

01204211 Discrete Mathematics

Lecture 1: Introduction

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What is this course about?

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IMHO, mathematics is a mean to communicate *precise* ideas.

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- ▶ I hope it is also true with this course.

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- ▶ To learn how to make mathematical arguments.
- ▶ To learn various fundamental mathematical concepts that are very useful in computer science.

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if a > b:  
    return a  
else:  
    return b
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The author claims that this program takes two variables a and b and returns the larger one.

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m = 0
for i = 0, 1, ..., n-1:
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    if n <= 1:
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The code above checks if n is a prime number. How fast can it run?

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Another example: testing primes (2)

Consider the following code.

```
Algorithm CheckPrime2(n): // Input: an integer n
    if n <= 1:
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Ok, it should be faster. **But is it correct?**

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- ▶ Are we done?

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- ▶ How can we do that?

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- ▶ Before we continue, I'd like to add a bit of formalism to our thinking process.

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- ▶ Note that this statement can either be “true” or “false.” If we can demonstrate, using logical/mathematical arguments that this statement is true, we can say that we **prove** the statement.

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- ▶ Are we doom? Not really. The statement above is not precisely the statement we want to prove.

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Revised statement

For all positive composite integer n , and for every divisor a of n such that $\sqrt{n} < a < n$,

$$2 \leq b \leq \sqrt{n},$$

where $b = n/a$.

- ▶ Note that this revised statement is now “quantified,” that is, every variable in the statement has specific scope. Now the statement is either true or false.

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- ▶ Examples:
 - ▶ Algorithm CheckPrime2 is correct.
 - ▶ $10^2 = 90$.
 - ▶ $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.
- ▶ Examples of statements which are not propositions (why?):
 - ▶ $x > 10$.
 - ▶ $1 + 2 + \cdots + 10$.
 - ▶ This algorithm is fast.
 - ▶ Run, run quickly.

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- ▶ An expression $P \wedge Q$ is an example of *propositional forms*. The logical value of a propositional form “usually” depends on the truth value of its variables.

Connectives: “and”, “or”, “not”

Given propositions P and Q , we can use connectives to form more complex propositions:

- ▶ **Conjunction:** $P \wedge Q$ (“ P and Q ”),
(True when both P and Q are true)
- ▶ **Disjunction:** $P \vee Q$ (“ P or Q ”),
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- ▶ **Negation:** $\neg P$ (“not P ”),
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If P stands for “today is Tuesday” and Q stands for “dogs are animals”, then

- ▶ $P \wedge Q$ stands for “today is Tuesday and dogs are animals”,
- ▶ $P \vee Q$ stands for “today is Tuesday or dogs are animals”, and
- ▶ $\neg P$ stands for “today is not Tuesday”.

Truth tables

To represents values of propositional forms, we usually use truth tables.

And/Or/Not

P	Q	$P \wedge Q$	$P \vee Q$	$\neg P$
T	T	T	T	F
T	F	F	T	
F	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	F	

Quick check 1

For each of these statements, define propositional variables representing each proposition inside the statement and write the proposition form of the statement.

- ▶ All prime numbers are larger than 0 and all natural numbers is at least one.
- ▶ You are smart or you won't be taking this class.

Quick check 2

Use a truth table to find the values of (1) $P \wedge \neg P$ and (2) $P \vee \neg P$.

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Note that $P \wedge \neg P$ is always false and $P \vee \neg P$ is always true. A propositional form which is always true regardless of the truth values of its variables is called a *tautology*. On the other hand, a propositional form which is always false regardless of the truth values of its variables is called a *contradiction*.

Implications

Given P and Q , an implication

$$P \Rightarrow Q$$

stands for “if P , then Q ”. This is a very important propositional form.

It states that “when P is true, Q must be true”. Let’s try to fill in its truth table:

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- ▶ We say that in this case, the statement $P \Rightarrow Q$ is *vacuously true*.
- ▶ You might feel a bit uncomfortable about this, because in most natural languages, when we say that if P , then Q we sometimes mean something more than that in the logical expression " $P \Rightarrow Q$."

One explanation

- ▶ But let's look closely at what it means when we say that:

if P is true, Q must be true.

- ▶ Note that this statement does not say anything about the case when P is false, i.e., it only considers the case when P is true.

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- ▶ This is an example when mathematical language is “stricter” than natural language.

Noticing if-then

We can write “if P , then Q ” for $P \Rightarrow Q$, but there are other ways to say this. E.g., we can write (1) Q if P , (2) P only if Q , or (3) when P , then Q .

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Quick check 3

For each of these statements, define propositional variables representing each proposition inside the statement and write the proposition form of the statement.

- ▶ If you do not have enough sleep, you will feel dizzy during class.
- ▶ If you eat a lot and you do not have enough exercise, you will get fat.
- ▶ You can get A from this course, only if you work fairly hard.

Only-if

Let P be “you get A from this course.”

Let Q be “you work fairly hard.”

Let R be “You can get A from this course, only if you work fairly hard.”

Let's think about the truth values of R .

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T	T	
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Thus, R should be logically equivalent to $P \Rightarrow Q$. (We write $R \equiv P \Rightarrow Q$ in this case.)

If and only if: (\Leftrightarrow)

Given P and Q , we denote by

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$$(P \Leftarrow Q) \wedge (P \Rightarrow Q),$$

i.e., $P \Leftrightarrow Q \equiv (P \Leftarrow Q) \wedge (P \Rightarrow Q)$.

Let's fill in its truth table.

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
T	T			
T	F			
F	T			
F	F			

An implication and its friends

When you have two propositions

- ▶ $P =$ “I own a cell phone”, and
- ▶ $Q =$ “I bring a cell phone to class”.

We have

- ▶ an implication $P \Rightarrow Q \equiv$
“If I own a cell phone, I’ll bring it to class”,
- ▶ its **converse** $Q \Rightarrow P \equiv$
“If I bring a cell phone to class, I own it”, and
- ▶ its **contrapositive** $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P \equiv$
“If I do not bring a cell phone to class, I do not own one”.

Quick check 4

Let's consider the following truth table:

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$Q \Rightarrow P$	$\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$
T	T			
T	F			
F	T			
F	F			

Quick check 4

Let's consider the following truth table:

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$Q \Rightarrow P$	$\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$
T	T			
T	F			
F	T			
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Do you notice any equivalence?

Quick check 4

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P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$Q \Rightarrow P$	$\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$
T	T			
T	F			
F	T			
F	F			

Do you notice any equivalence?

Right, $P \Rightarrow Q \equiv \neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$.

How about our subgoal?

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- ▶ For example, “ x is even,” “ p is prime,” or “ s is a student.”

How about our subgoal?

- ▶ In many cases, the statement we are interested in contains variable.
- ▶ For example, “ x is even,” “ p is prime,” or “ s is a student.”
- ▶ As we previously did with propositions, we can use variables to represent these statements. E.g.,
 - ▶ let $E(x) \equiv$ “ x is even”,
 - ▶ let $P(y) \equiv$ “ y is prime, and
 - ▶ let $S(w) \equiv$ “ w is a student.

We call $E(x)$, $P(y)$, and $S(w)$ *predicates*. (You can think of predicates as statements that may be true or false depending on the values of its variables.)

Quantifiers (1)

- ▶ As we note before, these predicates are not propositions. But if we know the value of the variables, then they become propositions. For example, if we let $x = 5$, then $E(5)$ is a proposition which is false. Also, $P(7)$ is true.
- ▶ Since the truth values of predicates depend on the assignments of its variables, we can put *quantifiers* to specify the scope of these variables and how to interpret the truth values of the predicates over these values.

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- ▶ Let $A = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$.
- ▶ Note that $E(2)$, $E(4)$, $E(6)$, and $E(8)$ are true, i.e., $E(x)$ is true for every $x \in A$.

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In this case, we say that the following proposition is true:

$$(\forall x \in A)E(x).$$

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- ▶ “ $\forall x$ ” and “ $\exists y$ ” are quantifiers. They give predicates $E(x)$ and $P(y)$ precise scopes of considerations.
- ▶ When the universe A is clear, we can leave it out and just write $\forall x E(x)$ or $\exists y P(y)$.

The main goal

- ▶ Let's try to be more specific about our main goal:

Algorithm CheckPrime2 is correct.

- ▶ Can we re-write this statement so that the input/output of the algorithm are explicit?
- ▶ Note that the set of its input n is an integer. Thus, we are interested in every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, where \mathbb{Z} denote the set of all integers.
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$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, C(n) \Leftrightarrow P(n),$$

where $C(n) \equiv$ "CheckPrime2(n) returns True", and
 $P(n) \equiv$ " n is a prime."

Quantified propositions with more than one variables

Let our universe be integers (\mathbb{Z}). Which of the following statements is true?

- ▶ $\forall x \forall y (x = y)$
- ▶ $\forall x \exists y (x = y)$
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Also note that usually, $\exists x \forall y P(x, y) \not\equiv \forall y \exists x P(x, y)$.

Quick check 5

- Let's consider the current subgoal. (Note that in this version, variable b is replaced with n/a .)

Another revised statement

For all positive composite integer n , and for every divisor a of n such that $\sqrt{n} < a < n$,

$$2 \leq n/a \leq \sqrt{n}.$$

- Define all required predicates and describe a quantified proposition equivalent to the revised statement above.

Next lecture...

- ▶ We will discuss a few proof techniques and will formally prove the correctness of `CheckPrime2`.
- ▶ The next lecture will be available as VDO clips. Please watch it before the next section. We will work on homework in class.