

Unit 1

Introduction to Logic and Set Theory

Outline of Unit 1

- 1.1 Why Study Logic?
- 1.2 Validity of an Argument
- 1.3 Basics of Set Theory
- 1.4 Venn Diagram Test on Validity

Unit 1.1

Why Study Logic?

What is Logic?

Logic

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

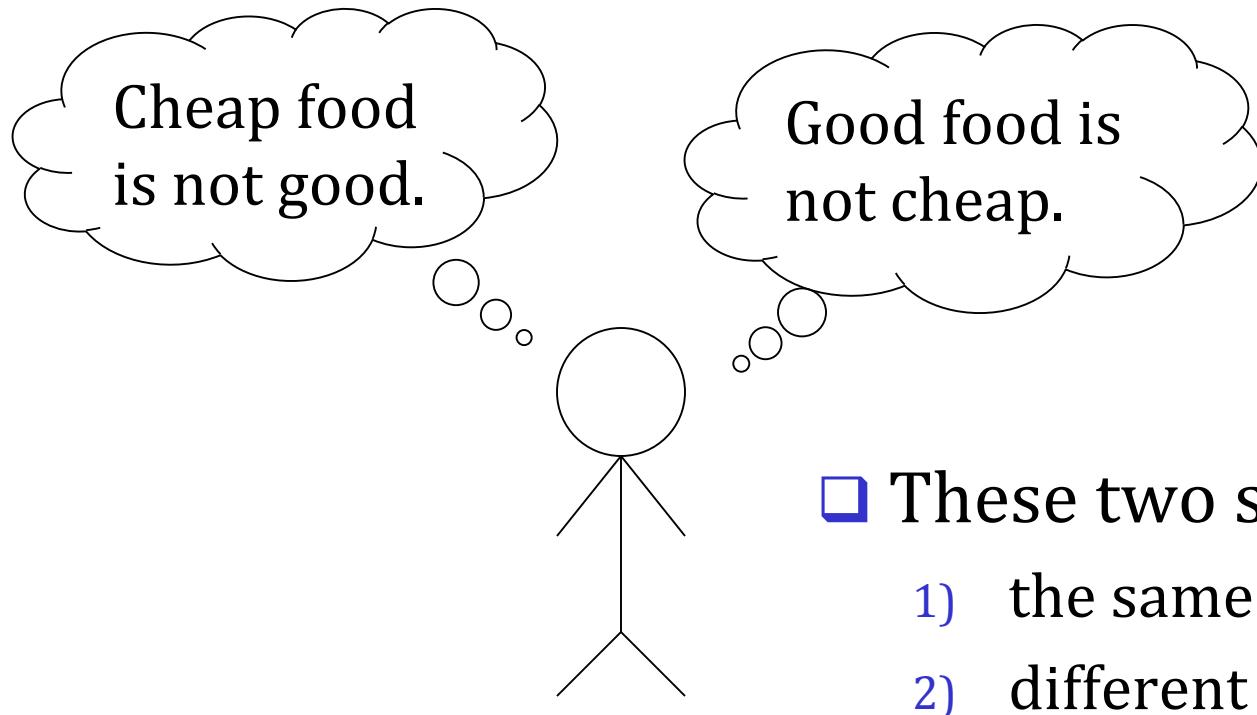
This article is about the systematic study of the form of arguments. For other uses, see [logic](#).

Logic (from the Ancient Greek: λογική, *logiké*^[1]), originally meaning "the word" or "what is spoken" (but coming to mean "thought" or "reason"), is generally held to consist of the **systematic study of the form of arguments**. A valid argument is one where there is a specific relation of logical support between the assumptions of the argument and its conclusion. (In ordinary discourse, the conclusion of such an argument may be signified by words like *therefore*, *hence*, *ergo* and so on.)

Q1.1 A Test on Logical Reasoning

- If you overslept, you'll be late.
 - You didn't oversleep.
 - Therefore,
 - 1) You're late.
 - 2) You aren't late.
 - 3) You did oversleep.
 - 4) None of these follows.
- Which one is correct?

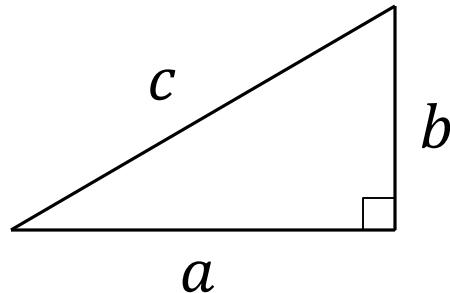
Q1.2 A More Challenging Test



- These two statements say
- 1) the same thing.
 - 2) different things.

Which one is correct?

Q1.3 What is a Proof?



Claim: $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$

How to prove it?



- The lengths of the sides are 3, 4, 5.
- Since $3^2 + 4^2 = 5^2$, the statement is correct.

Is this a proof?

- 1) Yes
- 2) No

Reasons to Study Logic

1) Logic sharpens reasoning

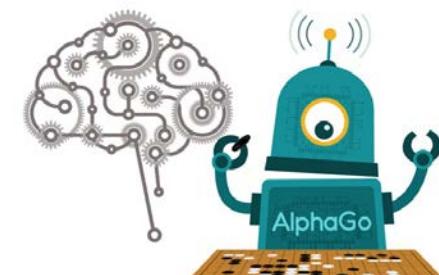
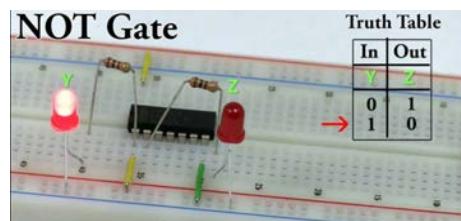


2) Logic is fun.

2	8	7	8
3			
8	1		4
4		7	6
8	7	5	4
5	7		1
9	8		6
8		9	
2	5	4	



3) Logic is useful to
electronic/computer/information engineers



Unit 1.2

Validity of an Argument

Validity: What Follows from What?

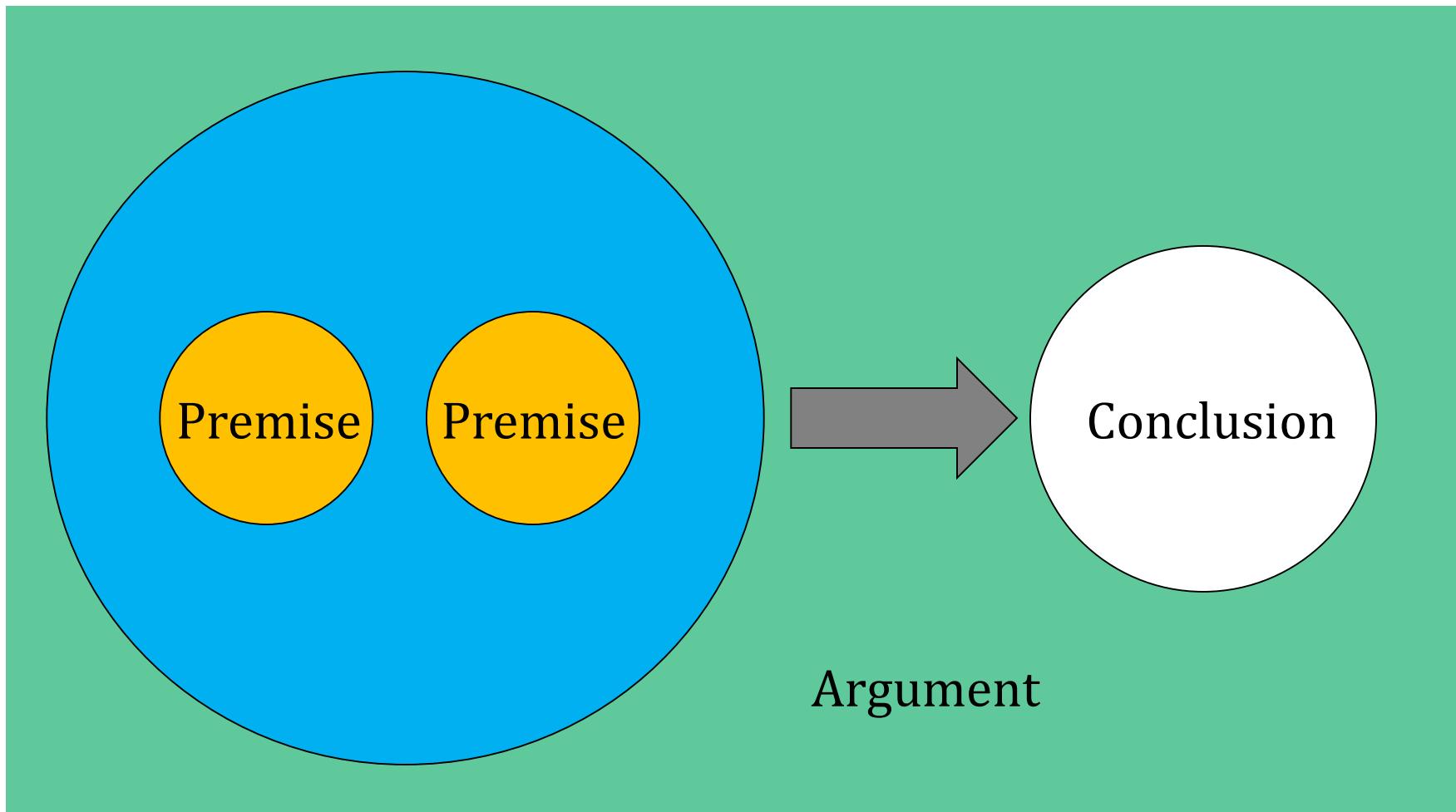
Logic

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Logical Argument



Logical Argument

- An argument is **a list of statements**
 - The last statement is called a **conclusion**.
 - All preceding statements are called **premises** (or assumptions or hypotheses).

□ Example

If you want to get an A, you should work hard.

You want to get an A.

Therefore, you should work hard.

Two Major Types of Arguments

Deductive Argument

- The conclusion follows from the premises **necessarily**.

All who live in Hong Kong live in Asia.

Vincent lives in Hong Kong.

Therefore, Vincent lives in Asia.

Inductive Argument

- The conclusion follows from the premises **probably**.

Most who live in Hong Kong speak Cantonese.

Tiffany lives in Hong Kong.

Therefore, Tiffany speaks Cantonese.

The Third Type of Argument

Abductive Argument

- Also called **inference to the best explanation.**
- The conclusion may or may not be true.

The surprising fact, E, is observed.

H is the best explanation of E.

Therefore, H is true.

- Example:

You hear your baby crying and notice a nasty smell.

The best explanation is ...



Therefore, you should change her diaper .



In this course, we focus on deductive argument.

Valid and Sound Arguments

- An argument is **valid** if its **conclusion** is a logical consequence of the premises.
 - i.e. it is impossible for the premises to be true and the conclusion false.
- An argument is **sound** if it is **valid** and the premises are true.
- Caution: An invalid or unsound argument may still have a true conclusion!

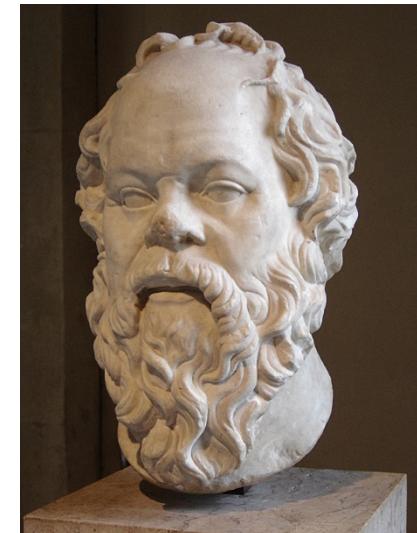
The Socrates Argument

All men are mortal.

Socrates was a man.

Therefore, Socrates was mortal.

A deductive argument that has **two premises** is traditionally called **syllogism**.



Socrates (469/470-399BC) was a Greek philosopher and is considered the father of western philosophy.

Flying Penguin?

All animals with wings can fly.
Penguins have wings.

Therefore, penguins can fly.

Valid? Sound?

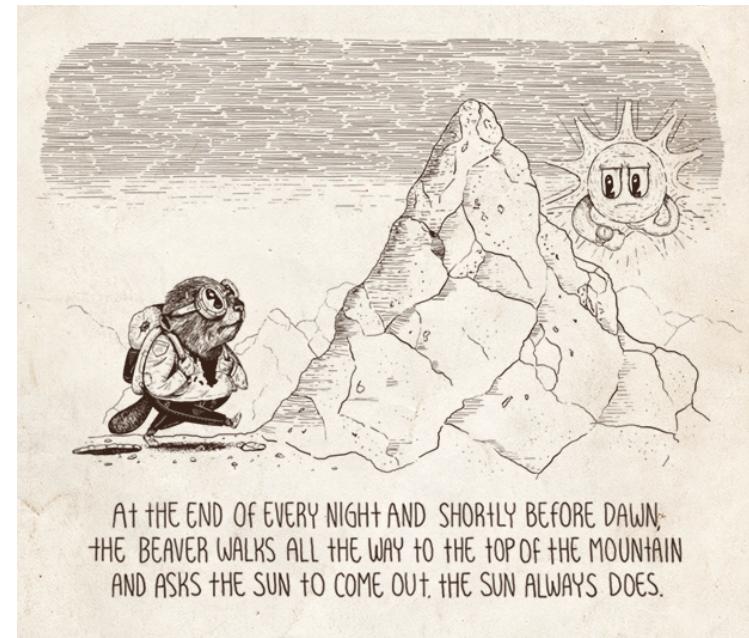


(one-and-a-half-minute video)
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=9dfWzp7rYR4>

Also watch this (3 min):
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lzhDsojoqk8&t=98>

Fallacies

- A **formal** fallacy is an error in reasoning that results in an **invalid deductive** argument.
- An **informal** fallacy is an error in reasoning that results in an argument whose conclusion **lacks adequate support**.



Comments on Deductive Arguments

- Our focus is on deductive arguments.
- **Usefulness:** It reveals consequences of premises.
 - Mathematics is based on deductive arguments.
 - theorems are derived from axioms.
- **Limitation:** It doesn't tell which premises are actually true.
 - Science is based on inductive arguments.
 - You need to go observe the world and collect empirical evidence.

Unit 1.3

Basics of Set Theory

Set

- A set is a **collection of objects**.
- Suppose the set A contains an object called x .
 - x is an **element** (or **member**) of A .
 - x **belongs** to A (or x is in A), denoted by $x \in A$.
- The **roster notation** of a set simply lists all members of the set inside braces { }.
- Example:

$$C = \{10\text{¢}, 20\text{¢}, 50\text{¢}, \$1, \$2, \$5, \$10\}$$



- The order is not important.
- The same element needs not appear more than once.
(Duplicate elements are redundant and can be removed.)



Set-Builder Notation

- We can “build” a set by describing what properties its members have.
- Set-builder notation:

$$T = \{ x \in S \mid P(x) \}.$$

such that

- Example:
 - Let $C = \{10\text{¢}, 20\text{¢}, 50\text{¢}, \$1, \$2, \$5, \$10\}$.
 - D is the set whose elements are all elements $x \in C$ such that x is completely bronze in color.
 - $D = \{x \in C \mid x \text{ is completely bronze in color.}\}$
 $= \{10\text{¢}, 20\text{¢}, 50\text{¢}\}$



Cardinality

- The **cardinality** of a set A is defined as the number of elements in the set.
- It is denoted by $|A|$.

- Example:
 $C = \{10\text{¢}, 20\text{¢}, 50\text{¢}, \$1, \$2, \$5, \$10\}$
 $|C| = 7$.



Subset

- A is a **subset** of B , written as $A \subseteq B$, if every member of A is also a member of B .
- B is then said to be a **superset** of A .
- A subset A of B is called a **proper subset** of B if B contains some elements that are not in A .
 - i.e., A is not the same as B .
- Example:
 - The set of all women is a proper subset of the set of all human beings.

Set Equality

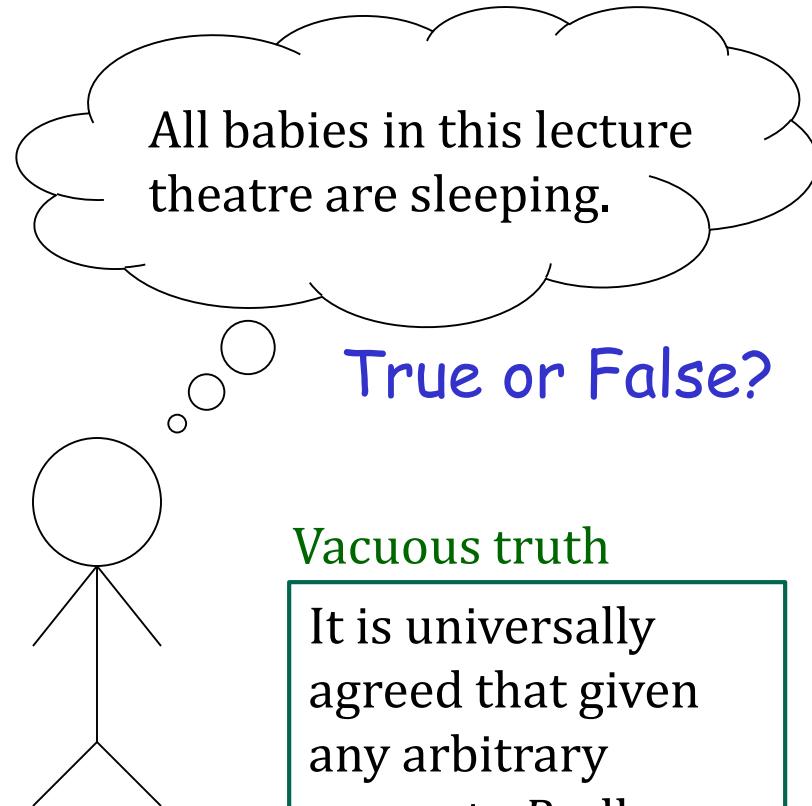
- Two sets are the **same** (or **equal**) if and only if
 - they contain the same elements, or equivalently,
 - each is a subset of the other.

$$A = B \Leftrightarrow A \subseteq B \text{ and } B \subseteq A.$$

- Example
 - Suppose
$$A = \{m \in \mathbf{Z} \mid m = 2a \text{ for some integer } a\}$$
$$B = \{n \in \mathbf{Z} \mid n = 2b - 2 \text{ for some integer } b\}$$
 - Are they equal?

The Empty Set

- A set is **empty** if it contains no elements at all.
- There is only one empty set.
 - If two sets are empty, each set is a subset of the other one, so they are the same set.
- We denote it by \emptyset .
- Remark:
 - The empty set \emptyset is different from the set containing \emptyset .
 - i.e., $\emptyset \neq \{\emptyset\}$.

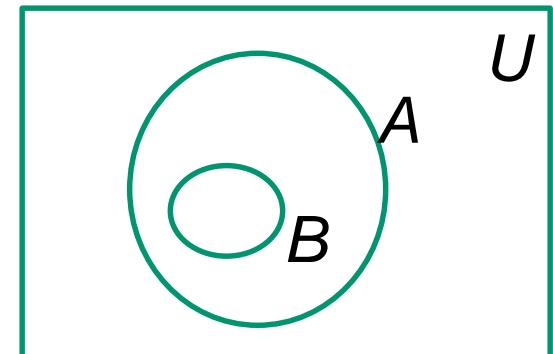


Vacuous truth

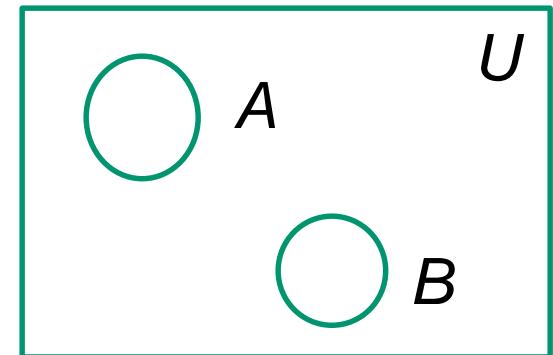
It is universally agreed that given any arbitrary property P , all elements of \emptyset have property P .

Relationship between Sets

- A **universal** set U is a set containing everything that we are considering.
- **Venn diagram**
 - U is represented by a rectangular box.
 - Subsets of U (e. g. A and B) are represented by circles (more precisely, regions inside closed curves).
- A and B are **disjoint** if they have no elements in common.



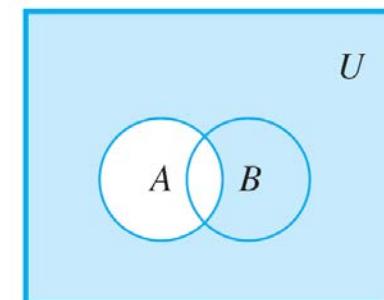
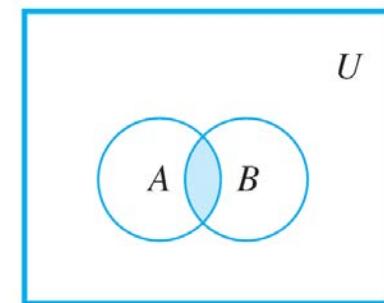
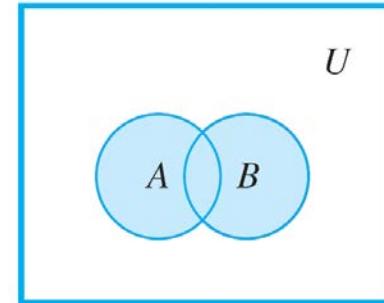
B is a subset of A .



A and B are disjoint.

Three Fundamental Operations

- The **union** of A and B , denoted by $A \cup B$, is the set of all elements that belong to **either A or B , or in both.**
- The **intersection** of A and B , denoted by $A \cap B$, is the set of all elements that are **in both A and B .**
- The **complement** of A , denoted by A^c , is the set of all elements in U that **do not belong to A** .



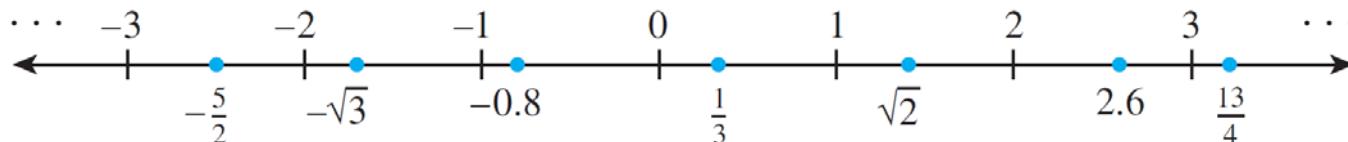
Power Set

- Given a set A , the set of all its subsets, denoted by $\mathcal{P}(A)$, is called the **power set** of A .
- Example:
 - Suppose $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$.
 - List all subsets of A :
 $\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}$ and $\{1, 2, 3\}$.
 - Hence,
$$\mathcal{P}(A) = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}.$$

Special Sets

- The following sets are commonly used in mathematics:

Symbol	Set
R	set of all real numbers
Z	set of all integers
Q	set of all rational numbers



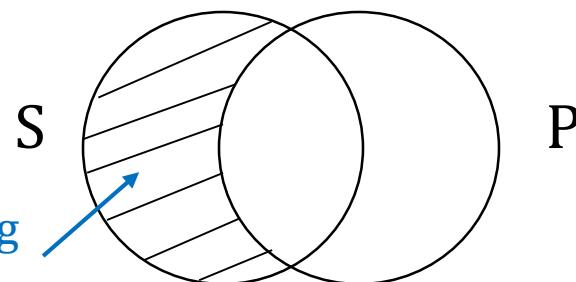
- The numbers represented by blue dots all belong to **R** but not to **Z**.
- Z^+ and Z^- denote the sets of positive and negative integers, respectively.

Unit 1.4

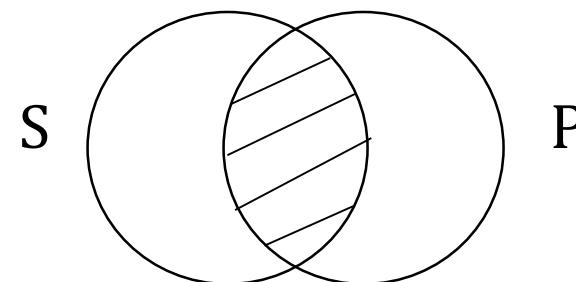
Venn Diagram Test on Validity

Venn Diagram Representations

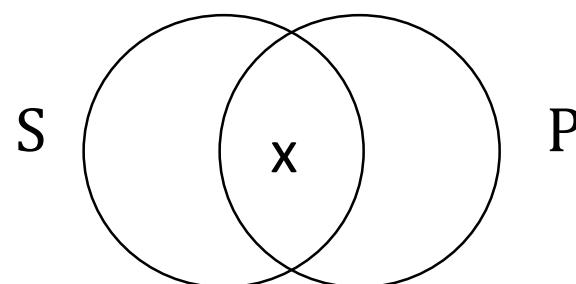
All S is P.



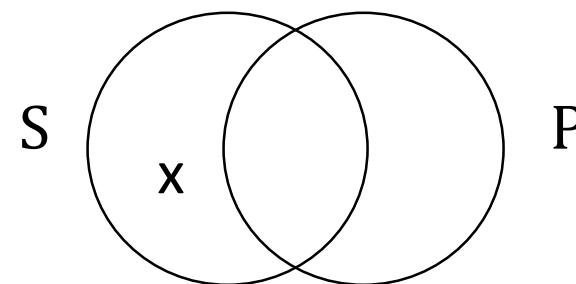
No S is P.



Some S is P.



Some S is not P.



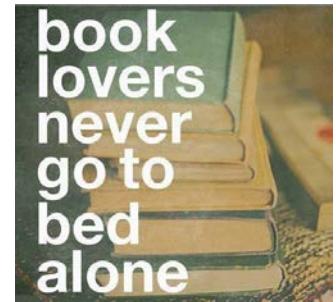
Q1.4

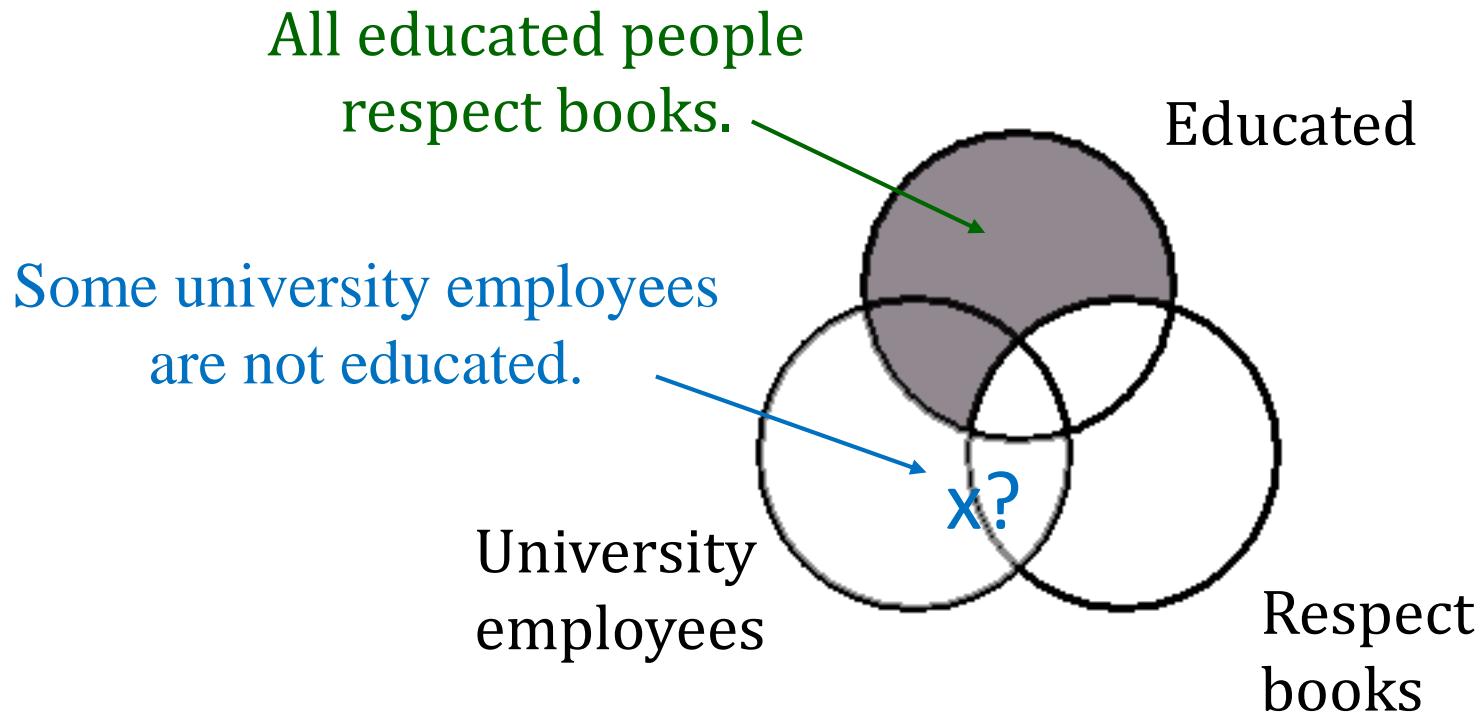
All educated people respect books.

Some university employee are not educated.

Some university employee do not respect books.

Is it valid?





There **may be** some university employee who do not respect books, **but not necessarily**. So the argument is **invalid**.

Q1.5

No islands are part of the mainland.
Lamma Island is an island.

Lamma Island is not on the mainland.

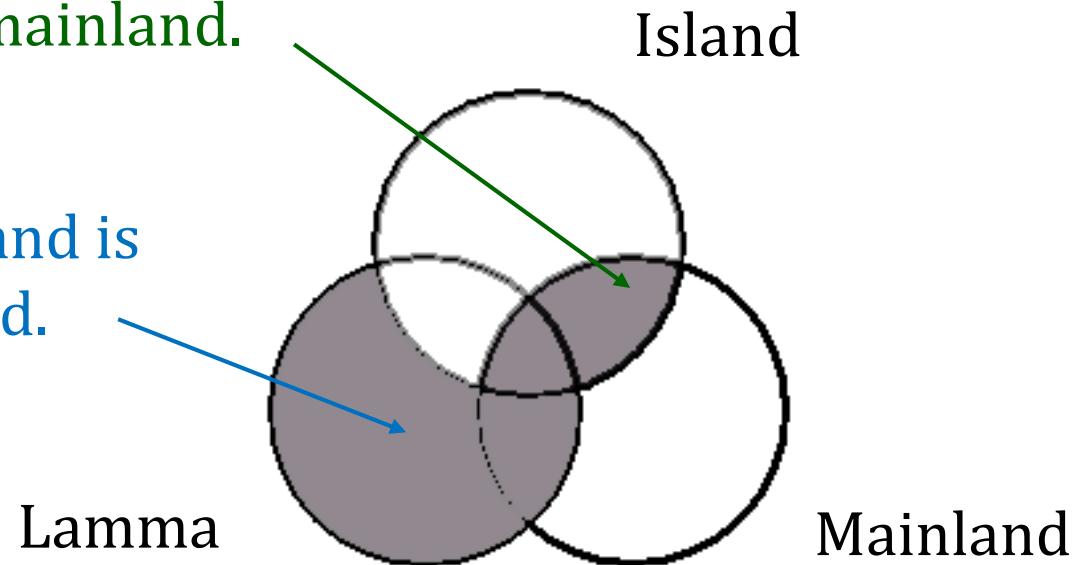


Lamma Winds
南丫風采發電站

Is it valid?

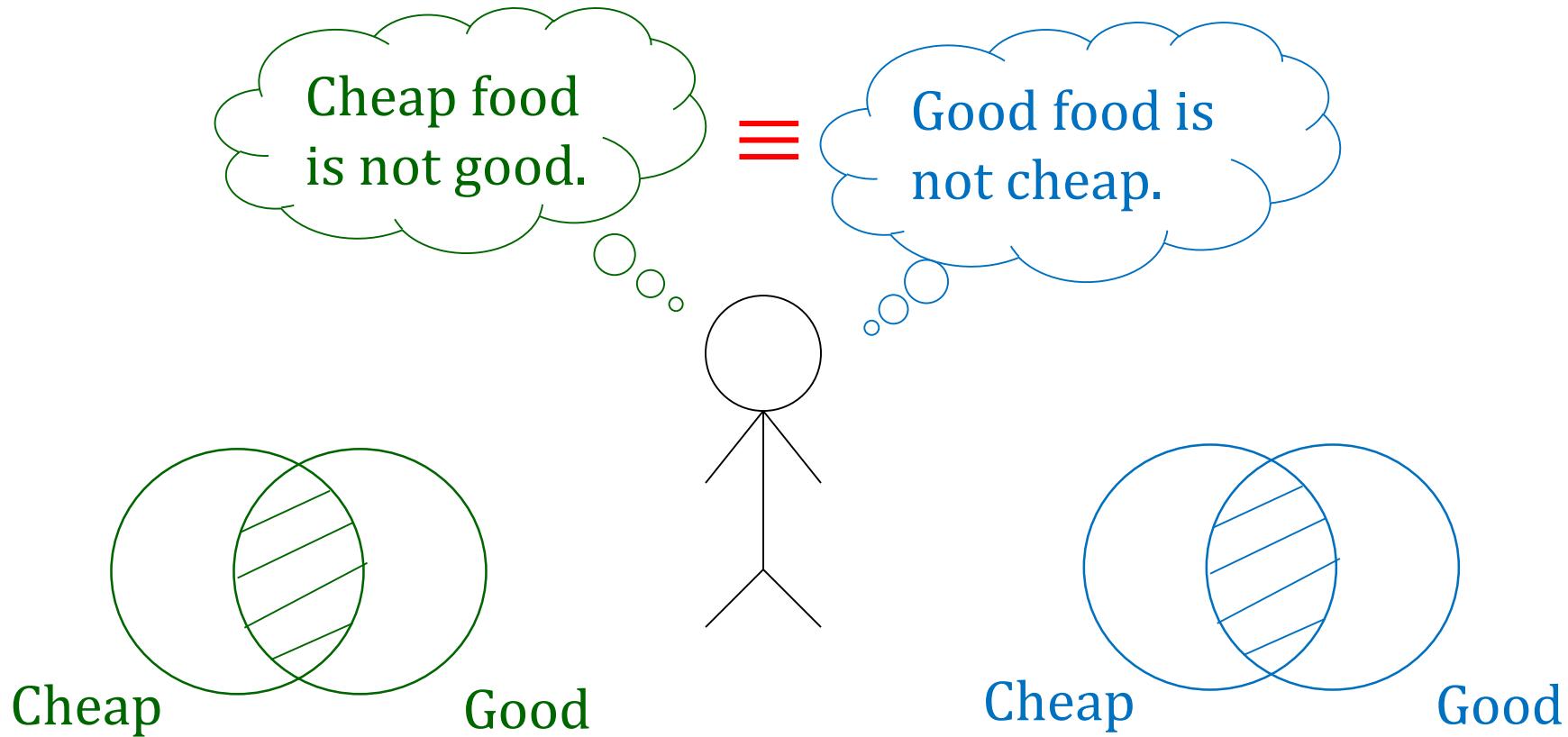
No islands are part
of the mainland.

Lamma Island is
an island.



“Lamma Island is not on the mainland” is **true**.
So the argument is **valid**.

Example Revisited



The two statements are logically equivalent.