

# 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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- ▶ As your knowledge of the language gets better, everything becomes more natural. Learning a new language sometimes expands your view of the world.
- ▶ 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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    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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*Do you believe the author of the code? Why?*



## Finding the maximum value. (1)

Now look at this program.

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if a > b:
    if a > c:
        return a
    else:
        return c
else:
    if c > b:
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## Finding the maximum value. (2)

Finally, look at this program.

```
// Input: array A with n elements: A[0], ..., A[n-1]
m = 0
for i = 0, 1, ..., n-1:
    if A[i] > m:
        m = A[i]
return m
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**Can we try to test the code with all possible inputs?**

## Finding the maximum value. (3)

Let's try again.

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// Input: array A with n elements: A[0],...,A[n-1]
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for i = 1, 2, ..., n-1:
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    if n <= 1:
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    i = 2
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Note that if  $n$  is a prime number, the for-loop repeats for  $n - 2$  times. Thus, the running time is approximately proportional to  $n$ . Can we do better?

## Another example: testing primes (2)

Consider the following code.

```
Algorithm CheckPrime2(n): // Input: an integer n
    if n <= 1:
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    let s = square root of n
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How fast can it run? Note that  $s = \sqrt{n}$ ; therefore, it takes time approximately proportional to  $\sqrt{n}$  to run.

Ok, it should be faster. **But is it correct?**

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- ▶ Now, if  $2 \leq a \leq \sqrt{n}$ , at some point during the execution of the algorithm,  $i = a$  and  $i$  should divide  $n$ ; thus the algorithm correctly returns False.
- ▶ Are we done?

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- ▶ How can we do that?

# The goals

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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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  - ▶  $10^2 = 100$ .
  - ▶  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.
- ▶ Examples of statements which are not propositions (why?):
  - ▶  $x > 10$ .
  - ▶  $1 + 2 + \cdots + 10$ .
  - ▶ This algorithm is fast.
  - ▶ Run, run fast.

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- ▶ Many propositions can be combined to get a complex statement using logical operators.
- ▶ For example, we can join  $P$  and  $Q$  with “and” (denoted by “ $\wedge$ ”) and get

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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  $Q$ ”),  
(True when at least one of  $P$  and  $Q$  is true)
- ▶ **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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$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$

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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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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# What?

- ▶ Yes, when  $P$  is false,  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is **always true** no matter what truth value of  $Q$  is.
- ▶ We say that in this case, the statement  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is *vacuously true*.

# What?

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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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- ▶ Therefore, having that  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is true is OK with the case that (1)  $Q$  is false when  $P$  is false, and (2)  $Q$  is true when  $P$  is false.
- ▶ 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  $R$ .

Only if you work fairly hard.

$P$	$Q$	$R$
$T$	$T$	
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$P$	$Q$	$R$
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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

$$P \Leftrightarrow Q$$

the statement “ $P$  if and only if  $Q$ .”



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Given  $P$  and  $Q$ , we denote by

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the statement “ $P$  if and only if  $Q$ .” It is logically equivalent to

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

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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$F$	$F$			

Do you notice any equivalence?

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

# 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.”

# 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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- ▶ 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.
- ▶ 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:

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

## Quantifiers (2)

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

$$(\exists y \in A)P(y).$$

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ Let's rewrite the goal as:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, C(n) \Leftrightarrow P(n),$$

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

## 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.