UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM COLLEGE OF ICT

IS 143

Discrete Structure

Lecture 3



Instructor

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Content

- Introduction to Course
- Proposition, Sets, Relations and Functions
- Algorithm and Basic Logics
- Proof Techniques
- Basics Of Counting (Mathematical Reasoning)
- Graphs And Trees
- Discrete Probability



Sets

- A set is a collection or group of objects or elements or members.
 - A set is said to contain its elements.
 - There must be an underlying universal set U, either specifically stated or understood.



Notation:

List the elements between braces:

$$S = \{a, b, c, d\} = \{b, c, a, d, d\}$$

- Note: listing an object more than once does not change the set.
- Ordering means nothing.
- Specification by predicates:

$$S = \{x \mid P(x)\},\$$

- S contains all the elements from U which make the predicate P true.
- Brace notation with ellipses:

$$S = \{ ..., -3, -2, -1 \},$$

the negative integers.



Common Universal Sets

- $_{\circ}$ R = reals
- \sim N = natural numbers = {0,1,2,3,...}, the counting numbers
- Z⁺ is the set of positive integers

Notation:

x is a member of S or x is an element of S:

$$x \in S$$
.

x is not an element of S:

$$x \notin S$$
.

Subsets

Definition: The set A is a *subset* of the set B, denoted $A \subseteq B$, iff

$$\forall x [x \in A \rightarrow x \in B]$$

Definition: The void set, the null set, the empty set, denoted \emptyset , is the set with no members.

Note: the assertion $x \in \emptyset$ is always false.

Hence

$$\forall x [x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in B]$$

is always true.

 \circ Therefore, \varnothing is a subset of every set.

Note: a set, say B, is always a subset of itself.



Definition:

If $A \subseteq B$ but $A \ne B$ then we say A is a *proper* subset of B, denoted $A \subseteq B$.

Definition:

The set of all subset of a set A, denoted P(A), is called the *power set* of A.

Example:

If A =
$$\{a, b\}$$
 then
P(A) = $\{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a,b\}\}$



Definition:

The number of (distinct) elements in A, denoted |A|, is called the *cardinality* of A.

If the cardinality is a natural number (in N), then the set is called *finite*, else *infinite*.

Example:

$$A = \{a, b\},\$$
 $|A| = |\{a, b\}| = 2,$
 $|P(A)| = |P(\{a, b\})| = 4.$

- \checkmark If A is finite then P(A) is also finite.
- ✓ Useful Fact: |A| = n implies $|P(A)| = 2^n$



Definition: The Cartesian product of A with B, denoted A x B, is the set of ordered pairs $\{ < a, b > | a \in A \land b \in B \}$

Notation:
$$\underset{i=1}{\overset{n}{\times}} A_i = \{ < a_1, a_2, ..., a_n > a_i \in A_i \}$$

Note: The Cartesian product of anything with \emptyset is \emptyset . (why?)

Example:

A =
$$\{a,b\}$$
, B = $\{1, 2, 3\}$
AxB = $\{, , , , , \}$

- What is BxA? AxBxA?
- o If |A| = m and |B| = n, what is $|A \times B|$?



 Propositional calculus and set theory are both instances of an algebraic system called a

Boolean Algebra.

- The operators in set theory are defined in terms of the corresponding operator in propositional calculus
- As always there must be a universe U.All sets are assumed to be subsets of U



Definition:

Two sets A and B are equal, denoted A = B, iff
$$\forall x [x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B]$$
.

Note: From a previous logical equivalence we have

$$A = B \text{ iff } \forall x [(x \in A \rightarrow x \in B) \land (x \in B \rightarrow x \in A)]$$

or

$$A = B \text{ iff } A \subseteq B \text{ and } B \subseteq A$$



Definitions:

- The union of A and B, denoted A U B, is the set $\{x \mid x \in A \lor x \in B\}$
- The intersection of A and B, denoted A \cap B, is the set

$$\{x\mid x\in A\land x\in B\}$$

Note: If the intersection is void, A and B are said to be disjoint.

- The complement of A, denoted, is the set $\{x \mid \neg(x \in A)\}$ Note: Alternative notation is \overline{A} c, and $\{x \mid x \notin A\}$.
- The difference of A and B, or the complement of B relative to A, denoted A B, is the set $A \cap \overline{B}$ Note:The (absolute) complement of A is U - A.
- The symmetric difference of A and B, denoted A \oplus B, is the set (A B) U (B A)



Examples:

$$U = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$

$$A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\},$$

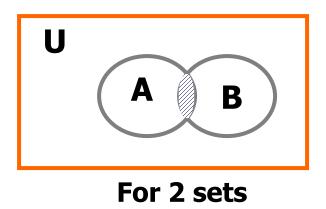
$$B = \{4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}.$$

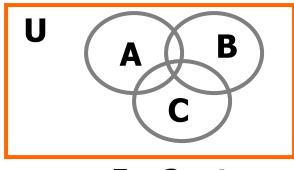
Then

- $A \cap B =$
- * $\overline{A} =$
- * $\overline{B} =$

- $A \oplus B =$

- Venn Diagrams
 - A useful geometric visualization tool (for 3 or less sets)
 - The Universe U is the rectangular box
 - Each set is represented by a circle and its interior
 - All possible combinations of the sets must be represented





For 3 sets

Shade the appropriate region to represent the given set operation.



Set Identities

- Set identities correspond to the logical equivalences.
- Example:

The complement of the union is the intersection of the complements:

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$

Proof: To show:

$$\forall x [x \in \overline{A \cup B} \leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}]$$

To show two sets are equal we show for all x that x is a member of one set if and only if it is a member of the other.



We now apply an important rule of inference (defined later)
called

Universal Instantiation

In a proof we can eliminate the universal quantifier which binds a variable if we do not assume anything about the variable other than it is an arbitrary member of the Universe. We can then treat the resulting predicate as a proposition.



We say

'Let x be arbitrary.'

Then we can treat the predicates as propositions:

Assertion	Reason
$x\in \overline{A\cup B} \Longleftrightarrow x\not\in [A\cup B]$	Def. of complement
$x\not\in A\cup B\Leftrightarrow \neg[x\in A\cup B]$	Def. of ∉
$\Leftrightarrow \neg [x \in A \lor x \in B]$	Def. of union
$\Leftrightarrow \neg x \in A \land \neg x \in B$	DeMorgan's Laws
$\Longleftrightarrow x \not\in A \land x \not\in B$	Def. of ∉
$\Leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \land x \in \overline{B}$	Def. of complement
$\Leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$	Def. of intersection



Hence

$$x \in \overline{A \cup B} \leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$

is a tautology.

Since

- x was arbitrary
- we have used only logically equivalent assertions and definitions



we can apply another rule of inference called

Universal Generalization

We can apply a universal quantifier to bind a variable if we have shown the predicate to be true for all values of the variable in the Universe.

and claim the assertion is true for all x, i.e.,

$$\forall x [x \in \overline{A \cup B} \leftrightarrow x \in \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}]$$



 Note: As an alternative which might be easier in some cases, use the identity

$$A = B \Leftrightarrow [A \subseteq B \text{ and } B \subseteq A]$$

Example:

Show
$$A \cap (B - A) = \emptyset$$

The void set is a subset of every set. Hence,

$$A \cap (B - A) \supseteq \emptyset$$

Therefore, it suffices to show

$$A \cap (B - A) \subseteq \emptyset$$
 or $\forall x [x \in A \cap (B - A) \rightarrow x \in \emptyset]$

So as before we say 'let x be arbitrary'.



Example (cont.)

Show $x \in A \cap (B - A) \rightarrow x \in \emptyset$ is a tautology.

But the consequent is always false.

Therefore, the antecedent better always be false also.

Apply the definitions:

Assertion

$x \in A \cap (B-A) \Leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge x \in (B-A)$ $\Leftrightarrow x \in A \wedge (x \in B \wedge x \notin A)$ $\Leftrightarrow (x \in A \wedge x \notin A) \wedge x \in B$ $\Leftrightarrow 0 \wedge x \in B$ $\Leftrightarrow 0$

Reason

Def. of ∩ Def. of -Props of 'and' Table 6 Domination



- Union and Intersection of Indexed Collections
 - Let $A_1, A_2, ..., A_n$ be an indexed collection of sets.
 - Union and intersection are associative (because 'and' and 'or' are) we have:

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cup A_2 \cup ... \cup A_n$$
and

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n$$



Examples

Let



Examples

Assignment details:

- Book Title: Discrete Mathematical Structure (shared earlier)
- Book Author: Shanker G. Rao
- Page: 67
- Exercise 2.2
- Question no. 2, 4, 7, 8, 25, 26