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*Did you bring your notepad?*

# 206 Discrete Structures II

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# Remember

An iceberg floating in the ocean. The tip of the iceberg is visible above the water line, while the much larger, jagged mass is submerged below the surface. The water is a deep blue, and the sky is a lighter blue with some white clouds.

*What we cover in lectures*

*What still  
needs to be  
covered*

# Reading for Quiz 1 (and beyond...)

Lecture 2	Recap and Basics of Counting	Chapters 1, 2 and 5 of Rosen
Lecture 3	Basics of Counting	Chapters 1, 2 and 5 of Rosen Chapter 15 of Lehman
Lecture 4+5	Basics of Counting	Chapters 6 of Rosen Chapter 15 of Lehman

# What we will cover today

## Combinatorics

- Recap
  - Sets - Venn
- Today
  - Functions
  - *Break*
  - Proofs
    - Direct
    - Contrapositive
    - Case Analysis
    - Contradiction
    - Induction
  - [Next Week] Counting
    - Partition Method
    - Difference Method

# Course Outline

- Part I
  - Recap of basics – sets, function, proofs, induction
  - Basic counting techniques
  - Pigeonhole principle
  - Generating functions
- Part II
  - Sample spaces and events
  - Basics of probability
  - Independence, conditional probability
  - Random variables, expectation, variance
  - Moment generating functions
- Part III
  - Graph Theory
  - Machine learning and statistical inference

# Combinatorics

## Your Password:

- Must be different from your User ID
- Must contain 8 to 20 characters, including one letter and number
- May include one of the following characters: %, &, \_, ?, #, =, -
- Your new password cannot have any spaces and will not be case sensitive.

\*REQUIRED FIELD

How many different passwords we can create?

# Sets

- The order of elements is not significant, so  $\{x, y\}$  and  $\{y, x\}$  are the same set written two different ways.
- And what about  $y = x$ ?
  - $\{x, x\} = \{x\}$
- The expression  $e \in S$  asserts that  $e$  **is an element of** set  $S$ 
  - E.g.,  $32 \in S$  or  $blue \notin S$

# Sets - Set Operations

*Example*

$$X ::= \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$Y ::= \{2, 3, 4\}$$

- Union:  $X \cup Y$ 
  - All elements present in  $X$  or  $Y$  or both.
- Intersection:  $X \cap Y$ 
  - All elements present in *both*  $X$  and  $Y$ .
- Difference:  $X \setminus Y$ 
  - All elements present in  $X$  but not in  $Y$ .
  - *Not symmetric!*
- Product:  $X \times Y$ 
  - Collection of all tuples  $(a, b)$  where  $a \in X$  and  $b \in Y$ .
- Size:  $|X|$ 
  - Number of elements in  $X$ .

$$X \cup Y = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

$$X \cap Y = \{2, 3\}$$

$$X \setminus Y = \{1\}$$

$$Y \setminus X = \{4\}$$

$$X \times Y = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 4), (3, 2), (3, 3), (3, 4)\}$$

$$|X| = 3$$

$$|Y| = 3$$



# Power Set

$$X = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$\text{power}(X) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$$

- Let  $X$  be a set.
- $\text{Power}(X)$  = set of all subsets of  $X$
- E.g.,  $\text{Power}(\{1, 2\}) = \{1\}, \{2\}, \text{and } \{1, 2\}$
- Is this correct?
  - NO!
  - $\text{Power}(\{1, 2\}) = \{1\}, \{2\}, \{1, 2\}, \text{and } \{\}$
- Generally, if  $A$  has  $n$  elements, then there are  $2^n$  sets in  $\text{Power}(A)$

# Set Builder Notation

- Often sets cannot be fully described by listing the elements explicitly or by taking unions, intersections, etc., of easily-described sets
- **Set builder notation** often comes to the rescue
- The idea is to define a set using a **predicate**; in particular, the set consists of all values that make the predicate true

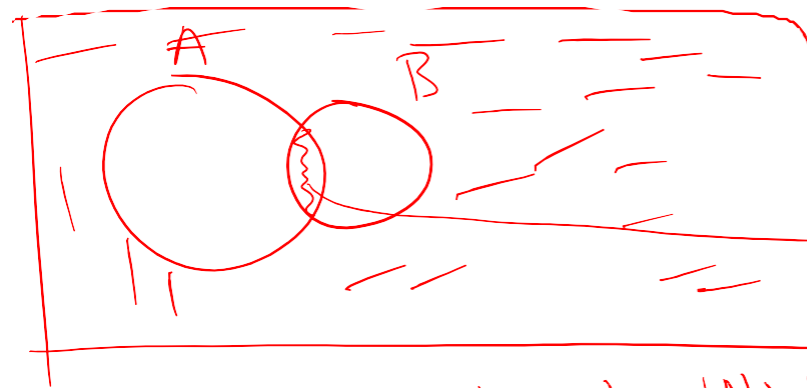
*Examples:*

- $X = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n \text{ is prime}\}$
- $Y = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^3 - 3x + 1 > 0\}$
- $Z = \{z \in \text{YouTube\_videos} : z \text{ is less than 3 minutes long}\}$

# Venn Diagram

- There are 131 students in CS 206.
- 100 like chocolate ice cream. 50 like vanilla ice cream.
- 20 like both chocolate and vanilla ice cream.
- Draw a Venn diagram to represent this.
- How many students do not like either flavor of ice cream.

A = chocolate  
B = vanilla



$$|A| = 100$$

$$|B| = 50$$

$$|A \cap B| = 20$$

Want  $131 - |A \cup B|$ ,  $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B| = 130$   
 $\Rightarrow 131 - |A \cup B| = 1$

# Functions

- What is a *function*?

- A function *assigns* an element of one set to an element of another set
- The **mapping** is done from one set, called *domain*, to another set, called *codomain*
- Notation  $f: A \mapsto B$

- Examples

- $f: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$
- $x \mapsto 4x^2$

The familiar notation  $f(a) = b$  indicates that  $f$  assigns the element  $b \in B$  to  $a$ . Here  $b$  would be called the value of  $f$  at argument  $a$

- Example using a formula for  $b$ :  $f(x) = 4x^2$

# Functions - Example

- **Algorithms are functions**

- Example:
- Let  $X = \text{set of all web pages}$
- PageRank:  $X \mapsto \mathbb{R}$

# Types of Functions

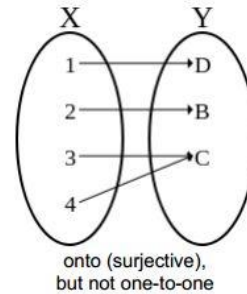
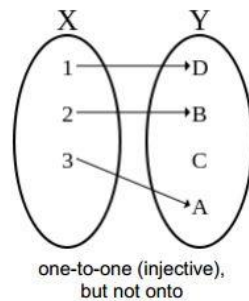
- **Injection** (one-to-one)

- $f: X \mapsto Y$  is injective if each  $x \in X$  is mapped to a *different*  $y \in Y$ .

This function *preserves distinctness* as it never maps distinct elements of its domain to the same elements of its codomain.

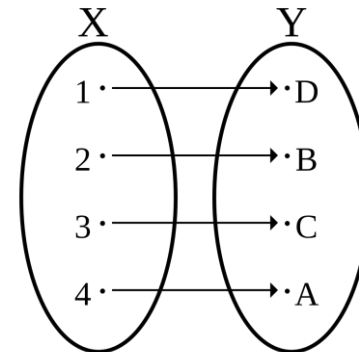
- **Subjection** (onto)

- $f: X \mapsto Y$  is surjective if each  $y \in Y$ , there exists  $x \in X$  such that  $f(x) = y$ .



- **Bijection**

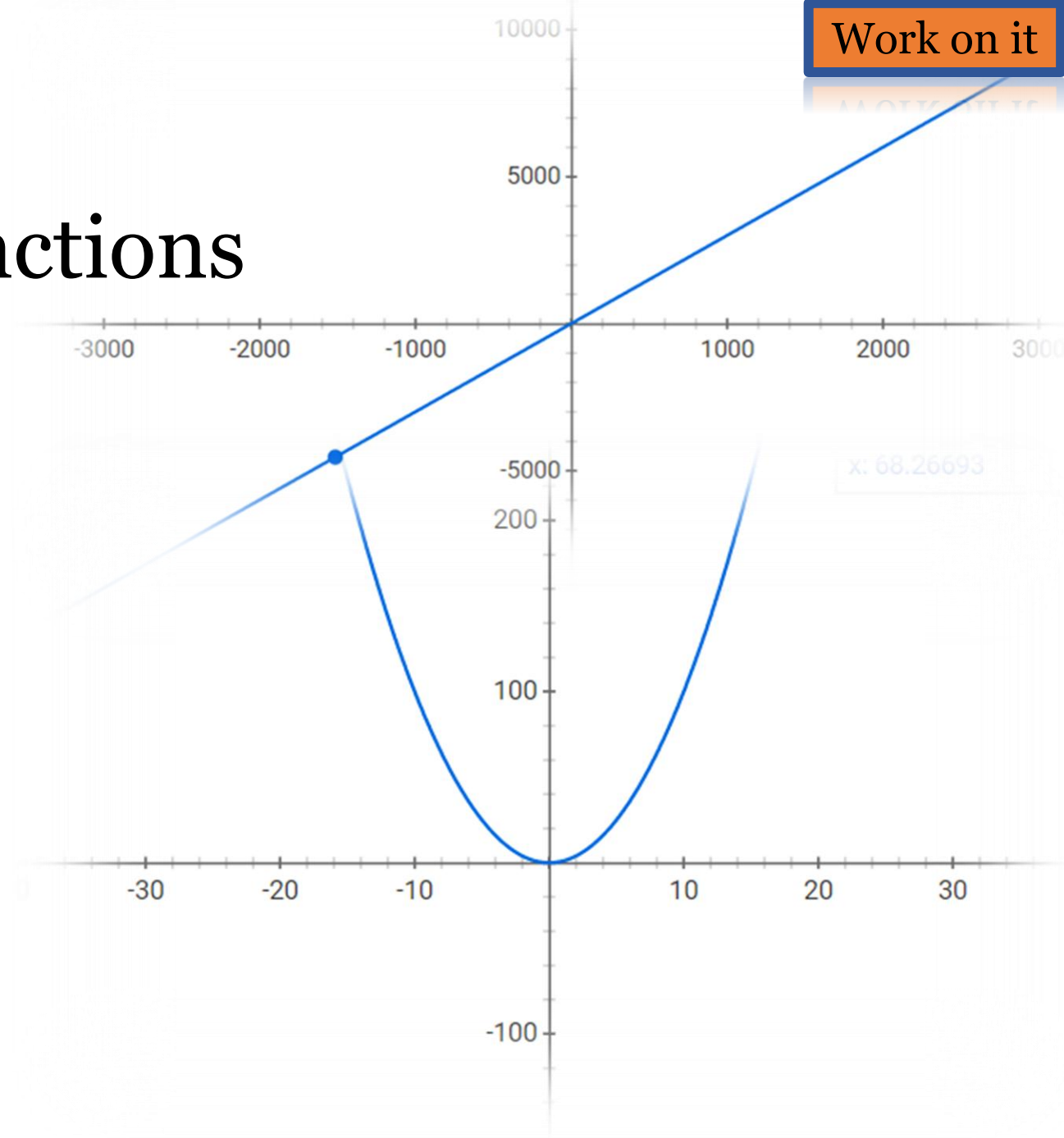
- $f: X \mapsto Y$  is a bijection if it is both one-to-one and onto.



## 2 Examples: Types of Functions

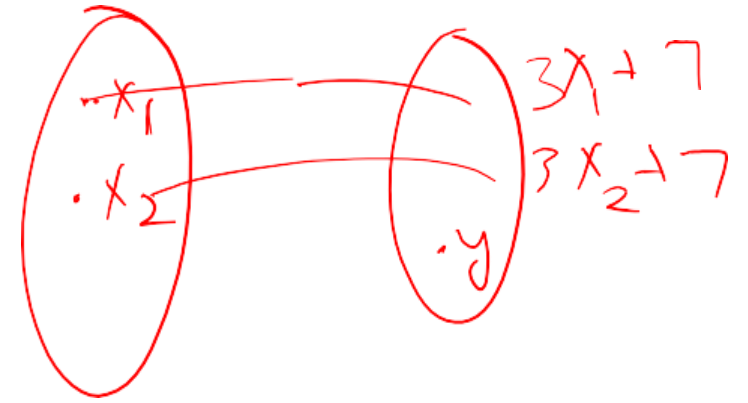
- $f: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}, f(x) = 3x + 7$

- $f: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}, f(x) = x^2$



## 2 Examples: Types of Functions

- $f: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}, f(x) = 3x + 7$



- $f(x) = 3x + 7$  is one-to-one  
Since if  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are different then  
 $3x_1 + 7$  and  $3x_2 + 7$  are also different
- $f(x) = 3x + 7$  is on-to since for any real  
value  $y$ ,  $f\left(\frac{y-7}{3}\right) = y$

Hence  $f(x) = 3x + 7$  is a bijection



## 2 Examples: Types of Functions

- $f: \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}, f(x) = x^2$

–  $f(x) = x^2$  is not one-to-one since  
 $f(2) = f(-2) = 4$

–  $f(x) = x^2$  is not onto since for  
 $y = -3$ , no real value  $x$  exists such  
that  $f(x) = -3$

**5 min**  
**Take a Break**



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# Proofs

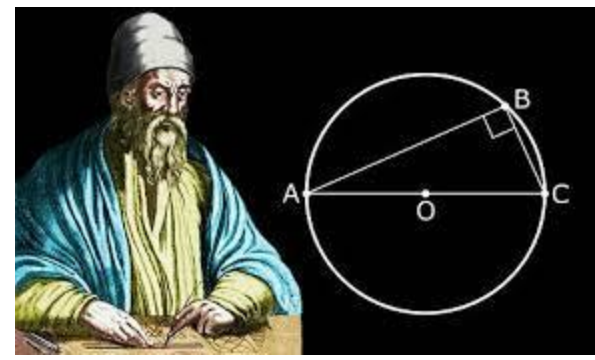
- A mathematical proof...
  - ...of a **proposition** is a chain of **logical deductions** from **axioms** and previously proved statements.
- **Proposition**
  - A **prime** is an integer greater than one that is not divisible by any other integer greater than 1, e.g., 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, ...
  - A statement that is either *true* or *false*
  - e.g., *Every even integer greater than 2 is the sum of two primes* (Goldbach's Conjecture – remains unsolved since 1742...)
- Predicates
  - A **proposition** whose truth depends on the value of variables
  - e.g.,  $P(n) ::= "n \text{ is a perfect square}"$  –  $P(4)$  is true but  $P(5)$  is false

# Proofs

The first two Proofs we will learn:

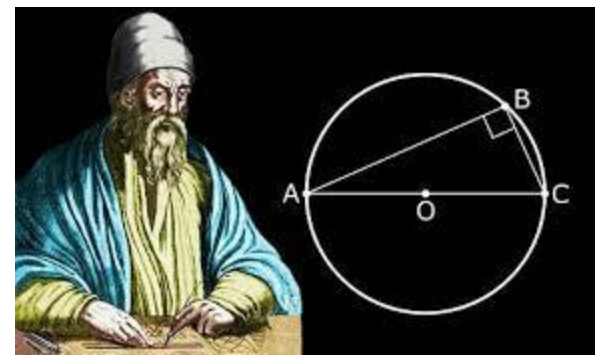
- Direct Proof
- Proof by Contrapositive

# Axioms



- A standard procedure for establishing truth in mathematics was invented by Euclid, a Greek mathematician working in Alexandria, circa 300 BC.
- He began with 5 assumptions about geometry, which seemed undeniable based on direct experience. (For example, “There is a straight line segment between every pair of points.”)
- Propositions like these that are **simply accepted as true** are called axioms
- Starting from these axioms, Euclid established the truth of many additional propositions by providing “proofs.”

# Axioms



- Euclid's axiom-and-proof approach, now called the *axiomatic method*, remains the foundation for mathematics today.
- In fact, just a handful of axioms, called the axioms Zermelo-Frankel with Choice (ZFC), together with a few logical deduction rules, ***appear to be sufficient to derive essentially all of mathematics***

# Logical Deductions (or Inference Rules)

*Used to prove new propositions using previously proved ones*

- $$\frac{P, P \Rightarrow Q}{Q}$$

- If  $P$  is true and  $P$  implies  $Q$ , then  $Q$  is true.

*If we can prove this ...*

- $$\frac{P \Rightarrow Q, Q \Rightarrow R}{P \Rightarrow R}$$

- If  $P$  implies  $Q$  and  $Q$  implies  $R$ , then  $P$  implies  $R$ .

*antecedents*

*consequent*

*...then this is true*

- $$\frac{\neg P \Rightarrow \neg Q}{Q \Rightarrow P}$$

- If  $\neg P$  implies  $\neg Q$ , then  $Q$  implies  $P$



# Proving an Implication via Direct Proof

- To prove:  $P \Rightarrow Q$ 
  - Assume that  $P$  is true.
  - Show that  $Q$  logically follows