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# CS 1010 Discrete Structures

## Lecture 1:

### Logic

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# Mathematical Reasoning

- How to express ideas mathematically?
- A standard style that is unambiguous to interpret.
- English language can be very ambiguous.
  - ▶ For eg: *If you can solve any problem we come up with, then you get an A for the course.*
  - ▶ What happens if you can solve some problems, can you get an A?
  - ▶ What if you can not solve even a single one of the problems, can you get an A?

# Introduction to Logic

- Uncertain meanings is okay in a conversation but in mathematics and programming, ambiguities can be a problem.
- Mathematicians introduced the language of logic to get around this ambiguity.
- We will also see an important open problem in computer science in this study of language of logic.
- Logic rules have applications in the design of computer circuits, in the design of computer programs, etc.

# Propositions

- Basic building block of logic.
- Proposition is a declarative sentence that is either true or false but not both.
- Examples:  $1 + 1 = 2$ , Toronto is the capital city of Canada.
- Not examples: Read this carefully,  $x + 1 = 2$
- Propositions are represented by propositional variables such as  $p, q, r, s, \dots$  or  $P, Q, R, S, \dots$
- Truth value of a proposition is true (T) if it is a true proposition and false (F) if it is a false proposition.
- Propositional Calculus or Propositional Logic : Area of logic that deals with propositions.
- Developed first by Aristotle 2300 years ago.

# Compound Propositions

- Producing new propositions from logical operators.
- Discussed first by George Boole (of Boolean algebra fame) in 1854, a British mathematician who did a lot of work in logic.
- Propositional variables are also called Boolean variables.
- **NOT ( $\neg$ ), AND ( $\wedge$ ), OR ( $\vee$ ), IFF ( $\leftrightarrow$ ), IMPLIES ( $\Rightarrow/\rightarrow$ ): operations that change or combine propositions.**
- Precise meaning is expressed by **truth tables**.
- If  $P$  is a proposition then so is  $\text{NOT}(P)$ .

$P$	$\text{NOT}(P)$
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>

# Compound Propositions

$P$	$Q$	$P \text{ AND } Q$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>

$P$	$Q$	$P \text{ OR } Q$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>

$P \text{ OR } Q$  is true even if **both  $P$  and  $Q$  are true.**

*"You may have cake, or you may have ice cream"* in mathematics means you can have both!

# XOR

If you want to exclude the case where both  $P$  and  $Q$  are true:

Exclusive-or/  $\oplus$

$P$	$Q$	$P \text{ XOR } Q$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>

Students who have taken calculus or computer science, *but not both*, can take this class.



# IMPLIES

$P$  IMPLIES ( $\Rightarrow, \rightarrow$ )  $Q$

$P$	$Q$	$P$ IMPLIES $Q$	
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	(tt)
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	(tf)
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	(ft)
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	(ff)

An implication is true exactly when the if-part is false or the then-part is true.

A large fraction of all mathematical statements are of the if-then form.

How many rows in a truth table if there are  $n$  variables? Each variable can take 2 values ( $T$  or  $F$ ) so there are  $2^n$  different assignments/rows in the truth table.



## Implicit use of IFFs

- IFF or biconditionals are not always explicitly stated, especially in casual English language.
- For eg: "If you finish your lunch, then you can have ice-cream" typically means "If you have lunch you can have ice-cream" and "You can have ice-cream *only if* if you have your lunch".
- In mathematics we have to explicitly specify if we mean the conditional statement  $p \rightarrow q$  or biconditional  $p \leftrightarrow q$ .

# False Hypothesis

- In mathematics, an implication as a whole is considered true when its hypothesis is false.
- This may seem strange since we look at a causal connection between the hypotheses and conclusions.
- Consider this statement:
  - ▶ If you followed the security protocol, then your account won't get hacked.
  - ▶ Mathematically and casually the proposition is true. There is a clear relation between protocols and account hackability.
- Consider the statement:
  - ▶ If pigs could fly, then your account won't get hacked.
  - ▶ Causally, this is false since there is no relation between pigs flying and account hackability. Mathematically this implication counts as true.
- Easier to analyze when we look at it abstractly as  $P, p$ , etc.

# Equivalence of Propositions

- Two compound propositions  $p, q$  are **logically equivalent** ( $p \equiv q$ ) if for all assignments they evaluate to the same truth values, i.e. same truth table.
- $p \text{ XOR } q \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge \neg(p \wedge q)$ . Or equivalently,
- $p \text{ XOR } q \equiv (p \wedge \neg q) \vee (\neg p \wedge q)$ .
- $p \rightarrow q \equiv (\neg p \vee q)$ .
  - ▶ This is a very useful way to think about the implication.
- **Verify all the above equivalences using truth tables.**
- Order of precedence: NOT, AND, OR. Preferred way is to use parenthesis.
- And IFF and IMPLIES take lower precedence in which IMPLIES takes higher precedence.

# Contrapositive

$p \rightarrow q \equiv (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$  This is called the contrapositive.

$p$	$q$	$\neg q$	$\neg p$	$\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$
$T$	$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$T$	$F$	$F$
$F$	$T$	$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$

Same truth table as  $p \rightarrow q$ .

# Equivalence of Propositions

- Logical equivalences are an extremely useful tool in reasoning.
- But having to build truth tables do not seem like the most efficient/intuitive method.
- So let us look at how to build new equivalences from basic logical identities.
- A compound proposition that is always true is called a **tautology**.
  - ▶  $p \vee \neg p$
- One that is always false is called a **contradiction**.
  - ▶  $p \wedge \neg p$

# Equivalence of Propositions

- Another way of defining equivalence of  $p$  and  $q$ :
  - ▶  $p \equiv q$  if  $p \leftrightarrow q$  is a tautology.
- Note:  $\equiv$  is not a logical connective and  $p \equiv q$  is not a compound proposition, it is just a statement.
- $\Leftrightarrow$  is sometimes used instead of  $\equiv$  to denote logical equivalence.
- So how do we infer long, complicated equivalences from logical equivalences that we have?

# De Morgan's Laws

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

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

How to show these? Use truth tables.



# Augustus De Morgan

- Augustus De Morgan in 1840s made contributions to symbolic logic.
- Extremely prolific writer, author of  $> 1000$  articles that include biographies of Newton and Halley.
- Gave the first clear explanation of mathematical induction.
- Born in India.

# Basic Logical Identities/Equivalences

## Identity Laws

$$p \wedge T \equiv p$$

$$p \vee F \equiv p$$

## Domination Laws

$$p \vee T \equiv T$$

$$p \wedge F \equiv F$$

## Idempotent Laws

$$p \vee p \equiv p$$

$$p \wedge p \equiv p$$

# Basic Logical Identities/Equivalences

## Double Negation

$$\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$$

## Commutative Laws

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

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

## Associative Laws

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

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

# Basic Logical Identities/Equivalences

## Distributive Laws

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

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

## De Morgan's Laws

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

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

# Basic Logical Identities/Equivalences

## Absorption Laws

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

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

## Negation Laws

$$p \vee \neg p \equiv T$$

$$p \wedge \neg p \equiv F$$

# Equivalences relating to Conditional Statements

$$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q$$

$$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$$

$$p \wedge \neg p \equiv F$$

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

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

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

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

$$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$$

$$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv \neg p \leftrightarrow \neg q$$

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

# Basic Operators

- From the previous equivalences it is clear that AND, OR and NOT, what we call basic operators, can capture any truth table. (Verify)
- XOR, IFF, IMPLIES are called **secondary operators**.
- In fact **from De Morgan's laws we can conclude that we do not need both OR and AND to capture all truth tables.**
- $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$  and
- $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$
- This also will be needed:  $\neg(\neg p) = p$ .
- Using the logical identities you can show the equivalence of more complicated identities.



# Building from basic identities

T.S.T.  $\neg(p \rightarrow q)$  and  $p \wedge \neg q$  are equivalent.

$$\begin{aligned}\neg(p \rightarrow q) &\equiv \neg(\neg p \vee q) \\ &\equiv \neg(\neg p) \wedge \neg q \text{ (De Morgan Law)} \\ &\equiv p \wedge \neg q \text{ (Double Negation Law)}\end{aligned}$$

# Satisfiability

- A compound proposition is **satisfiable** if there is an assignment of truth values to its variables that makes it true.
- When no such assignments exists, the compound proposition is **unsatisfiable**.
- That is, there is no assignment of truth values that can make it true.
- **A proposition is unsatisfiable iff its negation is a tautology.**
- The assignment of truth values that makes a proposition true and therefore shows that it is satisfiable is called **a solution of the satisfiability problem**.
- To show unsatisfiability we need to show that **every assignment of truth values to its variables makes it false**.
- Using a truth table can be very tedious, we would prefer to reason out using identities.

# SAT problem

- We are given a complicated proposition like the one below and asked to show if it is satisfiable or not.

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

- The general problem of **deciding whether a proposition is satisfiable is called SAT**.
- Build a truth table and see if a  $T$  appears – the problem with this approach is it grows exponentially with the number of variables.
- Is there an **efficient** solution to SAT?

# SAT problem

- What do we mean by efficient? Something that grows **polynomially in number of variables**. That is something like  $n^{14}$  and not  $2^n$ .
- No one knows the answer. In fact, if the answer is yes a lot of other problems will have efficient solutions!
- This may or may not be a good thing since cryptographic systems will break down.
- The problem of determining whether or not SAT has a poly-time solution is essentially the **P versus NP problem**.
- A very important open question in computer science, one of the 7 Millenium Problems.
- Solving which will mean you will win a million dollars.

# SAT problem

- SAT-solvers is an active area of research.
- They find satisfying assignments with amazing efficiency even for formulas with millions of variables.
- But there are problems:
  - ▶ Which formulas work for SAT-solver methods is hard to predict.
  - ▶ For unsatisfiable formulas SAT-solvers can be less effective.