



CS201H DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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Compound Propositions

- A *proposition* is a *declarative* statement that is *either true or false*. More complex propositions can be built from elementary statements using *logical connectives*.
- Logical connectives:
 - ◇ $\neg p$ (*Negation*)
 - ◇ $p \wedge q$ (*Conjunction*)
 - ◇ $p \vee q$ (*Disjunction*)
 - ◇ $p \oplus q$ (*Exclusive or*)
 - ◇ $p \rightarrow q$ (*Implication*)
 - ◇ $p \leftrightarrow q$ (*Biconditional*)



Constructing the Truth Table

- Construct a truth table for $p \vee q \rightarrow \neg r$



Constructing the Truth Table

- Construct a truth table for $p \vee q \rightarrow \neg r$

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



Applications of Propositional Logic

- Translation of English sentences
 - ◇ use **atomic** (**elementary**) propositions
- Inference and reasoning
 - ◇ new **true** propositions are inferred from existing ones
 - ◇ used in *Artificial Intelligence*:
 - rule based (expert) systems, automatic theorem provers, ...
- Design of logic circuit



Translation

- If you are older than 13 or you are with your parents then you can watch this movie.



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If (you are older than 13) **or** (you are with your parents) **then** (you can watch this movie).



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Atomic (elementary) propositions:

p – you are older than 13

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Inference

- **If** (you are older than 13) **or** (you are with your parents) **then** (you can watch this movie).

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Inference

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Given that p is true.

With the help of the logic, we can infer the following statement:

- You can watch this movie.



Inference

- *Artificial intelligence*

- ◇ builds programs that *act intelligently*
- ◇ programs often rely on *symbolic manipulations*



Inference

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- *Expert systems*

- ◇ encode knowledge about the world in logic
- ◇ *support inferences* where new facts are inferred from existing ones following the semantics of logic



Inference

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- ◇ builds programs that **act intelligently**
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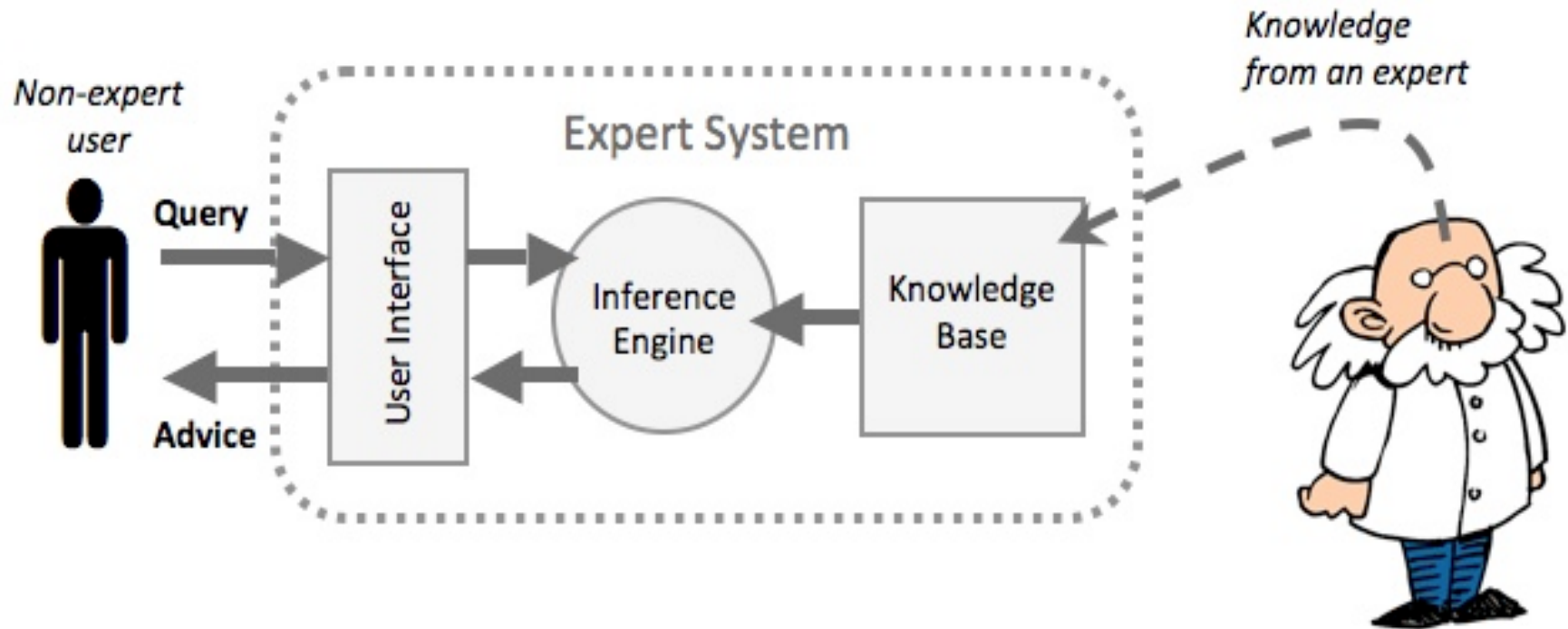
- ◇ encode knowledge about the world in logic
- ◇ **support inferences** where new facts are inferred from existing ones following the semantics of logic

- *Theorem provers*

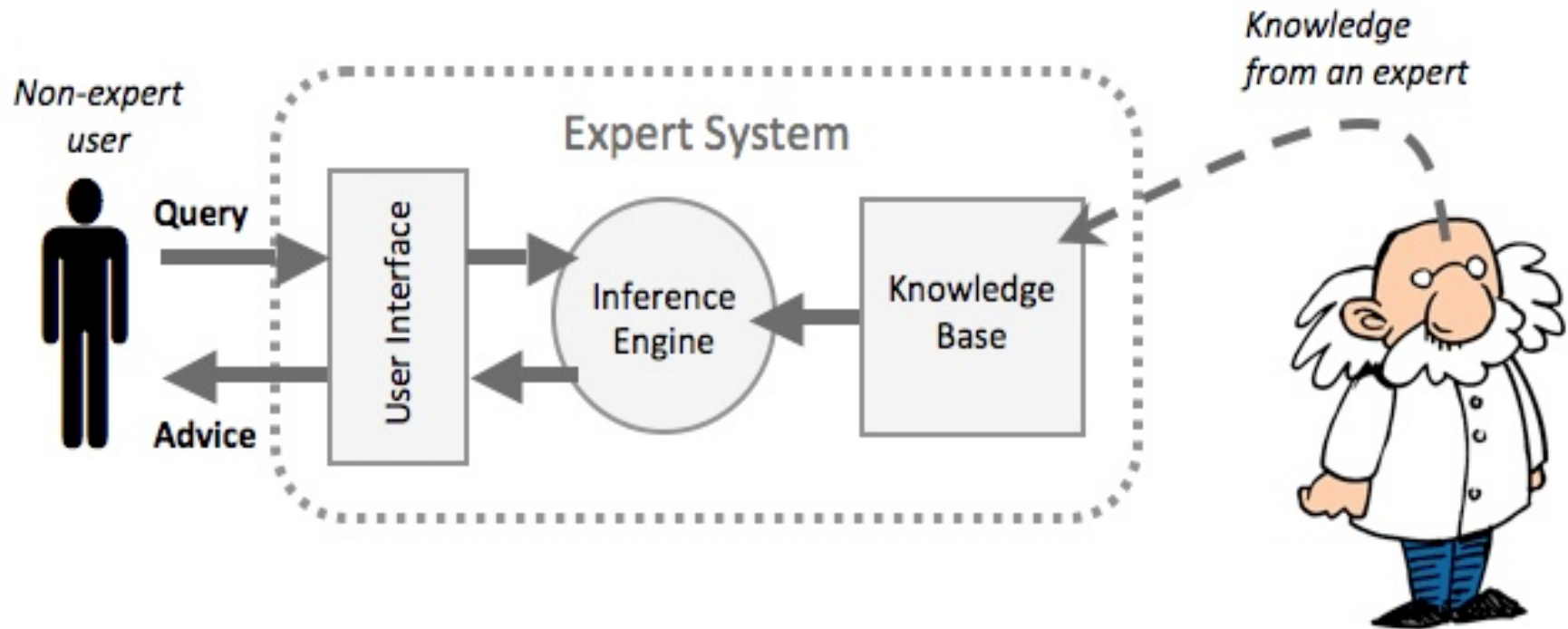
- ◇ encode existing knowledge (e.g., math) using logic
- ◇ show that some hypothesis is **true**



Expert System



Expert System

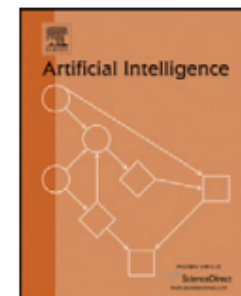




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Artificial Intelligence

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Computer-aided proofs of Arrow's and other impossibility theorems[☆]

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ABSTRACT

Arrow's impossibility theorem is one of the landmark results in social choice theory. Over the years since the theorem was proved in 1950, quite a few alternative proofs have been put forward. In this paper, we propose yet another alternative proof of the theorem. The basic idea is to use induction to reduce the theorem to the base case with 3 alternatives and 2 agents and then use computers to verify the base case. This turns out to be an effective approach for proving other impossibility theorems such as Muller-Satterthwaite and Sen's theorems as well. Motivated by the insights of the proof, we discover a new theorem with the help of computer programs. We believe this new proof opens an exciting prospect of using computers to discover similar impossibility or even possibility results.

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Tautology and Contradiction

- A compound proposition that is **always true** for all possible truth values is called a *tautology*.
- A compound proposition that is **always false** for all possible truth values is called a *contradiction*.
- A compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction is called a *contingency*.



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



Equivalent Propositions

- Two propositions are *equivalent* if they *always* have the same truth value.



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Examples:

```
(1) if ((i+j ≤ p+q) && (i ≤ p) &&  
      ((j > q) || (List1[i] ≤ List2[j])))  
(2)   List3[k] = List1[i]  
(3)   i = i+1  
(4) else  
(5)   List3[k] = List2[j]  
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Consider the two pieces of codes taken from two different versions of *Mergesort*. Do they do the same thing?



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- Let's rewrite using

$s \sim (i + j \leq p + q)$, $t \sim (i \leq p)$, $u \sim (j > q)$
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(1) $s \wedge t \wedge (u \vee v)$

(1') $(s \wedge t \wedge u) \vee (s \wedge t \wedge v)$



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(1) $s \wedge t \wedge (u \vee v)$

(1') $(s \wedge t \wedge u) \vee (s \wedge t \wedge v)$

Now set $w \sim (s \wedge t)$

(1) $w \wedge (u \vee v)$

(1') $(w \wedge u) \vee (w \wedge v)$



Truth Tables

(1) $w \wedge (u \vee v)$

w	u	v	$u \vee v$	$w \wedge (u \vee v)$
T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	T
T	F	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	F
F	T	F	T	F
F	F	T	T	F
F	F	F	F	F

(1') $(w \wedge u) \vee (w \wedge v)$

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T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	F	T
T	F	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	F	F	F
F	T	F	F	F	F
F	F	T	F	F	F
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Distributive Laws

- $(w \wedge (u \vee v))$ is *equivalent* to $(w \wedge u) \vee (w \wedge v)$



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Example $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$



De Morgan's Laws

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

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



De Morgan's Laws

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

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



Important Logical Equivalences

■ *Identity laws*

$$\diamond p \wedge T \equiv p$$

$$\diamond p \vee F \equiv p$$

■ *Domination laws*

$$\diamond p \vee T \equiv T$$

$$\diamond p \wedge F \equiv F$$

■ *Idempotent laws*

$$\diamond p \vee p \equiv p$$

$$\diamond p \wedge p \equiv p$$



Important Logical Equivalences

■ *Double negation laws*

$$\diamond \neg(\neg p) \equiv p$$

■ *Commutative laws*

$$\diamond p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$$

$$\diamond p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$$

■ *Associative laws*

$$\diamond (p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$$

$$\diamond (p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$$



Important Logical Equivalences

■ *Distributive laws*

$$\diamond p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$$

$$\diamond p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$$

■ *De Morgan's laws*

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

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

■ *Others*

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

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

Absorption laws

$$\diamond p \vee \neg p \equiv T$$

$$\diamond p \wedge \neg p \equiv F$$

Negation laws

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

Useful law



Using Logical Equivalences

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- **Example:** Show that $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$ is a tautology.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p &\equiv \neg(p \wedge q) \vee p && \text{Useful} \\ &\equiv (\neg p \vee \neg q) \vee p && \text{De Morgan's} \\ &\equiv (\neg q \vee \neg p) \vee p && \text{Commutative} \\ &\equiv \neg q \vee (\neg p \vee p) && \text{Associative} \\ &\equiv \neg q \vee T && \text{Negation} \\ &\equiv T && \text{Domination}\end{aligned}$$



Using Logical Equivalences

- Equivalences can be used in proofs. A proposition or its part can be transformed using equivalences.
- **Example:** Show that $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$ is a tautology.

Proof (alternatively):

p	q	$p \wedge q$	$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$
T	T	T	T
T	F	F	T
F	T	F	T
F	F	F	T



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- Equivalences can be used in proofs. A proposition or its part can be transformed using equivalences.
- **Example:** Show that $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$.

Proof:

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

Useful

Double negation

Commutative

Useful



Limitations of Propositional Logic

- **Propositional logic**: the world is described in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations. **Elementary statements** typically refer to objects, their properties and relations.



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Example 1: (repeated statements for many objects)

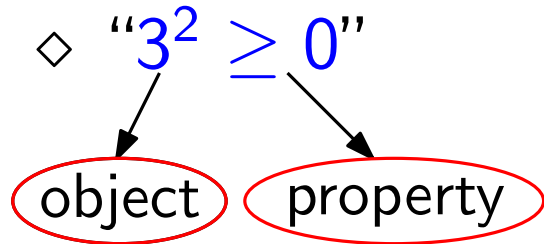
◇ “ $3^2 \geq 0$ ”



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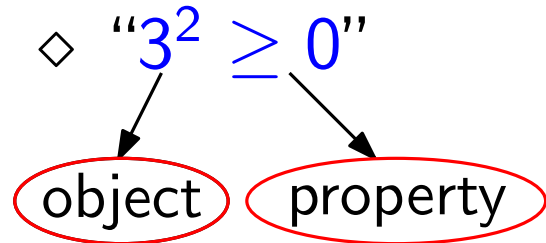
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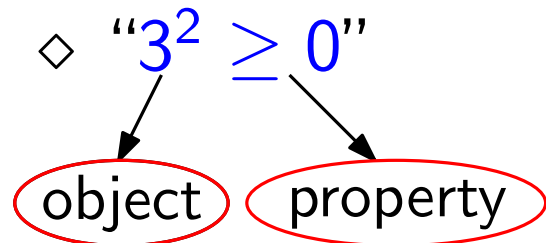
- ◇ “ $2^2 \geq 0$ ”
- ◇ “ $1^2 \geq 0$ ”
- ◇ “ $0^2 \geq 0$ ”
- ◇ “ $(-1)^2 \geq 0$ ”
- ◇ ...



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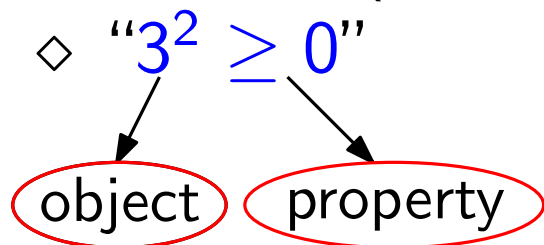
What is a more natural solution to express the knowledge?



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- ◇ “ $0^2 \geq 0$ ”
- ◇ “ $(-1)^2 \geq 0$ ”
- ◇ ...

What is a more natural solution to express the knowledge?

Solution: make statements with **variables**

- If x is an integer, then $x^2 \geq 0$.
- x is an integer $\rightarrow x^2 \geq 0$.



Limitations of Propositional Logic

- **Propositional logic**: the world is described in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations. **Elementary statements** typically refer to objects, their properties and relations.

Example 2: (statements that define the property of a group of objects)

- ◇ “The square of every integer is ≥ 0 ”
- ◇ “Some of the integers are prime.”



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Example 2: (statements that define the property of a group of objects)

- ◇ “The square of every integer is ≥ 0 ”
- ◇ “Some of the integers are prime.”

Solutions: make statements with *quantifiers*

- **universal quantifier**: the property is satisfied by all members of the group
- **existential quantifier**: at least one member of the group satisfies the property



Predicate Logic

- Remedies the limitations of **propositional logic**:
 - ◇ explicitly models objects and their properties
 - ◇ allows to make statements **with variables** and **quantify them**



Predicate Logic

- Remedies the limitations of **propositional logic**:
 - ◇ explicitly models objects and their properties
 - ◇ allows to make statements **with variables** and **quantify them**
- Basic building blocks of the **predicate logic**:
 - ◇ **Constant** – models a specific object
Examples: “1”, “SUSTech”, ...
 - ◇ **Variable** – represents object of specific type
Examples: x , y , ... (universe can be people, numbers ...)
 - ◇ **Predicate** – represents properties or relations among objects
Examples: $\text{Red}(\text{car23})$, $\text{student}(x)$, $\text{married}(A, B)$...



Predicates

- A *predicate* $P(x)$ assigns a value T or F to each x depending on whether the property holds or not for x .



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Example: Assume $\text{Prime}(x)$ where the universe of discourse are integers

- $\text{Prime}(2) \dots T$
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Is $\text{Prime}(x)$ a proposition?



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- ...

Is $\text{Prime}(x)$ a proposition?

No, but after the substitution it becomes one.



Predicates

- A *predicate* is a statement $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ that contains n variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n and becomes a *proposition* when specific values are substituted for the variables x_i .
- The *universe* (*domain*) D of the *predicate variables* (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) is the set of all values that may be substituted in place of the variables.
- The *truth set* of $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is the set of all values of the predicate variables (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) such that the *proposition* $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is true.



Examples of Predicates

■ **Example 1:** (Predicates with one variable)

Let $P(x)$ be the predicate “ $x^2 > x$ ” with universe of the real numbers.

- ◇ What are the truth values of $P(2)$ and $P(1)$?
- ◇ What is the truth set of $P(x)$?



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- ◇ What are the truth values of $P(2)$ and $P(1)$?
- ◇ What is the truth set of $P(x)$?

- ◇ $P(2) = \text{T}$, $P(1) = \text{F}$

- ◇ $x > 1$ or $x < 0$



Examples of Predicates

■ **Example 2:** (Predicates with two variables)

Let $Q(x, y)$ be the predicate “ $x = y + 3$ ” with universe of the real numbers.

- ◇ What are the truth values of $Q(1, 2)$ and $Q(3, 0)$?
- ◇ What is the truth set of $Q(x, y)$?



Examples of Predicates

■ **Example 2:** (Predicates with two variables)

Let $Q(x, y)$ be the predicate “ $x = y + 3$ ” with universe of the real numbers.

- ◇ What are the truth values of $Q(1, 2)$ and $Q(3, 0)$?
- ◇ What is the truth set of $Q(x, y)$?

- ◇ $Q(1, 2) = F, Q(3, 0) = T$
- ◇ $(a, a - 3)$ for all real numbers a



Compound Statements in Predicate Logic

- Compound statements are obtained via **logical connectives**.



Compound Statements in Predicate Logic

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Example:

- ◇ $\text{Prime}(2) \wedge \text{Prime}(3)$
 - Translation: “Both 2 and 3 are primes.” (T)
- ◇ $\text{City}(\text{Shenzhen}) \vee \text{River}(\text{Shenzhen})$
 - Translation: “Shenzhen is a city or a river.” (T)
- ◇ $\text{CS-major}(x) \rightarrow \text{Student}(x)$
 - Translation: “If x is CS-major then x is a student.”
(not a proposition)



Predicates

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Predicates

- The statement $P(x)$ is **not a proposition** since there are **many objects** that it can be applied to.
- But **the difference** is:
 - ◇ predicate logic allows us to **explicitly manipulate and substitute for the objects**
 - ◇ predicate logic permits **quantified sentences** where variables are substituted for statements about the group of objects



Quantified Statements

- Two types of **quantified statements**:

- ◇ *Universal*

Example: “**All** CS-major graduates have to pass CS201”.
(This is **true** for all CS-major graduates.)

- ◇ *Existential*

Example: “**Some** CS-major students graduate with honor.”
(This is **true** for some students.)



Universal Quantifier

- The *universal quantification* of $P(x)$ is the proposition: “ $P(x)$ is true **for all** values of x in the universe of discourse.” denoted by $\forall x P(x)$, and is expressed as **for every x , $P(x)$** .



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- ◇ Is $P(x)$ a proposition? **No**. Many possible substitutions.
- ◇ Is $\forall x P(x)$ a proposition?
Yes. **True** if for all x from the universe $P(x)$ is true.



Existential Quantifier

- The *existential quantification* of $P(x)$ is the proposition: “There exists an element in the universe of discourse such that $P(x)$ is true .” denoted by $\exists x P(x)$, and is expressed as there is an x such that $P(x)$.



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- ◇ $\exists x P(x)$ is true.
- ◇ Is $P(x)$ a proposition? No. Many possible substitutions.
- ◇ Is $\exists x P(x)$ a proposition?
Yes. True if there is even an x s.t. $P(x)$ is true (e.g. 10).



Existential Quantifier

■ Example:

- ◇ $Q(x)$ – “ $x = x + 2$ where x is a real number”.
- ◇ What is the truth value of $\exists x Q(x)$?



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Existential Quantifier

■ Example:

- ◇ $Q(x)$ – “ $x = x + 2$ where x is a real number”.
 - ◇ What is the truth value of $\exists x Q(x)$?
 - ◇ $\exists x Q(x)$ is false.
-
- ◇ $C(x)$ – $\text{CS-major}(x) \wedge \text{Honor-student}(x)$.
 - ◇ What is the truth value of $\exists x C(x)$?
 - ◇ Translation: “There is a person who is a CS-major student and who also graduated with honor.” (T)



Summary of Quantified Statements

- When $\forall x P(x)$ and $\exists x P(x)$ are true and false?

Statement	When true?	When false?
$\forall x P(x)$	$P(x)$ true for all x	There is an x where $P(x)$ is false.
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- Suppose that the elements in the universe can be enumerated as x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n then:
 - ◇ $\forall x P(x)$ is true whenever $P(x_1) \wedge P(x_2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(x_n)$ is true
 - ◇ $\exists x P(x)$ is true whenever $P(x_1) \vee P(x_2) \vee \dots \vee P(x_n)$ is true.



Properties of Quantifiers

- The truth values of $\exists x P(x)$ and $\forall x P(x)$ depend on both the propositional function $P(x)$ and the universe.



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Example: $P(x) - "x < 2"$

◇ universe: the positive integers

$\exists x P(x) - \text{T}, \forall x P(x) - \text{F}$

◇ universe: the negative integers

$\exists x P(x) - \text{T}, \forall x P(x) - \text{T}$

◇ universe: $\{ 3, 4, 5 \}$

$\exists x P(x) - \text{F}, \forall x P(x) - \text{F}$



Precedence of Quantifiers

- The quantifiers \forall and \exists have *higher precedence* than all the logical operators.

◇ $\forall x P(x) \vee Q(x)$ means $(\forall x P(x)) \vee Q(x)$ rather than $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$



Translation with Quantifiers

- Sentence: All SUSTech students are smart.
 - ◇ universe: SUSTech students
 - translation: $\forall x \text{ Smart}(x)$



Translation with Quantifiers

- Sentence: All SUSTech students are smart.
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translation: $\forall x (\text{At}(x, \text{SUSTech}) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(x))$



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$\forall x (\text{At}(x, \text{SUSTech}) \wedge \text{Smart}(x))$



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This means every student is at SUSTech and is smart!



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Q: What about this?

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This means every student is at SUSTech and is smart!

- ◇ universe: people

translation: $\forall x (\text{Student}(x) \wedge \text{At}(x, \text{SUSTech}) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(x))$



Translation with Quantifiers

- Sentence: Someone at SUSTech is smart.
 - ◇ universe: all SUSTech affiliates
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Translation with Quantifiers

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Q: What about this?

$\exists x (\text{At}(x, \text{SUSTech}) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(x))$

This is even **true** if there is anyone who is **not** at SUSTech!



Negation of Quantifiers

- Sentence: **Nothing is perfect.**
 - ◇ translation: $\neg \exists x \text{ Perfect}(x)$



Negation of Quantifiers

- Sentence: Nothing is perfect.
 - ◇ translation: $\neg \exists x \text{ Perfect}(x)$
 - ◇ translation: $\forall x \neg \text{Perfect}(x)$
(Everything is imperfect.)



Negation of Quantifiers

- Sentence: **Nothing is perfect.**
 - ◇ translation: $\neg \exists x \text{ Perfect}(x)$
 - ◇ translation: $\forall x \neg \text{Perfect}(x)$
(**Everything is imperfect.**)

Conclusion: $\neg \exists x P(x)$ is **equivalent** to $\forall x \neg P(x)$



Negation of Quantifiers

■ Sentence: Not all horses are white.

◇ translation: $\neg \forall x (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))$



Negation of Quantifiers

- Sentence: Not all horses are white.
 - ◇ translation: $\neg \forall x (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))$
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(There is a horse that is not white.)



Negation of Quantifiers

- Sentence: Not all horses are white.
 - ◇ translation: $\neg \forall x (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))$
 - ◇ translation: $\exists x (Horse(x) \wedge \neg White(x))$
(There is a horse that is not white.)
 - ◇ logically equivalent to
 $\exists x \neg (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))$



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◇ translation: $\exists x (Horse(x) \wedge \neg White(x))$
(There is a horse that is not white.)

◇ logically equivalent to
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Conclusion: $\neg \forall x P(x)$ is equivalent to $\exists x \neg P(x)$



Negation of Quantified Statements

- a.k.a. De Morgan laws for quantifiers

Negation	Equivalent Statement	When Is Negation True?	When False?
$\neg \exists x P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$	For every x , $P(x)$ is false.	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.
$\neg \forall x P(x)$	$\exists x \neg P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.	$P(x)$ is true for every x .



Next Lecture

- Predicate logic, proofs, sets ...

