Section 1.1: Statements, Symbolic Representations, and Tautologies

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Abstract

We encounter the elements of logic: statements, connectives, tautologies, contradictions, etc., and create wffs ("whiffs") from these basic elements. An algorithm for detecting tautologies in the form of implications is described.

Note: dual labelled exercises refer to 5th/6th edition numbers. Hence #26/29 refers to problem 26 in the 5th edition, and 29 in the 6th edition.

• Statement/proposition: a sentence possessing truth value (T or F).

statuet? Value? Is that free? a. The moon is made of green cheese Fra b. (He) is certainly a tall man. C. Two is a prime number. d. Will the game be over soon? winter 4 e. Next year intrest rates) will rise. N x 2 - 4 = 0

- Logical connectives join statements into formulas, or compound statements:
 - conjunction (symbolized by \land , "and")

		tar	~ [°	r fire	NI 45	rot	[·	quivalue
Α	В	$A \wedge B$	$A \vee B$	$A \longrightarrow B$	A'	B,	$A \leftrightarrow B$	A COB
Т	Т	1	T	7	F	F	T	
T	F	F	T	F	F	T	F	(A→B)∧(B→A)
F	T	F	T	T	T	F	F	(1) 1) ((2) (1)
F	F	F	F	T	T	T	T	

- disjunction (symbolized by \vee , "or")
- implication (symbolized by \longrightarrow : (does its table seem weird to you? It's by convention!) In the implication $A \longrightarrow B$, A is the **antecedent**, and B is the **consequent**. Some English equivalents to implication are given in Table 1.5.

Exercise #4

c. Errors will be introduced only if the is modification of the program.

Errors -> Modification.

Implication plays an especially important role among connectives, so learn it well!

- equivalence (symbolized by \longleftrightarrow , "if and only if")
- negation (symbolized by ', "not" unary)

Note: These connectives are not independent - some of these may be derived from the others (Exercise #29/33 shows that conjunction and negation suffice to write the others, for example).

Exercise #6/7ade: Negating implications

Д	B	I A m B	A N B'
1-1	T	T	F
7 #	7	F	て ド
FI	FI	٠ - ١	_

Example (more interesting, and demonstrating that context is important for a statement's truth value): The dilemma of Protagoras and Eualthus

- Well-formed formula (wff "whiff") is a compound statement made up of statements, logical connectives, and other wffs What makes one well-formed?
 - Order of precedence:
 - * parentheses
 - *
 - * conjunction, disjunction
 - * implication
 - * equivalence

Order of precedence helps us to simplify our lives: hence,

$$A \wedge B \longrightarrow C$$
 means $(A \wedge B) \longrightarrow C$

- main connective (last to be applied)
- Truth table for a wff with n statement letters: 2^n rows

Example: the table for implication above, which is a binary (2 statement letter) logical connective. Hence there are $2^2 = 4$ rows.

- tautology: wff which is always true (represented by 1).
- contradiction: wff which is always false (represented by 0).
- equivalent wffs: wffs A and B are equivalent, $A \iff B$, if the wff

$$A \longleftrightarrow B$$

is a tautology. (How can we prove that?)

Some tautological equivalences:

1a.
$$A \lor B \iff B \lor A$$

2a.
$$(A \lor B) \lor C \iff A \lor (B \lor C)$$

3a.
$$A \lor (B \land C) \iff (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$$

4a.
$$A \lor 0 \iff A$$

5a.
$$A \vee A' \iff 1$$

1b.
$$A \wedge B \iff B \wedge A$$

2b.
$$(A \wedge B) \wedge C \iff A \wedge (B \wedge C)$$

3b.
$$A \wedge (B \vee C) \iff (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$$

4b.
$$A \wedge 1 \iff A$$

5b.
$$A \wedge A' \iff 0$$

Complement

Equivalent wffs will be useful when we are proving arguments, and want to replace complex wffs with simpler ones.

• De Morgan's Laws are two specific examples of equivalent wffs:

Exercise #17/20e

Notice that the two formulas of De Morgan's Laws appear analogous ("dual"). In fact, one is the negation of the other.

Question: How so?

Exercise #24/27

• Algorithm: a set of instructions that can be mechanically executed in a finite amount of time in order to solve some problem.

Often written out in **pseudocode**, the author provides us an example: the algorithm TautologyTest is useful for whether or not an implication (that is, a wff where the main connective is implication) is, in fact, always true (a tautology). She proceeds by contradiction (one proof technique we'll study further in Chapter 2): assume that the implication $P \to Q$ is false. Then P must be true, and Q false (the only scenario which makes an implication false).

Exercise 26/29: a,c

c.
$$(A \vee B) \wedge A' \rightarrow B$$
. Assume it to be false,

1. $(A \vee B) \wedge A'$ true

2. B' true (B false)

3. A' true (A false)

4. A \nabla B true

5. A \nabla B false (A' \nabla B' (=> (A \nabla B)')

Arrived et a contradiction i i', it was a tautology—

it can't be false.

Building a truth table for the implication also constitutes an algorithm to test to see if it is true, but, although the truth table algorithm may be more powerful (as more general, working for all would-be tautologies), TautologyTest may be faster when applied to an implication.