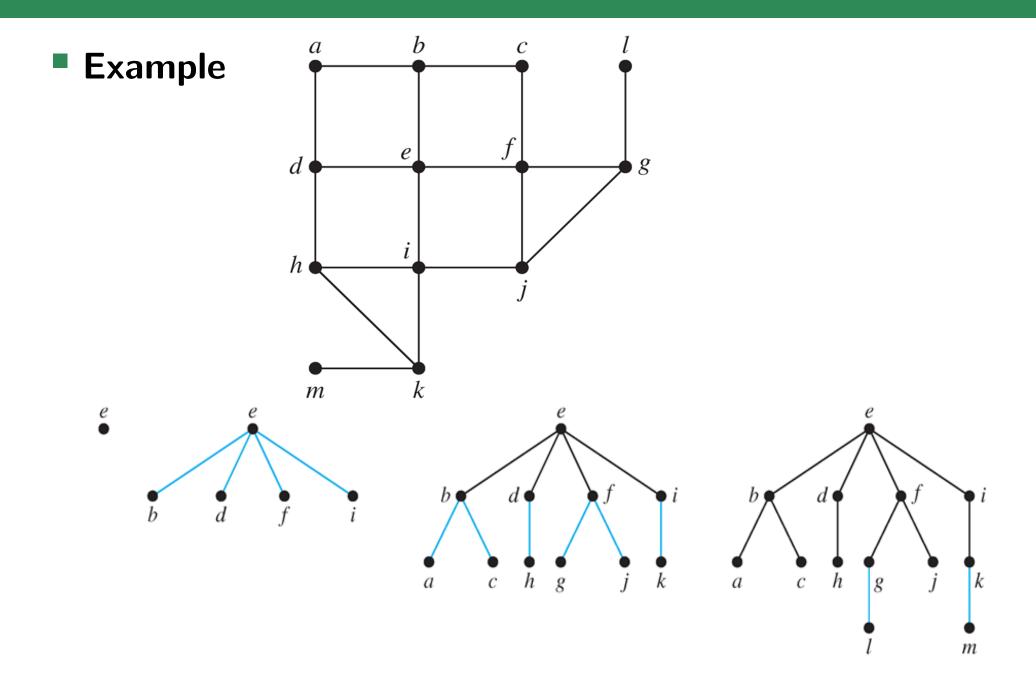


- This is the second algorithm that we build up spanning trees by successively adding edges.
 - ⋄ First arbitrarily choose a vertex of the graph as the root.
 - ♦ Form a path by adding all edges incident to this vertex and the other endpoint of each of these edges
 - ⋄ For each vertex added at the previous level,add edge incident to this vertex, as long as it does not produce a simple circuit.
 - Continue in this manner until all vertices have been added.



Example





```
procedure BFS(G: connected graph with vertices v<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>, ..., v<sub>n</sub>)
T := tree consisting only of the vertex v<sub>1</sub>
L := empty list visit(v<sub>1</sub>)
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while L is not empty
remove the first vertex, v, from L
for each neighbor w of v
    if w is not in L and not in T then
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find paths, circuits, connected components, cut vertices, ...



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find shortest paths, determine whether bipartite, ...

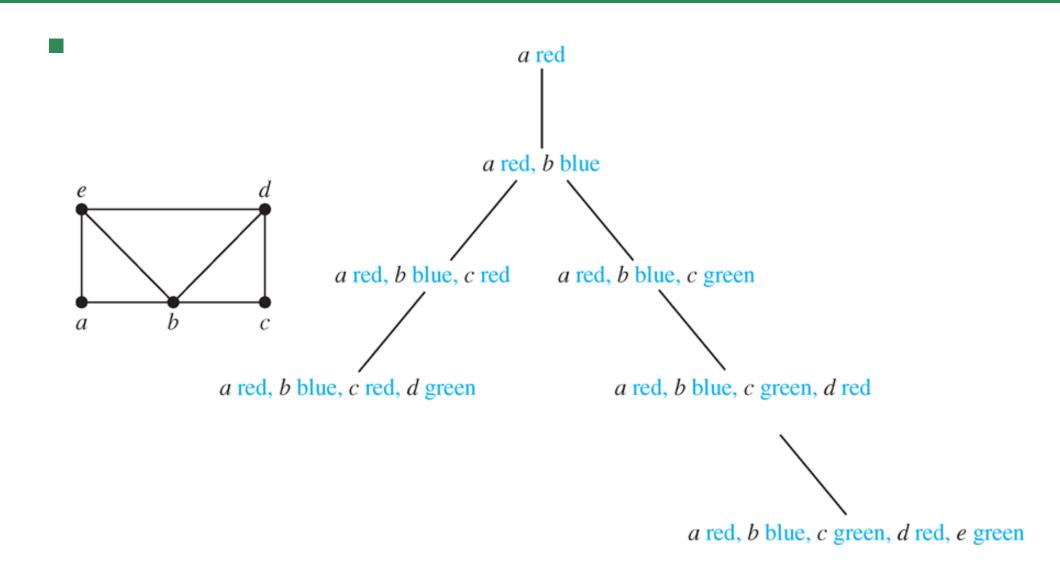


• find paths, circuits, connected components, cut vertices, ...

find shortest paths, determine whether bipartite, ...

graph coloring, sums of subsets, ...







find Sum = 0find {27} {31} grap Sum = 31Sum = 27 ${31, 5}$ $\{27, 7\}$ ${31, 7}$ {27, 11} Sum = 38Sum = 36Sum = 34Sum = 38 $\{27, 7, 5\}$ Sum = 39

find a subset of $\{31, 27, 15, 11, 7, 5\}$ with the sum 39



Minimum Spanning Trees

Definition A minimum spanning tree in a connected weighted graph is a spanning tree that has the smallest possible sum of weights of its edges.



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two greedy algorithms: Prim's Algorithm, Kruscal's Algorithm



Prim's Algorithm

ALGORITHM 1 Prim's Algorithm.

```
procedure Prim(G: weighted connected undirected graph with n vertices)
T := a minimum-weight edge
for i := 1 to n - 2
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
return T {T is a minimum spanning tree of G}
```



Prim's Algorithm

ALGORITHM 1 Prim's Algorithm.

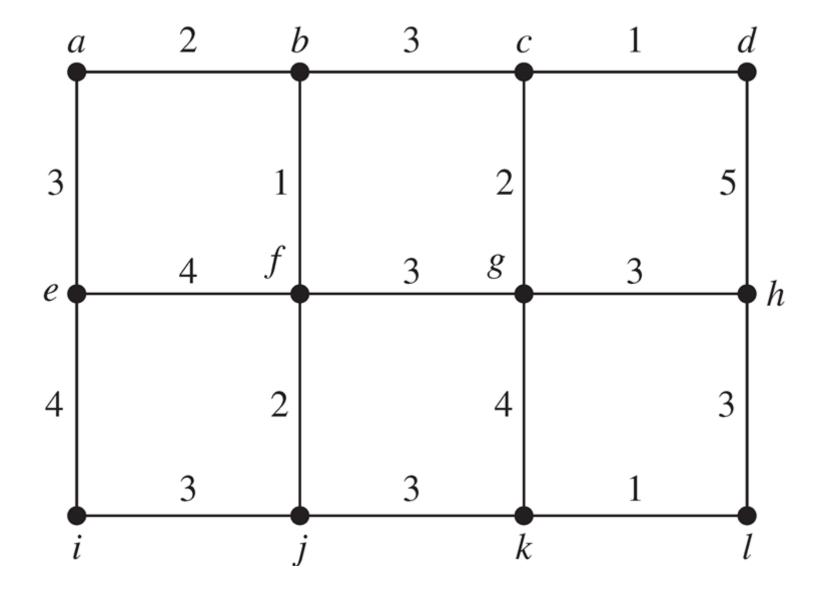
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time complexity: e log v



Prim's Algorithm

Example





Kruscal's Algorithm

ALGORITHM 2 Kruskal's Algorithm.

```
procedure Kruskal(G: weighted connected undirected graph with n vertices)
T := empty graph
for i := 1 to n - 1
e := any edge in G with smallest weight that does not form a simple circuit when added to T
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Kruscal's Algorithm

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time complexity: e log e



Kruscal's Algorithm

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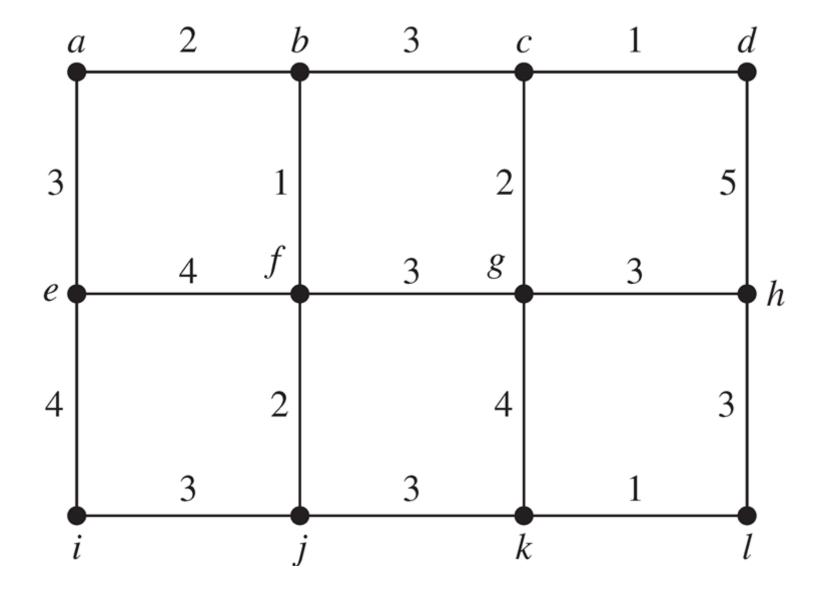
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```

```
time complexity: e \log e see CLRS / Algorithm Design, J. Kleinberg, E. Tardos
```



Kruscal's Algorithm

Example





Review

- 01. Propositional Logic
- 02. Predicate Logic
- 03. Mathematical Proofs
- 04. Sets
- 05. Functions
- 06. Complexity of Algorithms
- 07. Number Theory

- 08. Cryptography
- 09. Mathematical Induction
- 10. Recursion
- 11. Counting
- 12. Relation
- 13. Graphs
- 14. Tree



Review

- 01. Propositional Logic
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Discrete Probability
Groups, Rings and Fields

- 08. Cryptography
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- 14. Tree



Logical connectives



Logical connectives

$$\neg p$$
, $p \lor q$, $p \land q$, $p \oplus q$, $p \rightarrow q$, $p \leftrightarrow q$



Logical connectives

$$\neg p, p \lor q, p \land q, p \oplus q, p \rightarrow q, p \leftrightarrow q$$

Logical equivalence



Logical connectives

$$\neg p, p \lor q, p \land q, p \oplus q, p \rightarrow q, p \leftrightarrow q$$

Logical equivalence

De Morgan's laws, communtative laws, distributive laws, ...



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De Morgan's laws, communtative laws, distributive laws, ...

Predicate logic

contains variables



Logical connectives

$$\neg p$$
, $p \lor q$, $p \land q$, $p \oplus q$, $p \rightarrow q$, $p \leftrightarrow q$

Logical equivalence

De Morgan's laws, communtative laws, distributive laws, ...

- Predicate logiccontains variables
- Quantified statements

universal, existential, equivalence



Methods of Proving Theorems

- Basic methods to prove theorems:
 - ♦ direct proof
 - $-p \rightarrow q$ is proved by showing that if p is true then q follows
 - proof by contrapositive
 - show the contrapositive $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$
 - proof by contradiction
 - show that $(p \land \neg q)$ contradicts the assumptions
 - proof by cases
 - give proofs for all possible cases
 - proof of equivalence
 - $-p \leftrightarrow q$ is replaced with $(p \rightarrow q) \land (q \rightarrow p)$



function?



function?

one-to-one (injective) function?



function?

```
one-to-one (injective) function?
onto (surjective) function?
```



function?

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one-to-one (injective) function?
onto (surjective) function?
bijective function (one-to-one correspondence)?
```



function?

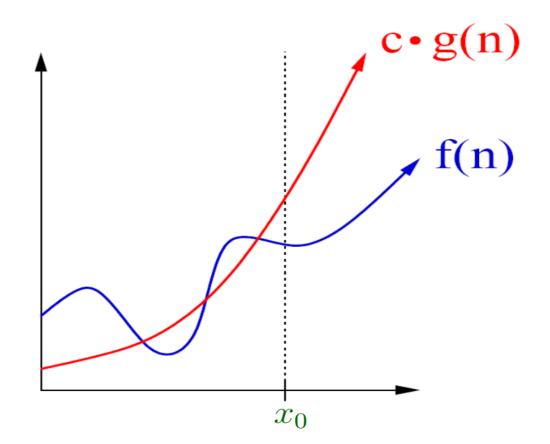
```
one-to-one (injective) function?
onto (surjective) function?
bijective function (one-to-one correspondence)?
```

counting the number of such functions?



Big-O Notation

Let f and g be functions from the set of integers or the set of real numbers to the set of real numbers. We say that f(n) = O(g(n)) (reads: f(n) is O of g(n)), if there exist some positive constants C and k such that $|f(n)| \le C|g(n)|$, whenever n > k.





Divisibility



Divisibility

Congruence relation



Divisibility

Congruence relation

Primes



Divisibility

Congruence relation

Primes

GCD and Euclidean Algorithm



Divisibility

Congruence relation

Primes

GCD and Euclidean Algorithm

Modular Inverse



Divisibility

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GCD and Euclidean Algorithm

Modular Inverse

When does an inverse of a modulo m exist?

How to find inverses?



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Modular Inverse

When does an inverse of a modulo m exist?

How to find inverses?

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Back substitution
$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

 $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$
 $x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$



Fermat's Little Theorem



Fermat's Little Theorem

Euler's Theorem



Fermat's Little Theorem

Euler's Theorem

Primitive roots, multiplicative order



Fermat's Little Theorem

Euler's Theorem

Primitive roots, multiplicative order

RSA cryptosystem

DLP, Diffie-Hellman protocol



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 $P(n-1) o P(n)$ or $(**)$ $P(b) \wedge P(b+1) \wedge \cdots \wedge P(n-1) o P(n)$



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We need to make the inductive hypothesis of either P(n-1) or $P(b) \wedge P(b+1) \wedge \cdots \wedge P(n-1)$. We then use (*) or (**) to derive P(n).



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$$(*) \qquad P(n-1) \to P(n)$$

or

$$(**) \qquad P(b) \land P(b+1) \land \cdots \land P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$$

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3. We conclude on the basis of the principle of mathematical induction that P(n) is true for all $n \ge b$.



Recurrence

Iterating a recurrence



Recurrence

Iterating a recurrence

bottom up or top down



Recurrence

Iterating a recurrence

bottom up or top down

prove by induction, complexity, ...



■ The sum rule and product rule



The sum rule and product rule

The Inclusion-Exclusion Principle



The sum rule and product rule

The Inclusion-Exclusion Principle

The Pigeonhole Principle



The sum rule and product rule

The Inclusion-Exclusion Principle

The Pigeonhole Principle

Theorem If N is a positive integer and k is an integer with $1 \le k \le n$, then there are

$$P(n,k) = n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)$$

k-element permutations with n distinct elements.



The sum rule and product rule

The Inclusion-Exclusion Principle

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$$P(n,3) = 3! \cdot C(n,3)$$



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Pascal's Triangle, Identity



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Pascal's Triangle, Identity

The Binomial Theorem, Trinomial



Properties of relations



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Representing relations



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Closures on relations



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Equivalence relation

Definition A relation R on a set A is called an *equivalence* relation if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.



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Partial ordering



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Equivalence relation

Definition A relation R on a set A is called an *equivalence* relation if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

Partial ordering

Definition A relation R on a set A is called a *partial* ordering if it is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive.



Graphs & Trees

Basic concepts



Graphs & Trees

Basic concepts

connected graph, simple graph, isomophism, chromatic number, Euler circuit, Hamilton circuit, shortest path, bipartite graph, complete graph, special graphs $(K_n, K_{m,n}, C_n, W_n)$, m-ary tree, tree traversal, spanning tree ...



Next Lecture

the last lecture ...

