

CSCI 3313 SPRING 22
LAB 1: MATH REVIEW [DISCRETE 1&2]

Jan. 12th. 2022

SETS AND SET OPERATIONS

- **Set:** intuitively, a collection of non-repeating *objects* $S = \{1, a, \{x, y\}\}, |S| = 3$
 - \mathbb{Z} : set of integers \mathbb{Z}^+ : set of positive integers \mathbb{Z}^* : set of non-negative integers
 - \mathbb{N} : set of natural numbers \mathbb{R} : set of real numbers \mathbb{Q} : set of rational numbers (quotients)
 - \emptyset or $\{\}$: the empty set (not $\{\emptyset\}$, though it makes sense in some other circumstances)
 - U : the universal set, set containing all concerned elements.
- **Set Relations and Operators**
 - Membership Relation: $5 \in \mathbb{Z}$ $5.1 \notin \mathbb{Z}$ $\{1,2\} \in \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{1,2\}\}$ (set of sets)
 - Subset Relation: $\{1,2\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ $\{1,2\} \subset \{1,2,3\}$
 - Union: $A \cup B$ Intersection: $A \cap B$ Complement: \bar{A}
 - De Morgan's Law: $\overline{A \cup B} = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$ and $\overline{A \cap B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$
 - Set Difference, Symmetric Difference, Set XOR, etc.
 - Cartesian Product: if $A = \{1,2,3\}, B = \{x, y\}$, then $A \times B = \{(1, x), (1, y), (2, x), (2, y), (3, x), (3, y)\}$,
set of ordered pairs

ALPHABET AND FORMAL LANGUAGES

One of the Main Topics of this course

- *Alphabet*: a finite non-empty set of symbols (over which we form strings)
 - e.g., $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ the binary symbols (bits) and strings are binary numbers; or $\Sigma = \{a, b, \dots, z\}$ the English alphabet and words written in English alphabet.
- *Words/Strings over an Alphabet*: finite sequences consisted of members in the alphabet; e.g., $w = 1001$, or $s = \text{helloworld}$.
- $\Sigma^* = \{ \text{set of all strings over the alphabet} \}$
- *Language*: set of strings following certain constraints; e.g., $L = \{a^n \mid n \text{ is a multiple of } 3.\}$, or $L = \{a^m b^n \mid m = n, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^*\}$, or $L = \{ww \mid w \in \{0,1\}^*\}$.
 - Language L is a subset of Σ^*
- *String Symbols and Operators*
 - Denoted ϵ (epsilon) or λ (lambda), the empty string; NOT to be confused with the EMPTY SET.
 - $|w|$, length of the string w , where $|\epsilon| = 0$.
 - w^R , reverse of the string; e.g., $w = abcd$, then $w^R = dcba$.
 - $s \circ w$, string concatenation; e.g., $s = \text{hello}$ and $w = \text{there}$, then $s \circ w = \text{hellothere}$.
 - Substring: if $w = \text{foundations}$ and $v = \text{found}$ then v is a substring of w .

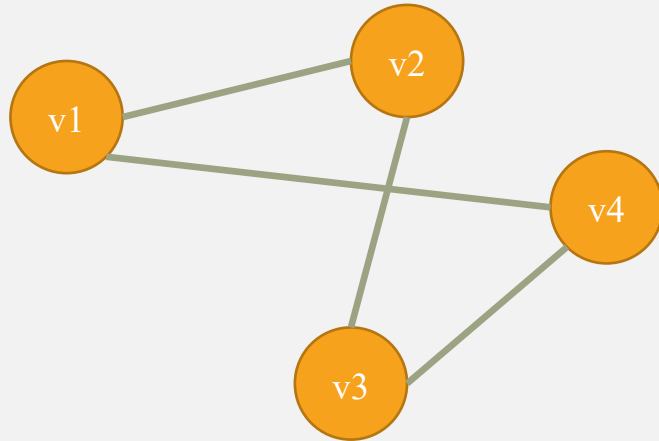
REVIEW: OPERATIONS ON LANGUAGES

- Set operations (Union, Intersection, etc.)
- Concatenation, Reversal, Star closure
- Question 1: If $L_1 = \{ a^n b^n \mid n \geq 0 \}$ and $L_2 = \{ \text{ab, aa} \}$
 - Union: $L_1 \cup L_2 = ?$
 - Intersection: $L_1 \cap L_2 = ?$
 - Difference : $L_2 - L_1 = ?$
- Question 2:
 - Reverse: $L_2^R = ?$
 - Concatenation: $L_1 L_2 = ?$
 - **Star-Closure:** $L_2^* = L_2^0 \cup L_2^1 \cup L_2^2 \cup L_2^3 \cup \dots$
 - Positive Closure: $L_2^+ = L_2^1 \cup L_2^2 \cup L_2^3 \cup \dots$

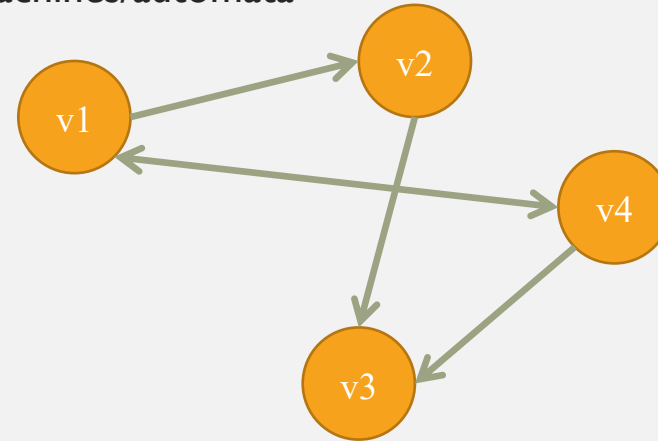
GRAPHS AND TREES

- *Graph*: A graph G is consisted of a Vertex Set $V(G)=\{v_1, v_2..v_n\}$ and edge set $E(G) \subset \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in V(G)\} = V \times V$
 - Edge Set also defined as $E(G) = \{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m\}$ where $e_i = (x, y)$, where $x, y \in V(G)$, (as a matrix, or transition function)

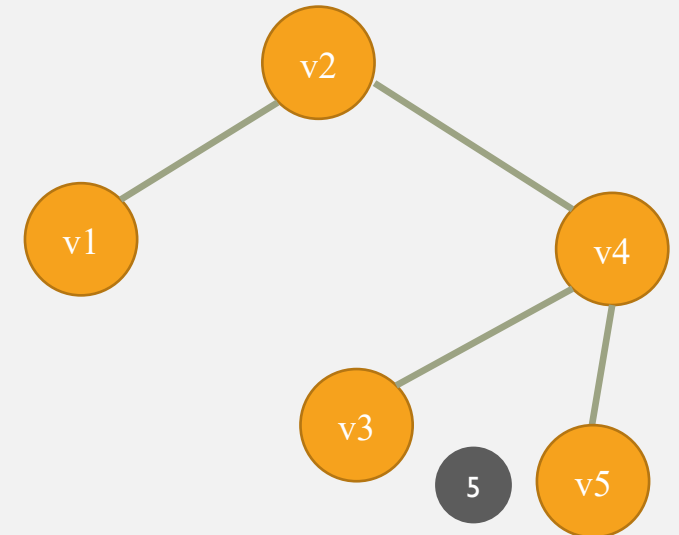
- Undirected:



Directed: of particular relevance in this course, **State Diagrams** to represent machines/automata

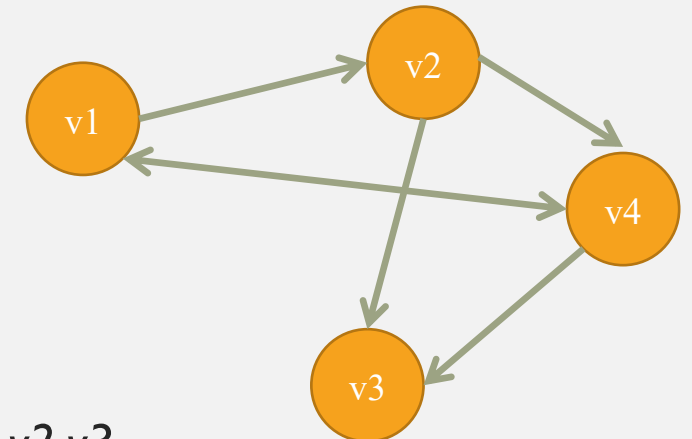


- *Tree*: **Definition T1**: A tree $T = (V, E)$ is a graph that is *acyclic* (has no cycles) and has one *distinct* vertex called the root such that there is exactly one path from root to every vertex.



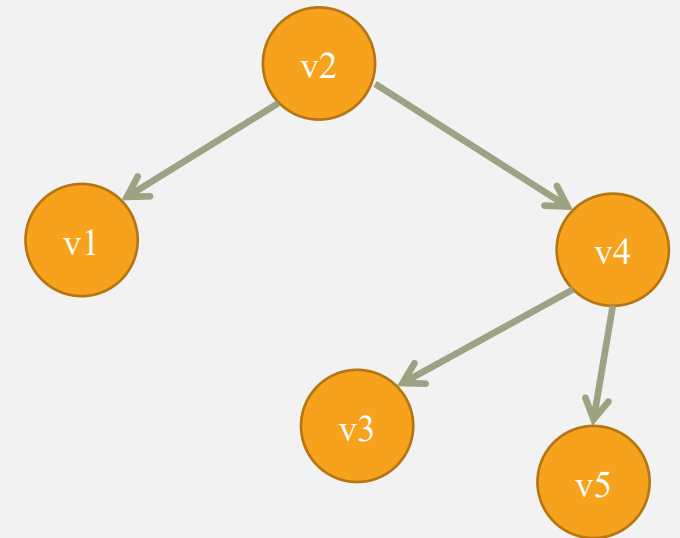
GRAPHS AND TREES

- **Directed Graph:** A graph $G = (V, E)$ consists of a Vertex Set $V(G)$ and an Edge Set $E(G)$ (or simply V and E)
 - Direction is associated with each edge, for example: edge $(v1, v2)$ from $v1$ to $v2$
 - *Outgoing edge from $v1$, and incoming edge to $v2$*
 - A **Path** is a sequence of edges from v_i to v_j and corresponds to sequence of vertices
 - Path is *simple* if no vertex is repeated (except possibly the last)
 - The **length** of a path is the number of edges in the path
 - A simple path from vertex to itself is called a **cycle**
- Examples:
 - Simple *acyclic path* from $v1$ to $v3$: $\{(v1, v2), (v2, v3)\}$ with vertex sequence $v1, v2, v3$
 - Cycle from $v1$ to itself: $\{(v1, v2), (v2, v4), (v4, v1)\}$ with vertex sequence $v1, v2, v4, v1$



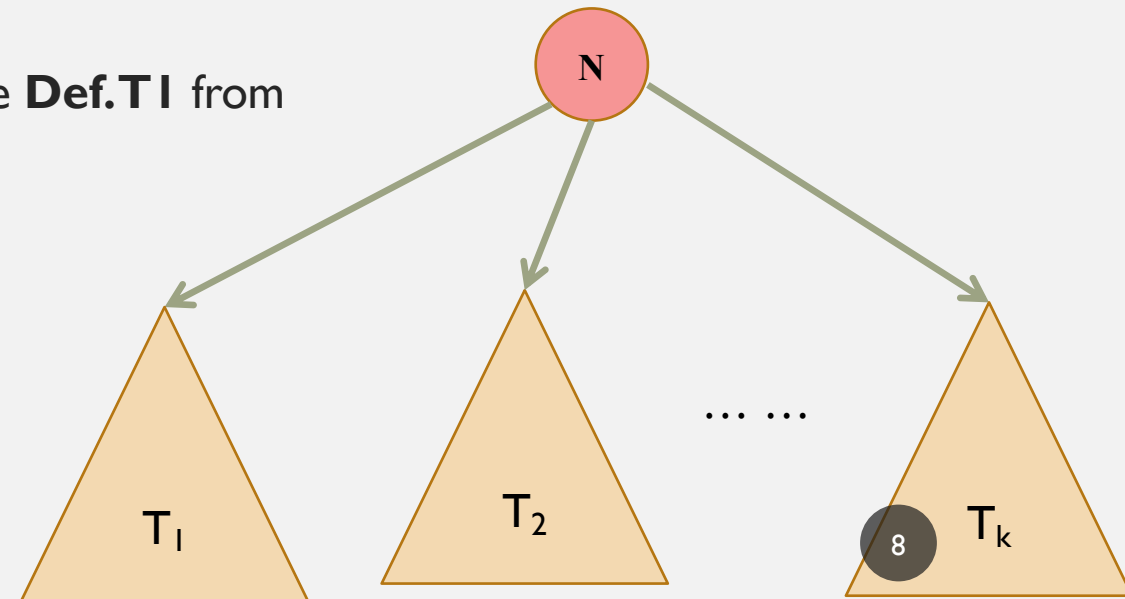
TREES

- Trees (in our case we consider directed graphs that are trees) are a type of graph
- **Definition T1:** A tree (with directed edges) $T = (V, E)$ is a graph that is *acyclic* (has no cycles) and has one *distinct* vertex called the root such that there is exactly one path from root to every vertex.
 - **Root** has no incoming edges
 - **Leaves** are vertices with no outgoing edges
 - If there is an edge (v_i, v_j) then v_i is parent of v_j and v_j is child of v_i
 - The **level** of a vertex is the length of the path from the root to the vertex
 - The **height** of a tree is the largest level of any vertex in the tree
- Root node= v2
- How many Leaves = ?
- What is the height of this tree = ?



TREES- DEFINITION

- **Definition T2:** Trees can be formally defined using recursive (inductive) definition as:
- Basis: A single node is a tree, and that node is the root of a tree
- Recursive step: If T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k are trees (each less than n nodes) then we can form a new tree as follows:
 - 1. Begin with a new node N , which is the root of this new tree
 - 2. Add copies of the trees T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k
 - 3. Add edges from root node N to roots for each tree T_1, T_2, \dots, T_k
- Note: the two definitions T1, T2 are equivalent – i.e., we can prove **Def.T1** from the formal definition given in **Def.T2**.



PROOF METHODS

- What is a proof:
 - A sequence of logical steps, each following from previous steps
 - In logic terms: a propositional formula whose truth can be derived from a sequence of propositions (using the different rules of logical inference)
- Direct
- Induction
- Contradiction
- Contrapositive
- Counter example
- Constructive

PROOF METHOD: DIRECT

- Produce a chain of logically sound deductions that ultimately justifies the expected conclusion.

PROOF METHOD: INDUCTION

- *Outline*
 1. **Base Step:** Verify the base case(s), e.g., $f(1)$ satisfies the conditions for a proposition.
 2. **Induction Hypothesis:** Assume that $f(k)$ satisfies the conditions for some arbitrary intermediate step k .
 3. **Induction Step:** Prove that $f(k + 1)$ also satisfies the conditions. *QED*

- *Example:* $1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{(n+1)n}{2}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

- *Proof:* Let $f(n)$ be the proposition that $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{(n+1)n}{2}$.

1. **Base Case:**
2. **Induction Hypothesis:**
3. **Induction Step:**

Comment: Why does induction work?

Repeated application of *modus ponens*:

$P(0)$ true,

$P(0) \Rightarrow P(1)$ true;

$P(1) \Rightarrow P(2)$ true;

...

$P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$;

...

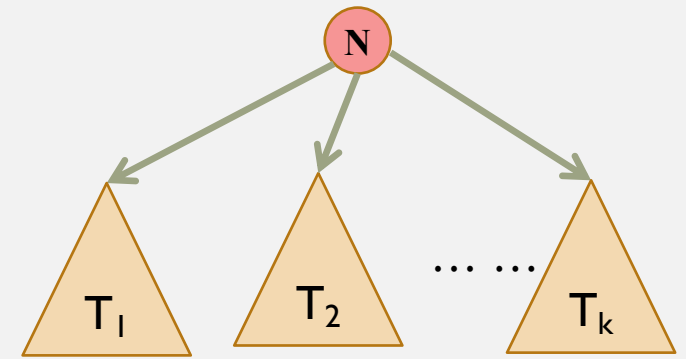
Therefore $P(n)$.

PROOF METHOD: INDUCTION

- *Example:* $1 + 2 + \dots + n = \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{(n+1)n}{2}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- *Proof:* Let $f(n)$ be the proposition that $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{(n+1)n}{2}$.
 1. For $n = 1$, the summation on the LHS is 1, and the formula on the RHS gives $\frac{(1+1) \times 1}{2} = 1$. Thus, $f(1)$ is proven to be true.
 2. Assume $f(k)$ is true for some integer $k > 1$; i.e., $\sum_{i=1}^k i = \frac{(k+1)k}{2}$.
 3. Now for $f(k + 1)$, we observe $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \frac{(k+1)k}{2} + (k + 1) = \frac{k^2 + 3k + 2}{2} = \frac{(k+2)(k+1)}{2}$ which is the RHS when $n = k + 1$. *QED*
- *Pro:* Straightforward (more mechanical).
- *Con:* Need to know (guess?) the answer first. Leads to a lot of computations.
- Usually used for proving *correctness*. Foundation in computer-based proofs – particularly in recursive algorithms.
- *In this course:* Induction proofs on lengths of some strings to show that they **belong to a certain language** and **can be recognized by its associated machine/automaton**.

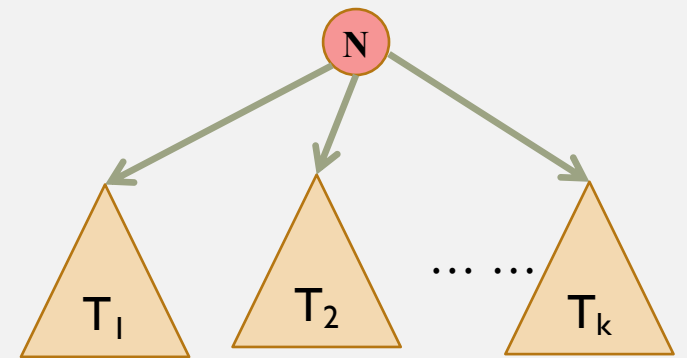
EXERCISE 1: PROOF BY INDUCTION

- Refer to the formal (recursive) definition of trees for this proof.
- **Exercise:** Theorem – Every tree $T = (V, E)$ has one more node than it has edges, i.e., $|V| = |E| + 1$



Instruction:

- Work in breakout groups; members' names.
- Take a screenshot and submit on BB by end of today.
- Everyone will need to submit a copy.



(DIS)PROOF METHOD: CONTRADICTION

- **Proof by Contradiction**

1. Assume to the contrary of a proposition.

2. By reaching a contradiction, conclude the initial assumption was incorrect. *QED*

Reductio ad absurdum

- *Example:* For any integer n , if n^2 is odd, then n is odd. $\neg(p \Rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow \neg(\neg p \vee q) \Leftrightarrow (p \wedge \neg q)$

- *Proof:* Assume to the contrary that, given n^2 is odd **and** n is **not** odd.

- Hence, there exists some integer k such that $n = 2k$.

- Definition of an even number is n can be expressed as a multiple of 2; odd is $2k+1$

- Then we can derive $n^2 = (2k)(2k) = 2(2k^2)$. *Contradiction.*

- Therefore, the assumption was incorrect, and the proposition itself is true. *QED*

- *In this course:* Prove by contradiction on **certain properties of a language** to show that the language **CANNOT be recognized (i.e., solved) by the assumed machine model** [via *Pumping Lemma*].

- **Proof by Counter-example:** Disprove using a counter-example.
- *Example:* For any integer n , if n^2 is odd, then n is even. Let $n^2 = 9$, then $n = \pm 3$ which is not even.

PROOF METHOD: CONTRAPOSITIVE

- **Proof by Contrapositive**
- *Rational:* A proposition $A \Rightarrow B$ (if A then B) is logically equivalent to $\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$ (if not B then not A).

Modus Tollens

- *Example:* For any integer n , if n^2 is even, then n is even.
- *Proof:* To prove the stated proposition is to prove the proposition that “If n is not even, then n^2 is not even.”
 - Hence, there exists some integer k such that $n = 2k + 1$ is not even, i.e., odd.
 - Then it is obvious that $n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1 = 2k' + 1$ is odd, i.e., not even. *QED*

EXERCISE 2: PROOF BY CONTRADICTION

- **Definition C1:** An integer at least 2, is a prime number if it is not divisible by any integer other than itself and 1.
- Assumption (this is actually **Theorem C2 – Integer Factorization**): Every positive integer can be expressed as a unique product of prime numbers (including powers of primes). [Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic]
 - $864 = 32 * 27 = (2*2*2*2*2) * (3*3*3) = 2^5 * 3^3$
- **Exercise:** Prove that there are an infinitely many prime numbers.

PROOF METHOD: CONSTRUCTION

- *Rational*: Construct mathematical object(s) based on the constraints and prove/disprove the argument.
- *Example*: Is there a set R containing all other sets (without any other constraints, or *unrestricted comprehension*)?
- *Proof [Russell's Paradox]*:
 - *Construction*: Let R be the set of sets that are not members of themselves, i.e., $R = \{x \mid x \notin x\}$.
 - Such construction is equivalent to saying $R \in R \Leftrightarrow R \notin R$.
 - In other words: in the forward direction, if R is a member of R , then by the definition of the construction, R is not a member of R in the first place; contradiction. Or conversely, if R is not a member of R , i.e., not a member of itself, then R must have been included in R by the construction; contradiction.
 - Therefore, there's no such R exists.
- *In this course*: a similar constructive proof is applied to prove the **Halting Problem is not Turing-Decidable**.
- Different from the universal set U , which usually has some restrictions, e.g., $U = \Sigma^* = \{0,1\}^*$ or $U = a^*b^*$.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES

PROOF METHOD: INDUCTION

- **Exercise 3:** Prove that $1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- *Proof:* Let $f(n)$ be the proposition that $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$.
 1. **Base Case:** For $n = 1$, the summation on the LHS is 1, and the formula on the RHS gives $\frac{1 \times (1+1)(2+1)}{6} = 1$. Thus, $f(1)$ is true.
 2. **Induction Hypothesis:** Assume $f(k)$ is true for some integer $k > 1$; i.e., $\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6}$.
 3. **Induction Step:** Now for $f(k+1)$, we observe

QED

MODULAR ARITHMETIC

- *Modular Arithmetic*

- A positive integer n equals to b modulo a , for positive integers a, b is equivalent to saying $n = ka + b$ for some positive integer k ; i.e., b is the remainder of n divided by a .
- A positive integer n is congruent to another positive integer m modulo a , or $n \equiv m \pmod{a}$, if they have the same remainder when divided by a ; an alternative but equivalent way to say is that $m - n$ divides a (assuming $m \geq n$ with out loss of generality).
- $13 \equiv 3 \pmod{5} \Leftrightarrow 2 \times 5 + 3 = 13$; equivalently, $(13 - 3) = 10$ divides 5.
- $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$, then $x \in \{3, 8, 13, 18, \dots\}$ if we focus on the positive side of the number line.
- *Parity:* An integer n is even if and only if (\Leftrightarrow) $n \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$; and n is odd iff $n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.
 - From above it follows that an even integer can be written as $n = 2k$ and an odd integer is $(2k+1)$ for some integer k

(DIS)PROOF METHOD: CONTRADICTION

- **Exercise 4:** Prove $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. *What we do:* Assume to the contrary that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational; then it can be written in the form of a/b for two integers that has no common divisors.
 - Definition: a rational number a/b where a, b have no common divisors
- *Proof:* Assume to the contrary that $\sqrt{2}$ is a rational number, i.e., $\sqrt{2} = p/q$

- **Exercise 5:** For any integer n , if $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, then $n \not\equiv 3 \pmod{6}$.
- *Proof:* Assume to the contrary that, given $n \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, it is also true that $n \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$.