

Unit III

**Introduction to
Propositional Logic**

Proposition :

Our discussion begins with an introduction to the basic building blocks of logic :—propositions.

- **Def :** A **proposition** is a declarative sentence (that is, a sentence that declares a fact) that is either true or false, but not both.
- **Eg :**
 1. Washington, D.C., is the capital of the United States of America.
 2. Toronto is the capital of Canada.
 3. $1 + 1 = 2$.
 4. $2 + 2 = 3$
- **Non Eg :**
 1. What time is it?
 2. Read this carefully.
 3. $x + 1 = 2$.
 4. $x + y = z$.

Note :

- We represent the Propositions with small letters p, q, r, s, \dots
- *The truth values for any proposition are either T or F.*
- The area of logic that deals with propositions is called the **propositional calculus** or **propositional logic**. It was first developed systematically by the Greek philosopher Aristotle more than 2300 years ago.
- **Compound Propositions** : Many mathematical statements are constructed by combining one or more propositions forming New propositions, called **compound propositions**, are formed from existing propositions using logical operators. We Discuss : Negation,
Conjunction
Disjunction and
Implication.

Negation :

- **Def :** Let p be a proposition. The *negation of p* , denoted by $\neg p$ 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 .
- Eg : Find the negation of the proposition “Michael’s PC runs Linux”.

Ans : “It is not the case that Michael’s PC runs Linux.” This negation can be more simply expressed as “Michael’s PC does not run Linux.”

Truth Table :

| p | $\neg p$ |
|-----|----------|
| T | F |
| F | T |

- The negation operator constructs a new proposition from a single existing proposition. We will now introduce the logical operators that are used to form new propositions from two or more existing propositions. These logical operators are also called **connectives**.

Conjunction and Disjunction :

- **Def :** 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.

- Truth Table for Conjunction :

| p | q | $p \wedge q$ |
|-----|-----|--------------|
| T | T | T |
| T | F | F |
| F | T | F |
| F | F | F |

Disjunction: 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. Truth table is

| p | q | $p \vee q$ |
|-----|-----|------------|
| T | T | T |
| T | F | T |
| F | T | T |
| F | F | F |

Conditional Statements :

- **Def :** 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*).
- $P \rightarrow q$ can also be expressed as follows :

“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 ”

Truth Table for Implication :

| p | q | $p \rightarrow q$ |
|-----|-----|-------------------|
| T | T | T |
| T | F | F |
| F | T | T |
| F | F | T |

CONVERSE, CONTRAPOSITIVE, AND INVERSE

- We can form some new conditional statements starting with a conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$.
- The proposition $q \rightarrow p$ is called the **converse** of $p \rightarrow q$.
- The **contrapositive** of $p \rightarrow q$ is the proposition $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$.
- The proposition $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$ is called the **inverse** of $p \rightarrow q$.

Everyone Draw the truth tables for all the mentioned above and Notice the conditions that are having same truth values(i.e Identify the Logical Equivalence)

Def of Logical Equivalence : When two compound propositions always have the same truth value we call them equivalent(will discuss after few lectures)

- **Eg** : What are the contrapositive, the converse, and the inverse of the conditional statement “The home team wins whenever it is raining”
- **Ans** : Because “ q whenever p ” is one of the ways to express the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$, the original statement can be rewritten as “If it is raining, then the home team wins.”

Consequently, the **contrapositive** of this conditional statement is “If the home team does not win, then it is not raining.”

The **converse** is “If the home team wins, then it is raining.”

The **inverse** is

“If it is not raining, then the home team does not win.”

Biconditional statement :

- **Def :** 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*.
- There are some other common ways to express $p \leftrightarrow q$:
 - “ p is necessary and sufficient for q ”
 - “if p then q , and conversely”
 - “ p iff q ”
- The last way of expressing the biconditional statement $p \leftrightarrow q$ uses the abbreviation “iff” for “if and only if.” Note that $p \leftrightarrow q$ has exactly the same truth value as $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$

Truth Table For Bi Conditional :

| p | q | $p \leftrightarrow q$ |
|-----|-----|-----------------------|
| T | T | T |
| T | F | F |
| F | T | F |
| F | F | T |

Work out Problems : (has to be done in the class)

- Let p and q be the propositions “The election is decided” and “The votes have been counted,” respectively. Express each of these compound propositions as an English sentence :

a) $\neg p$

b) $p \vee q$

c) $\neg p \wedge q$

d) $q \rightarrow p$

e) $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$

f) $\neg p \rightarrow \neg q$

g) $p \leftrightarrow q$

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

- Construct a truth table for each of these compound propositions:

a) $p \wedge \neg p$

b) $p \vee \neg p$

c) $(p \vee \neg q) \rightarrow q$

d) $(p \vee q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$

e) $(p \rightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$

f) $(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow (q \rightarrow p)$

Tautology, Contradiction and Contingency :

- 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*.

Eg : $p \vee \neg p$ and $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \vee q)$ (verify with truth tables)

- A compound proposition that is always false is called a *contradiction*.

Eg : $p \wedge \neg p$ (verify with truth tables)

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

Give an Example on your own.....

Logical Equivalence Illustrations :

- 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.

Eg : 1) Identify Logical Equivalent compound Statements for $P \Rightarrow q$ and for its converse, inverse and contrapositive.

Eg 2 :

| p | q | r | $q \wedge r$ | $p \vee (q \wedge r)$ | $p \vee q$ | $p \vee r$ | $(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$ |
|-----|-----|-----|--------------|-----------------------|------------|------------|--------------------------------|
| T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| T | T | F | F | T | T | T | T |
| T | F | T | F | T | T | T | T |
| T | F | F | F | T | T | T | T |
| F | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| F | T | F | F | F | T | F | F |
| F | F | T | F | F | F | T | F |
| F | F | F | F | F | F | F | F |

De Morgan Laws in Propositional Logic :

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

Proof :

| p | q | $p \vee q$ | $\neg(p \vee q)$ | $\neg p$ | $\neg q$ | $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ |
|-----|-----|------------|------------------|----------|----------|------------------------|
| T | T | T | F | F | F | F |
| T | F | T | F | F | T | F |
| F | T | T | F | T | F | F |
| F | F | F | T | T | T | T |

Prove the other De Morgan Law.....

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

Equivalence Laws :

| <i>Equivalence</i> | <i>Name</i> |
|--|---------------------|
| $p \wedge \mathbf{T} \equiv p$ $p \vee \mathbf{F} \equiv p$ | 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 |

Logical Equivalences Involving Conditional & Bi-Conditional Statements :

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Verify All Above-Mentioned Laws By using the Truth Tables.....

Argument and Valid ness:

- An **argument** in propositional logic is a *sequence of propositions*. All but the preceding propositions in the argument are called **premises** and the final proposition is called the **conclusion**.

i.e., Premises \vdash Conclusion (“ \vdash ” is symbol for argument)

Eg 1: $p \rightarrow q, q \rightarrow r \vdash p \rightarrow r$

- Eg 2: Consider the following argument involving propositions

$p \rightarrow q$: “If you have a current password, then you can log onto the network.”

q : “You have a current password.”

Therefore,

r : “You can log onto the network.”

In the above example Premises : $p \rightarrow q, r$

Conclusion : r

Hence it is an argument.

Validness of an argument:

- An Argument is **valid** if the truth of all its premises implies that the conclusion is true.
i.e, 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.
Means, To check the given argument is valid or not we need to follow:
 - a) Take conjunction to the Premises and write implication to conclusion.
 - b) If the last implication is tautology, then we can say that the given Argument is valid.

Note : An argument is not valid then we can call it as “Fallacy”

Checking Validness of the argument:

$$p \rightarrow q, q \rightarrow r \vdash p \rightarrow r$$

| p | q | r | $p \rightarrow q$ | $q \rightarrow r$ | $p \rightarrow r$ | $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)$ | $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow r) \rightarrow p \rightarrow r$ |
|---|---|---|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--|--|
| T | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| T | T | F | T | F | F | F | T |
| T | F | T | F | T | T | F | T |
| F | T | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| T | F | F | F | T | F | F | T |
| F | T | F | T | F | T | F | T |
| F | F | T | T | T | T | T | T |
| F | F | F | T | T | T | T | T |

In the Above ex, the last column we got Tatology. Hence this argument is valid.

In the similar manner, Check the validness of the following Arguments:

- HOME -WORK:
- $(p \vee q), (\neg p \vee r) \vdash (q \vee r)$
- $p \vee q, \neg p \vdash q$
- $\neg q, (p \rightarrow q) \vdash \neg p$
- $p \vee q, \neg p \vee r \vdash q \vee r$
- $(p \vee q), (p \rightarrow r), (q \rightarrow r) \vdash r$

Proof Systems :

- **Methods of Proving Theorems :**

- 1) Direct Proofs

- 2) Proof by Contraposition

- 3) Proofs by Contradiction

We are going to discuss these three techniques in proving the theorems in mathematics.

Some Terminology :

- **Theorem** : **Theorem** is a statement that can be shown to be true. In mathematical writing, the term theorem is usually reserved for a statement that is considered at least somewhat important. Theorem may be the universal quantification of a conditional statement with one or more premises and a conclusion. However, it may be some other type of logical statement.
- **Proof of a theorem** : A **proof** is a valid argument that establishes the truth of a mathematical statement. A proof can use the hypotheses of the theorem, if any, axioms assumed to be true, and previously proven theorems.
- Less important theorems sometimes are called **propositions**.
- A less important theorem that is helpful in the proof of other results is called a **lemma**.
- **Corollary** is a theorem that can be established directly from a theorem that has been proved.

Direct Proof Method :

- 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.
- **Eg :If n is an odd integer, then n^2 is odd.**

Proof : Let us assume that n is odd.

By the definition of an odd integer, it follows that $n = 2k + 1$, where k is some integer.

We want to show that n^2 is also odd.

We can square both sides of the equation $n = 2k + 1$ to obtain a new equation that expresses n^2 .

$$n^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$$

$$= 2m + 1 ; \text{ where } m = 2k^2 + 2k \text{ for all integer } k.$$

Theorem: If m and n are both perfect squares, then nm is also a perfect square.

- **Proof :** We assume that m and n are both perfect squares.

By the definition of a perfect square, it follows that there are integers s and t such that $m = s^2$ and $n = t^2$.

The goal of the proof is to show that mn must also be a perfect square.

Now consider $mn = s^2 t^2 = (ss)(tt) = (st)(st) = (st)^2 = (ts)^2 = nm$
(using commutativity and associativity of multiplication)

By the definition of perfect square, it follows that mn is also a perfect square.

Home-Work:

Theorem: Prove that the sum of two rational numbers is rational.

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 take $\neg q$ as a premise, and using axioms, definitions, and previously proven theorems, together with rules of inference, we show that $\neg p$ must follow.

Theorem: Prove that if n is an integer and $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.

Proof :

- We first attempt a direct proof.
- To construct a direct proof, we first assume that $3n + 2$ is an odd integer. This means that $3n + 2 = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .
- We see that $3n + 1 = 2k$, but there does not seem to be any direct way to conclude that n is odd.
- Because our attempt at a direct proof failed, we next try a proof by contraposition.
- By contraposition is to assume that the conclusion of the conditional statement “If $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd” is false; namely, assume that n is even.
- Then, by the definition of an even integer, $n = 2k$ for some integer k . Substituting $2k$ for n , we find that

$$3n + 2 = 3(2k) + 2 = 6k + 2 = 2(3k + 1). \text{ This tells us that } 3n + 2 \text{ is even}$$

- Because the negation of the conclusion of the conditional statement implies that the hypothesis is false, the original conditional statement is true. Our proof by contraposition succeeded; we have proved the theorem “If $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.”

Theorem: Prove that if n is an integer and n^2 is odd, then n is odd.

Proof :

- Direct Method won't work here (Why!!)
- Now by contraposition method, consider n is not odd.
implies.. n is even i.e $n = 2k$ for some integer k .
keep $n = 2k$ in $n^2 \Rightarrow n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2 = 2(2k^2)$
 $= 2m$ where $m = 2k^2$ for k is an integer.

Hence ,

We have proved that if n is an integer and n^2 is odd, then n is odd. Our attempt to find a proof by contraposition succeeded.

Proofs by Contradiction:

- A proof by contradiction does not prove a result directly, it is another type of indirect proof in which **we assume** the negation of the given statement is true. So that we finally arrive at a contradiction (error) because of our wrong assumption.
- Hence, we conclude that our assumption is wrong and the given one is true....

Theorem: Prove that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational by giving a proof by contradiction.

- **Proof** : To prove by contradiction, Let us assume that the negation of the given statement is true.

i. e., if possible, suppose that $\sqrt{2}$ is Rational.

$\Rightarrow \sqrt{2} = a/b$; $b \neq 0$ and a, b have no common factors.

$$\Rightarrow 2 = a^2/b^2 \Rightarrow a^2 = 2b^2 \text{ -----} \rightarrow (1)$$

$\Rightarrow a$ is even (n^2 is even $\Rightarrow n$ is even)

$\Rightarrow a = 2k$ (by def of even) for some integer k

$$\text{put in (1)} \Rightarrow (2k)^2 = 2b^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 4k^2 = 2b^2$$

$$\Rightarrow b^2 = 2k^2$$

$\Rightarrow b$ is even, which is a

contradiction to our supposition as we already have a is even.

Hence our supposition is wrong $\Rightarrow \sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Give a proof by contradiction of the theorem “If $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.”

- **Proof:** Since it is $p \Rightarrow q$, let us assume that the negation of the statement is true. i.e $\neg(p \Rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$ is true.

$p \wedge \neg q$ means $3n+2$ is odd and n is not odd ---- \rightarrow (supposition)

n is not odd $\Rightarrow n$ is even $\Rightarrow n = 2k$ for every integer k

$$\text{then } 3n+2 = 3(2k)+2$$

$$= 2(3k+1)$$

$$= 2m \text{ where } m = 3k+1 \text{ for integer } k$$

i.e, $3n+2$ is even which is contradiction to our supposition. Hence our supposition is wrong.

so, If $3n + 2$ is odd, then n is odd.

End of the Chapter