Discrete Mathematical Structures

for Computer Scientists and Engineers

M.K. Das



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Alpha Science International Ltd. Oxford, U.K.

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In Memory of Sri Surendra Chandra Das and Smt. Renu Bala Das my parents

Preface

The present book is the result of teaching the course IT-14, Mathematical Foundation for Computer Science at Institute of Informatics and Communication (IIC), University of Delhi South Campus. The present text is suitable for a one- or two-semester course and covers topics incorporated in the course work for students of Computer Science, Computer Application, Electronics & Communication, Telecommunication Engineering and Informatics and Information Technology at Indian and other Universities. I was guided to write this book because of my interest in the subject of Discrete Mathematics and Theoretical Computer Science. Keeping this in view, the primary emphasis in the book is to discuss basic issues in Discrete Mathematical Structures and also in the area of Mathematical Theory of Computation. At IIC, we have students coming from different streams such as Mathematical Sciences, Physical Sciences, Electronics and Engineering. Even though they are quite familiar and conversant with basic algebra, calculus, differential equations, integral transforms etc., it is observed that they find the subject of discrete mathematics as somewhat difficult. Further discussion with many of them, during last several years, suggest that the students in general want to focus on the relevance and practicality of various ideas involved in the area of Discrete Mathematics. This aspect has been taken into account during various stages of this project. It is already known that the discrete mathematics is the mathematics of discrete objects and their binding relationships. Developments in digital technology during the second half of the last century coincided with interest in the subject of discrete mathematics. It is now established that the various practical issues involved in the theory of computation involves basic understanding of some abstract structures and their formulations as discussed in the text. The understanding of such formulations further helps in developing ideas involved in data structures and algorithms and their performance. These ideas along with the concept of finite state machine and automata enables one to visualize and formulate the basic ideas of the theory of computation. In the present text I have tried to concisely present various conceptual ideas involved at various level with examples of their applications. The emphasis is made to show the relevance and practical application of the ideas involved in discrete mathematics. I feel that the present text is self contained and user friendly and hopefully the language is simple for students and amateurs to understand and appreciate the basic ideas of mathematics as used in the theory of computation. Suggestions for improvement are welcome and may be sent to mrinal@iic.ac.in

M.K. Das

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I take the responsibility for any error(s) that still remain in this book. I would certainly appreciate receiving any comments and suggestion for further improvements and presentation from readers.

Contents

	Acknowledgements			
1.		ents of Set Theory	1	
1.	1.1	Basic Notation 1		
		1.1.1 Subsets 2		
		1.1.2 Equality of Sets 3		
	1.2	Power Set 3		
	1.3	Complement of a Set 3		
	1.4	Universal Set 3		
	1.5	Null Set 3		
	1.6	Basic Set Operations 4		
	1.7	Finite Set 7		
	1.8	Algebraic Properties of Set Operations 7		
		1.8.1 Principle of Inclusion and Exclusion 8		
	1.9	Characteristic Function 9		
		1.9.1 Hamming Distance 10		
		Computer Representation of Sets and Subsets 10		
	1.11	AN ACCOUNT A SERVICE COURT AND A COURT OF THE PERSON OF TH		
		Definition of a Fuzzy Set 11		
	1.13	Membership Function and Characteristics of Fuzzy Sets 13		
	1.14	Fuzzy Sets and Sets 17		
	1.15	Fuzzy Set Operations 17		
2.	Mathematical Logic		27	
	2.1	Propositions and Logical Connectives 28		
		2.1.1 Negation 28		
		2.1.2 Conjunction 28		
		2.1.3 Disjunction 29		
		2.1.4 Conditional Connectives 31		
		2.1.5 Formulas and Rule of Precedence 33		
		2.1.6 Tautologies 33		
		2.1.7 Logical Equivalence 35		
		2.1.8 Logical Quantifiers 36		
	2.2	The control of the co		
	2.3	Mathematical Induction 40		

3.	3. Relations			
	3.1 Cross-Product or Cartesian Product of Two Sets 50			
	3.2 Binary Relation 51			
	3.3 N-ary Relations 52			
	3.4 Matrix of a Relation 53			
	3.5	Digraphs 54		
	Sets Related to R 55			
	3.6 Sets Related to R 553.7 Paths in Relations 56			
	3.8 Properties of Relations in a Set 59			
		8-1		
3.8.2 Matrix of Reflexive, Symmetric, Asymmetric, Antisymmetric an				
		Transitive Relations 62		
	3.9 Equivalence Relation 63			
3.10 Partition of a Set 65				
	3.11	Interpretation of Equivalence Relation using Digraph 65		
	3.12 Equivalence Relations and Partitions 66			
	3.13	Operations on Relation 69		
		3.13.1 Composition of Relations 71		
		3.13.2 Closures of Relations 73		
		3.13.3 Warshall Algorithm 77		
	3.14	Linked List Representation of Data 85		
	3.15	Computer Representation of Relations and Digraph 88		
4.	Functions			
	4.1	One-to-one, onto and Inverse Functions 101	97	
	4.2	Composition of Functions 107		
	4.3	The Graphs of Functions 109		
	4.4	Some Functions in Computer Science 110		
4.5 Growth of Functions 1204.6 Recursive Functions 124		Growth of Functions 120		
5.	Partial Order and Structures 13			
	5.1	Partially Ordered Sets 136		
	5.2	Lexicographic Order 139		
	5.3	Hasse Diagram 141		
	5.4	Maximal and Minimal Elements of a Poset 145		
	5.5	Topological Sorting 151		
	5.6 Lattice 154 5.6.1 Properties of Lattics 157 5.6.2 Lattice as Algebraic System 159			
		5.6.2 Lattice as Algebraic System 1595.6.3 Direct Product of Lattices 162		
	5.6.4 Sublattice 163			
	5.7	5.6.5 Lattice Homomorphism 165 Special Lattices 166		
	5.7	opecial Lattices 100		

	5.8	Finite Boolean Algebra 168 5.8.1 Boolean Functions 172 5.8.2 Representation of Basic Boolean Polynomials: Logic Gates 175 5.8.3 Minimization of Combinational Circuits 177				
6.	Con	ombinatorics and Algebraic Systems 198				
	6.1	Basic Counting Methods 198				
	6.2	Permutation and Combination 200				
	6.3	Elements of Discrete Probability Theory 203				
		6.3.1 Probability Axioms 203				
		6.3.2 Conditional Probability 204				
		6.3.3 Independence of Events 205				
		6.3.4 Baye's Rule 206				
		6.3.5 Bernoulli Trials 208				
		6.3.6 Random Variables 210				
		6.3.7 Distribution of a Random Variable 210				
	6.4	Recurrence Relations 212				
		6.4.1 Solution of Recurrence Relations 214				
		6.4.2 Generating Function and its Application to find Solution of				
		Recurrence Relation 219				
	6.5	6.4.3 Divide-and-Conquer Relations 222				
	0.5	Algebraic Systems 224				
		6.5.1 Binary Operation 224 6.5.2 Semigroup 225				
		6.5.3 Monoid 226				
		6.5.4 Subsemigroup and Submonoid 227				
		6.5.5 Semigroup Isomorphism and Homomorphism 227				
		6.5.6 Products and Quotients (or Factor) Semigroups 228				
		6.5.7 Groups 231				
		6.5.8 Finite Groups and Group Tables 233				
		6.5.9 Elementary Properties of Groups 234				
	6.6	Permutation Group 236				
		6.6.1 Cyclic Groups 239				
		6.6.2 Subgroup <i>241</i>				
		6.6.3 Group Homomorphism 241				
		6.6.4 Cosets and Lagrange Theorem 242				
		6.6.5 Normal Subgroup 244				
		6.6.6 Quotient Group and Product of Groups 245				
		6.6.7 Algebraic Coding Theory 245				
7.	Elen	nents of Graph Theory	265			
: -	7.1	Graphs 265	203			
	7.2	Some Graph Models 269				
		Basic Graph Terminology 272				
		7.4.1 Application of Simple Special Graphs 279				

	7.5 7.6 7.7 7.8 7.9	Operations on Graphs 281 Graph Representation 287 7.6.1 Adjacency List 287 7.6.2 Matrix Representation of a Graph 288 Isomorphism of Graphs 291 Counting Paths of Length k 296 Graph Traversal: Eulerian and Hamiltonian Paths 299 7.9.1 Euler Graph 299 7.9.2 Fleury's Algorithm 302 7.9.3 Hamilton Graph 305 7.9.4 Hamilton Circuit in a n-cube 309			
		7.9.5 Conversion of Analog Information to Digital Form 310			
	7.10	Shortest Path in a Graph 311 7.10.1 A Shortest Path Algorithm 311 7.10.2 The Travelling Salesman Problem 321			
	7.11	Planar Graphs 323			
	7.12	Detection of Planarity and Kuratowski's Theorem 327			
8.	Trees		342		
	8.1	Trees 342			
	8.2	Tree Terminology 345			
	8.3	Rooted Labeled Trees 352			
	8.4	Prefix Code 357			
	8.5	Binary Search Tree 366			
	8.6	Tree Traversal 370			
		8.6.1 Prefix, Infix and Postfix Notations 375			
	8.7 Spanning Tree 381				
		8.7.1 Breadth—First Search Method (BFS) 384			
		8.7.2 Depth—First Search Method (DFS) 386			
	8.8	Minimum Spanning Trees (MST) 390			
	8.9	Decision Trees 397			
	8.10	Sorting Methods 399			
		8.10.1 The Bubble Sort 400			
		8.10.2 The Merge Sort 402			
9.	Finite	State Machine and Automata	420		
	9.1	Finite State Model (FSM) 421			
	9.2	Input and Output String in FSM 425			
	9.3	Input-Output Transformation of an FSM 429			
	9.4	Equivalent Machines 430			
	9.5				
		9.5.1 Deterministic Finite Automaton (DFA) 434			
		9.5.2 Nondeterministic Finite Automata 439			
	9.6	Conversion of NDF into DFA 441			
	9.7	The Equivalence of DFA and NDFA 445			

9.9 9.9 9.1	9.9. 9.9. 9.9. 9.9.	Regular Expressions (Regular Sets) and Finite Automata	454 459	
10. La	nguage	s, Grammar, Push Down Automata & Turing Machine	473	
10	.1 Lan	guages and Grammar 473		
10	10.2 Types of Grammar (Chomsky's Classification) 479			
10	10.3 Regular Grammar 481			
		3.1 Regular Grammar and Regular Language 481		
		3.2 Closure Properties of Regular Languages 484		
		3.3 Identification of Regular Languages 487		
10.4 Context-Free Grammar & Language (or Language				
		ith Type-2 Grammar) 490		
		.1 Ambiguity in Context-free Grammar 492		
		.2 Removing Ambiguity from CFG 494		
10		text-free Grammar and Normal Form 494		
		.1 Elimination of Useless Symbols 495		
		.2 Elimination of Λ -productions 498		
		.3 Elimination of Unit Productions 500		
		.4 Chomsky Normal Form 501		
		.5 Greibach Normal Form 503		
		ping Lemma for CFG 505		
		sure Properties of CFL 507		
10.		Down Automata 507		
		.1 Moves in PDA 509		
		.2 Instantaneous Descriptions 510		
10		.3 Language accepted by PDA's 511		
		and Context-free Grammar 514		
10.		ng Machine 516		
		0.1 Instantaneous Description (ID) 5180.2 Moves in TM 518		
		0.3 Representation of Transition 5180.4 TM Computable Languages 520		
		0.4 TM Computable Languages 320 0.5 TM Computable Functions 520		
	10.1	0.5 TWI Computable Functions 520		
Referen	ices		529	
Index			532	

1

Elements of Set Theory

A subject called set theory has been identified as even more basic than arithmetic and geometry by mathematicians during the last century. It provides important basic concepts of contemporary mathematics. The ideas of set theory find application in all branches of mathematics as they form a powerful language for reasoning about various mathematical objects. Intuitively we define a set as collection of objects. The objects in such a collection are referred to as set elements. Even though such a definition lacks rigors, we use it in much the same way as a point and a line are left undefined in geometry. In this chapter, we assume that a set is determined when a plurality (consisting of a number of things) is bunched together into a single entity. For instance a set called Hindi alphabet comprises 49 things called letters. Similarly the real number system could be considered as a set formed collectively from things each of which is a real number.

1.1 Basic Notation

In order to make the concept of a set more precise, we distinguish things which are collected together in a set from those which are not. Because of this, the set notation and theory must be precise and unambiguous. It is customary to designate a set by capital letters A, B, P, Q, X, Y etc. When the number of things or objects comprising a set is small, the set is denoted by listing the elements within the braces $\{\}$, thus establishing the singular nature of the set. For instance a set of digits in the binary system of enumeration is denoted by $X = \{0, 1\}$. Similarly $A = \{a, e, i, o, u\}$ denotes the set of vowels in English language.

We represent the relationship between a set and its elements by the symbol \in (belongs to) in the following way:

means that the element i is a member of the set named V. Alternatively such a representation also means 'i belongs to V' or 'i is in V' or 'i is an element of V'. If however, an element say d does not belong to a set V above, we write

For a large set, the enumeration could be done without actually listing all the elements. For instance, 26 letters of the set English alphabet could be described as:

$$A = \{a, b, c, ..., x, y, z\}$$

where three consecutive dots, called ellipsis, mean that the list should be continued in accordance with the pattern indicated. For instance the set of natural numbers could be represented as:

$$N = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}.$$

Similarly the set of integers is represented as:

$$Z = \{..., -2, -1, 0, 1, 2,...\}$$

Another but convenient notation of writing a set is as:

$$B = \{x: P(x)\},\$$

where x is a variable and P(x) is a descriptive phrase called *predicate*. The variable is mostly indicated by a lower case letter and the predicate is a description of the allowed replacement for that variable. They are usually separated by a colon: or by a vertical bar |. For instance the set $B = \{x: x \text{ is an integer}, x < 0\}$, means that B is a set of x such that x is an integer and x is less than zero. Similarly the set $E = \{x: x^2 - 4 = 0\}$ means that the set E has elements x such that $x^2 - 4 = 0$. Since $x = \pm 2$ are the solutions of the equation $x^2 - 4 = 0$, we have $E = \{2, -2\}$. The two forms are equivalent.

Further we would like to mention here that the order in which the elements of a set are listed is not important. Thus the representation of the set $\{1, 5, 2\}$ by $\{1, 2, 5\}$, $\{2, 5, 1\}$, $\{5, 1, 2\}$ etc., are all equivalent. Moreover the listing in a set might have repeated element(s) and this may be ignored. Thus $\{1, 5, 2, 5, 1\}$ is another representation of $\{1, 5, 2\}$.

1.1.1 Subsets

We may write the following definition for the subset of a set:

Definition: Let A and B be two sets. If every element of A is also an element of B, then A is a subset of B and is written as $A \subseteq B$.

Here the symbol \subseteq is called the *inclusion* or *subset relation*. Thus $A \subseteq B$ also means 'A is included in B' or 'A is contained in B'. If A is not a subset of B, we write $A \not\subseteq B$. For instance if $A = \{2, 5, 7\}$ and $B = \{5, 7, 2, 3, 9\}$, we find $A \subseteq B$ since for every $x \in A$, we have $x \in B$. Similarly if N, Z, Q and R respectively denote the set of positive integer, set of integers, set of rational numbers and set of real numbers then

$$N \subseteq Z \subseteq Q \subseteq R$$
.

In the foregoing definition on subset, observe that the possibility of A = B is not excluded. Excluding such a possibility reduces the set as proper subset of B or $A \subset B$.

Also if A be a set and B = {A, {A}}. We find A \in B and {A} \in B and {{A}} \subseteq B. However A $\not\subseteq$ B.

Example 1 If $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ and $B = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, 1, 2, 3\}$. What can be said about the set relationship between A and B?

Solution It is readily seen that $A \subseteq B$ and $A \in B$.

1.1.2 Equality of Sets

We have the following definition for the equality of sets:

Definition: Let A and B be two sets. Then two sets are equal i.e., A = B, if and only if for every $x \in A$, $x \in B$ and vice-versa. In other words if $A \subseteq B$ and $B \subseteq A$ then A = B.

Example 2 Consider two sets $A = \{2, 1, 3, 6\}$ and $B = \{6, 1, 2, 3\}$. Since every element of A is also an element of B and vice-versa, we have A = B. Note that the ordering of elements of A or B is unimportant.

1.2 Power Set

We define the power set as follows:

Definition: Let A be a set consisting of n elements. The set of all subsets of A is called the power set of A. It consists of 2^n elements.

Example 3 For the set $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$, find the power set $\mathcal{P}(A)$ of A?

Solution Here we find four element subset as $A = \{a, b, c, d\}$; three element subsets as $\{a, b, c\}, \{b, c, d\}, \{a, c, d\}, \{a, b, d\}$; two element subsets as $\{a, b\}, \{a, c\}, \{a, d\}, \{b, c\}, \{b, d\}, \{c, d\}$; and one element subsets as $\{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{d\}$. Further zero element subset is \emptyset . Thus in all there are 16 subsets or 2^4 subsets of A. The power set $\mathscr{P}(A)$ is also denoted as 2^A .

1.3 Complement of a Set

Definition: Let A and B be two sets. The set consisting of all elements of B which are not in A is called the complement of A and B and is denoted by B - A.

In the set builder notation, we may write $B - A = \{x: x \in B, x \notin A\}$. To find the complement of A in B, we eliminate in B all elements which belong to A.

For instance Z-N corresponds to a set containing the element zero and all negative integers.

1.4 Universal Set

In a set the elements usually belong to some large set called the universal set U. A universal set, for instance, in plane geometry consists of all points in the plane; the elements of the set $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ may be treated as belonging to a universal set U = N.

1.5 Null Set

We define a null set or an empty set ϕ as a set that has no element in it. It is also represented as $\{$ $\}$. Thus for any set A, we have $\phi \subseteq A$ as there are no elements of ϕ that are not in A. For

instance the square of a real number is always positive. Hence $\{x: x \text{ is a real number and } x^2 = -3\}$ is a null set ϕ .

1.6 Basic Set Operations

Addition and multiplications are examples of binary operations on numbers. These operations could be defined in many other contexts and are not restricted to numbers only. The union, intersection, and complement are some basic operations on sets. Based on these operations, set theory offers a well defined mathematical structure and becomes an indispensable tool in solving quite complicated combinatorial problems.

The basic idea, of a Venn diagram, could be used to understand and visualize the basic set operations and set relationships. In Venn diagram, the largest set under consideration, U-the universal set is portrayed by a rectangle while its various subsets are represented by circular regions inside it. The Venn diagram (Fig. 1.1) shows the set A separating U into two disjoint pieces A and \overline{A} (or A^c)—the complement of A (shaded region). In the following section, we will define the basic operation on sets and their representation in Venn diagram.

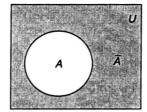


Fig. 1.1 Venn diagram

Definition: Let A and B be two sets. The set of all elements \in A or \in B (or in both A and B) is called the union of A and B and is abbreviated as A \cup B.

Alternatively $A \cup B = \{x: x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$. The Venn diagram of union of A and B is shown below (Fig. 1.2).

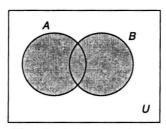


Fig. 1.2 The shaded region showing $A \cup B$

The union of n sets A_i 's, i = 1, n written as:

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup ... \cup A_n = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i$$

represents the set of elements that belongs to one or more of the sets A;

Definition: Let A and B be two sets. The set of all elements which are both in A and B defines the intersection of set A and B and is symbolically written as $A \cap B$.

Alternatively $A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$. The Venn diagram of intersection of two sets A and B is shown below (Fig. 1.3).

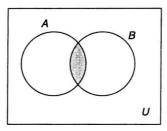


Fig. 1.3 The shaded region $A \cap B$

The intersection of n sets A_i 's, i = 1, n written as:

$$A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \cap ... \cap A_n = \bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i$$

represents the set of elements which belongs to all of the sets Ai.

The following theorem provides the relation between the union and intersection:

Theorem: Let A and B be two sets. If U is the universal set then $\phi \subseteq A \cap B \subseteq A \subseteq A \cup B \subseteq U$.

Proof: The null set is a subset of any set. If $x \in A \cap B$ then by definition, $x \in A$ and $x \in B$. If $x \in A$, then it is in at least one of the sets A and B. Hence $x \in A \cup B$. Since A and $B \in U$, A $\cup B \subseteq U$.

Example 5 Let $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$, $B = \{2, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$ and $C = \{1, 15, 17\}$. Find $A \cup B$, $A \cap B$, $A \cap C$ and $B \cap C$?

Soution Using the definition of basic set operations, we find that

$$A \cup B = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\} = B \cup A,$$

 $A \cap B = \{2, 4, 5\} = B \cap A,$
 $A \cap C = \{1\},$

 $B \cap C = \{ \} = \emptyset \{ \text{If two sets are such that no element is common then the two sets are said to be disjoint or nonintersecting} \}.$

Example 6 If $A = \{2, 4, 6, 8, 10, ...\}$, $B = \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9,\}$ then $A \cup B = N$ and $A \cap B = \emptyset$.

Example 7 For any set A, A \cup A = A and A \cap A = A. Therefore, using the foregoing theorem, it is readily seen that $\phi \in A$.

Example 8 The Venn diagram for union and intersection of any three sets could be drawn as (Fig. 1.4).

The complement of set A with respect to a set B and vice-versa, defined earlier could be represented by the following Venn diagrams (Fig. 1.5).