

Math 321: Some logic

Kameryn J Williams

University of Hawai'i at Mānoa

Spring 2021

Previously in Math 321

We've been looking at some examples of proofs in mathematics, and we've used different proof strategies along the way. Some proof strategies are based on the logical structure of the mathematical statements in question.

Previously in Math 321

We've been looking at some examples of proofs in mathematics, and we've used different proof strategies along the way. Some proof strategies are based on the logical structure of the mathematical statements in question. So let's talk a bit about logic.

Basic objects of logic

- In the math we've done so far, the objects we've been concerned about have mainly been numbers.
- Mathematicians care about other kinds of objects, and we will see more as the semester progresses—functions, sets, graphs, and so on.

Basic objects of logic

- In the math we've done so far, the objects we've been concerned about have mainly been numbers.
- Mathematicians care about other kinds of objects, and we will see more as the semester progresses—functions, sets, graphs, and so on.
- In logic, the objects we care about are linguistic.
- A **predicate** is a statement that can be either true or false. We will care about mathematical statements, but logic applies more broadly.
 - “There are infinitely many primes.”
 - “There exists a real-valued function which is continuous everywhere but differentiable nowhere.”
 - “ p is prime.”
 - “The limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches a is L .”

Basic objects of logic

- In the math we've done so far, the objects we've been concerned about have mainly been numbers.
- Mathematicians care about other kinds of objects, and we will see more as the semester progresses—functions, sets, graphs, and so on.
- In logic, the objects we care about are linguistic.
- A **predicate** is a statement that can be either true or false. We will care about mathematical statements, but logic applies more broadly.
 - “There are infinitely many primes.”
 - “There exists a real-valued function which is continuous everywhere but differentiable nowhere.”
 - “ p is prime.”
 - “The limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches a is L .”
- Some predicates have **parameters**, others do not. When we use variables to refer to predicates, we write e.g. $P(x, y)$ to denote that the predicate P has parameters x and y .
- Whether $P(x, y)$ is true can depend on what you plug in for x and y !

Compound predicates

Starting with some predicates P, Q, \dots you can build up more complicated predicates.

Compound predicates

Starting with some predicates P, Q, \dots you can build up more complicated predicates.

- P or Q .

Compound predicates

Starting with some predicates P, Q, \dots you can build up more complicated predicates.

- P or Q .
- If P then Q but not R .

Compound predicates

Starting with some predicates P, Q, \dots you can build up more complicated predicates.

- P or Q .
- If P then Q but not R .
- There is a natural number x so that $P(x)$.

Compound predicates

Starting with some predicates P, Q, \dots you can build up more complicated predicates.

- P or Q .
- If P then Q but not R .
- There is a natural number x so that $P(x)$.

We want to understand these ways of building up more complicated predicates.

- Whether a statement like “ P and not Q ” is true depends only upon whether P and Q are true, not upon their content.
- And similar goes for how it can be used in proofs.

Compound predicates

Starting with some predicates P, Q, \dots you can build up more complicated predicates.

- P or Q .
- If P then Q but not R .
- There is a natural number x so that $P(x)$.

We want to understand these ways of building up more complicated predicates.

- Whether a statement like “ P and not Q ” is true depends only upon whether P and Q are true, not upon their content.
- And similar goes for how it can be used in proofs.

So let's analyze how this works. We'll start with predicates without parameters.

Truth tables

One way to analyze this is to use **truth tables**, developed circa 1920 by the philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein and, independently, the mathematician Emil Post. (And in unpublished work of Charles Peirce from about 1890.)

The idea is, you can exhaustively list all the possible combinations of truth values for the inputs, and then list the corresponding truth values of the output.

Truth tables

One way to analyze this is to use **truth tables**, developed circa 1920 by the philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein and, independently, the mathematician Emil Post. (And in unpublished work of Charles Peirce from about 1890.)

The idea is, you can exhaustively list all the possible combinations of truth values for the inputs, and then list the corresponding truth values of the output.

P	Q	P and Q
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

Or

P	Q	P or Q
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

Not

P	not P
T	
F	

If-and-only-if

P	Q	$P \text{ iff } Q$
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

If-then

P	Q	if P then Q
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

Checking logical equivalence

You can show that two predicates are **logically equivalent** by constructing the truth predicates for them and seeing they have the same outputs.

Checking logical equivalence

You can show that two predicates are **logically equivalent** by constructing the truth predicates for them and seeing they have the same outputs.

For example, let's see that an if-then statement is equivalent to its contrapositive.

P	Q	if P then Q	if not Q then not P
T	T		
T	F		
F	T		
F	F		

New logical connectives?

You could introduce new logical connectives and give truth tables for them, but what we have suffices to express anything.

For example, let's see how to express exclusive-or using just 'and' and 'or'.

P	Q	$P \text{ xor } Q$	
T	T		
T	F		
F	T		
F	F		

DeMorgan's Laws

You can also use truth tables for more complicated logical rules.

DeMorgan's laws state that the following two pairs of statements are equivalent:

- “not (P and Q)” and “not P or not Q ”
- “not (P or Q)” and “not P and not Q ”

P	Q	not (P and Q)	not P or not Q
T	T		
T	F		
F	T		
F	F		

Predicates with parameters

Predicates with parameters are a little trickier to handle.

- Most of the domains of interest to mathematicians are infinite—the natural numbers, the real numbers, and so on.
- So you cannot so easily list all possible combinations of truth values.

Predicates and sets

Let's see a couple examples before the general theory.

- Work over the domain \mathbb{N} .

Predicates and sets

Let's see a couple examples before the general theory.

- Work over the domain \mathbb{R} .

Predicates and sets

Work over a domain U .

- If $P(x)$ is a predicate about objects x from U , then the **extension** of $P(x)$ is the set $\{x \in U : P(x)\}$.
 - In an abuse of notation, I will write P for the extension of $P(x)$.

Predicates and sets

Work over a domain U .

- If $P(x)$ is a predicate about objects x from U , then the **extension** of $P(x)$ is the set $\{x \in U : P(x)\}$.
 - In an abuse of notation, I will write P for the extension of $P(x)$.
- Logical connectives applied to predicates correspond to set theoretic operations applied to sets.
 - The extension of “ $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ ” is the **intersection** $P \cap Q$.
 - The extension of “ $P(x)$ or $Q(x)$ ” is the **union** $P \cup Q$.
 - The extension of “not $P(x)$ ” is the **complement** $U \setminus P$.

Predicates and sets

Work over a domain U .

- If $P(x)$ is a predicate about objects x from U , then the **extension** of $P(x)$ is the set $\{x \in U : P(x)\}$.
 - In an abuse of notation, I will write P for the extension of $P(x)$.
- Logical connectives applied to predicates correspond to set theoretic operations applied to sets.
 - The extension of “ $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ ” is the **intersection** $P \cap Q$.
 - The extension of “ $P(x)$ or $Q(x)$ ” is the **union** $P \cup Q$.
 - The extension of “not $P(x)$ ” is the **complement** $U \setminus P$.
- You can do similar for if-then and iff, but here's a better way to think about those.
 - “if $P(x)$ then $Q(x)$ ” is true for all $x \in U$ if and only if $P \subseteq Q$.
 - “ $P(x)$ iff $Q(x)$ ” is true for all $x \in U$ if and only if $P = Q$.

Venn diagrams

Quantifiers

- Mathematics is full of statements like “every non-constant polynomial has a root in the complex numbers” .
- We're not just talking about some predicate $P(x)$ for which we could plug in specific objects for x and see what we get.
- Rather, we're saying something about how many such x there are.

Quantifiers

- Mathematics is full of statements like “every non-constant polynomial has a root in the complex numbers”.
- We’re not just talking about some predicate $P(x)$ for which we could plug in specific objects for x and see what we get.
- Rather, we’re saying something about how many such x there are.
- It’s maybe clearer if we rewrite this statement: “for all nonconstant polynomials $p(x)$ there is a complex number r so that $p(r) = 0$ ”.

Quantifiers

- Mathematics is full of statements like “every non-constant polynomial has a root in the complex numbers”.
- We’re not just talking about some predicate $P(x)$ for which we could plug in specific objects for x and see what we get.
- Rather, we’re saying something about how many such x there are.
- It’s maybe clearer if we rewrite this statement: “for all nonconstant polynomials $p(x)$ there is a complex number r so that $p(r) = 0$ ”.
 - “For all” is the **universal quantifier**, talking about all objects of a certain type.
 - “There is” is the **existential quantifier**, saying there exists some object of a certain type.

Quantifiers

- Mathematics is full of statements like “every non-constant polynomial has a root in the complex numbers”.
- We’re not just talking about some predicate $P(x)$ for which we could plug in specific objects for x and see what we get.
- Rather, we’re saying something about how many such x there are.
- It’s maybe clearer if we rewrite this statement: “for all nonconstant polynomials $p(x)$ there is a complex number r so that $p(r) = 0$ ”.
 - “For all” is the **universal quantifier**, talking about all objects of a certain type.
 - “There is” is the **existential quantifier**, saying there exists some object of a certain type.
- There are symbolic abbreviations:
 - $\forall x P(x)$ abbreviates “for all x , $P(x)$ ”.
 - $\exists x P(x)$ abbreviates “there exists x so that $P(x)$ ”.

Bounded quantifiers

Often when quantifier over objects, we want to restrict to a smaller domain.

- For example, if we're talking about natural numbers we may want to restrict a statement to just being about primes.

Bounded quantifiers

Often when quantifier over objects, we want to restrict to a smaller domain.

- For example, if we're talking about natural numbers we may want to restrict a statement to just being about primes.

When we do this we are **bounding** the quantifiers.

- Suppose we want to quantify over a smaller domain D .
 - “for all $x \in D$, $P(x)$ ” is equivalent to “for all x , if $x \in D$ then $P(x)$ ”.
 - “there exists $x \in D$ so that $P(x)$ ” is equivalent to “there exists x so that $x \in D$ and $P(x)$ ”.

Bounded quantifiers

Often when quantifier over objects, we want to restrict to a smaller domain.

- For example, if we're talking about natural numbers we may want to restrict a statement to just being about primes.

When we do this we are **bounding** the quantifiers.

- Suppose we want to quantify over a smaller domain D .
 - “for all $x \in D$, $P(x)$ ” is equivalent to “for all x , if $x \in D$ then $P(x)$ ”.
 - “there exists $x \in D$ so that $P(x)$ ” is equivalent to “there exists x so that $x \in D$ and $P(x)$ ”.
- So if you like, you can consider bounded quantifiers an abbreviation. But they're so convenient for phrasing things that we'll use them.

DeMorgan's laws

Just like we have DeMorgan's laws for and/or, there are DeMorgan's laws for quantifiers. In short, they say that if you push a 'not' inside a quantifier or pull a 'not' out from inside a quantifier, then it flips the quantifier to the other type.

- “not (for all x , $P(x)$)” is equivalent to “there exists an x so that not $P(x)$ ”.
- “not (there exists x so that $P(x)$)” is equivalent to “for all x , not $P(x)$ ”.

DeMorgan's laws

Just like we have DeMorgan's laws for and/or, there are DeMorgan's laws for quantifiers. In short, they say that if you push a 'not' inside a quantifier or pull a 'not' out from inside a quantifier, then it flips the quantifier to the other type.

- “not (for all x , $P(x)$)” is equivalent to “there exists an x so that not $P(x)$ ”.
- “not (there exists x so that $P(x)$)” is equivalent to “for all x , not $P(x)$ ”.

These are often useful for doing proofs by contradictions. For example, if you want to prove that “for all x , $P(x)$ ”, you assume it's false—that is, you assume there is some x so that not $P(x)$ —and you try to derive a contradiction.