Dundigal, Hyderabad - 500043

## INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

DEFINITIONS AND TERMINOLOGY QUESTION BANK

| Course Name | $:$ | DISCRETE MATHEMATICAL STRUCTURES |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Course Code | $:$ | ACSB04 |
| Program | $:$ | B.Tech |
| Semester | $:$ | III |
| Branch | $:$ | Computer Science and Engineering |
| Section | $:$ | A, B, C \& D |
| Academic Year | $:$ | 2019- 2020 |
| Course Faculty | $:$Ms. K Mayuri, Assistant Professor <br> Mr. N V Krishna Rao, Assistant Professor <br> Ms. N M Deepika, Assistant Professor <br> Ms. G Nishwitha, Assistant Professor <br> Ms. B Dhanalaxmi, Assistant Professor <br> Ms. B Pravallika, Assistant Professor |  |

## COURSE OBJECTIVES:

The course should enable the students to:

| I | Describe the logical and mathematical foundations, and study abstract models of computation. |
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| II | Illustrate the limitations of predicate logic. |
| III | Define modern algebra for constructing and writing mathematical proofs. |
| IV | Solve the practical examples of sets, functions, relations and recurrence relations. |
| V | Recognize the patterns that arise in graph problems and use this knowledge for constructing <br> the trees and spanning trees. |

DEFINITIONS AND TERMINOLOGYQUESTION BANK

| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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| MODULE-I |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | Define Proposition? | A proposition is a statement that is either true or false. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 2 | ACSB04.02 |
| 2 | Define connectives? | Any word or expression used to connect two or more statements is called as connectives | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 1 | ACSB04.01 |
| 3 | What is implication? | Logical implication is a type of relationship between two statements or sentences. The relation translates verbally into "logically implies" or "if/then" and is symbolized by a doublelined arrow pointing toward the right ( $\quad$ ). If A and B represent statements, then $\mathrm{A} \Longrightarrow \mathrm{B}$ means "A implies B " | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 1 | ACSB04.01 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  |  | or "If A, then B." |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { DefineTautology } \\ & ? \end{aligned}$ | A Tautology is a formula which is always true for every value of its propositional variables. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 2 | ACSB04.02 |
| 5 | Define contradiction? | A Contradiction is a formula which is always false for every value of its propositional variables. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 2 | ACSB04.02 |
| 6 | What is Contigency? | A proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction is called a contingency. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 2 | ACSB04.02 |
| 7 | What are Connectives in Propositional Logic? | Propositional logic provides five different types of connectives - <br> - OR (V) <br> - AND ( $\wedge$ ) <br> - Negation/ NOT (ᄀ) <br> - Implication / if-then $(\rightarrow)$ <br> - If and only if $(\Leftrightarrow)$. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 1 | ACSB04.01 |
| 8 | What is negation? | The negation of a proposition A (written as $\neg A$ ) is false when $A$ is true and is true when A is false. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 1 | ACSB04.01 |
| 9 | What is conjunction? | The conjunction of two statements (or propositions) p and q is the statement $\mathrm{p} \wedge \mathrm{q}$ which is read as $p$ and $q$. The statement $\mathrm{p} \wedge \mathrm{q}$ has the truth value $T$ whenever both $p$ and $q$ have the truth value $T$. Otherwise it has truth value F . | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 1 | ACSB04.01 |
| 10 | What is disjunction? | The disjunction of two statements p and q is the statement $\mathrm{p} \vee \mathrm{q}$ which is read as p or q . The statement $\mathrm{p} \vee \mathrm{q}$ has the truth value $F$ only when both p and q have the truth value F . Otherwise it has truth value T. | Remember | CO 1 | $\text { CLO } 1$ | ACSB04.01 |
| 11 | Define quantifers? | Quantifiers are words that are refer to quantities such as 'some' or 'all'. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 3 | ACSB04.03 |
| 12 | What is Universal quantifer? | Universal quantifier states that the statements within its scope are true for every value of the specific variable. It is denoted by the symbol $\forall$. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 3 | ACSB04.03 |
| 13 | What is Existential quantifer? | Existential quantifier states that the statements within its scope are true for some values of the specific variable. It is denoted by the symbol $\exists$. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 3 | ACSB04.03 |
| 14 | What are nested quantifers? | If we use a quantifier that appears within the scope of another quantifier, it is called nested quantifier. | Understand | CO 1 | CLO 3 | ACSB04.03 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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| 15 | What is elementary product? | A product of the variables and their negations in a formula is called elementary product? | Understand | CO 1 | CLO 4 | ACSB04.04 |
| 16 | What is elementary sum? | A sum of the variables and their negations in a formula is called a elementary sum. | Understand | CO 1 | CLO 4 | ACSB04.04 |
| 17 | What is disjunctive normal form? | Sum of elementary products is called as disjunctive normal form of the given formula. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 4 | ACSB04.04 |
| 18 | What is conjunctive normal form? | Product of elementary sum is called as conjunctive normal form of the given formula. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 2 | ACSB04.02 |
| 19 | What is quantified statement? | A proposition involving the universal or the existential quantifier is called as quantified statement. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 2 | ACSB04.02 |
| 20 | What is Duality principle? | Duality principle states that for any true statement, the dual statement obtained by interchanging unions into intersections (and vice versa) and interchanging Universal set into Null set (and vice versa) is also true. If dual of any statement is the statement itself, it is said self-dual statement. | Understand | CO 1 | CLO 3 | ACSB04.03 |
| 21 | Define Predicate? | A common part or factor in a statement is called as predicate. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 2 | ACSB04.02 |
| 22 | What is conditional statement? | A compound proposition obtained by combining two given propositions by using the words 'if 'and 'then' at appropriate places is called a conditional statement. | Understand | CO 1 | CLO 2 | ACSB04.02 |
| 23 | What is biconditional statement? | A biconditional statement is a combination of a conditional statement and its converse written in the if and only if form. <br> A biconditional is true if and only if both the conditionals are true. <br> Bi-conditionals are represented by the symbol $\leftrightarrow$ or $\Leftrightarrow$. <br> $\mathrm{p} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{q}$ means <br> that $\mathrm{p} \rightarrow \mathrm{q}$ and $\mathrm{q} \rightarrow \mathrm{p}$. | Understand | CO 1 | $\text { CLO } 3$ | ACSB04.03 |
| 24 | List the types of Normal Forms? | Types of Normal form <br> 1. Disjunctive Normal form <br> 2. Conjunctive normal form | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 3 | ACSB04.03 |
| 25 | What is Principle Disjunctive normal form? | For a given formula an equivalent formula consisting of a disjunction of minterms only is known as its principle disjunction normal form. Such a normal form is also said to be the sum-product canonical form. | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 3 | ACSB04.03 |
| 26 | What is Principle Conjunctive | The principle of conjunctive normal form or the product-sum canonical form, the equivalent | Remember | CO 1 | CLO 3 | ACSB04.03 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  | normal form? | formula consists of only the conjunction the maxterms only. |  |  |  |  |
| MODULE-II |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | Define a set? | Collection of elements is called set | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 2 | Define a subset? | Give two set A and B if B contains some elements of A then B is called subset of A | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 3 | Define null set? | A set with no elements is called null set. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 4 | Define equal sets? | Two sets A and B are said to equal if they have same elements | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 9 | ACSB04 . 09 |
| 5 | Define universal set? | A set which contains all sets as subsets is called universal set and it is denoted by U | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 6 | Define power set? | For a given set A we construct a set consisting of all subsets of A that set is called power set of A . | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 7 | What are the operation on sets? | The operation on sets are <br> 1. Union <br> 2. Intersection <br> 3. Complement <br> 4. Difference | Understand | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 8 | Define Commutative laws? | Commutative laws are <br> (1) $\mathrm{A} \cup \mathrm{B}=\mathrm{B} \cup \mathrm{A}$ <br> (2) $\mathrm{A} \cap \mathrm{B}=\mathrm{B} \cap \mathrm{A}$ | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 9 | Define associative law? | Associative laws are <br> (1) $\mathrm{A} \cup(\mathrm{B} \cup \mathrm{C})=(\mathrm{A} \cup \mathrm{B})$ $\because \mathrm{C}$ <br> (2) $\mathrm{A} \cap(\mathrm{B} \cap \mathrm{C})=(\mathrm{A} \cap \mathrm{B})$ $\cap \mathrm{C}$ | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | $\text { ACSB04 . } 05$ |
| 10 | Define distributive laws? | Distributive laws are $\text { (1) } \begin{aligned} & \mathrm{A} \cap(\mathrm{~B} \cup \mathrm{C})=(\mathrm{A} \cap \mathrm{~B}) \\ & \\ & \cup(\mathrm{A} \cap \mathrm{C}) \end{aligned}$ <br> (3) $\mathrm{A} \cup(\mathrm{B} \cap \mathrm{C})=(\mathrm{A} \cup \mathrm{B})$ $\cap(\mathrm{A} \cup \mathrm{C})$ | Remember | CO 2 | $\text { CLO } 5$ | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 11 | Define idempotent laws? | Idempotent Laws are <br> (1) $A \cup A=A$ <br> (2) $\mathrm{A} \cap \mathrm{A}=\mathrm{A}$ | Remember |  | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 12 | Define identity laws? | Identity laws are <br> (1) $\mathrm{A} \cup Q=\mathrm{A}$ <br> (2) $A \cap U=A$ | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 13 | Define law of double complement law? | Double Complement law is Ã $=\mathrm{A}$ | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 14 | Define inverse law? | Inverse law are <br> (1) $A \cup A \bar{A}=U$ <br> (2) $A \cap \tilde{A}=Q$ | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 15 | Define DeMorgan law? | DeMorgan laws are <br> (1) $(A \cup B)^{c}=A^{c} \cap B^{c}$ <br> (2) $(A \cap B)^{c}=A^{c} v B^{c}$ | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 16 | Define domination law? | Domination laws are <br> (1) $A \cup U=U$ <br> (2) $A \cap Q=Q$ | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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| 17 | Define absorption law? | Absorption Laws <br> (1) $\mathrm{A} \cup(\mathrm{A} \cap \mathrm{B})=\mathrm{A}$ <br> (2) $A \cap(A \cup B)=A$ | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 18 | Define relation? | Let A and B are two sets. Thus if $R$ is a relation from $A$ to $B$ ,then R contains set of ordered pairs $(a, b)$ where $a \in A$ and $b € B$.then $R$ is said to be a relation from A to B . | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 19 | What is matrix of relation? |  | Understand | CO 2 | CLO 5 | ACSB04 . 05 |
| 20 | Define diagraph of a relation? | Let $r$ be a relation on finite set R.there are vertices and nodes,draw an arrow called edge,from vertex $x$ to vertex $y$ if and only $\operatorname{if}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}) € \mathrm{R}$,theresuling pictorial representation of $R$ is called a digraph of R. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 6 | ACSB04 . 06 |
| 21 | What are the operations of relation? | Operations of relations are <br> 1. Union and intersection of relations <br> 2. Complement of a relation <br> 3. Converse of a relation | Understand | CO 2 | CLO 7 | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 22 | What are the properties of relation? | Properties of relations defined on a set <br> 1. Reflexive relation <br> 2. Irreflexive relation <br> 3. Symmetric relation <br> 4. Compatibility relation <br> 5. Antisymmetric relation <br> 6. Transitive relation | Understand | CO 2 | $\text { CLO } 7$ | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 23 | Define reflexive relation? | A relation R on set A is reflexive whenever every element a of A is related to itself by R(i.e., aRa,for all a€A) | Remember | CO 2 | $\text { CLO } 7$ | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 24 | Define irreflexive relation? | A relation on a set A is said to be irreflexive if $(a, a) \in R$ for a€A.thatis, a relation $R$ is irreflexive if no element of $A$ is related to itself by R . | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 7 | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 25 | Define symmetric relation? | A relation R on a set is said to be symmetric $\quad$ if(b,a) $\in \mathrm{R}$ whenever $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}) € \mathrm{R}$ for all $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b} € \mathrm{~A}$. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 7 | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 26 | Define compatibility relation? | A relation R on a set A which is both reflexive and symmetric is called a compatibility relation on A. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 7 | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 27 | Define anti symmetric relation? | A relation R on a set A is said to be antisymmetric if whenever $(a, b) € R$ and $(b, a) € R$ then $a=b$. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 7 | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 28 | Define transitive relation? | A relation R on a set A is said to be transitive if whenever $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$ $€ \operatorname{Rand}(\mathrm{~b}, \mathrm{c}) € \mathrm{R}$ then $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{c}) € \mathrm{R}$,for all | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 7 | ACSB04 . 07 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  |  | a,b,c €A. |  |  |  |  |
| 29 | Define equivalence relation? | A relation between elements of a set which is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive and which defines exclusive classes whose members bear the relation to each other and not to those in other classes | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 7 | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 30 | Define partial order relation? | A relation that is reflexive, antisymmetric, and transitive is called a partial order. Two fundamental partial order relations are the "less than or equal" relation on a set of real numbers and the "subset" relation on a set of sets. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 7 | ACSB04 . 07 |
| 31 | Define maximal element? | An element $\mathrm{a} € \mathrm{~A}$ is called minimal element of A if there exists no element $\mathrm{x}!=\mathrm{a}$ in A such that aRx.in other words, $\mathrm{a} \in \mathrm{A}$ is a minimal element of $A$ if whenever there is $\mathrm{x} € \mathrm{~A}$ such that $a R x$ then $x=a$. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 8 | ACSB04 . 08 |
| 32 | Define minimal element? | An element $a € A$ is minimal element of A if there exists no element $x!=a$ in A such that $x R a$.in other words, $a$ is a minimal element of A if whenever there is $\mathrm{x} € \mathrm{~A}$ such that xRa , then $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 8 | ACSB04 . 08 |
| 33 | Define greatest element? | An element $\mathrm{a} € \mathrm{~A}$ is called a greatest element of A if xRa for all $x € A$. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 8 | $\text { ACSB04 . } 08$ |
| 34 | Define least element? | An element $\mathrm{a} € \mathrm{~A}$ is called a leat element of A if aRx for all $\mathrm{x} €$ A. | Remember | CO 2 | $\text { CLO } 8$ | ACSB04 . 08 |
| 35 | Define least upper bound(LUB)? | The least upper bound of $A$ is also called the supremum of $A$. It can be written $\sup (A)$ or $\operatorname{lub}(A)$. Sets with no upper bound have no least upper bound, of course. The set of all numbers is an example. The empty set has no least upper bound, because every number is an upper bound for the empty set. | Remember | CO 2 | $\text { CLO } 11$ | ACSB04 . 11 |
| 36 | Define greatest lower bound (GLB)? | The infimum of a subset $S$ of a partially ordered set T is the greatest element in T that is less than or equal to all elements of S , if such an element exists.Consequently, the term greatest lower bound(abbreviated as GLB) is also commonly used | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 11 | ACSB04 . 11 |
| 37 | Define lattice? | $\operatorname{Let}(A, R)$ be a poset.thisposet is called lattice if every twoelement subset of $A$ has a least | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 11 | ACSB04 . 11 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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| 38 | Define sub <br> lattice? <br> upper bound and a Greatest <br> lowe bound in A. | Let (l,r)be a lattice and M be a <br> subset of L.then M is called a <br> sublattice of L if a V b $€$ M and <br> a^ $€$ M whenever a $€$ M and b | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 11 | ACSB04 .11 |
| € M. |  |  |  |  |  |  |

7 | Page

| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  |  | a recursive function "builds"  <br> on itself. A recursive <br> definition has two <br> parts: Definition of the smallest  <br> argument (usually f (0) or f  <br> (1)).Definition of $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n})$, given f  <br> $(\mathrm{n}-1), \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n}-2)$  |  |  |  |  |
| 50 | Define Invertible function? | There is a symmetry between a function and its inverse. Specifically, if f is an invertible function with domain $X$ and range $Y$, then its inverse $f^{-1}$ has domain Y and range X , and the inverse of $\mathrm{f}^{-1}$ is the original function f . In symbols, for functions $\mathrm{f}: \mathrm{X} \rightarrow \mathrm{Y}$ and $\mathrm{f}^{-1}: \mathrm{Y}$ $\rightarrow \mathrm{X}$, and. | Remember | CO 2 | CLO 9 | ACSB04 . 09 |
| MODULE-III |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | Define Algebraic Structure? | A non empty set $S$ is called an algebraic structure w.r.t binary operation (*) if it follows following axioms: Closure: $(\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b})$ belongs to S for all $a, b \in S$. | Understand | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 2 | DefineSemi Group | A non-empty set $\mathrm{S},(\mathrm{S}, *)$ is called a semigroup if it follows the following axiom: <br> Closure: $(\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b})$ belongs to S for all $a, b \in S$. <br> Associativity: $\mathrm{a}^{*}(\mathrm{~b} * \mathrm{c})=\left(\mathrm{a}^{*} \mathrm{~b}\right) * \mathrm{c}$ $\forall \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$ belongs to S . | Remember | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 3 | Define closure property of semi group | Closure:(a*b) belongs to S for all $a, b \in S$. | Remember | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 4 | Define <br> Associativity property of semi group | Associativity: $\mathrm{a}^{*}(\mathrm{~b} * \mathrm{c})=(\mathrm{a} \text { * })^{*} \mathrm{c}$ $\forall \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$ belongs to S . | Remember | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 5 | Define monoid | A non-empty set S , (S,*) is called a monoid if it follows the following axiom: <br> Closure:(a*b) belongs to S for all $a, b \in S$. <br> Associativity: $\mathrm{a}^{*}\left(\mathrm{~b}^{*} \mathrm{c}\right)=\left(\mathrm{a}^{*} \mathrm{~b}\right)^{*} \mathrm{c}$ $\forall \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$ belongs to S . Identity Element:There exists e $\in S$ suchthat $a^{*} e=e^{*} a=a \forall a \in$ S | Remember | $\mathrm{CO} 3$ | CLO14 | ACSBO4.14 |
| 6 | Define group | A non-empty set G, (G,*) is called a group if it follows the following axiom: Closure:( $\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b}$ ) belongs to G for all $a, b \in G$. <br> Associativity: $\mathrm{a}^{*}(\mathrm{~b} * \mathrm{c})=(\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b})^{*} \mathrm{c}$ $\forall \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$ belongs to G . Identity Element:There exists e $\in G$ such that $a^{*} e=e^{*} a=a \forall a$ | Remember | CO 3 | CLO14 | ACSBO4.14 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  |  | $\in$ G <br> Inverses : $\forall \mathrm{a} \in \mathrm{G}$ there exists $a-1 \in G$ such that $a * a-1=a-1 * a$ $=\mathrm{e}$ |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | Define Abelian Group or Commutative group | A non-empty set $\mathrm{S},\left(\mathrm{S},{ }^{*}\right)$ is called a Abelian group if it follows the following axiom: Closure: $(\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b})$ belongs to S for all $a, b \in S$. <br> Associativity: $\mathrm{a}^{*}(\mathrm{~b} * \mathrm{c})=(\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b}) * \mathrm{c}$ $\forall \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$ belongs to S . <br> Identity Element:There exists e $\in S$ such that $a^{*} e=e^{*} a=a \forall a$ $\in S$ <br> Inverses: $\forall \mathrm{a} \in \mathrm{S}$ there exists a$1 \in S$ such that $a * a-1=a-1 * a=$ e <br> Commutative: $a * b=b * a$ for all $a, b \in S$ | Remember | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 8 | define Commutative group | A non-empty set $\mathrm{S},(\mathrm{S}, *)$ is called a Abelian group if it follows the following axiom: Closure:(a*b) belongs to S for all $a, b \in S$. <br> Associativity: $\mathrm{a}^{*}(\mathrm{~b} * \mathrm{c})=(\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b})^{*} \mathrm{c}$ $\forall \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$ belongs to S . <br> Identity Element:There exists e $\in S$ such that $a^{*} e=e^{*} a=a \forall a$ $\in S$ <br> Inverses: $\forall \mathrm{a} \in \mathrm{S}$ there exists a$1 \in S$ such that $a * a-1=a-1 * a=$ e Commutative: $\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b}=\mathrm{b} * \mathrm{a}$ for all $a, b \in S$ | Remember | $\text { CO } 3$ | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 9 | Define Associative law | An operation * on a set is said to be associative or to satisfy the associative law if, for any elements $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}$ in S we have $(\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b}) * \mathrm{c}=\mathrm{a} *(\mathrm{~b} * \mathrm{c})$ | Remember | CO 3 | CLO14 | ACSBO4.14 |
| 10 | Define commutative law | An operation * on a set $S$ is said to be commutative or satisfy the commutative law if, $\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{~b}=\mathrm{b}$ * $a$ for any element $a, b$ in $S$. | Remember | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 11 | define Identity element and inverse | Consider an operation * on a set $S$. An element e in $S$ is called an identity elements for *if for any elements a in S $-\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{e}=\mathrm{e} * \mathrm{a}=\mathrm{a}$ <br> Generally, an element $e$ is called a left identity or a right identity according to as $\mathrm{e} * \mathrm{a}$ or $\mathrm{a} * \mathrm{e}=$ awhere a is any elements in S . <br> Suppose an operation * on a set $S$ does have an identity elemente. The inverse of an element in S is element $b$ such that: $a * b=b * a=e$ | Remember | CO 3 | CLO14 | ACSBO4.14 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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| 12 | What is a ring isomorphism? | A ring homomorphism which is a bijection (one-one and onto) is called aring isomorphism. If f : $\mathrm{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{S}$ is such an isomorphism, we call the rings $R$ and Sisomorphic and write R S. Remarks. Isomorphic rings have all their ring-theoretic properties identical. | Remember | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 13 | What does it mean for two groups to be isomorphic? | In abstract algebra, a group isomorphism is a function between two groups that sets up a one-to-one correspondence between the elements of the groups in a way that respects the given group operations. If there exists an isomorphism between two groups, then the groups are called isomorphic. | Understand | CO 3 | CLO14 | ACSBO4.14 |
| 14 | What is ideal algebra? | In ring theory, a branch of abstract algebra, an ideal is a special subset of a ring. Ideals generalize certain subsets of the integers, such as the even numbers or the multiples of 3. ... The concept of an order ideal in order theory is derived from the notion of ideal in ring theory | Remember | CO 3 | CLO15 | ACSBO4.15 |
| 15 | What is a zero divisor of a ring? | Zero divisor. In a ring, a nonzero element is said to be a zero divisor if there exists a nonzero such that. For example, in the ring of integers taken modulo 6,2 is a zero divisor because a ring with no zero divisors is called an integral domain. | Remember | CO 3 | CLO15 | ACSBO4.15 |
| 16 | What makes a graph isomorphic? | Two graphs which contain the same number of graph vertices connected in the same way are said to be isomorphic. Formally, two graphs and with graph vertices are said to be isomorphic if there is a permutation of such that is in the set of graph edges if f is in the set of graph edges. | Remember | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 17 | What is the zero element of a ring? | In mathematics, the zero ideal in a ring is the ideal consisting of only the additiveidentity (or zero element). | Remember | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 18 | What is a ring isomorphism? | A ring homomorphism which is a bijection (one-one and onto) is called aring isomorphism. If f : $\mathrm{R} \rightarrow \mathrm{S}$ is such an isomorphism, we call the rings R and S isomorphic and write R S. Remarks. Isomorphic rings have | Understand | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  |  | all their ring-theoretic properties identical. |  |  |  |  |
| 19 | What is Homomorphism in discrete mathematics? | In algebra, a homomorphism is a structure-preserving map between two algebraic structures of the same type (such as two groups, two rings, or two vector spaces). | Understand | CO 3 | CLO13 | ACSBO4.13 |
| 20 | What is Homomorphism in discrete mathematics? | In algebra, a homomorphism is a structure | Understand | CO 3 | CLO14 | ACSBO4.14 |
| 21 | define the Fundamental Counting Principle | The Fundamental Counting Principle (also called the counting rule) is a way to figure out the number of outcomes in a probability problem. Basically, you multiply the events together to get the total number of outcomes. | Remember | CO 3 | CLO16 | ACSBO4.16 |
| 22 | What is combination discrete mathematics? | A combination is a selection of all or part of a set of objects, without regard to the order in which objects are selected. For example, suppose we have a set of three letters: A, B, and C. ... Each possible selection would be an example of a combination. | Remember | CO 3 | CLO 17 | ACSBO4.17 |
| 23 | What is pigeonhole principle in discrete mathematics? | The pigeonhole principle states that if items are put into containers, with , then at least one container must contain more than one item. | Remember | CO 3 | CLO17 | ACSBO4.17 |
| 24 | What is sum and product rule of combinatorics? | In combinatorics, the rule of sum or addition principle is a basic counting principle. Stated simply, it is the idea that if we have A ways of doing something and $B$ ways of doing another thing and we can not do both at the same time, then there are $\mathrm{A}+\mathrm{B}$ ways to choose one of the actions | Remember | $\mathrm{CO} 3$ | CLO18 | ACSBO4.18 |
| MODULE-IV |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | Define recurrence relation? | A recurrence relation is an equation that defines a sequence based on a rule that gives the next term as a function of the previous term(s). | Remember | CO 4 | CLO 19 | ACSB04 . 019 |
| 2 | What is generating function? | A generating function is a (possibly infinite) polynomial whose coefficients correspond to terms in a sequence of numbers $a_{n}$. | Understand | CO 4 | CLO 19 | ACSB04 . 019 |
| 3 | What is First order Recurrence | A recurrence relation of the form : | Understand | CO 4 | CLO 20 | ACSB04 . 20 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  | relation? | $\mathbf{a}_{\mathrm{n}}=\mathbf{c} \mathbf{a}_{\mathrm{n}-1}+\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{n})$ for $\mathrm{n}>=1$ where $c$ is a constant and $f(n)$ is a known function is called linear recurrence relation of first order with constant coefficient. If $f(n)$ $=0$, the relation is homogeneous otherwise non-homogeneous. |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | What is Second orderlinear homogeneous Recurrence relation? | A recurrence relation of the form $\mathbf{c}_{\mathrm{n}} \mathbf{a}_{\mathrm{n}}+\mathbf{c}_{\mathrm{n}-1} \mathbf{a}_{\mathrm{n}-1}+\mathbf{c}_{\mathrm{n}-2} \mathbf{a}_{\mathrm{n}-2}=0 \text { for }$ $n>=2$ <br> wherec ${ }_{n}, c_{\mathrm{n}-1}$ and $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{n}-2}$ are real constants with $\mathrm{c}_{\mathrm{n}}!=0$ is called a second order <br> linear homogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients. | Understand | CO 4 | CLO 20 | ACSB04 . 20 |
| 5 | What is characteristic equation? | The characteristic equation (or auxiliary equation) is an algebraic equation of degree $n$ upon which depends the solution of a given $n$ thorder differential equation. | Understand | CO 4 | CLO 21 | ACSB04 . 21 |
| 6 | What is third and higher order linear homogeneous recurrence relations? | A recurrence relation of the form $\begin{aligned} & c_{n} a_{n}+c_{n-1} a_{n-1}+c_{n-2} a_{n-2}+\ldots . .+c_{n-} \\ & k_{n-k} a_{n-k}=0, \text { for } n \geq k \geq 3, \end{aligned}$ <br> Where $\mathrm{cn}, \mathrm{cn}-1, \ldots . . \mathrm{cn}-\mathrm{k}$ are real constants with cn $\neq 0$. A relation of this type is called recurrence relation of third and higher order linear homogeneous relation with constant coefficients. | Understand | CO 4 | CLO 20 | ACSB04 . 20 |
| 7 | What is the form of Second and higher order linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relations? | A recurrence relation of the form $c_{n} a_{n}+c_{n-1} a_{n-1}+c_{n-2} a_{n-2}+\ldots \ldots+c_{n-}$ $\mathbf{k}_{n-k}=f(n) \text {, for } n \geq k \geq 2 \text {, }$ <br> Where $c_{n}, c_{n-1}, \ldots . c_{n-k}$ are real constants with $c_{n} \neq 0$ and $f(n)$ is a real valued function of $n$. | Understand | CO 4 | $\text { CLO } 21$ | ACSB04 . 21 |
| MODULE-V |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | Define Graph | Graph is a collection (nonempty set) of vertices and edges | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 2 | Define Vertices | A vertex (plural: vertices) is a point where two or more line segments meet. It can have names and properties | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 3 | Define Edges | It connects two vertices, can be labeled, can be directed. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 4 | Define Adjacent vertices | If there is an edge between the vertices then that vertices can be called as adjacent vertices. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 5 | Define undirected graphs | In undirected graphs the edges are symmetrical, e.g. if A and B are vertices, A B and B A are one and the same edge. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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| 6 | Define directed graphs | In directed graphs the edges are oriented; they have a beginning and an end. Thus A B and B A are different edges. Sometimes the edges of a directed graph are called arcs. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 7 | Define Cycles. | A cycle is a simple path with distinct edges, where the first vertex is equal to the last | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 8 | Define Loop | An edge that connects the vertex with itself | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 9 | Define Connected graph | There is a path between each two vertices in a graph are called connected graphs. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 10 | Define <br> Disconnected <br> graph | There are at least two vertices not connected by a path <br> Vertices: A,B,C,D <br> Edges: AB, AC | Remember | $\operatorname{CO} 5$ | $\text { CLO } 22$ | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 11 | Define Isomorphic graphs | Two graphs which contain the same number of graph vertices connected in the same way are said to be isomorphic. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 12 | Define Euler graph | A closed walk in a graph $G$ containing all the edges of $G$ is called an Euler line in G. A graph containing an Euler line is called an Euler graph. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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| 13 | Define Hamiltonian graphs | A cycle passing through all the vertices of a graph is called a Hamiltonian cycle. A graph containing a Hamiltonian cycle is called a Hamiltonian graph. A path passing through all the vertices of a graph is called a Hamiltonian path and a graph containing a Hamiltonian path is said to be traceable. Examples of Hamiltonian graphs are given in Figure <br> $e_{3}$ | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 23 | ACSB04 . 23 |
| 14 | Define Planar graph | A planar graph is an undirected graph that can be drawn on a plane without any edges crossing. Such a drawing is called a planar representation of the graph in the plane | Remember | CO 5 | $\text { CLO } 22$ | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 15 | Define Euler's Planar Formula | A planar representation of a graph splits the plane into regions, where one of them has infinite area and is called the infinite region. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 23 | ACSB04 . 23 |
| 16 | Define Graph Coloring | Graph coloring is the procedure of assignment of colors to each vertex of a graph $G$ such that no adjacent vertices get same color. The objective is to minimize the number of colors while coloring a graph. The smallest number of colors required to color a graph G is called its chromatic number of that graph. Graph coloring problem is a NP Complete problem. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 17 | Define Graph | Graph traversal is the problem | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Traversal | of visiting all the vertices of a graph in some systematic order. There are mainly two ways to traverse a graph. <br> Breadth First Search <br> Depth First Search |  |  |  |  |
| 18 | Define Digraphs | A graph in which each graph edge is replaced by a directed graph edge, also called a digraph. A directed graph having no multiple edges or loops (corresponding to a binary adjacency matrix with 0 s on the diagonal) is called a simple directed graph. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 19 | Define complete bidirected | A complete graph in which each edge is bidirected is called a complete directed graph. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 20 | Define oriented graph | A directed graph having no symmetric pair of directed edges (i.e., no bidirected edges) is called an oriented graph. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 21 | Define tournament | A complete oriented graph (i.e., a directed graph in which each pair of nodes is joined by a single edge having a unique direction) is called a tournament. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 22 | Define Directed acyclic graphs | Directed acyclic graphs (DAGs) are used to model probabilities, connectivity, and causality. A "graph" in this sense means a structure made from nodes and edges. | Remember |  | $\text { CLO } 23$ | ACSB04 . 23 |
| 23 | Define Weighted digraphs | We can assign numbers to the edges or vertices of a graph in order to enable them to be used in physical problems. Such an assignment is called the weight of the edges or vertices. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 23 | ACSB04 . 23 |
| 24 | Define Planarity | "A graph is said to be planar if it can be drawn on a plane without any edges crossing. Such a drawing is called a planar representation of the graph." | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 25 | Define Trees | A tree is an undirected graph with no cycles and a vertex chosen to be the root of the tree. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 24 | ACSB04 . 24 |
| 26 | Define spanning tree | A spanning tree of a graph A spanning tree of an undirected graph is a subgraph that contains all the vertices, and no cycles. If | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 24 | ACSB04 . 24 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  |  | we add any edge to the spanning tree, it forms a cycle, and the tree becomes a graph. |  |  |  |  |
| 27 | Define Complete graphs | Graphs with all edges present each vertex is connected to all other vertices, are called complete graphs. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 24 | ACSB04 . 24 |
| 28 | Define Dense graphs | relatively few of the possible edges are missing | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 24 | ACSB04 . 24 |
| 29 | Define Sparse graphs | relatively few of the possible edges are present | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 24 | ACSB04 . 24 |
| 30 | Define spanning forest | A spanning forest is a type of subgraph that generalises the concept of a spanning tree. However, there are two definitions in common use. One is that a spanning forest is a subgraph that consists of a spanning tree in each connected component of a graph. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 25 | ACSB04 . 25 |
| 31 | Define Minimum Spanning Tree | A spanning tree with assigned weight less than or equal to the weight of every possible spanning tree of a weighted, connected and undirected graph GG, it is called minimum spanning tree (MST). The weight of a spanning tree is the sum of all the weights assigned to each edge of the spanning tree. | Remember | CO 5 | $\text { CLO } 25$ | ACSB04 . 25 |
| 32 | Define Kruskal's Algorithm | Kruskal's algorithm is a greedy algorithm that finds a minimum spanning tree for a connected weighted graph. It finds a tree of that graph which includes every vertex and the total weight of all the edges in the tree is less than or equal to every possible spanning tree. | Remember | CO 5 | $\text { CLO } 25$ | ACSB04 . 25 |
| 33 | Define Degree of a Vertex | The degree of a vertex V of a graph $G$ (denoted by deg (V)) is the number of edges incident with the vertex V. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 34 | Define Degree of a Graph | The degree of a graph is the largest vertex degree of that graph. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 35 | Define null graph | A null graph has no edges. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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| 36 | Define Simple Graph | A graph is called simple graph/strict graph if the graph is undirected and does not contain any loops or multiple edges. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 22 | ACSB04 . 22 |
| 37 | Define Multi- <br> Graph | If in a graph multiple edges between the same set of vertices are allowed, it is called Multigraph. In other words, it is a graph having at least one loop or multiple edges. | Remember | $\text { CO } 5$ | $\text { CLO } 23$ | ACSB04 . 23 |
| 38 | Define Bipartite Graph | If the vertex-set of a graph G can be split into two disjoint sets, V1 and V2, in such a way | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 23 | ACSB04 . 23 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | that each edge in the graph joins a vertex in V1 to a vertex in V2, and there are no edges in G that connect two vertices in V1 or two vertices in V2, then the graph $G$ is called a bipartite graph. |  |  |  |  |
| 39 | Define Complete <br> Bipartite Graph | A complete bipartite graph is a bipartite graph in which each vertex in the first set is joined to every single vertex in the second set. The complete bipartite graph is denoted by $\mathrm{Kx}, \mathrm{y}$ where the graph G contains x vertices in the first set and $y$ vertices in the second set. | Remember | $\text { CO } 5$ | $\text { CLO } 23$ | ACSB04 . 23 |
| 40 | Define Nonplanar graph | A graph is non-planar if it cannot be drawn in a plane without graph edges crossing. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 23 | ACSB04 . 23 |
| 41 | Define Planar graph | G is called a planar graph if it can be drawn in a plane without any edges crossed. If we draw graph in the plane without edge crossing, it is called embedding the graph in the plane. | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 23 | ACSB04 . 23 |
| 42 | Define Isomorphism | If two graphs $G$ and $H$ contain the same number of vertices connected in the same way, they are called isomorphic graphs (denoted by $\mathrm{G} \cong \mathrm{H}$ ). <br> It is easier to check nonisomorphism than isomorphism. If any of these following conditions occurs, then two | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 24 | ACSB04 . 24 |


| S.No | QUESTION | ANSWER | Blooms Level | CO | CLO | CLO Code |
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|  |  | graphs are non-isomorphic - <br> 1. The number of connected components are different <br> 2. Vertex-set cardinalities are different <br> 3. Edge-set cardinalities are different <br> 4. Degree sequences are different |  |  |  |  |
| 43 | Define <br> Homomorphism | A homomorphism from a graph G to a graph H is a mapping (May not be a bijective mapping) <br> $\mathrm{h}: \mathrm{G} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}$ <br> $\mathrm{h}: \mathrm{G} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}$ such that - $\begin{aligned} & (\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}) \in \mathrm{E}(\mathrm{G}) \rightarrow(\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{x}), \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{y})) \in \mathrm{E}(\mathrm{H}) \\ & (\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}) \in \mathrm{E}(\mathrm{G}) \rightarrow(\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{x}), \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{y})) \in \mathrm{E}(\mathrm{H}) \end{aligned}$ <br> It maps adjacent vertices of graph <br> Gto the adjacent vertices of the graph H . | Remember | CO 5 | CLO 24 | ACSB04 . 24 |
| 44 | State properties of Homomorphism | A homomorphism is an isomorphism if it is a bijective mapping. <br> Homomorphism always preserves edges and connectedness of a graph. <br> The compositions of homomorphisms are also homomorphisms. <br> To find out if there exists any homomorphic graph of another graph is a NP complete problem. | Understand | CO 5 | CLO 24 | ACSB04 . 24 |
| 45 | Define HamiltonianGrap hs | A connected graph $G$ is called Hamiltonian graph if there is a cycle which includes every vertex of G and the cycle is called Hamiltonian cycle. Hamiltonian walk in graphG is a walk that passes through each vertex exactly once. | Remember | $\text { CO } 5$ | $\text { CLO } 23$ | ACSB04 . 23 |

