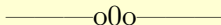


FPT UNIVERSITY



THE FOUNDATIONS: LOGIC AND PROOFS

DISCRETE MATHEMATIS

Lecture: Dr. Nguyen Kieu Linh

Hanoi, 2021

Content

- 1 1.1 Propositional Logic
- 2 1.2 Propositional Equivalences
- 3 1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers
- 4 1.4 Nested Quantifiers
- 5 1.5 Rules of Inference

Content

- 1 1.1 Propositional Logic
- 2 1.2 Propositional Equivalences
- 3 1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers
- 4 1.4 Nested Quantifiers
- 5 1.5 Rules of Inference

1.1.1 Propositional Logic

Definition

A **proposition** (proposition logic) is a declarative sentence that is either true or false, but not both.

Example

All the following declarative sentences are propositions.

- Hanoi is the capital of Vietnam.
- Ho Chi Minh city is a big center of Laos.
- $1 + 1 = 2$.
- $2 + 3 = 4$.

1.1.1 Propositional Logic

Example

All the following sentences are not propositions.

- What time is it?
- Read this carefully.
- $x + 1 = 2$.
- $x + y = z$.

1.1.1 Propositional Logic

Note

- We use letters p, q, r, s, \dots to denote propositionals.
- The truth value of a proposition is true, denoted by T, if it is a true proposition, and the truth value of a proposition is false, denoted by F, if it is a false proposition.

Truth table

- p : "I am a Math teacher"

p
True / T / 1
False / F / 0

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

Let p be a proposition. **The negation** of p , denoted by $\neg p$ (also denoted by \bar{p}), is the statement “It is not the case that p .” The proposition $\neg p$ is read “not p .” The truth value of the negation of p , $\neg p$, is the opposite of the truth value of p .

p	\bar{p}
1	0
0	1

1.1.2 Logical operators

Example

- p_1 : Michael's PC runs Linux.
 $\neg p_1$: Michael's PC does not run Linux.
or
 $\neg p_1$: It is not the case that Michael's PC runs Linux.
- $p_2 : 2 > 1$
 $\neg p_2 : 2 \leq 1$

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

Let p and q be propositions. **The conjunction** of p and q , denoted by $p \wedge q$, is the proposition “ p and q .” The conjunction $p \wedge q$ is true when both p and q are true and is false otherwise.

p	q	$p \wedge q$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Example

- p : The summer is hot. q : The winter is cold.

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

Let p and q be propositions. **The conjunction** of p and q , denoted by $p \wedge q$, is the proposition “ p and q .” The conjunction $p \wedge q$ is true when both p and q are true and is false otherwise.

p	q	$p \wedge q$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Example

- p : The summer is hot. q : The winter is cold.
- $p \wedge q$: The summer is hot, and the winter is cold
or
 $p \wedge q$: The summer is hot, but the winter is cold.

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

Let p and q be propositions. **The disjunction** of p and q , denoted by $p \vee q$, is the proposition “ p or q .” The disjunction $p \vee q$ is false when both p and q are false and is true otherwise.

p	q	$p \vee q$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

Example

- p : The summer is hot. q : The winter is cold.

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

Let p and q be propositions. **The disjunction** of p and q , denoted by $p \vee q$, is the proposition “ p or q .” The disjunction $p \vee q$ is false when both p and q are false and is true otherwise.

p	q	$p \vee q$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

Example

- p : The summer is hot. q : The winter is cold.
- $p \vee q$: The summer is hot, or the winter is cold

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

Let p and q be propositions. **The exclusive or (xor)** of p and q , denoted by $p \oplus q$, is the proposition that is true when exactly one of p and q is true and is false otherwise.

p	q	$p \oplus q$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

- Let p and q be propositions. **The conditional statement (implication)** $p \rightarrow q$ is the proposition “if p , then q .” The conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is false when p is true and q is false, and true otherwise.
- In the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$, p is called the hypothesis (or antecedent or premise) and q is called the conclusion (or consequence).

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

- “If $1 + 1 = 3$, then dogs can fly”.

1.1.2 Logical operators

Because conditional statements play such an essential role in mathematical reasoning, a variety of terminology is used to express $P \rightarrow q$. You will encounter most if not all of the following ways to express this conditional statement:

- "if p, then q" or "if p, q" or "p only if q."
- "p is sufficient for q" or "a necessary condition for p is q"
- "a sufficient condition for q is p" or "q whenever p"
- "q if p" or "q when p"
- "a necessary condition for p is q" or "q unless $\neg p$ "
- "p implies q" or "p only if q"
- "q is necessary for p" or "q follows from p."

1.1.2 Logical operators

Example

p : Maria learns discrete mathematics, q : she will find a good job.

1.1.2 Logical operators

Example

p : Maria learns discrete mathematics, q : she will find a good job.

- $p \rightarrow q$: If Maria learns discrete mathematics, then she will find a good job.
- $p \rightarrow q$: Maria will find a good job when she learns discrete mathematics.
- $p \rightarrow q$: For Maria to get a good job, it is sufficient for her to learn discrete mathematics.
- $p \rightarrow q$: Maria will find a good job unless she does not learn discrete mathematics.

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

Let p and q be propositions. The **biconditional statement** $p \leftrightarrow q$ is the proposition “ p if and only if q .” The biconditional statement $p \leftrightarrow q$ is true when p and q have the same truth values, and is false otherwise. Biconditional statements are also called bi-implications.

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$q \rightarrow p$	$(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$	$p \leftrightarrow q$
0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1

Example

p : You can take the flight, q : You buy a ticket.

1.1.2 Logical operators

Definition

Let p and q be propositions. The **biconditional statement** $p \leftrightarrow q$ is the proposition “ p if and only if q .” The biconditional statement $p \leftrightarrow q$ is true when p and q have the same truth values, and is false otherwise. Biconditional statements are also called bi-implications.

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$q \rightarrow p$	$(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$	$p \leftrightarrow q$
0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1

Example

p : You can take the flight, q : You buy a ticket.

- $p \leftrightarrow q$: You can take the flight if and only if you buy a ticket.

1.1.3 Truth Tables of Compound Propositions

Example

Construct the truth table of the compound proposition

1. $(\neg p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \vee q)$
2. $(p \wedge \neg q) \rightarrow (p \oplus q)$
3. $(p \oplus \neg q) \leftrightarrow (p \rightarrow q)$
4. $(p \leftrightarrow q) \oplus (p \vee q)$

1.1.4 Precedence of Logical Operators

The following table displays the precedence levels of the logical operators, \neg , \wedge , \vee , \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow .

Operator	Precedence
\neg	1
\wedge	2
\vee	3
\rightarrow	4
\leftrightarrow	5

Example

- i. $\neg p \wedge q$ is the same as $(\neg p) \wedge q$
- ii. $p \vee q \rightarrow r$ is the same as $(p \vee q) \rightarrow r$

Content

- 1 1.1 Propositional Logic
- 2 1.2 Propositional Equivalences
- 3 1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers
- 4 1.4 Nested Quantifiers
- 5 1.5 Rules of Inference

1.2.1 Introduction

Definition

A compound proposition that is always true, no matter what the truth values of the propositional variables that occur in it, is called a **tautology** (hằng đúng). A compound proposition that is always false is called a **contradiction** (mâu thuẫn).

When $p \leftrightarrow q$ is tautology, we say “ p and q are called logically equivalence”. Notation: $p \equiv q$.

Example

Consider the truth tables of $p \vee \neg p$ and $p \wedge \neg p$?

1.2.2 Logical Equivalences

Definition

The compound propositions p and q are called **logically equivalent** if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology. The notation $p \equiv q$ denotes that p and q are logically equivalent.

Example

Show that the following compound propositions are logically equivalents (De Morgan laws).

- $\neg(p \vee q)$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$.
- $\neg(p \wedge q)$ and $\neg p \vee \neg q$.

Example

Show that $p \rightarrow q$ and $\neg p \vee q$ are logically equivalent.

1.2.2 Logical Equivalences

Equivalence	Name
$p \wedge T \equiv p$ $p \vee F \equiv p$	Identity laws- Luật đồng nhất
$p \vee T \equiv T$ $p \wedge F \equiv F$	Domination Laws – Luật chi phối
$p \vee p \equiv p$ $p \wedge p \equiv p$	Idempotent Laws – Luật bất biến
$\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$	Double Negation Laws – Luật đảo kép
$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$ $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$	Commutative Laws – Luật giao hoán
$(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$ $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$	Associative Laws – Luật kết hợp
$p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	Distributive Laws – Luật phân phối
$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$ $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$	De Morgan Laws
$p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$ $p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$	Absorption Laws – Luật hấp thụ
$p \vee \neg p \equiv T$ $p \wedge \neg p \equiv F$	Negation Laws - Luật nghịch đảo

1.2.2 Logical Equivalences

Equivalences	Equivalences
$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q$	$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$
$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$	$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv \neg p \leftrightarrow \neg q$
$p \vee q \equiv \neg p \rightarrow q$	$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q)$
$p \wedge q \equiv \neg (p \rightarrow \neg q)$	$\neg (p \leftrightarrow q) \equiv p \leftrightarrow \neg q$
$\neg (p \rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$	
$(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (p \rightarrow r) \equiv p \rightarrow (q \wedge r)$	
$(p \rightarrow r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r) \equiv (p \vee q) \rightarrow r$	
$(p \rightarrow q) \vee (p \rightarrow r) \equiv p \rightarrow (q \vee r)$	
$(p \rightarrow r) \vee (q \rightarrow r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \rightarrow r$	

Content

- 1 1.1 Propositional Logic
- 2 1.2 Propositional Equivalences
- 3 1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers
- 4 1.4 Nested Quantifiers
- 5 1.5 Rules of Inference

1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers

Definition

- **Predicate logic (vị từ)** is used to express the meaning of a wide range of statements in mathematics and computer science in ways that permit us to reason and explore relationships between objects.
- There is an important way, called **quantification (lượng từ)**, to create a proposition from a propositional function.

Example

1. $P(x)$ = “ x is a prime number”, called **propositional function** at x .
 - $P(2)$ = “2 is a prime number” \rightarrow True
 - $P(4)$ = “4 is a prime number” \rightarrow False

1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers

Example

2. $Q(x, y) = "x = y + 3"$ also called an **2-place predicate or a 2-ary predicate**
 - $Q(1, 2) = "1 = 2 + 3"$: False
 - $Q(5, 2) = "5 = 2 + 3"$: True
3. $R(x, y, z) = "x^2 = y^2 + z^2"$ also called an **3-place predicate or a 3-ary predicate**
 - $R(2, 3, 5) = "2^2 = 3^2 + 5^2"$: False
 - $R(10, 8, 6) = "10^2 = 8^2 + 6^2"$: True

1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers

Quantifiers (Lượng từ)

- The words in natural language: all, some, many, none, few, ... are used in quantifications.
- The universal quantification (lượng từ phổ dụng) of $P(x)$ is the statement “ $P(x)$ for all values of x in the domain”. Notation : $\forall xP(x)$.
- The existential quantification (lượng từ tồn tại) of $P(x)$ is the statement “There exists an element x in the domain such that $P(x)$ ”. Notation : $\exists xP(x)$.
- Uniqueness quantifier (Lượng từ tồn tại duy nhất): $\exists!xP(x)$ or $\exists_1xP(x)$.

1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers

Statement	When True?	When False?
$\forall x P(x)$	$P(x)$ is true for every x	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false
$\exists x P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true	$P(x)$ is false for every x

- *Example:* Let $P(x)$ be the statement “ $x + 1 > x$ ”. What is the truth value of the quantification $\forall x P(x)$, where the domain consists of all real numbers?
- *Solution:* Because $P(x)$ is true for all real numbers x , the quantification $\forall x P(x)$ is true.

1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers

- *Example:* Let $Q(x)$ be the statement “ $x < 2$.” What is the truth value of the quantification $\forall xQ(x)$, where the domain consists of all real numbers?
- *Solution:* $Q(x)$ is not true for every real number x , because, for instance, $Q(3)$ is false. That is, $x = 3$ is a counterexample for the statement $\forall xQ(x)$. Thus $\forall xQ(x)$ is false.
- *Example:* Let $P(x)$ denote the statement “ $x > 3$.” What is the truth value of the quantification $\exists xP(x)$, where the domain consists of all real numbers?
- *Solution:* Because “ $x > 3$ ” is sometimes true for instance, when $x = 4$ the existential quantification of $P(x)$, which is $\exists xP(x)$, is true.

1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers

Note

- The quantifiers \forall and \exists have higher precedence than all logical operators from propositional calculus.
- *Example:* $\forall x P(x) \vee Q(x)$ is the disjunction of $\forall x P(x)$ and $Q(x)$. In other words, it means $(\forall x P(x)) \vee Q(x)$ rather than $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$.
- *Example:* $\forall x < 0 (x^2 > 0)$: states that for every real number x with $x < 0$, $x^2 > 0$. This statement is the same as $\forall x (x < 0 \rightarrow x^2 > 0)$.
- *Example* $\exists z > 0 (z^2 = 2)$: states that there exists a real number z with $z > 0$ such that $z^2 = 2$. This statement is equivalent to $\exists z (z > 0 \wedge z^2 = 2)$.

Logical Equivalences Involving Quantifiers

Note

- Statements involving predicates and quantifiers are **logically equivalent** if and only if they have the same truth value.
- Example:* $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \equiv \forall xP(x) \wedge \forall xQ(x)$.

Expression	Equivalence	Expression	Negation
$\neg \exists x P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$	$\exists x P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$
$\neg \forall x P(x)$	$\exists x \neg P(x)$	$\forall x P(x)$	$\exists x \neg P(x)$

Exercises

1. Which compound proposition is True when $p = r = \text{True}$ and $q = \text{False}$, and is False otherwise?

Select 1:

- a. $p \wedge \neg q \wedge \neg r$
- b. $p \vee q \wedge \neg r$
- c. $\neg p \wedge \neg q \wedge \neg r$
- d. $p \wedge q \wedge \neg r$
- e. $p \wedge \neg q \wedge r$

2. Given two propositions:

$p = \text{"I went to Paris."}$ $q = \text{"I visit Eiffel Tower"}$

- I visit Eiffel Tower only if I go to Paris.
- I cannot visit Eiffel Tower if I do not go to Paris.
- Whenever I go to Paris, I visit Eiffel Tower.
- Going to Paris is a sufficient condition for visiting Eiffel Tower.

3. Let p, q be two propositions. Which propositions are logically equivalent to $p \rightarrow q$?

- $\bar{p} \vee q$
- $\bar{p} \vee \bar{q}$
- $p \vee q$
- $\bar{p} \wedge q$

4. Which propositions are contradiction?

- $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p) \wedge (p \oplus q)$
- $[(p \rightarrow q) \vee (q \rightarrow p)] \wedge (p \oplus q)$
- $(p \rightarrow q) \vee (q \rightarrow p) \vee (p \oplus q)$

Content

- 1 1.1 Propositional Logic
- 2 1.2 Propositional Equivalences
- 3 1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers
- 4 1.4 Nested Quantifiers
- 5 1.5 Rules of Inference

1.4 Nested Quantifiers

- $\forall x \exists y (x + y = 0)$ is the same thing as $\forall x Q(x)$, where $Q(x)$ is $\exists y P(x, y)$, where $P(x, y)$ is $x + y = 0$.
- $\forall x \forall y (x + y = y + x)$: $x + y = y + x$ for all real numbers x and y .
- $\forall x \exists y (x + y = 0)$: "for every real number x there is a real number y such that $x + y = 0$."

1.4 Nested Quantifiers

Statement	When True?	When False?
$\forall x \forall y P(x,y)$ $\forall y \forall x P(x,y)$	$P(x, y)$ is true for every pair x, y .	There is a pair x, y for which $P(x, y)$ is false.
$\forall x \exists y P(x,y)$	For every x there is a y for which $P(x, y)$ is true.	There is an x such that $P(x, y)$ is false for every y .
$\exists x \forall y P(x,y)$	There is an x for which $P(x,y)$ is true for every y .	For every x there is a y for which $P(x, y)$ is false.
$\exists x \exists y P(x,y)$ $\exists y \exists x P(x,y)$	There is a pair x, y for which $P(x, y)$ is true.	$P(x, y)$ is false for every pair x, y .

1.4 Nested Quantifiers

- Translate the statement $\forall x(C(x) \vee \exists y(C(y) \wedge F(x, y)))$ into English, where $C(x)$ is “ x has a computer,” $F(x, y)$ is “ x and y are friends,” and the domain for both x and y consists of all students in your school.
- For every student x in your school, x has a computer or there is a student y such that y has a computer and x and y are friends.
- Or: every student in your school has a computer or has a friend who has a computer.

1.4 Nested Quantifiers

- Translate the logical expression into sentence, domain is all real numbers

$$\forall x \forall y ((x < 0) \wedge (y < 0)) \rightarrow (xy > 0))$$

Select one:

- The product of two negative numbers is negative.
- For each negative number x there is a negative number y such that xy is positive.
- There is a negative number x and there is a negative number y such that xy is positive.
- The product of two negative numbers is positive

1.4 Nested Quantifiers

Let

$P(x)$ = “ x goes to class regularly”

$Q(x)$ = “ x reads books”

$R(x)$ = “ x passed the exam.”

Translate the sentence into logical expression, domain is the set of all students in class.

“Some student who goes to class regularly and reads books has failed the exam.”

1.4 Nested Quantifiers

TABLE 2 De Morgan's Laws for Quantifiers.

<i>Negation</i>	<i>Equivalent Statement</i>	<i>When Is Negation True?</i>	<i>When False?</i>
$\neg \exists x P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$	For every x , $P(x)$ is false.	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.
$\neg \forall x P(x)$	$\exists x \neg P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.	$P(x)$ is true for every x .

$$\begin{aligned}\neg \forall x \exists y (xy = 1) &\equiv \exists x \neg \exists y (xy = 1) \text{ (De Morgan laws)} \\ &\equiv (\exists x)(\forall y) \neg (xy = 1) \\ &\equiv (\exists x)(\forall y)(xy \neq 1)\end{aligned}$$

Content

- 1 1.1 Propositional Logic
- 2 1.2 Propositional Equivalences
- 3 1.3 Predicates and Quantifiers
- 4 1.4 Nested Quantifiers
- 5 1.5 Rules of Inference

1.5 Rules of Inference

- "If you have a current password, then you can log onto the network."
- "You have a current password."
- Therefore,
"You can log onto the network"

$$p \rightarrow q$$

$$p$$

$$\hline$$

$$\therefore q$$

1.5 Rules of Inference

- An **argument** in propositional logic is a sequence of propositions. All but the final proposition in the argument are called **premises** and the final proposition is called the **conclusion**. An argument is valid if the truth of all its premises implies that the conclusion is true.
- An **argument form** in propositional logic is a sequence of compound propositions involving propositional variables. An argument form is **valid** no matter which particular propositions are substituted for the propositional variables in its premises, the conclusion is true if the premises are all true.
- The argument form with premises p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n and conclusion q is valid, when $(p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n) \rightarrow q$ is a tautology.

1.5 Rules of Inference

- Proposition 1 (Hypothesis - giả thiết)
- Proposition 2
- Proposition 3
- Proposition 4
-
- Proposition n (Conclusion)

1.5 Rules of Inference

Rule	Tautology	Name
$\frac{p}{p \rightarrow q} \therefore q$	$[p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)] \rightarrow q$ You work hard If you work hard then you will pass the examination \therefore you will pass the examination	Modus ponens (law of detachment-luật tách)
$\frac{\neg q}{p \rightarrow q} \therefore \neg p$	$[\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)] \rightarrow \neg p$ She did not get a prize If she is good at learning she will get a prize \therefore She is not good at learning	Modus tollens
$\frac{p \rightarrow q}{q \rightarrow r} \therefore p \rightarrow r$	$[(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)] \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$ If the prime interest rate goes up then the stock prices go down . If the stock prices go down then most people are unhappy . If the prime interest rate goes up then most people are unhappy .	Hypothetical syllogism – Tam đoạn luận giả thiết, Quy tắc bắc cầu

1.5 Rules of Inference

Rule	Tautology	Name
$p \vee q$ $\underline{\neg p}$ $\therefore q$	$[(p \vee q) \wedge \neg p] \rightarrow q$ Power puts off or the lamp is malfunctional Power doesn't put off the lamp is malfunctional	Disjunctive syllogism (Tam đoạn luận)
\underline{p} $\therefore p \vee q$	$p \rightarrow (p \vee q)$ It is below freezing now It is below freezing now or raining now	Addition
$\underline{p \wedge q}$ $\therefore p$	$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$ It is below freezing now and raining now It is below freezing now	Simplication
p \underline{q} $\therefore p \wedge q$	$[(p) \wedge (q)] \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$ She studied hard She got good grades She studied hard and got good grades	Conjunction
$p \vee q$ $\underline{\neg p \vee r}$ $\therefore q \vee r$	$[(p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)] \rightarrow (q \vee r)$ Jasmin is skiing OR it is not snowing It is snowing OR Bart is playing hockey Jasmin is skiing OR Bart is playing hockey	Resolution

1.5 Rules of Inference

Rule	Name
$\frac{\forall xP(x)}{\therefore P(c)}$	Universal Instantiation Cụ thể hóa lượng từ phổ dụng
$\frac{P(c) \text{ for arbitrary } c}{\therefore \forall xP(x)}$	Universal generalization Tổng quát hóa bằng lượng từ phổ dụng
$\frac{\exists xP(x)}{\therefore P(c) \text{ for some element } c}$	Existential instantiation Chuyên biệt hóa
$\frac{P(c) \text{ for some element } c}{\therefore \exists xP(x)}$	Existential generalization Khái quát hóa bằng lượng từ tồn tại

Fallacies – nguy hiểm – sai logic

- If you do every problem in this book then you will learn discrete mathematic.
- you learned mathematic
Therefore, you did every problem in this book.
- $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge q \rightarrow p$ (false)
- $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge q \rightarrow q$ (absorption law - luật hấp thụ)
 \therefore no information for p
- p can true or false, so you may learn discrete mathematic but you might do some problems only.

Exercises

1. Given an argument: ‘ If Jack is a soccer player then Jack is rich. Jack only plays pingpong. Therefore Jack is not rich.’ Choose correct statement:

- a. This valid argument is based on modus tollens
- b. This valid argument is based on disjunctive syllogism
- c. This valid argument is based on hypothetical syllogism
- d. This valid argument is based on modus ponens
- e. This argument is a fallacy.

Exercises

1. Given an argument: ‘ If Jack is a soccer player then Jack is rich. Jack only plays pingpong. Therefore Jack is not rich.’ Choose correct statement:

- a. This valid argument is based on modus tollens
- b. This valid argument is based on disjunctive syllogism
- c. This valid argument is based on hypothetical syllogism
- d. This valid argument is based on modus ponens
- e. **This argument is a fallacy.**

Exercises

2. Find the negation of

$$\exists y(Q(x, y) \wedge \forall x \neg R(x, y))$$

Select one:

- a. $\forall y(\neg Q(x, y) \wedge \exists x R(x, y))$
- b. $\forall y(\neg Q(x, y) \vee \exists x \neg R(x, y))$
- c. $\forall y(\neg Q(x, y) \vee \forall x R(x, y))$
- d. $\forall y(\neg Q(x, y) \vee \exists x R(x, y))$

Exercises

2. Find the negation of

$$\exists y(Q(x, y) \wedge \forall x \neg R(x, y))$$

Select one:

- a. $\forall y(\neg Q(x, y) \wedge \exists x R(x, y))$
- b. $\forall y(\neg Q(x, y) \vee \exists x \neg R(x, y))$
- c. $\forall y(\neg Q(x, y) \vee \forall x R(x, y))$
- d. $\forall y(\neg Q(x, y) \vee \exists x R(x, y))$

Exercises

3. Which statements are correct?

Select one:

- a. $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $\forall xP(x) \rightarrow \forall xQ(x)$ have the same truth values
- b. $\forall x(P(x) \vee Q(x))$ and $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ have the same truth values
- c. $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ and $\forall xP(x) \wedge \forall xQ(x)$ have the same truth values.

Exercises

3. Which statements are correct?

Select one:

- a. $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ and $\forall xP(x) \rightarrow \forall xQ(x)$ have the same truth values
- b. $\forall x(P(x) \vee Q(x))$ and $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ have the same truth values
- c. $\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ and $\forall xP(x) \wedge \forall xQ(x)$ have the same truth values.