

# Laws of Valid Reasoning

# Traditional “Laws of Thought”

- Concept that rational thought is constrained to follow certain “laws”
- Three traditional “laws” of thought date to Plato, Aristotle, and others
  - **Identity:** Every object is equal to itself
  - **Non-contradiction:** No proposition is both true and not true
  - **Excluded middle:** Every proposition is either true or not true
- Formal expressions of these laws
  - **Identity:**  $\forall x, x = x$ . (“For any object  $x$ ,  $x$  is equal to itself”)
  - **Non-contradiction:**  $\forall x, \neg(x \wedge \neg x)$ . (“For any *proposition*,  $x$ ,  $x$  is either true or not true”)
  - **Excluded middle:**  $\forall x, x \vee \neg x$ . (For any proposition,  $P$ ,  $P$  is either true or false.)
- These are understood as laws of rational reasoning

# The basic idea

- Laws of valid rational thought have to be logically valid
- They have to hold true *independent of any interpretation*
  - E.g., equality: *no matter what x is*, it's equal to itself
  - E.g., non-contradiction: *no matter what proposition x is*, it can't be that it's both true and false
  - E.g., excluded middle: *no matter what proposition x is*, it is either true or it is false
- The logical  $\forall$  (*for all*) *quantifier* is used to assert a *universal generalization*
  - It gives a name, here x, to some *arbitrary but specific* object
  - It then asserts that some proposition (e.g.,  $x = x$ ) is true of *any* such x
  - E.g., translate to English:  $\forall (n : \text{integer}), \text{even } n \vee \text{odd } n$ 
    - We see here the concept of *typed* variables (here n as to be an integer)
    - We also see the concept of a predicate: (even n) is the proposition that *n is even*
- Quantifiers and predicates are central in *predicate (vs propositional) logic*

# Inference Rules

- Inference rules are valid rules of deductive reasoning
- Today we recognize a broader range of such rules
- An inference rule is of the form
  - *if you accept propositions, ..., to be true,*
  - *then you can deduce that the proposition, ..., is true*
- For example,
  - if you accept that  $x$  is true, and you accept that  $y$  is true,
  - then you can validly deduce that  $(x \wedge y)$  is true
- We can write this as follows:  $x, y \vdash x \wedge y$ 
  - $\vdash$ , the *turnstile* character, is pronounced *entails*
  - So:  $x$  (being true) and  $y$  (being true) entails  $x \wedge y$  (being true)
  - If you know or assume  $x : \text{true}$ , and  $y : \text{true}$ , you can deduce  $x \wedge y : \text{true}$
  - The notation,  $x : \text{true}$ , represents what we will call a *truth judgment*

# Natural deduction

- Natural deduction is the process of reasoning about the truth, or not, of a given proposition by deduction using the rules of inference of a given logic
- For the logics we'll study, these basic rules are organized around connectives
- Suppose  $*$  is any logical operator, such as *and*, *or*, *not*, or *implies*
- If we want to deduce the truth of a proposition with  $*$  as its main connective then we use an inference rule called an *introduction rule* for  $*$ 
  - Example,  $x, y \vdash x \wedge y$  is the introduction rule for  $\wedge$ . We will call this rule  $\wedge$ -introduction
- If we want to decide the truth of some proposition *from* (or *given the truth of*) a proposition with  $*$  as its main connective, then we use an *elimination rule* for  $*$ 
  - Example/exercise: there are two elimination rules for  $\wedge$ . Complete their statements here:
    - $x \wedge y \vdash \underline{\quad}$  ( $\wedge$ -elimination-left)
    - $x \wedge y \vdash \underline{\quad}$  ( $\wedge$ -elimination-right)

# Display (vertical) notation for inference rules

$$\frac{x, y}{x \wedge y} \quad (\wedge \text{ introduction})$$

$$\frac{x \wedge y}{x} \quad (\wedge \text{ elimination left})$$

$$\frac{x \wedge y}{y} \quad (\wedge \text{ elimination right})$$

# Looking ahead: a theorem to prove

To prove:  $\wedge$  is *associative*. What this claim means is that, for any propositions  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$ , the proposition,  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$ , is *equivalent* to  $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ . Note the difference in grouping. By *equivalent* to, we mean that each implies the other. A full proof is built from two smaller proofs, one in each direction. We will prove the forward direction:  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ . Bear in mind that this proposition asserts that if  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$  is accepted as true, then *from* this fact one can deduce that  $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$  must also be true. Notably it does not assert that  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$  is *true*.

So how can we get from assuming that  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$  is *true* to showing that, in the context of this assumption,  $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$  *must be true*? Let's see.

# Natural Deduction Proof

Proof: We need to show that if  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$  is true, then so is  $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ . We'll start by assuming that  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$  is true. Now let's see what we can deduce with this assumption in our context.

1.  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$   $\vdash (X \wedge Y)$       and-elim left gives us  $X \wedge Y$  :  
true
2.  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \vdash Z$       and-elim right gives us  $Z$  : true
3.  $(X \wedge Y) \vdash X$       and-elim left gives us  $X$  : true
4.  $(X \wedge Y) \vdash Y$       and-elim right gives us  $Y$  : true
5.  $Y, Z \vdash (Y \wedge Z)$       and-intro applied to  $Y, Z$
6.  $X, (Y \wedge Z) \vdash$   $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$       and-intro. QED ("yay!" in  
mathspeak)



# English language proof

The great thing about an English proof (*proof summary* would be more accurate) is we can skip details that we can reasonably assume readers will understand. Here's an example.

Prove: For any propositions,  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$ ,  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$

Proof: To start ,we'll assume  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$ . From this we can deduce  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  (by applying and-elimination several times). From  $Y$ , and  $Z$ , we can deduce  $(Y \wedge Z)$ . (by and-introduction). Next, from  $X$  and  $(Y \wedge Z)$ , we can deduce  $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ . And so what we have shown is that if  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$  is true, *then* so must be  $X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ , which is what we mean by  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ . QED.

## A bit more reasoning

- On the last pages, we proved a universal generalization: for *any propositions*,  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$ , it is the case that  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ .
- We can write this more concisely as:  $\forall (X \ Y \ Z), (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$
- This is a shorthand for  $\forall X, \forall Y, \forall Z, (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \rightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$
- Clearly the converse is also true:  $\forall (X \ Y \ Z), X \wedge (Y \wedge Z) \rightarrow (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z$ .
- We can now apply (new information!) the bi-implication introduction rule to conclude  $\forall (X \ Y \ Z), (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \leftrightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$ . NB: the arrow goes both ways.
- What we have proved is that *no matter what propositions  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$  are, the two expressions are equivalent: you can always move parentheses to group elements connected by  $\wedge$  without changing the meaning of the expression.*

# The power of theorems!

- We now have that  $\forall (X \ Y \ Z), (X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \leftrightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$  is a theorem
- A theorem is a mathematical statement *that has been proved to be valid*
- The theorem we've proved here shows that  $\wedge$  is associative
  - Theorems are given names so we can refer to them later. Let's call this  $\wedge$ -associative
  - Note: Any operator,  $*$ , is said to be associative iff  $(X * Y) * Z = X * (Y * Z)$
  - Note: we're conflating equivalence of propositions ( $\leftrightarrow$ ) and equality ( $=$ ) here – a detail
- Key point: We can now apply a theorem as if it were a new inference rule
  - Suppose we know  $(\text{SkyBlue} \wedge \text{WaterGreen}) \wedge \text{EarthBrown}$
  - Suppose we want to prove  $\text{SkyBlue} \wedge (\text{WaterGreen} \wedge \text{EarthBrown})$
  - All we have to say is that this is true by applying the theorem that states that  $\wedge$  is associative
- Every time we prove a theorem, it adds a new tool to our reasoning toolkit

# Why Natural Deduction Proofs When We Can Use Z3?

- Suppose that  $X$ ,  $Y$ , and  $Z$ , are propositional (Boolean) variables
- Now proving  $(X \wedge Y) \wedge Z \leftrightarrow X \wedge (Y \wedge Z)$  means showing that it is *valid*
- We know that we can use Z3 as a SAT solver to check such problems for
  - Satisfiability – there is *at least one* interpretation that makes the formula true (a model)
  - Unsatisfiability – that *no* interpretation makes the formula true
- You can easily check for *validity* (all interpretations are models) by checking to see if the *negation* of a formula is \_\_\_\_\_. Fill in the blank.
- The logics of SAT and SMT solvers are limited in what they can express
- There are no general-purpose “solvers” for finding models or proving the validity of arbitrary propositions (otherwise we wouldn’t need mathematicians)
- It’s in this context of more expressive logics that proof by natural deduction becomes essential