

Discrete Math

Contents

	1	Structure	6
	2	Interpretation . . .	7
	§ 2.3	Quantifiers with re- stricted domains	8
	1	The truth of "if- then"	8
Part I Discrete Math: Logic	1		
Chapter I Propositional Logic	1		
§ 1.1 Connectives and Truth Assignments	1		
§ 1.2 Consequence and Equivalent	1		
1 The definition of consequence and logically equivalent	1		
2 Important properties	2		
3 Prove Logical Equivalence	3		
4 Relation among tautologies, con- tradictions, satis- fiable assertions, consequence re- lations and logic equivalence	3		
§ 1.3 Normal Forms	4		
Chapter II First Order Logic, FOL	6		
§ 2.1 The syntax of first or- der language	6		
§ 2.2 The semantics of first order language	6		
		Part II Discrete Math: Set Theory	8
		Chapter III The definition of set	8
		Chapter IV Relations	8
	§ 4.1	Relations	8
	1	Properties of rela- tions	9
	2	Equivalence rela- tions	9
	§ 4.2	Relations and Sets . . .	9
	1	Equivalence classes and Parti- tions	9
	2	Transitive Clo- sures and Re- flexive Transitive Closures	10
		Chapter V Functions	10
	§ 5.1	Functions	10
	§ 5.2	Functions and Sets . . .	10

Part I Discrete Math: Logic

Chapter I Propositional Logic

§ 1.1 Connectives and Truth Assingments

Define 1.1.1 (Truth table of Connectives) (Omitted)

Define 1.1.2 (Truth Assingments) Suppose Σ is the set of propositional variables. A mapping from Σ to $\{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}$ called a truth assignment.

Define 1.1.3 Suppose Σ is the set of propositional variables and $\mathcal{J} : \Sigma \rightarrow \{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}$ is a truth assignment. The truth value of the compond proposition on \mathcal{J} ...
(Omitted)

Define 1.1.4 (Tautology, contradiction) (Omitted)

Define 1.1.5 (Contingency, Satisfiable) A contingency is a compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction.

A compound proposition is satisfiable if it is true under some truth assignment.

§ 1.2 Consequence and Equivalent

1 The definition of consequence and logically equivalent

Define 1.2.1 (Consequence) Suppose Φ is a set of propositions and ψ is one single proposition. We say that ψ is a consequence of Φ , written as $\Phi \models \psi$. if Φ 's being all true implies that ψ is also true.

In other words, $\Phi \models \psi$ if for any truth assignment \mathcal{J} , $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$ for any $\phi \in \Phi$

implies $\llbracket \psi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$.

Define 1.2.2 (Logically Equivalent) ϕ is a logically equivalent to ψ , written as $\phi \equiv \psi$, if ϕ 's truth value and ψ 's truth value are the same under any situation. In other words, $\phi \equiv \psi$ if $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \llbracket \psi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}}$ for any truth assignment \mathcal{J} .

Example 1.2.1 $\Phi = \{ \}$, $\psi = p \vee \neg p$, $\Phi \models \psi$

2 Important properties

Theorem 1.2.1

- $\phi \vee \neg \phi$ is a tautology
- $\phi \wedge \neg \phi$ is a contradiction
- $\phi, \psi \models \phi \wedge \psi$ (\wedge -Introduction)
- $\phi \wedge \psi \models \phi$ (\wedge -Elimination)
- $\phi \models \phi \vee \psi$ (\vee -Introduction)
- If $\Phi, \phi_1 \models \psi$, $\Phi, \phi_2 \models \psi$, then $\Phi, \phi_1 \vee \phi_2 \models \psi$ (\vee -Elimination)

Proof (Proof of the last one) Suppose $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$, $\llbracket \phi_1 \vee \phi_2 \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$. Then at least one of the following holds: $\llbracket \phi_1 \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$, $\llbracket \phi_2 \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$. □

Theorem 1.2.2 (Contrapositive) If $\Phi, \neg \phi \models \psi$, then $\Phi, \neg \psi \models \phi$

Theorem 1.2.3

- $\neg(\neg q) \equiv q$ (Double Negation)
- $\phi \wedge \phi \equiv \phi$, $\phi \vee \phi \equiv \phi$ (Idempotent Laws)
- $\phi \wedge \psi \equiv \psi \wedge \phi$, $\phi \vee \psi \equiv \psi \vee \phi$ (Commutative Laws)

- $\phi \vee (\psi \wedge \chi) \equiv (\phi \vee \psi) \wedge (\phi \vee \chi), \quad \phi \wedge (\psi \vee \chi) \equiv (\phi \wedge \psi) \vee (\phi \wedge \chi)$
(Distributive Laws)
- $\neg(q \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q, \quad \neg(q \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$ (De Morgan's Laws)
- $\phi \wedge (\neg\phi) \equiv \mathbf{F}, \quad \phi \vee (\neg\phi) \equiv \mathbf{T}$ (Negation Laws)
- $\phi \wedge \mathbf{T} \equiv \phi, \quad \phi \vee \mathbf{F} \equiv \phi, \quad \phi \wedge \mathbf{F} \equiv \mathbf{F}, \quad \phi \vee \mathbf{T} \equiv \mathbf{T}$ (Laws of logical constants)
- $\phi \vee (\phi \wedge \psi) \equiv \phi, \quad \phi \wedge (\phi \vee \psi) \equiv \phi$ (Absorption Laws)

3 Prove Logical Equivalence

Theorem 1.2.4 (Transitivity) If $\phi \equiv \psi$ and $\psi \equiv \chi$, then $\phi \equiv \chi$.

Theorem 1.2.5 (Congruence Property)

- If $\phi \equiv \psi$, then $\neg\phi \equiv \neg\psi$
- If $\phi_1 \equiv \phi_2, \psi_1 \equiv \psi_2$, then $\phi_1 \wedge \psi_1 \equiv \phi_2 \wedge \psi_2$
- If $\phi_1 \equiv \phi_2, \psi_1 \equiv \psi_2$, then $\phi_1 \vee \psi_1 \equiv \phi_2 \vee \psi_2$

Theorem 1.2.6 (Reflexivity) $\phi \equiv \phi$

4 Relation among tautologies, contradictions, satisfiable assertions, consequence relations and logic equivalence

Theorem 1.2.7

- $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ iff. $\left(\bigwedge_{k=1}^n \phi_k \right) \wedge \neg\psi$ is not satisfiable.
- $\{ \} \models \phi$ iff. ϕ is an tautology.

- $\phi \equiv \psi$ iff. $\phi \models \psi$ and $\psi \models \phi$.

Theorem 1.2.8 If $\phi \models \psi$ and $\psi \models \chi$, then $\phi \models \chi$.

§ 1.3 Normal Forms

Define 1.3.1 (Disjunctive Normal Form, DNF)

- A **literal** is a propositional variable or its negation.
- A **conjunctive clause** is a conjunctions of literals.
- A **compound proposition** is in disjunctive normal form if it is a disjunction of conjunctive clauses.

Define 1.3.2 (Conjunctive Normal Form, CNF)

(Similar as above)

Example 1.3.1

- literals $x, y, z, p, q, r, \neg q$
- conjunctive clauses $p, p \wedge q, \neg p \wedge q$
- DNF $p, p \vee (\neg q \wedge r), \neg p \vee (q \wedge p \wedge r)$

Theorem 1.3.1 Every compound proposition is logically equivalent to some compound proposition in DNF.

Proof (Proof 1) Suppose that the compound proposition ϕ consists of the literals p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

For all \mathcal{J} as a interpretation, we only need to prove that

$$\phi \equiv \bigvee_{\llbracket \phi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}} \left(\bigwedge_{\mathcal{J}(p_i) = \mathbf{T}} p_i \wedge \bigwedge_{\mathcal{J}(p_i) = \mathbf{F}} \neg p_i \right) = \mathbf{T}$$

Consider a specific interpretation \mathcal{J}_0 , if $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$, then

$$\left[\bigvee_{\llbracket \phi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}} \left(\bigwedge_{\mathcal{J}(p_i) = \mathbf{T}} p_i \wedge \bigwedge_{\mathcal{J}(p_i) = \mathbf{F}} \neg p_i \right) \right]_{\mathcal{J}_0} = \left[\left(\bigwedge_{\mathcal{J}_0(p_i) = \mathbf{T}} p_i \wedge \bigwedge_{\mathcal{J}_0(p_i) = \mathbf{F}} \neg p_i \right) \right]_{\mathcal{J}_0}$$

If $\mathcal{J}_0(p_i) = \mathbf{T}$, then $\llbracket p_i \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}_0} = \mathbf{T}$,

if $\mathcal{J}_0(p_i) = \mathbf{F}$, then $\llbracket \neg p_i \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}_0} = \mathbf{T}$.

So

$$\left[\left(\bigwedge_{\mathcal{J}_0(p_i) = \mathbf{T}} p_i \wedge \bigwedge_{\mathcal{J}_0(p_i) = \mathbf{F}} \neg p_i \right) \right]_{\mathcal{J}_0} = \mathbf{T}$$

□

Proof (Proof 2) Define $DNF(\phi)$ as follow and prove that $DNF(\phi) \equiv \phi$.

Define 1.3.3 • $DNF(\phi) \triangleq DNF_2(DNF_1(\phi))$

- $DNF_1(\neg\neg\phi) = DNF_1(\phi)$.

(The De Morgan's law)

$$DNF_1(\phi \wedge \psi) = DNF_1(\phi) \wedge DNF_1(\psi) \quad (\vee \text{ is the same})$$

$$DNF_1(l) = l \quad l \text{ is a literal.}$$

- $DNF_2(l) = l \quad l \text{ is a literal,}$

$$DNF_2(\phi \vee \psi) = DNF_2(\phi) \vee DNF_2(\psi)$$

$$\text{If } \phi = \bigvee_{i=1}^n \phi_i, \psi = \bigvee_{j=1}^m \psi_j, \text{ then}$$

$$DNF_2(\phi \wedge \psi) = \bigvee_{i=1}^n \bigvee_{j=1}^m (\phi_i \wedge \psi_j)$$

Then it's obvious that $\phi \equiv DNF(\phi)$ and $DNF(\phi)$ is a DNF.

□

Theorem 1.3.2 Every compound proposition is logically equivalent to some compound proposition in CNF.

Proof (Similar as above)

Example 1.3.2 (*) The CDCL algorithm.
(Suspended now)

Chapter II First Order Logic, FOL

§ 2.1 The syntax of first order language

Define 2.1.1

- Predicate Logic's Language
 - Variables x, y, z, \dots
 - Constants c_1, c_2, \dots
 - Predicates P, Q, R, \dots
 - Functions f, g, h, \dots
 - Logic patterns $\exists, \forall, \wedge, \vee, \neg$
- Terms $x, y, c_1, c_2, f(x), g(x, y), \dots$
- propositions $P(x), Q(f(x, g(x, y))), \exists x \forall y R(x, g(y)), \dots$

§ 2.2 The semantics of first order language

1 Structure

Define 2.2.1 (S -structure)

Given a symbol set S , an S -structure $\mathcal{A} = (A, \alpha)$ contains

- a domain A , which is a non-empty set.
- an interpretation of every predicate symbol.

Example 2.2.1 if P is a symbol of binary predicate, then $\alpha(P)$ is a mapping from $A \times A$ to $\{\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}\}$.

- an interpretation of every function symbol.

Example 2.2.2 if f is a symbol of unary function, then $\alpha(f)$ is a mapping from A to A .

- an interpretation of every constant symbol.

Example 2.2.3 if s is a constant symbol, $\alpha(c)$ is an element in domain A .

With a structure, we can determine the truth of an closed proposition.

2 Interpretation

Define 2.2.2 (S -interpretation)

Given a symbol set S , a S -interpretation $\mathcal{J} = (\mathcal{A}, \beta)$ is

- a S -structure $\mathcal{A} = (A, \alpha)$
- a S -assignment β : a mapping from variables to elements in the domain A

For $\mathcal{J} = (\mathcal{A}, \beta)$ and $\mathcal{A} = (A, \alpha)$, we usually use $\mathcal{J}(P)$ and $\mathcal{A}(P)$ to represent $\alpha(P)$, use $\mathcal{J}(f)$ and $\mathcal{A}(f)$ to represent $\alpha(f)$, use $\mathcal{J}(c)$ and $\mathcal{A}(c)$ to represent $\alpha(c)$, and use $\mathcal{J}(x)$ to represent $\beta(x)$.

Define 2.2.3 (Terms' denotation)

For S -interpretation \mathcal{J} and a S -term t ,

- $\llbracket x \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathcal{J}(x)$
- $\llbracket c \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathcal{J}(c)$
- $\llbracket f(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathcal{J}(f)(\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}}, \llbracket t_2 \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}}, \dots, \llbracket t_n \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}})$

Define 2.2.4 (Propositions' truth)

For S -interpretation \mathcal{J} and a S -proposition t ,

- $\llbracket P(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathcal{J}(P)(\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}}, \llbracket t_2 \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}}, \dots, \llbracket t_n \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}})$

- $\llbracket \varphi \wedge \psi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \llbracket \wedge \rrbracket (\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}}, \llbracket \psi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}})$
- $\llbracket \neg \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \llbracket \neg \rrbracket (\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}})$
- $\llbracket \forall x \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$ if and only if for every a in \mathcal{A} 's domain, $\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}[x \mapsto a]} = \mathbf{T}$
- $\llbracket \exists x \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}} = \mathbf{T}$ if and only if for at least one a in \mathcal{A} 's domain, $\llbracket \varphi \rrbracket_{\mathcal{J}[x \mapsto a]} = \mathbf{T}$

where $\mathcal{J}[x \mapsto a]$ is a S -interpretation which keeps all other interpretations in \mathcal{J} and interprets x by a .

§ 2.3 Quantifiers with restricted domains

1 The truth of "if-then"

Theorem 2.3.1

- $\phi \rightarrow (\psi \rightarrow \phi) \equiv \mathbf{T}$.
- $(\phi \rightarrow \psi \rightarrow \chi) \rightarrow (\phi \rightarrow \psi) \rightarrow (\phi \rightarrow \chi) \equiv \mathbf{T}$.
- $\phi \rightarrow \psi \equiv \neg \phi \vee \psi$

Part II Discrete Math: Set Theory

Chapter III The definition of set

(Omitted)

Chapter IV Relations

§ 4.1 Relations

1 Properties of relations

Define 4.1.1 Given R , a relation on A ,

- **Reflexive** on A if it holds that $\forall a \in A, (aRa) \Leftrightarrow I_A \subseteq R$
- **Symmetric** on A if it holds that $\forall a, b \in A$ if aRb , then $bRa \Leftrightarrow R^{-1} = R$
- **Transitive** on A if it holds that $\forall a, b, c \in A$ if aRb, bRc , then $aRc \Leftrightarrow R \circ R \subseteq R$
- **Antisymmetric** on A if it holds that $\forall a, b \in A$ if aRb, bRa , then $a = b \Leftrightarrow R \cap R^{-1} = I_A$

2 Equivalence relations

Define 4.1.2 If $R \subseteq A \times A$ is reflexive, symmetric and transitive, then R is called a **equivalence relation** on A

§ 4.2 Relations and Sets

1 Equivalence classes and Partitions

Define 4.2.1 R is an equivalence relation on A , $a \in A$, then we define the equivalence class $[a]_R$ of A by

$$[a]_R = \{b \in A | bRa\}$$

Theorem 4.2.1 aRb iff. $[a]_R = [b]_R$

2 Transitive Closures and Reflexive Transitive Closures

Define 4.2.2 (Transitive Closures) Suppose R is a relation on A , R' is a transitive closure of R if

- $R \subseteq R'$
- R' is transitive
- $\forall T, T$ is transitive, $R \subseteq T$, then $R' \subseteq T$.

Define 4.2.3 (Another definition) $R^+ = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R^n$ is the transitive closure

Proof Let's prove that the two definitions are equivalent.

- $R \subseteq R^+$
- If aR^+b, bR^+c , then there exists m, n , $aR^m b, bR^n c$, then $aR^{m+n}c$, R^+ is transitive.
- If $R \subseteq T$ and T is transitive, if $R^n \subseteq T$, then $R^{n+1} = R^n \circ R \subseteq T \circ T \subseteq T$,
so $R^+ = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R^n \subseteq T$.

So such R^+ is a transitive closure. □

Chapter V Functions

§ 5.1 Functions

§ 5.2 Functions and Sets

Define 5.2.1

$F : A \rightarrow B$,

- **Injection**(one-to-one map): $\forall a, a' \in A$, if $F(a) = F(a')$, then $a = a'$.
- **Surjection**(onto map): $\forall b \in B, \exists a \in A, F(a) = b$.
- **Bijection**(one-to-one correspondence): both one-to-one and onto.

Theorem 5.2.1

- If F, G are both injections, then $F \circ G$ is also an injection.
- If F, G are both surjection, then $F \circ G$ is also a surjection.
- If $F \circ G$ is an injection, then G is also an injection.
- If F is an bijection, then F^{-1} is also a bijection.

Theorem 5.2.2 (Berstern's Theorem) If there exist an injection from A to B and an injection from B to A , then there exists a bijection between A and B

Proof Suppose F is an one-to-one function from A to B , G is an one-to-one function from B to A .

Then we can construct a sequence of set as follow:

$$C_0 = \{a \in A | \forall b \in B, G(b) \neq a\} = A \setminus \{a | \exists b \in B, G(b) = a\},$$

$$D_0 = \{F(a) | a \in C_0\} = B \setminus \{b \in B | \exists a \in A \setminus C_0, b = F(a)\}$$

$$\forall n \geq 1,$$

$$C_n = \left\{ a \in A | \forall b \in B \setminus \bigcup_{i=0}^{n-1} D_i, G(b) \neq a \right\}$$

$$D_n = \{F(a) | a \in C_n\}$$

Now we define a function H , where

$$H(a) = \begin{cases} F(a), & a \in \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n \\ b \ (a = G(b)), & a \notin \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n \end{cases}$$

Let $C = A \setminus \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n$, $D = B \setminus \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} D_n$

Now we prove that H is well-defined and is a bijection.

- Firstly we prove that such b exists.

$\forall a \in C, a \notin C_0$, so $\exists b \in B, G(b) = a$. If $b \in D_n$, then $a = G(b) \in C_{n+1}$, contradictive! So $b \in D$. Due to G is an injection, such b is unique.

- Then we prove that H is an injection.

$\forall a \in \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n, F(a) \in \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} D_n$, and due to F is an injection, on $\bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n$ H is an injection.

$\forall a \in C, \exists b \in D, a = G(b)$, due to G is an injection, on C H is an injection.

- Finally we prove that H is a surjection.

$\forall b \in \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} D_n$ according to the define. $\forall b \in D, \exists a \in A, G(b) = a$, so $a \notin C_0$.

If $a \in \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n, n \geq 1$, then $b \in D_{n-1}$, contradictive! So $a \in C$.

□