

Logic and connectives

- Proposition == statement which is true or false, but not both.
- Let p and q be a proposition:
 - $p \wedge q$ is true only when both p and q are true, and false otherwise
 - $p \vee q$ is true when at least one of p and q is true
 - $p \oplus q$ is true when exactly one of p and q is true, and false otherwise.
 - $p \rightarrow q$ is false only when p is true and q is false.
 - $p \leftrightarrow q$ is true when p and q have the same truth value

More on $p \rightarrow q$

In English

- if p then q
- p implies q
- if p, q
- p only if q
- p is sufficient for q
- q if p
- q whenever p
- q is necessary for p

p unless q is $\neg q \rightarrow p$ or
sometimes $p \leftrightarrow q$

Converse of $p \rightarrow q$
is $q \rightarrow p$

contrapositive of $p \rightarrow q$
is $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$

Translation example

If Jojo is over 21 and either he has previously been sentenced to imprisonment or non-imprisonment is not appropriate for him then a custodial sentence is possible:

$$j \wedge (i \vee \neg a) \rightarrow c$$

(over21(Jojo)

\wedge (previousprisonment(Jojo) \vee \neg nonprisonOK(Jojo)))

\rightarrow possiblecusto(Jojo)

Summary so far

p	q	$\neg p$	$p \wedge q$	$p \vee q$	$p \oplus q$	$p \rightarrow q$	$p \leftrightarrow q$
T	T	F	T	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T	T	F
F	F	T	F	F	F	T	T

Equivalence

- Tautology == proposition that is always true, no matter what truth values each proposition has i.e. $a \vee \textit{True}$ is true.
- Contradiction == proposition that is always false. i.e. $a \wedge \textit{False}$
- Contingency == neither Tautology nor Contradiction.

$$\Leftrightarrow, \equiv$$

- P is logically equivalent to q if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology
- We show equivalence (primarily) by truth table, example:

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

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

$$p \wedge \text{True} \Leftrightarrow p$$

$$p \vee \text{False} \Leftrightarrow p$$

Identity law

$$p \vee \text{True} \Leftrightarrow \text{True}$$

$$p \wedge \text{False} \Leftrightarrow \text{False}$$

Domination laws

$$p \vee p \Leftrightarrow p$$

$$p \wedge p \Leftrightarrow p$$

Idempotent laws

$$\neg(\neg p) \Leftrightarrow p$$

Double negation

$$p \vee q \Leftrightarrow q \vee p$$

$$p \wedge q \Leftrightarrow q \wedge p$$

Commutative laws

$$p \wedge (q \wedge r) \Leftrightarrow (p \wedge q) \wedge r$$

$$p \vee (q \vee r) \Leftrightarrow (p \vee q) \vee r$$

Associative laws

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

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

Distributive laws

De Morgan's laws

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

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

$$p \rightarrow q \Leftrightarrow \neg p \vee q \Leftrightarrow \neg(p \wedge \neg q)$$

$$p \Leftrightarrow p \Leftrightarrow p$$

$$p \rightarrow q \Leftrightarrow \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$$

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

$$p \Leftrightarrow q \Leftrightarrow (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$$

Examples

$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \vee q)$*always..true?*

$\neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q)) \Leftrightarrow \neg p \wedge \neg q?$

$p \leftrightarrow q \Leftrightarrow (p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q)?$

Predicates

- [illegible]

Quantifier

- Universal (for all) $\forall$
 - $\forall x \text{ greaterthan3}(x)$
 - $\forall x (\text{inthisclass}(x) \rightarrow \text{done_calculus}(x))$

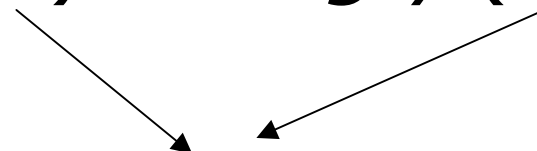
There must be an actual range in real use
 - $[(\text{inthisclass}(a) \rightarrow \text{done_calculus}(a)) \wedge (\text{inthisclass}(b) \rightarrow \text{done_calculus}(b))]$
 $\wedge \dots$

Quantifier (cont.)

- Existential (there exists) $\exists$
 - $\exists x (\text{inthisclass}(x) \rightarrow \text{done_calculus}(x))$
 - $[(\text{inthisclass}(a) \rightarrow \text{done_calculus}(a)) \vee (\text{inthisclass}(b) \rightarrow \text{done_calculus}(b))] \vee \dots$

Examples

$$\exists x[\textit{striped}(x) \wedge \textit{hungry}(x)]$$



Same x i.e. If x is “mycat” then “mycat” must apply to both predicates.

$$\exists x(\textit{striped}(x)) \wedge \exists x(\textit{hungry}(x))$$



Two x here are independent

This is the same for $\forall$

Order of Quantifiers

$\exists x \exists y \exists z \dots$

$\forall x \forall y \forall z \dots$

Can be arranged in any order

$\forall x \exists y$

$\exists x \forall y$

Must maintain original order

$\forall x \exists y [mother(y, x)]$

Everyone has a mother

$\exists y \forall x [mother(y, x)]$

There is a single person who
is a mother of everyone

Negation Properties of quantifier

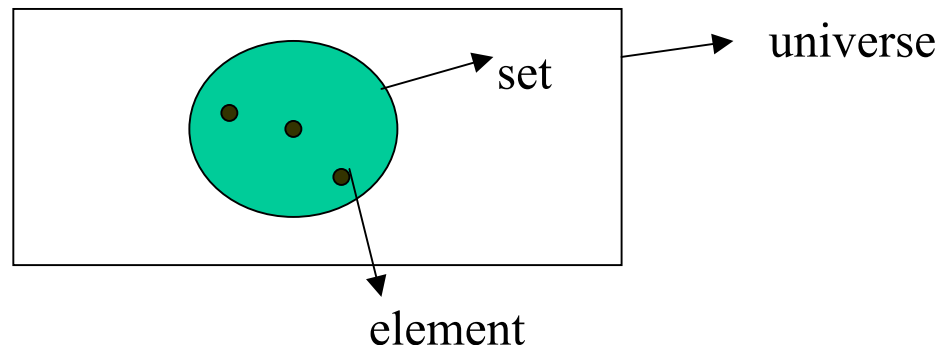
$$\neg \forall x \Leftrightarrow \exists x \neg$$

$$\neg \exists x \Leftrightarrow \forall x \neg$$

Set

- $O = \{1,3,5,7,9\}$, $P = \{2,r,4,h,n\}$
- Two sets are equal ($=$) if they have the same elements
 - $\{1,3,5\} = \{3,5,1,1,5\}$
- Set builder notation: i.e. stating the properties of the set elements
 - $O = \{x \mid x \text{ is an odd positive integer less than } 10\}$

- Venn Diagram



Set terms and notations

$$a \in A$$

A is an element in A

$$a \notin A$$

$$\phi$$

{ } Empty set has no element

$$A \subseteq B$$

Every element of A is also in B

$$A \subset B$$

Proper subset

$$A = B$$

when $(A \subseteq B) \wedge (B \subseteq A)$

Empty set is a subset of every set

a set is always a subset of itself

Set terms and notations (cont.)

If S has n distinct elements S is a finite set. n is the cardinality of S

$$|S|$$

Powerset = set of all subsets

Example: $P(\{0,1,2\}) = \{ \phi, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{0,1\}, \{0,2\}, \{1,2\}, \{0,1,2\} \}$

$$P(\phi) = \{ \phi \}$$

$$P(\{ \phi \}) = \{ \phi, \{ \phi \} \}$$

Cartesian Product

- Sets do not order elements, but **tuples** do.
 - (a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4)
 - tuples of 2 elements are called ordered pairs

- Cartesian product of set A and B

$$A \times B = \{(a, b) \mid a \in A \wedge b \in B\}$$

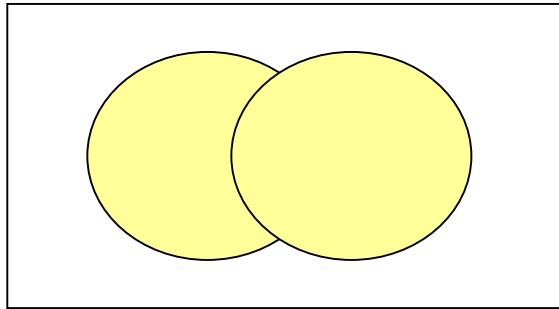
$$\text{– } A = \{1, 2\}, B = \{a, b, c\} \quad A \times B = \{(1, a), (1, b), (1, c), (2, a), (2, b), (2, c)\}$$

- Cartesian product of n sets

$$A_1 \times A_2 \times A_3 \times \dots A_n = \{(a_1, a_1, a_1, \dots, a_n) \mid a_i \in A_i\} \quad \text{Where } i=1, 2, \dots, n$$

Set Operations

- Union



$$A \cup B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \vee (x \in B)\}$$

- e.g. $\{1,3,5\} \cup \{1,2,3\} = \{1,2,3,5\}$

- Note: $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$

- Complement

$$\overline{A} = U - A = \{x \mid x \notin A\}$$

- Intersection

$$A \cap B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \wedge (x \in B)\}$$

- e.g. $\{1,3,5\} \cap \{1,2,3\} = \{1,3\}$

- Two sets, A and B, are “disjoint” if $A \cap B = \phi$

- Difference

$$A - B = \{x \mid (x \in A) \wedge (x \notin B)\}$$

- it is a complement of B with respect to A

- e.g. $\{1,3,5\} - \{1,2,3\} = \{5\}$

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

$$A \cup \phi = A$$

$$A \cap U = A$$

Identity law

$$A \cup U = U$$

$$A \cap \phi = \phi$$

Domination laws

$$A \cup A = A$$

$$A \cap A = A$$

Idempotent laws

$$\overline{\overline{A}} = A$$

Complementation law

$$A \cup B = B \cup A$$

$$A \cap B = B \cap A$$

Commutative laws

$$A \cup (B \cup C) = (A \cup B) \cup C$$

$$A \cap (B \cap C) = (A \cap B) \cap C$$

Associative laws

$$A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$$

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Distributive laws

$$\overline{A \cup B} = \overline{A} \cap \overline{B}$$

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}$$

De Morgan's laws

To show 2 sets are equal

- Show that one is a subset of the other and vice versa.
- Use set builder notation and logic

– e.g. $\overline{A \cap B} = \overline{A} \cup \overline{B} ???$

$$\begin{aligned}\overline{A \cap B} &= \{x \mid x \notin A \cap B\} \\ &= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \cap B)\} \\ &= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A \wedge x \in B)\} \\ &= \{x \mid \neg(x \in A) \vee \neg(x \in B)\} \\ &= \{x \mid x \notin A \vee x \notin B\} \\ &= \{x \mid x \in \overline{A} \cup \overline{B}\}\end{aligned}$$

To show 2 sets are equal (cont.)

- Use membership table- similar to truth table

$$\overline{A \cap B} = \bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$$

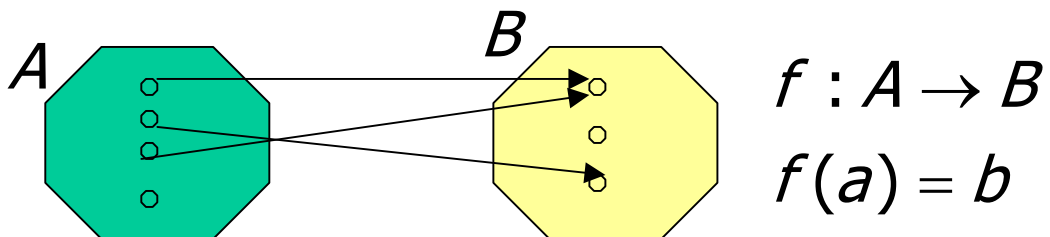
A	B	$\bar{A}$	$\bar{B}$	$A \cap B$	$\overline{A \cap B}$	$\bar{A} \cup \bar{B}$
T	T	F	F	T	F	F
T	F	F	T	F	T	T
F	T	T	F	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	F	T	T

Other useful set terms

- Bit string- representing set on computer
 - if $U = \{1,2,3,\dots,10\}$ then odd integers in U can be represented by:
 - 1010101010
- Symmetric difference- this is just like exclusive or $A \oplus B$
- Successor of A is $A \cup \{A\}$
- Multisets - one element can occur more than once
 - $\{1,1,1,2,2,3,3\}$ In this case 3 is the multiplicity of element “1”

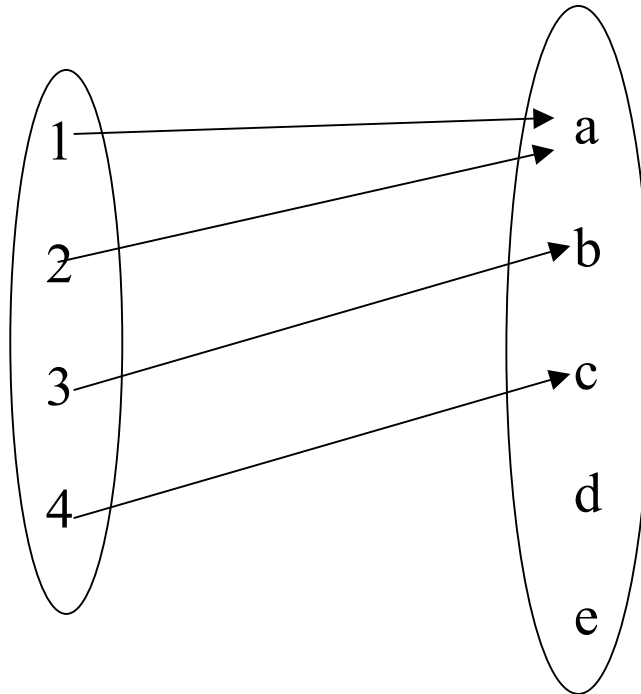
Functions

- Let A and B be sets. A function from A to B is



- A = domain of f , B = codomain of f , a = pre-image of b , b = image of a , range of f = set of all images of elements of A

Function Example



Domain = $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$

codomain = $\{a, b, c, d, e, \}$

range = $\{a, b, c\}$

image of subset $S = \{1, 2, 3\}$

is $\{a, b\}$

One-to-one (injective) function

$$f(x) = f(y) \rightarrow x = y$$

- Strictly increasing function (this must be 1-to-1)
 - if f has domain and codomain as subset of real numbers,
 - f is strictly increasing if $f(x) < f(y)$ whenever $x < y$ (x, y are in the domain of f)
 - f is strictly decreasing if $f(x) > f(y)$ whenever $x < y$ (x, y are in the domain of f)

Onto (surjective) and bijection

- Onto function has codomain = range
 - e.g. $f(x)=x*x$ from set of integers to set of integers is not onto
- bijection or 1-to-1 correspondence is both 1-to-1 and onto
 - e.g. identity function is 1-to-1 and onto

Inverse and composition

- Function f must be 1-to-1 and onto in order to have inverse.
 - Not 1-to-1 : the inverse won't be a function
 - not onto: there is a b that can't map back to a
- if $[(g : A \rightarrow B) \wedge (f : B \rightarrow C)] \rightarrow$
 $(f \circ g)(a) = f(g(a))$
 - e.g. if $A = \{a, b, c\}$ and $B = \{1, 2, 3\}$, let $(g : A \rightarrow A), (f : A \rightarrow B)$
 - $g(a) = b, g(b) = c, g(c) = a, f(a) = 3, f(b) = 2, f(c) = 1 \dots$
 $(f \circ g)(a) = f(g(a)) = f(b) = 2 \dots etc$
 $(g \circ f)(a) = g(f(a)) = g(3) = undefined$

$$f \circ g \neq g \circ f$$

- E.g. if both f and g are functions from/to integers
 - $f(x) = 2x+3$ $g(x) = 3x+2$
 - $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = f(3x+2) = 2(3x+2)+3 = 6x+7$
 - $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = g(2x+3) = 3(2x+3) + 2 = 6x+11$
- Note: $f \circ f^{-1}, f^{-1} \circ f$ are identity functions

Graph of function

- Let f be a function from set A to set B .
 - The graph of f is the set: $\{(a, b) \mid a \in A \wedge f(a) = b\}$
 - It is a subset of the cartesian product of A and B
 - plot it on x,y coordinate

Floor and Ceiling functions

- Let x be a real number. A floor function rounds x down to the closest integer $\leq x$. A ceiling function rounds x up to the closest integer $\geq x$.

$$\begin{array}{l} \uparrow [x] = 6 \\ | x = 5.56 \\ \downarrow [x] = 5 \end{array}$$

Properties of floor and ceiling

$$x - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor \leq x < \lfloor x \rfloor + 1$$

$$\lceil x \rceil - 1 < x \leq \lceil x \rceil < x + 1$$

$$\lfloor -x \rfloor = -\lceil x \rceil$$

$$\lceil -x \rceil = -\lfloor x \rfloor$$

$$\lfloor x + \text{int} \rfloor = \lfloor x \rfloor + \text{int}$$

$$\lceil x + \text{int} \rceil = \lceil x \rceil + \text{int}$$

Sequence

- A sequence is a function from a subset of $\mathbb{N}$ to a set S
 - a_n is the image of integer n . It is a “term” of the sequence
 - if $a_n = 1/n$ then a sequence starting with a_1 is $1, 1/2, 1/3, 1/4, \dots$
 - finite sequence is called “string”
 - length of string is the number of terms in that string
- Arithmetic progression sequence is a sequence that has the form:

$$a, a + d, a + 2d, a + 3d, \dots, a + nd$$

- Geometric progression:

$$a, ar, ar^2, ar^3, \dots, ar^k$$

Summations

$$a_m + a_{m+1} + \dots + a_n = \sum_{j=m}^n a_j$$

Upper limit

Index of summation

Lower limit

- To change index, example: from 1 to 5 to 0 to 4, just let $k = j-1$

$$\sum_{j=1}^5 j^2 = \sum_{k=0}^4 (k+1)^2$$

- For nested summation, do the inner summation first
- To find general formula, example: (see next page)

$$S = \sum_{j=0}^n ar^j$$

$$rS = r \sum_{j=0}^n ar^j = \sum_{j=0}^n ar^{j+1}$$

$$rS = \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} ar^k = \sum_{k=0}^n ar^k + (ar^{n+1} - a)$$

$$rS = S + (ar^{n+1} - a)$$

$$S = \frac{ar^{n+1} - a}{r - 1}$$

Useful Summation (can be inductively proven)

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Function and Cardinality

- Sets A and B have the same cardinality iff there is a one-to-one correspondence from A to B
- A set that is finite or has the same cardinality as the set of natural number is *countable*. e.g. odd positive integers
 - Another way to think : *countable* iff we can list that set' elements in a sequence
- A set that is not countable is *uncountable* e.g. a set of real numbers

Growth of function (Big O)

- Let f and g be functions from integers or real to real. $f(x)$ is $O(g(x))$ if $|f(x)| \leq C|g(x)|$ whenever $x > k \rightarrow C, k$ are constants
 - the pair C and k is never unique
 - e.g. $x^2 + 2x + 1$ is $O(x^2)$
 - because $x^2 + 2x + 1 \leq x^2 + 2x^2 + x^2 = 4x^2$
 - notice that x^2 is also $O(x^2 + 2x + 1)$ thus the two functions are of the same order
- $g(x)$ can be replaced by a function with larger absolute value

Theorem of Big O

- Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ where all a_n are real numbers. Then $f(x) = O(x^n)$
- Big O therefore can estimate function e.g.:
 - $1+2+3+\dots+n \leq n+n+n+\dots+n = n^2$
 - $n! = 1*2*3*\dots*n \leq n*n*\dots*n = n^n$
 - and thus $\log n! \leq \log n^n = n \log n = O(n \log n)$

Growth of combinations of functions

- To find big O of $f_1 + f_2$:

$$\begin{aligned} |(f_1 + f_2)(x)| &= |f_1(x) + f_2(x)| \\ &\leq |f_1(x)| + |f_2(x)| \\ &< C_1 |g_1(x)| + C_2 |g_2(x)| \\ &\leq C_1 \max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|) + C_2 \max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|) \\ &= (C_1 + C_2) \max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|) \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, $(f_1 + f_2)(x) = O(\max(g_1(x), g_2(x)))$
 - $x > \max(k_1, k_2)$

Growth of combinations of functions (cont.)

- What about $f_1 * f_2$

$$\begin{aligned} |(f_1 f_2)(x)| &\leq C_1 |g_1(x)| C_2 |g_2(x)| \\ &\leq (C_1 C_2) |g_1 g_2(x)| \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore $(f_1 f_2)(x) = O(g_1(x) g_2(x))$

The use of Big O: example

- Use Big O to estimate

$$f(x) = 3x \log(x!) + (x^2 + 3) \log x$$

Diagram illustrating the asymptotic analysis of $f(x)$:

- $3x$ is estimated as x .
- $\log(x!)$ is estimated as x^x , which is then simplified to $x \log x$.
- x^2 is estimated as x^2 .

$$O(x^2 \log x)$$

Big Omega and Big Theta

- Big O is only the upper bound
- a lower bound is Big Omega. Theta indicates both lower bound and upper bound.
- Let f and g be functions from integers or real to real:
 - $f(x)$ is $\Omega(g(x))$ if $|f(x)| \geq C|g(x)|$ whenever $x > k \rightarrow C, k$ are constants
 - $f(x)$ is $\Theta(g(x))$ if $(f(x) = O(g(x))) \wedge (f(x) = \Omega(g(x)))$

Big Omega and Big Theta (examples)

- $f(x) = 8x^3 + 5x^2 + 7 \geq 8x^3$ for all positive real numbers x .

Thus it is of $\Omega(x^3)$ (it is also $O(x^3)$)

- $f(x) = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + x$ (known to be $O(x^2)$) is also $\Omega(x^2)$

and therefore $\Theta(x^2)$ because

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + x &\geq \frac{x}{2} + \left(\frac{x}{2} + 1\right) + \dots + x \\ &\geq \frac{x}{2} + \frac{x}{2} + \dots + \frac{x}{2} \\ &\geq \frac{x}{2} * \frac{x}{2} \\ &\geq \frac{x^2}{4} \end{aligned}$$