

# Propositional Logic

Fall 2014

# Learning Outcomes . . .

In this session we will

- Define the elements of propositional logic: statements and operations, including implication, and its converse, inverse, and negation.
- Translate English expressions into logical statements.
- Use both truth tables and derivations to demonstrate equivalence of logical statements.
- Define common tautologies, contradictions, and equivalences.
- Recognize and employ *modus ponens* and *modus tollens* and other forms of valid argumentation.

It's difficult, and possibly counterproductive, to provide a concise description of logic. . .

- What is logic?
- Why is it important?
- How will we use it in this class?

It's difficult, and possibly counterproductive, to provide a concise description of logic. . .

- What is logic?
  - A formal system for expressing truth and falsity.
  - Why is it important?
- 
- How will we use it in this class?

It's difficult, and possibly counterproductive, to provide a concise description of logic. . .

- What is logic?
- A formal system for expressing truth and falsity.
- Why is it important?
- Provides a method of reasoning from given truths (called axioms) to new truths (called propositions or theorems).
- How will we use it in this class?

It's difficult, and possibly counterproductive, to provide a concise description of logic. . .

- What is logic?
- A formal system for expressing truth and falsity.
- Why is it important?
- Provides a method of reasoning from given truths (called axioms) to new truths (called propositions or theorems).
- How will we use it in this class?
- Logic is the skeleton that supports mathematical truth-making, i.e., proof-reading and proof-writing.

It's difficult, and possibly counterproductive, to provide a concise description of logic. . .

- What is logic?
- A formal system for expressing truth and falsity.
- Why is it important?
- Provides a method of reasoning from given truths (called axioms) to new truths (called propositions or theorems).
- How will we use it in this class?
- Logic is the skeleton that supports mathematical truth-making, i.e., proof-reading and proof-writing.
- Logic is the glue that holds computers and programs together.

# Propositional statements

## Definition

A *statement* is a sentence that is either **true** or **false**.

## Example

*Atomic statements:*

- It is raining.
- The sun is shining.

*Compound statements:*

- It is raining **and** the sun is shining.
- It is raining **or** the sun is shining.



# Making new statements by connecting propositions

Three fundamental operators:

Operator	Description
And (conjunction)	Written $s \wedge t$ : <b>true</b> when $s$ <i>and</i> $t$ are both <b>true</b> .
Or (disjunction)	Written $s \vee t$ : <b>true</b> when either $s$ <i>or</i> $t$ (or both) are <b>true</b> .
Not (negation)	Written $\neg s$ (or sometimes $\sim s$ ): <b>true</b> when $s$ is <b>false</b> .

Keep in mind that  $s$  and  $t$  may themselves be atomic or compound statements!

# Truth tables ...

The meaning of a logical operation can be expressed as its “truth table.”

- Construct the truth-table for conjunction.
- Construct the truth-table for disjunction.
- Construct the truth-table for negation.

**Do in class.**

## A worked example

### Example

Let  $s$  be “The sun is shining” and  $t$  be “It is raining.” Join these into the compound statement:

$$(\neg s \wedge t) \vee \neg t.$$

- Phrase the compound statement in English.
- Construct the truth table.

**Do in class.**

# Truth, falsity, and interpretations

- The truth or falsity of any statement depends upon its *context*.
- “Context” can be visualized as the values that are associated with each variable in a statement.

## Example

Is  $a \vee b$  **true**? Well, if *either*  $a = \text{true}$  or  $b = \text{true}$ , then the statement  $a \vee b$  is **true**.

Ask now if  $a \wedge b$  is **true**, and you will see that it is **true**, but under fewer interpretations—or, its context is different.

# Exclusive or

The word “or” is often used to mean “one or the other,” but this is *not* the same meaning of “or” in logic!

## Definition

The *exclusive-or* of two statements  $p$  and  $q$  (written  $p \oplus q$ ), is true when either  $p$  is true or  $q$  is true, but not both.

$p$	$q$	$p \oplus q$
$T$	$T$	$F$
$T$	$F$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$F$

# Logical equivalences

How do we know if two logical statements are equivalent?

# Logical equivalences

How do we know if two logical statements are equivalent?

- Construct truth tables for each.
- We will demonstrate another method shortly—but its correctness is justified by truth tables.

# Logical equivalences

How do we know if two logical statements are equivalent?

- Construct truth tables for each.
- We will demonstrate another method shortly—but its correctness is justified by truth tables.

## Theorem

*Let  $p$  and  $q$  be statement variables. Then*

$$(p \vee q) \wedge \neg(p \wedge q) \equiv p \oplus q$$

and  $(p \wedge \neg q) \vee (q \wedge \neg p) \equiv p \oplus q .$

Prove in class (using Truth Tables).



# Laws of Propositional Logic . . .

We can do **algebra** in propositional logic.

Commutative Laws:

$$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$$

$$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$$

Associative Laws:

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

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

Distributive Laws:

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

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

# Laws of Propositional Logic ...

We can do **algebra** in propositional logic.

Commutative Laws:

$$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$$

$$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$$

Associative Laws:

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

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

Distributive Laws:

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

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

How do we know that these laws are *valid*?

# Laws of Propositional Logic ...

We can do **algebra** in propositional logic.

Commutative Laws:

$$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$$

$$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$$

Associative Laws:

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

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

Distributive Laws:

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

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

How do we know that these laws are *valid*?

Construct the truth-tables and verify!

# Laws of Propositional Logic ...

We can do **algebra** in propositional logic.

Commutative Laws:

$$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$$

$$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$$

Associative Laws:

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

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

Distributive Laws:

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

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

How do we know that these laws are *valid*?

Construct the truth-tables and verify!

**Prove a Distributive Law in class.**

# De Morgan's laws ...

## Theorem (De Morgan's laws)

*Let  $p$  and  $q$  be statement variables. Then*

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

*and*  $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q .$

## Examples in English

### Example

It is not the case that Alice or Bob went to the store.

$\equiv$  Alice did not go to the store and Bob did not go to the store.

It is not the case that Alice and Bob went to the store.

$\equiv$  Alice did not go to the store or Bob did not go to the store.

# Laws of Logic

Given any statement variables  $p$ ,  $q$ , and  $r$ , a tautology  $t$  and a contradiction  $c$ , the following logical equivalences hold:

1. Commutative laws:	$p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$	$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$
2. Associative laws:	$(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$	$(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$
3. Distributive laws:	$p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	$p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$
4. Identity laws:	$p \wedge t \equiv p$	$p \vee c \equiv p$
5. Negation laws:	$p \vee \neg p \equiv t$	$p \wedge \neg p \equiv c$
6. Double Negative law:	$\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$	
7. Idempotent laws:	$p \wedge p \equiv p$	$p \vee p \equiv p$
8. DeMorgan's laws:	$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$	$\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$
9. Universal bounds laws:	$p \vee t \equiv t$	$p \wedge c \equiv c$
10. Absorption laws:	$p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$	$p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$
11. Negations of t and c:	$\neg t \equiv c$	$\neg c \equiv t$

# Example of Boolean Algebra

Example from Epp.

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

Prove in class (using Boolean algebra).

# Introducing logical implication

## Example

If it rains, then Richard brings an umbrella.

We would like a way of assigning truth or falsity to these kinds of statements.

<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b><math>a \rightarrow b</math></b>
T	T	T
F	T	T
T	F	F
F	F	T

Note two important qualities of implication:

- There is only one case where the implication is false. **WHY IS THIS IMPORTANT?**
- Implication is sensitive to direction!. (Compare rows 2 and 3.) **WHY IS THIS IMPORTANT?**



# Implications of implication ...

- Everything to the left of the implication symbol is called either the antecedent, the hypothesis, or the **sufficient** condition.
- Everything to the right of the implication symbol is called the consequent, the conclusion, or the **necessary** condition.

# Implications of implication ...

- Everything to the left of the implication symbol is called either the antecedent, the hypothesis, or the **sufficient** condition.
- Everything to the right of the implication symbol is called the consequent, the conclusion, or the **necessary** condition.
- Unlike in common speech, no relationship need exist between the hypothesis and the conclusion.
  - If the sky is blue then 5 is prime.
  - If the sky is blue then 5 is not prime.
  - If the moon is made of cheese, then then 5 is prime.
  - If the moon is made of cheese, then 5 is not prime.

## Trying on a few implications . . .

See how well you do with these: Identify the sufficient and the necessary conditions. State under which circumstances these implications are true and under which they are false:

- 1 If oxygen is present, then rust will form.
- 2 Only if I study hard will I pass this course. (Read this as  $p$ , only if  $q$ .)
- 3 If  $f(x) = f(y)$  then  $x = y$ .
- 4 If  $x \neq y$  then  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ .

# Some important variations of implications

We will define four variations of implication:

- Contrapositive
- Converse
- Inverse
- Negation

# The Contrapositive of an Implication

## Definition

The *contrapositive* of an implication is obtained by transposing its conclusion with its premise and inverting. So,

Contrapositive of  $p \rightarrow q$  is  $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$ .

## Example

Original statement: *If I live in College Park, then I live in Maryland.*

Contrapositive: *If I don't live in Maryland, then I don't live in College Park.*

## Theorem

*The contrapositive of an implication is equivalent to the original statement.*

Prove in class.

# The converse of an implication

## Definition

The *converse* of an implication is obtained by transposing its conclusion with its premise.

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

## Example

Original statement: *If I live in College Park, then I live in Maryland.*

Converse: *If I live in Maryland, then I live in College Park.*

# The inverse of an implication

## Definition

The *inverse* of an implication is obtained by negating both its premise and its conclusion.

Inverse of  $p \rightarrow q$  is  $(\neg p) \rightarrow (\neg q)$ .

(Parentheses added for emphasis.)

## Example

Original statement: *If I live in College Park, then I live in Maryland.*

Inverse: *If I don't live in College Park, then I don't live in Maryland.*

The inverse of an implication is equivalent to the converse!

Why?

# Negating an implication

## Definition

The *negation* of an implication is obtained by negating it.

Negation of  $p \rightarrow q$  is  $\neg(p \rightarrow q)$  (which is equivalent to  $p \wedge \neg q$ ).

## Example

Original statement: *If I live in College Park, then I live in Maryland.*

Negation: *I live in College Park, and I don't live in Maryland.*

The negation of an implication is not an implication!



# Bidirectional implication

## Definition

The *biconditional* statement is an implication that is true only when its antecedent and its consequent have the *same* truth values; it is false otherwise. In symbols,  $p \leftrightarrow q$  is true *only* when  $p \rightarrow q$  **and**  $q \rightarrow p$ .

$p$	$q$	$p \leftrightarrow q$
$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$F$
$F$	$F$	$T$

# Experimenting with bi-conditionals ...

- The bi-conditional, arguably, corresponds to the common use of the word “if” in English sentences.
- The bi-conditional sometimes appears in scientific or technical text as **iff** or as a **necessary and sufficient condition**.
- What do the converse, inverse, and negations of a bi-conditional look like?
- What is the relationship between the exclusive-or (discussed above) and the bi-conditional?

# Validity, as a matter of “form.”

## Definition

An *argument* is a sequence of statements terminating with a conclusion.

- Validity is based upon *formal* properties, not *content*.
- Mastery of logical argumentation translates into a deeper understanding of, and facility for, constructing mathematical proof.

# Proofs: Using inference . . .

Here are some common patterns from your text:

- *Modus ponens* (To prove by asserting.)  $\frac{p \rightarrow q, p}{q}$ .
- *Modus tollens* (To prove by denying.)  $\frac{p \rightarrow q, \neg q}{\neg p}$ .
- *Disjunctive syllogism*  $\frac{p \vee q, \neg q}{p}$ ; likewise  $\frac{p \vee q, \neg p}{q}$ .
- *Rule of contradiction* Let  $c$  be a contradiction:  $\frac{\neg p \rightarrow c}{p}$ .

The remaining rules can be derived by systematically applying the rules above with the basic properties of a Boolean algebra, i.e., associativity, commutativity, idempotence, etc.

# Valid forms of argumentation

Modus Ponens $p \rightarrow q$ $p$ $\therefore q$	Modus Tollens $p \rightarrow q$ $\neg q$ $\therefore \neg p$		Disjunctive Syllogism $p \vee q$ $\neg q$ $\therefore p$	$p \vee q$ $\neg p$ $\therefore q$
Conjunctive Addition $p$ $q$ $\therefore p \wedge q$			Hypothetical Syllogism $p \rightarrow q$ $q \rightarrow r$ $\therefore p \rightarrow r$	
Disjunctive Addition $p$ $\therefore p \vee q$	$q$ $\therefore p \vee q$		Dilemma: Proof by Division into Cases $p \vee q$ $p \rightarrow r$ $q \rightarrow r$ $\therefore r$	
Conjunctive Simplification $p \wedge q$ $\therefore p$	$p \wedge q$ $\therefore q$		Rule of Contradiction $\neg p \rightarrow c$ $\therefore p$	
Closing C.W. without contradiction	$p$ Assumed $q$ derived $\therefore p \rightarrow q$		Closing C.W. with contradiction	$p$ Assumed $x \wedge \neg x$ derived $\therefore \neg p$

# Examples of Logical Arguments

$$\begin{array}{l} p \vee q \\ q \rightarrow r \\ \neg p \\ \therefore r \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} p \wedge q \\ p \rightarrow s \\ \neg r \rightarrow \neg q \\ \therefore s \wedge r \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} p \vee q \\ \neg(q \vee r) \\ p \rightarrow (m \rightarrow r) \\ \therefore \neg m \end{array}$$

Prove in class.

# Reviewing & moving forward

- Statements may be atomic or compound. Their syntax is unambiguous.

# Reviewing & moving forward

- Statements may be atomic or compound. Their syntax is unambiguous.
- Statements are combined by logical operators: three primitive operators are negation, disjunction, and conjunction.



# Reviewing & moving forward

- Statements may be atomic or compound. Their syntax is unambiguous.
- Statements are combined by logical operators: three primitive operators are negation, disjunction, and conjunction.
- These operators have certain properties: they are commutative, associative, . . . , **directionless**.

# Reviewing & moving forward

- Statements may be atomic or compound. Their syntax is unambiguous.
- Statements are combined by logical operators: three primitive operators are negation, disjunction, and conjunction.
- These operators have certain properties: they are commutative, associative, . . . , **directionless**.
- Logical implication is constructed. Unlike its components, **implications have direction**.

# Reviewing & moving forward

- Statements may be atomic or compound. Their syntax is unambiguous.
- Statements are combined by logical operators: three primitive operators are negation, disjunction, and conjunction.
- These operators have certain properties: they are commutative, associative, . . . , **directionless**.
- Logical implication is constructed. Unlike its components, **implications have direction**.
- “Arguments” are patterns of reasoning that incorporate these operators over a particular *domain of discourse*, e.g., numbers, objects, etc.

# Reviewing & moving forward

- Statements may be atomic or compound. Their syntax is unambiguous.
- Statements are combined by logical operators: three primitive operators are negation, disjunction, and conjunction.
- These operators have certain properties: they are commutative, associative, . . . , **directionless**.
- Logical implication is constructed. Unlike its components, **implications have direction**.
- “Arguments” are patterns of reasoning that incorporate these operators over a particular *domain of discourse*, e.g., numbers, objects, etc.
- Most importantly: truth is *formal* in these systems.

# Applications of logic

Logic is everywhere. Shortly, we will examine how logic is used in several areas relevant to computer science.

- Logical primitives & switching circuits.
- Logical statements & sequential circuits. Later in this semester, perhaps
- Logical constructions in combinatorial circuits.