1166 Chapter 1

1.1

Propositions

Our discussion begins with an introduction to the basic building blocks of logic—propositions. A **proposition** is a declarative sentence (that is, a sentence that declares a fact) that is either true or false, but not both.

Let p be a proposition. The *negation of* p, denoted by $\neg p$ (also denoted by $\overline{p}$), 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.

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.

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.

Let p and q be propositions. The *exclusive or* 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.

Let p and q be propositions. The *conditional statement* $p \rightarrow q$ 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*).

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TABLE 5 The Truth Table for the Conditional Statement $p \rightarrow q$.

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

"if p, then q"
"if p, q"
"p is sufficient for q"
"q if p"
"q when p"
"a necessary condition for p is q"
"q unless $\neg p$"

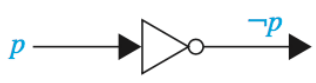
"p implies q"
"p only if q"
"a sufficient condition for q is p"
"q whenever p"
"q is necessary for p"
"q follows from p"

Conditional Statement	$p \rightarrow q$	If p, then q
Converse	$q \rightarrow p$	If q, then p
Inverse	$\sim p \rightarrow \sim q$	If not p, then not q
Contrapositive	$\sim q \rightarrow \sim p$	If not q, then not p

TABLE 8
Precedence of Logical Operators.

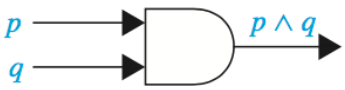
Operator	*Precedence*
$\neg$	1
$\wedge$	2
$\vee$	3
$\rightarrow$	4
$\leftrightarrow$	5

1.2



Inverter

OR gate



AND gate

1.3

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*. A compound proposition that is always false is called a *contradiction*. A compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction is called a *contingency*.

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.

When trying to prove tautology, contradiction or logically equivalent**, constructing a truth table always helps!**

TABLE 2 De Morgan's Laws.

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

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

TABLE 6 Logical Equivalences.

Equivalence	*Name*
$p \wedge \mathbf{T} \equiv p$ $p \vee \mathbf{F} \equiv p$	Identity laws
$p \vee \mathbf{T} \equiv \mathbf{T}$ $p \wedge \mathbf{F} \equiv \mathbf{F}$	Domination laws
$p \vee p \equiv p$ $p \wedge p \equiv p$	Idempotent laws
$\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$	Double negation law
$p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$ $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$	Commutative laws
$(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r)$ $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r)$	Associative laws
$p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	Distributive laws
$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$ $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$	De Morgan's laws
$p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$ $p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$	Absorption laws
$p \vee \neg p \equiv \mathbf{T}$ $p \wedge \neg p \equiv \mathbf{F}$	Negation laws

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Two ways to show logically equivalent: Truth Table or developing a series of logical equivalences.

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

TABLE 4 Truth Tables for $\neg p \vee q$ and $p \rightarrow q$.

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

Show that $\neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q))$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ are logically equivalent by developing a series of logical equivalences.

Solution: We will use one of the equivalences in Table 6 at a time, starting with $\neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q))$ and ending with $\neg p \wedge \neg q$. (*Note:* we could also easily establish this equivalence using a truth table.) We have the following equivalences.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q)) &\equiv \neg p \wedge \neg(\neg p \wedge q) && \text{by the second De Morgan law} \\
&\equiv \neg p \wedge [\neg(\neg p) \vee \neg q] && \text{by the first De Morgan law} \\
&\equiv \neg p \wedge (p \vee \neg q) && \text{by the double negation law} \\
&\equiv (\neg p \wedge p) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) && \text{by the second distributive law} \\
&\equiv \mathbf{F} \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) && \text{because } \neg p \wedge p \equiv \mathbf{F} \\
&\equiv (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \vee \mathbf{F} && \text{by the commutative law for disjunction} \\
&\equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q && \text{by the identity law for } \mathbf{F}
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently $\neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q))$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ are logically equivalent. ◀

** logical equivalences can also be used for showing tautology, but Truth Table is always the most direct way

Show that $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \vee q)$ is a tautology.

Solution: To show that this statement is a tautology, we will use logical equivalences to demonstrate that it is logically equivalent to $\mathbf{T}$. (*Note:* This could also be done using a truth table.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \vee q) &\equiv \neg(p \wedge q) \vee (p \vee q) && \text{by Example 3} \\
&\equiv (\neg p \vee \neg q) \vee (p \vee q) && \text{by the first De Morgan law} \\
&\equiv (\neg p \vee p) \vee (\neg q \vee q) && \text{by the associative and commutative laws for disjunction} \\
&\equiv \mathbf{T} \vee \mathbf{T} && \text{by Example 1 and the commutative law for disjunction} \\
&\equiv \mathbf{T} && \text{by the domination law}
\end{aligned}
$$

◀

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, that is, when the compound proposition is false

1.4

The *universal quantification* of $P(x)$ is the statement

"$P(x)$ for all values of x in the domain."

The notation $\forall x\, P(x)$ denotes the universal quantification of $P(x)$. Here $\forall$ is called the **universal quantifier.** We read $\forall x\, P(x)$ as "for all $x\, P(x)$" or "for every $x\, P(x)$." An element for which $P(x)$ is false is called a **counterexample** of $\forall x\, P(x)$.

The *existential quantification* of $P(x)$ is the proposition

"There exists an element x in the domain such that $P(x)$."

We use the notation $\exists x\, P(x)$ for the existential quantification of $P(x)$. Here $\exists$ is called the *existential quantifier*.

quantifiers, the one that is most often seen is the **uniqueness quantifier**, denoted by $\exists!$ or $\exists_1$. The notation $\exists! x\, P(x)$ [or $\exists_1 x\, P(x)$] states "There exists a unique x such that $P(x)$ is true."

TABLE 2 De Morgan's Laws for Quan

Negation	*Equivalent Statement*
$\neg\exists x\, P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$
$\neg\forall x\, P(x)$	$\exists x \neg P(x)$

1.5

translate English sentences into logical expressions. However, in Section 1.4 we avoided **nested quantifiers**, where one quantifier is within the scope of another, such as

TABLE 1 Quantifications of Two Variables.

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.

Order Matters!!!!!

1.6

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.

TABLE 1 **Rules of Inference.**

Rule of Inference	*Tautology*	*Name*
p $p \rightarrow q$ $\therefore q$	$(p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$	Modus ponens
$\neg q$ $p \rightarrow q$ $\therefore \neg p$	$(\neg q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \neg p$	Modus tollens
$p \rightarrow q$ $q \rightarrow r$ $\therefore p \rightarrow r$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$	Hypothetical syllogism
$p \vee q$ $\neg p$ $\therefore q$	$((p \vee q) \wedge \neg p) \rightarrow q$	Disjunctive syllogism
p $\therefore p \vee q$	$p \rightarrow (p \vee q)$	Addition
$p \wedge q$ $\therefore p$	$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$	Simplification
p q $\therefore p \wedge q$	$((p) \wedge (q)) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$	Conjunction
$p \vee q$ $\neg p \vee r$ $\therefore q \vee r$	$((p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)) \rightarrow (q \vee r)$	Resolution

Resolution

Computer programs have been developed to automate the task of reasoning and proving theorems. Many of these programs make use of a rule of inference known as **resolution**. This rule of inference is based on the tautology

$$((p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r)) \rightarrow (q \vee r).$$

The proposition $((p \to q) \wedge q) \to p$ is not a tautology, because it is false when p is false and q is true. However, there are many incorrect arguments that treat this as a tautology. In other words, they treat the argument with premises $p \to q$ and q and conclusion p as a valid argument form, which it is not. This type of incorrect reasoning is called the **fallacy of affirming the conclusion**.

TABLE 2 Rules of Inference for Quantified Statements.

Rule of Inference	*Name*
$\forall x\, P(x)$ $\therefore\ P(c)$	Universal instantiation
$P(c)$ for an arbitrary c $\therefore\ \forall x\, P(x)$	Universal generalization
$\exists x\, P(x)$ $\therefore\ P(c)$ for some element c	Existential instantiation
$P(c)$ for some element c $\therefore\ \exists x\, P(x)$	Existential generalization

$$\begin{array}{l} \forall x(P(x) \to Q(x)) \\ P(a), \text{ where } a \text{ is a particular element in the domain} \\ \hline \therefore\ Q(a) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \forall x(P(x) \to Q(x)) \\ \neg Q(a), \text{ where } a \text{ is a particular element in the domain} \\ \hline \therefore\ \neg P(a) \end{array}$$

1.7

Direct Proofs

A **direct proof** of a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is constructed when the first step is the assumption that p is true; subsequent steps are constructed using rules of inference, with the final step showing that q must also be true. A direct proof shows that a conditional statement

Proof by Contraposition

An extremely useful type of indirect proof is known as **proof by contraposition**. Proofs by contraposition make use of the fact that the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is equivalent to its contrapositive, $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$. This means that the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ can be proved by showing that its contrapositive, $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$, is true. In a proof by contraposition of $p \rightarrow q$, we

Proofs by Contradiction

Suppose we want to prove that a statement p is true. Furthermore, suppose that we can find a contradiction q such that $\neg p \rightarrow q$ is true. Because q is false, but $\neg p \rightarrow q$ is true, we can conclude that $\neg p$ is false, which means that p is true. How can we find a contradiction q that might help us prove that p is true in this way?

Because the statement $r \wedge \neg r$ is a contradiction whenever r is a proposition, we can prove that p is true if we can show that $\neg p \rightarrow (r \wedge \neg r)$ is true for some proposition r. Proofs of this type are called **proofs by contradiction**. Because a proof by contradiction does not prove a result

PROOFS OF EQUIVALENCE To prove a theorem that is a biconditional statement, that is, a statement of the form $p \leftrightarrow q$, we show that $p \rightarrow q$ and $q \rightarrow p$ are both true. The validity of this approach is based on the tautology

1.8

EXHAUSTIVE PROOF Some theorems can be proved by examining a relatively small number of examples. Such proofs are called **exhaustive proofs**, or **proofs by exhaustion** because these proofs proceed by exhausting all possibilities. An exhaustive proof is a special type of proof by cases where each case involves checking a single example. We now provide some illustrations of exhaustive proofs.

PROOF BY CASES A proof by cases must cover all possible cases that arise in a theorem. We illustrate proof by cases with a couple of examples. In each example, you should check that all possible cases are covered.

LEVERAGING PROOF BY CASES The examples we have presented illustrating proof by cases provide some insight into when to use this method of proof. In particular, when it is not possible to consider all cases of a proof at the same time, a proof by cases should be considered. When should you use such a proof? Generally, look for a proof by cases when there is no obvious way to begin a proof, but when extra information in each case helps move the proof forward. Example 5 illustrates how the method of proof by cases can be used effectively.

WITHOUT LOSS OF GENERALITY In the proof in Example 4, we dismissed case (*iii*), where $x < 0$ and $y \geq 0$, because it is the same as case (*ii*), where $x \geq 0$ and $y < 0$, with the roles of x and y reversed. To shorten the proof, we could have proved cases (*ii*) and (*iii*) together by assuming, **without loss of generality**, that $x \geq 0$ and $y < 0$. Implicit in this statement is that we can complete the case with $x < 0$ and $y \geq 0$ using the same argument as we used for the case with $x \geq 0$ and $y < 0$, but with the obvious changes.

In general, when the phrase "without loss of generality" is used in a proof (often abbreviated as WLOG), we assert that by proving one case of a theorem, no additional argument is required to prove other specified cases. That is, other cases follow by making straightforward changes

Existence Proofs

Many theorems are assertions that objects of a particular type exist. A theorem of this type is a proposition of the form $\exists x\, P(x)$, where P is a predicate. A proof of a proposition of the form $\exists x\, P(x)$ is called an **existence proof**. There are several ways to prove a theorem of this type. Sometimes an existence proof of $\exists x\, P(x)$ can be given by finding an element a, called a **witness**, such that $P(a)$ is true. This type of existence proof is called **constructive**. It is also possible to give an existence proof that is **nonconstructive**; that is, we do not find an element a such that $P(a)$ is true, but rather prove that $\exists x\, P(x)$ is true in some other way. One common method of giving a nonconstructive existence proof is to use proof by contradiction and show that the negation of the existential quantification implies a contradiction. The concept of a constructive

Uniqueness Proofs

Some theorems assert the existence of a unique element with a particular property. In other words, these theorems assert that there is exactly one element with this property. To prove a statement of this type we need to show that an element with this property exists and that no other element has this property. The two parts of a **uniqueness proof** are:

Existence: We show that an element x with the desired property exists.
Uniqueness: We show that if $y \neq x$, then y does not have the desired property.

Equivalently, we can show that if x and y both have the desired property, then $x = y$.

FORWARD AND BACKWARD REASONING Whichever method you choose, you need a starting point for your proof. To begin a direct proof of a conditional statement, you start with the premises. Using these premises, together with axioms and known theorems, you can construct a proof using a sequence of steps that leads to the conclusion. This type of reasoning, called *forward reasoning*, is the most common type of reasoning used to prove relatively simple results. Similarly, with indirect reasoning you can start with the negation of the conclusion and, using a sequence of steps, obtain the negation of the premises.

Unfortunately, forward reasoning is often difficult to use to prove more complicated results, because the reasoning needed to reach the desired conclusion may be far from obvious. In such cases it may be helpful to use *backward reasoning*. To reason backward to prove a statement q, we find a statement p that we can prove with the property that $p \rightarrow q$. (Note that it is not helpful to find a statement r that you can prove such that $q \rightarrow r$, because it is the fallacy of begging the question to conclude from $q \rightarrow r$ and r that q is true.) Backward reasoning is illustrated in Examples 14 and 15.

Looking for Counterexamples

In Section 1.7 we introduced the use of counterexamples to show that certain statements are false. When confronted with a conjecture, you might first try to prove this conjecture, and if your attempts are unsuccessful, you might try to find a counterexample, first by looking at the simplest, smallest examples. If you cannot find a counterexample, you might again try to prove the statement. In any case, looking for counterexamples is an extremely important pursuit, which often provides insights into problems. We will illustrate the role of counterexamples in Example 17.