

MATH 1190

Lili Shen

Propositional
Equivalences

Predicates
and
Quantifiers

Predicates
Quantifiers

Introduction to Sets and Logic (MATH 1190)

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Outline

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Tautologies

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Definition

A **tautology** is a compound proposition which is always true.

Examples of tautologies

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Example

As we have noticed before, the disjunction of a proposition and its negation is always true, such as

“Toronto is or is not the capital of Canada.”

That is to say, $p \vee \neg p$ is a tautology.

Contradictions

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Definition

A **contradiction** is a compound proposition which is always false.

Examples of contradictions

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Example

On the contrary, the conjunction of a proposition and its negation is always false, such as

“Toronto is and is not the capital of Canada.”

That is to say, $p \wedge \neg p$ is a contradiction.

Contingencies

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Definition

A **contingency** is a proposition which is neither a tautology nor a contradiction.

The simplest examples of contingencies are p and $\neg p$.

Examples of tautologies, contradictions and contingencies

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The following truth table illustrates the previous examples.

p	$\neg p$	$p \vee \neg p$	$p \wedge \neg p$
T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F

Logical equivalences

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Definition

Two compound propositions p and q are **logically equivalent**, denoted by

$$p \equiv q, \quad (\text{or } p \Leftrightarrow q)$$

if $p \Leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology.

Logical equivalences

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Remark

- (1) The symbol \equiv (or \Leftrightarrow) is not a logic operator. $p \equiv q$ is not a compound proposition, but rather a “single” proposition

“ $p \Leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology.”

- (2) Two compound propositions p and q are equivalent if and only if the columns in a truth table giving their truth values agree.
- (3) We denote by **T** the compound proposition that is a tautology, and **F** the compound proposition that is a contradiction. For example,

$$p \vee \neg p \equiv \mathbf{T} \quad \text{and} \quad p \wedge \neg p \equiv \mathbf{F}.$$

Examples of logical equivalences

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Example

Show that $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q$.

Proof.

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$\neg p \vee q$
T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F
F	T	T	T
F	F	T	T



Examples of logical equivalences

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Example (De Morgan laws)

$$(1) \neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q.$$

$$(2) \neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q.$$

Proof.

We prove (1) for example.

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



Examples of logical equivalences

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Example (Distributive laws)

$$(1) \quad p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r).$$

$$(2) \quad p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r).$$

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Proof.

We prove (2) for example.

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



Fundamental logical equivalences

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- (Identity laws) $p \wedge \mathbf{T} \equiv p, p \vee \mathbf{F} \equiv p.$
- (Domination laws) $p \vee \mathbf{T} \equiv \mathbf{T}, p \wedge \mathbf{F} \equiv \mathbf{F}.$
- (Idempotent laws) $p \vee p \equiv p, p \wedge p \equiv p.$
- (Double negation law) $\neg\neg p \equiv p.$
- (Commutative laws) $p \vee q \equiv q \vee p, p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p.$
- (Associative laws) $(p \vee q) \vee r \equiv p \vee (q \vee r),$
 $(p \wedge q) \wedge r \equiv p \wedge (q \wedge r).$
- (Distributive laws) $p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r),$
 $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r).$
- (De Morgan laws) $\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q,$
 $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q.$
- (Absorption laws) $p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p, p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p.$
- (Negation laws) $p \vee \neg p \equiv \mathbf{T}, p \wedge \neg p \equiv \mathbf{F}.$

Fundamental logical equivalences

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- $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p.$
- $p \vee q \equiv \neg p \rightarrow q.$
- $p \wedge q \equiv \neg(p \rightarrow \neg q).$
- $\neg(p \rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q.$
- $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (p \rightarrow r) \equiv p \rightarrow (q \wedge r).$
- $(p \rightarrow r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r) \equiv (p \vee q) \rightarrow r.$
- $(p \rightarrow q) \vee (p \rightarrow r) \equiv p \rightarrow (q \vee r).$
- $(p \rightarrow r) \vee (q \rightarrow r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \rightarrow r.$
- $p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p) \equiv \neg p \leftrightarrow \neg q \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q).$
- $\neg(p \leftrightarrow q) \equiv p \leftrightarrow \neg q.$

Constructing new logical equivalences

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By the help these fundamental logical equivalences, we can show that two expressions are logically equivalent by developing a series of logically equivalent statements.

To prove that $p \equiv q$, we produce a series of equivalences beginning with p and ending with q :

$$p \equiv p_1 \equiv p_2 \equiv \cdots \equiv p_n \equiv q.$$

This is a more effective way of constructing complicated logical equivalences, compared to the way of drawing truth tables.

Constructing new logical equivalences

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Remark

Keep in mind that whenever a proposition (represented by a propositional variable) occurs in the equivalences listed earlier, it may be replaced by an **arbitrarily** complex compound proposition.

For example, the De Morgan's law says

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

Then we know that

$$\neg((p \vee \neg q) \wedge (p \vee r)) \equiv \neg(p \vee \neg q) \vee \neg(p \vee r).$$

Examples of constructing new logical equivalences

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Example

Show that $\neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q))$ and $\neg p \wedge \neg q$ are logically equivalent.

Examples of constructing new logical equivalences

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Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} & \neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q)) \\ \equiv & \neg p \wedge \neg(\neg p \wedge q) && \text{(De Morgan's law)} \\ \equiv & \neg p \wedge (\neg\neg p \vee \neg q) && \text{(De Morgan's law)} \\ \equiv & \neg p \wedge (p \vee \neg q) && \text{(double negation law)} \\ \equiv & (\neg p \wedge p) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) && \text{(distributive law)} \\ \equiv & \mathbf{F} \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) && \text{(distributive law)} \\ \equiv & (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \vee \mathbf{F} && \text{(commutative law)} \\ \equiv & \neg p \wedge \neg q. && \text{(identity law)} \end{aligned}$$



Examples of constructing new logical equivalences

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Example

Show that $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \vee q)$ is a tautology.

Examples of constructing new logical equivalences

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Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} & (p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \vee q) \\ \equiv & \neg(p \wedge q) \vee (p \vee q) && \text{(Table 7)} \\ \equiv & (\neg p \vee \neg q) \vee (p \vee q) && \text{(De Morgan's law)} \\ \equiv & (\neg p \vee p) \vee (\neg q \vee q) && \text{(associative and commutative law)} \\ \equiv & \mathbf{T} \vee \mathbf{T} \\ \equiv & \mathbf{T}. && \text{(domination law)} \end{aligned}$$



Propositional satisfiability

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Definition

A compound proposition is **satisfiable** if there is an assignment of truth values to its variables that make it true. When no such assignments exist, the compound proposition is **unsatisfiable**.

It follows immediately from the definition that

- A compound proposition is unsatisfiable if and only if its negation is a tautology.

Examples of satisfiability

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Example

Both the compound propositions

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

and

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

are satisfiable, but

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

is not satisfiable.

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Propositional logic is not enough

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Propositional logic is the oldest and the simplest branch of logic. However, propositional logic is not enough to deal with the following situation:

- If we have

“All men are mortal.”

“I am a man.”

Does it follow that “I am mortal?”

- If we have

“All pigs are mortal.”

“I am mortal.”

Does it follow that “I am a pig?”

Predicate logic

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Predicate logic uses the following new features:

- variables: x, y, z, \dots ;
- predicates: $P(x), Q(x), R(x, y, z), \dots$;
- quantifiers: \forall, \exists .

Propositional functions are a generalization of propositions.

- They contain variables and a predicate, e.g., $P(x, y)$;
- Variables can be replaced by elements from their **domain**.

Propositional functions

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Remark

- Propositional functions become propositions (and have truth values) when their variables are each replaced by a value from the domain (or **bound** by a quantifier, as we will see later).
- The statement $P(x)$ is said to be the value of the propositional function P at x .

Examples of propositional functions

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Example

Let $P(x)$ denote the propositional function $x > 0$ and let the domain be the integers. Then

- $P(3)$ is the proposition $3 > 0$, which is true;
- $P(0)$ is the proposition $0 > 0$, which is false;
- $P(-3)$ is the proposition $-3 > 0$, which is false.

Examples of propositional functions

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Example

Let “ $x + y = z$ ” be denoted by $R(x, y, z)$, and the domain (for all three variables) be the integers. Then:

- $R(2, 1, -5)$ is false;
- $R(3, 4, 7)$ is true;
- $R(x, 3, z)$ is not a proposition.

Examples of propositional functions

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Example

Let $P(x)$ denote “ $x > 0$ ”. Then

- $P(3) \vee P(-1)$ is true;
- $P(3) \wedge P(-1)$ is false;
- $P(3) \rightarrow P(-1)$ is false;
- $P(-1) \rightarrow P(-3)$ is true;
- Neither $P(3) \wedge P(y)$ nor $P(x) \rightarrow P(y)$ is a proposition.

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We need **quantifiers** to express the meaning of English words including **all** and **some**:

- “All men are Mortal.”
- “Some students skip the class.”

Quantifiers

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Definition

- (1) The **universal quantification** of $P(x)$, denoted by $\forall xP(x)$, is the proposition

“ $P(x)$ for all values of x in the domain.”

Here \forall is called the **universal quantifier**.

- (2) The **existential quantification** of $P(x)$, denoted by $\exists xP(x)$, is the proposition

“There exists an element x in the domain such that $P(x)$.”

Here \exists is called the **existential quantifier**.

Quantifiers

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Remark

- $\forall xP(x)$ asserts that $P(x)$ is true for **every** x in the domain.
- $\exists xP(x)$ asserts that $P(x)$ is true for **some** x in the domain.
- The quantifiers are said to bind the variable x in these expressions.
- $\exists xP(x)$ is commonly expressed in English in the following equivalent ways:
 - “There is an x such that $P(x)$.”
 - “There is at least one x such that $P(x)$.”
 - “For some x $P(x)$.”

Quantifiers

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Remark

- $P(x)$ is a propositional function (but not a proposition). It becomes a proposition when it is bound by the quantifier \forall or \exists .
- The proposition $\forall xP(x)$ is true iff $P(x)$ is true for every x .
- The proposition $\forall xP(x)$ is false iff there is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.
- The proposition $\exists xP(x)$ is true iff there is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.
- The proposition $\exists xP(x)$ is false iff $P(x)$ is false for every x .

Examples of propositions with quantifiers

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Example

Let $P(x)$ denote “ $x > 0$ ”.

- If the domain is the integers, then $\forall xP(x)$ is false, and $\exists xP(x)$ is true;
- If the domain is the positive integers, then both $\forall xP(x)$ and $\exists xP(x)$ are true.
- If the domain is the negative integers, then both $\forall xP(x)$ and $\exists xP(x)$ are false.

Uniqueness quantifiers

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We write

$$\exists! x P(x)$$

for the statement that “ $P(x)$ is true for **one and only one** x in the domain”.

This is commonly expressed in English in the following equivalent ways:

- “There is a unique x such that $P(x)$.”
- “There is one and only one x such that $P(x)$.”

$\exists!$ is called the **uniqueness quantifier**.

Examples of uniqueness quantifiers

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Example

Consider the integers as the domain.

- If $P(x)$ denotes “ $x + 1 = 0$ ”, then $\exists! x P(x)$ is true.
- If $P(x)$ denotes “ $x > 0$ ”, then $\exists! x P(x)$ is false (but we already know that $\exists x P(x)$ is true).

Precedence of quantifiers

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The quantifiers \forall and \exists have higher precedence than all the logical operators. For example,

$$\forall x P(x) \vee Q(x)$$

means

$$(\forall x P(x)) \vee Q(x)$$

rather than

$$\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x)).$$

If you are not familiar about the precedence, please DON'T OMIT the parentheses!

Equivalences in predicate logic

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Definition

Statements involving predicates and quantifiers are **logically equivalent** if and only if they have the same truth value

- for every predicate substituted into these statements and
- for every domain of discourse used for the variables in the expressions.

The notation $S \equiv T$ indicates that S and T are logically equivalent.

Examples of equivalences in predicate logic

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Example

- $\forall x \neg \neg P(x) \equiv \forall x P(x).$
- $\forall x (P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \equiv \forall x P(x) \wedge \forall x Q(x).$
- $\exists! x P(x) \equiv \exists x (P(x) \wedge \forall y (P(y) \rightarrow y = x)).$
- If the domain consists of finite elements x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , then

$$\forall x P(x) \equiv P(x_1) \wedge P(x_2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(x_n),$$

$$\exists x P(x) \equiv P(x_1) \vee P(x_2) \vee \dots \vee P(x_n).$$

Translating from English to logic

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Example

Translate the following sentence into predicate logic:

- “Every student in our class loves mathematics.”

Translating from English to logic

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Solution.

First we fix the domain.

- If the domain is the students in our class, define a propositional function $P(x)$ as “ x loves mathematics”, then the sentence is translated as

$$\forall x P(x).$$

- If the domain is all people, also define a propositional function $S(x)$ as “ x is a student in our class”, then the sentence is translated as

$$\forall x (S(x) \rightarrow P(x)).$$



Translating from English to logic

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Question

In the case of the domain is all people,

$$\forall x(S(x) \wedge P(x))$$

is not the correct translation. What does it mean?

Translating from English to logic

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Example

Translate the following sentence into predicate logic:

- “Some students in our class love mathematics.”

Translating from English to logic

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Solution.

First we fix the domain.

- If the domain is the students in our class, define a propositional function $P(x)$ as “ x loves mathematics”, then the sentence is translated as

$$\exists x P(x).$$

- If the domain is all people, also define a propositional function $S(x)$ as “ x is a student in our class”, then the sentence is translated as

$$\exists x (S(x) \wedge P(x)).$$



Translating from English to logic

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Question

In the case of the domain is all people,

$$\exists x(S(x) \rightarrow P(x))$$

is not the correct translation. What does it mean?

Recommended exercises

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Section 1.3: 6, 8, 10, 26, 30, 61.

Section 1.4: 8, 10, 15, 21, 27.