VE203 Review Class

Tianyi Ge

Fall 2018

Outline

- 🕕 RC Week 1
 - Preliminary information
 - Logic
 - Set Theory

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Meet Zach

He's a really nice person!



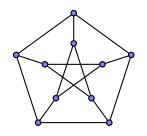
Figure: Cool Zach!

How to find me

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Recitation Class: Monday 20:00-22:00 @F103

Office Hour: Wednesday 19:00-21:00 @326D



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Operator precedence in propositional logic

The operator precedence is important. Parentheses often get you dizzy.

$$\neg > \land > \lor > \Rightarrow > \Leftrightarrow$$

Example

See the difference between the following two expressions

$$\exists x (\neg P(x) \Rightarrow (\exists y P(y) \lor \exists x Q(x, z)))$$

$$\exists x ((\neg P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y P(y)) \lor \exists x Q(x, z))$$

Proof by Truth Table

Example

" \oplus " is called **exclusive or** (xor). $A \oplus B$ is True if and only if A differs from B. Prove that $A \oplus B \equiv (\neg A \land B) \lor (A \land \neg B)$

Proof.

Α	В	$\neg A \wedge B$	$A \wedge \neg B$	$(\neg A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge \neg B)$	$A \oplus B$
Т	Т	F	F	F	F
T	F	F	Т	Т	Т
F	Т	T	F	Т	T
F	F	F	F	F	F

 Also it would be helpful if you know how to transform a truth table back to a symbolic expression (Kmap).

Some Important Logical Equivalences

For more logical equivalences, please refer to Zach's lecture slides. You'd better prove those tiny properties by yourselves.

Properties

Implication
$$A \Rightarrow B \equiv \neg A \lor B \equiv \neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$$
 Important!

Distributivity
$$A \lor (B \land C) \equiv (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$$

$$A \wedge (B \vee C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$$

Absorption
$$A \lor (A \land B) \equiv A$$

$$A \wedge (A \vee B) \equiv A$$

De Morgan's
$$\neg(A \lor B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A) \land (\neg B)$$

$$\neg(A \land B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A) \lor (\neg B)$$

Contraposition
$$(A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A)$$

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Arguments in propositional logic

Definition

An argument is a finite sequence of propositions. All propositions except for the final statement are called **premises** while the final statement is called the **conclusion**. We say that an argument is **valid** if the truth of all premises implies the truth of the conclusion.

$$\begin{array}{c} P_1 \\ \vdots \\ P_n \\ \hline \vdots \end{array}$$

- i.e. $(P_1 \wedge P_2 \cdots \wedge P_n) \Rightarrow C$ is a tautology. Note that it does not mean that C is always true!
- In addition, the only possible situation where an argument wrong is that all of the premises are true but the conclusion is wrong.
- Your intuition will be of great help here.

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Arguments in propositional logic

Definition

If, in addition to being valid, an argument has only true premises, we say that the argument is **sound**. In that case, its conclusion is **true**.

Anything that can flow is liquid Cats can flow

Cats are liquid

- It's valid but not sound.
- Both premises are false.
- Hence, to disprove the soundness, you only need to find a false premise.

Predicate Logic

Contraposition of Quantifiers

- $\neg ((\forall x \in M)A(x)) \Leftrightarrow (\exists x \in M)\neg A(x)$
- $\neg ((\exists x \in M)A(x)) \Leftrightarrow (\forall x \in M)\neg A(x)$

Example

Derive the contraposition of

$$\exists x (\neg P(x) \land (\exists y P(y) \lor \exists x Q(x, z)))$$

Solution

$$\neg(\forall x (P(x) \lor (\forall y \neg P(y) \land \forall x \neg Q(x, z))))$$



Vacous Truth

Vacuous Truth

If the domain of the universal quantifier \forall is the empty set $M = \emptyset$, then the statement $(\forall x \in M)A(x)$ is defined to be true.

- "All pink elephants can fly" is vacuously true.
- If a class in which all the boys are handsome is called a *Dalabengba*, then a class full of girls is a *Dalabengba*!

Tautologies in predicate logic

- To prove that an argument is a tautology, you may prove by contradiction.
- Assume P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n are all **true** and C is **false**, which will lead to contradiction.
- For example, some variable x is both true and false simultaneously.

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Naive Set Theory

Definition

A **set** is a **collection** of objects that contains no information about order, and in which repetitions of objects are ignored.

- Naive Set Theory is a flawed theory but we assume it's valid in this
 course.
- In contrast, Axiomatic Set Theory has definite rules for collections.
- In pure set theory every object is itself a set. It's useful

Definition

The empty set $\emptyset = \{x | x \neq x\}$.

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Subsets

Definition

X is a subset of Y, writing $X \subseteq Y$; in other words,

$$X \subseteq Y \Leftrightarrow \forall x (x \in X \Rightarrow x \in Y)$$

• X = Y if and only if $X \subseteq Y$ and $Y \subseteq X$.

Definition

We say that X is a proper subset of Y if $X \subseteq Y$ but $X \neq Y$. In that case we write $X \subset Y$.

• Pease use \subset to denote proper subset in your assignments and exams rather than \subseteq .

Powerset and Cardinality

Definition

If a set has a finite number of elements, we define the **cardinality** of X to be this number, denoted by |X|.

Definition

If X is a set, then the **power set** of X, denoted $\mathcal{P}(X)$, is the set of all subsets of X. I.e.

$$\mathscr{P}(X) = \{A | A \subseteq X\}$$

This means the expressions $A \in \mathcal{P}(X)$ and $A \subseteq X$ are equivalent.

- Thus $X \in \mathcal{P}(X)$
- Is it possible that $\mathcal{P}(X) \in X$?

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Universal Set

What do we know about the set $U = \{x | x = x\}$?

- U ∈ U
- $\mathscr{P}(U) \in U$
- $\mathcal{P}(U) \subset U$ (because every element in $\mathcal{P}(U)$ is also in U)
- U is known as the universal set
- Naive Set Theory allows the existence of the universal set, but it leads to troubles (Russell's Paradox).
- In addition, you will encounter the set of all sets V very soon.
- Almost every other Axiomatic Set Theory like ZFC Set Theory forbids the universal set.

Operations on Sets

Properties

- $(A \cup B) \setminus C = (A \setminus C) \cup (B \setminus C)$
- $(A \cap B) \setminus C = (A \setminus C) \cap (B \setminus C)$
- $A \setminus (B \cup C) = (A \setminus B) \cap (A \setminus C)$
- $A \setminus (B \cap C) = (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$
- $A \backslash B = B^c \cap A$
- $(A \backslash B)^c = A^c \cup B$
- Proof by Venn Diagram is not recommended. Instead, for example, you may indicate $(A \cup B) \setminus C$ as

$$\{x | (x \in A \lor x \in B) \land x \notin C\}$$



Operations on Sets

Definition

$$\bigcup_{k=0}^{n} A_{k} := A_{0} \cup \cdots \cup A_{n}, \quad \bigcap_{k=0}^{n} A_{k} := A_{0} \cap \cdots \cap A_{n}$$

More generally, if A is a set and $X \subseteq \mathcal{P}(A)$,

$$\bigcup X = \{x \in A | (\exists y \in X)(x \in y)\}, \quad \bigcap X = \{x \in A | (\forall y \in X)(x \in y)\}$$

- I.e., X is a set of some subsets of A.
- ∪ X is the union of all the sets in X.
- $\bigcap X$ is the intersection of all the sets in X.
- $\bigcup X$ and $\bigcap X$ are both subsets of A.

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Operations on Sets

Example

Let

$$X = \{A \in \mathscr{P}(\mathbb{N}) | (\exists k \in \mathbb{N}) (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) (n \in A \lor n = k)\}$$

Then

$$\bigcup X = \mathbb{N}, \quad \bigcap X = \emptyset$$

- \bullet X contains $\mathbb N$ as well as the subsets of $\mathbb N$ that exclude one number from $\mathbb N$
- For example, the subsets like $\mathbb{N}\setminus\{0\}$, $\mathbb{N}\setminus\{1\}$ are in X

Cartesian Product of Sets

Definition

$$A \times B := \{(a, b) | a \in A \land b \in B\}$$

 $A \times B$ is called the cartesian product of A and B.

- It's easy to define ordered n-tuples $A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n$
- A^n is short for $A \times \cdots \times A$
- The cartesian product of some sets is still a set



Russell's Paradox

Theorem

The set of all sets that are not members of themselves is not a set. I.e.

$$R := \{x | x \notin x\}$$
 is not a set

Proof.

By contradiction, suppose R is a set. if $R \in R$, then R should satisfy $R \notin R$ by definition. If $R \notin R$, then it should be put in R by definition. Both of the assumptions lead to contradiction.

- It shows the inconsistency of Naive Set Theory.
- However, other set theories are not required in this course.

