MAT 204
Discrete Math

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Chapter 1
The Foundations: Logic and Proofs

Introduction

- Logic is the basis of all **mathematical reasoning**, and of all automated reasoning. It has practical applications to the design of computing machines, to computer programming, to programming languages, …
- To understand mathematics, we must understand what makes up a correct mathematical argument, that is, a **proof**.

- Everyone knows that proofs are important throughout mathematics, but many people find it surprising how important proofs are in **computer science**. In fact, proofs are used to verify that computer programs produce the correct output for all possible input values, to show that **algorithms** always produce the correct result, …

- In this chapter, we will explain what makes up a **correct mathematical argument** and introduce tools to construct these arguments.
- We will develop an arsenal of different proof methods that will enable us to prove many different types of results.
- After introducing many different methods of proof, we will introduce several strategies for **constructing proofs**.

Chapter 1: The Foundations

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Introduction
  - The rules of logic give precise meaning to mathematical statements.
  - These rules are used to distinguish between valid and invalid mathematical arguments.
  - We begin our study of discrete mathematics with an introduction to logic.

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Propositions
  - A proposition is a declarative sentence (that is, a sentence that declares a fact) that is either true or false, but not both.

EXAMPLE 1 All the following declarative sentences are propositions.

1. Washington, D.C., is the capital of the United States of America.
2. Toronto is the capital of Canada.
3. $1 + 1 = 2$.
4. $2 + 2 = 3$.

Propositions 1 and 3 are true, whereas 2 and 4 are false. ◀

EXAMPLE 2 Consider the following sentences.

1. What time is it?
2. Read this carefully.
3. $x + 1 = 2$.
4. $x + y = z$.

Sentences 1 and 2 are not propositions because they are not declarative sentences. Sentences 3 and 4 are not propositions because they are neither true nor false. Note that each of sentences 3 and 4 can be turned into a proposition if we assign values to the variables. We will also discuss other ways to turn sentences such as these into propositions in Section 1.4. ◀

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Propositions

Let p be a proposition. The *negation of* p, denoted by $\neg p$ (also denoted by $\overline{p}$), is the statement

"It is not the case that p."

The proposition $\neg p$ is read "not p." The truth value of the negation of p, $\neg p$, is the opposite of the truth value of p.

EXAMPLE 3 Find the negation of the proposition

"Michael's PC runs Linux"

and express this in simple English.

Solution: The negation is

"It is not the case that Michael's PC runs Linux."

This negation can be more simply expressed as

"Michael's PC does not run Linux."

1.1 Propositional Logic

EXAMPLE 4 Find the negation of the proposition

"Vandana's smartphone has at least 32GB of memory"

and express this in simple English.

Solution: The negation is

"It is not the case that Vandana's smartphone has at least 32GB of memory."

This negation can also be expressed as

"Vandana's smartphone does not have at least 32GB of memory"

or even more simply as

"Vandana's smartphone has less than 32GB of memory."

◀

TABLE 1 The Truth Table for the Negation of a Proposition.

p	$\neg p$
T	F
F	T

The negation of a proposition can be considered the result of the operation of the **negation operator** on a proposition.

The negation operator constructs a new proposition from a single existing proposition.

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Propositions
  - We will now introduce the logical operators that are used to form new propositions from two or more existing propositions.
  - These logical operators are also called **connectives**.

Let p and q be propositions. The *conjunction* of p and q, denoted by $p \wedge q$, is the proposition "p and q." The conjunction $p \wedge q$ is true when both p and q are true and is false otherwise.

EXAMPLE 5 Find the conjunction of the propositions p and q where p is the proposition "Rebecca's PC has more than 16 GB free hard disk space" and q is the proposition "The processor in Rebecca's PC runs faster than 1 GHz."

Solution: The conjunction of these propositions, $p \wedge q$, is the proposition "Rebecca's PC has more than 16 GB free hard disk space, and the processor in Rebecca's PC runs faster than 1 GHz." This conjunction can be expressed more simply as "Rebecca's PC has more than 16 GB free hard disk space, and its processor runs faster than 1 GHz." For this conjunction to be true, both conditions given must be true. It is false, when one or both of these conditions are false. ◀

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Propositions

Let p and q be propositions. The *disjunction* of p and q, denoted by $p \vee q$, is the proposition "p or q." The disjunction $p \vee q$ is false when both p and q are false and is true otherwise.

TABLE 2 The Truth Table for the Conjunction of Two Propositions.

p	q	$p \wedge q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

TABLE 3 The Truth Table for the Disjunction of Two Propositions.

p	q	$p \vee q$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Propositions

Let p and q be propositions. The *exclusive or* of p and q, denoted by $p \oplus q$, is the proposition that is true when exactly one of p and q is true and is false otherwise.

TABLE 4 The Truth Table for the Exclusive Or of Two Propositions.

p	q	$p \oplus q$
T	T	F
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Conditional Statements

Let p and q be propositions. The *conditional statement* $p \rightarrow q$ is the proposition "if p, then q." The conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is false when p is true and q is false, and true otherwise. In the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$, p is called the *hypothesis* (or *antecedent* or *premise*) and q is called the *conclusion* (or *consequence*).

TABLE 5 The Truth Table for the Conditional Statement $p \rightarrow q$.

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Conditional Statements

The statement $p \rightarrow q$ is called a conditional statement because $p \rightarrow q$ asserts that q is true on the condition that p holds. A conditional statement is also called an **implication**.

The truth table for the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is shown in Table 5. Note that the statement $p \rightarrow q$ is true when both p and q are true and when p is false (no matter what truth value q has).

Because conditional statements play such an essential role in mathematical reasoning, a variety of terminology is used to express $p \rightarrow q$. You will encounter most if not all of the following ways to express this conditional statement:

"if p, then q"
"if p, q"
"p is sufficient for q"
"q if p"
"q when p"
"a necessary condition for p is q"
"q unless $\neg p$"
"p implies q"
"p only if q"
"a sufficient condition for q is p"
"q whenever p"
"q is necessary for p"
"q follows from p"

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Conditional Statements

EXAMPLE 7 Let p be the statement "Maria learns discrete mathematics" and q the statement "Maria will find a good job." Express the statement $p \rightarrow q$ as a statement in English.

Solution: From the definition of conditional statements, we see that when p is the statement "Maria learns discrete mathematics" and q is the statement "Maria will find a good job," $p \rightarrow q$ represents the statement

"If Maria learns discrete mathematics, then she will find a good job."

There are many other ways to express this conditional statement in English. Among the most natural of these are:

"Maria will find a good job when she learns discrete mathematics."

"For Maria to get a good job, it is sufficient for her to learn discrete mathematics."

and

"Maria will find a good job unless she does not learn discrete mathematics."

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Conditional Statements

EXAMPLE 8 What is the value of the variable x after the statement

if $2 + 2 = 4$ **then** $x := x + 1$

if $x = 0$ before this statement is encountered? (The symbol $:=$ stands for assignment. The statement $x := x + 1$ means the assignment of the value of $x + 1$ to x.)

Solution: Because $2 + 2 = 4$ is true, the assignment statement $x := x + 1$ is executed. Hence, x has the value $0 + 1 = 1$ after this statement is encountered. ◀

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Conditional Statements

CONVERSE, CONTRAPOSITIVE, AND INVERSE We can form some new conditional statements starting with a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$. In particular, there are three related conditional statements that occur so often that they have special names. The proposition $q \rightarrow p$ is called the **converse** of $p \rightarrow q$. The **contrapositive** of $p \rightarrow q$ is the proposition $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$. The proposition $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$ is called the **inverse** of $p \rightarrow q$. We will see that of these three conditional statements formed from $p \rightarrow q$, only the contrapositive always has the same truth value as $p \rightarrow q$.

Remember that the contrapositive, but neither the converse or inverse, of a conditional statement is equivalent to it.

1.1 Propositional Logic

EXAMPLE 9 What are the contrapositive, the converse, and the inverse of the conditional statement

"The home team wins whenever it is raining?"

Solution: Because "q whenever p" is one of the ways to express the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$, the original statement can be rewritten as

"If it is raining, then the home team wins."

Consequently, the contrapositive of this conditional statement is

"If the home team does not win, then it is not raining."

The converse is

"If the home team wins, then it is raining."

The inverse is

"If it is not raining, then the home team does not win."

Only the contrapositive is equivalent to the original statement. ◀

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Conditional Statements

BICONDITIONALS We now introduce another way to combine propositions that expresses that two propositions have the same truth value.

Let p and q be propositions. The *biconditional statement* $p \leftrightarrow q$ is the proposition "p if and only if q." The biconditional statement $p \leftrightarrow q$ is true when p and q have the same truth values, and is false otherwise. Biconditional statements are also called *bi-implications*.

TABLE 6 The Truth Table for the Biconditional $p \leftrightarrow q$.

p	q	$p \leftrightarrow q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	T

1.1 Propositional Logic

"p is necessary and sufficient for q"
"if p then q, and conversely"
"p iff q."

The last way of expressing the biconditional statement $p \leftrightarrow q$ uses the abbreviation "iff" for "if and only if." Note that $p \leftrightarrow q$ has exactly the same truth value as $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$.

EXAMPLE 10 Let p be the statement "You can take the flight," and let q be the statement "You buy a ticket." Then $p \leftrightarrow q$ is the statement

"You can take the flight if and only if you buy a ticket."

This statement is true if p and q are either both true or both false, that is, if you buy a ticket and can take the flight or if you do not buy a ticket and you cannot take the flight. It is false when p and q have opposite truth values, that is, when you do not buy a ticket, but you can take the flight (such as when you get a free trip) and when you buy a ticket but you cannot take the flight (such as when the airline bumps you). ◀

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Truth Tables of Compound Propositions

EXAMPLE 11 Construct the truth table of the compound proposition

$$(p \vee \neg q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q).$$

Solution: Because this truth table involves two propositional variables p and q, there are four rows in this truth table, one for each of the pairs of truth values TT, TF, FT, and FF. The first two columns are used for the truth values of p and q, respectively. In the third column we find the truth value of $\neg q$, needed to find the truth value of $p \vee \neg q$, found in the fourth column. The fifth column gives the truth value of $p \wedge q$. Finally, the truth value of $(p \vee \neg q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$ is found in the last column. The resulting truth table is shown in Table 7. ◀

TABLE 7 The Truth Table of $(p \vee \neg q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$.

p	q	$\neg q$	$p \vee \neg q$	$p \wedge q$	$(p \vee \neg q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$
T	T	F	T	T	T
T	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	F	F	F	T
F	F	T	T	F	F

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Logic and Bit Operations

Computers represent information using bits. A **bit** is a symbol with two possible values, namely, 0 (zero) and 1 (one). This meaning of the word bit comes from *b*inary dig*it*, because zeros and ones are the digits used in binary representations of numbers. The well-known statistician John Tukey introduced this terminology in 1946. A bit can be used to represent a truth value, because there are two truth values, namely, *true* and *false*. As is customarily done, we will use a 1 bit to represent true and a 0 bit to represent false. That is, 1 represents T (true), 0 represents F (false). A variable is called a **Boolean variable** if its value is either true or false. Consequently, a Boolean variable can be represented using a bit.

Computer **bit operations** correspond to the logical connectives. By replacing true by a one and false by a zero in the truth tables for the operators $\wedge$, $\vee$, and $\oplus$, the tables shown in Table 9 for the corresponding bit operations are obtained. We will also use the notation *OR*, *AND*, and *XOR* for the operators $\vee$, $\wedge$, and $\oplus$, as is done in various programming languages.

Truth Value	*Bit*
T	1
F	0

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Logic and Bit Operations

TABLE 9 Table for the Bit Operators *OR*, *AND*, and *XOR*.

x	y	$x \vee y$	$x \wedge y$	$x \oplus y$
0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	0

A *bit string* is a sequence of zero or more bits. The *length* of this string is the number of bits in the string.

EXAMPLE 12 101010011 is a bit string of length nine. ◀

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Logic and Bit Operations

EXAMPLE 13 Find the bitwise *OR*, bitwise *AND*, and bitwise *XOR* of the bit strings 01 1011 0110 and 11 0001 1101. (Here, and throughout this book, bit strings will be split into blocks of four bits to make them easier to read.)

Solution: The bitwise *OR*, bitwise *AND*, and bitwise *XOR* of these strings are obtained by taking the *OR*, *AND*, and *XOR* of the corresponding bits, respectively. This gives us

```
  01 1011 0110
  11 0001 1101
  -----------
  11 1011 1111   bitwise OR
  01 0001 0100   bitwise AND
  10 1010 1011   bitwise XOR
```

◀

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Exercises
  - Brief
    - Manipulating propositions and constructing truth tables are straightforward. A truth table is constructed by finding the truth values of compound propositions from the inside out

1. Which of these sentences are propositions? What are the truth values of those that are propositions?

a) Boston is the capital of Massachusetts.
b) Miami is the capital of Florida.
c) $2 + 3 = 5$.
d) $5 + 7 = 10$.
e) $x + 2 = 11$.
f) Answer this question.

3. What is the negation of each of these propositions?

a) Mei has an MP3 player.
b) There is no pollution in New Jersey.
c) $2 + 1 = 3$.
d) The summer in Maine is hot and sunny.

1.1 Propositional Logic

5. What is the negation of each of these propositions?

a) Steve has more than 100 GB free disk space on his laptop.

b) Zach blocks e-mails and texts from Jennifer.

c) $7 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 = 999$.

d) Diane rode her bicycle 100 miles on Sunday.

7. Suppose that during the most recent fiscal year, the annual revenue of Acme Computer was 138 billion dollars and its net profit was 8 billion dollars, the annual revenue of Nadir Software was 87 billion dollars and its net profit was 5 billion dollars, and the annual revenue of Quixote Media was 111 billion dollars and its net profit was 13 billion dollars. Determine the truth value of each of these propositions for the most recent fiscal year.

a) Quixote Media had the largest annual revenue.

b) Nadir Software had the lowest net profit and Acme Computer had the largest annual revenue.

c) Acme Computer had the largest net profit or Quixote Media had the largest net profit.

d) If Quixote Media had the smallest net profit, then Acme Computer had the largest annual revenue.

e) Nadir Software had the smallest net profit if and only if Acme Computer had the largest annual revenue.

1.1 Propositional Logic

9. Let p and q be the propositions "Swimming at the New Jersey shore is allowed" and "Sharks have been spotted near the shore," respectively. Express each of these compound propositions as an English sentence.

a) $\neg q$ **b)** $p \wedge q$ **c)** $\neg p \vee q$
d) $p \rightarrow \neg q$ **e)** $\neg q \rightarrow p$ **f)** $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$
g) $p \leftrightarrow \neg q$ **h)** $\neg p \wedge (p \vee \neg q)$

11. Let p and q be the propositions

p : It is below freezing.
q : It is snowing.

Write these propositions using p and q and logical connectives (including negations).

a) It is below freezing and snowing.
b) It is below freezing but not snowing.
c) It is not below freezing and it is not snowing.
d) It is either snowing or below freezing (or both).
e) If it is below freezing, it is also snowing.
f) Either it is below freezing or it is snowing, but it is not snowing if it is below freezing.
g) That it is below freezing is necessary and sufficient for it to be snowing.

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Exercises

17. Determine whether each of these conditional statements is true or false.

a) If $1 + 1 = 2$, then $2 + 2 = 5$.
b) If $1 + 1 = 3$, then $2 + 2 = 4$.
c) If $1 + 1 = 3$, then $2 + 2 = 5$.
d) If monkeys can fly, then $1 + 1 = 3$.

27. State the converse, contrapositive, and inverse of each of these conditional statements.

a) If it snows today, I will ski tomorrow.
b) I come to class whenever there is going to be a quiz.
c) A positive integer is a prime only if it has no divisors other than 1 and itself.

31. Construct a truth table for each of these compound propositions.

a) $p \wedge \neg p$
b) $p \vee \neg p$
c) $(p \vee \neg q) \rightarrow q$
d) $(p \vee q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$
e) $(p \rightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$
f) $(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow (q \rightarrow p)$

1.1 Propositional Logic

- Exercises

33. Construct a truth table for each of these compound propositions.

a) $(p \vee q) \rightarrow (p \oplus q)$ **b)** $(p \oplus q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$

c) $(p \vee q) \oplus (p \wedge q)$ **d)** $(p \leftrightarrow q) \oplus (\neg p \leftrightarrow q)$

e) $(p \leftrightarrow q) \oplus (\neg p \leftrightarrow \neg r)$

f) $(p \oplus q) \rightarrow (p \oplus \neg q)$

35. Construct a truth table for each of these compound propositions.

a) $p \rightarrow \neg q$ **b)** $\neg p \leftrightarrow q$

c) $(p \rightarrow q) \vee (\neg p \rightarrow q)$ **d)** $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (\neg p \rightarrow q)$

e) $(p \leftrightarrow q) \vee (\neg p \leftrightarrow q)$

f) $(\neg p \leftrightarrow \neg q) \leftrightarrow (p \leftrightarrow q)$

43. Find the bitwise *OR*, bitwise *AND*, and bitwise *XOR* of each of these pairs of bit strings.

a) 101 1110, 010 0001

b) 1111 0000, 1010 1010

c) 00 0111 0001, 10 0100 1000

d) 11 1111 1111, 00 0000 0000

1.2 Applications of Propositional Logic

- Translating English Sentences

EXAMPLE 1 How can this English sentence be translated into a logical expression?

"You can access the Internet from campus only if you are a computer science major or you are not a freshman."

Solution: There are many ways to translate this sentence into a logical expression. Although it is possible to represent the sentence by a single propositional variable, such as p, this would not be useful when analyzing its meaning or reasoning with it. Instead, we will use propositional variables to represent each sentence part and determine the appropriate logical connectives between them. In particular, we let a, c, and f represent "You can access the Internet from campus," "You are a computer science major," and "You are a freshman," respectively. Noting that "only if" is one way a conditional statement can be expressed, this sentence can be represented as

$$a \rightarrow (c \vee \neg f).$$

1.2 Applications of Propositional Logic

- Translating English Sentences

EXAMPLE 2 How can this English sentence be translated into a logical expression?

"You cannot ride the roller coaster if you are under 4 feet tall unless you are older than 16 years old."

Solution: Let q, r, and s represent "You can ride the roller coaster," "You are under 4 feet tall," and "You are older than 16 years old," respectively. Then the sentence can be translated to

$$(r \wedge \neg s) \rightarrow \neg q.$$

Of course, there are other ways to represent the original sentence as a logical expression, but the one we have used should meet our needs. ◀

1.2 Applications of Propositional Logic

- Boolean Searches

EXAMPLE 6 **Web Page Searching** Most Web search engines support Boolean searching techniques, which usually can help find Web pages about particular subjects. For instance, using Boolean searching to find Web pages about universities in New Mexico, we can look for pages matching NEW *AND* MEXICO *AND* UNIVERSITIES. The results of this search will include those pages that contain the three words NEW, MEXICO, and UNIVERSITIES. This will include all of the pages of interest, together with others such as a page about new universities in Mexico. (Note that in Google, and many other search engines, the word "AND" is not needed, although it is understood, because all search terms are included by default. These search engines also support the use of quotation marks to search for specific phrases. So, it may be more effective to search for pages matching "New Mexico" *AND* UNIVERSITIES.)

- Logic Puzzles

EXAMPLE 7 In [Sm78] Smullyan posed many puzzles about an island that has two kinds of inhabitants, knights, who always tell the truth, and their opposites, knaves, who always lie. You encounter two people A and B. What are A and B if A says "B is a knight" and B says "The two of us are opposite types?"

Solution: Let p and q be the statements that A is a knight and B is a knight, respectively, so that $\neg p$ and $\neg q$ are the statements that A is a knave and B is a knave, respectively.

We first consider the possibility that A is a knight; this is the statement that p is true. If A is a knight, then he is telling the truth when he says that B is a knight, so that q is true, and A and B are the same type. However, if B is a knight, then B's statement that A and B are of opposite types, the statement $(p \wedge \neg q) \vee (\neg p \wedge q)$, would have to be true, which it is not, because A and B are both knights. Consequently, we can conclude that A is not a knight, that is, that p is false.

1.2 Applications of Propositional Logic

- Logic Circuits

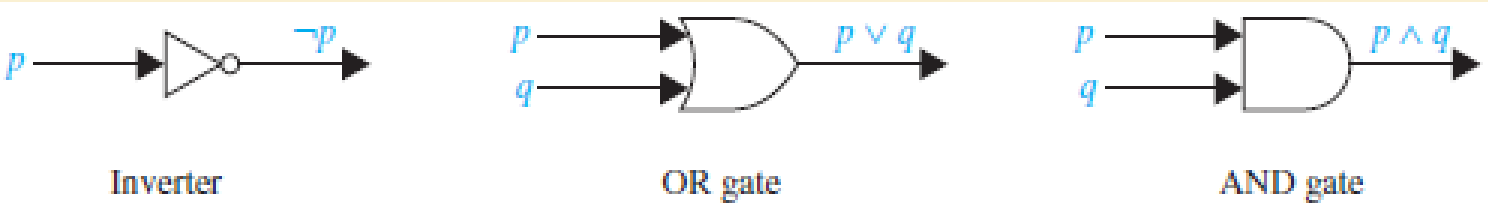


FIGURE 1 **Basic logic gates.**

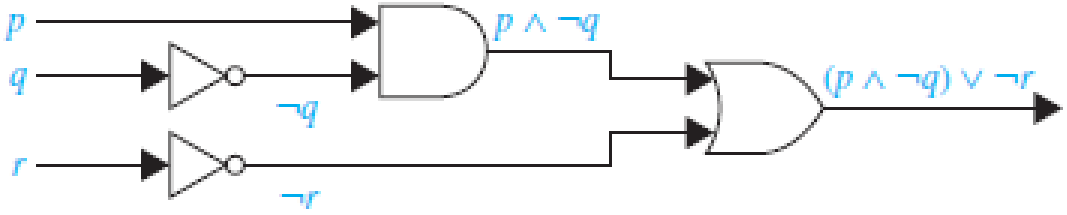


FIGURE 2 **A combinatorial circuit.**

1.2 Applications of Propositional Logic

- Logic Circuits

EXAMPLE 10 Build a digital circuit that produces the output $(p \vee \neg r) \wedge (\neg p \vee (q \vee \neg r))$ when given input bits p, q, and r.

Solution: To construct the desired circuit, we build separate circuits for $p \vee \neg r$ and for $\neg p \vee (q \vee \neg r)$ and combine them using an AND gate. To construct a circuit for $p \vee \neg r$, we use an inverter to produce $\neg r$ from the input r. Then, we use an OR gate to combine p and $\neg r$. To build a circuit for $\neg p \vee (q \vee \neg r)$, we first use an inverter to obtain $\neg r$. Then we use an OR gate with inputs q and $\neg r$ to obtain $q \vee \neg r$. Finally, we use another inverter and an OR gate to get $\neg p \vee (q \vee \neg r)$ from the inputs p and $q \vee \neg r$.

To complete the construction, we employ a final AND gate, with inputs $p \vee \neg r$ and $\neg p \vee (q \vee \neg r)$. The resulting circuit is displayed in Figure 3. ◀

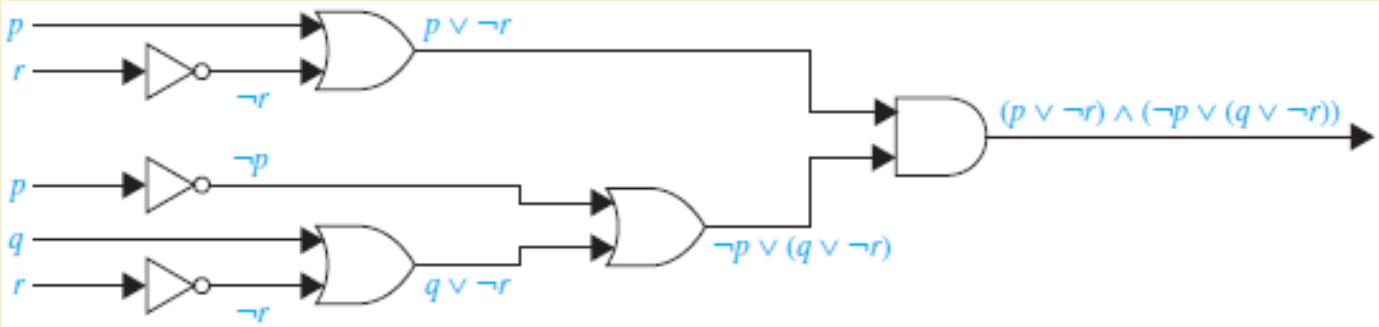


FIGURE 3 The circuit for $(p \vee \neg r) \wedge (\neg p \vee (q \vee \neg r))$.

1.2 Applications of Propositional Logic

- Exercises
  - Brief
    - Applications of propositional logic abound in computer science, puzzles, and everyday life. For example, much of the operation of our legal system is based on conditional statements.

7. Express these system specifications using the propositions p "The message is scanned for viruses" and q "The message was sent from an unknown system" together with logical connectives (including negations).

a) "The message is scanned for viruses whenever the message was sent from an unknown system."

b) "The message was sent from an unknown system but it was not scanned for viruses."

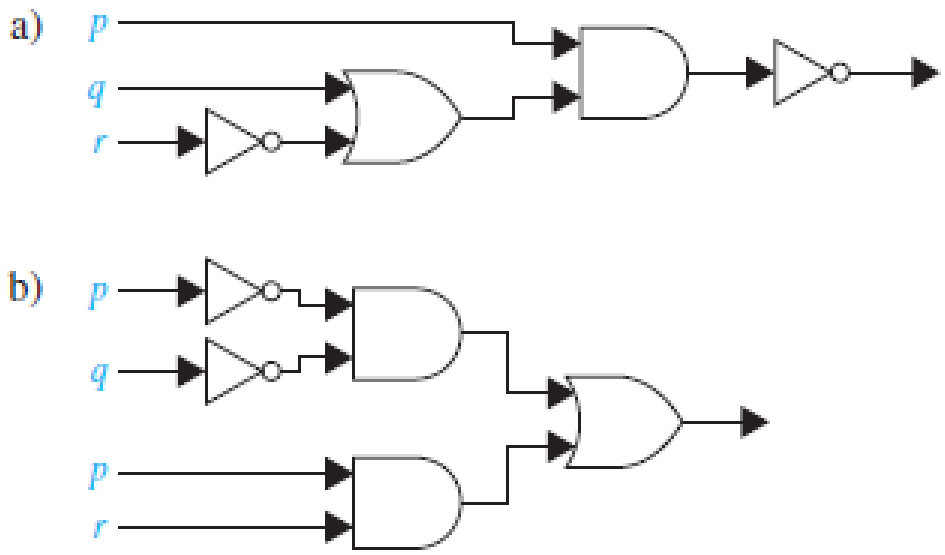
c) "It is necessary to scan the message for viruses whenever it was sent from an unknown system."

d) "When a message is not sent from an unknown system it is not scanned for viruses."

1.2 Applications of Propositional Logic

- Exercises

41. Find the output of each of these combinatorial circuits.



43. Construct a combinatorial circuit using inverters, OR gates, and AND gates that produces the output $((\neg p \vee \neg r) \wedge \neg q) \vee (\neg p \wedge (q \vee r))$ from input bits p, q, and r.

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Introduction

  – An important type of step used in a mathematical argument is the replacement of a statement with another statement with the same truth value.
  – Because of this, methods that produce propositions with the same truth value as a given compound proposition are used extensively in the construction of mathematical arguments.

  – Note that we will use the term “compound proposition” to refer to an expression formed from propositional variables using logical operators, such as $p \wedge q$.
  – We begin our discussion with a classification of compound propositions according to their possible truth values.

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Introduction

A compound proposition that is always true, no matter what the truth values of the propositional variables that occur in it, is called a *tautology*. A compound proposition that is always false is called a *contradiction*. A compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction is called a *contingency*.

EXAMPLE 1 We can construct examples of tautologies and contradictions using just one propositional variable. Consider the truth tables of $p \vee \neg p$ and $p \wedge \neg p$, shown in Table 1. Because $p \vee \neg p$ is always true, it is a tautology. Because $p \wedge \neg p$ is always false, it is a contradiction. ◀

TABLE 1 Examples of a Tautology and a Contradiction.

p	$\neg p$	$p \vee \neg p$	$p \wedge \neg p$
T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Logical Equivalences

The compound propositions p and q are called *logically equivalent* if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology. The notation $p \equiv q$ denotes that p and q are logically equivalent.

Remark: The symbol $\equiv$ is not a logical connective, and $p \equiv q$ is not a compound proposition but rather is the statement that $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology. The symbol $\Leftrightarrow$ is sometimes used instead of $\equiv$ to denote logical equivalence.

One way to determine whether two compound propositions are equivalent is to **use a truth table.**

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Logical Equivalences

EXAMPLE 2 Show that $\neg(p \vee q)$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ are logically equivalent.

Solution: The truth tables for these compound propositions are displayed in Table 3. Because the truth values of the compound propositions $\neg(p \vee q)$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ agree for all possible combinations of the truth values of p and q, it follows that $\neg(p \vee q) \leftrightarrow (\neg p \wedge \neg q)$ is a tautology and that these compound propositions are logically equivalent. ◀

TABLE 3 Truth Tables for $\neg(p \vee q)$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$.

p	q	$p \vee q$	$\neg(p \vee q)$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$\neg p \wedge \neg q$
T	T	T	F	F	F	F
T	F	T	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	F	T	T	T	T

TABLE 2 De Morgan's Laws.

$$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$$

$$\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$$

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Logical Equivalences

EXAMPLE 3 Show that $p \rightarrow q$ and $\neg p \vee q$ are logically equivalent.

Solution: We construct the truth table for these compound propositions in Table 4. Because the truth values of $\neg p \vee q$ and $p \rightarrow q$ agree, they are logically equivalent. ◀

TABLE 4 Truth Tables for $\neg p \vee q$ and $p \rightarrow q$.

p	q	$\neg p$	$\neg p \vee q$	$p \rightarrow q$
T	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Logical Equivalences

EXAMPLE 4 Show that $p \vee (q \wedge r)$ and $(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ are logically equivalent. This is the *distributive law* of disjunction over conjunction.

Solution: We construct the truth table for these compound propositions in Table 5. Because the truth values of $p \vee (q \wedge r)$ and $(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ agree, these compound propositions are logically equivalent. ◀

TABLE 5 A Demonstration That $p \vee (q \wedge r)$ and $(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ Are Logically Equivalent.

p	q	r	$q \wedge r$	$p \vee (q \wedge r)$	$p \vee q$	$p \vee r$	$(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	T	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	T	T	T
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	F	F	T	F	F
F	F	T	F	F	F	T	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

TABLE 6 Logical Equivalences.

Equivalence	*Name*
$p \wedge \mathbf{T} \equiv p$ $p \vee \mathbf{F} \equiv p$	Identity laws
$p \vee \mathbf{T} \equiv \mathbf{T}$ $p \wedge \mathbf{F} \equiv \mathbf{F}$	Domination laws
$p \vee p \equiv p$ $p \wedge p \equiv p$	Idempotent laws
$\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$	Double negation law
$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$ $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$	Commutative laws
$(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$ $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$	Associative laws
$p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	Distributive laws
$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$ $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$	De Morgan's laws
$p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$ $p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$	Absorption laws
$p \vee \neg p \equiv \mathbf{T}$ $p \wedge \neg p \equiv \mathbf{F}$	Negation laws

Table 6 contains some important equivalences.

In these equivalences, T denotes the compound proposition that is always true and F denotes the compound proposition that is always false

We also display some useful equivalences for compound propositions involving conditional statements and biconditional statements in Tables 7 and 8, respectively.

You are asked to verify the equivalences in Tables 6–8 in the exercises ☺

TABLE 7 Logical Equivalences Involving Conditional Statements.

$p \to q \equiv \neg p \vee q$
$p \to q \equiv \neg q \to \neg p$
$p \vee q \equiv \neg p \to q$
$p \wedge q \equiv \neg(p \to \neg q)$
$\neg(p \to q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$
$(p \to q) \wedge (p \to r) \equiv p \to (q \wedge r)$
$(p \to r) \wedge (q \to r) \equiv (p \vee q) \to r$
$(p \to q) \vee (p \to r) \equiv p \to (q \vee r)$
$(p \to r) \vee (q \to r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \to r$

TABLE 8 Logical Equivalences Involving Biconditional Statements.

$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \to q) \wedge (q \to p)$
$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv \neg p \leftrightarrow \neg q$
$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q)$
$\neg(p \leftrightarrow q) \equiv p \leftrightarrow \neg q$

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Using De Morgan's Laws

EXAMPLE 5 Use De Morgan's laws to express the negations of "Miguel has a cellphone and he has a laptop computer" and "Heather will go to the concert or Steve will go to the concert."

Solution: Let p be "Miguel has a cellphone" and q be "Miguel has a laptop computer." Then "Miguel has a cellphone and he has a laptop computer" can be represented by $p \wedge q$. By the first of De Morgan's laws, $\neg(p \wedge q)$ is equivalent to $\neg p \vee \neg q$. Consequently, we can express the negation of our original statement as "Miguel does not have a cellphone or he does not have a laptop computer."

Let r be "Heather will go to the concert" and s be "Steve will go to the concert." Then "Heather will go to the concert or Steve will go to the concert" can be represented by $r \vee s$. By the second of De Morgan's laws, $\neg(r \vee s)$ is equivalent to $\neg r \wedge \neg s$. Consequently, we can express the negation of our original statement as "Heather will not go to the concert and Steve will not go to the concert." ◀

TABLE 2 De Morgan's Laws.

$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$
$\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Exercises
  - Brief
    - The solutions to Exercises 1-10 are routine; we use truth tables to show that a proposition is a tautology or that two propositions are equivalent.

3. Use truth tables to verify the commutative laws

a) $p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$. **b)** $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$.

5. Use a truth table to verify the distributive law

$p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$.

7. Use De Morgan's laws to find the negation of each of the following statements.

a) Jan is rich and happy.

b) Carlos will bicycle or run tomorrow.

c) Mei walks or takes the bus to class.

d) Ibrahim is smart and hard working.

1.3 Propositional Equivalences

- Exercises

9. Show that each of these conditional statements is a tautology by using truth tables.

a) $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$
b) $p \rightarrow (p \vee q)$
c) $\neg p \rightarrow (p \rightarrow q)$
d) $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow q)$
e) $\neg(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow p$
f) $\neg(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow \neg q$

13. Use truth tables to verify the absorption laws.

a) $p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$
b) $p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$

15. Determine whether $(\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$ is a tautology.

Each of Exercises 16–28 asks you to show that two compound propositions are logically equivalent. To do this, either show that both sides are true, or that both sides are false, for exactly the same combinations of truth values of the propositional variables in these expressions (whichever is easier).

17. Show that $\neg(p \leftrightarrow q)$ and $p \leftrightarrow \neg q$ are logically equivalent.

19. Show that $\neg p \leftrightarrow q$ and $p \leftrightarrow \neg q$ are logically equivalent.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Introduction

  – Propositional logic, studied in Sections 1.1–1.3, cannot adequately express the meaning of all statements in mathematics and in natural language.

    - **For example**, suppose that we know that "**Every computer** connected to the university network is functioning properly."
    - **No rules of propositional logic allow us** to conclude the truth of the statement "MATH3 is functioning properly," where MATH3 **is one of the computers** connected to the university network.
    - **Likewise**, we **cannot use the rules of propositional logic** to conclude from the statement "CS2 is under attack by an intruder," where CS2 is a computer on the university network, to conclude the truth of "**There is a computer** on the university network that **is under attack** by an intruder."

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Introduction
  - In this section we will introduce a more powerful type of logic called predicate logic.
  - We will see how predicate logic can be used to express the meaning of a wide range of statements in mathematics and computer science in ways that permit us to reason and explore relationships between objects.
  - To understand **predicate logic**, we first need to introduce the concept of a predicate.
  - Afterward, we will introduce the notion of **quantifiers**, which enable us to reason with statements that assert that a certain property holds for all objects of a certain type and with statements that assert the existence of an object with a particular property.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Predicates

EXAMPLE 1 Let $P(x)$ denote the statement "$x > 3$." What are the truth values of $P(4)$ and $P(2)$?

Solution: We obtain the statement $P(4)$ by setting $x = 4$ in the statement "$x > 3$." Hence, $P(4)$, which is the statement "$4 > 3$," is true. However, $P(2)$, which is the statement "$2 > 3$," is false. ◀

The statement "x is greater than 3" has two parts. The first part, the variable x, is the subject of the statement. The second part—the **predicate**, "is greater than 3"—refers to a property that the subject of the statement can have. We can denote the statement "x is greater than 3" by $P(x)$, where P denotes the predicate "is greater than 3" and x is the variable. The statement $P(x)$ is also said to be the value of the **propositional function** P at x. Once a value has been assigned to the variable x, the statement $P(x)$ becomes a proposition and has a truth value. Consider Examples 1 and 2.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Predicates

EXAMPLE 2 Let $A(x)$ denote the statement "Computer x is under attack by an intruder." Suppose that of the computers on campus, only CS2 and MATH1 are currently under attack by intruders. What are truth values of $A(\text{CS1})$, $A(\text{CS2})$, and $A(\text{MATH1})$?

Solution: We obtain the statement $A(\text{CS1})$ by setting $x = \text{CS1}$ in the statement "Computer x is under attack by an intruder." Because CS1 is not on the list of computers currently under attack, we conclude that $A(\text{CS1})$ is false. Similarly, because CS2 and MATH1 are on the list of computers under attack, we know that $A(\text{CS2})$ and $A(\text{MATH1})$ are true. ◀

We can also have statements that involve more than one variable. For instance, consider the statement "$x = y + 3$." We can denote this statement by $Q(x, y)$, where x and y are variables and Q is the predicate. When values are assigned to the variables x and y, the statement $Q(x, y)$ has a truth value.

EXAMPLE 3 Let $Q(x, y)$ denote the statement "$x = y + 3$." What are the truth values of the propositions $Q(1, 2)$ and $Q(3, 0)$?

Extra Examples

Solution: To obtain $Q(1, 2)$, set $x = 1$ and $y = 2$ in the statement $Q(x, y)$. Hence, $Q(1, 2)$ is the statement "$1 = 2 + 3$," which is false. The statement $Q(3, 0)$ is the proposition "$3 = 0 + 3$," which is true. ◀

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Predicates

EXAMPLE 6 Consider the statement

if $x > 0$ **then** $x := x + 1$.

When this statement is encountered in a program, the value of the variable x at that point in the execution of the program is inserted into $P(x)$, which is "$x > 0$." If $P(x)$ is true for this value of x, the assignment statement $x := x + 1$ is executed, so the value of x is increased by 1. If $P(x)$ is false for this value of x, the assignment statement is not executed, so the value of x is not changed. ◀

PRECONDITIONS AND POSTCONDITIONS Predicates are also used to establish the correctness of computer programs, that is, to show that computer programs always produce the desired output when given valid input. (Note that unless the correctness of a computer program is established, no amount of testing can show that it produces the desired output for all input values, unless every input value is tested.) The statements that describe valid input are known as **preconditions** and the conditions that the output should satisfy when the program has run are known as **postconditions**. As Example 7 illustrates, we use predicates to describe both preconditions and postconditions. We will study this process in greater detail in Section 5.5.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

When the variables in a propositional function are assigned values, the resulting statement becomes a proposition with a certain truth value. However, there is another important way, called **quantification**, to create a proposition from a propositional function. Quantification expresses the extent to which a predicate is true over a range of elements. In English, the words *all*, *some*, *many*, *none*, and *few* are used in quantifications. We will focus on two types of quantification here: universal quantification, which tells us that a predicate is true for every element under consideration, and existential quantification, which tells us that there is one or more element under consideration for which the predicate is true. The area of logic that deals with predicates and quantifiers is called the **predicate calculus**.

THE UNIVERSAL QUANTIFIER Many mathematical statements assert that a property is true for all values of a variable in a particular domain, called the **domain of discourse** (or the **universe of discourse**), often just referred to as the **domain**. Such a statement is expressed using universal quantification. The universal quantification of $P(x)$ for a particular domain is the proposition that asserts that $P(x)$ is true for all values of x in this domain. Note that the domain specifies the possible values of the variable x. The meaning of the universal quantification of $P(x)$ changes when we change the domain. The domain must always be specified when a universal quantifier is used; without it, the universal quantification of a statement is not defined.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

DEFINITION 1

The *universal quantification* of $P(x)$ is the statement

"$P(x)$ for all values of x in the domain."

The notation $\forall x\, P(x)$ denotes the universal quantification of $P(x)$. Here $\forall$ is called the **universal quantifier.** We read $\forall x\, P(x)$ as "for all $x\, P(x)$" or "for every $x\, P(x)$." An element for which $P(x)$ is false is called a **counterexample** of $\forall x\, P(x)$.

TABLE 1 Quantifiers.

Statement	*When True?*	*When False?*
$\forall x\, P(x)$	$P(x)$ is true for every x.	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.
$\exists x\, P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.	$P(x)$ is false for every x.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

EXAMPLE 8 Let $P(x)$ be the statement "$x + 1 > x$." What is the truth value of the quantification $\forall x\, P(x)$, where the domain consists of all real numbers?

Solution: Because $P(x)$ is true for all real numbers x, the quantification

$$\forall x\, P(x)$$

is true. ◀

Remark: Generally, an implicit assumption is made that all domains of discourse for quantifiers are nonempty. Note that if the domain is empty, then $\forall x\, P(x)$ is true for any propositional function $P(x)$ because there are no elements x in the domain for which $P(x)$ is false.

Remember that the truth value of $\forall x\, P(x)$ depends on the domain!

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

A statement $\forall x\, P(x)$ is false, where $P(x)$ is a propositional function, if and only if $P(x)$ is not always true when x is in the domain. One way to show that $P(x)$ is not always true when x is in the domain is to find a counterexample to the statement $\forall x\, P(x)$. Note that a single counterexample is all we need to establish that $\forall x\, P(x)$ is false. Example 9 illustrates how counterexamples are used.

EXAMPLE 9 Let $Q(x)$ be the statement "$x < 2$." What is the truth value of the quantification $\forall x\, Q(x)$, where the domain consists of all real numbers?

Solution: $Q(x)$ is not true for every real number x, because, for instance, $Q(3)$ is false. That is, $x = 3$ is a counterexample for the statement $\forall x\, Q(x)$. Thus

$$\forall x\, Q(x)$$

is false. ◀

EXAMPLE 10 Suppose that $P(x)$ is "$x^2 > 0$." To show that the statement $\forall x\, P(x)$ is false where the universe of discourse consists of all integers, we give a counterexample. We see that $x = 0$ is a counterexample because $x^2 = 0$ when $x = 0$, so that x^2 is not greater than 0 when $x = 0$. ◀

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

Looking for counterexamples to universally quantified statements is an important activity in the study of mathematics, as we will see in subsequent sections of this book.

When all the elements in the domain can be listed—say, $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$—it follows that the universal quantification $\forall x\, P(x)$ is the same as the conjunction

$$P(x_1) \wedge P(x_2) \wedge \cdots \wedge P(x_n),$$

because this conjunction is true if and only if $P(x_1), P(x_2), \ldots, P(x_n)$ are all true.

EXAMPLE 11 What is the truth value of $\forall x\, P(x)$, where $P(x)$ is the statement "$x^2 < 10$" and the domain consists of the positive integers not exceeding 4?

Solution: The statement $\forall x\, P(x)$ is the same as the conjunction

$$P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge P(3) \wedge P(4),$$

because the domain consists of the integers 1, 2, 3, and 4. Because $P(4)$, which is the statement "$4^2 < 10$," is false, it follows that $\forall x\, P(x)$ is false. ◀

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

EXAMPLE 12 What does the statement $\forall x N(x)$ mean if $N(x)$ is "Computer x is connected to the network" and the domain consists of all computers on campus?

Solution: The statement $\forall x N(x)$ means that for every computer x on campus, that computer x is connected to the network. This statement can be expressed in English as "Every computer on campus is connected to the network." ◀

As we have pointed out, specifying the domain is mandatory when quantifiers are used. The truth value of a quantified statement often depends on which elements are in this domain, as Example 13 shows.

EXAMPLE 13 What is the truth value of $\forall x(x^2 \geq x)$ if the domain consists of all real numbers? What is the truth value of this statement if the domain consists of all integers?

Solution: The universal quantification $\forall x(x^2 \geq x)$, where the domain consists of all real numbers, is false. For example, $(\frac{1}{2})^2 \not\geq \frac{1}{2}$. Note that $x^2 \geq x$ if and only if $x^2 - x = x(x-1) \geq 0$. Consequently, $x^2 \geq x$ if and only if $x \leq 0$ or $x \geq 1$. It follows that $\forall x(x^2 \geq x)$ is false if the domain consists of all real numbers (because the inequality is false for all real numbers x with $0 < x < 1$). However, if the domain consists of the integers, $\forall x(x^2 \geq x)$ is true, because there are no integers x with $0 < x < 1$. ◀

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

THE EXISTENTIAL QUANTIFIER Many mathematical statements assert that there is an element with a certain property. Such statements are expressed using existential quantification. With existential quantification, we form a proposition that is true if and only if $P(x)$ is true for at least one value of x in the domain.

DEFINITION 2

The *existential quantification* of $P(x)$ is the proposition

"There exists an element x in the domain such that $P(x)$."

We use the notation $\exists x\, P(x)$ for the existential quantification of $P(x)$. Here $\exists$ is called the *existential quantifier*.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

A domain must always be specified when a statement $\exists x\, P(x)$ is used. Furthermore, the meaning of $\exists x\, P(x)$ changes when the domain changes. Without specifying the domain, the statement $\exists x\, P(x)$ has no meaning.

Besides the phrase "there exists," we can also express existential quantification in many other ways, such as by using the words "for some," "for at least one," or "there is." The existential quantification $\exists x\, P(x)$ is read as

"There is an x such that $P(x)$,"
"There is at least one x such that $P(x)$,"

or

"For some $x\, P(x)$."

TABLE 1 Quantifiers.

Statement	*When True?*	*When False?*
$\forall x\, P(x)$	$P(x)$ is true for every x.	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.
$\exists x\, P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.	$P(x)$ is false for every x.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

EXAMPLE 14 Let $P(x)$ denote the statement "$x > 3$." What is the truth value of the quantification $\exists x\, P(x)$, where the domain consists of all real numbers?

Solution: Because "$x > 3$" is sometimes true—for instance, when $x = 4$—the existential quantification of $P(x)$, which is $\exists x\, P(x)$, is true. ◀

Observe that the statement $\exists x\, P(x)$ is false if and only if there is no element x in the domain for which $P(x)$ is true. That is, $\exists x\, P(x)$ is false if and only if $P(x)$ is false for every element of the domain. We illustrate this observation in Example 15.

EXAMPLE 15 Let $Q(x)$ denote the statement "$x = x + 1$." What is the truth value of the quantification $\exists x\, Q(x)$, where the domain consists of all real numbers?

Solution: Because $Q(x)$ is false for every real number x, the existential quantification of $Q(x)$, which is $\exists x\, Q(x)$, is false. ◀

Remember that the truth value of $\exists x\, P(x)$ depends on the domain!

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

Remark: Generally, an implicit assumption is made that all domains of discourse for quantifiers are nonempty. If the domain is empty, then $\exists x\, Q(x)$ is false whenever $Q(x)$ is a propositional function because when the domain is empty, there can be no element x in the domain for which $Q(x)$ is true.

When all elements in the domain can be listed—say, $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$— the existential quantification $\exists x\, P(x)$ is the same as the disjunction

$$P(x_1) \vee P(x_2) \vee \cdots \vee P(x_n),$$

because this disjunction is true if and only if at least one of $P(x_1), P(x_2), \ldots, P(x_n)$ is true.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Quantifiers

EXAMPLE 16 What is the truth value of $\exists x\, P(x)$, where $P(x)$ is the statement "$x^2 > 10$" and the universe of discourse consists of the positive integers not exceeding 4?

Solution: Because the domain is $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, the proposition $\exists x\, P(x)$ is the same as the disjunction

$$P(1) \vee P(2) \vee P(3) \vee P(4).$$

Because $P(4)$, which is the statement "$4^2 > 10$," is true, it follows that $\exists x\, P(x)$ is true. ◀

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Negating Quantified Expressions

$$\neg\forall x\, P(x) \equiv \exists x\, \neg P(x).$$

$$\neg\exists x\, Q(x) \equiv \forall x\, \neg Q(x).$$

TABLE 2 De Morgan's Laws for Quantifiers.

Negation	*Equivalent Statement*	*When Is Negation True?*	*When False?*
$\neg\exists x\, P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$	For every x, $P(x)$ is false.	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.
$\neg\forall x\, P(x)$	$\exists x \neg P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.	$P(x)$ is true for every x.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Negating Quantified Expressions

EXAMPLE 20 What are the negations of the statements "There is an honest politician" and "All Americans eat cheeseburgers"?

Solution: Let $H(x)$ denote "x is honest." Then the statement "There is an honest politician" is represented by $\exists x H(x)$, where the domain consists of all politicians. The negation of this statement is $\neg\exists x H(x)$, which is equivalent to $\forall x \neg H(x)$. This negation can be expressed as "Every politician is dishonest." (*Note:* In English, the statement "All politicians are not honest" is ambiguous. In common usage, this statement often means "Not all politicians are honest." Consequently, we do not use this statement to express this negation.)

Let $C(x)$ denote "x eats cheeseburgers." Then the statement "All Americans eat cheeseburgers" is represented by $\forall x C(x)$, where the domain consists of all Americans. The negation of this statement is $\neg\forall x C(x)$, which is equivalent to $\exists x \neg C(x)$. This negation can be expressed in several different ways, including "Some American does not eat cheeseburgers" and "There is an American who does not eat cheeseburgers." ◀

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Negating Quantified Expressions

EXAMPLE 21 What are the negations of the statements $\forall x(x^2 > x)$ and $\exists x(x^2 = 2)$?

Solution: The negation of $\forall x(x^2 > x)$ is the statement $\neg\forall x(x^2 > x)$, which is equivalent to $\exists x\neg(x^2 > x)$. This can be rewritten as $\exists x(x^2 \leq x)$. The negation of $\exists x(x^2 = 2)$ is the statement $\neg\exists x(x^2 = 2)$, which is equivalent to $\forall x\neg(x^2 = 2)$. This can be rewritten as $\forall x(x^2 \neq 2)$. The truth values of these statements depend on the domain. ◀

EXAMPLE 22 Show that $\neg\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $\exists x(P(x) \wedge \neg Q(x))$ are logically equivalent.

Solution: By De Morgan's law for universal quantifiers, we know that $\neg\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $\exists x(\neg(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)))$ are logically equivalent. By the fifth logical equivalence in Table 7 in Section 1.3, we know that $\neg(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $P(x) \wedge \neg Q(x)$ are logically equivalent for every x. Because we can substitute one logically equivalent expression for another in a logical equivalence, it follows that $\neg\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $\exists x(P(x) \wedge \neg Q(x))$ are logically equivalent. ◀

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Logic Programming

An important type of programming language is designed to reason using the rules of predicate logic. Prolog (from *Pro*gramming in *Log*ic), developed in the 1970s by computer scientists working in the area of artificial intelligence, is an example of such a language. Prolog programs include a set of declarations consisting of two types of statements, **Prolog facts** and **Prolog rules**. Prolog facts define predicates by specifying the elements that satisfy these predicates. Prolog rules are used to define new predicates using those already defined by Prolog facts. Example 28 illustrates these notions.

EXAMPLE 28

Consider a Prolog program given facts telling it the instructor of each class and in which classes students are enrolled. The program uses these facts to answer queries concerning the professors who teach particular students. Such a program could use the predicates *instructor*(p, c) and *enrolled*(s, c) to represent that professor p is the instructor of course c and that student s is enrolled in course c, respectively. For example, the Prolog facts in such a program might include:

```
instructor(chan,math273)
instructor(patel,ee222)
instructor(grossman,cs301)
enrolled(kevin,math273)
enrolled(juana,ee222)
enrolled(juana,cs301)
enrolled(kiko,math273)
enrolled(kiko,cs301)
```

(Lowercase letters have been used for entries because Prolog considers names beginning with an uppercase letter to be variables.)

A new predicate *teaches*(p, s), representing that professor p teaches student s, can be defined using the Prolog rule

```
teaches(P,S) :- instructor(P,C), enrolled(S,C)
```

which means that *teaches*(p, s) is true if there exists a class c such that professor p is the instructor of class c and student s is enrolled in class c. (Note that a comma is used to represent a conjunction of predicates in Prolog. Similarly, a semicolon is used to represent a disjunction of predicates.)

Prolog answers queries using the facts and rules it is given. For example, using the facts and rules listed, the query

```
?enrolled(kevin,math273)
```

produces the response

```
yes
```

because the fact *enrolled*(kevin, math273) was provided as input. The query

```
?enrolled(X,math273)
```

produces the response

```
kevin
kiko
```

To produce this response, Prolog determines all possible values of X for which *enrolled*(X, math273) has been included as a Prolog fact. Similarly, to find all the professors who are instructors in classes being taken by Juana, we use the query

```
?teaches(X,juana)
```

This query returns

```
patel
grossman
```

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Exercices
  - Brief
    - You may find quantifiers hard to understand at first. Predicate logic (the study of propositions with quantifiers) is one level of abstraction higher than propositional logic (the study of propositions without quantifiers).
    - Careful attention to this material will aid you in thinking more clearly, not only in mathematics but in other areas as well, from computer science to politics.
    - Keep in mind exactly what the quantifiers mean: ∀x means "for all x" or "for every x," and ∃x means "there exists an x such that" or "for some x." It is good practice to read every such sentence aloud, paying attention to English grammar as well as meaning. It is very important to understand how the negations of quantified statements are formed, and why this method is correct; it is just common sense, really.

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Exercices

5. Let $P(x)$ be the statement "x spends more than five hours every weekday in class," where the domain for x consists of all students. Express each of these quantifications in English.

a) $\exists x\, P(x)$ **b)** $\forall x\, P(x)$
c) $\exists x \neg P(x)$ **d)** $\forall x \neg P(x)$

7. Translate these statements into English, where $C(x)$ is "x is a comedian" and $F(x)$ is "x is funny" and the domain consists of all people.

a) $\forall x(C(x) \rightarrow F(x))$ **b)** $\forall x(C(x) \wedge F(x))$
c) $\exists x(C(x) \rightarrow F(x))$ **d)** $\exists x(C(x) \wedge F(x))$

11. Let $P(x)$ be the statement "$x = x^2$." If the domain consists of the integers, what are these truth values?

a) $P(0)$ **b)** $P(1)$ **c)** $P(2)$
d) $P(-1)$ **e)** $\exists x\, P(x)$ **f)** $\forall x\, P(x)$

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Exercices

13. Determine the truth value of each of these statements if the domain consists of all integers.

a) $\forall n(n + 1 > n)$ **b)** $\exists n(2n = 3n)$

c) $\exists n(n = -n)$ **d)** $\forall n(3n \leq 4n)$

15. Determine the truth value of each of these statements if the domain for all variables consists of all integers.

a) $\forall n(n^2 \geq 0)$ **b)** $\exists n(n^2 = 2)$

c) $\forall n(n^2 \geq n)$ **d)** $\exists n(n^2 < 0)$

19. Suppose that the domain of the propositional function $P(x)$ consists of the integers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. Express these statements without using quantifiers, instead using only negations, disjunctions, and conjunctions.

a) $\exists x\, P(x)$ **b)** $\forall x\, P(x)$

c) $\neg\exists x\, P(x)$ **d)** $\neg\forall x\, P(x)$

e) $\forall x((x \neq 3) \rightarrow P(x)) \vee \exists x \neg P(x)$

1.4 Predicates and Quantifiers

- Exercices

35. Find a counterexample, if possible, to these universally quantified statements, where the domain for all variables consists of all integers.

a) $\forall x(x^2 \geq x)$

b) $\forall x(x > 0 \vee x < 0)$

c) $\forall x(x = 1)$

61. Let $P(x)$, $Q(x)$, $R(x)$, and $S(x)$ be the statements "x is a baby," "x is logical," "x is able to manage a crocodile," and "x is despised," respectively. Suppose that the domain consists of all people. Express each of these statements using quantifiers; logical connectives; and $P(x)$, $Q(x)$, $R(x)$, and $S(x)$.

a) Babies are illogical.

b) Nobody is despised who can manage a crocodile.

c) Illogical persons are despised.

d) Babies cannot manage crocodiles.

***e)** Does (d) follow from (a), (b), and (c)? If not, is there a correct conclusion?

Chapter 2
Basic Structures: Sets, Functions, Sequences, Sums, and Matrices

Introduction

- Much of discrete mathematics is devoted to the study of **discrete structures**, used to represent **discrete objects**. Many important discrete structures are built using **sets**, which are collections of objects.

- Among the discrete structures built from sets are combinations, relations, graphs, and finite state machines, used to **model computing machines**.

- The **concept of a function** is extremely important in discrete mathematics. A function assigns to each element of a first set exactly one element of a second set, where the two sets are not necessarily distinct. Functions are used to represent the **computational complexity of algorithms**, to study the size of sets, to count objects,…

- Useful structures such as **sequences** and strings are special types of functions.

Chapter 2: Basic Structures

2.1 Sets

- Introduction

DEFINITION 1

A *set* is an unordered collection of objects, called *elements* or *members* of the set. A set is said to *contain* its elements. We write $a \in A$ to denote that a is an element of the set A. The notation $a \notin A$ denotes that a is not an element of the set A.

EXAMPLE 1 The set V of all vowels in the English alphabet can be written as $V = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 4 The set of positive integers less than 100 can be denoted by $\{1, 2, 3, \ldots, 99\}$. ◀

roster method.

2.1 Sets

- Introduction

Another way to describe a set is to use **set builder** notation. We characterize all those elements in the set by stating the property or properties they must have to be members. For instance, the set O of all odd positive integers less than 10 can be written as

$$O = \{x \mid x \text{ is an odd positive integer less than } 10\},$$

or, specifying the universe as the set of positive integers, as

$$O = \{x \in \mathbf{Z}^+ \mid x \text{ is odd and } x < 10\}.$$

$\mathbf{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$, the set of **natural numbers**
$\mathbf{Z} = \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$, the set of **integers**
$\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$, the set of **positive integers**
$\mathbf{Q} = \{p/q \mid p \in \mathbf{Z}, q \in \mathbf{Z}, \text{ and } q \neq 0\}$, the set of **rational numbers**
$\mathbf{R}$, the set of **real numbers**
$\mathbf{R}^+$, the set of **positive real numbers**
$\mathbf{C}$, the set of **complex numbers.**

2.1 Sets

- Introduction

DEFINITION 2

Two sets are *equal* if and only if they have the same elements. Therefore, if A and B are sets, then A and B are equal if and only if $\forall x(x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$. We write $A = B$ if A and B are equal sets.

THE EMPTY SET There is a special set that has no elements. This set is called the **empty set**, or **null set**, and is denoted by $\emptyset$. The empty set can also be denoted by $\{\ \}$ (that is, we represent the empty set with a pair of braces that encloses all the elements in this set). Often, a set of elements with certain properties turns out to be the null set. For instance, the set of all positive integers that are greater than their squares is the null set.

A set with one element is called a **singleton set**. A common error is to confuse the empty set $\emptyset$ with the set $\{\emptyset\}$, which is a singleton set. The single element of the set $\{\emptyset\}$ is the empty set itself! A useful analogy for remembering this difference is to think of folders in a computer file system. The empty set can be thought of as an empty folder and the set consisting of just the empty set can be thought of as a folder with exactly one folder inside, namely, the empty folder.

2.1 Sets

- Subsets

DEFINITION 3

The set A is a *subset* of B if and only if every element of A is also an element of B. We use the notation $A \subseteq B$ to indicate that A is a subset of the set B.

Showing that A is a Subset of B To show that $A \subseteq B$, show that if x belongs to A then x also belongs to B.

Showing that A is Not a Subset of B To show that $A \not\subseteq B$, find a single $x \in A$ such that $x \notin B$.

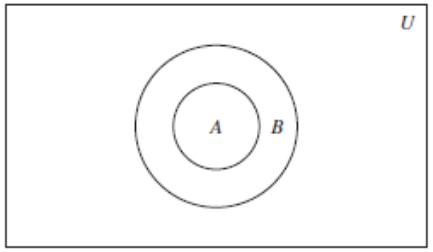


FIGURE 2 Venn Diagram Showing that A Is a Subset of B.

2.1 Sets

- Subsets

For every set S, $(i)\ \emptyset \subseteq S$ and $(ii)\ S \subseteq S$.

Proof: We will prove (i) and leave the proof of (ii) as an exercise.

Let S be a set. To show that $\emptyset \subseteq S$, we must show that $\forall x(x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S)$ is true. Because the empty set contains no elements, it follows that $x \in \emptyset$ is always false. It follows that the conditional statement $x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S$ is always true, because its hypothesis is always false and a conditional statement with a false hypothesis is true. Therefore, $\forall x(x \in \emptyset \rightarrow x \in S)$ is true. This completes the proof of (i). Note that this is an example of a vacuous proof. ◁

Showing Two Sets are Equal To show that two sets A and B are equal, show that $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$.

2.1 Sets

- The Size of a Set

DEFINITION 4

Let S be a set. If there are exactly n distinct elements in S where n is a nonnegative integer, we say that S is a *finite set* and that n is the *cardinality* of S. The cardinality of S is denoted by $|S|$.

EXAMPLE 10 Let A be the set of odd positive integers less than 10. Then $|A| = 5$.

EXAMPLE 11 Let S be the set of letters in the English alphabet. Then $|S| = 26$.

EXAMPLE 12 Because the null set has no elements, it follows that $|\emptyset| = 0$.

A set is said to be *infinite* if it is not finite.

2.1 Sets

- Power Sets

DEFINITION 6

Given a set S, the *power set* of S is the set of all subsets of the set S. The power set of S is denoted by $\mathcal{P}(S)$.

EXAMPLE 14 What is the power set of the set $\{0, 1, 2\}$?

Solution: The power set $\mathcal{P}(\{0, 1, 2\})$ is the set of all subsets of $\{0, 1, 2\}$. Hence,

$$\mathcal{P}(\{0, 1, 2\}) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0, 1\}, \{0, 2\}, \{1, 2\}, \{0, 1, 2\}\}.$$

Note that the empty set and the set itself are members of this set of subsets. ◀

2.1 Sets

- Cartesian Products

The *ordered n-tuple* $(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$ is the ordered collection that has a_1 as its first element, a_2 as its second element, $\ldots$, and a_n as its nth element.

Let A and B be sets. The *Cartesian product* of A and B, denoted by $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b), where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. Hence,

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

EXAMPLE 17 What is the Cartesian product of $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{a, b, c\}$?

Solution: The Cartesian product $A \times B$ is

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

2.1 Sets

- Exercices
  - Brief
    - This exercise set reinforces the concepts introduced in this section-set description, subset and containment, cardinality, power set, and Cartesian product.
    - Keep in mind the distinction between "is an element of" and "is a subset of." Similarly, there is a big difference between Ø and {Ø}. In dealing with sets, as in most of mathematics, it is extremely important to say exactly what you mean.

2.1 Sets

- Exercices

9. Determine whether each of these statements is true or false.

a) $0 \in \emptyset$ **b)** $\emptyset \in \{0\}$
c) $\{0\} \subset \emptyset$ **d)** $\emptyset \subset \{0\}$
e) $\{0\} \in \{0\}$ **f)** $\{0\} \subset \{0\}$
g) $\{\emptyset\} \subseteq \{\emptyset\}$

11. Determine whether each of these statements is true or false.

a) $x \in \{x\}$ **b)** $\{x\} \subseteq \{x\}$ **c)** $\{x\} \in \{x\}$
d) $\{x\} \in \{\{x\}\}$ **e)** $\emptyset \subseteq \{x\}$ **f)** $\emptyset \in \{x\}$

27. Let $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$ and $B = \{y, z\}$. Find
a) $A \times B$. **b)** $B \times A$.

31. Let A be a set. Show that $\emptyset \times A = A \times \emptyset = \emptyset$.

2.2 Set Operations

- Introduction

Let A and B be sets. The *union* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set that contains those elements that are either in A or in B, or in both.

An element x belongs to the union of the sets A and B if and only if x belongs to A or x belongs to B. This tells us that

$$A \cup B = \{x \mid x \in A \vee x \in B\}.$$

Let A and B be sets. The *intersection* of the sets A and B, denoted by $A \cap B$, is the set containing those elements in both A and B.

An element x belongs to the intersection of the sets A and B if and only if x belongs to A and x belongs to B. This tells us that

$$A \cap B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \in B\}.$$

2.2 Set Operations

- Introduction

Two sets are called *disjoint* if their intersection is the empty set.

EXAMPLE 5 Let $A = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ and $B = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$. Because $A \cap B = \emptyset$, A and B are disjoint. ◀

Let A and B be sets. The *difference* of A and B, denoted by $A - B$, is the set containing those elements that are in A but not in B. The difference of A and B is also called the *complement of B with respect to A*.

An element x belongs to the difference of A and B if and only if $x \in A$ and $x \notin B$. This tells us that

$$A - B = \{x \mid x \in A \wedge x \notin B\}.$$

Let U be the universal set. The *complement* of the set A, denoted by $\overline{A}$, is the complement of A with respect to U. Therefore, the complement of the set A is $U - A$.

TABLE 1 Set Identities.

Identity	*Name*
$A \cap U = A$ $A \cup \emptyset = A$	Identity laws
$A \cup U = U$ $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$	Domination laws
$A \cup A = A$ $A \cap A = A$	Idempotent laws
$\overline{(\overline{A})} = A$	Complementation law
$A \cup B = B \cup A$ $A \cap B = B \cap A$	Commutative laws
$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$ $A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$	Associative laws
$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$	Distributive laws
$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$ $\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$	De Morgan's laws
$A \cup (A \cap B) = A$ $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$	Absorption laws
$A \cup \overline{A} = U$ $A \cap \overline{A} = \emptyset$	Complement laws

TABLE 2 **A Membership Table for the Distributive Property.**

A	B	C	$B \cup C$	$A \cap (B \cup C)$	$A \cap B$	$A \cap C$	$(A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

2.2 Set Operations

- Generalized Unions and Intersections

EXAMPLE 15 Let $A = \{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$, $B = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$, and $C = \{0, 3, 6, 9\}$. What are $A \cup B \cup C$ and $A \cap B \cap C$?

Solution: The set $A \cup B \cup C$ contains those elements in at least one of A, B, and C. Hence,

$$A \cup B \cup C = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9\}.$$

The set $A \cap B \cap C$ contains those elements in all three of A, B, and C. Thus,

$$A \cap B \cap C = \{0\}.$$

2.2 Set Operations

- Generalized Unions and Intersections

We use the notation

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

to denote the union of the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$.

We use the notation

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

to denote the intersection of the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$. We illustrate generalized unions and intersections with Example 16.

2.2 Set Operations

- Generalized Unions and Intersections

EXAMPLE 16 For $i = 1, 2, \ldots$, let $A_i = \{i, i+1, i+2, \ldots\}$. Then,

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} \{i, i+1, i+2, \ldots\} = \{1, 2, 3, \ldots\},$$

and

$$\bigcap_{i=1}^{n} A_i = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} \{i, i+1, i+2, \ldots\} = \{n, n+1, n+2, \ldots\} = A_n.$$

2.2 Set Operations

- Computer Representation of Sets

EXAMPLE 18 Let $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$, and the ordering of elements of U has the elements in increasing order; that is, $a_i = i$. What bit strings represent the subset of all odd integers in U, the subset of all even integers in U, and the subset of integers not exceeding 5 in U?

Solution: The bit string that represents the set of odd integers in U, namely, $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$, has a one bit in the first, third, fifth, seventh, and ninth positions, and a zero elsewhere. It is

10 1010 1010.

(We have split this bit string of length ten into blocks of length four for easy reading.) Similarly, we represent the subset of all even integers in U, namely, $\{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$, by the string

01 0101 0101.

The set of all integers in U that do not exceed 5, namely, $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, is represented by the string

11 1110 0000.

2.2 Set Operations

- Computer Representation of Sets

EXAMPLE 19 We have seen that the bit string for the set $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ (with universal set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$) is

10 1010 1010.

What is the bit string for the complement of this set?

Solution: The bit string for the complement of this set is obtained by replacing 0s with 1s and vice versa. This yields the string

01 0101 0101,

which corresponds to the set $\{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$. ◀

2.2 Set Operations

- Computer Representation of Sets

EXAMPLE 20 The bit strings for the sets {1, 2, 3, 4, 5} and {1, 3, 5, 7, 9} are 11 1110 0000 and 10 1010 1010, respectively. Use bit strings to find the union and intersection of these sets.

Solution: The bit string for the union of these sets is

$$11\ 1110\ 0000 \vee 10\ 1010\ 1010 = 11\ 1110\ 1010,$$

which corresponds to the set {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9}. The bit string for the intersection of these sets is

$$11\ 1110\ 0000 \wedge 10\ 1010\ 1010 = 10\ 1010\ 0000,$$

which corresponds to the set {1, 3, 5}. ◀

2.2 Set Operations

- Exercices
  - Brief
    - Most of the exercises involving operations on sets can be done fairly routinely by following the definitions.
    - It is important to understand what it means for two sets to be equal and how to prove that two given sets are equal-using membership tables, using the definition to reduce the problem to logic, or showing that each is a subset of the other. It is often helpful when looking at operations on sets to draw the Venn diagram, even if you are not asked to do so.

3. Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ and $B = \{0, 3, 6\}$. Find

a) $A \cup B$. **b)** $A \cap B$.

c) $A - B$. **d)** $B - A$.

7. Prove the domination laws in Table 1 by showing that

a) $A \cup U = U$. **b)** $A \cap \emptyset = \emptyset$.

2.2 Set Operations

- Exercices

11. Let A and B be sets. Prove the commutative laws from Table 1 by showing that

a) $A \cup B = B \cup A$.
b) $A \cap B = B \cap A$.

17. Show that if A, B, and C are sets, then $\overline{A \cap B \cap C} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B} \cup \overline{C}$

a) by showing each side is a subset of the other side.
b) using a membership table.

23. Prove the first distributive law from Table 1 by showing that if A, B, and C are sets, then $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$.

57. Show how bitwise operations on bit strings can be used to find these combinations of $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$, $B = \{b, c, d, g, p, t, v\}$, $C = \{c, e, i, o, u, x, y, z\}$, and $D = \{d, e, h, i, n, o, t, u, x, y\}$.

a) $A \cup B$ **b)** $A \cap B$
c) $(A \cup D) \cap (B \cup C)$ **d)** $A \cup B \cup C \cup D$

2.3 Functions

- Introduction

In many instances we assign to each element of a set a particular element of a second set (which may be the same as the first). For example, suppose that each student in a discrete mathematics class is assigned a letter grade from the set $\{A, B, C, D, F\}$. And suppose that the grades are A for Adams, C for Chou, B for Goodfriend, A for Rodriguez, and F for Stevens. This assignment of grades is illustrated in Figure 1.

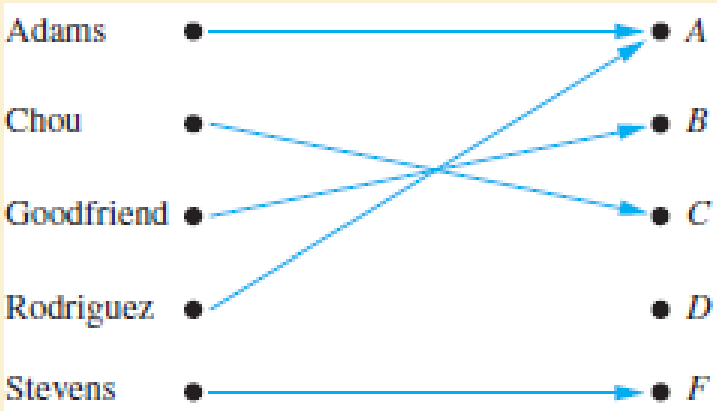


FIGURE 1 **Assignment of Grades in a Discrete Mathematics Class.**

2.3 Functions

- Introduction

Let A and B be nonempty sets. A *function* f from A to B is an assignment of exactly one element of B to each element of A. We write $f(a) = b$ if b is the unique element of B assigned by the function f to the element a of A. If f is a function from A to B, we write $f : A \to B$.

If f is a function from A to B, we say that A is the *domain* of f and B is the *codomain* of f. If $f(a) = b$, we say that b is the *image* of a and a is a *preimage* of b. The *range*, or *image*, of f is the set of all images of elements of A. Also, if f is a function from A to B, we say that f *maps* A to B.

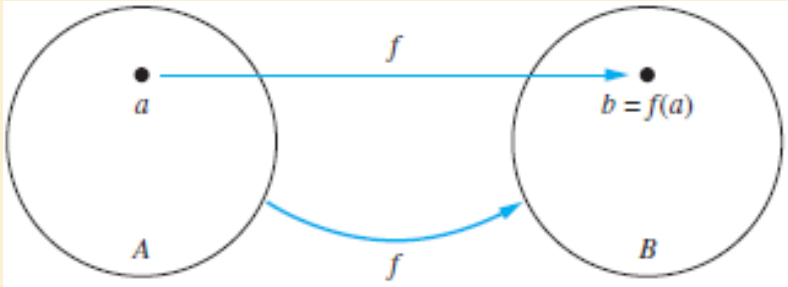


FIGURE 2 The Function f Maps A to B.

2.3 Functions

- Introduction

EXAMPLE 1 What are the domain, codomain, and range of the function that assigns grades to students described in the first paragraph of the introduction of this section?

Solution: Let G be the function that assigns a grade to a student in our discrete mathematics class. Note that $G(\text{Adams}) = A$, for instance. The domain of G is the set {Adams, Chou, Goodfriend, Rodriguez, Stevens}, and the codomain is the set $\{A, B, C, D, F\}$. The range of G is the set $\{A, B, C, F\}$, because each grade except D is assigned to some student. ◀

EXAMPLE 3 Extra Examples

Let f be the function that assigns the last two bits of a bit string of length 2 or greater to that string. For example, $f(11010) = 10$. Then, the domain of f is the set of all bit strings of length 2 or greater, and both the codomain and range are the set $\{00, 01, 10, 11\}$. ◀

EXAMPLE 4 Let $f: \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$ assign the square of an integer to this integer. Then, $f(x) = x^2$, where the domain of f is the set of all integers, the codomain of f is the set of all integers, and the range of f is the set of all integers that are perfect squares, namely, $\{0, 1, 4, 9, \ldots\}$. ◀

2.3 Functions

- Introduction

Let f_1 and f_2 be functions from A to $\mathbf{R}$. Then $f_1 + f_2$ and $f_1 f_2$ are also functions from A to $\mathbf{R}$ defined for all $x \in A$ by

$$(f_1 + f_2)(x) = f_1(x) + f_2(x),$$
$$(f_1 f_2)(x) = f_1(x) f_2(x).$$

Let f be a function from A to B and let S be a subset of A. The *image* of S under the function f is the subset of B that consists of the images of the elements of S. We denote the image of S by $f(S)$, so

$$f(S) = \{t \mid \exists s \in S\ (t = f(s))\}.$$

We also use the shorthand $\{f(s) \mid s \in S\}$ to denote this set.

2.3 Functions

- One-to-One and Onto Functions

A function f is said to be *one-to-one*, or an *injunction*, if and only if $f(a) = f(b)$ implies that $a = b$ for all a and b in the domain of f. A function is said to be *injective* if it is one-to-one.

A function f whose domain and codomain are subsets of the set of real numbers is called *increasing* if $f(x) \leq f(y)$, and *strictly increasing* if $f(x) < f(y)$, whenever $x < y$ and x and y are in the domain of f. Similarly, f is called *decreasing* if $f(x) \geq f(y)$, and *strictly decreasing* if $f(x) > f(y)$, whenever $x < y$ and x and y are in the domain of f. (The word *strictly* in this definition indicates a strict inequality.)

A function f from A to B is called *onto*, or a *surjection*, if and only if for every element $b \in B$ there is an element $a \in A$ with $f(a) = b$. A function f is called *surjective* if it is onto.

The function f is a *one-to-one correspondence*, or a *bijection*, if it is both one-to-one and onto. We also say that such a function is *bijective*.

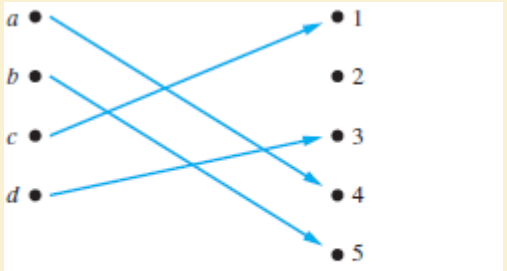


FIGURE 3 A One-to-One Function.

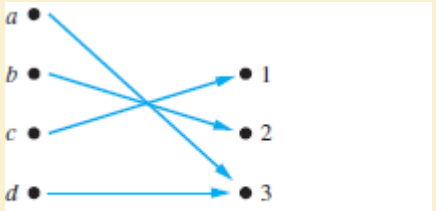
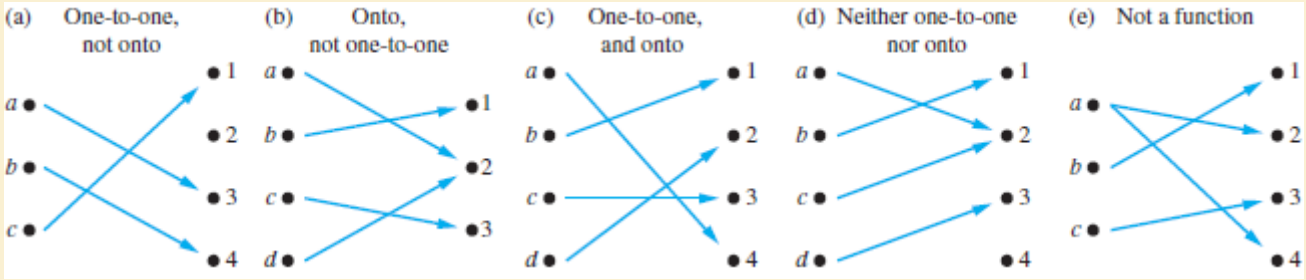


FIGURE 4 An Onto Function.

2.3 Functions

- One-to-One and Onto Functions



Suppose that $f : A \to B$.

To show that f is injective Show that if $f(x) = f(y)$ for arbitrary $x, y \in A$ with $x \neq y$, then $x = y$.

To show that f is not injective Find particular elements $x, y \in A$ such that $x \neq y$ and $f(x) = f(y)$.

To show that f is surjective Consider an arbitrary element $y \in B$ and find an element $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = y$.

To show that f is not surjective Find a particular $y \in B$ such that $f(x) \neq y$ for all $x \in A$.

Review Examples

EXAMPLE 8 Determine whether the function f from $\{a, b, c, d\}$ to $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ with $f(a) = 4$, $f(b) = 5$, $f(c) = 1$, and $f(d) = 3$ is one-to-one.

Extra Examples

Solution: The function f is one-to-one because f takes on different values at the four elements of its domain. This is illustrated in Figure 3. ◀

EXAMPLE 9 Determine whether the function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of integers to the set of integers is one-to-one.

Solution: The function $f(x) = x^2$ is not one-to-one because, for instance, $f(1) = f(-1) = 1$, but $1 \neq -1$.

Note that the function $f(x) = x^2$ with its domain restricted to $\mathbf{Z}^+$ is one-to-one. (Technically, when we restrict the domain of a function, we obtain a new function whose values agree with those of the original function for the elements of the restricted domain. The restricted function is not defined for elements of the original domain outside of the restricted domain.) ◀

EXAMPLE 10 Determine whether the function $f(x) = x + 1$ from the set of real numbers to itself is one-to-one.

Solution: The function $f(x) = x + 1$ is a one-to-one function. To demonstrate this, note that $x + 1 \neq y + 1$ when $x \neq y$. ◀

Review Examples

EXAMPLE 12 Let f be the function from $\{a, b, c, d\}$ to $\{1, 2, 3\}$ defined by $f(a) = 3$, $f(b) = 2$, $f(c) = 1$, and $f(d) = 3$. Is f an onto function?

Extra Examples

Solution: Because all three elements of the codomain are images of elements in the domain, we see that f is onto. This is illustrated in Figure 4. Note that if the codomain were $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, then f would not be onto. ◀

EXAMPLE 13 Is the function $f(x) = x^2$ from the set of integers to the set of integers onto?

Solution: The function f is not onto because there is no integer x with $x^2 = -1$, for instance. ◀

EXAMPLE 16 Let f be the function from $\{a, b, c, d\}$ to $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ with $f(a) = 4$, $f(b) = 2$, $f(c) = 1$, and $f(d) = 3$. Is f a bijection?

Solution: The function f is one-to-one and onto. It is one-to-one because no two values in the domain are assigned the same function value. It is onto because all four elements of the codomain are images of elements in the domain. Hence, f is a bijection. ◀

2.3 Functions

- Inverse Functions and Compositions of Functions

Let f be a one-to-one correspondence from the set A to the set B. The *inverse function* of f is the function that assigns to an element b belonging to B the unique element a in A such that $f(a) = b$. The inverse function of f is denoted by f^{-1}. Hence, $f^{-1}(b) = a$ when $f(a) = b$.

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

Solution: The function f is invertible because it is a one-to-one correspondence. The inverse function f^{-1} reverses the correspondence given by f, so $f^{-1}(1) = c$, $f^{-1}(2) = a$, and $f^{-1}(3) = b$. ◀

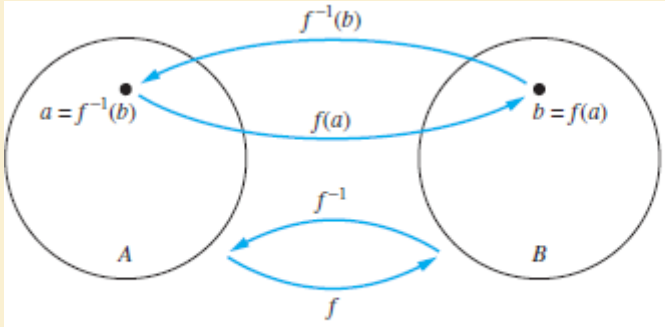


FIGURE 6 **The Function f^{-1} Is the Inverse of Function f.**

2.3 Functions

- Inverse Functions and Compositions of Functions

Let g be a function from the set A to the set B and let f be a function from the set B to the set C. The *composition* of the functions f and g, denoted for all $a \in A$ by $f \circ g$, is defined by

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

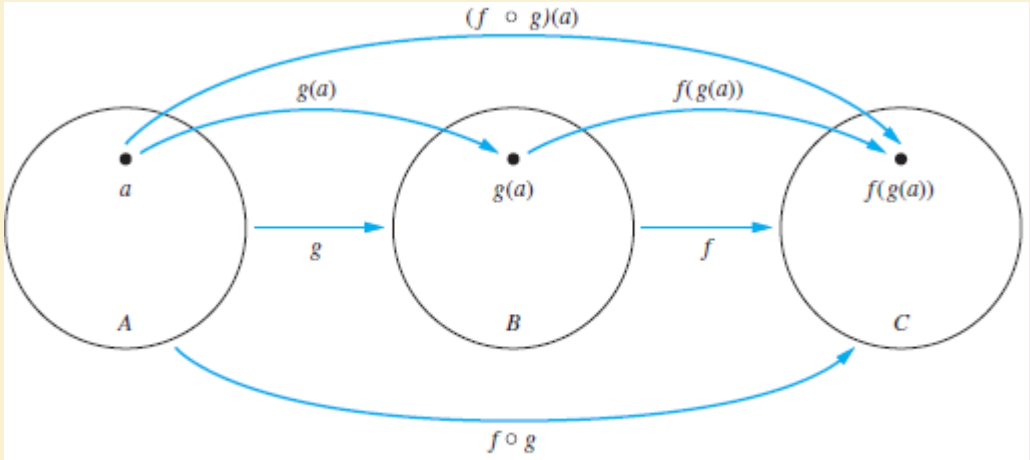


FIGURE 7 The Composition of the Functions f and g.

2.3 Functions

- Exercises
  - Brief
    - The importance of understanding what a function is cannot be overemphasized-functions permeate all of mathematics and computer science.
    - This exercise set enables you to make sure you understand functions and their properties.
    - The definitions play a crucial role in doing proofs about functions.
    - To prove that a function f: A $\longrightarrow$ B is **one-to-one**, you need to show that $\mathbf{x_1 \neq x_2 \longrightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)}$ **for all** $\mathbf{x_1, x_2 \in A}$.
    - To prove that such a function is **onto**, you need to show that $\mathbf{\forall y \in B\ \exists x \in A\ (f(x) = y)}$.

2.3 Functions

- Exercises

1. Why is f not a function from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ if

a) $f(x) = 1/x$?

b) $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$?

c) $f(x) = \pm\sqrt{(x^2 + 1)}$?

5. Find the domain and range of these functions. Note that in each case, to find the domain, determine the set of elements assigned values by the function.

a) the function that assigns to each bit string the number of ones in the string minus the number of zeros in the string

b) the function that assigns to each bit string twice the number of zeros in that string

c) the function that assigns the number of bits left over when a bit string is split into bytes (which are blocks of 8 bits)

d) the function that assigns to each positive integer the largest perfect square not exceeding this integer

2.3 Functions

- Exercises

7. Find the domain and range of these functions.

a) the function that assigns to each pair of positive integers the maximum of these two integers

b) the function that assigns to each positive integer the number of the digits 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 that do not appear as decimal digits of the integer

c) the function that assigns to a bit string the number of times the block 11 appears

d) the function that assigns to a bit string the numerical position of the first 1 in the string and that assigns the value 0 to a bit string consisting of all 0s

15. Determine whether the function $f: \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z} \to \mathbf{Z}$ is onto if

a) $f(m, n) = m + n$.

b) $f(m, n) = m^2 + n^2$.

c) $f(m, n) = m$.

d) $f(m, n) = |n|$.

e) $f(m, n) = m - n$.

2.3 Functions

- Exercises

23. Determine whether each of these functions is a bijection from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$.

a) $f(x) = 2x + 1$

b) $f(x) = x^2 + 1$

c) $f(x) = x^3$

d) $f(x) = (x^2 + 1)/(x^2 + 2)$

39. Show that the function $f(x) = ax + b$ from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$ is invertible, where a and b are constants, with $a \neq 0$, and find the inverse of f.

63. Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = \lfloor 2x \rfloor$ from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$.

64. Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = \lfloor x/2 \rfloor$ from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$.

65. Draw the graph of the function $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor + \lfloor x/2 \rfloor$ from $\mathbf{R}$ to $\mathbf{R}$.

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Introduction
  - Sequences are ordered lists of elements, used in discrete mathematics in many ways. They are an important data structure in computer science. We will often need to work with sums of terms of sequences in our study of discrete mathematics.
  - This section reviews the use of summation notation, basic properties of summations, and formulas for the sums of terms of some particular types of sequences.
  - The terms of a sequence can be specified by providing a formula for each term of the sequence. In this section we describe another way to specify the terms of a sequence using a recurrence relation, which expresses each term as a combination of the previous terms.
  - Identifying a sequence when the first few terms are provided is a useful skill when solving problems in discrete mathematics.

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Sequences

A *sequence* is a function from a subset of the set of integers (usually either the set $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$ or the set $\{1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$) to a set S. We use the notation a_n to denote the image of the integer n. We call a_n a *term* of the sequence.

EXAMPLE 1 Consider the sequence $\{a_n\}$, where

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n}.$$

The list of the terms of this sequence, beginning with a_1, namely,

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4, \ldots,$$

starts with

$$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \ldots.$$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Sequences

A *geometric progression* is a sequence of the form

$$a, ar, ar^2, \ldots, ar^n, \ldots$$

where the *initial term* a and the *common ratio* r are real numbers.

EXAMPLE 2 The sequences $\{b_n\}$ with $b_n = (-1)^n$, $\{c_n\}$ with $c_n = 2 \cdot 5^n$, and $\{d_n\}$ with $d_n = 6 \cdot (1/3)^n$ are geometric progressions with initial term and common ratio equal to 1 and -1; 2 and 5; and 6 and 1/3, respectively, if we start at $n = 0$. The list of terms $b_0, b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, \ldots$ begins with

$$1, -1, 1, -1, 1, \ldots;$$

the list of terms $c_0, c_1, c_2, c_3, c_4, \ldots$ begins with

$$2, 10, 50, 250, 1250, \ldots;$$

and the list of terms $d_0, d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4, \ldots$ begins with

$$6, 2, \frac{2}{3}, \frac{2}{9}, \frac{2}{27}, \ldots.$$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Sequences

An *arithmetic progression* is a sequence of the form

$$a, a + d, a + 2d, \ldots, a + nd, \ldots$$

where the *initial term* a and the *common difference* d are real numbers.

EXAMPLE 3 The sequences $\{s_n\}$ with $s_n = -1 + 4n$ and $\{t_n\}$ with $t_n = 7 - 3n$ are both arithmetic progressions with initial terms and common differences equal to -1 and 4, and 7 and -3, respectively, if we start at $n = 0$. The list of terms $s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, \ldots$ begins with

$$-1, 3, 7, 11, \ldots,$$

and the list of terms $t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3, \ldots$ begins with

$$7, 4, 1, -2, \ldots.$$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Recurrence Relations

A *recurrence relation* for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is an equation that expresses a_n in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely, $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}$, 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. (A recurrence relation is said to *recursively define* a sequence. We will explain this alternative terminology in Chapter 5.)

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

Solution: We see from the recurrence relation that $a_1 = a_0 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$. It then follows that $a_2 = 5 + 3 = 8$ and $a_3 = 8 + 3 = 11$. ◀

EXAMPLE 6 Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$ for $n = 2, 3, 4, \ldots$, and suppose that $a_0 = 3$ and $a_1 = 5$. What are a_2 and a_3?

Solution: We see from the recurrence relation that $a_2 = a_1 - a_0 = 5 - 3 = 2$ and $a_3 = a_2 - a_1 = 2 - 5 = -3$. We can find a_4, a_5, and each successive term in a similar way. ◀

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Recurrence Relations

The *Fibonacci sequence*, $f_0, f_1, f_2, \ldots$, is defined by the initial conditions $f_0 = 0$, $f_1 = 1$, and the recurrence relation

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

for $n = 2, 3, 4, \ldots$.

EXAMPLE 7 Find the Fibonacci numbers f_2, f_3, f_4, f_5, and f_6.

Solution: The recurrence relation for the Fibonacci sequence tells us that we find successive terms by adding the previous two terms. Because the initial conditions tell us that $f_0 = 0$ and $f_1 = 1$, using the recurrence relation in the definition we find that

$$f_2 = f_1 + f_0 = 1 + 0 = 1,$$
$$f_3 = f_2 + f_1 = 1 + 1 = 2,$$
$$f_4 = f_3 + f_2 = 2 + 1 = 3,$$
$$f_5 = f_4 + f_3 = 3 + 2 = 5,$$
$$f_6 = f_5 + f_4 = 5 + 3 = 8.$$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Recurrence Relations

EXAMPLE 8 Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ is the sequence of integers defined by $a_n = n!$, the value of the factorial function at the integer n, where $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$. Because $n! = n((n-1)(n-2)\ldots 2 \cdot 1) = n(n-1)! = na_{n-1}$, we see that the sequence of factorials satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = na_{n-1}$, together with the initial condition $a_1 = 1$. ◀

We say that we have solved the recurrence relation together with the initial conditions when we find an explicit formula, called a **closed formula**, for the terms of the sequence.

EXAMPLE 9 Determine whether the sequence $\{a_n\}$, where $a_n = 3n$ for every nonnegative integer n, is a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = 2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$ for $n = 2, 3, 4, \ldots$. Answer the same question where $a_n = 2^n$ and where $a_n = 5$.

Solution: Suppose that $a_n = 3n$ for every nonnegative integer n. Then, for $n \geq 2$, we see that $2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2} = 2(3(n-1)) - 3(n-2) = 3n = a_n$. Therefore, $\{a_n\}$, where $a_n = 3n$, is a solution of the recurrence relation.

Suppose that $a_n = 2^n$ for every nonnegative integer n. Note that $a_0 = 1, a_1 = 2$, and $a_2 = 4$. Because $2a_1 - a_0 = 2 \cdot 2 - 1 = 3 \neq a_2$, we see that $\{a_n\}$, where $a_n = 2^n$, is not a solution of the recurrence relation.

Suppose that $a_n = 5$ for every nonnegative integer n. Then for $n \geq 2$, we see that $a_n = 2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2} = 2 \cdot 5 - 5 = 5 = a_n$. Therefore, $\{a_n\}$, where $a_n = 5$, is a solution of the recurrence relation. ◀

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Special Integer Sequences

EXAMPLE 12 Find formulae for the sequences with the following first five terms: (a) 1, 1/2, 1/4, 1/8, 1/16 (b) 1, 3, 5, 7, 9 (c) 1, −1, 1, −1, 1.

Extra Examples

Solution: (a) We recognize that the denominators are powers of 2. The sequence with $a_n = 1/2^n$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ is a possible match. This proposed sequence is a geometric progression with $a = 1$ and $r = 1/2$.

(b) We note that each term is obtained by adding 2 to the previous term. The sequence with $a_n = 2n + 1$, $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ is a possible match. This proposed sequence is an arithmetic progression with $a = 1$ and $d = 2$.

(c) The terms alternate between 1 and −1. The sequence with $a_n = (-1)^n$, $n = 0, 1, 2 \ldots$ is a possible match. This proposed sequence is a geometric progression with $a = 1$ and $r = -1$.

EXAMPLE 14 How can we produce the terms of a sequence if the first 10 terms are 5, 11, 17, 23, 29, 35, 41, 47, 53, 59?

Solution: Note that each of the first 10 terms of this sequence after the first is obtained by adding 6 to the previous term. (We could see this by noticing that the difference between consecutive terms is 6.) Consequently, the nth term could be produced by starting with 5 and adding 6 a total of $n - 1$ times; that is, a reasonable guess is that the nth term is $5 + 6(n - 1) = 6n - 1$. (This is an arithmetic progression with $a = 5$ and $d = 6$.)

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Special Integer Sequences

TABLE 1 Some Useful Sequences.

nth Term	*First 10 Terms*
n^2	1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100, . . .
n^3	1, 8, 27, 64, 125, 216, 343, 512, 729, 1000, . . .
n^4	1, 16, 81, 256, 625, 1296, 2401, 4096, 6561, 10000, . . .
2^n	2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024, . . .
3^n	3, 9, 27, 81, 243, 729, 2187, 6561, 19683, 59049, . . .
$n!$	1, 2, 6, 24, 120, 720, 5040, 40320, 362880, 3628800, . . .
f_n	1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, . . .

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Summations
  - Next, we consider the addition of the terms of a sequence. For this we introduce summation notation.

$$a_m, a_{m+1}, \ldots, a_n$$

from the sequence $\{a_n\}$. We use the notation

$$\sum_{j=m}^{n} a_j, \qquad \sum_{j=m}^{n} a_j, \qquad \text{or} \qquad \sum_{m \le j \le n} a_j$$

(read as the sum from $j = m$ to $j = n$ of a_j) to represent

$$a_m + a_{m+1} + \cdots + a_n.$$

Here, the variable j is called the **index of summation**, and the choice of the letter j as the variable is arbitrary; that is, we could have used any other letter, such as i or k. Or, in notation,

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Summations

EXAMPLE 17 Use summation notation to express the sum of the first 100 terms of the sequence $\{a_j\}$, where $a_j = 1/j$ for $j = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$.

Extra Examples

Solution: The lower limit for the index of summation is 1, and the upper limit is 100. We write this sum as

$$\sum_{j=1}^{100} \frac{1}{j}.$$

EXAMPLE 19 What is the value of $\sum_{k=4}^{8}(-1)^k$?

Solution: We have

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=4}^{8}(-1)^k &= (-1)^4 + (-1)^5 + (-1)^6 + (-1)^7 + (-1)^8 \\ &= 1 + (-1) + 1 + (-1) + 1 \\ &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Summations

EXAMPLE 20 Suppose we have the sum

$$\sum_{j=1}^{5} j^2$$

but want the index of summation to run between 0 and 4 rather than from 1 to 5. To do this, we let $k = j - 1$. Then the new summation index runs from 0 (because $k = 1 - 0 = 0$ when $j = 1$) to 4 (because $k = 5 - 1 = 4$ when $j = 5$), and the term j^2 becomes $(k + 1)^2$. Hence,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{5} j^2 = \sum_{k=0}^{4} (k + 1)^2.$$

It is easily checked that both sums are $1 + 4 + 9 + 16 + 25 = 55$. ◀

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Summations

Sums of terms of geometric progressions commonly arise (such sums are called **geometric series**). Theorem 1 gives us a formula for the sum of terms of a geometric progression.

THEOREM 1

If a and r are real numbers and $r \neq 0$, then

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n} ar^j = \begin{cases} \dfrac{ar^{n+1} - a}{r - 1} & \text{if } r \neq 1 \\ (n+1)a & \text{if } r = 1. \end{cases}$$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

TABLE 2 Some Useful Summation Formulae.

Sum	*Closed Form*
$\sum_{k=0}^{n} ar^k \ (r \neq 0)$	$\frac{ar^{n+1} - a}{r - 1}, r \neq 1$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k$	$\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2$	$\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^3$	$\frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$
$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k, \lvert x \rvert < 1$	$\frac{1}{1-x}$
$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} kx^{k-1}, \lvert x \rvert < 1$	$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Summations

EXAMPLE 22 What is the value of $\sum_{s \in \{0,2,4\}} s$?

Solution: Because $\sum_{s \in \{0,2,4\}} s$ represents the sum of the values of s for all the members of the set $\{0, 2, 4\}$, it follows that

$$\sum_{s \in \{0,2,4\}} s = 0 + 2 + 4 = 6.$$

EXAMPLE 23 Find $\sum_{k=50}^{100} k^2$.

Solution: First note that because $\sum_{k=1}^{100} k^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{49} k^2 + \sum_{k=50}^{100} k^2$, we have

$$\sum_{k=50}^{100} k^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{100} k^2 - \sum_{k=1}^{49} k^2.$$

Using the formula $\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$ from Table 2 (and proved in Exercise 38), we see that

$$\sum_{k=50}^{100} k^2 = \frac{100 \cdot 101 \cdot 201}{6} - \frac{49 \cdot 50 \cdot 99}{6} = 338{,}350 - 40{,}425 = 297{,}925.$$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Exercises
  - Brief
    - This exercise set contains a lot of routine practice with the concept of and notation for sequences.
    - It also discusses telescoping sums; the product notation, corresponding to the summation notation discussed in the section; and the factorial function, which occurs repeatedly in subsequent chapters.

1. Find these terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}$, where $a_n = 2 \cdot (-3)^n + 5^n$.

a) a_0 **b)** a_1 **c)** a_4 **d)** a_5

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Exercises

5. List the first 10 terms of each of these sequences.

a) the sequence that begins with 2 and in which each successive term is 3 more than the preceding term

b) the sequence that lists each positive integer three times, in increasing order

c) the sequence that lists the odd positive integers in increasing order, listing each odd integer twice

d) the sequence whose nth term is $n! - 2^n$

e) the sequence that begins with 3, where each succeeding term is twice the preceding term

f) the sequence whose first term is 2, second term is 4, and each succeeding term is the sum of the two preceding terms

g) the sequence whose nth term is the number of bits in the binary expansion of the number n (defined in Section 4.2)

h) the sequence where the nth term is the number of letters in the English word for the index n

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Exercises

9. Find the first five terms of the sequence defined by each of these recurrence relations and initial conditions.

a) $a_n = 6a_{n-1}, a_0 = 2$
b) $a_n = a_{n-1}^2, a_1 = 2$
c) $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3a_{n-2}, a_0 = 1, a_1 = 2$
d) $a_n = na_{n-1} + n^2a_{n-2}, a_0 = 1, a_1 = 1$
e) $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-3}, a_0 = 1, a_1 = 2, a_2 = 0$

13. Is the sequence $\{a_n\}$ a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = 8a_{n-1} - 16a_{n-2}$ if

a) $a_n = 0$?
b) $a_n = 1$?
c) $a_n = 2^n$?
d) $a_n = 4^n$?
e) $a_n = n4^n$?
f) $a_n = 2 \cdot 4^n + 3n4^n$?
g) $a_n = (-4)^n$?
h) $a_n = n^2 4^n$?

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Exercises

21. A factory makes custom sports cars at an increasing rate. In the first month only one car is made, in the second month two cars are made, and so on, with n cars made in the nth month.

a) Set up a recurrence relation for the number of cars produced in the first n months by this factory.

b) How many cars are produced in the first year?

c) Find an explicit formula for the number of cars produced in the first n months by this factory.

31. What is the value of each of these sums of terms of a geometric progression?

a) $\sum_{j=0}^{8} 3 \cdot 2^j$

b) $\sum_{j=1}^{8} 2^j$

c) $\sum_{j=2}^{8} (-3)^j$

d) $\sum_{j=0}^{8} 2 \cdot (-3)^j$

2.4 Sequences and Summations

- Exercises

35. Show that $\sum_{j=1}^{n}(a_j - a_{j-1}) = a_n - a_0$, where $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n$ is a sequence of real numbers. This type of sum is called **telescoping**.

39. Find $\sum_{k=100}^{200} k$. (Use Table 2.)

40. Find $\sum_{k=99}^{200} k^3$. (Use Table 2.)

43. What are the values of the following products?

a) $\prod_{i=0}^{10} i$ **b)** $\prod_{i=5}^{8} i$

c) $\prod_{i=1}^{100}(-1)^i$ **d)** $\prod_{i=1}^{10} 2$

Recall that the value of the factorial function at a positive integer n, denoted by $n!$, is the product of the positive integers from 1 to n, inclusive. Also, we specify that $0! = 1$.

45. Find $\sum_{j=0}^{4} j!$.

Chapter 3
Algorithms

Introduction

- We study **algorithms** for **solving** many different types of problems…
- In this chapter we will introduce algorithms for two of the most important problems in **computer science**, **searching for an element in a list** and **sorting** a list so its elements are in some **prescribed order**, such as increasing, decreasing, or alphabetic…
- We can also develop algorithms that **find the greatest common divisor** of two integers, that generate all the orderings of a finite set, that find the shortest path between nodes in a network, and for solving many other problems…
- **Proofs are important** in the study of algorithms.
- One important consideration concerning an algorithm is its **computational complexity**, which measures the **processing time** and **computer memory required** by the algorithm to solve problems of a particular size.

Chapter 3: Algorithms

3.1 Algorithms

- Introduction
  - There are many general classes of problems that arise in discrete mathematics. For instance: given a sequence of integers, find the largest one; given a set, list all its subsets; given a set of integers, put them in increasing order; given a network, find the shortest path between two vertices.
  - When presented with such a problem, the first thing to do is to **construct a model that translates the problem into a mathematical context.**
  - Setting up the appropriate mathematical model is only part of the solution. To complete the solution, a method is needed that will solve the general problem using the model.
  - Ideally, what is required is a procedure that **follows a sequence of steps** that leads to the desired answer. Such a sequence of steps is called an **algorithm.**

3.1 Algorithms

- Introduction

An *algorithm* is a finite sequence of precise instructions for performing a computation or for solving a problem.

ABU JA'FAR MOHAMMED IBN MUSA AL-KHOWARIZMI (C. 780 – C. 850) al-Khowarizmi, an astronomer and mathematician, was a member of the House of Wisdom, an academy of scientists in Baghdad. The name al-Khowarizmi means "from the town of Kowarzizm," which was then part of Persia, but is now called *Khiva* and is part of Uzbekistan. al-Khowarizmi wrote books on mathematics, astronomy, and geography. Western Europeans first learned about algebra from his works. The word *algebra* comes from al-jabr, part of the title of his book *Kitab al-jabr w'al muquabala*. This book was translated into Latin and was a widely used textbook. His book on the use of Hindu numerals describes procedures for arithmetic operations using these numerals. European authors used a Latin corruption of his name, which later evolved to the word *algorithm*, to describe the subject of arithmetic with Hindu numerals.

3.1 Algorithms

- Introduction

EXAMPLE 1 Describe an algorithm for finding the maximum (largest) value in a finite sequence of integers.

Even though the problem of finding the maximum element in a sequence is relatively trivial, it provides a good illustration of the concept of an algorithm. Also, there are many instances where the largest integer in a finite sequence of integers is required. For instance, a university may need to find the highest score on a competitive exam taken by thousands of students. Or a sports organization may want to identify the member with the highest rating each month. We want to develop an algorithm that can be used whenever the problem of finding the largest element in a finite sequence of integers arises.

We can specify a procedure for solving this problem in several ways. One method is simply to use the English language to describe the sequence of steps used. We now provide such a solution.

Solution of Example 1: We perform the following steps.

1. Set the temporary maximum equal to the first integer in the sequence. (The temporary maximum will be the largest integer examined at any stage of the procedure.)
2. Compare the next integer in the sequence to the temporary maximum, and if it is larger than the temporary maximum, set the temporary maximum equal to this integer.
3. Repeat the previous step if there are more integers in the sequence.
4. Stop when there are no integers left in the sequence. The temporary maximum at this point is the largest integer in the sequence.

3.1 Algorithms

- Introduction (pseudocode)

The algorithms in this text are described both in English and in **pseudocode**. Pseudocode is an intermediate step between an English language description of the steps of a procedure and a specification of this procedure using an actual programming language. The advantages of using pseudocode include the simplicity with which it can be written and understood and the ease of producing actual computer code (in a variety of programming languages) from the pseudocode. We will describe the particular types of **statements**, or high-level instructions, of the pseudocode that we will use. Each of these statements in pseudocode can be translated into one or more statements in a particular programming language, which in turn can be translated into one or more (possibly many) low-level instructions for a computer.

This appendix describes the format and syntax of the pseudocode used in the text. This pseudocode is designed so that its basic structure resembles that of commonly used programming languages, such as C++ and Java, which are currently the most commonly taught programming languages. However, the pseudocode we use will be a lot looser than a formal programming language because a lot of English language descriptions of steps will be allowed.

This appendix is not meant for formal study. Rather, it should serve as a reference guide for students when they study the descriptions of algorithms given in the text and when they write pseudocode solutions to exercises.

3.1 Algorithms

- Introduction

ALGORITHM 1 Finding the Maximum Element in a Finite Sequence.

procedure $max(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$: integers)
$max := a_1$
for $i := 2$ **to** n
    if $max < a_i$ **then** $max := a_i$
return max {max is the largest element}

This algorithm first assigns the initial term of the sequence, a_1, to the variable max. The "for" loop is used to successively examine terms of the sequence. If a term is greater than the current value of max, it is assigned to be the new value of max.

3.1 Algorithms

- Introduction

PROPERTIES OF ALGORITHMS There are several properties that algorithms generally share. They are useful to keep in mind when algorithms are described. These properties are:

- *Input.* An algorithm has input values from a specified set.
- *Output.* From each set of input values an algorithm produces output values from a specified set. The output values are the solution to the problem.
- *Definiteness.* The steps of an algorithm must be defined precisely.
- *Correctness.* An algorithm should produce the correct output values for each set of input values.
- *Finiteness.* An algorithm should produce the desired output after a finite (but perhaps large) number of steps for any input in the set.
- *Effectiveness.* It must be possible to perform each step of an algorithm exactly and in a finite amount of time.
- *Generality.* The procedure should be applicable for all problems of the desired form, not just for a particular set of input values.

3.1 Algorithms

- Searching Algorithms

  - The problem of locating an element in an ordered list occurs in many contexts. For instance, a program that checks the spelling of words searches for them in a dictionary, which is just an ordered list of words. Problems of this kind are called **searching problems**.

  - The general searching problem can be described as follows:

  – Locate an element x in a list of distinct elements $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$, or determine that it is not in the list.

  – The solution to this search problem is the location of the term in the list that equals x (that is, i is the solution if $x = a_i$) and is 0 if x is not in the list.

3.1 Algorithms

THE LINEAR SEARCH The first algorithm that we will present is called the **linear search**, or **sequential search**, algorithm. The linear search algorithm begins by comparing x and a_1. When $x = a_1$, the solution is the location of a_1, namely, 1. When $x \neq a_1$, compare x with a_2. If $x = a_2$, the solution is the location of a_2, namely, 2. When $x \neq a_2$, compare x with a_3. Continue this process, comparing x successively with each term of the list until a match is found, where the solution is the location of that term, unless no match occurs. If the entire list has been searched without locating x, the solution is 0. The pseudocode for the linear search algorithm is displayed as Algorithm 2.

ALGORITHM 2 The Linear Search Algorithm.

procedure *linear search*(x: integer, $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$: distinct integers)
$i := 1$
while ($i \leq n$ and $x \neq a_i$)
    $i := i + 1$
if $i \leq n$ **then** *location* $:= i$
else *location* $:= 0$
return *location* {*location* is the subscript of the term that equals x, or is 0 if x is not found}

3.1 Algorithms

- Searching Algorithms

THE BINARY SEARCH We will now consider another searching algorithm. This algorithm can be used when the list has terms occurring in order of increasing size (for instance: if the terms are numbers, they are listed from smallest to largest; if they are words, they are listed in lexicographic, or alphabetic, order). This second searching algorithm is called the **binary search algorithm**. It proceeds by comparing the element to be located to the middle term of the list. The list is then split into two smaller sublists of the same size, or where one of these smaller lists has one fewer term than the other. The search continues by restricting the search to the appropriate sublist based on the comparison of the element to be located and the middle term. In Section 3.3, it will be shown that the binary search algorithm is much more efficient than the linear search algorithm. Example 3 demonstrates how a binary search works.

To search for 19 in the list

1 2 3 5 6 7 8 10 12 13 15 16 18 19 20 22,

first split this list, which has 16 terms, into two smaller lists with eight terms each, namely,

1 2 3 5 6 7 8 10 12 13 15 16 18 19 20 22.

Then, compare 19 and the largest term in the first list. Because $10 < 19$, the search for 19 can be restricted to the list containing the 9th through the 16th terms of the original list. Next, split this list, which has eight terms, into the two smaller lists of four terms each, namely,

12 13 15 16 18 19 20 22.

Because $16 < 19$ (comparing 19 with the largest term of the first list) the search is restricted to the second of these lists, which contains the 13th through the 16th terms of the original list. The list 18 19 20 22 is split into two lists, namely,

18 19 20 22.

Because 19 is not greater than the largest term of the first of these two lists, which is also 19, the search is restricted to the first list: 18 19, which contains the 13th and 14th terms of the original list. Next, this list of two terms is split into two lists of one term each: 18 and 19. Because $18 < 19$, the search is restricted to the second list: the list containing the 14th term of the list, which is 19. Now that the search has been narrowed down to one term, a comparison is made, and 19 is located as the 14th term in the original list.

We now specify the steps of the binary search algorithm. To search for the integer x in the list $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$, where $a_1 < a_2 < \cdots < a_n$, begin by comparing x with the middle term a_m of the list, where $m = \lfloor (n+1)/2 \rfloor$. (Recall that $\lfloor x \rfloor$ is the greatest integer not exceeding x.) If $x > a_m$, the search for x is restricted to the second half of the list, which is $a_{m+1}, a_{m+2}, \ldots, a_n$. If x is not greater than a_m, the search for x is restricted to the first half of the list, which is $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_m$.

The search has now been restricted to a list with no more than $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ elements. (Recall that $\lceil x \rceil$ is the smallest integer greater than or equal to x.) Using the same procedure, compare x to the middle term of the restricted list. Then restrict the search to the first or second half of the list. Repeat this process until a list with one term is obtained. Then determine whether this term is x. Pseudocode for the binary search algorithm is displayed as Algorithm 3.

ALGORITHM 3 The Binary Search Algorithm.

procedure *binary search* (x: integer, $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$: increasing integers)
$i := 1$ {i is left endpoint of search interval}
$j := n$ {j is right endpoint of search interval}
while $i < j$
    $m := \lfloor (i+j)/2 \rfloor$
    if $x > a_m$ **then** $i := m + 1$
    else $j := m$
if $x = a_i$ **then** *location* $:= i$
else *location* $:= 0$
return *location* {*location* is the subscript i of the term a_i equal to x, or 0 if x is not found}

3.1 Algorithms

- Sorting

  - Ordering the elements of a list is a problem that occurs in many contexts. For example, putting addresses in order in an e-mail mailing list can determine whether there are duplicated addresses. Similarly, generating a parts list requires that we order them according to increasing part number.

  - Suppose that we have a list of elements of a set. Furthermore, suppose that we have a way to order elements of the set. **Sorting** is putting these elements into a list in which the elements are in increasing order.
  - For instance, sorting the list 7, 2, 1, 4, 5, 9 produces the list 1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 9. Sorting the list d, h, c, a, f (using alphabetical order) produces the list a, c, d, f, h.

  - Sorting is thought to hold the **record as the problem solved** by the most fundamentally **different algorithms!**

3.1 Algorithms

- Sorting

THE BUBBLE SORT The **bubble sort** is one of the simplest sorting algorithms, but not one of the most efficient. It puts a list into increasing order by successively comparing adjacent elements, interchanging them if they are in the wrong order. To carry out the bubble sort, we perform the basic operation, that is, interchanging a larger element with a smaller one following it, starting at the beginning of the list, for a full pass. We iterate this procedure until the sort is complete. Pseudocode for the bubble sort is given as Algorithm 4. We can imagine the elements in the list placed in a column. In the bubble sort, the smaller elements "bubble" to the top as they are interchanged with larger elements. The larger elements "sink" to the bottom. This is illustrated in Example 4.

3.1 Algorithms

- Sorting

EXAMPLE 4 Use the bubble sort to put 3, 2, 4, 1, 5 into increasing order.

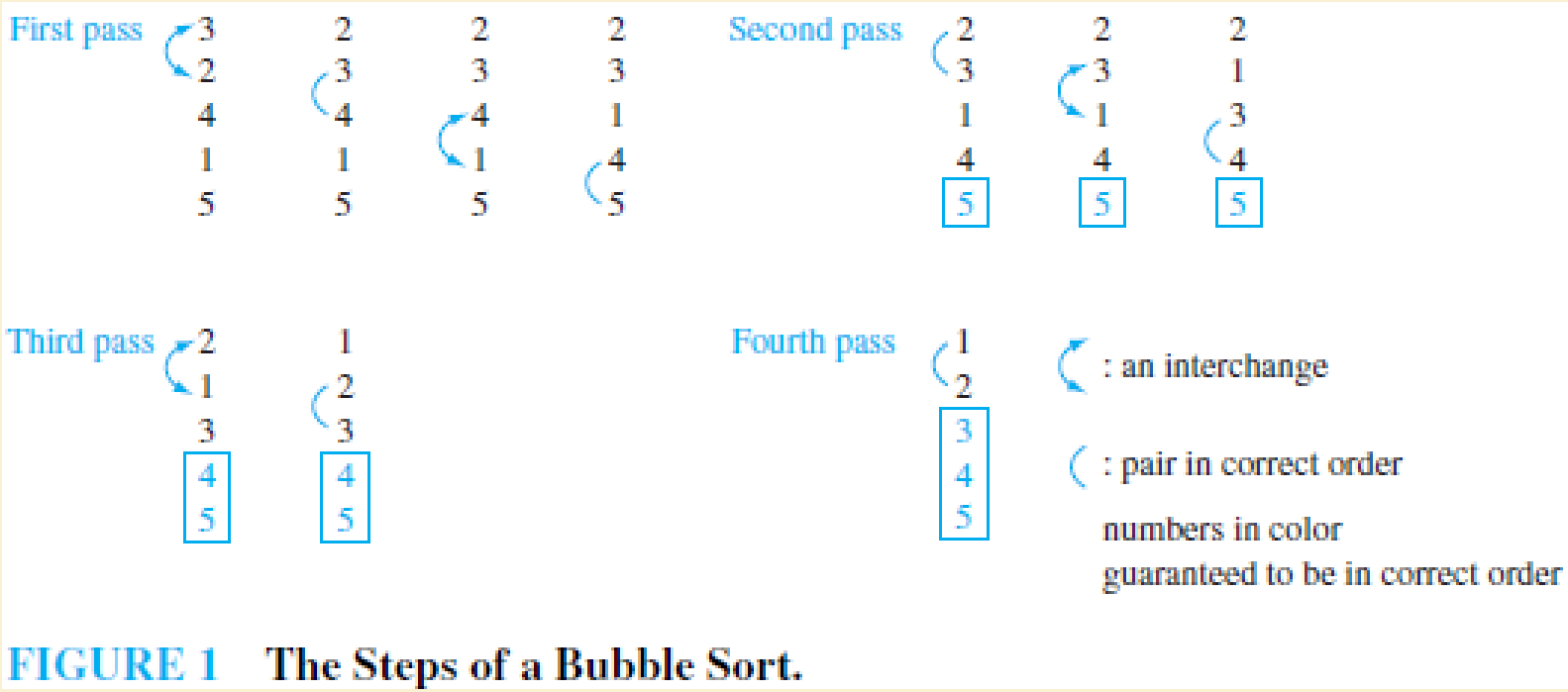


FIGURE 1 The Steps of a Bubble Sort.

3.1 Algorithms

- Sorting

ALGORITHM 4 The Bubble Sort.

procedure *bubblesort*($a_1, \ldots, a_n$: real numbers with $n \geq 2$)
for $i := 1$ **to** $n - 1$
    for $j := 1$ **to** $n - i$
        if $a_j > a_{j+1}$ **then** interchange a_j and a_{j+1}
{$a_1, \ldots, a_n$ is in increasing order}

3.1 Algorithms

- Sorting

THE INSERTION SORT The **insertion sort** is a simple sorting algorithm, but it is usually not the most efficient. To sort a list with n elements, the insertion sort begins with the second element. The insertion sort compares this second element with the first element and inserts it before the first element if it does not exceed the first element and after the first element if it exceeds the first element. At this point, the first two elements are in the correct order. The third element is then compared with the first element, and if it is larger than the first element, it is compared with the second element; it is inserted into the correct position among the first three elements.

EXAMPLE 5 Use the insertion sort to put the elements of the list 3, 2, 4, 1, 5 in increasing order.

Solution: The insertion sort first compares 2 and 3. Because $3 > 2$, it places 2 in the first position, producing the list 2, 3, 4, 1, 5 (the sorted part of the list is shown in color). At this point, 2 and 3 are in the correct order. Next, it inserts the third element, 4, into the already sorted part of the list by making the comparisons $4 > 2$ and $4 > 3$. Because $4 > 3$, 4 remains in the third position. At this point, the list is 2, 3, 4, 1, 5 and we know that the ordering of the first three elements is correct. Next, we find the correct place for the fourth element, 1, among the already sorted elements, 2, 3, 4. Because $1 < 2$, we obtain the list 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. Finally, we insert 5 into the correct position by successively comparing it to 1, 2, 3, and 4. Because $5 > 4$, it stays at the end of the list, producing the correct order for the entire list. ◀

3.1 Algorithms

- Sorting

ALGORITHM 5 The Insertion Sort.

procedure *insertion sort*($a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$: real numbers with $n \geq 2$)
for $j := 2$ **to** n
    $i := 1$
    while $a_j > a_i$
        $i := i + 1$
    $m := a_j$
    for $k := 0$ **to** $j - i - 1$
        $a_{j-k} := a_{j-k-1}$
    $a_i := m$
{$a_1, \ldots, a_n$ is in increasing order}

3.1 Algorithms

- Exercises
  - Brief
    - Many of the exercises here are actually miniature programming assignments.
    - Since this is not a book on programming we have glossed over some of the finer points. For example, there are (at least) two ways to pass variables to procedures-by value and by reference. In the former case the original values of the arguments are not changed. In the latter case they are.
    - In most cases we will assume that arguments are passed by reference. None of these exercises are tricky; they just give the reader a chance to become familiar with algorithms written in pseudocode.

3.1 Algorithms

- Exercises

1. List all the steps used by Algorithm 1 to find the maximum of the list 1, 8, 12, 9, 11, 2, 14, 5, 10, 4.

3. Devise an algorithm that finds the sum of all the integers in a list.

7. Describe an algorithm that takes as input a list of n integers and finds the location of the last even integer in the list or returns 0 if there are no even integers in the list.

9. A **palindrome** is a string that reads the same forward and backward. Describe an algorithm for determining whether a string of n characters is a palindrome.

3.1 Algorithms

- Exercises

17. Describe an algorithm that locates the first occurrence of the largest element in a finite list of integers, where the integers in the list are not necessarily distinct.

21. Describe an algorithm that puts the first three terms of a sequence of integers of arbitrary length in increasing order.

25. Describe an algorithm that will count the number of 1s in a bit string by examining each bit of the string to determine whether it is a 1 bit.

33. Devise an algorithm that finds the first term of a sequence of positive integers that is less than the immediately preceding term of the sequence.

Chapter 4
Number Theory and Cryptography

Introduction

- The part of mathematics devoted to the study of the **set of integers** and their properties is known as **number theory**. We will develop some of the important **concepts** of number theory including many of those used in computer science.
- We will first introduce the notion of divisibility of integers, which we use to introduce modular arithmetic. **Modular arithmetic** operates with the remainders of integers when they are divided by a fixed positive integer, called the modulus.
- Integers can be represented with any positive integer b greater than 1 as a **base**. In this chapter we discuss **base b representations** of integers and give an **algorithm for finding them**.
- We will discuss **prime numbers**, the positive integers that have only 1 and themselves as positive divisors.

- We also introduce the subject of **cryptography**. Number theory plays an essentially role both in classical cryptography, first used thousands of years ago, and modern cryptography, which plays an essential role in **electronic communication**(computer and Internet security).

Chapter 4: Number Theory and Cryptography

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Introduction

  – Division of an integer by a positive integer produces a quotient and a remainder. Working with these remainders leads to modular arithmetic, which plays an important role in mathematics and which is used throughout computer science.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Division

If a and b are integers with $a \neq 0$, we say that a *divides* b if there is an integer c such that $b = ac$, or equivalently, if $\frac{b}{a}$ is an integer. When a divides b we say that a is a *factor* or *divisor* of b, and that b is a *multiple* of a. The notation $a \mid b$ denotes that a divides b. We write $a \nmid b$ when a does not divide b.

EXAMPLE 2 Let n and d be positive integers. How many positive integers not exceeding n are divisible by d?

Solution: The positive integers divisible by d are all the integers of the form dk, where k is a positive integer. Hence, the number of positive integers divisible by d that do not exceed n equals the number of integers k with $0 < dk \leq n$, or with $0 < k \leq n/d$. Therefore, there are $\lfloor n/d \rfloor$ positive integers not exceeding n that are divisible by d. ◀

Extra Examples

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Division

Let a, b, and c be integers, where $a \neq 0$. Then

(*i*) if $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (b + c)$;
(*ii*) if $a \mid b$, then $a \mid bc$ for all integers c;
(*iii*) if $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$.

If a, b, and c are integers, where $a \neq 0$, such that $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid mb + nc$ whenever m and n are integers.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- The Division Algorithm

THE DIVISION ALGORITHM Let a be an integer and d a positive integer. Then there are unique integers q and r, with $0 \leq r < d$, such that $a = dq + r$.

Remark: Theorem 2 is not really an algorithm. (Why not?) Nevertheless, we use its traditional name.

In the equality given in the division algorithm, d is called the *divisor*, a is called the *dividend*, q is called the *quotient*, and r is called the *remainder*. This notation is used to express the quotient and remainder:

$$q = a \operatorname{div} d, \quad r = a \bmod d.$$

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- The Division Algorithm

EXAMPLE 4 What are the quotient and remainder when -11 is divided by 3?

Solution: We have

$$-11 = 3(-4) + 1.$$

Extra Examples

Hence, the quotient when -11 is divided by 3 is $-4 = -11$ **div** 3, and the remainder is $1 = -11$ **mod** 3.

Note that the remainder cannot be negative. Consequently, the remainder is *not* -2, even though

$$-11 = 3(-3) - 2,$$

because $r = -2$ does not satisfy $0 \leq r < 3$.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Modular Arithmetic
  - In some situations we care only about the remainder of an integer when it is divided by some specified positive integer.
  - For instance, when we ask what time it will be (on a 24-hour clock) 50 hours from now, we care only about the remainder when 50 plus the current hour is divided by 24.
  - Because we are often interested only in remainders, we have special notations for them. We have already introduced the notation a **mod** m to represent the remainder when an integer a is divided by the positive integer m.
  - We now introduce a different, but related, notation that indicates that two integers have the same remainder when they are divided by the positive integer m.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Modular Arithmetic

If a and b are integers and m is a positive integer, then a is *congruent to b modulo m* if m divides $a - b$. We use the notation $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ to indicate that a is congruent to b modulo m. We say that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ is a **congruence** and that m is its **modulus** (plural **moduli**). If a and b are not congruent modulo m, we write $a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Let a and b be integers, and let m be a positive integer. Then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a \bmod m = b \bmod m$.

EXAMPLE 5 Determine whether 17 is congruent to 5 modulo 6 and whether 24 and 14 are congruent modulo 6.

Solution: Because 6 divides $17 - 5 = 12$, we see that $17 \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$. However, because $24 - 14 = 10$ is not divisible by 6, we see that $24 \not\equiv 14 \pmod{6}$. ◀

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Modular Arithmetic

Let m be a positive integer. The integers a and b are congruent modulo m if and only if there is an integer k such that $a = b + km$.

Let m be a positive integer. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m} \quad \text{and} \quad ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}.$$

EXAMPLE 6 Because $7 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ and $11 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$, it follows from Theorem 5 that

$$18 = 7 + 11 \equiv 2 + 1 = 3 \pmod{5}$$

and that

$$77 = 7 \cdot 11 \equiv 2 \cdot 1 = 2 \pmod{5}.$$

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Modular Arithmetic

Let m be a positive integer and let a and b be integers. Then

$$(a + b) \bmod m = ((a \bmod m) + (b \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

and

$$ab \bmod m = ((a \bmod m)(b \bmod m)) \bmod m.$$

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Arithmetic Modulo m

We can define arithmetic operations on $\mathbf{Z}_m$, the set of nonnegative integers less than m, that is, the set $\{0, 1, \ldots, m-1\}$. In particular, we define addition of these integers, denoted by $+_m$ by

$$a +_m b = (a + b) \bmod m,$$

where the addition on the right-hand side of this equation is the ordinary addition of integers, and we define multiplication of these integers, denoted by $\cdot_m$ by

$$a \cdot_m b = (a \cdot b) \bmod m,$$

where the multiplication on the right-hand side of this equation is the ordinary multiplication of integers. The operations $+_m$ and $\cdot_m$ are called addition and multiplication modulo m and when we use these operations, we are said to be doing **arithmetic modulo** m.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Arithmetic Modulo m

EXAMPLE 7 Use the definition of addition and multiplication in $\mathbf{Z}_m$ to find $7 +_{11} 9$ and $7 \cdot_{11} 9$.

Solution: Using the definition of addition modulo 11, we find that

$$7 +_{11} 9 = (7 + 9) \bmod 11 = 16 \bmod 11 = 5,$$

and

$$7 \cdot_{11} 9 = (7 \cdot 9) \bmod 11 = 63 \bmod 11 = 8.$$

Hence $7 +_{11} 9 = 5$ and $7 \cdot_{11} 9 = 8$.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Arithmetic Modulo m

Closure If a and b belong to $\mathbf{Z}_m$, then $a +_m b$ and $a \cdot_m b$ belong to $\mathbf{Z}_m$.

Associativity If a, b, and c belong to $\mathbf{Z}_m$, then $(a +_m b) +_m c = a +_m (b +_m c)$ and $(a \cdot_m b) \cdot_m c = a \cdot_m (b \cdot_m c)$.

Commutativity If a and b belong to $\mathbf{Z}_m$, then $a +_m b = b +_m a$ and $a \cdot_m b = b \cdot_m a$.

Identity elements The elements 0 and 1 are identity elements for addition and multiplication modulo m, respectively. That is, if a belongs to $\mathbf{Z}_m$, then $a +_m 0 = 0 +_m a = a$ and $a \cdot_m 1 = 1 \cdot_m a = a$.

Additive inverses If $a \neq 0$ belongs to $\mathbf{Z}_m$, then $m - a$ is an additive inverse of a modulo m and 0 is its own additive inverse. That is $a +_m (m - a) = 0$ and $0 +_m 0 = 0$.

Distributivity If a, b, and c belong to $\mathbf{Z}_m$, then $a \cdot_m (b +_m c) = (a \cdot_m b) +_m (a \cdot_m c)$ and $(a +_m b) \cdot_m c = (a \cdot_m c) +_m (b \cdot_m c)$.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Exercises
  - Brief
    - Number theory is playing an increasingly important role in computer science. This section and these exercises just scratch the surface of what is relevant. Many of these exercises are simply a matter of applying definitions.
    - In many contexts in mathematics and computer science, modular arithmetic is more relevant and convenient than ordinary integer arithmetic.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Exercises

3. Prove that part (*ii*) of Theorem 1 is true.

5. Show that if $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$, where a and b are integers, then $a = b$ or $a = -b$.

7. Show that if a, b, and c are integers, where $a \neq 0$ and $c \neq 0$, such that $ac \mid bc$, then $a \mid b$.

13. Suppose that a and b are integers, $a \equiv 4 \pmod{13}$, and $b \equiv 9 \pmod{13}$. Find the integer c with $0 \leq c \leq 12$ such that

a) $c \equiv 9a \pmod{13}$.
b) $c \equiv 11b \pmod{13}$.
c) $c \equiv a + b \pmod{13}$.
d) $c \equiv 2a + 3b \pmod{13}$.
e) $c \equiv a^2 + b^2 \pmod{13}$.
f) $c \equiv a^3 - b^3 \pmod{13}$.

4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

- Exercises

23. Find a **div** m and a **mod** m when

a) $a = 228, m = 119.$

b) $a = 9009, m = 223.$

c) $a = -10101, m = 333.$

d) $a = -765432, m = 38271.$

25. Find the integer a such that

a) $a \equiv -15 \pmod{27}$ and $-26 \leq a \leq 0.$

b) $a \equiv 24 \pmod{31}$ and $-15 \leq a \leq 15.$

c) $a \equiv 99 \pmod{41}$ and $100 \leq a \leq 140.$

35. Show that if $n \mid m$, where n and m are integers greater than 1, and if $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, where a and b are integers, then $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Introduction

  - Integers can be expressed using any integer greater than one as a base, as we will show in this section.
  - Although we commonly use decimal (base 10), representations, binary (base 2), octal (base 8), and hexadecimal (base 16) representations are often used, especially in computer science.
  - Given a base b and an integer n, we will show how to construct the base b representation of this integer.
  - We will also explain how to quickly covert between binary and octal and between binary and hexadecimal notations.

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers

In everyday life we use decimal notation to express integers. For example, 965 is used to denote $9 \cdot 10^2 + 6 \cdot 10 + 5$. However, it is often convenient to use bases other than 10. In particular, computers usually use binary notation (with 2 as the base) when carrying out arithmetic, and octal (base 8) or hexadecimal (base 16) notation when expressing characters, such as letters or digits. In fact, we can use any integer greater than 1 as the base when expressing integers. This is stated in Theorem 1.

Let b be an integer greater than 1. Then if n is a positive integer, it can be expressed uniquely in the form

$$n = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \cdots + a_1 b + a_0,$$

where k is a nonnegative integer, $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_k$ are nonnegative integers less than b, and $a_k \neq 0$.

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers

BINARY EXPANSIONS Choosing 2 as the base gives **binary expansions** of integers. In binary notation each digit is either a 0 or a 1. In other words, the binary expansion of an integer is just a bit string. Binary expansions (and related expansions that are variants of binary expansions) are used by computers to represent and do arithmetic with integers.

EXAMPLE 1 What is the decimal expansion of the integer that has $(1\,0101\,1111)_2$ as its binary expansion?

Solution: We have

$$(1\,0101\,1111)_2 = 1 \cdot 2^8 + 0 \cdot 2^7 + 1 \cdot 2^6 + 0 \cdot 2^5 + 1 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 351.$$

◀

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers

OCTAL AND HEXADECIMAL EXPANSIONS Among the most important bases in computer science are base 2, base 8, and base 16. Base 8 expansions are called **octal** expansions and base 16 expansions are **hexadecimal** expansions.

EXAMPLE 2 What is the decimal expansion of the number with octal expansion $(7016)_8$?

Solution: Using the definition of a base b expansion with $b = 8$ tells us that

$$(7016)_8 = 7 \cdot 8^3 + 0 \cdot 8^2 + 1 \cdot 8 + 6 = 3598.$$

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers

Sixteen different digits are required for hexadecimal expansions. Usually, the hexadecimal digits used are 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, A, B, C, D, E, and F, where the letters A through F represent the digits corresponding to the numbers 10 through 15 (in decimal notation).

EXAMPLE 3 What is the decimal expansion of the number with hexadecimal expansion $(2AE0B)_{16}$?

Solution: Using the definition of a base b expansion with $b = 16$ tells us that

$$(2AE0B)_{16} = 2 \cdot 16^4 + 10 \cdot 16^3 + 14 \cdot 16^2 + 0 \cdot 16 + 11 = 175627.$$

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers

BASE CONVERSION We will now describe an algorithm for constructing the base b expansion of an integer n. First, divide n by b to obtain a quotient and remainder, that is,

$$n = bq_0 + a_0, \qquad 0 \leq a_0 < b.$$

The remainder, a_0, is the rightmost digit in the base b expansion of n. Next, divide q_0 by b to obtain

$$q_0 = bq_1 + a_1, \qquad 0 \leq a_1 < b.$$

We see that a_1 is the second digit from the right in the base b expansion of n. Continue this process, successively dividing the quotients by b, obtaining additional base b digits as the remainders. This process terminates when we obtain a quotient equal to zero. It produces the base b digits of n from the right to the left.

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers

EXAMPLE 4 Find the octal expansion of $(12345)_{10}$.

Extra Examples

Solution: First, divide 12345 by 8 to obtain

$$12345 = 8 \cdot 1543 + 1.$$

Successively dividing quotients by 8 gives

$$\begin{aligned} 1543 &= 8 \cdot 192 + 7, \\ 192 &= 8 \cdot 24 + 0, \\ 24 &= 8 \cdot 3 + 0, \\ 3 &= 8 \cdot 0 + 3. \end{aligned}$$

The successive remainders that we have found, 1, 7, 0, 0, and 3, are the digits from the right to the left of 12345 in base 8. Hence,

$$(12345)_{10} = (30071)_8.$$

EXAMPLE 6 Find the binary expansion of $(241)_{10}$.

Solution: First divide 241 by 2 to obtain

$$241 = 2 \cdot 120 + 1.$$

Successively dividing quotients by 2 gives

$$\begin{aligned} 120 &= 2 \cdot 60 + 0, \\ 60 &= 2 \cdot 30 + 0, \\ 30 &= 2 \cdot 15 + 0, \\ 15 &= 2 \cdot 7 + 1, \\ 7 &= 2 \cdot 3 + 1, \\ 3 &= 2 \cdot 1 + 1, \\ 1 &= 2 \cdot 0 + 1. \end{aligned}$$

The successive remainders that we have found, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, are the digits from the right to the left in the binary (base 2) expansion of $(241)_{10}$. Hence,

$$(241)_{10} = (1111\ 0001)_2.$$

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers

TABLE 1 Hexadecimal, Octal, and Binary Representation of the Integers 0 through 15.

Decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Hexadecimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
Octal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Binary	0	1	10	11	100	101	110	111	1000	1001	1010	1011	1100	1101	1110	1111

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers

The pseudocode given in Algorithm 1 finds the base b expansion $(a_{k-1} \ldots a_1 a_0)_b$ of the integer n.

ALGORITHM 1 Constructing Base b Expansions.

procedure *base b expansion*(n, b: positive integers with $b > 1$)
$q := n$
$k := 0$
while $q \neq 0$
    $a_k := q$ **mod** b
    $q := q$ **div** b
    $k := k + 1$
return $(a_{k-1}, \ldots, a_1, a_0)$ {$(a_{k-1} \ldots a_1 a_0)_b$ is the base b expansion of n}

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Algorithms for Integer Operations

ADDITION ALGORITHM Consider the problem of adding two integers in binary notation. A procedure to perform addition can be based on the usual method for adding numbers with pencil and paper. This method proceeds by adding pairs of binary digits together with carries, when they occur, to compute the sum of two integers. This procedure will now be specified in detail.

To add a and b, first add their rightmost bits. This gives

$$a_0 + b_0 = c_0 \cdot 2 + s_0,$$

where s_0 is the rightmost bit in the binary expansion of $a + b$ and c_0 is the **carry**, which is either 0 or 1. Then add the next pair of bits and the carry,

$$a_1 + b_1 + c_0 = c_1 \cdot 2 + s_1,$$

where s_1 is the next bit (from the right) in the binary expansion of $a + b$, and c_1 is the carry. Continue this process, adding the corresponding bits in the two binary expansions and the carry, to determine the next bit from the right in the binary expansion of $a + b$. At the last stage, add a_{n-1}, b_{n-1}, and c_{n-2} to obtain $c_{n-1} \cdot 2 + s_{n-1}$. The leading bit of the sum is $s_n = c_{n-1}$. This procedure produces the binary expansion of the sum, namely, $a + b = (s_n s_{n-1} s_{n-2} \ldots s_1 s_0)_2$.

EXAMPLE 8 Add $a = (1110)_2$ and $b = (1011)_2$.

Solution: Following the procedure specified in the algorithm, first note that

$$a_0 + b_0 = 0 + 1 = 0 \cdot 2 + 1,$$

so that $c_0 = 0$ and $s_0 = 1$. Then, because

$$a_1 + b_1 + c_0 = 1 + 1 + 0 = 1 \cdot 2 + 0,$$

it follows that $c_1 = 1$ and $s_1 = 0$. Continuing,

$$a_2 + b_2 + c_1 = 1 + 0 + 1 = 1 \cdot 2 + 0,$$

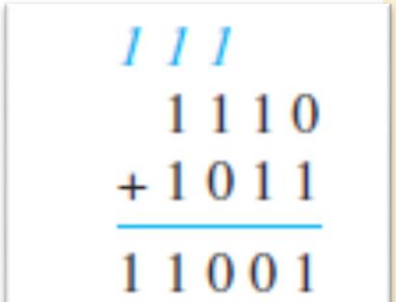


FIGURE 1 **Adding $(1110)_2$ and $(1011)_2$.**

so that $c_2 = 1$ and $s_2 = 0$. Finally, because

$$a_3 + b_3 + c_2 = 1 + 1 + 1 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1,$$

follows that $c_3 = 1$ and $s_3 = 1$. This means that $s_4 = c_3 = 1$. Therefore, $s = a + b = (1\,1001)_2$. This addition is displayed in Figure 1, where carries are shown in blue.

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Algorithms for Integer Operations

ALGORITHM 2 Addition of Integers.

procedure *add*(a, b: positive integers)
{the binary expansions of a and b are $(a_{n-1}a_{n-2}\ldots a_1a_0)_2$
and $(b_{n-1}b_{n-2}\ldots b_1b_0)_2$, respectively}
$c := 0$
for $j := 0$ **to** $n-1$
$d := \lfloor (a_j + b_j + c)/2 \rfloor$
$s_j := a_j + b_j + c - 2d$
$c := d$
$s_n := c$
return $(s_0, s_1, \ldots, s_n)$ {the binary expansion of the sum is $(s_n s_{n-1}\ldots s_0)_2$}

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Algorithms for Integer Operations

MULTIPLICATION ALGORITHM Next, consider the multiplication of two n-bit integers a and b. The conventional algorithm (used when multiplying with pencil and paper) works as follows. Using the distributive law, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} ab &= a(b_0 2^0 + b_1 2^1 + \cdots + b_{n-1} 2^{n-1}) \\ &= a(b_0 2^0) + a(b_1 2^1) + \cdots + a(b_{n-1} 2^{n-1}). \end{aligned}$$

We can compute ab using this equation. We first note that $ab_j = a$ if $b_j = 1$ and $ab_j = 0$ if $b_j = 0$. Each time we multiply a term by 2, we shift its binary expansion one place to the left and add a zero at the tail end of the expansion. Consequently, we can obtain $(ab_j)2^j$ by **shifting** the binary expansion of ab_j j places to the left, adding j zero bits at the tail end of this binary expansion. Finally, we obtain ab by adding the n integers $ab_j 2^j$, $j = 0, 1, 2, \ldots, n-1$.

Algorithm 3 displays this procedure for multiplication.

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Algorithms for Integer Operations

ALGORITHM 3 Multiplication of Integers.

procedure *multiply*(a, b: positive integers)
{the binary expansions of a and b are $(a_{n-1}a_{n-2}\ldots a_1a_0)_2$
and $(b_{n-1}b_{n-2}\ldots b_1b_0)_2$, respectively}
for $j := 0$ **to** $n-1$
    if $b_j = 1$ **then** $c_j :=$ a shifted j places
    else $c_j := 0$
{$c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{n-1}$ are the partial products}
$p := 0$
for $j := 0$ **to** $n-1$
    $p := p + c_j$
return p {p is the value of ab}

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Algorithms for Integer Operations

EXAMPLE 10 Find the product of $a = (110)_2$ and $b = (101)_2$.

Solution: First note that

$$ab_0 \cdot 2^0 = (110)_2 \cdot 1 \cdot 2^0 = (110)_2,$$

$$ab_1 \cdot 2^1 = (110)_2 \cdot 0 \cdot 2^1 = (0000)_2,$$

and

$$ab_2 \cdot 2^2 = (110)_2 \cdot 1 \cdot 2^2 = (11000)_2.$$

To find the product, add $(110)_2$, $(0000)_2$, and $(11000)_2$. Carrying out these additions (using Algorithm 2, including initial zero bits when necessary) shows that $ab = (1\ 1110)_2$. This multiplication is displayed in Figure 2. ◀

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\,1\,0 \\ \times\ 1\,0\,1 \\ \hline 1\,1\,0 \\ 0\,0\,0 \\ 1\,1\,0 \\ \hline 1\,1\,1\,1\,0 \end{array}$$

FIGURE 2 **Multiplying $(110)_2$ and $(101)_2$.**

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Exercises
  - Brief
    - In addition to having some routine calculation exercises, this exercise set introduces other forms of representing integers.
    - Each has practical and/or theoretical importance in mathematics or computer science.
    - If all else fails, one can carry out an algorithm by "playing computer" and mechanically fallowing the pseudocode step by step.

1. Convert the decimal expansion of each of these integers to a binary expansion.

a) 231 **b)** 4532 **c)** 97644

4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

- Exercises

3. Convert the binary expansion of each of these integers to a decimal expansion.

a) $(1\ 1111)_2$ **b)** $(10\ 0000\ 0001)_2$

c) $(1\ 0101\ 0101)_2$ **d)** $(110\ 1001\ 0001\ 0000)_2$

5. Convert the octal expansion of each of these integers to a binary expansion.

a) $(572)_8$ **b)** $(1604)_8$

c) $(423)_8$ **d)** $(2417)_8$

21. Find the sum and the product of each of these pairs of numbers. Express your answers as a binary expansion.

a) $(100\ 0111)_2, (111\ 0111)_2$

b) $(1110\ 1111)_2, (1011\ 1101)_2$

c) $(10\ 1010\ 1010)_2, (1\ 1111\ 0000)_2$

d) $(10\ 0000\ 0001)_2, (11\ 1111\ 1111)_2$