

Definitions

Term	Notation Example(s)	We say in English
n -tuple	(x_1, x_2, x_3) $(3, 4)$	The 3-tuple of x_1 , x_2 , and x_3 The 2-tuple or ordered pair of 3 and 4
sequence	x_1, \dots, x_n x_1, \dots, x_n where $n = 0$ x_1, \dots, x_n where $n = 1$ x_1, \dots, x_n where $n = 2$ x_1, x_2	A sequence x_1 to x_n An empty sequence A sequence containing just x_1 A sequence containing just x_1 and x_2 in order A sequence containing just x_1 and x_2 in order
set		Unordered collection of objects. The set of ...
all integers	\mathbb{Z}	The (set of all) integers (whole numbers including negatives, zero, and positives)
all positive integers	\mathbb{Z}^+	The (set of all) strictly positive integers
all natural numbers	\mathbb{N}	The (set of all) natural numbers. Note: we use the convention that 0 is a natural number.
roster method	$\{43, 7, 9\}$ $\{9, \mathbb{N}\}$	The set whose elements are 43, 7, and 9 The set whose elements are 9 and \mathbb{N}
set builder notation	$\{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x > 0\}$ $\{3x \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$	The set of all x from the integers such that x is greater than 0 The set of all integer multiples of 3 Note: we use the convention that writing two numbers next to each other means multiplication.
function definition	$f(x) = x + 4$	Define f of x to be $x + 4$
function application	$f(7)$ $f(z)$ $f(g(z))$	f of 7 or f applied to 7 or the image of 7 under f f of z or f applied to z or the image of z under f f of g of z or f applied to the result of g applied to z
absolute value	$ -3 $	The absolute value of -3
square root	$\sqrt{9}$	The non-negative square root of 9
summation notation	$\sum_{i=1}^n i$ $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 - 1$	The sum of the integers from 1 to n , inclusive The sum of $i^2 - 1$ (i squared minus 1) for each i from 1 to n , inclusive
quotient, integer division	$n \text{ div } m$	The (integer) quotient upon dividing n by m ; informally: divide and then drop the fractional part
modulo, remainder	$n \text{ mod } m$	The remainder upon dividing n by m

Netflix intro

What data should we encode about each Netflix account holder to help us make effective recommendations?

In machine learning, clustering can be used to group similar data for prediction and recommendation. For example, each Netflix user's viewing history can be represented as a n -tuple indicating their preferences about movies in the database, where n is the number of movies in the database. People with similar tastes in movies can then be clustered to provide recommendations of movies for one another. Mathematically, clustering is based on a notion of distance between pairs of n -tuples.

Data types

Term	Examples: (add additional examples from class)
set unordered collection of elements <i>Equal means agree on membership of all elements</i>	$7 \in \{43, 7, 9\}$ $2 \notin \{43, 7, 9\}$
n-tuple ordered sequence of elements with n "slots" <i>Equal means corresponding components equal</i>	
string ordered finite sequence of elements each from specified set <i>Equal means same length and corresponding characters equal</i>	

$$\{-1, 1\} \quad \{0, 0\} \quad \{-1, 0, 1\} \quad \mathbb{Z} \quad \mathbb{N} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \geq 0\} \quad \emptyset \quad \mathbb{Z}^+ = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x > 0\}$$

Which of the sets above are defined using the roster method? Which are defined using set builder notation?

Which of the sets above have 0 as an element?

Can you write any of the sets above more simply?

Rna def

RNA is made up of strands of four different bases that match up in specific ways. The bases are elements of the set $B = \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{U}\}$.

Definition The set of RNA strands S is defined (recursively) by:

Basis Step: $\mathbf{A} \in S, \mathbf{C} \in S, \mathbf{U} \in S, \mathbf{G} \in S$
Recursive Step: If $s \in S$ and $b \in B$, then $sb \in S$

where sb is string concatenation.

Examples:

To define a set we can use the **roster method**, the **set builder notation**, and also ...

New! Recursive Definitions of Sets: The set S (pick a name) is defined by:

Basis Step: Specify finitely many elements of S
Recursive Step: Give a rule for creating a new element of S from known values existing in S , and potentially other values.

The set S then consists of all and only elements that are put in S by finitely many (a nonnegative integer number) of applications of the recursive step after the basis step.

Infinite finite sets def

\mathbb{Z}	The set of integers	$\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
\mathbb{Z}^+	The set of positive integers	$\{1, 2, \dots\}$
\mathbb{N}	The set of nonnegative integers	$\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
\mathbb{Q}	The set of rational numbers	$\left\{\frac{p}{q} \mid p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \neq 0\right\}$
\mathbb{R}	The set of real numbers	

— \subsetneq — \subsetneq — \subsetneq — \subsetneq —

The above sets are all **infinite**.

A **finite** set is one whose distinct elements can be counted by a natural number.

Examples of finite sets: \emptyset , $\{\sqrt{2}\}$

Motivating question: Are some of the above sets *bigger than* others?

Musical chairs analogy

Analogy: Musical chairs



People try to sit down when the music stops

Person☼ sits in Chair 1, Person☺ sits in Chair 2,

Person☹ is left standing!

What does this say about the number of chairs and the number of people?

Defined functions

Defining functions A function is defined by its (1) domain, (2) codomain, and (3) rule assigning each element in the domain exactly one element in the codomain. The domain and codomain are nonempty sets. The rule can be depicted as a table, formula, English description, etc.

(Rosen p139)

Example: $f_A : \mathbb{R}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}$ with $f_A(x) = x$ is **not** a well-defined function because

Example: $f_B : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ with $f_B\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = p + q$ is **not** a well-defined function because

Example: $f_C : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $f_C(x) = \frac{x}{|x|}$ is **not** a well-defined function because

Injective cardinality definition

Definition (Rosen p141): A function $f : D \rightarrow C$ is **one-to-one** (or injective) means for every a, b in the domain D , if $f(a) = f(b)$ then $a = b$.

Definition: For sets A, B , we say that **the cardinality of A is no bigger than the cardinality of B** , and write $|A| \leq |B|$, to mean there is a one-to-one function with domain A and codomain B .

Injective cardinality musical chairs

In the analogy: The function $sitter : \{Chair1, Chair2\} \rightarrow \{Person\star, Person\ominus, Person\odot\}$ given by $sitter(Chair1) = Person\star$, $sitter(Chair2) = Person\ominus$, is one-to-one and witnesses that

$$|\{Chair1, Chair2\}| \leq |\{Person\star, Person\ominus, Person\odot\}|$$

Rna injective cardinality

Let S_2 be the set of RNA strands of length 2.

Statement	True/False , justification
$ \{A, U, G, C\} \leq S_2 $	
$ \{A, U, G, C\} \times \{A, U, G, C\} \leq S_2 $	

Surjective cardinality definition

Definition (Rosen p143): A function $f : D \rightarrow C$ is **onto** (or surjective) means for every b in the codomain, there is an element a in the domain with $f(a) = b$.

Formally, $f : D \rightarrow C$ is onto means _____.

Definition: For sets A, B , we say that **the cardinality of A is no smaller than the cardinality of B** , and write $|A| \geq |B|$, to mean there is an onto function with domain A and codomain B .

Surjective cardinality musical chairs

In the analogy: The function $triedToSit : \{Person\star, Person\ominus, Person\odot\} \rightarrow \{Chair1, Chair2\}$ given by $triedToSit(Person\star) = Chair1$, $triedToSit(Person\ominus) = Chair2$, $triedToSit(Person\odot) = Chair2$, is onto and witnesses that

$$|\{Person\star, Person\ominus, Person\odot\}| \geq |\{Chair1, Chair2\}|$$

Rna surjective cardinality

Let S_2 be the set of RNA strands of length 2.

Statement	True/False , justification
$ S_2 \geq \{A, U, G, C\} $	
$ S_2 \geq \{A, U, G, C\} \times \{A, U, G, C\} $	

Bijection definition

Definition (Rosen p144): A function $f : D \rightarrow C$ is a **bijection** means that it is both one-to-one and onto. The **inverse** of a bijection $f : D \rightarrow C$ is the function $g : C \rightarrow D$ such that $g(b) = a$ iff $f(a) = b$.

For nonempty sets A, B we say

$|A| \leq |B|$ means there is a one-to-one function with domain A , codomain B

$|A| \geq |B|$ means there is an onto function with domain A , codomain B

$|A| = |B|$ means there is a bijection with domain A , codomain B

Cardinality properties

Properties of cardinality

$$\forall A (|A| = |A|)$$

$$\forall A \forall B (|A| = |B| \rightarrow |B| = |A|)$$

$$\forall A \forall B \forall C ((|A| = |B| \wedge |B| = |C|) \rightarrow |A| = |C|)$$

Extra practice with proofs: Use the definitions of bijections to prove these properties.

Cantor schroder bernstein theorem

Cantor-Schroder-Bernstein Theorem: For all nonempty sets,

$$|A| = |B| \quad \text{if and only if} \quad (|A| \leq |B| \text{ and } |B| \leq |A|) \quad \text{if and only if} \quad (|A| \geq |B| \text{ and } |B| \geq |A|)$$

To prove $|A| = |B|$, we can do any **one** of the following

- Prove there exists a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$;
- Prove there exists a bijection $f : B \rightarrow A$;
- Prove there exists two functions $f_1 : A \rightarrow B$, $f_2 : B \rightarrow A$ where each of f_1, f_2 is one-to-one.
- Prove there exists two functions $f_1 : A \rightarrow B$, $f_2 : B \rightarrow A$ where each of f_1, f_2 is onto.

Logical equivalence

Logical equivalence	Two compound propositions are logically equivalent means that they have the same truth values for all settings of truth values to their propositional variables.
Tautology	A compound proposition that evaluates to true for all settings of truth values to its propositional variables; it is abbreviated T .
Contradiction	A compound proposition that evaluates to false for all settings of truth values to its propositional variables; it is abbreviated F .
Contingency	A compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction.

Logical equivalence extra note

Can replace p and q with any compound proposition

Consistency def

Definition: A collection of compound propositions is called **consistent** if there is an assignment of truth values to the propositional variables that makes each of the compound propositions true.

Consistency example

Consistency:

Whenever the system software is being upgraded, users cannot access the file system. If users can access the file system, then they can save new files. If users cannot save new files, then the system software is not being upgraded.

1. Translate to symbolic compound propositions
2. Look for some truth assignment to the propositional variables for which all the compound propositions output T

Redundancy algorithm

Consider the following algorithm to introduce redundancy in a string of 0s and 1s.

Create redundancy by repeating each bit three times

```
1 procedure redun3( $a_{k-1} \cdots a_0$ : a binary string)
2 for  $i := 0$  to  $k-1$ 
3    $c_{3i} := a_i$ 
4    $c_{3i+1} := a_i$ 
5    $c_{3i+2} := a_i$ 
6 return  $c_{3k-1} \cdots c_0$ 
```

Decode sequence of bits using majority rule on consecutive three bit sequences

```
1 procedure decode3( $c_{3k-1} \cdots c_0$ : a binary string whose length is an integer multiple of 3)
2 for  $i := 0$  to  $k-1$ 
3   if exactly two or three of  $c_{3i}, c_{3i+1}, c_{3i+2}$  are set to 1
4      $a_i := 1$ 
5   else
6      $a_i := 0$ 
7 return  $a_{k-1} \cdots a_0$ 
```

Give a recursive definition of the set of outputs of the *redun3* procedure, *Out*,

Basis step: _____

Recursive step: _____

Consider the message $m = 0001$ so that the sender calculates $\text{redun3}(m) = \text{redun3}(0001) = 000000000111$.

Introduce ____ errors into the message so that the signal received by the receiver is _____ but the receiver is still able to decode the original message.

Challenge: what is the biggest number of errors you can introduce?

Building a circuit for line 3 in *decode* procedure: given three input bits, we need to determine whether the majority is a 0 or a 1.

c_{3i}	c_{3i+1}	c_{3i+2}	a_i
1	1	1	
1	1	0	
1	0	1	
1	0	0	
0	1	1	
0	1	0	
0	0	1	
0	0	0	

Circuit

Predicate definition

Definition: A **predicate** is a function from a given set (domain) to $\{T, F\}$.

A predicate can be applied, or **evaluated** at, an element of the domain.

Predicate equivalent definition

Two predicates over the same domain are **equivalent** means they evaluate to the same truth values for all possible assignments of domain elements to the input.

Predicate truth tables

Input	Output		
x	$P(x)$ $[x]_{2c,3} > 0$	$N(x)$ $[x]_{2c,3} < 0$	$Mystery(x)$
000	F		T
001	T		T
010	T		T
011	T		F
100	F		F
101	F		T
110	F		F
111	F		T

The domain for each of the predicates $P(x)$, $N(x)$, $Mystery(x)$ is _____.

Truth set definition

Definition: The **truth set** of a predicate is the collection of all elements in its domain where the predicate evaluates to T .

Truth set exercise

The truth set for the predicate $P(x)$ is _____.

The truth set for the predicate $N(x)$ is _____.

The truth set for the predicate $Mystery(x)$ is _____.

Quantification definition

Definitions (Rosen 40-45):

The **universal quantification** of $P(x)$ is the statement “ $P(x)$ for all values of x in the domain” and is written $\forall x P(x)$. An element for which $P(x) = F$ is called a **counterexample** of $\forall x P(x)$.

The **existential quantification** of $P(x)$ is the statement “There exists an element x in the domain such that $P(x)$ ” and is written $\exists x P(x)$. An element for which $P(x) = T$ is called a **witness** of $\exists x P(x)$.

Example: _____ is a true existential quantification.

Quantification logical equivalence

Statements involving predicates and quantifiers are **logically equivalent** means they have the same truth value no matter which predicates (domains and functions) are substituted in.

Quantifier version of De Morgan’s laws: $\neg \forall x P(x) \equiv \exists x (\neg P(x))$

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

Example: _____ is a false universal quantification. It is logically equivalent to _____

Rna strand recall

Recall: Each RNA strand is a string whose symbols are elements of the set $B = \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{U}\}$. The **set of all RNA strands** is called S . The function *rnalen* that computes the length of RNA strands in S is:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Basis Step:} & \text{If } b \in B \text{ then} & \begin{array}{ll} \text{rnalen} : S & \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+ \\ \text{rnalen}(b) & = 1 \end{array} \\ \text{Recursive Step:} & \text{If } s \in S \text{ and } b \in B, \text{ then} & \text{rnalen}(sb) = 1 + \text{rnalen}(s) \end{array}$$

Predicate rna example

Example predicates on S

$H(s) = T$	Truth set of H is _____
$L_3(s) = \begin{cases} T & \text{if } \text{rnalen}(s) = 3 \\ F & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$	Strand where L_3 evaluates to T is e.g. _____ Strand where L_3 evaluates to F is e.g. _____
$F_{\mathbf{A}}$ is defined recursively by: Basis step: $F_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{A}) = T$, $F_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{C}) = F_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{G}) = F_{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{U}) = F$ Recursive step: If $s \in S$ and $b \in B$, then $F_{\mathbf{A}}(sb) = F_{\mathbf{A}}(s)$	Strand where $F_{\mathbf{A}}$ evaluates to T is e.g. _____ Strand where $F_{\mathbf{A}}$ evaluates to F is e.g. _____
$P_{\mathbf{AUC}}$ is defined as the predicate whose truth set is the collection of RNA strands where the string AUC is a sub-string (appears inside s , in order and consecutively)	Strand where $P_{\mathbf{AUC}}$ evaluates to T is e.g. _____ Strand where $P_{\mathbf{AUC}}$ evaluates to F is e.g. _____

Cartesian product definition

Definition (Rosen p123): The **Cartesian product** of the sets A and B , $A \times B$, is the set of all ordered pairs (a, b) , where $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. That is: $A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid (a \in A) \wedge (b \in B)\}$. The Cartesian product of the sets A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n , denoted by $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n$, is the set of ordered n -tuples (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) , where a_i belongs to A_i for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. That is, $A_1 \times A_2 \times \dots \times A_n = \{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$

Rna strand recall

Recall: Each RNA strand is a string whose symbols are elements of the set $B = \{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{C}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{U}\}$. The **set of all RNA strands** is called S . The function *rnalen* that computes the length of RNA strands in S is:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Basis Step:} & \text{If } b \in B \text{ then} & \begin{array}{ll} \text{rnalen} : S & \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+ \\ \text{rnalen}(b) & = 1 \end{array} \\ \text{Recursive Step:} & \text{If } s \in S \text{ and } b \in B, \text{ then} & \text{rnalen}(sb) = 1 + \text{rnalen}(s) \end{array}$$

Rna basecount example

A function *basecount* that computes the number of a given base b appearing in a RNA strand s is:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{Basis Step:} & \text{If } b_1 \in B, b_2 \in B & \begin{array}{ll} \text{basecount} : S \times B & \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \\ \text{basecount}(b_1, b_2) & = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } b_1 = b_2 \\ 0 & \text{when } b_1 \neq b_2 \end{cases} \end{array} \\ \text{Recursive Step:} & \text{If } s \in S, b_1 \in B, b_2 \in B & \text{basecount}(sb_1, b_2) = \begin{cases} 1 + \text{basecount}(s, b_2) & \text{when } b_1 = b_2 \\ \text{basecount}(s, b_2) & \text{when } b_1 \neq b_2 \end{cases} \end{array}$$

L with domain $S \times \mathbb{Z}^+$ is defined by, for $s \in S$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$,

$$L(s, n) = \begin{cases} T & \text{if } \text{rnalen}(s) = n \\ F & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Element where L evaluates to T : _____

Element where L evaluates to F : _____

BC with domain _____ is defined by, for $s \in S$ and $b \in B$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$BC(s, b, n) = \begin{cases} T & \text{if } \text{basecount}(s, b) = n \\ F & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Element where BC evaluates to T : _____

Element where BC evaluates to F : _____

Predicate notation

Notation: for a predicate P with domain $X_1 \times \cdots \times X_n$ and a n -tuple (x_1, \dots, x_n) with each $x_i \in X$, we write $P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ to mean $P((x_1, \dots, x_n))$.

Rna basecount example two

$\exists t \ BC(t)$ In English: _____

Witness that proves this existential quantification is true: _____

$\forall (s, b, n) \ (\ BC(s, b, n) \)$ In English: _____

Counterexample that proves this universal quantification is false: _____

New predicates from old $BC(s, b, n)$ means $basecount(s, b) = n$.

Predicate	Domain	Example domain element where predicate is T
$basecount(s, b) = 3$		
$basecount(s, A) = n$		
$\exists n \in \mathbb{N} \ (basecount(s, b) = n)$		
$\forall b \in B \ (basecount(s, b) = 1)$		

Alternating quantifiers

Alternating quantifiers

$$\forall s \exists n \ BC(s, A, n)$$

In English: _____

$$\exists n \forall s \ BC(s, U, n)$$

In English: _____

Evaluate each quantified statement as T or F .

$\forall s \forall b \exists n \ BC(s, b, n)$	$\forall s \forall n \exists b \ BC(s, b, n)$	$\forall b \forall n \exists s \ BC(s, b, n)$
$\exists s \forall b \exists n \ BC(s, b, n)$	$\forall s \exists n \forall b \ BC(s, b, n)$	$\exists b \exists n \forall s \ BC(s, b, n)$

Extra example: Write the negation of each of the statements above, and use De Morgan's law to find a logically equivalent version where the negation is applied only to the BC predicate (not next to a quantifier).

Making change example

For which nonnegative integers n can we make change for n with coins of value 5 cents and 3 cents?

Restating: We can make change for _____, we cannot make change for _____, and

_____*

Strong induction def

New! Proof by Strong Induction (Rosen 5.2 p337)

To prove that a universal quantification over the set of all integers greater than or equal to some base integer b holds, pick a fixed nonnegative integer j and then:

Basis Step: Show the statement holds for $b, b + 1, \dots, b + j$.

Recursive Step: Consider an arbitrary integer n greater than or equal to $b + j$, assume (as the **strong induction hypothesis**) that the property holds for **each of** $b, b + 1, \dots, n$, and use this and other facts to prove that the property holds for $n + 1$.

\mathbb{N}	The set of natural numbers	$\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
$\mathbb{Z}^{\geq b}$	The set of integers greater than or equal a basis element b	$\{b, b + 1, b + 2, b + 3, \dots\}$

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$\mathbb{Z}^{\geq b}$	The set of integers greater than or equal a basis element b	$\{b, b + 1, b + 2, b + 3, \dots\}$

Prime number def

Definition: An integer p greater than 1 is called **prime** if the only positive factors of p are 1 and p . A positive integer that is greater than 1 and is not prime is called composite.

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Proof by contradiction def

New! Proof by Contradiction

To prove that a statement p is true, pick another statement r and once we show that $\neg p \rightarrow (r \wedge \neg r)$ then we can conclude that p is true.

Informally The statement we care about can't possibly be false, so it must be true.

Rational number def

The set of rational numbers, \mathbb{Q} is defined as

$$\left\{ \frac{p}{q} \mid p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \neq 0 \right\} \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \exists p \in \mathbb{Z} \exists q \in \mathbb{Z}^+ (p = x \cdot q)\}$$

Extra practice: Use the definition of set equality to prove that the definitions above give the same set.

Proof square root2

Goal: The square root of 2 is not a rational number. In other words: $\neg \exists x \in \mathbb{Q} (x^2 - 2 = 0)$

Attempted proof: The definition of the set of rational numbers is the collection of fractions p/q where p is an integer and q is a nonzero integer. Looking for a **witness** p and q , we can write the square root of 2 as the fraction $\sqrt{2}/1$, where 1 is a nonzero integer. Since the numerator is not in the domain, this witness is not allowed, and we have shown that the square root of 2 is not a fraction of integers (with nonzero denominator). Thus, the square root of 2 is not rational.

The problem in the above attempted proof is that _____

Proof:

Lemma 1: For every two integers p and q , not both zero, $\gcd\left(\frac{p}{\gcd(p,q)}, \frac{q}{\gcd(p,q)}\right) = 1$.

Lemma 2: For every two integers a and b , not both zero, with $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, it is not the case that both a is even and b is even.

Lemma 3: For every integer x , x is even if and only if x^2 is even.

Proposition def

Proposition	Declarative sentence that is true or false (not both).
Propositional variable	Variable that represents a proposition.
Compound proposition	New propositions formed from existing propositions (potentially) using logical operators.
Truth table	Table with 1 row for each of the possible combinations of truth values of the input and an additional column that shows the truth value of the result of the operation corresponding to a particular row.

Note: A propositional variable is one example of a compound proposition.

Logical operators

Logical operators aka propositional connectives

Conjunction	AND	\wedge	<code>\land</code>	2 inputs	Evaluates to T when both inputs are T
Exclusive or	XOR	\oplus	<code>\oplus</code>	2 inputs	Evaluates to T when exactly one of inputs is T
Disjunction	OR	\vee	<code>\lor</code>	2 inputs	Evaluates to T when at least one of inputs is T
Negation	NOT	\neg	<code>\lnot</code>	1 input	Evaluates to T when its input is F

Logical operators truth tables

Input		Output		
p	q	Conjunction $p \wedge q$	Exclusive or $p \oplus q$	Disjunction $p \vee q$
T	T	T	F	T
T	F	F	T	T
F	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	F	F

Input	Output
p	Negation $\neg p$
T	F
F	T

Logical operators exercise

Input			Output	
p	q	r	$(p \wedge q) \oplus ((p \oplus q) \wedge r)$	$(p \wedge q) \vee ((p \oplus q) \wedge r)$
T	T	T		
T	T	F		
T	F	T		
T	F	F		
F	T	T		
F	T	F		
F	F	T		
F	F	F		

Logical equivalence

Logical equivalence	Two compound propositions are logically equivalent means that they have the same truth values for all settings of truth values to their propositional variables.
Tautology	A compound proposition that evaluates to true for all settings of truth values to its propositional variables; it is abbreviated T .
Contradiction	A compound proposition that evaluates to false for all settings of truth values to its propositional variables; it is abbreviated F .
Contingency	A compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction.

Logical equivalence exercise

Extra Example: Which of the compound propositions in the table below are logically equivalent?

Input		Output				
p	q	$\neg(p \wedge \neg q)$	$\neg(\neg p \vee \neg q)$	$(\neg p \vee q)$	$(\neg q \vee \neg p)$	$(p \wedge q)$
T	T					
T	F					
F	T					
F	F					

Logical equivalence example

(Some) logical equivalences) cf. Rosen pp. 26-28

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 p \vee q \equiv q \vee p & p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p \\
 (p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r) & (p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r) \\
 p \wedge F \equiv F & p \vee T \equiv T \\
 \neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q & \neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q
 \end{array}$$

Commutativity Ordering of terms
Associativity Grouping of terms
Absorption aka short circuit evaluation
DeMorgan's Laws

Can replace p and q with any compound proposition

Truth table to compound proposition application

Application: design a circuit given a desired input-output relationship.

Input		Output	
p	q	$mystery_1$	$mystery_2$
T	T	T	F
T	F	T	F
F	T	F	F
F	F	T	T

Input			Output
p	q	r	$?$
T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T
T	F	T	F
T	F	F	T
F	T	T	F
F	T	F	F
F	F	T	T
F	F	F	F

A compound proposition that gives output $mystery_1$ is: _____

A compound proposition that gives output $mystery_2$ is: _____

Dnf cnf definition

Definition A compound proposition is in **disjunctive normal form** (DNF) means that it is an OR of ANDs of variables and their negations.

Definition A compound proposition is in **conjunctive normal form** (CNF) means that it is an AND of ORs of variables and their negations.

Extra example: A compound proposition that gives output ? is:

Hypothesis conclusion

The only way to make the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ false is to _____

The **hypothesis** of $p \rightarrow q$ is _____ The **antecedent** of $p \rightarrow q$ is _____

The **conclusion** of $p \rightarrow q$ is _____ The **consequent** of $p \rightarrow q$ is _____

Logical equivalence example two

Input		Output				
p	q	Conjunction $p \wedge q$	Exclusive or $p \oplus q$	Disjunction $p \vee q$	Conditional $p \rightarrow q$	Biconditional $p \leftrightarrow q$
T	T	T	F	T	T	T
T	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	F	T	T	T	F
F	F	F	F	F	T	T

Examples

$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q$ because _____

$p \leftrightarrow q$ is not logically equivalent to $p \wedge q$ because _____

$\neg(p \leftrightarrow q) \equiv p \oplus q$ because _____

$p \rightarrow q$ is not logically equivalent to $q \rightarrow p$ because _____

$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv q \leftrightarrow p$ because _____

Converse inverse contrapositive

The **converse** of $p \rightarrow q$ is _____

The **inverse** of $p \rightarrow q$ is _____ Which of these is logically equivalent to $p \rightarrow q$?

The **contrapositive** of $p \rightarrow q$ is _____

Compound propositions translation

Translation: Express each of the following sentences as compound propositions, using the given propositions.

“A sufficient condition for the warranty to be good is	w is “the warranty is good”
that you bought the computer less than a year ago”	b is “you bought the computer less than a year ago”

“Whenever the message was sent from an unknown system, it is scanned for viruses.”	s is “The message is scanned for viruses”
	u is “The message was sent from an unknown system”

“I will complete my to-do list only if I put a reminder in my calendar”	r is “I will complete my to-do list” c is “I put a reminder in my calendar”
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