

## Lecture: 4 Logic: Part IV

### Algebra of Propositions

Propositions satisfy various laws which are listed in the table below. (In this table,  $T$  and  $F$  are restricted to the truth values “True” and “False,” respectively.)

#### Laws of the algebra of propositions

<b>Idempotent laws:</b>	(1a) $p \vee p \equiv p$	(1b) $p \wedge p \equiv p$
<b>Associative laws:</b>	(2a) $(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$	(2b) $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$
<b>Commutative laws:</b>	(3a) $p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$	(3b) $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$
<b>Distributive laws:</b>	(4a) $p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$	(4b) $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$
<b>Identity laws:</b>	(5a) $p \vee F \equiv p$ (6a) $p \vee T \equiv T$	(5b) $p \wedge T \equiv p$ (6b) $p \wedge F \equiv F$
<b>Involution law:</b>	(7) $\neg\neg p \equiv p$	
<b>Complement laws:</b>	(8a) $p \vee \neg p \equiv T$ (9a) $\neg T \equiv F$	(8b) $p \wedge \neg p \equiv F$ (9b) $\neg F \equiv T$
<b>DeMorgan's laws:</b>	(10a) $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$	(10b) $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$

### ARGUMENTS

An *argument* is an assertion that a given set of propositions  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n$  called *premises*, yields, another proposition  $Q$ , called the *conclusion*. Such an argument is denoted by  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n \vdash Q$

The notion of a “logical argument” or “valid argument” is formalized as follows:

### Definitions

**Valid Argument:** An argument  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n \vdash Q$  is said to be *valid* if  $Q$  is true whenever all the premises  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n$  are true.

**Fallacy:** An argument which is not valid is called *fallacy*.

**Examples:**

(a) The following argument is valid:

$$p, p \rightarrow q \vdash q \text{ (Law of Detachment)}$$

To prove this rule look at the following truth table

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

Specifically ,  $p$  and  $p \rightarrow q$  are true only in case row 1, and in this case  $q$  is true .

(b) The following argument is a fallacy:

$$p \rightarrow q, q \vdash p \quad \text{(prove!).}$$

**Example:** A fundamental principle of logical reasoning states:

“If  $p$  implies  $q$  and  $q$  implies  $r$ , then  $p$  implies  $r$ ”

$p$	$q$	$r$	$(p \rightarrow q)$		$\wedge$	$(q \rightarrow r)$		$\rightarrow$	$(p \rightarrow r)$				
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T		
T	T	F	T	T	F	T	F	F	T	T	F		
T	F	T	T	F	F	F	T	T	T	T	T		
T	F	F	T	F	F	F	T	F	T	T	F		
F	T	T	F	T	T	T	T	T	F	T	T		
F	T	F	F	T	F	T	F	F	T	F	F		
F	F	T	F	T	F	T	T	T	F	T	T		
F	F	F	F	T	F	T	T	F	T	F	F		
<b>Step</b>			<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>

That is, the following argument is valid:  $p \rightarrow q, q \rightarrow r \vdash p \rightarrow r$  (**Law of Syllogism**)

This fact is verified by the above truth table which shows that the following proposition is a tautology:

$$[(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)] \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r).$$

**Example**, consider the following argument:

$S_1$  : If a man is a bachelor, he is unhappy.

$S_2$  : If a man is unhappy, he dies young.

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Conclusion:  $S$  : *Bachelors die young*

Here the statement  $S$  below the line denotes the conclusion of the argument, and the statements  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  above the line denote the premises. We claim that the argument  $S_1, S_2 \vdash S$  is valid. For the argument is of the form

$$p \rightarrow q, q \rightarrow r \vdash p \rightarrow r,$$

where  $p$  is “He is a bachelor,”  $q$  is “He is unhappy” and  $r$  is “He dies young”.

and by “Law of Syllogism” This argument is valid.

## Propositional Functions , Quantifiers

Let  $A$  be a given set. A *propositional function* (or an *open sentence* or *condition*) defined on  $A$  is an expression  $p(x)$ , which has the property that  $p(a)$  is true or false for each  $a \in A$ .

The set  $A$  is called the *domain* of  $p(x)$ , and the set  $Tp$  of all elements of  $A$  for which  $p(a)$  is true is called the *truth set* of  $p(x)$ . In other words,

$$Tp = \{x \mid x \in A, p(x) \text{ is true}\} \text{ or } Tp = \{x \mid p(x)\}$$

Note: Frequently ,when  $A$  is some set of numbers, the condition  $p(x)$  has the form of an equation or inequality involving the variable  $x$ .

### Examples:

Find the truth set for each propositional function  $p(x)$  defined on the set  $\mathbf{N}$  of positive integers.

(a) Let  $p(x)$  be “ $x + 2 > 7$ .” Its truth set is  $\{6, 7, 8, \dots\}$  consisting of all integers greater than 5.

(b) Let  $p(x)$  be “ $x + 5 < 3$ .” Its truth set is the empty set  $\phi$ . That is,  $p(x)$  is not true for any integer in  $\mathbf{N}$ .

(c) Let  $p(x)$  be “ $x + 5 > 1$ .” Its truth set is  $\mathbf{N}$ . That is,  $p(x)$  is true for every element in  $\mathbf{N}$ .

**Note:** In the above examples: If  $p(x)$  is propositional function defined on a set  $A$  then  $p(x)$  could be true for all  $x \in A$ , for some  $x \in A$ , or for not  $x \in A$ .

### Remark

Next we discuss quantifiers related to such propositional functions.

## Universal Quantifier

Let  $p(x)$  be a propositional function defined on a set  $A$ . Consider the expression

$$(\forall x \in A) p(x) \text{ or } \forall x p(x)$$

which reads “For every  $x$  in  $A$ ,  $p(x)$  is a true statement” or, simply, “For all  $x$ ,  $p(x)$ .”

The symbol  $\forall$ , which reads “for all” or “for every” is called the *universal quantifier*.

The above statement is equivalent to the statement

$$T_p = \{x \mid x \in A, p(x)\} = A$$

that is, that the truth set of  $p(x)$  is the entire set  $A$ . So, we have a conclusion:

If  $\{x \mid x \in A, p(x)\} = A$  then  $\forall x p(x)$  is true; otherwise,  $\forall x p(x)$  is false.

### Examples

(a) The proposition  $(\forall n \in \mathbf{N})(n + 4 > 3)$  is true since  $\{n \mid n + 4 > 3\} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} = \mathbf{N}$ .

(b) The proposition  $(\forall n \in \mathbf{N})(n + 2 > 8)$  is false since  $\{n \mid n + 2 > 8\} = \{7, 8, \dots\} \neq \mathbf{N}$ .

(c) The symbol  $\forall$  can be used to define the intersection of an indexed collection  $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$  of sets  $A_i$  as follows:

$$\bigcap (A_i \mid i \in I) = \{x \mid \forall i \in I, x \in A_i\}.$$

## Existential Quantifier

Let  $p(x)$  be a propositional function defined on a set  $A$ . Consider the expression

$$(\exists x \in A) p(x) \text{ or } \exists x, p(x),$$

which reads “There exists an  $x$  in  $A$  such that  $p(x)$  is a true statement” or, simply, “For some  $x$ ,  $p(x)$ .”

The symbol  $\exists$ , which reads “there exists” or “for some” or “for at least one” is called the *existential quantifier*. Above statement is equivalent to the statement

$$T_p = \{x \mid x \in A, p(x)\} \neq \phi.$$

i.e., that the truth set of  $p(x)$  is not empty. Accordingly,  $\exists x p(x)$ , that is,  $p(x)$  preceded by the quantifier  $\exists$ , does have a truth value. Specifically:

If  $\{x \mid p(x)\} \neq \phi$  then  $\exists x p(x)$  is true; otherwise,  $\exists x p(x)$  is false.

### Examples

(a) The proposition  $(\exists n \in \mathbf{N})(n + 4 < 7)$  is true since  $\{n \mid n + 4 < 7\} = \{1, 2\} \neq \phi$ .

(b) The proposition  $(\exists n \in \mathbf{N})(n + 6 < 4)$  is false since  $\{n \mid n + 6 < 4\} = \phi$ .

(c) The symbol  $\exists$  can be used to define the union of an indexed collection  $\{A_i \mid i \in I\}$  of sets  $A_i$  as follows:

$$\bigcup (A_i \mid i \in I) = \{x \mid \exists i \in I, x \in A_i\}.$$

## Negation of Quantified Statements

Consider the statement: “All math students are male.” Its negation reads:  
“It is not the case that all math students are male” or, equivalently, “There exists at least one math students who is a female (not male)”

Symbolically, using  $M$  to denote the set of math students, the above can be written as

$$\neg (\forall x \in M) (x \text{ is male}) \equiv (\exists x \in M) (x \text{ is not male})$$

or, when  $p(x)$  denotes “ $x$  is male,”

$$\neg (\forall x \in M) p(x) \equiv (\exists x \in M) \neg p(x)$$

**Or**  $\neg \forall x p(x) \equiv \exists x \neg p(x)$ .

The above is true for any proposition  $p(x)$ . That is:

### Theorem (DeMorgan):

(a)  $\neg (\forall x \in A) p(x) \equiv (\exists x \in A) \neg p(x)$

That is

- (1) It is not true that for all  $a \in A$ ,  $p(a)$  is true.
- (2) There exists an  $a \in A$  such that  $p(a)$  is false.

(b)  $\neg (\exists x \in A) p(x) \equiv (\forall x \in A) \neg p(x)$ .

That is

- (1) It is not true that for some  $a \in A$ ,  $p(a)$  is true.
- (2) For all  $a \in A$ ,  $p(a)$  is false

### Example :

(a) The following statements are negatives of each other:

“For all positive integers  $n$  we have  $n + 2$  greater than 8”

“There exists a positive integer  $n$  such that  $n + 2$  not greater than 8”

(b) The following statements are also negatives of each other:

“There exists a (living) person who is 150 years old”

“Every living person is not 150 years old”.

**Remark:**

The expression  $\neg p(x)$  has the obvious meaning:

“The statement  $\neg p(a)$  is true when  $p(a)$  is false, and vice versa”

Previously,  $\neg$  was used as an operation on statements; here  $\neg$  is used as an operation on propositional functions.

Similarly,  $p(x) \wedge q(x)$ , read “ $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$ ,” is defined by:

“The statement  $p(a) \wedge q(a)$  is true when  $p(a)$  and  $q(a)$  are true”

Similarly,  $p(x) \vee q(x)$ , read “ $p(x)$  or  $q(x)$ ,” is defined by:

“The statement  $p(a) \vee q(a)$  is true when  $p(a)$  or  $q(a)$  is true”

Thus, in terms of truth sets:

- (i)  $\neg p(x)$  is the complement of  $p(x)$ .
- (ii)  $p(x) \wedge q(x)$  is the intersection of  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$ .
- (iii)  $p(x) \vee q(x)$  is the union of  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$ .