

28/01/2024

2nd sem

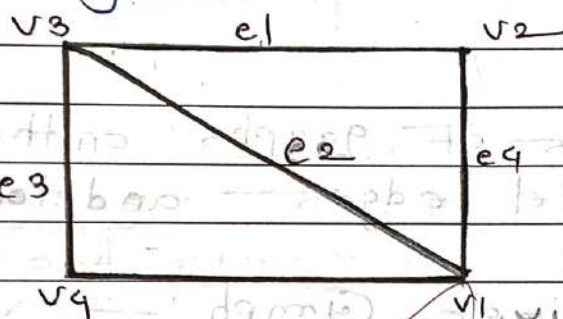
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## UNIT - 1 Graph Theory



- Definition: The pictorial representation of digit which are connected by links is known as a graph where the objects are known as edges.



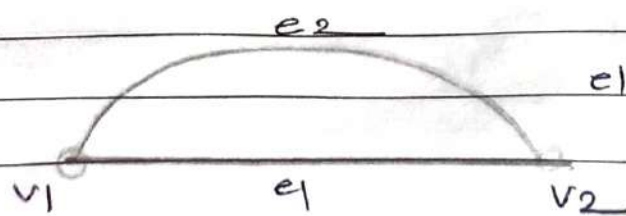
Graph

$$\text{Vertices} = \{v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4\}$$

$$\text{Edges} = \{e_1, e_2, e_3, e_4\}$$

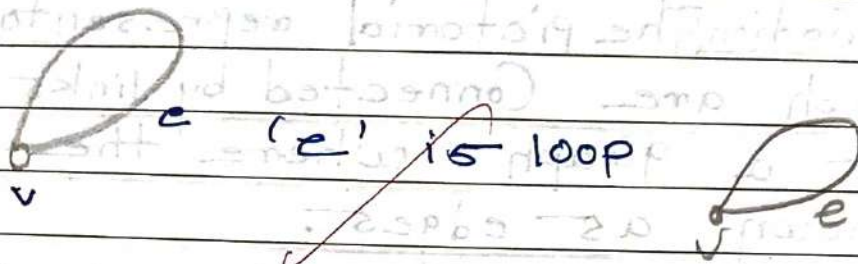
### ① Parallel edges / Multiple edges :-

If there are more than one edges between any pair vertices then the edges are known as Parallel edge or multiple edge.



$e_1$  and  $e_2$  are Parallel / Multiple edges

ii) loop :- The edge whose starting and end vertex is same is known as a loop.

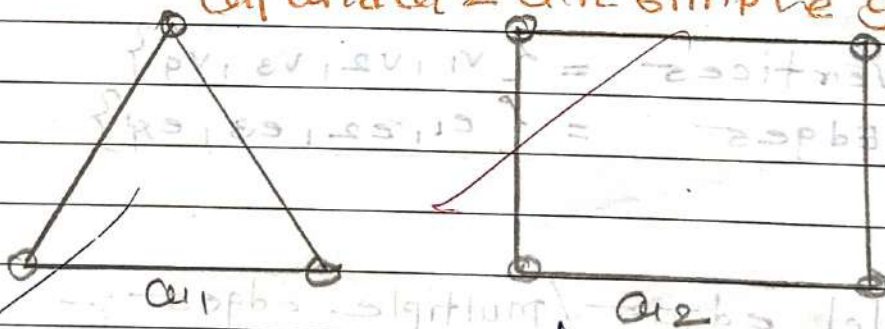


> Types of graphs on the basis of Parallel edges and loops.

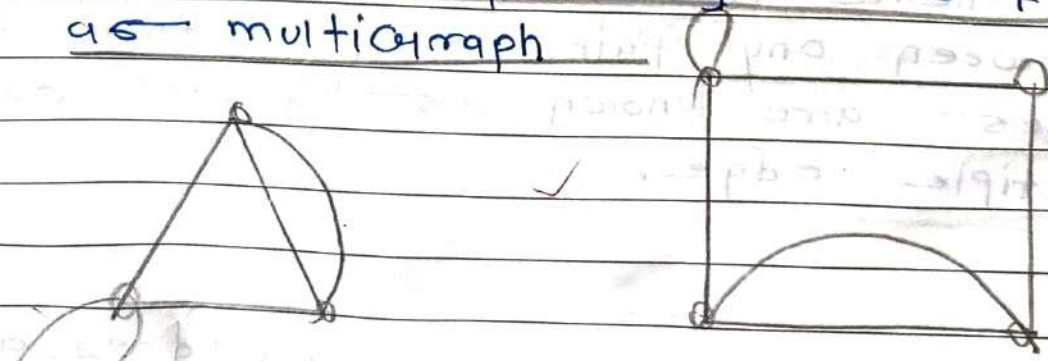
a) Simple Graph :-

The Graph which does not contain multiple edges or not.

$G_1$  and  $G_2$  are simple graphs.

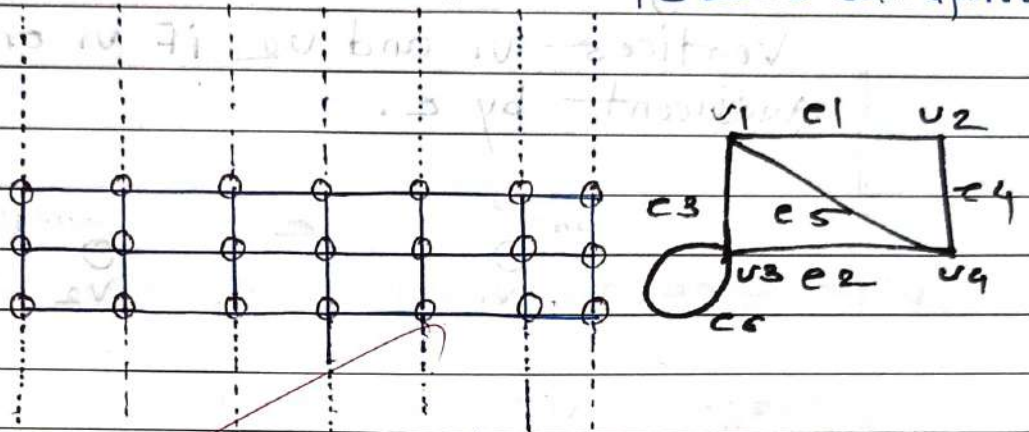


b) Multi Graph :- The Graph which contain multiple edges is known as a multi graph.

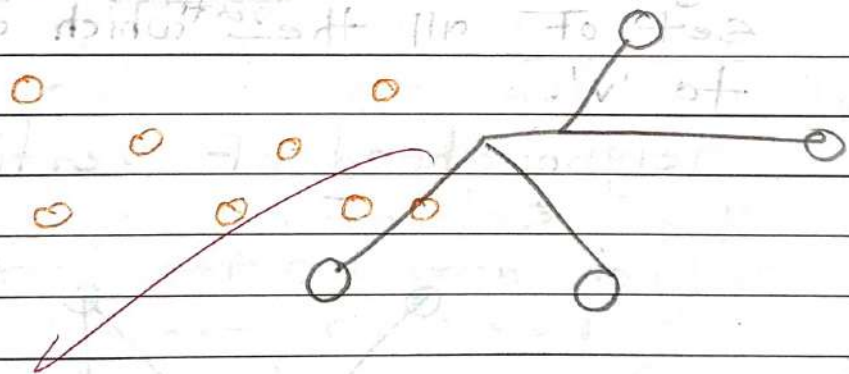




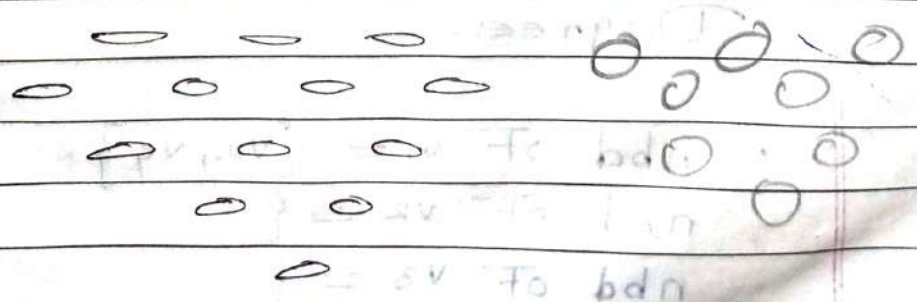
c) Pseudo Graph: — The Graph which contain multiple edges as well as loops is known as Pseudo Graph.



d) Finite Graph: — The Graph is said to be finite if it has finite number of vertices and edges otherwise Infinite Graph.



e) Null Graph: — The Graph is said to be Null Graph if it has any number of vertices without edge.

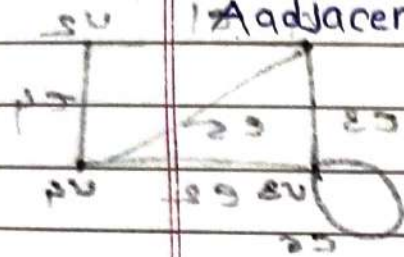




## 6) Incidence and Neighbourhood :-

### a) Incidence :-

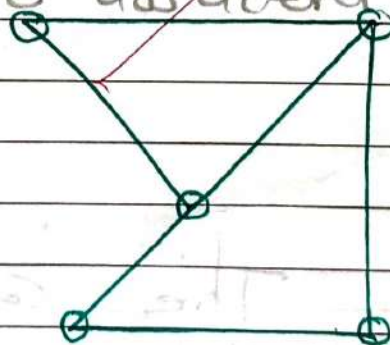
An edge 'e' is said to be incident on vertices  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  if  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are adjacent by e.



### b) Neighbourhood :-

neighbourhood of a vertex 'v' is the set of all the vertices which are adjacent to 'v'.

neighbourhood of vertex 'v' is the set of all the vertices which are adjacent to 'v'.



## Degree

$$\text{nbd of } v_1 = \{v_2, v_4\}$$

$$\text{nbd of } v_2 = \{v_1, v_3\}$$

$$\text{nbd of } v_3 = \{v_2, v_4\}$$



~~F)~~ Trivial Graph: —

✓ The Graph is said to be trivial Graph if it has a single vertex without edges.



5) Adjacency

There are two types of adjacency

a) Adjacent edges: — Two edges are said to be adjacent if they have common vertex.



$e_1$  and  $e_2$  are adjacent edges

b) Adjacent vertices: — Two vertices are said to be adjacent if they have common



$v_1$  and  $v_2$  are adjacent vertices.

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## \* Degree of Vertices

a) The Degree of vertex 'v' is the no of edges Incident on 'v'.

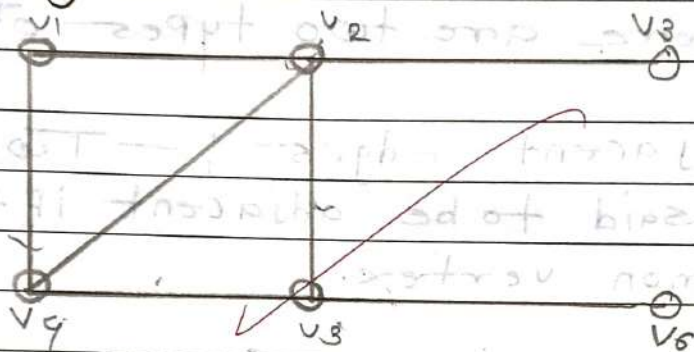


Figure 1

$$\deg(v_1) = 2$$

$$\deg(v_2) = 4$$

$$\deg(v_3) = 1$$

$$\deg(v_4) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_5) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_6) = 1$$

$$\deg(v_7) = 0$$

## b) Pendent Vertex

The vertex 'v' is said to be Pendent vertex if it is '1'

In the Figure 1, 'v3' and 'v6' are Pendent vertices.



c) Isolated vertex

The vertex ' $v$ ' is said to be isolated vertex if its degree is '0'

In the Figure-1 ' $v$ ' is an isolated vertex.

g) Degree sequences of a Graph

a) The degree sequence of a Graph is the collection of degree of all the vertices of the Graph arranged in either increasing order or decreasing order.

The sequence of a Graph in Figure-1 is given as

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4

OR

4, 3, 3, 2, 1, 1, 0

b) Hand-shaking Theorem / Fundamental Theorem of Graph theory

statement: — it states that the sum of degrees of all the vertices of a graph is twice of number of edges

in Figure-1 we have.

$$0 + 1 + 1 + 2 + 3 + 3 + 4 = 14 = 2 \times 7.$$

where '7' is the number of edges.

Hence, Handshaking theorem is verified.

For this graph in Figure-1 mathematically we have.

$$\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = 2m$$

where

where 'm' is number of edge.

## Examples

- 1) For a simple graph with 'n' vertices - the minimum possible of edges is
- $$\frac{n(n-1)}{2}.$$

Answer: For  $n=3$

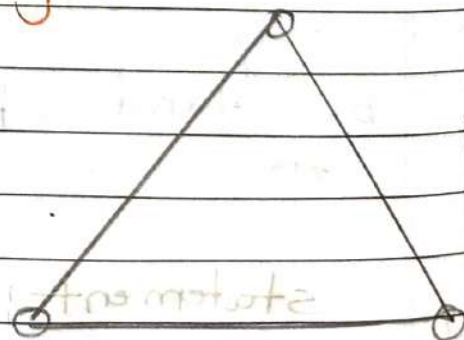
Max Possible no. of edges

$$\text{edges} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

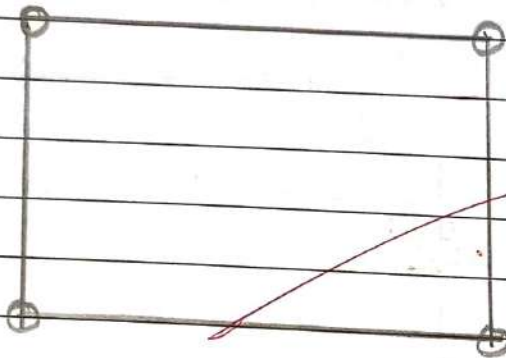
$$= \frac{3(3-1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{3 \cdot 2}{2}$$

$$= 3$$



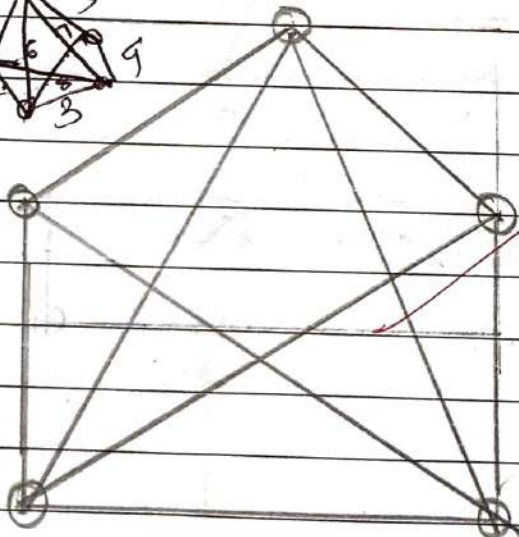
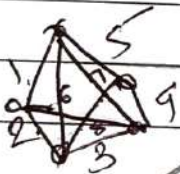


For  $n=4$ max possible no. of edges =  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ 

$$= \frac{4(4-1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{4 \cdot 3}{2}$$

$$= 6$$

For  $n=5$ Max possible no. of edges =  $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ 

$$= \frac{5(5-1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{5 \cdot 4}{2}$$

$$= 10$$

2) For 'n' vertices the max possible no. graph constructed is 2

Answer 1 — If  $n=3$  then a complete graph is constructed.

max. possible no. of graph

$$= \frac{2 \cdot (n-1)}{2}$$

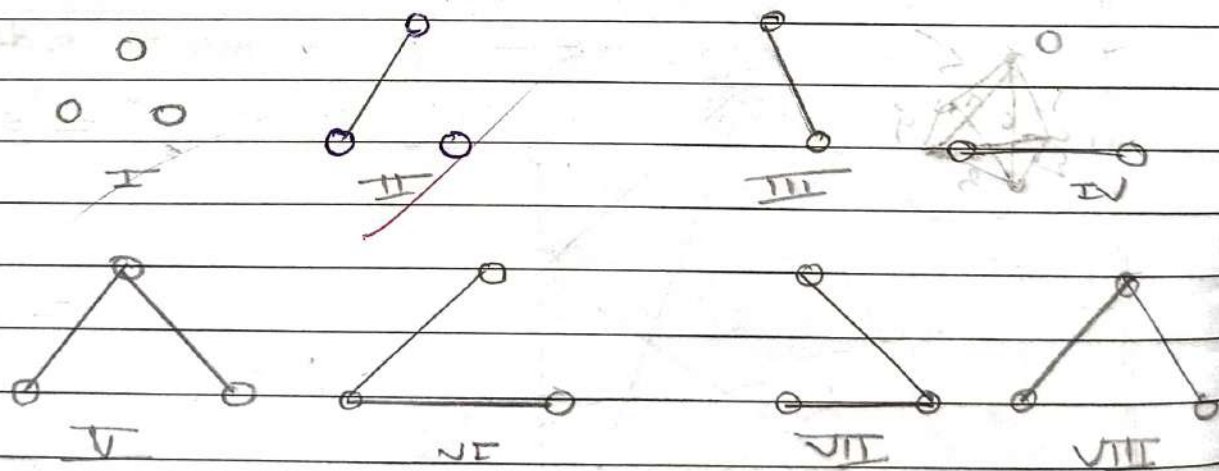
$$= \frac{2 \cdot 3 \cdot (3-1)}{2}$$

$$= 3 \cdot \frac{2}{2}^1$$

$$= 2^3$$

$$= 8$$

Graph



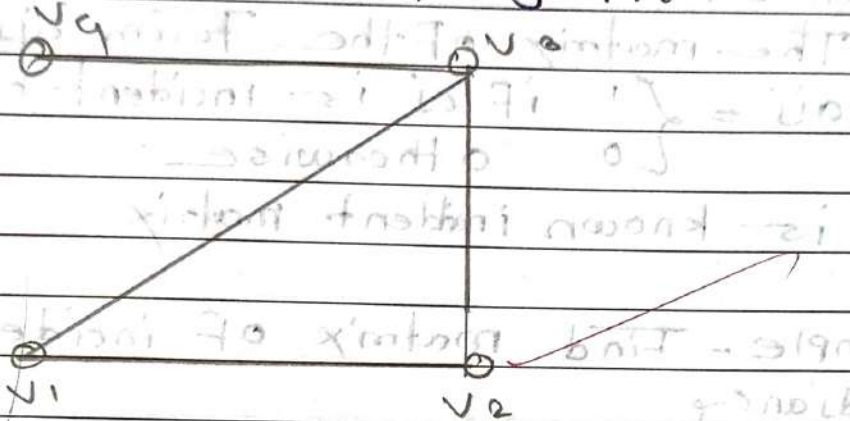
g. Subgraph and Induced graph

if  $G = (V, E)$  is a given graph then  $H = (V', E')$  is said to be a subgraph

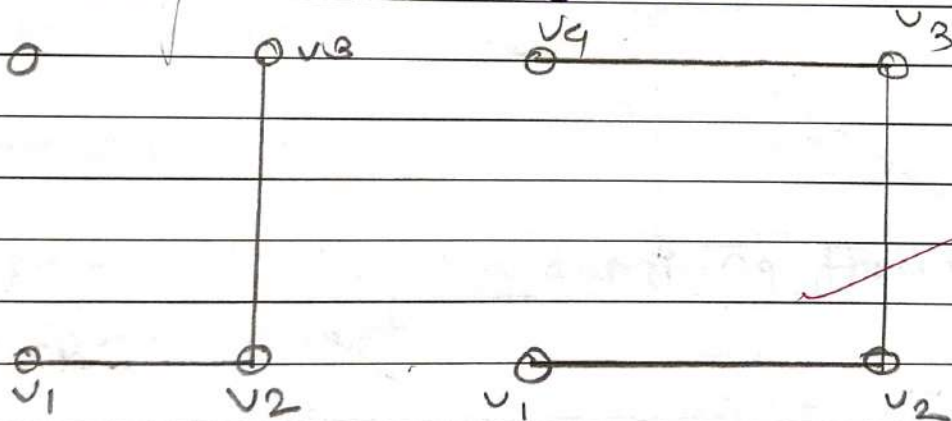


if  $v_i \in V$  and  $E \subseteq E$  it is said to be induced graph it is preserved adjacency.

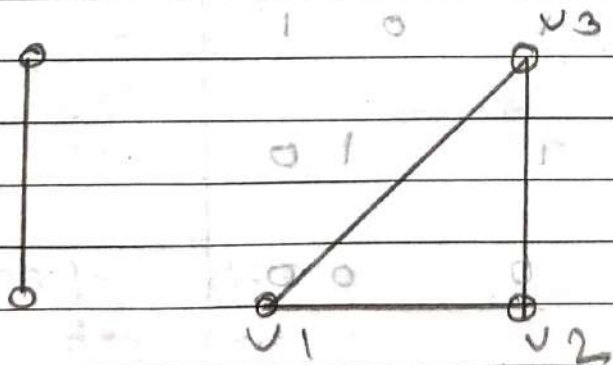
example - consider the graph.



Therefore, subgraph are



induced subgraph.

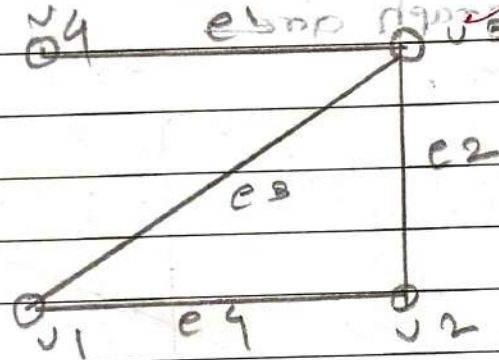


10) Adjacent matrix and incident matrix

The matrix of the form  $a_{ij} =$   
 $a_{ij} = 1$  if  $v_i$  and  $v_j$  adjacent & otherwise  
 is known as adjacent matrix  
 while,

The matrix of the form  $a_{ij}$   
 $a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } e_j \text{ is incident on } v_i \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$   
 is known incident matrix

example - Find matrix of incidence  
 Adjacency



	0	0	1	1
	0	1	0	1
	1	1	1	0
	1	0	0	0

The matrix of incidence is given below  
 as above



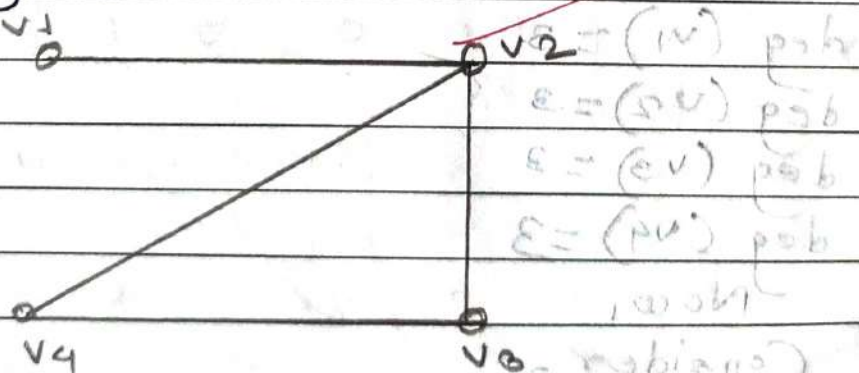
The matrix of Adjacent is given as,

	$v_1$	$v_2$	$v_3$	$v_4$
$v_1$	0	1	1	0
$v_2$	1	0	1	0
$v_3$	0	0	0	1
$v_4$	0	0	1	0

## \* Handshaking Theorem

example.

i) Verify the Handshaking theorem For a given graph



Solution 1: — Here,  $v_1$  is connected to  $v_2$  and  $v_3$ .

$$\deg(v_1) = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$$

$$\deg(v_2) = 2$$

$$\deg(v_3) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_4) = 1$$

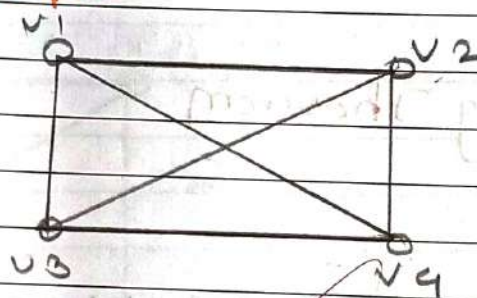
Therefore

Now

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \deg(v_1) + \deg(v_2) + \deg(v_3) + \deg(v_4) \\
 &= 1 + 3 + 2 + 2 \\
 &= 8 \\
 &= 2 \times 4
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore there four edges in a given graph Hence Handshaking theorem is verified

ii) Verify the Handshaking theorem for given graph.



Here,

$$\deg(v_1) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_2) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_3) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_4) = 3$$

Now,

Consider,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \deg(v_1) + \deg(v_2) + \deg(v_3) + \deg(v_4) \\
 &= 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 \\
 &= 12 \\
 &= 2 \times 6
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore there are six edges



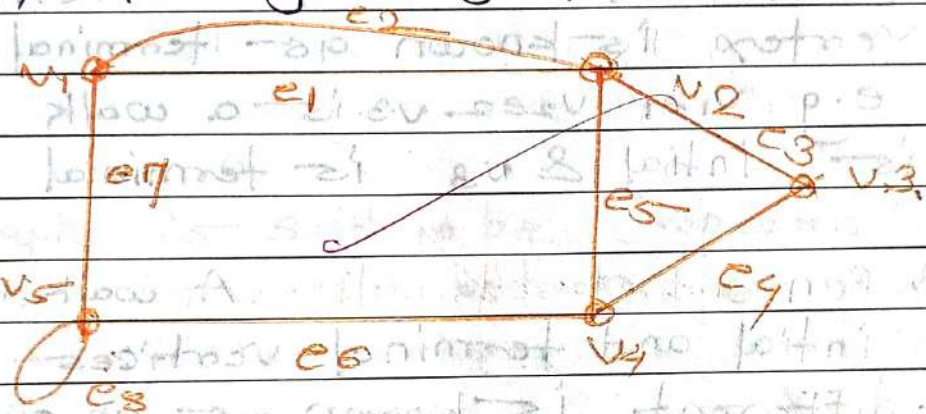
in the given graph

Hence,

Handshaking theorem is verified.

10) example (ii)

Find the adjacent matrix and incident matrix for a given graph.



	$v_1$	$v_2$	$v_3$	$v_4$	$v_5$
$v_1$	0	1	0	0	0
$v_2$	1	0	1	1	0
$v_3$	0	1	0	1	0
$v_4$	0	1	1	0	1
$v_5$	1	0	0	1	1

incident matrix of the given graph

	$e_1$	$e_2$	$e_3$	$e_4$	$e_5$	$e_6$	$e_7$	$e_8$
$v_1$	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
$v_2$	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
$v_3$	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0
$v_4$	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0
$v_5$	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	2



## 11) Connectedness

a) **walk** - A finite and alternating sequence of vertices of edges starting from a vertex and ends at a vertex is known as a walk. A starting vertex is known as initial vertex and end vertex is known as terminal vertex.  
e.g.  $v_1 e_1 v_2 e_2 v_3$  is a walk in which  $v_1$  is initial &  $v_3$  is terminal vertex.

b) **Open and closed walk** - A walk in which initial and terminal vertices are different is known as an open walk while, a walk in which initial and terminal vertices are same is known as closed walk.

eg -  $v_1 e_1 v_2 e_2 v_3 e_3 v_4$  is a open walk  
 $v_1 e_2 v_2 e_2 v_3 e_3 v_1$  is a closed walk

c) **Trail and path** - An open walk in which edges are not repeated known as Trail while an open walk in which vertices are not repeated are known as path.

eg.  $v_1 e_1 e_2 v_1 e_3 v_4$  is not a path  
 $e_1 v_1 e_2 v_2 e_3 v_3$  is a path

d) **Acircuit and Cycle** - A closed walk in which edges are not repeated is known as Circuit. While, a closed

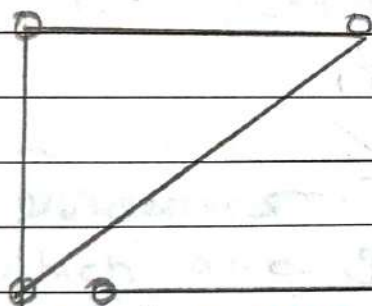


walk in which vertices are not repeated except walk in which vertices are not the initial vertex is called a cycle

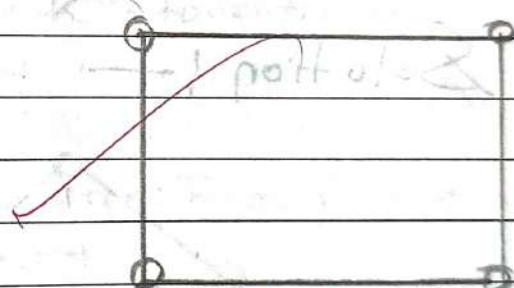
example 1 —  $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow v_3 \rightarrow v_4 \rightarrow v_1$  — circuit  
 $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow v_3 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow v_4 \rightarrow v_1$  — is a cycle

### Connected & disconnected graph

A graph is said to be Connected if there is a path between every pair of vertices otherwise ; disconnected.



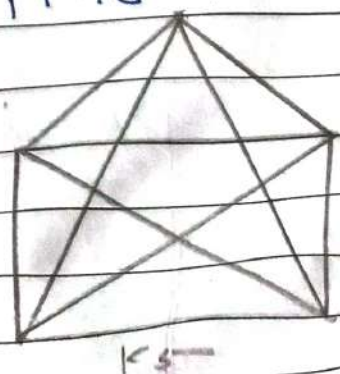
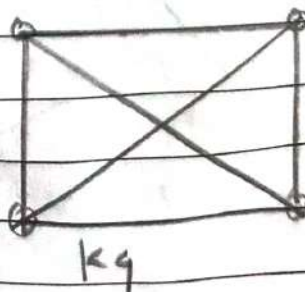
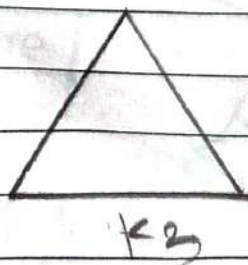
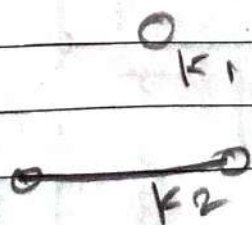
Disconnected



Connected

### 12) Complete graph and Complement graph: -

A graph is said to be a Complete if there is an edge from every vertex to every other vertex. it is denoted by  $(K_n)$

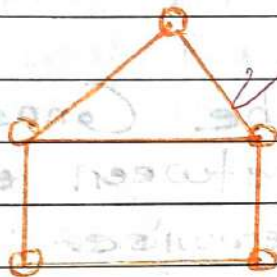


b) Complement  $L_2$  of a graph

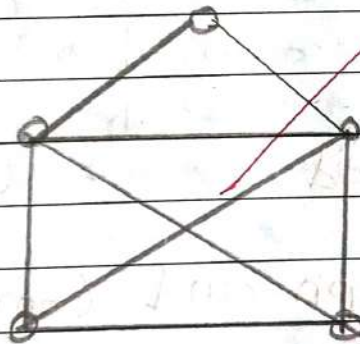
Let a  $G = (V, E)$  be a graph then the graph  $K_n - G = \bar{G}$  is known as a Complement of  $G$ .

eg.

Find the Complement of given.

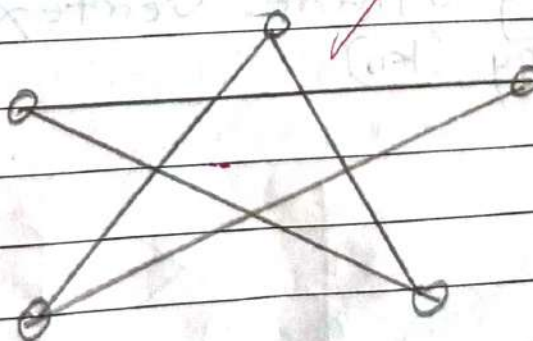


Solution 1 —  $K_5$  as,



nodes

$K_5 - G$  is given as



Excellent  
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## MATHEMATICAL LOGIC

### ① Propositional Logic & Connectives

#### a) Propositional

The statement or assertion whose answer is yes or No but not both at a time is known as a propositional.

i) Pune is a Capital of India

ii)  $2+2=9$

iii)  $5 > 2$  and  $2 > 5$

iv) John is weak student

#### b. Connectives

There are Five Connectives which are given as

- |                   |                 |                   |
|-------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| i) Not            | = Negation      | $\neg$            |
| ii) and           | = Conjunction   | $\wedge$          |
| iii) or           | = Disjunction   | $\vee$            |
| iv) if and then   | = Conditional   | $\rightarrow$     |
| v) if and only if | = Biconditional | $\leftrightarrow$ |

#### 2) Truth Table

P	$\neg P$
T	F
F	T

P	Q	$P \wedge Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F



Rule - when both are True resultant is True otherwise False.

### c. Truth table for disjunction

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

rule -

when both are False resultant is False, otherwise True

### D. Truth table for Conditional

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

rule - when First is True and then

is False, resultant is False otherwise

T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T



e. Truth table for Biconditional

P	Q	$P \leftrightarrow Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	T

rule — when both are same resultant is True otherwise False.

Problems

i) Construct the truth Table for  $\neg P \wedge Q$

P	Q	$\neg P \wedge Q$	$\neg(\neg P \wedge Q)$
T	T	F	T
T	F	F	T
F	T	T	F
F	F	F	T

ii) Construct the truth table for  $(P \vee Q) \vee \neg P$

P	Q	$P \vee Q$	$\neg P$	$(P \vee Q) \vee \neg P$
T	T	T	F	T
T	F	T	F	T
F	T	T	T	T
F	F	F	T	T

eg) Construct the truth table of the Compound proposition  $(p \vee \neg q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$

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

eg) Construct a truth table for  $(p \rightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (q \rightarrow p)$

Solution—

pnq of slot truth table for p and q

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

q1- Construct the truth table for (but)

p	q	$p \vee q$	$p \wedge q$	$p \oplus q$
T	T	T	T	F
T	F	T	F	T
F	T	T	F	T
F	F	F	F	F



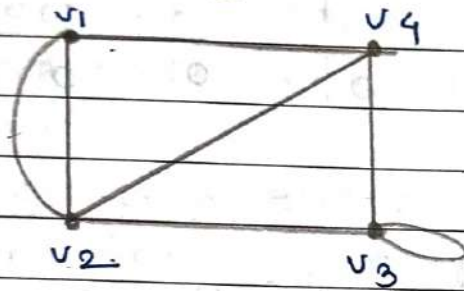
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## Assignment

Q1) Verify the handshaking theorem.



$$\deg(v_1) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_2) = 4$$

$$\deg(v_3) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_4) = 3$$

Now Consider,

$$\deg(v_1) + \deg(v_2) + \deg(v_3) + \deg(v_4)$$

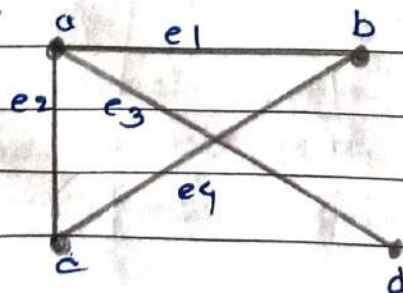
$$= 3 + 4 + 3 + 3$$

$$= 14$$

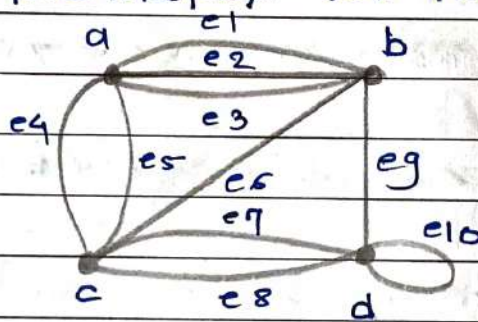
$$= 2 \times 7$$

Therefore, there are seven edges in given graph  
Hence Handshaking theorem is verified.

Q2) Find the adjacency matrix for the following graphs.



Q.3} Find the matrix  $T$  for the given graph.



	e1	e2	e3	e4	e5	e6	e7	e8	e9	e10
a	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
b	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0
c	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
d	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1



Q9} Explain the terms walk open and closed walk, trail path, Circuit and Cycle with appropriate example.

a) walk:— A Finite and alternating Sequence of vertices of edges starting from a vertex and ends at a vertex known as walk. A starting vertex is known as initial vertex and end vertex is known as a terminal vertex.

e.g.  $v_1 e_1 v_2 e_2 v_3$  is a walk in which  $v_1$  is initial &  $v_3$  is terminal vertex.

b) open and closed walk:— A walk in which initial and terminal vertex is known as open walk, while a walk in which initial and terminal vertex is same is known as closed walk.

eg.  $v_1 e_1 v_2 e_2 v_3 e_3 v_4$  is a open walk

$v_1 e_2 v_2 e_2 v_3 e_3 v_1$  is a closed walk

c) Trail and Path:— A walk is open walk on the edges are not repeated is known as Trail. A walk is open walk on the vertices are not repeated is known as Path.

eg.  $v_1 e_1 v_2 e_2 v_1 e_3 v_4$  is

$e_1 v_1 e_2 v_3 v_3 e_3$  is a path

d) Circuit and Cycle:— A walk is closed walk the edges are not repeated is known as Circuit. A walk is closed walk



while walk is closed walk on the vertices are not repeated except the initial vertex is known as Cycle.

eg  $v_1 e_2 v_3 e_3 v_4 e_5 v_1$  is Circuit.

$v_1 e_2 v_3 e_2 v_4 e_4 v_1$  is Cycle.

• Converse, Contrapositive, AND Inverse

if  $P \rightarrow Q$  is a Conditional statement, then

1)  $Q \rightarrow P$  is called its Converse

2)  $\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$  is called its Inverse

3)  $\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$  is called its Contrapositive.

• Propositional logic equivalences

Tautology

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.

example :-  $P \vee \neg P$

Contradiction

A Compound Propositional that is always False is called a Contradiction.

example :-  $P \wedge \neg P$



## Contingency

A Compound Proposition that neither a tautology nor a Contradiction is called a Contingency.

logically equivalent

The Compound Propositions  $p$  and  $q$  are called logically equivalent if  $p \leftrightarrow q$  is a tautology.

The notation  $p \equiv q$  or  $p \leftrightarrow q$  denotes that  $p$  and  $q$  are logically equivalent.

## Problems

① show that  $\neg(p \vee q)$  and  $\neg p \wedge \neg q$  are logically equivalent by using truth table.

Solution:—

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

Q2) show that  $p \rightarrow q$  and  $\neg p \vee q$  are logically equivalent by using truth table.

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

$$\therefore p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q$$

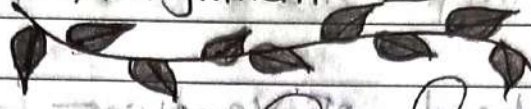
Q3) show that  $p \vee (q \wedge r)$  and  $(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$  are logically equivalent.

$p$	$q$	$r$	$q \wedge r$	$p \vee (q \wedge r)$	$p \vee q$	$p \vee r$	$(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$
-----	-----	-----	--------------	-----------------------	------------	------------	--------------------------------

T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	F	T	T	F	F
T	F	T	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	F	F	F
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



## Assignment - 2



1} what is a simple graph? Give some example?

→ The Graph which does not contain multiple edges is called as simple graph.

Q 2} what is Order and Size of Graph? Define null graph and trivial graph

→ The Order of graph is its number of vertices, usually denoted by  $n$ . The size of a graph is its number of edges, typically denoted by  $m$ .

• Null graph The graph is said to be null graph, if it has any number of vertices without edges.

○ 'null graph'

• Trivial graph: → The graph is said to be trivial graph if it has a single vertex without edges.

$$E = (2V) \text{ p.s.b}$$

$$V = (2E) \text{ p.s.b}$$

$$0 = (1V) \text{ p.s.b}$$

$$1 = (2V) \text{ p.s.b}$$

$$1 = (2E) \text{ p.s.b}$$

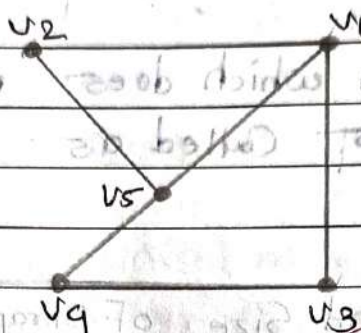
$$1 = (2V) \text{ p.s.b}$$

$$1 = (2E) \text{ p.s.b}$$



Q. 3} Define neighborhood and degree of degree.

neighborhood of vertices  $v_i$  is the set of all the which are adjacent to  $v_i$ .

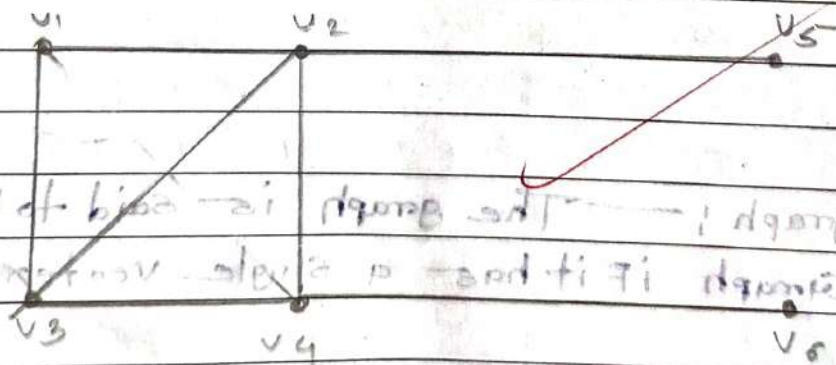


Degree

$$\begin{aligned} \text{nhd of } v_1 &= \{v_2, v_3\} \\ \text{nhd of } v_2 &= \{v_1, v_4, v_5\} \\ \text{nhd of } v_3 &= \{v_1, v_4\} \end{aligned}$$

• Degree of vertices

The Degree of vertices  $v_i$  is the no. of edges incident on  $v_i$



$$\deg(v_1) = 2$$

$$\deg(v_2) = 4$$

$$\deg(v_3) = 1$$

$$\deg(v_4) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_5) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_6) = 1$$

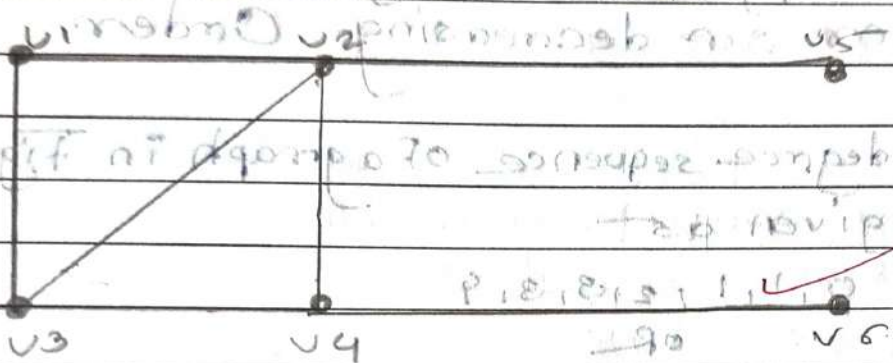
$$\deg(v_7) = 0$$



Q4? What are Pendent and Isolated vertices?  
Give an example?

The vertex  $v_i$  is said to be Pendent vertex if it is of degree 1.

In the figure,  $v_5$  and  $v_6$  are Pendent vertices.



$$\deg(v_1) = 2$$

$$\deg(v_2) = 4$$

$$\deg(v_3) = 1$$

$$\deg(v_4) = 3$$

$$\deg(v_5) = 1$$

$$\deg(v_6) = 1$$

$$\deg(v_7) = 0$$

$$\deg(v_8) =$$

In Figure,  $v_5$  and  $v_6$  are Pendent

The vertex  $v_i$  is said to be Isolated vertex if its degree is 0.

In Figure,  $v_7$  is an isolated vertex.



Q.5) what degree sequence of graph? state.  
Handshaking theorem.

The degree sequence of a graph is the collection of degree of all the vertices of the graph arranged in either increasing order or decreasing order.

The degree sequence of a graph in Figure 1, is given as

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 3, 4

OR

4, 3, 3, 2, 1, 1, 0.

Handshaking theorem

it's states that the sum of degree of all the vertices of a graph is twice the number of edges.

in Figure 1 we have  
 $0 + 1 + 1 + 2 + 3 + 3 + 4 = 14 = 2 \times 7$

where  $n_1$  is the number of edges.

Hence, Handshaking theorem is verified for the graph in Figure 1.

Mathematically we have  
 $\sum_{v \in V} \deg(v) = 2m$

where 'm' is number of edge



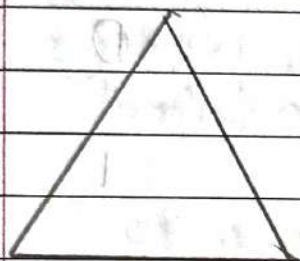
Q. Construct the maximum possible number of edges with the given vertices -  $n=3/4/5$ .

For  $n=3$

Max possible no. of edges

$$\text{edges} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{3(3-1)}{2}$$



$$= \frac{3 \cdot 2}{2}$$

$$= 3$$

For  $n=5$

Max possible edges

$$= \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{5(5-1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{5 \cdot 4}{2}$$

$$= 10$$

For  $n=4$

Max possible no. of

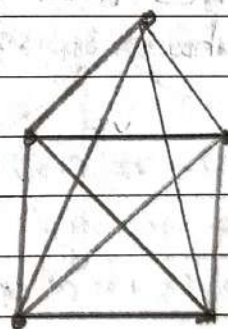
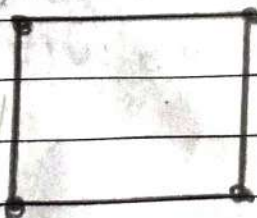
edges

$$\text{edges} = \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

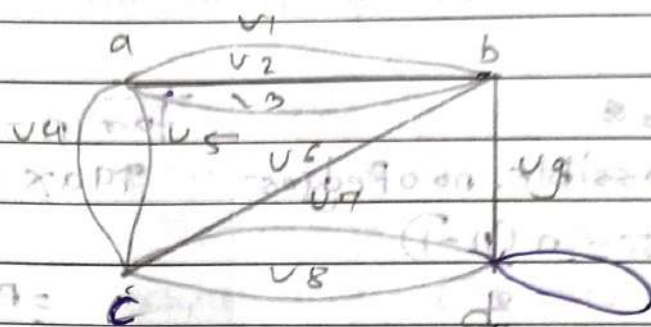
$$= \frac{4(4-1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{4 \cdot 3}{2}$$

$$= 6$$

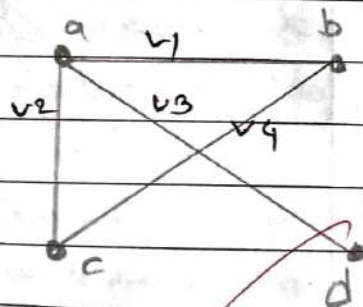


Q7} Find the adjacent matrix for the following graphs.



	a	b	c	d
a	1	1	0	0
b	1	0	1	1
c	1	1	0	1
d	0	1	1	1

Q8} Find the matrix of the incidence for the graph.



	v1	v2	v3	v4
a	1	1	1	0
b	1	0	0	1
c	0	1	0	1
d	0	0	1	0



Q9) Explain the term walk, open and closed walk, trail, path, Circuit and Cycle with appropriate examples.

a. walk A Finite and alternating Sequence of vertices and edges starting from a vertex and ends at a vertex is known as a walk. A starting vertex is known as initial vertex and end vertex is known as terminal vertex.

eg  $v_1 e_1, v_2 e_2$  is a walk in which  $v_1$  is a initial and  $v_2$  is terminal vertex.

b) open walk and closed walk :- A walk in which initial and terminal vertices are different is known as an open walk. while a walk in which initial and terminal vertices are same is known as closed walk.

eg.  $v_1 e_1, v_2 e_2, v_3 e_3, v_4$  is open walk.

$v_1 e_1, v_2 e_2, v_3 e_3, v_1$  is a closed walk.

c) Trail and path :- An open walk in which edges are not repeated known as Trail. while an open walk in which vertices are not repeated are known as path.

eg.  $v_1 e_1, v_2 e_2, v_3 e_1, v_4$  not a trail.

$v_1 e_1, v_2 e_2, v_3$  is a Trail.

Also,

$v_1 e_1, v_2 e_2, v_3 e_3, v_4$  is a not a path.

$v_1 e_1, v_2 e_2, v_3 e_3$  is a path.

not - not



d) Open and Cycle - A closed walk in which edges are not repeated is known as Open, while a closed walk in which vertices are not repeated except the initial vertex is called a Cycle.

example:  $v_1 e_1 v_2 e_2 v_3 e_3 v_4 e_4 v_1$  is a Open  
 $v_1 e_1 v_2 e_2 v_3 e_3 v_4 e_4 v_1$  is a Cycle

Q10) Define Proposition with some appropriate examples.  
 The statement or assertion whose answer is yes or No but not both at a time is known as Propositional.  
 ex: i) Pondicherry is a Capital of India.  
 ii)  $2 + 2 = 4$   
 iii)  $5 > 2$  and  $2 > 5$   
 iv) John is a weak student (invalid)

Q11) What are different types of Connectives and draw the truth table for the same.

There are Five Connectives which are given as:

i) Not - Negation



- 2) and - Conjunction
- 3) or - disjunction
- 4) if and then - Conditional
- 5) if and only if - BioConditional
- 6)

• Truth table

a) Truth table For Negation

P	$\neg P$
T	F
F	T

b) Truth table For Conjunction

P	Q	$P \wedge Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

Rule - when both are true resultant is true otherwise false.

c) Truth table For disjunction

P	Q	$P \vee Q$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

Rule! - when both are false resultant is otherwise true.



- 2) and - Conjunction
- 3) or - disjunction
- 4) if and then - Conditional
- 5) if and only if - BioConditional
- 6)

### • Truth table

#### a) Truth table For Negation

P	$\neg P$
T	F
F	T

#### b) Truth table For Conjunction

P	Q	$P \wedge Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

Rule: - when both are true resultant is true otherwise false.

#### c) Truth table For disjunction

P	Q	$P \vee Q$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

Rule: - when both are false resultant is otherwise true.



d. Truth table for Conditional

P	Q	$P \rightarrow Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

- Rule: when First is True and other is False, resultant is False otherwise True.

e. Truth table for BiConditional

P	Q	$P \leftrightarrow Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	T

- Rule: — when both are same resultant is true, otherwise False.

Q12} Construct the truth table for  $\neg p \wedge q$

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

Q13} Construct the truth table for  $(p \vee q) \vee \neg p$

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

Q14} Construct the truth table for the compound proposition  $(p \vee \neg q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$

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



Q15] Construct a truth table for  $(p \leftrightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (r \leftrightarrow s)$

p	q	r	s	$p \leftrightarrow q$	$r \leftrightarrow s$	$(p \leftrightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (r \leftrightarrow s)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	T	F	T	F	F
T	T	F	T	T	F	F
T	T	F	F	T	T	T
T	F	T	T	F	T	F
T	F	T	F	F	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	F	T
T	F	F	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	F	F	T
F	T	F	T	F	F	T
F	T	F	F	F	T	F
F	F	T	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	F	F	F	T	T	T

Q16] Show that  $\neg(p \vee q)$  and  $\neg p \wedge \neg q$  are logically equivalent by using truth table.

Truth table for  $\neg(p \vee q)$  and  $\neg p \wedge \neg q$



Q15] Construct a truth table for  $(p \leftrightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (r \leftrightarrow s)$

p	q	r	s	$p \leftrightarrow q$	$p \leftrightarrow s$	$(p \leftrightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (r \leftrightarrow s)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	T	F	T	F	F
T	T	F	T	T	F	F
T	T	F	F	T	T	T
T	F	T	T	F	T	F
T	F	T	F	F	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	F	T
T	F	F	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	F	F	T
F	T	F	T	F	F	T
F	T	F	F	F	T	F
F	F	T	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	F	F	F	T	T	T

Q16] Show that  $\neg(p \vee q)$  and  $\neg p \wedge \neg q$  are logically equivalent by using truth table.

Truth table 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

$$\therefore \neg(P \vee q) \equiv \neg P \wedge \neg q$$

Q17} Show that  $P \rightarrow q$  and  $\neg P \vee q$  are logically equivalent by using truth table.

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

$$\therefore P \rightarrow q \equiv \neg P \vee q$$

Q18} Show that  $P \vee (P \wedge q)$  and  $(P \vee q) \wedge (P \vee \neg q)$  are logically equivalent.

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

$$\therefore P \vee (q \wedge \neg) \equiv (P \vee q) \wedge (P \vee \neg)$$

Q 19) Show that the proposition  $(P \vee q) \leftrightarrow (q \vee P)$  is tautology

$P$	$q$	$P \vee q$	$q \vee P$	$(P \vee q) \leftrightarrow (q \vee P)$
T	T	T	T	T
T	F	T	T	T
F	T	T	T	T
F	F	F	F	T

the last column entities are T  
 $\therefore (P \vee q) \leftrightarrow (q \vee P)$  is tautology.



20) Obtain DNF of  $P \wedge (P \rightarrow q)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P \wedge (P \rightarrow q) &\equiv P \wedge (\neg P \vee q) \quad (\text{by logical equivalence}) \\
 &\equiv (P \wedge \neg P) \vee (P \wedge q) \quad (\text{By Distributive}) \quad (\text{involving Condition}) \\
 &\text{which is the required DNF.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Q21) obtain the DNF  $P \rightarrow [(P \rightarrow q) \wedge \neg (\neg q \vee p)]$

Solution:—

$$\begin{aligned}
 &(\text{by logical equivalence involving Condition}) \\
 &\equiv \neg P \vee [(\neg P \vee q) \wedge \neg (\neg q \vee \neg P)] \quad (\text{by double}) \\
 &\equiv \neg P \vee [(\neg P \vee q) \wedge (q \wedge P)] \quad (\text{distributive law}) \\
 &\equiv \neg P \vee [(\neg P \wedge q \wedge P) \vee (q \wedge q \wedge P)] \quad (\text{negation law,}) \\
 &\equiv \neg P \vee [(F \wedge q) \vee (q \wedge P)] \quad (\text{idempotent law}) \\
 &\equiv \neg P \vee [F \vee (q \wedge P)] \quad (\text{domination law})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\equiv \neg P \vee (q \wedge P) \quad (\text{Identity law})$$

which is the required DNF

Excellent

checked  
28/9/24



## MODULE - 3

## Algebra Structure

- Set theory and Function
- Cartesian Product

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

- Set - Roster and
- Power set

- Cartesian Product

- Function

- $R_1$

- $R_2$  and  $R_3$

- symmetrical

are  $b$  and  $b$  are  $c$   $\rightarrow$  are  $c$

Transitive relation





15 April 2024 Monday

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DATE:

## ASSINGMENT -3



- Sets : —
- DEFINITION : —  
A set is an unordered collection
- Definition : —  
The objects in a set are called elements or members of the set. A set is said to contain its elements. we write  $a \in A$  to denote that is not an element of the set A.
- Example : —
  - The set  $V$  of all vowels in the english alphabet can be written as  $V = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$
  - The set  $O$  of odd positive integers less than 10 be expressed by  $O = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$
- Equal sets : —

Two sets are equal only if they have 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. A set  $A$  is equal to a set  $B$  if every element of  $A$  is also an element of  $B$  and vice versa.



## • Empty Sets :-

Two sets are -

There is a special set that has no elements. This set is called the empty or null set, and is denoted by  $\emptyset$ .

The empty set can also be denoted by  $\{\}$ .

## • NOTE :-

• It does not matter if an element of a set is listed more than once, so  $\{1, 3, 3, 3, 5, 5, 5\}$  is the same as the set  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  because they have the same elements.

• the set with one element is called a Singleton set.

## • Subset :-

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  $B$ .



• Example :-

• The set of all odd positive integers less than 10 is a subset of all the positive integers less than 10.

• The set of rational numbers is a subset of the set of real numbers.

• Proper Subset :-

A set  $A$  is called proper subset of the set  $B$  if (i)  $A$  is subset of  $B$  and (ii)  $B$  is not subset of  $A$  i.e.  $A$  is a proper subset of  $B$ , then we denote it by  $A \subset B$ .

• Cardinality :-

A set  $A$  is called proper subset set  $B$  if there are exactly  $n$  distinct elements in  $A$  is a finite set and that  $n$  is Cardinality of  $A$ . The Cardinality of  $A$  is denoted by  $|A|$ .

• Example :-

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

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



- **INFINITE :-**

A set is said to be INFINITE if it is not Finite.

- **Example :-**

the set of positive integers is infinite.

- **Universal set**

The universal set  $U$ , which contains all the objects under consideration.

- **Power set**

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  $P(S)$ .

If a set has  $n$  elements, then its power set has  $2^n$  elements. The power set of  $S$  is denoted by  $P(S)$ .

- **Example :-**

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

- **Solution :-**

The power set  $P(\{0, 1, 2\})$  is a set of all subsets of  $\{0, 1, 2\}$ .

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



## • Cartesian Product :-

Let the  $A$  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 :-

① what is the Cartesian Product of  $A = \{1, 2\}$  and  $B = \{a, b, c\}$ ?

Solution :- The Cartesian Product of  $A = \{1, 2\}$  and  $B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$

## • Practice Problems

① List the members of these sets.

(a)  $\{x \mid x \text{ is a real number such that } x^2 = 1\}$

$$A = \{1, -1\};$$

(b)  $\{x \mid x \text{ is a positive number less than } 12\}$

$$= \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11\};$$



c)  $\{x \mid x \text{ is the square of an integer and } x < 1000\}$

$$C = \{0, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81\}$$

Q2) Use set builder notation to give a description of each of these sets.

a)  $\{0, 3, 6, 9, 12\}$

$$= \{3n/n \mid n = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

b)  $\{-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3\}$

$$= \{x \mid -3 \leq x \leq 3\}$$

Q3) What is the cardinality of each of these sets?

a)  $\emptyset = 0;$

b)  $\{\emptyset\} = 1;$

c)  $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\} = 2;$

d)  $\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}, \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}\} = 3;$



Q4) Find the power set of each of these sets, where  $a$  and  $b$  are distinct elements.

a)  $\{a\}$

$$= \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$$

b)  $\{a, b\}$

$$= \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}\}$$

c)  $\{\emptyset, \{a\}\}$

$$= \{\emptyset, \{\emptyset, \{a\}\}, \{\{a\}\}, \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a\}\}\}$$

d)  $\{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{a, b\}\}$

Q5)

Find  $A^2$  if

a)  $A = \{(0, 1), (3, 3)\}$

$$A = \{(0, 0), (0, 1), (0, 3), (1, 0), (1, 3), (3, 1), (3, 3)\}$$

b)  $A = \{1, 2, a, b\}$

$$A = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, a), (1, b), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, a), (2, b), (a, 1), (a, 2), (a, a), (a, b), (b, 1), (b, 2), (b, a), (b, b)\}$$



## • Set Operations :-

### Example 1 :-

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

## • Union :-

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets. The union of the sets  $A$  and  $B$ , denoted by  $A \cup B$ , is this set that contains those elements that are either in  $A$  or in  $B$ , or in both, it is denoted by  $A \cup B = \{x | x \in A \vee x \in B\}$ .

### • Example :-

(i) The union of the sets of all Computer Science majors at your school and the set of all mathematics major at your school is the set of students at your school who are majoring either in mathematics or in Computer science.

### • Example :-

## • INTERSECTION

### Example :-

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be sets.  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$   
is the set  $\{1, 3\}$  that is,  $\{1, 3, 5\}$

$$\cap \{1, 2, 3\}$$

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



• 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  $B$ . it is Denoted by  

$$A \cap B = \{x | x \in A \cap x \in B\}$$

• Difference of sets: —

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  $A$ . it is denoted by  $A - B$  thus:  $A - B = \{x | x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$ .

Example: — the difference of  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  is a set  $\{5\}$ ; that is  $\{1, 3, 5\} - \{1, 2, 3\} = \{5\}$  this and  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $\{1, 3, 5\}$  which is a set  $\{2\}$

• Complement of a set: —

Let  $U$  be the universal set. the Complement of set  $A$ . Denoted by  $\bar{A}$ , it is Denoted by  $\bar{A}$  thus

$$\bar{A} = \{x \in U | x \notin A\}$$

• Example: —



① Let  $A = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$  (where the universal set of letter of the English alphabet) then

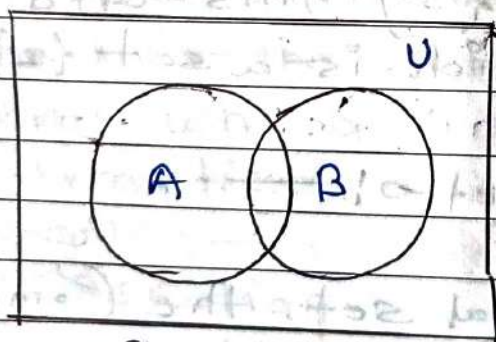
$$A = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z\}$$

• ① Disjoint sets : —

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

• Venn Diagram : —

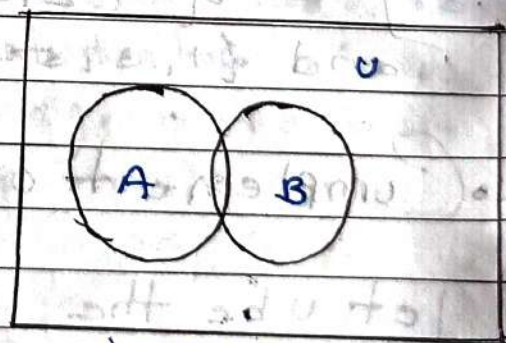
A Venn Diagram is a pictorial representation of the set. The universal set  $U$  is normally represented by a rectangle and its subsets as circles inside it. Venn Diagrams are useful in understanding relation among sets and operation on set.



$A \cup B$  is shaded

Figure 1 :

Venn Diagram of the union of  $A$  and  $B$



$A \cap B$  is shaded

Figure 2.

Venn Diagram of the Intersection of  $A$  and  $B$ .



① Let  $A = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$  (where the universal set of letter of the English alphabet) then

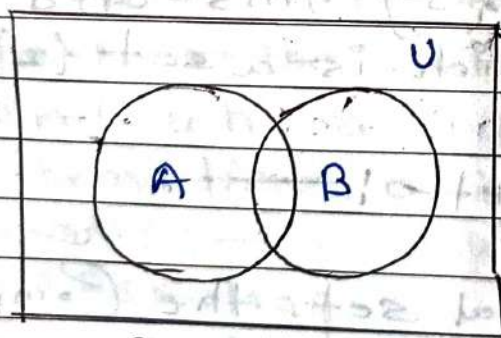
$$A = \{b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z\}$$

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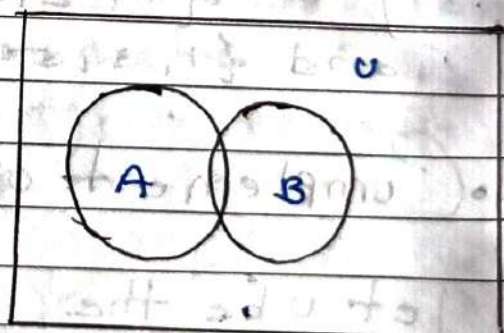
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Figure 1:

Venn Diagram of the union of  $A$  and  $B$



$A \cap B$  is shaded

Figure 2:

Venn Diagram of the Intersection of  $A$  and  $B$ .



## • Functions ! —

### • Definition ! —

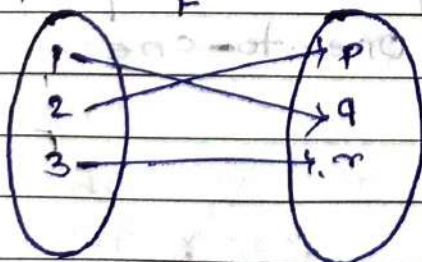
Let  $A$  and  $B$  be nonempty sets. A function  $F$  from  $A$  to  $B$  is an assignment of exactly one element of  $B$  to each element of  $A$ . We write  $F(a) = b$  if  $b$  is the unique element of  $B$  assigned by the function  $F$  to the element  $a$  of  $A$ . We write  $F(a) = b$  if  $b$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

### • Note ! —

Functions are sometimes also called mappings or transformations.

### • Example

Let  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $Y = \{p, q, r\}$  and  $F = \{(1, q), (2, p), (3, r)\}$  then  $F(1) = q$ ,  $F(2) = p$ ,  $F(3) = r$  clearly  $F$  is a function from  $X$  to  $Y$ .





• Example 1:-

① If the Function  $F$  is defined by  $F(x) = x^2 + 1$  on the set  $\{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}$ . Find the range of  $F$ .

Solution:-

$$F(-2) = (-2)^2 + 1 = 5$$

$$F(-1) = (-1)^2 + 1 = 2$$

$$F(0) = 0 + 1 = 1$$

$$F(1) = 1 + 1 = 2$$

$$F(2) = 4 + 1 = 5$$

Therefore, the range of  $F = \{1, 2, 5\}$

• One to One (Injective) :-

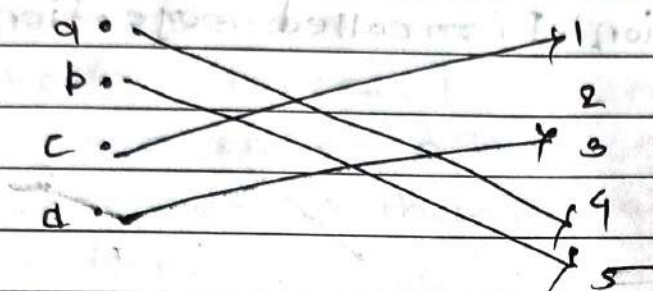
A Function  $f$  is said to be one to one, or an injective, if and only if  $F(a) = F(b)$  implies that  $a = b$  for all  $a$  and  $b$  in the Domain of  $F$ . i.e., Distinct elements should have Distinct Image. A Function is said to be Injection if it is one-to-one.

• Example:-

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.



**Solution 1** — The Function  $F$  is one-to-one.  
Because  $F$  takes on different values at an  
four elements of its domain.



2. Determine whether  $F: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  given by  $F(x)$   
 $F(x) = x^2, x \in \mathbb{Z}$  is a one-to-one function.

**Solution;** — The Function  $F: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$  given by  $F(x)$   
 $= x^2, x \in \mathbb{Z}$  is not a one-to-one function.

This is because both 3 and -3 have 9 as  
their image, which is against the definition  
of a one-to-one function.

3. Determine whether the function  $F(x) = x+1$   
from the set of real numbers to itself  
is one-to-one solution

**Solution;** — The function  $F(x) = x+1$  is a  
one-to-one function.

To demonstrate this, note that  $x+1 \neq y+1$   
when  $x \neq y$



### • Onto (Surjective) : —

A Function  $F$  from  $A$  to  $B$  is called onto, or a Surjective, 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 surjection if it is Onto.

Example 1 —

① Let  $F$  be the Function from  $\{a, b, c, d\}$  to  $\{1, 2, 3\}$  by  $F(a) = 3$ ,  $F(b) = 2$ ,  $F(c) = 1$  and  $F(d) = 3$  is  $F$  an onto Function.

Solution : —

All three elements of the Codomain are images of elements in the domain, we see that  $F$  is onto.

### • Bijective

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.

Example 1 : —

① 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.

• Relations and their Properties : —

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

In other words, a binary relation from  $A$  to  $B$  is a set  $R$  of ordered pairs when the first element of each ordered pair comes from  $A$  and the second element comes from  $B$ . We use the notation  $aRb$  to denote that  $(a, b) \in R$  and  $a \not R b$  to denote that  $(a, b) \notin R$ . Moreover, when  $(a, b)$  belongs to  $R$ ,  $a$  is said to be related to  $b$  by  $R$ .

• Definition : —

A relation on a set  $A$  is a relation from  $A$  to  $A$ . In other words, a relation on a set  $A$  is a subset of  $A \times A$ .

• Example : —



① Define a relation between two sets  $A = \{5, 6, 7\}$  and  $B = \{x, y\}$ .

Solution: — If  $A = \{5, 6, 7\}$  and  $B = \{x, y\}$  then the subset  $R = \{(5, x), (5, y), (6, x), (6, y)\}$  is a relation from  $A$  to  $B$ .

• Properties of Relations: —

• A relation  $R$  on a set  $A$  is called reflexive if  $(a, a) \in R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

• A relation  $R$  on a set  $A$  is called symmetric if  $(b, a) \in R$  whenever  $(a, b) \in R$  for all  $a, b \in A$ .

• A relation  $R$  on set  $A$  such that for all  $a, b \in A$ , if  $(a, b) \in R$  and  $(b, a) \in R$ , then  $a = b$  is called antisymmetric.

• A relation  $R$  on set  $A$  is called transitive if whenever  $(a, b) \in R$  and  $(b, c) \in R$  then  $(a, c) \in R$  for all  $a, b, c \in A$ .



### • Example 1 —

1. Consider the following relations on  $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ :

$$R_1 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1), (2,2), (3,4), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R_2 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (2,1)\}$$

$$R_3 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,4), (2,1), (2,2), (3,3), (4,1), (4,4)\}$$

$$R_4 = \{(2,1), (3,1), (3,2), (4,1), (4,2), (4,3)\}$$

$$R_5 = \{(1,1), (1,2), (1,3), (1,4), (2,2), (2,3), (2,4), (3,3), (3,4), (4,4)\}$$

•  $R_6 = \{(3,4)\}$  which of these relations are reflexive, symmetric, antisymmetric and transitive?

### • Solution: —

the relations  $R_3$  and  $R_5$  are reflexive because they both contain all 'pairs' of the form  $(a,a)$ , namely  $(1,1), (2,2), (3,3)$  and  $(4,4)$  the other relations are not reflexive because they do not contain all of these ordered pairs. In particular  $R_1, R_2, R_4$  and  $R_6$



are not reflexive because  $(3,3)$  is not in any of these relation.

the relation  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  are symmetric because in each case  $(b,a)$  belongs to the relation whenever  $(a,b)$  does. For  $R_2$ , the only thing to check is that both  $(2,1)$  and  $(1,2)$  are in the relation. For  $R_3$  it is necessary to check that both  $(1,2)$  and  $(2,1)$  belong to the relation, and  $(1,4)$  and  $(4,1)$  belong to the relation.

$R_4, R_5$  and  $R_6$  are all antisymmetric. For each of these relations there is no pair of elements  $a$  and  $b$  with  $a \neq b$  such that both  $(a,b)$  and  $(b,a)$  belong to the relation.

$R_4, R_5$  and  $R_6$  are transitive. For each of these relations, we can show that it is transitive by verifying that if  $(a,b)$  and  $(b,c)$  belong to this relation, then  $(a,c)$  also does. For instance,  $R_4$  is

transitive because  $(3,2)$  and  $(2,1)$ ,  $(4,2)$  and  $(2,1)$ ,  $(4,3)$ ,  $(3,1)$  and  $(4,3)$  and  $(3,2)$  are the only such sets of pairs, and  $(3,1)$ ,  $(4,1)$  and  $(4,2)$  belong to  $R_4$ .

Excellent

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# Assignment-9

Module - 9

## Relation and Partially Ordering

### • Matrix representation.

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

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

$$R = \{(a, 1), (a, 2), (c, 3), (d, 2)\}$$

### • Relation Matrix

A relation  $R$  from a finite set  $x$  to a finite set of  $y$  can be represented by a matrix is called the relation matrix of  $R$ . Let  $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_m\}$  and  $B = \{b_1, b_2, b_n\}$  be finite sets containing  $m$  and  $n$  elements, respectively, and  $R$  be the relation from  $A$  to  $B$ . Then  $R$  can be represented by an  $m \times n$  matrix  $M_R = [m_{ij}]$ , which is defined as follows:

$$m_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (a_i, b_j) \in R \\ 0 & \text{if } (a_i, b_j) \notin R \end{cases}$$

Example ;

1. Suppose that  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$  and  $B = \{1, 2\}$ . Let  $R$  be the relation from  $A$  to  $B$  containing  $(a, b)$  if  $a \in A, b \in B$  and  $a > b$ . What is the matrix representing  $R$  if  $a_1 = 1, a_2 = 2$  and  $a_3 = 3$  and  $b_1 = 1$  and  $b_2 = 2$ ?



Solution: —

Because  $R = \{(2,1), (3,1), (3,2)\}$  the matrix of  $R$  is

$$M_R = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then 1s in  $M_R$  show that the pairs  $(2,1)$ ,  $(3,1)$  and  $(3,2)$  belong to  $R$ . The 0s show that  $\{(1,1), (1,2), (2,2)\}$  are no others, pairs belong to  $R$ .

xintert noit

Q2] Let  $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$  and  $B = \{b_1, b_2, b_3, b_4, b_5\}$  which ordered pairs are in the relation  $R$  represented by the matrix  $M_R =$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution: — Because  $R$  consists of these ordered pairs  $(a_i, b_j)$  with  $m_{ij} = 1$ , it follows that  $R = \{(a_1, b_2), (a_2, b_1), (a_2, b_3), (a_2, b_4), (a_3, b_2), (a_3, b_4), (a_3, b_5)\}$

Q3] Suppose that the relation  $R$  on a set is represented by the matrix  $M_R =$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Solution : — Because all the Diagonal elements of this matrix are equal to 1,  $R$  is reflexive, moreover, because  $mR$  is symmetric it follows that  $R$  is symmetric. It is also easy <sup>to see</sup> that  $R$  is not antisymmetric.

Q9) Find the matrix representing the relation  $R^2$ , where the matrix representing  $R$  is

$$mR = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution : — The matrix for  $R^2$  is

$$mR^2 = mR[R] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Q5) Let  $R = \{(1,2), (3,4), (2,2)\}$  and  $S = \{(4,2), (2,5), (3,1), (1,3)\}$ . Find  $R \circ S, S \circ R, R \circ (S \circ R), (R \circ S) \circ R, R \circ R, S \circ S$ , and  $(R \circ R) \circ R$

Solution : — Given  $R = \{(1,2), (3,4), (2,2)\}$  and  $S = \{(4,2), (2,5), (3,1), (1,3)\}$ .

$$R \circ S = \{(1,5), (3,2), (2,5)\}$$

$$S \circ R = \{(4,2), (3,2), (1,4)\}$$

$$R \circ (S \circ R) = \{(3,2)\} = (R \circ S) \circ R$$

$$S \circ R = \{(4,2), (3,2), (1,4)\}$$

$$R \circ R = \{(1,2), (2,2)\}$$

$$S \circ S = \{(4,5), (3,3), (1,1)\}$$

$$(R \circ R) \circ R = \{(1,2), (2,2)\}$$



Q.5) Example: Let  $A = \{a, b, c\}$ , and  $R$  and  $S$  be relations on  $A$  whose matrices are as follows given below:—

$$M_R = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } M_S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Find the Composite relations  $R \circ S, S \circ R, R \circ R, S \circ S$  and their matrices

Solution:—

$$R = \{ (a, a), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c) \}$$

$$S = \{ (a, a), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c) \}$$

$$R \circ S = \{ (a, a), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c) \}$$

$$S \circ R = \{ (a, a), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c) \}$$

$$R \circ R = \{ (a, a), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c) \}$$

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$$S \circ R = \{ (a, a), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c) \}$$

$$R \circ R = \{ (a, a), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c) \}$$

$$S \circ S = \{ (a, a), (a, c), (b, a), (b, b), (c, c) \}$$

The matrices of the above Composite relations are as given below—

$$M_{R \circ S} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} ; M_{S \circ R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} ;$$

$$M_{R \circ R} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} ; M_{S \circ S} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Directed Graph —

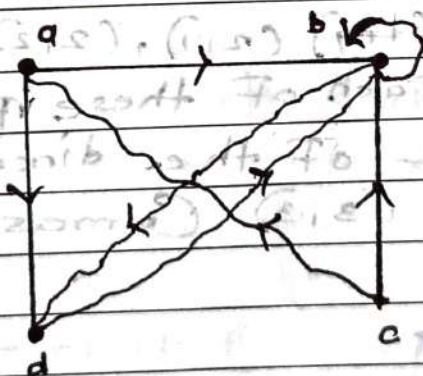
A Directed Graph, or Digraph, consists of a set  $V$  of vertices (or nodes) together with a set  $E$  of ordered pairs of elements of  $V$  called edges (or arcs). The vertex  $a$  is called the initial vertex of the edge  $e(a, b)$  and the vertex  $b$  is called the terminal vertex of this edge.

Note: —

An edge of the form  $(a, a)$  is represented using an arc from the vertex  $a$  back to itself. Such an edge is called a loop.

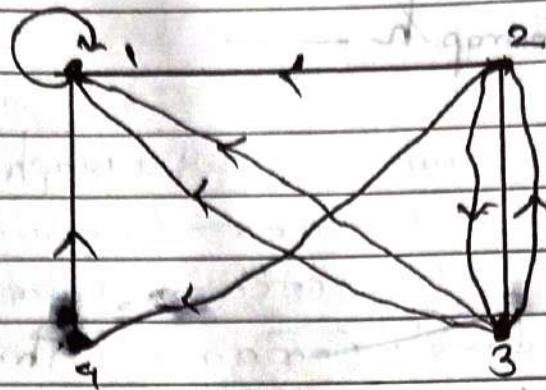
Example 1 —

1) The Directed graph with vertices  $a, b, c$  and  $d$ , and edges  $(a, b), (a, d), (b, b), (b, d), (c, a), (c, b)$  and  $(d, b)$ .

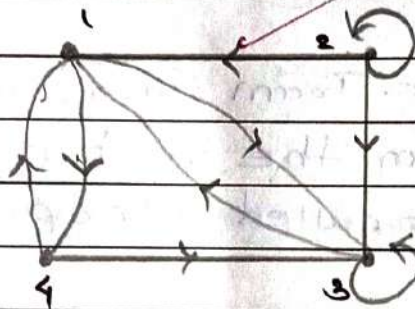


2) The Directed graph of the relation  $R = \{(1, 1), (1, 3), (2, 1), (2, 3), (2, 4), (3, 1), (3, 2), (4, 1)\}$  on the set  $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  is shown in





3) What are ordered pairs in the relation respectively by the directed graph shown in



Solution: —

The ordered pairs  $(x, y)$  in the relation  $R = \{(1, 3), (1, 4), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (3, 1), (3, 3), (4, 3)\}$ . Each of these pairs corresponds to an edge of the directed graph with  $(2, 2)$  and  $(3, 3)$  corresponding to loops



## Equivalence Relations: —

A relation on a set  $A$  is called an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive. Two elements  $a$  and  $b$  that are related by an equivalent element with respect to a particular equivalence relation.

### Example: —

1. Let  $R$  be the relation on the set of real numbers that  $aRb$  if and only if  $a-b$  is an integer. Is  $R$  an equivalence relation?

### Solution: —

i) Because  $a-a=0$  is an integer for all the real numbers  $a$ ,  $aRa$  for all real numbers  $a$ .

Hence,  $R$  is reflexive.

ii) Now suppose that  $aRb$

then  $a-b$  is an integer so  $b-a$  is also an integer.

Hence  $bRa$

it follows that  $R$  is symmetric.

iii) If  $aRb$  and  $bRc$ , then  $a-b$  and  $b-c$  are integers.

Hence  $aRc$ .

Thus,  $R$  is transitive.

Consequently,  $R$  is an equivalence relation.



- 9) Let  $X = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$  and  $R = \{(x, y) \mid x - y \text{ is divisible by } 3\}$ . Show  $R$  is an equivalence relation.

Solution: —

- i) For any  $x \in X$ ,  $x - x = 0$  is divisible by 3

$$\therefore xRx$$

$\Rightarrow R$  is reflexive.

- ii) For any  $x, y \in X$ , if  $xRy$ , then  $x - y$  is divisible by 3.

$\rightarrow x - (x - y)$  is divisible by 3.

$y - x$  is divisible by 3

$$\rightarrow yRx$$

Thus, the relation  $R$  is symmetric

- iii) For any  $x, y, z \in X$  let  $xRy$  and  $yRz$

$\rightarrow (x - y) + (y - z)$  is divisible by 3.

$x - z$  is divisible by 3

$$xRz$$

Hence, the relation  $R$  is transitive

Thus, the relation  $R$  is an equivalence relation.



Q3) Suppose that  $R$  is the relation on the set of strings of English letters such that  $aRb$  if and only if  $l(a) = l(b)$  where  $l(a)$  is the length of the string  $a$ . Is  $R$  an equivalence relation?

Solution: —

i) Because  $l(a) = l(a)$  it follows that  $aRa$  whenever  $a$  is a string, so that  $R$  is reflexive.

ii) Next, Suppose that  $aRb$ , so that  $l(a) = l(b)$  then  $bRa$ , because  $l(b) = l(a)$ . Hence  $R$  is symmetric.

iii) Finally, suppose that  $aRb$  and  $bRc$ . Then  $l(a) = l(b)$  and  $l(b) = l(c)$ . Hence  $l(a) = l(c)$ , so  $aRc$ . Consequently,  $R$  is transitive.

Because  $R$  is reflexive, symmetric and transitive; it is an equivalence relation.



## • Partial Orderings

30: A relation  $R$  on set  $S$  is called a Partial Order relation if it is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive. A set  $S$  together with a Partial ordering  $R$  is called a Partially Ordered Set or poset, and is denoted by  $(S, R)$ . Members of  $S$  are called elements of the poset.

### • Example, —

Let  $\geq$  be the "greater than or equal" relation.  $(\geq)$  is a Partial Ordering on the set of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

### Solution: —

Let  $\mathbb{Z}$  be the set of all integers and the relation  $R = \geq$

Since  $a \geq a$  for every integers  $a$ , the relation  $R = \geq$

ii) Let  $a$  and  $b$  for every integer  $a$ , Let  $a R b$  and  $b R a \implies a \geq b$  and  $b \geq a \implies a = b$

$\therefore$  the relation ' $\geq$ ' is antisymmetric



iii) Let  $a, b$  and  $c$  be any three integers.  
Let  $a \leq b$  and  $b \leq c \Rightarrow a \leq c$   $\therefore a = a = b$

$\therefore$  the relation ' $\leq$ ' is transitive. Since the relation ' $\leq$ ' is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive, ' $\leq$ ' is Partial Ordering on the set of integers.

therefore  $(\mathbb{Z}, \leq)$  is a poset.

Q3) The divisibility relation  $|$  is a Partial Ordering on the set of positive integers.

Solution:—

let  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  be the set of positive integers which doesn't include 0.

Since i)  $a/a$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $|$  is reflexive

ii)  $a|b$  and  $b|a \Rightarrow a = b$   $|$  is antisymmetric

iii)  $a|b$  and  $b|c \Rightarrow a|c$ ,  $|$  is transitive

it follows that  $|$  is Partial Ordering on  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $(\mathbb{Z}^+, |)$  is a poset.



## Hasse Diagrams

A Partial order  $\leq$  on a set  $P$  can be represented by means of diagram known as Hasse diagram of  $P$  ( $P, \leq$ ), in such diagram

i) Each element is represented by a small circle or dot.

ii) The Circle for  $x \in P$  is drawn below the Circle for  $y \in P$  if  $x < y$ , and a line is drawn between  $x$  and  $y$  if  $y$  covers  $x$ .

iii) if  $x < y$  but  $y$  does not cover  $x$ , then  $x$  and  $y$  are not connected directly by single line.

### Example

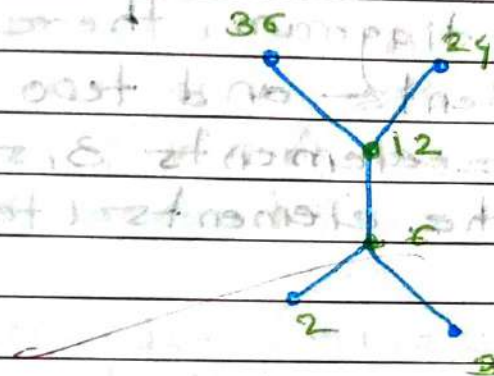
i) Let  $P = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$  and  $\leq$  be the relation "less than or equal to", then the Hasse diagram is





- (2) Let  $X = \{2, 3, 6, 12, 24, 36\}$  and the relation  $\leq$  be such that  $x \leq y$  if  $x$  divides  $y$ . Draw the Hasse diagram of  $(X, \leq)$ .

Solution: —



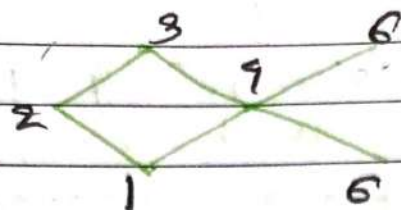
### • Minimal And Maximal Element.

Let  $(P, \leq)$  denote a partially ordered set. An element  $y \in P$  is called a minimal member of  $P$  relative to  $\leq$  if for no  $x \in P$  is  $x < y$ . Similarly an element  $y \in P$  is called a maximal member of  $P$  relative to the partial ordering  $\leq$  if for no  $x \in P$  is  $y < x$ .

Example: —

- (1) Find the maximal and minimal elements.

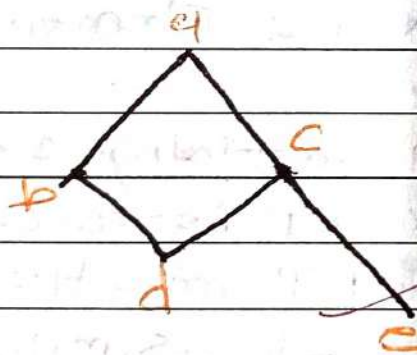




Solution: -

in the Hasse diagram, there are two maximal elements and two minimal elements. the elements 3, 5 are maximal and the elements 1 to 6 are minimal.

(2) Find the maximal and minimal elements of



let  $A = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$  and let the Partial Order on  $A$  in the natural way. the element  $a$  is maximal the elements  $d$  and  $e$  are minimal.



## • Lexicographic Ordering

the lexicographic ordering  $\leq$  on  $A_1 \times A_2$  is defined by specifying the one pair is less than (in  $A_1$ ) the first entry of the second pair, or if the first entries are equal, but the second entry of this pair is less than (in  $A_2$ ) the second entry of the second pair.

In words—  $(a_1, a_2)$  is less than

$(b_1, b_2)$  that is—  $(a_1, a_2) < (b_1, b_2)$ .

either if  $a_1 < b_1$  or if both  $a_1 = b_1$  and  $a_2 < b_2$ . we obtain a partial Ordering by adding equality to the Ordering  $<$  on  $A_1 \times A_2$ .

### Example

- 1) Determine whether  $(3, 5) < (4, 5)$  whether  $(3, 5) < (4, 5)$  and whether  $(4, 9) < (4, 1)$  in the poset  $(2 \times 2)$ , where  $\leq$  is the lexicographic ordering constructed from the usual  $\leq$  relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Solution, —



Because  $3 < 4$  it follows that  
 $(3, 5) < (4, 8)$  and that  $(2, 8) < (4, 5)$   
 we have  $(4, 9) < (4, 11)$

because the first entries  
 of  $(4, 9)$  and  $(4, 11)$  are same  
 and  $9 < 11$

10/05/2024, Friday Assignment - 5  
 5. probability

Basic probability Concepts:-

Random Experiment:-

An activity that produces an outcome is referred to as an experiment. It is said to be a random experiment if its outcome cannot be predicted with certainty.

eg.

If a coin is tossed, one cannot predict beforehand whether head or tail will appear so, it is a random experiment.

Sample space:-

The set of all possible outcomes of an experiment is called the sample space. It is denoted by  $S$  or its number.



OF elements are denoted by  $n(S)$ .

Example 1 —

while rolling a die, the no that would appear would be any of the numbers among 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 so here —

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\} \text{ and } n(S) = 6.$$

Similarly in the case of tossing an unbiased coin

$$S = \{\text{Head}, \text{Tail}\} \text{ or } \{H, T\} \text{ and } n(S) = 2$$

The elements of the sample space are called sample points.

Event 1 —

Every subset of a sample space is an event it is denoted by 'E'.

Example 1 — in throwing a dice

$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$  the appearance of an even no will be the event  $E = \{2, 4, 6\}$ . clearly E is subset of S.

Types of events 1 —



## • Types events : —

Simple event : — An event consisting of a single sample point is called a simple event.

Compound event : — A subset of the sample space, which has more than one element is called a Compound event.

## • Equally likely events : —

Events are said to be equally likely if there is no reason to believe that one is more probable to occur than the other.

•

## Exhaustive Events : —

Two or more events are said to be exhaustive if they collectively constitute the sample space.

## • Sure event : —

Let 'S' be a sample space. If  $E$  is equal to S, the  $E$  is called a sure event.

• mutually exclusive or disjoint event : — If two or more events cannot occur simultaneously i.e. no two of them can occur simultaneously, they are called mutually exclusive or disjoint events.



- Types events ; —

Simple event ; — An event consisting of a single sample point is called a simple event.

Compound event ; — A subset of the sample space, which has more than one element is called a compound event.

- Equally likely events ; —

Events are said to be equally likely if there is no reason to believe that one is more probable to occur than the other.

- 

Exhaustive Events ; —

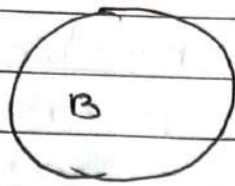
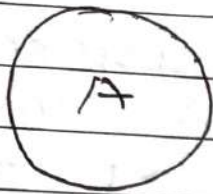
Two or more events are said to be exhaustive if they collectively constitute the sample space.

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Let  $S$  be a sample space. If  $E$  equal to  $S$  the  $E$  is called a sure event.

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$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

• Independent or mutually independent events; —

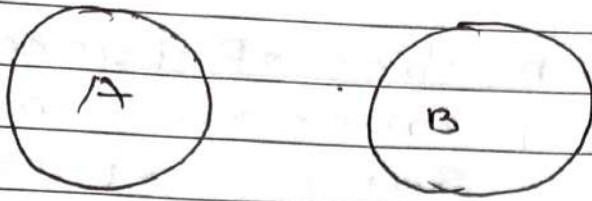
two or more are said to be independent if the occurrence or non-occurrence of them does not affect the probability of occurrence or non-occurrence of the other events.

\* Complement of an event; —

let  $S$  be the sample space for random experiment and  $E$  be an event of occurrence of head in the second throw & the event of occurrence of head in the second throw are independent event.

• Classical definition of Probability; if  $S$  be the sample space then the probability of occurrence of an event ' $E$ ' defined as —





$$A \cap B = \emptyset$$

• Independent or mutually independent events; —

two or more are said to be independent if the occurrence or non-occurrence of them does not affect the probability of occurrence or non-occurrence of the other events.

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• Classical definition of Probability; if  $S$  be the sample space then the probability of occurrence of an event ' $E$ ' defined as —



$$P(E) = \frac{n(E)}{n(S)} = \frac{\text{number of elements in 'E'}}{\text{number of elements in Sample space 'S'}}$$

• Properties of Probability:—

- ① The probability of an event lies between '0' & '1', i.e.  $0 \leq P(E) \leq 1$ .
- ② The probability of an impossible event is '0' &  $P(\emptyset) = 0$ .
- ③ The Probability of a sure event is '1', i.e.  $P(S) = 1$ , where 'S' is the sure event.
- ④ If two events 'A' & 'B' such that  $A \subset B$  then  $P(A) \leq P(B)$ .
- ⑤ If 'E' is any event and 'E' be the complement of event 'E', then  $P(E) + P(E') = 1$ .

• Problems:—

Q.17 —> let 'E' =

Event of getting all heads

then  $E = \{HHH\}$ ;  $n(E) = 1$

$$P(E) = \frac{n(E)}{n(S)} = \frac{1}{8} = 1/8$$



(ii) Let ' $E_2$ ' =

Event of getting at least <sup>one</sup> head  
then  $E_2 = \{HHT, HTH, THH\}$ ;

$$n(E_2) = 3$$

$$P(E_2) = \frac{3}{8}$$

(iii) Let ' $E_3$ ' =

Event of getting at least one head  
then  $E_3 = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, THH, HHT, THT, TTH\}$ ;

$$n(E_3) = 7$$

$$P(E_3) = \frac{7}{8}$$

(iv) Let ' $E_4$ ' =

Event of getting at least two heads  
then  $E_4 = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, THH\}$ ;

$$n(E_4) = 4$$

$$P(E_4) = \frac{n(E)}{n(S)} = \frac{4}{8} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Q2) → (i)  $P(\text{1 knows, 1 queen, 1 king, 1 ace})$

$$= \frac{4C1 \times 4C1 \times 4C1 \times 4C1}{5^2C4}$$

$$= \frac{256}{270725} = 0.0009$$



ii)  $P$  (Four honours of same suit)

$$= \frac{1+1+1+1}{52C4} = \frac{4}{270725}$$

iii)  $P$  (One from each suit)

$$= \frac{13C1 \times 13C1 \times 13C1 \times 13C1}{52C4} = \frac{41}{673}$$

$$= 0.1055$$

iv)  $P$  (2 red, 2 black) =  $\frac{26C2 \times 26C2}{52C4}$

$$= \frac{325}{833} = 0.3902$$

Hom

Chad  
10/05/21



# Notes

provided

by

Vaibhavi Jadhav

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