Introduction to Logic Lecture 4

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Overview

Tautologies and logical truths

Logical and tautological consequence

Logically equivalent sentences

Substitution

Negation Normal Form (NNF)

Other rules for simplification of sentences

Conjunctive normal form and disjunctive normal form

Truth-functional completeness

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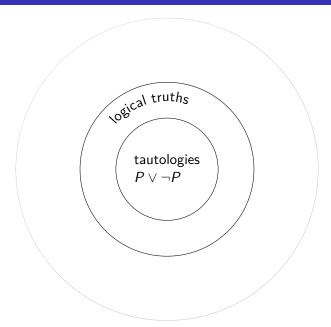
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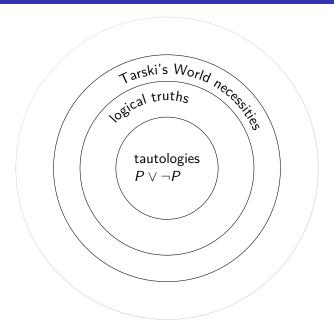
Recap Lecture 3: the big picture of necessities



Recap Lecture 3: the big picture of necessities



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Recap Lecture 3: Tautologies

Tautology: Definition

A sentence S is a *tautology* if and only if (iff) in the truth table for S, there are only T's in the column under the *main connective* of S.

Example:

Recap Lecture 3: Tautologies vs. logical truths

Logical truth: Definition

A sentence is a logical truth (or: logical necessity) iff it is true 'under all circumstances'.

Tautology: Definition

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So every tautology is a logical truth.

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So every tautology is a logical truth. But not the other way. E.g.:

a = a	a = b	$a = a \lor a = b$
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Τ	F	Т
F	T	T
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The last two rows are *spurious*! It is *logically impossible* that a = a is false.

Recap Lecture 3: Tarski's World necessities

Tarski's World necessary (TW-necessary)

A sentence is Tarski's World necessary if and only if it is true under all circumstances that we can construct using Tarski's World.

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Examples of Tarski's World necessities:

$$\mathsf{Tet}(\mathsf{a}) \, \vee \, \mathsf{Dodec}(\mathsf{a}) \, \vee \, \mathsf{Cube}(\mathsf{a})$$

$$(\neg \mathsf{Small}(\mathsf{a}) \land \neg \mathsf{Large}(\mathsf{a})) \to \mathsf{Medium}(\mathsf{a}).$$

The above two sentences are not logical truths, and certainly not tautologies.

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QUESTION Example?

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QUESTION Example? $P \land \neg P$

TT-possible: Definition

A sentence S is TT-possible iff in the truth table (TT) for S, there is at least one T in the column under S's main connective.

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What do you think of the sentence $((P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow P) \rightarrow P$? Is it a tautology? A contradiction? A TT-possibility?

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NOTE For each sentence S, the following three are equivalent:

- 1) S is a tautology;
- 2) $\neg S$ is a contradiction;
- 3) $\neg S$ is not TT-possible.

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Т	F		Т	T
F	Т		F	F
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TT-possibility (true in row 2) but not logically possible!

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TT-possibility (true in row 2) but not logically possible! Rows 2 and 3 are spurious.

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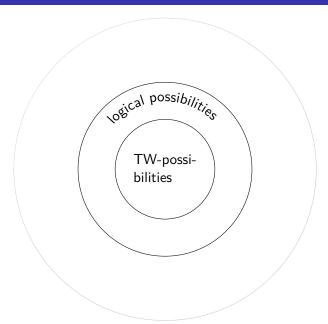
The following sentence is not Tarski's World possible (although it is logically possible and TT-possible):

$$\neg$$
 (Small(a) \lor Large(a) \lor Medium(a)).

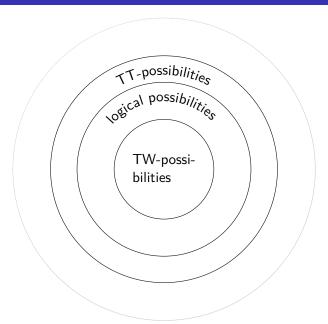
The big picture of possibilities



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Validity: reminder

An argument is *valid* if and only if it is impossible that the premises are true while the conclusion is false.

That is, an argument is *valid* if and only if in every situation in which all the premises are true, the conclusion is also true.

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For purely propositional sentences, the following are equivalent:

- ▶ Q is a tautological consequence of P_1, \ldots, P_n ;
- ▶ $(P_1 \land \cdots \land P_n) \rightarrow Q$ is a tautology.

Example

Question: Is $P \to R$ a tautological consequence of premises $P \to Q$ and $Q \to R$?

Р	Q	R	$P \rightarrow Q$	$Q \rightarrow R$	$P \rightarrow R$

Р	Q	R	$P \rightarrow Q$	$Q \rightarrow R$	$P \rightarrow R$
T	T	T			
T	T	F			
Τ	F	Τ			
Τ	F	F			
F	T	Τ			
F	T	F			
F	F	Τ			
F	F F	F			

Ρ	Q	R	P o Q	$Q \rightarrow R$	$P \rightarrow R$
•	T	•	T		
	T		T		
	F		F		
T	F	F	F		
F	T	Τ	T		
F	T	F	T		
F	F	Τ	T		
F	F	F	T		

Ρ	Q	R	$P \rightarrow Q$	$Q \rightarrow R$	$P \rightarrow R$
-	T		T	T	
Τ	T	F	T	F	
Τ	F	Τ	F	T	
Τ	F	F	F	T	
F	T	Τ	T	T	
F	T	F	T	F	
	F		T	T	
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Р	Q	R	$P \rightarrow Q$	$Q \rightarrow R$	$P \rightarrow R$
T	T	T	T	T	Т
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F	T	Τ	T	T	Τ
F	T	F	T	F	Τ
F	F	Τ	T	T	Τ
F	F	F	T	T	T

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Τ	T	F	T	F	F
Τ	F	Τ	F	T	T
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F	T	F	T	F	T
F	F	T	T	T	T
F	F	F	T	T	T

Thus the argumentation scheme is *valid*. It is a *tautological consequence*, because in all 4 rows in the truth table in which the premises $P \to Q$ and $Q \to R$ are both true, the conclusion $P \to R$ is true as well.

Definition

Logical consequence

Conclusion Q is a *logical consequence* of premises P_1, \ldots, P_n if and only if for *every non-spurious row* in the truth table in which P_1, \ldots, P_n are all true, Q is also true.

Example: $a = a \land a = b$ is a logical consequence of a = b.

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Tautological consequence: reminder

Reminder: Conclusion Q is a *tautological consequence* of premises P_1, \ldots, P_n if and only if for *every row* in the truth table in which P_1, \ldots, P_n are all true, Q is also true.

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Reminder: Conclusion Q is a *tautological consequence* of premises P_1, \ldots, P_n if and only if for *every row* in the truth table in which P_1, \ldots, P_n are all true, Q is also true.

So, if Q is a tautological consequence of premises P_1, \ldots, P_n , then Q is also a logical consequence of P_1, \ldots, P_n .

The reverse does not hold: $a = a \land a = b$ is a logical consequence of a = b, but not its tautological consequence.

Some notation for logical consequence

Reminder: 'iff' is an abbreviation for 'if and only if'.

Logical consequence

Q is a $logical\ consequence\ of\ P$ iff the argument

is valid.

Notation: $P \Rightarrow Q$

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The following are equivalent (for purely propositional sentences):

- ▶ $P_1, ..., P_n \Rightarrow Q$ (i.e. Q is a logical consequence of $P_1, ..., P_n$);
- ▶ the sentence $(P_1 \land \cdots \land P_n) \rightarrow Q$ is a logical truth;
- ▶ there is a proof in Fitch of Q from the premises P_1, \ldots, P_n .

Validity and proof: soundness and completeness

Let \mathcal{F} be the *natural deduction* system introduced in lectures 1-3:

There exists a proof of Q in \mathcal{F} from premises P_1, \ldots, P_n



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Q is logically equivalent with P iff both $P \Rightarrow Q$ and $Q \Rightarrow P$. In words: Q is a logical consequence of P and vice versa.

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Two sentences S and T are tautologically equivalent iff in every row of the truth table the formulas receive the same truth value.

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Two sentences S and T are tautologically equivalent iff in every row of the truth table the formulas receive the same truth value.

For purely propositional sentences, the following are equivalent:

- **▶** *S* ⇔ *T*;
- ► *S* and *T* are tautologically equivalent;
- ▶ $S \leftrightarrow T$ is a tautology;
- ▶ there is a proof in Fitch of $S \leftrightarrow T$.

Examples of logical equivalences

In the lectures 1–3, we have already seen the following logical equivalences:

law of double negation
$$P \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \neg \neg P$$

$$\text{definability of} \quad \rightarrow \qquad P \rightarrow Q \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \neg P \vee Q$$

$$\text{definability of} \quad \leftrightarrow \qquad P \leftrightarrow Q \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad (P \rightarrow Q) \wedge (Q \rightarrow P)$$

$$P \leftrightarrow Q \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad (\neg P \vee Q) \wedge (\neg Q \vee P)$$

$$P \leftrightarrow Q \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad (P \wedge Q) \vee (\neg P \wedge \neg Q)$$

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Substitution of sentences

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We form S(Q) by **substituting** Q **for** P in S(P). (Note: "substitute Q for P" means the same as "replace P by Q".) In the example: $S(Q) = \neg(Q \lor (A \to (B \leftrightarrow Q)))$.

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You can also substitute more complex sentences for P; and also P itself may be a complex sentence.

In the example:

$$S(P \to Q) = \neg((P \to Q) \lor (A \to (B \leftrightarrow (P \to Q))).$$

Principle of substitution of logical equivalents

For logical equivalence, we have the following property:

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If $P \Leftrightarrow Q$, then $S(P) \Leftrightarrow S(Q)$

In words:

If P and Q are logically equivalent, then so are S(P) and S(Q).

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Example: P and $\neg \neg P$ are logically equivalent, so we have

$$\neg (P \lor (A \to (B \leftrightarrow P)) \Leftrightarrow \neg (\neg \neg P \lor (A \to (B \leftrightarrow \neg \neg P)))$$

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$$P o Q \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor Q$$

$$P \leftrightarrow Q \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor Q) \land (\neg Q \lor P)$$

Claim: Every sentence is logically equivalent to a sentence that contains no \rightarrow and no \leftrightarrow . QUESTION True or false? True! To see this, use the *substitution property* and the *logical laws* about the definability of \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow :

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Example:

$$A \rightarrow (B \leftrightarrow C)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad \{ \text{ definability of } \rightarrow \}$$

$$\neg A \lor (B \leftrightarrow C)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad \{ \text{ definability of } \leftrightarrow \}$$

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

Riddle: The portrait and the three boxes

There is a portrait hidden in one of three boxes: gold, silver, lead.

Each box contains two statements.

No box contains more than one false statement.



Gold box

1. The portrait is not in here. 2. The artist is from Venice.

Silver box

- 1. The portrait is not in the gold box.
- 2. The artist is from Florence.

Lead box

1. The portrait is not in here. 2. The portrait is in the silver box.

In which box is the portrait to be found?

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Augustus De Morgan (1806–1871)



De Morgan was the first to prove ...

 \ldots the duality of \wedge and \vee

For every sentence P and Q:

$$\neg(P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor \neg Q)$$

$$\neg(P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land \neg Q)$$

These *De Morgan laws* are useful for "pushing negations inwards" to apply only to atomic sentences.

Negation Normal Form (NNF)

A sentence is in Negation Normal Form (NNF) iff it is built out of atomic sentences using the three connectives \land, \lor, \neg , and all negations in it occur directly in front of atomic sentences.

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- ¬A ∨ ¬B ∨ ¬C

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- ▶ $(\neg A \land \neg B) \lor C$ is in negation normal form
- ▶ $\neg A \lor \neg B \lor \neg C$ is in negation normal form
- ▶ $\neg(A \lor B)$ is *not* in negation normal form: the negation does not occur directly in front of the atomic sentence A.

Rewriting sentences to Negation Normal Form (NNF)

QUESTION Do you remember what is a literal?

Rewriting sentences to Negation Normal Form (NNF)

QUESTION Do you remember what is a literal? A *literal* is an atomic formula (A) or a negation of an atomic formula $(\neg A)$.

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Any sentence built out of atomic sentences using the three connectives \land, \lor, \neg is logically equivalent to one built from *literals* using just \lor and \land .

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How to make an NNF from a sentence? First eliminate \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow . Then you are left with a sentence built up of \land,\lor and \neg . Rewrite it as a sentence in which \neg only applies to atomic sentences. Use the *principle of substitution with logical equivalents* to generate the NNF, by the laws of De Morgan:

$$\neg (P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor \neg Q$$
$$\neg (P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \land \neg Q$$

and the law of double negation: $\neg \neg P \Leftrightarrow P$.

Example of rewriting a sentence to NNF

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

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad \{ \text{ De Morgan: } \neg(P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor \neg Q \}$$

$$\neg(A \lor B) \lor \neg \neg C$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad \{ \text{ Law of double negation: } \neg \neg P \Leftrightarrow P \}$$

$$\neg(A \lor B) \lor C$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \qquad \{ \text{ De Morgan: } \neg(P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \land \neg Q \}$$

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

The result is a sentence in **negation normal form**

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Simplification of complex sentences: rules

A number of further logical equivalences are useful when we wish to simplify complex sentences:

Applying the new rules in an example

```
((C \land A) \land (B \land (C \land B)) \land C)
\Leftrightarrow { associativity: (P \land Q) \land R \Leftrightarrow P \land (Q \land R) }
     C \wedge A \wedge B \wedge C \wedge B \wedge C
\Leftrightarrow { commutativity: P \land Q \Leftrightarrow Q \land P }
     A \wedge B \wedge B \wedge C \wedge C \wedge C
\Leftrightarrow { idempotency: P \land P \Leftrightarrow P }
     A \wedge B \wedge C
```

Annotated linear chains of equivalences

```
General form:
    Α
\Leftrightarrow { reason why A \Leftrightarrow B_1 }
    B_1
          { reason why B_1 \Leftrightarrow B_2 }
    B_2
    B_n
        { reason why B_n \Leftrightarrow C }
```

Example of using the logical rules

QUESTION: which rule is used in each step? And from which step onwards is the formula in NNF?

Chain of equivalences

Suppose A, B, C are arbitrary atomic sentences

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Normal forms and use of principles from propositional logic

Normal forms are restrictions to the form of a sentence S.

Examples we have seen:

- ▶ S contains only \neg , \land , \lor and not \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow
- ightharpoonup ¬ occurs only in front of atomic sentences (NNF)

Normal forms and use of principles from propositional logic

Normal forms are restrictions to the form of a sentence S.

Examples we have seen:

- ▶ S contains only \neg , \land , \lor and not \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow
- → occurs only in front of atomic sentences (NNF)

Logical equivalences are what allow us to simplify complex sentences.

We have already seen at work: the law of double negation, the definability of \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow , the De Morgan laws, and the laws of associativity, commutativity and idempotence.

We will now additionally introduce the laws of distributivity.

Distributivity of \land over \lor and vice versa

| IDEA | Like distributivity of multiplication over addition: $a \times (b + c) = (a \times b) + (a \times c)$

In PL and FOL,
$$\wedge$$
 is distributive over \vee and vice versa.

1. Distribution of \land over \lor :

$$P \wedge (Q \vee R) \Leftrightarrow (P \wedge Q) \vee (P \wedge R)$$

2. Distribution of \vee over \wedge :

$$P \lor (Q \land R) \Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$$

Reminder: A *literal* is an atomic formula (A) or a negation of an atomic formula $(\neg A)$.

Disjunctive Normal Form

A sentence is in *disjunctive normal form* (DNF) iff it is a disjunction of (one or more) conjunctions of (one or more) literals.

Reminder: A *literal* is an atomic formula (A) or a negation of an atomic formula $(\neg A)$.

Disjunctive Normal Form

A sentence is in *disjunctive normal form* (DNF) iff it is a disjunction of (one or more) conjunctions of (one or more) literals.

Using the first distributive law (the distribution of \land over \lor) and commutativity, we can **turn any sentence that is already in negation normal form into a sentence that is in DNF**.

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Example of DNF

 $(P \land \neg Q \land R) \lor (\neg P \land S)$ is in DNF.

Reminder: A *literal* is an atomic formula (A) or a negation of an atomic formula $(\neg A)$.

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 is in DNF.

Sentences not in DNF:

$$P \wedge (Q \vee \neg R \vee \neg P)$$
$$\neg \neg A$$
$$\neg (A \wedge B)$$

Example: Rewriting a NNF into DNF

▶ Procedure: start from an NNF and use the first distributive law and commutativity to generate this DNF.

$$(A \lor B) \land (C \lor D)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow [(A \lor B) \land C] \lor [(A \lor B) \land D]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (A \land C) \lor (B \land C) \lor [(A \lor B) \land D]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (A \land C) \lor (B \land C) \lor (A \land D) \lor (B \land D)$$

Conjunction normal form: CNF (LPL Section 4.6)

Conjunctive Normal Form

A sentence is in *conjunctive normal form* (CNF) iff it is a conjunction of (one or more) disjunctions of (one or more) literals.

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A sentence is in *conjunctive normal form* (CNF) iff it is a conjunction of (one or more) disjunctions of (one or more) literals.

Using the second distributive law (the distribution of \vee over \wedge) and commutativity, we can **turn any sentence that is already in negation normal form into a sentence that is in CNF**.

Conjunction normal form: CNF (LPL Section 4.6)

Conjunctive Normal Form

A sentence is in *conjunctive normal form* (CNF) iff it is a conjunction of (one or more) disjunctions of (one or more) literals.

Using the second distributive law (the distribution of \vee over \wedge) and commutativity, we can **turn any sentence that is already in negation normal form into a sentence that is in CNF**.

Example and non-example of CNF

 $(P \lor \neg Q \lor R) \land (\neg P \lor S)$ is in CNF. $P \lor (Q \land \neg R \land \neg P)$ is not in CNF. (But it is in DNF)

Example: Rewriting a NNF into CNF

▶ Procedure: start from an NNF and use the second distributive law to generate this CNF.

$$(A \land B) \lor (C \land D)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow [(A \land B) \lor C] \land [(A \land B) \lor D]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (A \lor C) \land (B \lor C) \land [(A \land B) \lor D]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (A \lor C) \land (B \lor C) \land (A \lor D) \land (B \lor D)$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Some sentences are CNF and DNF simultaneously

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QUESTION How is that possible?

Some sentences are CNF and DNF simultaneously

QUESTION | How is that possible?

Sentences that are both CNF and DNF

A sentence can be simultaneously in CNF and DNF.

$$Home(claire) \land \neg Home(max)$$

This sentence is a disjunction of 1 conjunction of literals (namely the sentence itself), so it is in DNF.

This sentence is also in CNF because it is a conjunction of two disjunctions, each consisting of 1 literal.

Some sentences that are in CNF and DNF:

$$A \lor \neg B \lor C$$
$$\neg A \land B$$
$$A$$

Tests for DNF and CNF

Reminder: CNF and DNF are named for the main operator:

Conjunctive Normal Form

A sentence is in Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) if it is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals.

Disjunctive Normal Form

A sentence is in Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF) if it is a disjunction of conjunctions of literals.

DNF test for sentences solely built up from \land, \neg, \lor

- Are all the negations directly in front of atomic sentences?
- Are all conjunction signs in between literals?

CNF test for sentences solely built up from \land, \neg, \lor

- Are all the negations directly in front of atomic sentences?
- Are all disjunction signs directly in between literals?

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Truth-functional completeness (LPL Section 7.4)

The connectives $\neg, \lor, \land \rightarrow$ and \leftrightarrow can be seen as *truth value* functions: you put in one or two truth values, and the result is a truth value.

The truth table of the connective specifies the truth value function.

Truth-functional completeness (LPL Section 7.4)

The connectives $\neg, \lor, \land \rightarrow$ and \leftrightarrow can be seen as *truth value* functions: you put in one or two truth values, and the result is a truth value.

The truth table of the connective specifies the truth value function.

More generally, any sentence with atoms P_1, \ldots, P_n can be seen as an n-ary truth function.

QUESTION How many different binary connectives are there?

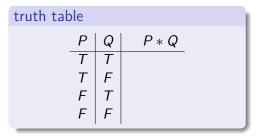
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truth table		
Р	Q	P*Q
T	Т	T/F
T	F	
F	T F	
F	F	J

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ole		
P	Q	P*Q
Т	Т	T/F T/F
T	F	T/F
F	$T \mid$	
F	F	
	P T T F	P Q T T T F

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	T	F	T/F
	F F	T	T/F
	F	F	J

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In other words: how many binary truth value functions are there?

truth table			
F	$Q \mid Q$	P*Q	- 1
7	T	T/F T/F T/F T/F	- 1
7	- F	T/F	- 1
F	T T	T/F	- 1
F	F F	T/F	

QUESTION How many different binary connectives are there?

In other words: how many binary truth value functions are there?

Every binary connective (*, say) has 4 rows in a truth table:

truth table		
Р	Q	P*Q
T	Т	T/F
T	F	T/F T/F T/F
F		T/F
F	F	T/F

In every row there are 2 choices: T or F, so you end up with $2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 = 2^4 = 16$ different binary connectives (truth functions).

16 possible binary connectives: examples

We already know four of the possible binary connectives: $\lor, \land, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$. Thus there are 12 other possible binary connectives left.

Let us consider some others.

Example: xor, the exclusive disjunction.

16 possible binary connectives: examples

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Ρ	Q	P xor Q
Τ	T	F
Τ	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

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Ρ	Q	P xor Q
T	T	F
T	F	Τ
F	T	Τ
F	F	F

xor is definable: we have P xor $Q \Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \land \neg (P \land Q)$

Also,
$$P \times Q \Leftrightarrow (P \wedge \neg Q) \vee (\neg P \wedge Q)$$

Two interesting binary connectives

Two other binary connectives: nor and nand.

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Ρ	Q	P nor Q	P nand Q
Τ	T	F	F
Τ	F	F	T
F	T	F	T
F	F	T	T

Two interesting binary connectives

Two other binary connectives: nor and nand.

Ρ	Q	P nor Q	P nand Q
T	T	F	F
T	F	F	T
F	T	F	T
F	F	T	T

They are definable, too: we have

$$P \text{ nor } Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \land \neg Q$$

$$P \text{ nand } Q \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow \neg P \lor \neg Q$$

Also,

$$P \text{ nand } Q \Leftrightarrow (P \land \neg Q) \lor (\neg P \land Q) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q)$$

Definability of connectives

We see a pattern:

- ▶ We come up with a new binary connective, defined by a truth table;
- ▶ it appears that this connective is definable using only ¬, ∧ and ∨.

We shall show that this holds for all new binary connectives.

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We will show even more:

Every n-ary connective defined by a truth table can be defined by a sentence $S(P_1, \ldots, P_n)$ that uses only \neg , \land and \lor .

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Every n-ary connective defined by a truth table can be defined by a sentence $S(P_1, \ldots, P_n)$ that uses only \neg , \land and \lor .

This may be surprising, for there are many n-ary connectives: 2^{2^n} .

```
\begin{array}{rcl} \textit{unary} & 2^{2^1} & = & 4 \\ \textit{binary} & 2^{2^2} & = & 16 \\ \textit{ternary} & 2^{2^3} & = & 256 \\ \textit{quaternary} & 2^{2^4} & = & 65536 \\ \textit{quintary} & 2^{2^5} & = & 4294967296 \end{array}
```

Defining ternary connectives

We consider an 'arbitrary' ternary connective **.**:

Ρ	Q	R	A(P,Q,R)
Т	T	Т	T
Τ	T	F	T
Τ	F	Τ	F
Τ	F	F	F
F	T	Τ	T
F	T	F	F
F	F	Τ	T
F	F	F	F

Defining ternary connectives

We consider an 'arbitrary' ternary connective ♣:

Ρ	Q	R	♣ (<i>P</i> , <i>Q</i> , <i>R</i>)
Τ	T	T	T
Τ	T	F	T
Τ	F	Τ	F
Τ	F	F	F
F	T	Τ	Τ
F	T	F	F
F	F	Τ	Τ
F	F	F	F

We want to find a sentence S(P,Q,R) with as connectives only \neg, \land, \lor , such that $\clubsuit(P,Q,R) \Leftrightarrow S(P,Q,R)$. How?

Q	R	$\clubsuit(P,Q,R)$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	F
F	F	F
Т	Τ	T
T	F	F
F	Τ	T
F	F	F
	T T F F T	T T T F F T T T F

Ρ	Q	R	A(P,Q,R)
T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T
Τ	F	T	F
T	F	F	F
F	T	Τ	T
F	T	F	F
F	F	Τ	T
F	F	F	F

The truth table says: $\P(P, Q, R)$ is true iff

- ightharpoonup P and Q and R are all true, or
- P and Q are both true and R is false, or
- ▶ P is false and Q and R are both true, or
- P and Q are both false and R is true.

Ρ	Q	R	A(P,Q,R)	
T	T	T	T	$(P \wedge Q \wedge R) \vee$
T	T	F	T	$(P \wedge Q \wedge \neg R) \vee$
T	F	T	F	
Τ	F	F	F	
F	Τ	T	T	$(\neg P \land Q \land R) \lor$
F	Τ	F	F	
F	F	T	T	$(\neg P \wedge \neg Q \wedge R)$
F	F	T F T F T F	F	,

Ρ	Q	R	$\clubsuit(P,Q,R)$	
T	T	T	T	$(P \wedge Q \wedge R) \vee$
Τ	T	F	T	$(P \wedge Q \wedge \neg R) \vee$
Τ	F	T	F	
Τ	T F F T T F	F	F	
F	Τ	T	T	$(\neg P \land Q \land R) \lor$
F	T	F	F	
F	F	T	T	$(\neg P \wedge \neg Q \wedge R)$
F	F	F	F	•

and we get

$$\clubsuit(P,Q,R) \Leftrightarrow (P \land Q \land R) \lor (P \land Q \land \neg R) \lor (\neg P \land Q \land R) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q \land R)$$

Definability of the n-ary connective \spadesuit

You can use the following procedure to construct a sentence $S(P_1, \ldots, P_n)$ with as connectives only \neg, \land, \lor , such that $S(P_1, \ldots, P_n)$ is logically equivalent to $\spadesuit(P_1, \ldots, P_n)$.

- ▶ First define the conjunctions C_1, C_m where $m = 2^n$, corresponding to the situations described by the 2^n rows of the truth table.
- ▶ Construct a disjunction $S(P_1, ..., P_n)$ in which you include C_k as one of the disjuncts, if and only if row k in the truth table has value T.
- ▶ But if all rows get value F, then we equate $S(P_1, ..., P_n)$ to $P_1 \land \neg P_1$, or simply the logically equivalent \bot .

We have just sketched a proof that any truth function, of any arity whatsoever, can be expressed using just the Boolean connectives \neg , \wedge and \vee , even in DNF.

Truth-functional completeness

Definition of "truth-functionally complete"

We say that a set of connectives is **truth-functionally complete** if the connectives in the set allow us to express any truth function.

So the set $\{\neg, \land \text{ and } \lor\}$ is truth-functionally complete. But we can go further.

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Economizing on connectives

We can use the De Morgan's Laws to obtain the following:

The set of operators $\{\neg, \lor\}$ is truth-functionally complete.

The set of operators $\{\neg, \wedge\}$ is also truth-functionally complete.

Is it possible to find one operator \downarrow that is in itself truth-functionally complete?

Of course, with only \neg we will not get far.

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And with only \land (or only \lor) we are not able to define $\lnot.$ The same for $\rightarrow,$ \leftrightarrow and % = xor .

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And with only \land (or only \lor) we are not able to define $\lnot.$ The same for $\rightarrow,$ \leftrightarrow and % = xor .

But look at nor. We have

$$P \text{ nor } P \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor P) \Leftrightarrow \neg P$$

so we can define ¬ with nor!

Of course, with only \neg we will not get far.

And with only \land (or only \lor) we are not able to define $\lnot.$ The same for $\rightarrow,$ \leftrightarrow and $\ xor$.

But look at nor. We have

$$P \text{ nor } P \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor P) \Leftrightarrow \neg P$$

so we can define ¬ with nor!

And now we can define ∨, too, for

$$P \lor Q \Leftrightarrow \neg(P \text{ nor } Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \text{ nor } Q) \text{ nor } (P \text{ nor } Q)$$

So nor does it all: it is truth-functionally complete.

Of course, with only \neg we will not get far.

And with only \land (or only \lor) we are not able to define \lnot . The same for \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow and xor .

But look at nor. We have

$$P \text{ nor } P \Leftrightarrow \neg (P \lor P) \Leftrightarrow \neg P$$

so we can define ¬ with nor!

And now we can define \vee , too, for

$$P \lor Q \Leftrightarrow \neg(P \text{ nor } Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \text{ nor } Q) \text{ nor } (P \text{ nor } Q)$$

So nor does it all: it is truth-functionally complete. The same holds for nand.

As we saw, nor is truth-functionally complete, and so is nand . So we can write every sentence using only the connective nor (or nand).

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QUESTION Is it a good idea to do so?

As we saw, nor is truth-functionally complete, and so is $\frac{n}{n}$. So we can write every sentence using only the connective $\frac{n}{n}$ (or $\frac{n}{n}$).

QUESTION Is it a good idea to do so? No, for two reasons:

- the sentences get rather large;
- it becomes very hard to understand a sentence written with only nor.

As we saw, nor is truth-functionally complete, and so is $\frac{1}{1}$ name. So we can write every sentence using only the connective $\frac{1}{1}$ nor $\frac{1}{1}$ (or $\frac{1}{1}$ name).

QUESTION Is it a good idea to do so? No, for two reasons:

- the sentences get rather large;
- it becomes very hard to understand a sentence written with only nor.

The second reason also applies to some extent to $\{\neg, \land\}$ and to $\{\neg, \lor\}$.

For good understanding of a sentence, the collection of connectives $\{\neg, \land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$ is most often a good basis.

Therefore, in the rest of LPL the authors do not skimp on connectives.

Next time: Monday, December 4

Formative Homework assignment 1

Available on Nestor, under Tests/Homeworks.

Hand in a physical copy, at the start of lecture 5 on Monday 4 December 13:00, work in pairs.

Topics of the lecture of Monday December 5 Set theory and functions.