

Om Mistry ENGR123 Test 1:

$P \wedge Q$ (P and Q)
True only when both P and Q are true

P	Q	$P \wedge Q$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Conjunction And $P \wedge Q$
(P and Q) try when P and Q are true

P	Q	$P \vee Q$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

$P \vee Q$ (P or Q) true if one of P or Q is true

P	Q	$P \text{ xor } Q$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

$P \text{ xor } Q$ true when only one is true In English the word “or” has two different meanings. If someone said that they want “fish or steak for dinner”, you would not expect them to eat both. This is the exclusive use of “or”

P	$\neg P$
0	1
1	0

when P is false

P	Q	$P \rightarrow Q$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

$P \rightarrow Q$ (P implies Q)
If P then Q

P	Q	$Q \rightarrow P$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	1
1	1	1

$Q \rightarrow P$, Q if P, if P then Q
Note that $P \rightarrow Q$ and $Q \rightarrow P$ have very different meanings. “All engineering students are undergrads” is not the same as “all undergrads are engineering students”

$\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$	P	Q	$\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$
0	0	0	1
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	0
1	1	1	1

Tautology: Proposition-
-that’s always true
Contradiction: Proposition-
-that’s always false
Contingent: Neither Tautology or Contradiction

P	Q	$P \leftrightarrow Q$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Equivalence: P if and only if Q
Laws of Logic:

Double negation: $P \equiv \neg \neg P$
De Morgan’s laws:
 $\neg(P \wedge Q) \equiv (\neg P \vee \neg Q)$
 $\neg(P \vee Q) \equiv (\neg P \wedge \neg Q)$
 $P \rightarrow Q \equiv \neg P \vee Q$
Commutative laws:
 $P \wedge Q \equiv Q \wedge P$
 $P \vee Q \equiv Q \vee P$
Idempotent laws:
 $P \wedge P \equiv P$
 $P \vee P \equiv P$
Distributive laws:
 $P \vee (Q \wedge R) \equiv (P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$
 $P \wedge (Q \vee R) \equiv (P \wedge Q) \vee (P \wedge R)$

Double negation: $P \equiv \overline{\overline{P}}$
De Morgan’s laws:
 $\overline{P+Q} \equiv \overline{P} \cdot \overline{Q}$
 $\overline{P \cdot Q} \equiv \overline{P} + \overline{Q}$
 $P \rightarrow Q \equiv \overline{P} + Q$
Commutative laws:
 $P+Q \equiv Q+P$
Idempotent laws:
 $P+P \equiv P$
 $P \cdot P \equiv P$
Distributive laws:
 $P+(Q \cdot R) \equiv (P+Q) \cdot (P+R)$
Associative laws:
 $P \cdot (Q+R) \equiv (P \cdot Q) + (P \cdot R)$
 $P+(Q \cdot R) \equiv (P+Q) \cdot (P+R)$
 $P \wedge (Q \vee R) \equiv (P \wedge Q) \vee (P \wedge R)$
 $P \vee (Q \wedge R) \equiv (P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$
Contrapositive: $(P \rightarrow Q) \equiv (\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P)$
Tautology: if T is a tautology, then $P \vee T \equiv T$
 $P \wedge T \equiv P$
Contradiction: if F is a contradiction, then $P \vee F \equiv P$
 $P \wedge F \equiv F$



- The truth-table for implication has some counter-intuitive properties, called false premises
- People are often surprised that $P \rightarrow Q$ is true when P is false and Q is true. For example,
 - If I swim regularly, then I will get fit.
- It is quite possible that you do not swim regularly but get fit for a different reason (e.g. running regularly).
- True or False: “If Wellington is the largest city in China then Toronto is the capital of France?”
- The above example shows an even weirder property of implication: $P \rightarrow Q$ is true when both P and Q are false. In computer science, this is known as “Garbage in, garbage out”

Let \leq be a partial order on A. If $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$ then we say a and b are comparable. Otherwise, they are incomparable.
A total order is an order where all elements are comparable.
Example
Total orders:

- \leq on \mathbb{Z} or \mathbb{R}
- humans, with relation $a \leq b$ if b is taller than a (measured in picometers)

Not total orders:

- The subset relation on powerset
- the “ancestor+self” relation on humans

If Alex got an A then she passed ENGR123.
Alex passed ENGR123.
Alex got an A.

More formally:
 $\frac{P \rightarrow Q}{P}$ Invalid!

All human beings are mortal
Socrates is a human being
Socrates is mortal

More formally:
 $\forall x, P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$
 $P(\text{Socrates})$
 $Q(\text{Socrates})$

R	1	2	3	4
1	x	x	x	
2	x	x	x	
3	x			
4			x	x

The relation

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

Some rules of inference

- Modus ponens
 $\frac{P \quad P \rightarrow Q}{Q}$
- Modus tollens
 $\frac{P \rightarrow Q \quad \neg Q}{\neg P}$
- Or-elimination
 $\frac{P \vee Q \quad \neg P}{Q}$
- And-elimination
 $\frac{P \wedge Q}{P}$

Some rules of inference

- Transitivity
 $\frac{P \rightarrow Q \quad Q \rightarrow R}{P \rightarrow R}$
- Or-introduction
 $\frac{P}{P \vee Q}$
- Contrapositive
 $\frac{P \rightarrow Q}{\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P}$
- Implies-introduction
 $\frac{P \rightarrow Q}{P \rightarrow Q}$

Direct Proof

Goal: To prove $P \rightarrow Q$
Strategy: Assume P
...

Theorem
If x is even and y is even then $x+y$ is also even.

Theorem
If n is an odd integer, then so is n^2 .

Proof by contrapositive

Goal: To prove $P \rightarrow Q$
Strategy: Assume $\neg Q$
...

Theorem
If n is an odd integer, then so is n^2 .

f by contradiction
To prove $P \rightarrow Q$
Strategy: Assume P and $\neg Q$
...

Inclusion: $(P \wedge \neg Q) \rightarrow (R \wedge \neg R)$ which is a contradiction. Therefore, P cannot be true while Q is false. $P \rightarrow Q$.

The identity relation on A is

$id_A = \{(a, a) : a \in A\} = \{(x, y) \in A \times A : x = y\}$

In words, the identity relation is “each element is related to itself, and nothing else”.

The empty relation from A to B is

$\emptyset \subset A \times B$

e.g. Let A be the set of humans and B be the set of dinosaurs. The relation between people and dinosaurs, xRy if “they were born at the same nanosecond” is probably empty. In other words, not one person is related to a dinosaur in this sense.

The universal relation $R = A \times B$. “everything in A is related to everything in B”

Example

Let H be the set of all humans and

- $R_P = \{(x, y) | x \text{ is a parent of } y\} \subset H \times H$.
- $R_A = \{(x, y) | x \text{ is an ancestor of } y\} \subset H \times H$.
- $R_S = \{(x, y) | x \text{ is a sibling of } y\} \subset H \times H$.
- $R_B = \{(x, y) | x \text{ is a brother of } y\} \subset H \times H$.

We sometimes write aRb as a shorthand for $(a, b) \in R$

The relation

can be visualized using a table:

Composing relations

If $R \subset A \times B$ and $S \subset B \times C$ are two relations, then the composite relation $RS \subset A \times C$ is given by

$RS = \{(a, c) : \exists b \in B \text{ such that } aRb \wedge bSc\}$.

We often write $a(RS)c$ instead of $(a, c) \in RS$. The definition looks complicated, but is actually just common sense.

Example

If R_B is the relation “is a brother of” and R_P is the relation “is a parent of”, then $R_B R_P$ is the relation “is an uncle of”. In this case, the definition that Bill is an uncle of Jane if and only if there exists some person that Bill is a brother of x and x is a parent of Jane.

- What is $R_P R_B$?
- The relation $R_P R_P$ = “grandparent”.
- What is $R_A R_A$?
- What is $R_S R_S$?
- Check: $(RS)^{-1} = S^{-1} R^{-1}$.

Properties of relations

Relation R on a set A is

- reflexive if: $(a, a) \in R$ for all $a \in A$.
- symmetric if: $(a, b) \in R$ whenever $(b, a) \in R$.
- antisymmetric if: $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, a) \in R$ implies $a = b$.
- transitive if: $(a, b) \in R$ and $(b, c) \in R$ implies $(a, c) \in R$.

Properties of relations

Example

- reflexive: $R_{\text{height}} = \{(x, y) \in H \times H : x \text{ and } y \text{ are same height}\}$
- “I am the same height as myself”
- not reflexive: R_P (parent)
- “I am not my own parent”
- transitive: R_A (ancestor) and R_S (sibling)
- “my ancestor’s ancestor is my ancestor”
- not transitive: R_P (parent)
- “my parent’s parent is not my parent”

What is this all about?

- Equivalence relations capture the notion of abstraction. Abstraction is just a fancy word for “ignoring some details and paying attention to others”.
- For example, if all I care about is people’s ages – not their name, gender, intelligence, etc – then two people of the same age are identical as far as I’m concerned. And thus I group people by age.
- Similarly, if all I care about is the absolute value of numbers (and not their sign) then the numbers 2 and -2 are identical to me and I will group them together.
- Writing down an equivalence relation is a mathematical way of saying “I care about this aspect of things and nothing else”. It follows automatically that you’re grouping things together.

Example

- $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ and $C = \{\{1, 2, 3\}, \{4\}, \{5, 6\}\}$.
- $A = \mathbb{Z}$ and $C = \{\text{even numbers, odd numbers}\}$.
- $A = \mathbb{Z}$ and $C = \{\{0\}, \{-1, 1\}, \{-2, 2\}, \{-3, 3\}, \dots\}$.
- $A = \text{“humans”}$ and $C = \{\text{people } < 1 \text{ year, people } 1\text{-}2 \text{ years, } \dots\}$.
- $A = \text{“humans”}$ and $C = \{\text{people from Texas, everyone else}\}$.

Partitions \leftrightarrow equivalence relations

We can convert back and forth between partitions and equivalence relations.

Partition \rightarrow equivalence relations

Check:

If \sim is an equivalence relation on A then

$C = \{[a]_{\sim} : a \in A\}$

is a partition of A.

Partition \leftarrow equivalence relation

Check:

If C is a partition of A, then the relation

$a \sim b \text{ iff } (\exists c \in C \text{ satisfying } a \in c \text{ and } b \in c)$

is an equivalence relation on A.

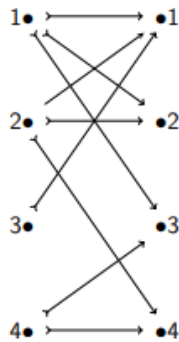
The inverse relation of $R \subset A \times B$ is

$R^{-1} = \{(b, a) \in B \times A : (a, b) \in R\}$.

Check: The inverse relation of ancestor is descendant; the inverse relationship of parent is child; the inverse relationship of sibling is sibling.
Check: $(R^{-1})^{-1} = R$.

Visualizing relations

Or a directed graph:



Properties of relations

Example

- symmetric: R_S
- “If I’m your sibling then you’re my sibling”
- not symmetric: R_B (brother)
- “just because I’m your brother does not mean you’re my brother – you could be my sister”
- not symmetric: R_A and R_P (ancestor and parent)
- “just because I’m your ancestor does not mean you’re my ancestor”

Equivalence Relations

Definition: Equivalence Relations

An equivalence relation is a relation $R \subset A \times A$ that is

- reflexive: $a \sim a$ for all $a \in A$
- symmetric: if $a \sim b$ then $b \sim a$
- transitive: if $a \sim b$ and $b \sim c$, then $a \sim c$.

We often use \sim , instead of R, to denote equivalence relations.

- An equivalence relation is something “like” equality. Note that equality is reflexive (because $a = a$ for any a) symmetric (because if $a = b$ then $b = a$) and transitive (because if $a = b$ and $b = c$ then $a = c$).
- Equivalence relations give us a mathematically precise way to talk about relations between objects that are “approximately equal” in some sense or other. Examples are given below.

Equivalence classes

Definition: Equivalence class

Let \sim be an equivalence relation on A. Then the set

$[a]_{\sim} = \{x \in A : x \sim a\}$

is called the \sim equivalence class of a.

the equivalence classes for:

- identity relation id_A .
- universal relation $A \times A$
- $H = \text{“humans”}$ and $R = \text{“have the same age”}$.
- $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} : a^2 = b^2$
- $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} : a + b \text{ is even}$
- $T = \text{“all propositions”}$.
- $\tau = \{(P, Q) \in \mathcal{P} \times \mathcal{P} : P \equiv Q\}$
- “pure-sibling+self” relation

