# Discrete Math for Computer Science

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# 1 Logic

#### 1.1 Propositions and Logical Operations

**Proposition**: a statement that is either <u>true</u> or <u>false</u>.

Some examples include "It is raining today" and " $3 \cdot 8 = 20$ ".

However, not all statements are propositions, such as "open the door"

Name	Symbol	alternate name	p	q	$\neg p$	$p \wedge q$	$p \lor q$	$p\oplus q$
NOT	Г	negation	Т	Т	F	Т	Т	F
AND	$\wedge$	conjunction	$\mathbf{T}$	F	F	F	Τ	Τ
OR	V	disjunction	$\mathbf{F}$	Т	Τ	F	T	Τ
XOR	$\oplus$	exclusive or	$\mathbf{F}$	F	Т	F	F	F

XOR is very useful for encryption and binary arithmetic.

## 1.2 Evaluating Compound Propositions

p: The weather is bad.  $p \wedge q$ : The weather is bad and the trip is cancelled

q: The trip is cancelled.  $p \lor q$ : The weather is bad or the trip is cancelled

r: The trip is delayed.  $p \wedge (q \oplus r)$ : The weather is bad and either the trip is cancelled or delayed

**Order of Evaluation**  $\neg$ , then  $\wedge$ , then  $\vee$ , but parenthesis always help for clarity.

#### 1.3 Conditional Statements

 $p \to q$  where p is the hypothesis and q is the conclusion

Format	Terminology			
$ \begin{array}{c}  p \to q \\  \neg q \to \neg p \\  q \to p \\  \neg p \to \neg q \end{array} $	given contrapositive converse inverse	$\begin{array}{c} p \rightarrow q \\ \neg p \rightarrow \neg q \end{array}$		contrapositive converse

Order of Operations:  $p \wedge q \rightarrow r \equiv (p \wedge q) \rightarrow r$ 

#### 1.4 Logical Equivalence

**Tautology**: a proposition that is always <u>true</u> Contradiction: a proposition that is always <u>false</u>

Logically equivalent: same truth value regardless of the truth values of their individual propositions

Verbally,

It is not true that the patient has migraines or high blood pressure  $\equiv$ 

 $\equiv$  The patient does not have migraines and does not have high blood pressure

It is not true that the patient has migraines and high blood pressure =

 $\equiv$  The patient does not have migraines or does not have high blood pressure

#### 1.5 Laws of Propositional Logic

You can use substitution on logically equivalent propositions.

Law Name	∨ or	$\wedge$ and
Idempotent	$p \lor p \equiv p$	$p \wedge p \equiv p$
Associative	$(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$	$(p \land q) \land r \equiv p \land (q \land r)$
Commutative	$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$	$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$
Distributive	$p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)$	$p \land (q \lor r) \equiv (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$
Identity	$p \lor F \equiv p$	$p \wedge T \equiv p$
Domination	$p \lor T \equiv T$	$p \wedge F \equiv F$
Double Negation	$\neg \neg p \equiv p$	
Complement	$p \vee \neg p \equiv T$	$p \land \neg p \equiv F$
DeMorgan	$\neg (p \lor q) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q$	$\neg (p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$
Absorption	$p \lor (p \land q) \equiv p$	$p \land (p \lor q) \equiv p$
Conditional	$p \to q \equiv \neg p \lor q$	$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \to q) \land (q \to p)$

#### 1.6 Predicates and Quantifiers

Predicate: a logical statement where truth value is a <u>function</u> of a variable.

P(x): x is an even number.

P(5): false

P(2): true

**Domain**: the set of all possible values for a variable in a predicate.

Ex.  $\mathbb{Z}^+$  is the set of all positive integers.

\*If domain is not clear from context, it should be given as part of the definition of the predicate.

Quantifier: converts a predicate to a proposition.

Quantifier	Symbol	Meaning
Universal	A	"for all"
Existential	1 3	"there exists"

$$\exists x(x+1 < x)$$
 is false.

Counter Example: universally quantified statement where an element in the domain for which the predicate is false. Useful to prove a  $\forall$  statement false.

#### 1.7 Quantified Statements

Consider the two following two predicates:

$$P(x): x \text{ is prime, } x \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

$$O(x): x \text{ is odd}$$

Proposition made of predicates:

$$\exists x (P(x) \land \neg O(x))$$

Verbally: there exists a positive integer that is prime but is not odd.

Free Variable: a variable that is free to be any value in the domain.

Bound Variable: a variable that is bound to a quantifier.

				P(x)	S(x)	$\neg S(x)$
$\mathbf{D}(m)$ .	x came to the party	P() ? G()	Joe	Т	F	Τ
\ /	- •	$P(x) \stackrel{?}{\equiv} \neg S(x)$	Theo	F	${ m T}$	$\mathbf{F}$
S(x):	x was sick	$P(x) \not\equiv \neg S(x)$	$\operatorname{Gert}$	Т	$\mathbf{F}$	${ m T}$
			$\operatorname{Sam}$	F	$\mathbf{F}$	${ m T}$

#### 1.8 DeMorgan's law for Quantified Statements

Consider the predicate: F(x): "x can fly", where x is a bird. According to the DeMorgan Identity for Quantified Statements,

$$\neg \forall x F(x) \equiv \exists x \neg F(x)$$

"not every bird can fly  $\equiv$ " there exists a bird that cannot fly

Example using DeMorgan Identities:

$$\neg \exists x (P(x) \to \neg Q(x)) \equiv \forall x \neg (P(x) \to \neg Q(x))$$
$$\equiv \forall x (\neg \neg P(x) \land \neg \neg Q(x))$$
$$\equiv \forall x (P(x) \land Q(x))$$

#### 1.9 Nested Quantifiers

A logical expression with more than one quantifier that binds different variables in the same predicate is said to have **Nested Quantifiers**.

Logic	Logic   Variable Boundedness		Meaning
		$\forall x \forall y \ \mathrm{M}(x,y)$	"everyone sent an email to everyone"
$\forall x \exists y \ P(x,y)$ $\forall x \ P(x,y)$	x, y bound $x$ bound, $y$ free	$\forall x \exists y \ \mathrm{M}(x,y)$	"everyone sent an email to someone"
$\exists x \exists y \ \mathrm{T}(x,y,z)$	x bound, $y$ free $x$ , $y$ bound, $z$ free	$\exists x \forall y \ \mathrm{M}(x,y)$	"someone sent an email to everyone"
$\exists x \exists y \ 1(x, y, z)$		$\exists x \exists y \ \mathrm{M}(x,y)$	"someone sent an email to someone"

There is a two-player game analogy for how quantifiers work:

Player	Action	Goal
Existential Player ∃	selects value for existentially-bound variables	tries to make expression <u>true</u>
Universal Player $\forall$	selects value for universally-bound variables	tries to make expression <u>false</u>

Consider the predicate L(x, y): "x likes y".

 $\exists x \forall y L(x, y)$  means "there is a student who likes everyone in the school".  $\neg \exists x \forall y L(x, y)$  means "there is no student who likes everyone in the school".

After applying DeMorgan's Laws,

 $\forall x \exists y \neg L(x, y)$  means "there is no student who likes everyone in the school".

#### 1.10 More Nested Quantifiers

M(x,y): "x sent an email to y". Consider  $\forall x \forall y \ M(x,y)$ . It means that "email sent an email to everyone including themselves". Using  $(x \neq y \rightarrow M(x,y))$  can fix this quirk.

 $\forall x \forall y (x \neq y \rightarrow M(x,y))$  means "everyone sent an email to everyone else

#### 1.10.1 Expressing Uniqueness in Quantified Statements

Consider L(x): x was late to the meeting. If someone was late to the meeting, how could you express that that someone was the only person late to the meeting? You want to express that there is someone where everyone else was not late, which can be done with

$$\exists x (L(x) \land \forall y (x \neq y \rightarrow \neg L(y)))$$

#### 1.10.2 Moving Quantifiers in Logical Statements

Consider M(x, y): "x is married to y" and A(x): "x is an adult". One way of expressing "For every person x, if x is an adult, then there is a person y to whom x is married to" is by this statement:

$$\forall x ( A(x) \rightarrow \exists M(x,y))$$

Since y does not appear in A(x), " $\exists y$ " can be moved so that it appears just after the " $\forall$ ", resulting with

$$\forall x \exists y ( A(x) \rightarrow M(x,y) )$$

When doing this, keep in mind that  $\forall x \exists y \not\equiv \exists y \forall x$ :

$$\forall x \exists y ( A(x) \rightarrow M(x,y)) \text{ means}$$

for every x, if x is an adult, there exists y who is married to x.

$$\exists y \forall x (A(x) \rightarrow M(x,y))$$
 means

There exists a y, such that every x who is an adult is also married to y

### 1.11 Logical Reasoning

**Argument**: a sequence of propositions, called <u>hypothesis</u>, followed by a final proposition, called the conclusion.

An argument is **valid** if the conclusion is true whenever the hypothesis are  $\underline{all}$  true, otherwise the argument is **invalid**.

An argument is denoted as: 
$$\begin{array}{c} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ \vdots \\ p_n \\ \hline \vdots \\ c \end{array}$$
 where 
$$\begin{array}{c} p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n \\ c \end{array}$$
 are hypothesis is the conclusion

#### 1.12 Rules of Inference with Propositions

#### 1.13 Rules of Inference with Quantifiers