

CSE2023 Discrete Computational Structures

Lecture 2

1.3 Propositional equivalences

- Replace a statement with another statement with the same truth value
- For efficiency (speed-up) or implementation purpose (e.g., circuit design)

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Tautology and contradiction

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TABLE 1 Examples of a Tautology and a Contradiction.

p	$\neg p$	$p \vee \neg p$	$p \wedge \neg p$
T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F

- A compound proposition:
 - **Tautology**: always true
 - **Contradiction**: always false
 - **Contingency**: neither a tautology nor a contradiction

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Logical equivalence

- $p \equiv q$ ($p \Leftrightarrow q$): the compound propositions p and q are logically equivalent if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology
- Can use truth table to determine whether two propositions are equivalent or not

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Example

- Show that $\neg(p \vee q)$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ are equivalent

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TABLE 3 Truth Tables for $\neg(p \vee q)$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$.						
p	q	$p \vee q$	$\neg(p \vee q)$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$\neg p \wedge \neg q$
T	T	T	F	F	F	F
T	F	T	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	F	T	T	T	T

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

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$\neg p \vee q$
T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F
F	T	T	T
F	F	T	T

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Example

$$\neg(p \vee q) \quad \neg p \wedge \neg q$$

$$p \rightarrow q \quad \neg p \vee q$$

$$p \vee (q \wedge r) \quad (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$$

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Example

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TABLE 5 A Demonstration That $p \vee (q \wedge r)$ and $(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ Are Logically Equivalent.							
p	q	r	$q \wedge r$	$p \vee (q \wedge r)$	$p \vee q$	$p \vee r$	$(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	T	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	T	T	T
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	F	F	F	T	F
F	F	T	F	F	T	F	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

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De Morgan's laws

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TABLE 2 De Morgan's Laws.

$$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$$

$$\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$$

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Example

- Express the negation of "Heather will go to the concert or Steve will go to the concert"
- Negation:
Heather will not go to the concert AND Steve will not go to the concert.

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De Morgan's law: general form

- The first example above is known as the De Morgan's law

$$\neg(p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \dots \vee p_n) \equiv (\neg p_1 \wedge \neg p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \neg p_n)$$

$$\neg(p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n) \equiv (\neg p_1 \vee \neg p_2 \vee \dots \vee \neg p_n)$$

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Logical equivalences

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TABLE 6 Logical Equivalences	
Equivalence	Name
$p \wedge T = p$ $p \vee F = p$	Identity laws
$p \vee T = T$ $p \wedge F = F$	Dominance laws
$p \vee p = p$ $p \wedge p = p$	Idempotent laws
$\neg(\neg p) = p$	Double negation law
$p \vee q = q \vee p$ $p \wedge q = q \wedge p$	Commutative laws
$(p \vee q) \vee r = p \vee (q \vee r)$ $(p \wedge q) \wedge r = p \wedge (q \wedge r)$	Associative laws
$p \vee (q \wedge r) = (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ $p \wedge (q \vee r) = (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	Distributive laws
$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$ $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$	De Morgan's laws
$p \vee (p \wedge q) = p$ $p \wedge (p \vee q) = p$	Absorption laws
$p \vee \neg p = T$ $p \wedge \neg p = F$	Negation laws

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TABLE 7 Logical Equivalences Involving Conditional Statements.

$$\begin{aligned}
p \rightarrow q &\equiv \neg p \vee q \\
p \rightarrow q &\equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p \\
p \vee q &\equiv \neg p \rightarrow q \\
p \wedge q &\equiv \neg (p \rightarrow \neg q) \\
\neg (p \rightarrow q) &\equiv p \wedge \neg q \\
(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (p \rightarrow r) &\equiv p \rightarrow (q \wedge r) \\
(p \rightarrow r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r) &\equiv (p \vee q) \rightarrow r \\
(p \rightarrow q) \vee (p \rightarrow r) &\equiv p \rightarrow (q \vee r) \\
(p \rightarrow r) \vee (q \rightarrow r) &\equiv (p \wedge q) \rightarrow r
\end{aligned}$$

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TABLE 8 Logical Equivalences Involving Biconditionals.

$$\begin{aligned}
p \leftrightarrow q &\equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p) \\
p \leftrightarrow q &\equiv \neg p \leftrightarrow \neg q \\
p \leftrightarrow q &\equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \\
\neg (p \leftrightarrow q) &\equiv p \leftrightarrow \neg q
\end{aligned}$$

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Constructing new logical equivalences

- Show $\neg (p \rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$
 $\neg (p \rightarrow q) \equiv \neg (\neg p \vee q)$
 $\equiv \neg (\neg p) \wedge \neg q$
 $\equiv p \wedge \neg q$

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Constructing new logical equivalences

- Show $\neg (p \vee (\neg p \wedge q)) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$
 $\neg (p \vee (\neg p \wedge q)) \equiv \neg p \wedge (\neg (\neg p \wedge q))$
 $\equiv \neg p \wedge (\neg (\neg p) \vee \neg q)$
 $\equiv \neg p \wedge (p \vee \neg q)$
 $\equiv (\neg p \wedge p) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q)$
 $\equiv F \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q)$
 $\equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$

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Limitations of proposition logic

- Proposition logic cannot adequately express the meaning of statements
- Suppose we know
 “Every computer connected to the university network is functioning property”
- No rules of propositional logic allow us to conclude
 “MATH3 is functioning property”
 where MATH3 is one of the computers connected to the university network

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Example

- Cannot use the rules of propositional logic to conclude from
 “CS2 is under attack by an intruder”
 where CS2 is a computer on the university network

 to conclude the truth

 “There is a computer on the university network that is under attack by an intruder”

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1.4 Predicate and quantifiers

- Can be used to express the meaning of a wide range of statements
- Allow us to reason and explore relationship between objects
- **Predicates:** statements involving variables, e.g., “ $x > 3$ ”, “ $x=y+3$ ”, “ $x+y=z$ ”, “computer x is under attack by an intruder”, “computer x is functioning property”

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Example: $x > 3$

- The variable x is the subject of the statement
- **Predicate** “is greater than 3” refers to a property that the subject of the statement can have
- Can denote the statement by $p(x)$ where p denotes the predicate “is greater than 3” and x is the variable
- $p(x)$: also called the value of the **propositional function** p at x
- Once a value is **assigned** to the variable x , $p(x)$ becomes a proposition and has a truth value

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Example

- Let $p(x)$ denote the statement " $x > 3$ "
 - $p(4)$: setting $x=4$, thus $p(4)$ is true
 - $p(2)$: setting $x=2$, thus $p(2)$ is false
- Let $a(x)$ denote the statement "computer x is under attack by an intruder". Suppose that only CS2 and MATH1 are currently under attack
 - $a(\text{CS1})?$: false
 - $a(\text{CS2})?$: true
 - $a(\text{MATH1})?$: true

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N-ary Predicate

- A statement involving n variables, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , can be denoted by $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$
- $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is the value of the **propositional function** p at the n -tuple (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)
- p is also called **n -ary predicate**

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Quantifiers

- Express the extent to which a predicate is true
- In English, *all, some, many, none, few*
- Focus on two types:
 - **Universal**: a predicate is true for **every** element under consideration
 - **Existential**: a predicate is true for there is **one or more** elements under consideration
- **Predicate calculus**: the area of logic that deals with predicates and quantifiers

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Universal quantifier \forall

- " $p(x)$ for all values of x in the domain"
- $\forall x \ p(x)$
- Read it as "for all x $p(x)$ " or "for every x $p(x)$ "
- A statement $\forall x \ p(x)$ is false if and only if $p(x)$ is not always true
- An element for which $p(x)$ is false is called a **counterexample** of $\forall x \ p(x)$
- A single counterexample is all we need to establish that $\forall x \ p(x)$ is not true

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Example

- Let $p(x)$ be the statement " $x+1>x$ ". What is the truth value of $\forall x \ p(x)$?
 - Implicitly assume the domain of a predicate is not empty
 - Best to avoid "for any x " as it is ambiguous to whether it means "every" or "some"
- Let $q(x)$ be the statement " $x<2$ ". What is the truth value of $\forall x \ q(x)$ where the domain consists of all real numbers?

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Example

- Let $p(x)$ be " $x^2>0$ ". To show that the statement $\forall x \ p(x)$ is false where the domain consists of all integers
 - Show a counterexample with $x=0$
- When all the elements can be listed, e.g., x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , it follows that the universal quantification $\forall x \ p(x)$ is the same as the conjunction $p(x_1) \wedge p(x_2) \wedge \dots \wedge p(x_n)$

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Example

- What is the truth value of $\forall x \ p(x)$ where $p(x)$ is the statement " $x^2 < 10$ " and the domain consists of positive integers not exceeding 4?

$\forall x \ p(x)$ is the same as $p(1) \wedge p(2) \wedge p(3) \wedge p(4)$

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Existential quantification \exists

- "There exists an element x in the domain such that $p(x)$ (is true)"
- Denote that as $\exists x \ p(x)$ where \exists is the existential quantifier
- In English, "for some", "for at least one", or "there is"
- Read as "There is an x such that $p(x)$ ", "There is at least one x such that $p(x)$ ", or "For some x , $p(x)$ "

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Example

- Let $p(x)$ be the statement " $x > 3$ ". Is $\exists x \ p(x)$ true for the domain of all real numbers?
- Let $q(x)$ be the statement " $x = x + 1$ ". Is $\exists x \ p(x)$ true for the domain of all real numbers?
- When all elements of the domain can be listed, e.g., x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , it follows that the existential quantification is the same as disjunction $p(x_1) \vee p(x_2) \vee \dots \vee p(x_n)$

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Example

- What is the truth value of $\exists x \ p(x)$ where $p(x)$ is the statement " $x^2 > 10$ " and the domain consists of positive integers not exceeding 4?
 $\exists x \ p(x)$ is the same as $p(1) \vee p(2) \vee p(3) \vee p(4)$

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Uniqueness quantifier $\exists!$ \exists_1

- There exists a unique x such that $p(x)$ is true
 $\exists! \ p(x)$
- "There is exactly one", "There is one and only one"

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Quantifiers with restricted domains

- What do the following statements mean for the domain of real numbers?

$$\forall x < 0, x^2 > 0 \quad \text{same as} \quad \forall x (x < 0 \rightarrow x^2 > 0)$$

$$\forall y \neq 0, y^3 \neq 0 \quad \text{same as} \quad \forall y (y \neq 0 \rightarrow y^3 \neq 0)$$

$$\exists z > 0, z^2 = 2 \quad \text{same as} \quad \exists z (z > 0 \wedge z^2 = 2)$$

Be careful about \rightarrow and \wedge in these statements

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Precedence of quantifiers

- \forall and \exists have higher precedence than all logical operators from propositional calculus

$\forall x \, p(x) \vee q(x) \equiv (\forall x \, p(x)) \vee q(x)$ rather than $\forall x \, (p(x) \vee q(x))$

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Binding variables

- When a quantifier is used on the variable x , this occurrence of variable is **bound**
- If a variable is not bound, then it is **free**
- All variables occur in propositional function of predicate calculus must be bound or set to a particular value to turn it into a proposition
- The part of a logical expression to which a quantifier is applied is the **scope** of this quantifier

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Example

What are the scope of these expressions?
Are all the variables bound?

$$\exists x(x + y = 1)$$

$$\exists x(p(x) \wedge q(x)) \vee \forall x R(x)$$

$$\exists x(p(x) \wedge q(x)) \vee \forall y R(y)$$

The same letter is often used to represent variables bound by different quantifiers with scopes that do not overlap

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