

程序代写代做 CS编程辅导



Introduction

Theory of Computation

Lecture 4

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January 18, 2023

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Ruth Oliver

Midterm date: March 1, 1pm - 2:20pm

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(Wednesday after reading)

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Graphs

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Graphs

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We illustrate graphs as points and connecting lines:



An **undirected graph** ([or `https://tutorcs.com`](https://tutorcs.com)) (V, E) is defined as a pair of

- a set V of **vertices** (also called **nodes**)
- and a set E of **edges**,

where each edge in E is a (multi-set) subset of V of size 2.

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Graphs

We illustrate gr



Saved as PNG Show in Folder

connecting lines:



Formally:

$$G = (\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\},$$

$$\{\{1, 5\}, \{1, 3\}, \{5, 2\},$$

$$\{2, 3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}\})$$

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An undirected graph (or simply a graph) $G = (V, E)$ is defined as a pair of

- a set V of vertices (also called nodes)

- and a set E of edges,

where each edge $\in E$ is a (multi-set) subset of V of size 2.

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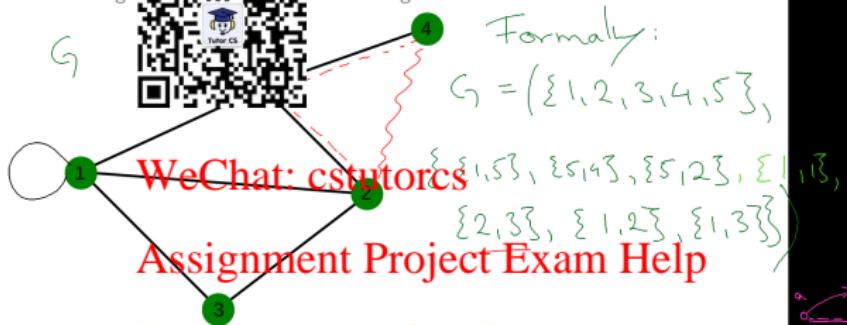
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Graphs

We illustrate gr



connecting lines:



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An undirected graph (or simply a graph) $G = (V, E)$ is defined as a pair of

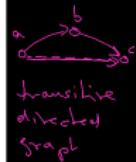
- a set V of vertices (also called nodes)

- and a set E of edges,

where each edge in E is a (multi-set) subset of V of size 2.

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Graphs

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Graphs can be used to illustrate relationships between objects.



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Some definitions and terminology for graphs

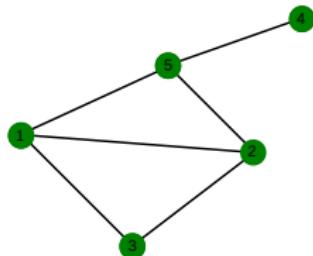
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Let $G = (V, E)$ be a g



define:

- a vertex $v \in V$ is adjacent to edge $e \in E$ if $v \in e$



- the degree $d(v)$ of a vertex $v \in V$ is the number of edges v is adjacent to

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- a path in a graph is a sequence

$p = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ of vertices such that
 $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\} \in E$ for all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

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- a simple path is a path in which no vertex occurs more than once

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Some definitions and terminology for graphs

Let $G = (V, E)$



We define:

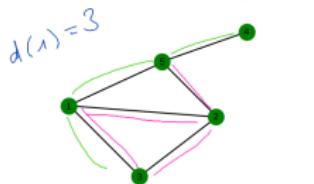
- a vertex v to edge $e \in E$ if $v \in e$
- the **degree** $d(v)$ of a vertex v is the number of edges v is adjacent to
- a **path** in a graph is a sequence $p = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ of vertices such that $\{v_i, v_{i+1}\} \in E$ for all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$
- a **simple path** is a path in which no vertex occurs more than once

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example of a path

(5, 2, 3, 1, 3)

not a simple path!

example of a

simple path

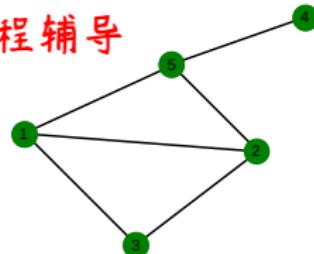
(4, 5, 1, 3)

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Some definitions and terminology for graphs

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Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph. We define:



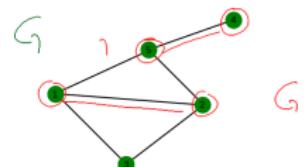
- a **subgraph** G' of graph G is a graph $G' = (V', E')$ with $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$
- graph G is **connected**, if for every two distinct vertices $v, v' \in V$, there is a path from v to v' (that is, a path which has v as its first and v' as its last vertex)
- we call an edge $e \in E$ a **self-loop** if $e = \{v, v\}$ for some $v \in V$ (that is, the edge connects some vertex v to itself)

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Some definitions and properties for graphs



Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph. We



- a **subgraph** G' of graph G is a graph $G' = (V', E')$ with $V' \subseteq V$ and $E' \subseteq E$
- graph G is **connected**, if for every two distinct vertices $v, v' \in V$ there is a path from v to v' (that is, a path which has v as its first and v' as its last vertex)
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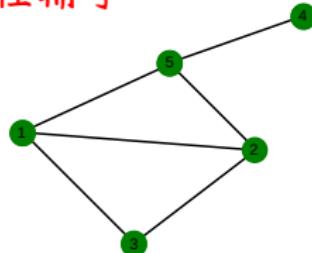
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Some definitions and terminology for graphs

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Let $G = (V, E)$ be a graph. We define:



- a **cycle** in a graph is a path in which the first and last vertex are identical

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- a **simple cycle** in a graph is a cycle that contains at least three different vertices and doesn't contain any vertex more than once (except for the first and last)

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- a **tree** is a graph that is connected and doesn't contain any simple cycles; vertices of degree one in a tree are called **leaves**; sometimes we declare one vertex in a tree to be special and call it a **root**

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Some definitions and terminology for graphs



Let $G = (V, E)$. We define:



- a **cycle** in a graph is a path for which the first and last vertices are identical.

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- a **simple cycle** in a graph is a cycle that contains at least three different vertices and doesn't contain any vertex more than once (except for the first and last).

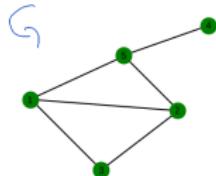
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- a **tree** is a graph that is connected and doesn't contain any simple cycles; vertices of degree one in a tree are called **leaves**; sometimes we declare one vertex in a tree to be the **root**.

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Cycle in G :

(5, 2, 3, 1, 5)

(also a simple cycle)

Cycle 18 is not simple:

(5, 2, 3, 1, 2, 5)

Directed graphs

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We illustrate directed graphs as points and connecting arrows:



A **directed graph** $G = (V, E)$ is formally defined as a pair of

- a set V of vertices
- and a set E of edges,

where each edge in E is a **2-tuple** (or **pair**) of members of V .

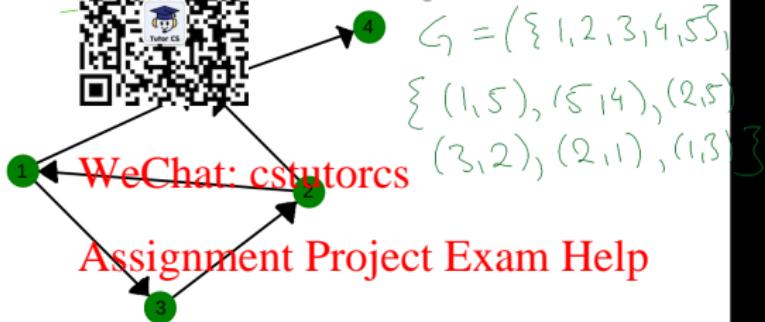
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Directed

For directed graphs the edge set E is a relation over the vertex set V . In the example graph $G = (V, E)$ the relation is not reflexive, not transitive, not symmetric.

We illustrate di-

rected graphs by points and connecting arrows:



A directed graph $G = (V, E)$ is formally defined as a pair of

- a set V of vertices

- and a set E of edges,

where each edge in E is a 2-tuple (or pair) of members of V .

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Some definitions and terminology for directed graphs

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- For an edge $e = (v_1, v_2)$ in directed graph, we call e an incoming edge to v_2 and an outgoing edge for v_1 .
- The in-degree $d_{in}(v)$ of vertex v in a directed graph is the number of its incoming edges. The out-degree $d_{out}(v)$ is the number of outgoing edges from v .
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- A directed path in a directed graph is a sequence $p = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ of vertices such that $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$ for all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.
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- A directed graph is strongly connected if every two distinct vertices v and w are connected by a directed path.
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- A directed cycle in a directed graph is a directed path for which the first and last vertex coincide.

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Some definitions and terminology for directed graphs

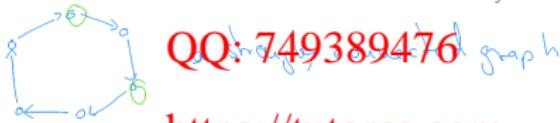
- For an edge $e = (v_1, v_2)$ in a directed graph, we call e an **incoming edge** for v_2 and an **outgoing edge** for v_1 .
- The **in-degree** $d_{\text{in}}(v)$ of a vertex v in a directed graph is the number of its incoming edges. The **out-degree** $d_{\text{out}}(v)$ is the number of outgoing edges from v .

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- A **directed path** in a directed graph is a sequence $p = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ of vertices such that $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E$ for all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$.

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- A directed graph is **strongly connected** if every two distinct vertices v and v' in V are connected by a directed path.



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Strings and Languages

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Alphabet, words, languages

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An **alphabet** is a non-empty finite set of **symbols**.

Examples:

- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.
- $\Gamma = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z\}$



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A **string** or **word** over some alphabet Σ is a finite sequence of symbols from Σ .
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Examples:

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- ruth
- 00101

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A **language** is a **set of words** (set of strings).

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Alphabet, words, languages



An **alphabet**



finite set of **symbols**.

Examples:

- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
- $\Gamma = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z\}$

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A string or word over some alphabet Σ is a finite sequence of symbols from Σ .

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Examples:

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- 00101

word over Γ
word over Σ or Γ

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A language is a set of words (set of strings).

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 $\{\text{ruth}\}$ $\{\text{ruth, abc, chair, dog}\}$

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Alphabet, words, languages



An alphabet



finite set of symbols.

Examples:

- $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
- $\Gamma = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z\}$

$$\Sigma = \{\textcircled{1}, \textcircled{2}, \textcircled{3}\}$$



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A string or word over some alphabet Σ is a finite sequence of symbols from Σ .

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Examples:

- ruth
- 00101

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A language is a set of words (set of strings).

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Some definitions and terminology for strings and languages

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- the **length** of a string w is the number of symbols in w
 - the **empty string** ϵ is a string of length 0 (that is, without any symbols)
 - the **reverse** w^R of a string w is the string w written backwards.
 - the **concatenation** of strings $w = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$ and $z = t_1 t_2 \dots t_m$ is the string $wz = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n t_1 t_2 \dots t_m$
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Some definitions and terminology for strings and languages



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$$w = 01011, z = 1101, wz = 01011101$$

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Some definitions and terminology for strings and languages

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- a **substring** z of  is a consecutive subsequence of symbols from w
- a **prefix** x of **string** w is a substring that starts at the first position in w ; that is, x is a prefix of w if there exists a string z such that $w = xz$

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- x is a **proper prefix** of w if x is a prefix of w and $w \neq x$
- a **prefix-free language** over some alphabet Σ is a language where no word in the language is a proper prefix of some other word

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Some details about the presentation and languages



- a substrings of $w = 0123456789$



is a consecutive subsequence of

= can not a substring of w
= cea is a substring of w

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Some definitions and terminology for strings and languages



- a **substring** of string w is a consecutive subsequence of symbols



- a **prefix** x of string w is a substring that starts at the first position in w ; that is, x is a prefix of w if there exists a string z such that $w = xz$.

WeChat: cstutorcs a proper prefix of w

$w = ocean$, $x = \underline{oc}$ is a prefix of w

- x is a **proper prefix** of w if it is a prefix of w and $x \neq w$

$w = ocean$, $x = ocean$ is a prefix, but not a proper prefix of w

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Some definitions and terminology for strings and languages

$\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$
 $\{00, 11\}$
 $01, 001, 111$
 $0101\}$
not a prefix-free language
00 is a prefix of 001
01 is a prefix of 0101
 $\{00, 11\}$
0101 is a prefix of 010101
is a prefix-free language



- a **substring** of string w is a consecutive subsequence of symbols
- a **prefix** x of string w is a substring that starts at the first position in w ; that is, x is a prefix of w if there exists a string z such that $w = xz$

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- x is a **proper prefix** of w if it is a prefix of w and $x \neq w$

- a **prefix-free language** over some alphabet Σ is a language where no word in the language is a proper prefix of some other word

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Ordering words

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Given an ordering of the symbols in some alphabet Σ , we can define orderings of the words over Σ :



- Lexicographic order

Definition: We have $w \leq_{lex} z$ in lexicographic order for strings $w = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$ and $z = t_1 t_2 \dots t_m$ if w is a proper prefix of z or if there exists an index $j < \min\{n, m\}$ such that $s_i = t_i$ for all $i < j$, and $s_j < t_j$.

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- Short-lex order (or string order)

Definition: We have $w \leq_{str} z$ in string order for strings $w = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$ and $z = t_1 t_2 \dots t_m$ if w is shorter than z or if w and z have the same length and $w \leq_{lex} z$ in lexicographic order.

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Ordering words



Given an ordering \leq on symbols in some alphabet Σ , we can define ordering on words over Σ :

- Lexicographic order

Definition: We have $w \leq_{lex} z$ in **lexicographic order** for strings $w = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$

and $z = t_1 t_2 \dots t_m$ if we can prove that there exists an index

$j < \min\{n, m\}$ such that $s_i = t_i$ for all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, j\}$ and $s_{j+1} < t_{j+1}$.

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- Short-lex order (or string order)

Definition: We have $w \leq_{str} z$ in **string order** for strings $w = s_1 s_2 \dots s_n$ and

$z = t_1 t_2 \dots t_m$ if we can prove that w and z have the same length and

$w \leq_{lex} z$ in lexicographic order.

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ruth
apple

\leq_{sh} apartment

cat \leq_{sh} dog

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Logic Reading: ITC Section 0.2
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Boolean/Propositional logic

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Propositional logic means the way we reason about the truth value of statements (or propositions).

A propositional variable is a variable (that stands for a statement) that can take on one of two values:

- true (we also use \top or 1 for true)
- false (we also use \perp or 0 for false)

A truth assignment is a function from a set P of propositional variables to the set $\{0, 1\}$ (or $\{T, F\}$).

Boolean operations

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Given basic propositions p and q we can use **boolean operations** to derive complex statements (and their truth values):



- \neg
- \wedge
- \vee
- \rightarrow
- \leftrightarrow
- \oplus

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Truth values of composed statements

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We define the truth values of composed propositional statements by the following truth table:



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α	β	$(\neg\alpha)$	$(\alpha \vee \beta)$	$(\alpha \wedge \beta)$	$(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$	$(\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta)$	$(\alpha \oplus \beta)$
T	T	F	T	T	T	T	F
T	F	F	T	F	F	F	T
F	T	T	T	F	T	F	T
F	F	T	F	F	T	T	F

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Extending truth assignments to WFF – examples

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Say, we have propositional variables p and q , and a formula $\alpha = ((p \rightarrow q) \vee (q \rightarrow p))$.
To figure out the truth value of α under this assignment, we build a truthtable with one column for every element in a construction sequence of α as follows:



ables p and q , and a formula
a truth assignment v that sets p to
 T and q to F .

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	p	q	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$(q \rightarrow p)$	$((p \rightarrow q) \vee (q \rightarrow p))$
v	T	F	F	T	T

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We start with filling the first columns using the truth assignment v and then successively fill the other columns using the truth table for the connectives.

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Extending truth assignments to WFF – examples



Say, we have two variables p and q , and a formula
 $\alpha = ((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)) \vee ((p \rightarrow q) \vee (q \rightarrow p))$
and a truth assignment v that sets p to T and q to F

P	T	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$(q \rightarrow p)$	$((p \rightarrow q) \vee (q \rightarrow p))$	T
T	F	F	T	T	T

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$\vee (\alpha) \quad \neg T$
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Extending truth assignments to WFF – examples



Say, we have

$$\alpha = ((p \rightarrow q)$$

T and q to F

variables p and q , and a formula

and a truth assignment v that sets p to \perp

\perp and q to F

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

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$v(\alpha)$

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evaluates to T
under every truth assignment
 α is a tautology

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Logical equivalence

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Definition: We call two propositional formulas (statements) α and β logically equivalent if they have the same truth table (that is, they evaluate to the same truth value under all truth assignments).

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Exercises

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Show that the following formulas α and β are logically equivalent:



- $\alpha = p$ and $\beta = (\neg(\neg p))$
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- $\alpha = (p \rightarrow q)$ and $\beta = (\neg p) \vee q$
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- $\alpha = (\neg(p \wedge q))$ and $\beta = ((\neg p) \vee (\neg q))$
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- $\alpha = (\neg(p \vee q))$ and $\beta = ((\neg p) \wedge (\neg q))$
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Exercises

Show that the



equivalent:

of formulas α and β are logically

If it rains then the street is wet.

- $\alpha = p$ and $\beta = (\neg(\neg p))$

If the street is not wet, I can
conclude that it's not
raining.

- $\alpha = (p \rightarrow q)$ and $\beta = ((\neg q) \rightarrow (\neg p))$

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P	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$(\neg p)$	$(q \rightarrow p)$	$(\neg q)$	$((\neg q) \rightarrow (\neg p))$
T	T	F	F	F	T
F	F	T	T	T	F
T	F	F	T	F	T
F	T	T	F	T	F

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Exercises

Show that the



of formulas α and β are logically equivalent:

- $\alpha = p$ and $\beta = (\neg(\neg p))$

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- $\alpha = (p \rightarrow q)$ and $\beta = ((\neg q) \rightarrow (\neg p))$

Exercise!

- $\alpha = (\neg(p \wedge q))$ and $\beta = ((\neg p) \vee (\neg q))$

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prove !

- $\alpha = (\neg(p \vee q))$ and $\beta = ((\neg p) \wedge (\neg q))$

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More exercises

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Show that the following pairs of formulas α and β are logically equivalent:



- $\alpha = (p \vee q)$ and $\beta = ((\neg p) \wedge (\neg q))$

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- $\alpha = (p \rightarrow q)$ and $\beta = ((\neg p) \vee q)$

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- $\alpha = (\neg(p \rightarrow q))$ and $\beta = (\neg p \wedge (\neg q))$

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- $\alpha = (p \oplus q)$ and $\beta = (\neg(p \leftrightarrow q))$

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More exercises

Show that the
equivalent:



of formulas α and β are logically

- $\alpha = (p \vee q)$ and $\beta = ((\neg p) \wedge (\neg q))$

- $\alpha = (p \rightarrow q)$ and $\beta = (\neg p \vee q)$

- $\alpha = (\neg(p \rightarrow q))$ and $\beta = ((p \wedge q) \wedge (\neg(p \rightarrow q)))$

- $\alpha = (p \leftrightarrow q)$ and $\beta = ((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p))$

- $\alpha = (p \oplus q)$ and $\beta = (\neg(p \leftrightarrow q))$

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Exercise :

prove these
equivalences.

More exercises

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Show that the following two formulas α and β are **not logically equivalent**:



- $\alpha = (p \vee q)$ and $\beta = (\neg(p \wedge q))$

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- $\alpha = (p \rightarrow q)$ and $\beta = ((\neg p) \rightarrow (\neg q))$

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- $\alpha = (p \oplus q)$ and $\beta = (p \vee q)$

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More exercises: Show the distributive laws

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Show that the following formulas α and β are logically equivalent:



- $\alpha = (p \wedge (q \vee r))$ and $\beta = ((p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r))$

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- $\alpha = (p \vee (q \wedge r))$ and $\beta = ((p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r))$

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These two logical equivalences are called **distributive laws** of propositional logic.

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More exercises: Show the distributive laws



Show that the
equivalent:

of formulas α and β are logically
equivalent:
*have identical evaluations for all
truth assignments*

- $\alpha = (p \wedge (q \vee r))$ and $\beta = ((p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r))$

P	q	r	$(p \wedge q)$	$(p \wedge r)$	$(p \wedge (q \vee r))$	$((p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r))$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	F	F	F	F
T	F	T	F	F	F	F
T	F	F	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	F	F	F	F
F	F	T	F	F	F	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F

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$= 2^3$
8 possible
truth
assignments
for 3
variables

Tautologies and contradictions

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We call a propositional formula a **tautology** if it evaluates to **true** under every truth assignment.



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We call a propositional formula a **contradiction** if it evaluates to false under every truth assignment.

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Tautologies and contradictions



We call a propositional formula a **tautology** if it evaluates to **true** under every truth assignment.

Example: $(P \rightarrow P)$

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We call a propositional formula a **contradiction** if it evaluates to **false** under every truth assignment.

Example: $(P \wedge \neg P)$

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Extending truth assignments to WFF – examples



Say, we have

$$\alpha = ((p \rightarrow q)$$

T and q to F

variables p and q , and a formula

and a truth assignment v that sets p to \perp

\perp and q to F

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

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$v(\alpha)$

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evaluates to T
under every truth assignment
 α is a tautology

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First order/Predicate logic—motivation

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Assumptions:

- All people are mortal
- I am a person

(Sad) Conclusion:

- I am mortal



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Question: Can propositional logic explain the pattern used in this example of reasoning?
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Answer: No. Propositional logic can only relate truths or falsehood of statements as a whole. It does not provide as a means of reasoning about objects and properties that these objects may have.
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First order/Predicate logic—motivation

Assumptions:

- All people are mortal
- I am a person

(Sad) Conclusion:

- I am mortal

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To explain this example of reasoning, we need means to refer to the inner structure of these statements (not just the statements as a whole). First order logic allows us to

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- refer to **objects** (for example people)
- state that objects have certain **properties** (for example being mortal)
- make statements about **relationships** between objects
- **quantify** over objects (for example state that something holds **for all** (all people are mortal) objects or that **there exists** an object that has a certain property)

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First order/Predicate logic–quantifiers

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In mathematical reasoning we make statements that **quantify** over objects, for example:



- **Definition:** A graph (V, E) is connected, if **for every** pair of vertices $v_1, v_2 \in V$ **there exists** a path from v_1 to v_2 .
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- To express that there are infinitely prime numbers, we say:
For every prime number p , **there exists** a prime number p' with $p' > p$.
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- If I want to show that some propositional formula is not a tautology, I need to show that **there exists** truth assignment to its variables, for which α evaluates to false.
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First order/Predicate logic–quantifiers

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In general, I recommend you spell out mathematical statements and proofs in English language.



Sometimes, it is useful to have some shorthand for statements. We use

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- the symbol \forall to stand for for all and
- the symbol \exists to stand for there exists.

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First order/Predicate logic–negating statements with quantifiers

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It is important to remember that when we **negate** statements in first order logic **the two quantifiers change roles**:



- $\neg(\forall x P(x))$ is equivalent to $\exists x (\neg P(x))$

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- $\neg(\exists x P(x))$ is equivalent to $\forall x (\neg P(x))$

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First order/Predicate logic—negating statements with quantifiers



It is important to note that, when we **negate** statements in first order logic the quantifiers \forall and \exists “change roles”:

- $\neg(\forall x P(x))$ is equivalent to $\exists x (\neg P(x))$

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having population larger than 1 000 000.

It's not true that all cities

population larger than 1000 000.

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There exist a city with less than

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First order/Predicate logic—negating statements with quantifiers



It is important to note that, when we **negate** statements in first order logic the symbols \forall and \exists “change roles”:

- $\neg(\forall x P(x))$ is equivalent to $\exists x (\neg P(x))$

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- $\neg(\exists x P(x))$ is equivalent to $\forall x (\neg P(x))$

There does not exist a student in my class
that is confused.
All students in my class are not confused.

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First order/Predicate logic–negating statements with quantifiers

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Example: The definition of continuity for a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ at a point $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ can be compactly stated as follows:



$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \forall x \in \mathbb{R} (|x - x_0| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon)$$

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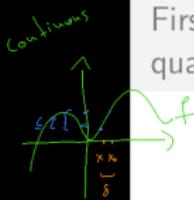
To prove that function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **not continuous** in x_0 , we need to show:

$$\exists \epsilon > 0 \forall \delta > 0 \exists x \in \mathbb{R} (|x - x_0| < \delta \wedge |f(x) - f(x_0)| \geq \epsilon)$$

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First order/Predicate logic—negating statements with quantifiers



Example: The continuity of a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ at a point $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ can be defined as follows:

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To prove that function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not continuous in x_0 , we need to show:

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Mathematical statements and proofs

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Basic elements of mathematical text

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Definition

A statement that clearly defines an object/structure/concept based on previously defined terms.



Theorem

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A statement that has been proven to be true.

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Proof

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A clean, deductive argument for why a statement is true.

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Lemma

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A “helper theorem”, typically only stated as a step in a proof of some theorem.

Examples of what not to do..

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Definition
A statement defines an object/structure/concept based on previous terms.

Warning: definitions can not be circular!

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~~Example: Define $x > y$ as "x-y is positive"~~

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~~Define x is positive as $x > 0$~~

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Examples of what not to do..

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Definition
A statement defines an object/structure/concept based on previous terms.

Theorem WeChat: cstutorcs
A statement that has been proven to be true.

Proof A clean, deductive argument for why a statement is true.

What not to do: proof by example

Example: QQ: 749389476

"Proof" (by example): 1, 3, 5, 7, ...

To refute a statement by giving a counter-example is a sufficient proof.