

Formale Grundlagen (Logik)

Modul 04-006-1001

Statement Logic III

Leipzig University

January 4th, 2024

Fabian Heck

(Slides by Imke Driemel & Sandhya Sundaresan,
based on Partee, ter Meulen und Wall 1990
“Mathematical Methods in Linguistics”)

Recap: Statement logic

- we will assume an infinite vocabulary of atomic statements

Statement logic

A formal system where the primitives are all statements.

(1) *Basic expressions of statement logic*

a $p, q, r, s, p', p'', \dots$

(2) *Syntax of statement logic*

a. An atomic statement is a well-formed formula.

b. If ϕ is a well-formed formula, then $(\neg\phi)$ is a well-formed formula.

c. If ϕ and ψ are well-formed formulas, then $(\phi \wedge \psi)$, $(\phi \vee \psi)$, $(\phi \rightarrow \psi)$, and $(\phi \leftrightarrow \psi)$ are well-formed formulas.

d. Nothing else is a formula.

Recap: Statement logic

- we wrote down the semantic rules like the syntactic rules
- this is an alternative to truth tables
- read $\llbracket \cdot \rrbracket^M$ as interpreted in relation to model M

(3) *Semantics of statement logic*

- a. If ϕ is a formula, then $\llbracket (\neg\phi) \rrbracket^M = 1$ iff $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket^M = 0$.
- b. If ϕ and ψ are formulas, then $\llbracket (\phi \wedge \psi) \rrbracket^M = 1$ iff both $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket^M = 1$ and $\llbracket \psi \rrbracket^M = 1$.
- c. If ϕ and ψ are formulas, then $\llbracket (\phi \vee \psi) \rrbracket^M = 1$ iff at least one of $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket^M, \llbracket \psi \rrbracket^M = 1$.
- d. If ϕ and ψ are formulas, then $\llbracket (\phi \rightarrow \psi) \rrbracket^M = 1$ iff either $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket^M = 0$ or $\llbracket \psi \rrbracket^M = 1$.
- e. If ϕ and ψ are formulas, then $\llbracket (\phi \leftrightarrow \psi) \rrbracket^M = 1$ iff $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket^M = \llbracket \psi \rrbracket^M$.

Recap: Tautologies, contradictions & contingencies

- a tautological statement is always true: the final column in its truth table contains only the values 1/True, regardless of what the truth values of its atomic statements are

(4)

p	$(p \rightarrow p)$
1	1
0	1

- a logically contradictory statement is always false: the final column of its truth table only contains the values 0/False, regardless of what the truth values of its atomic statements are

(5)

p	$(\neg p)$	$(p \wedge (\neg p))$
1	0	0
0	1	0

- all other statements, with both 1/True and 0/False in the final column of their truth table are called logical contingencies

Logical equivalence & logical consequence

- if a biconditional statement is a logical tautology, then the two constituent statements on either side of the biconditional arrow are logically equivalent
- to denote logical equivalence between two arbitrary expressions P and Q we write $P \Leftrightarrow Q$
- if a conditional statement is a logical tautology, we say that the consequent is a logical consequence of the antecedent
- alternatively, we say that the antecedent logically implies the consequent and we write $P \Rightarrow Q$

Logical equivalence: exercise

- let us prove another logical equivalence!

$$(6) \quad (p \rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow ((\neg p) \vee q)$$

Logical equivalence: exercise

- let us prove another logical equivalence!

$$(7) \quad (p \rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow ((\neg p) \vee q)$$

(8)

p	q	$(p \rightarrow q)$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	1
0	0	1

(9)

p	q	$(\neg p)$	$((\neg p) \vee q)$
1	1	0	1
1	0	0	0
0	1	1	1
0	0	1	1

Formal components of a proof

- we will turn to one of the central uses of statement logic: constructing a proof/argument
- it consists of two parts
 - ① a number of statements, called **premises**: these are just statements that we, for the sake of argument, assume to be True
 - ② **conclusion**, whose truth is demonstrated to necessarily follow from the assumed truth of the premises

$$(10) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{premise 1} \\ \text{premise 2} \\ \hline \therefore \text{ conclusion} \end{array}$$

- a proof is called **valid** iff there is no uniform assignment of truth values to its atomic statements which makes all its premises true and its conclusion false
- a proof is called **invalid** iff there is at least one uniform assignment of truth values to its atomic statements which makes all its premises true and its conclusion false

Formal components of a proof

- premises and conclusion of a proof are related by the conditional \rightarrow (antecedent \rightarrow conclusion)
 - the premises are the antecedent of the conditional
 - the conclusion is the consequent of the conditional
- (11) For a given proof X , if p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n are premises of X and q the conclusion of X , then:
- a. X is valid iff: $((p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n) \rightarrow q)$ is a tautology (i.e. always true)
 - b. X is invalid iff: $((p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n) \rightarrow q)$ is not a tautology (i.e. not always true)
- an example for a simple natural language proof:
- (12) If Marie eats another pizza, she will get sick.
 Marie eats another pizza.

 \therefore Marie gets sick.

A kind of proof: Modus Ponens

- this proof is called Modus Ponens

(13) If Marie eats another pizza, she will get sick.
 Marie eats another pizza.

 ∴ Marie gets sick.

- we can translate this argument into statement logic:

(14) a. $p =$ Marie eats another pizza.
 b. $q =$ Marie gets sick.

- thus, we get the following:

(15) $(p \rightarrow q)$
 p

 ∴ q

A kind of proof: Modus Ponens

- Modus Ponens:

$$(16) \quad \frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad p}{\therefore q}$$

- we can show that the proof is valid with a truth table

(17)

p	q	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge p)$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge p) \rightarrow q$
1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	1
0	0	1	0	1

- premises are connected via \wedge , the conclusion is a logical consequence (\Rightarrow) if the proof is valid, i.e. if the implication (\rightarrow) is a tautology

More proofs: Modus Tollens

- the following proof is called Modus Tollens

$$(18) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{If Jack drinks beer, he will get drunk.} \\ \text{Jack doesn't get drunk.} \\ \hline \therefore \text{ Jack doesn't drink beer.} \end{array}$$

$$(19) \quad \begin{array}{l} (p \rightarrow q) \\ (\neg q) \\ \hline \therefore (\neg p) \end{array}$$

- again, we can show the validity of the proof by means of a truth table

(20)

p	q	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (\neg q))$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (\neg q)) \rightarrow (\neg p)$
1	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	1
0	0	1	1	1

More proofs: Hypothetical Syllogism

- the following proof is called Hypothetical Syllogism

(21) If Jack drinks, he falls asleep.
 If Jack sleeps, Sue gets angry.

∴ If Jack drinks, Sue gets angry.

(22) $(p \rightarrow q)$
 $(q \rightarrow r)$

∴ $(p \rightarrow r)$

- convince yourself of the validity of the proof in the tutorials (or at home) by constructing a truth table!

More proofs: Disjunctive Syllogism

- the next proof is called Disjunctive Syllogism

$$\begin{array}{l} (23) \quad \text{Jill will eat or sleep.} \\ \quad \quad \text{Jill will not eat.} \\ \hline \therefore \text{Jill will sleep.} \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} (24) \quad (p \vee q) \\ \quad \quad (\neg p) \\ \hline \therefore q \end{array}$$

- the validity of the proof is illustrated by the following truth table

(25)

p	q	$(\neg p)$	$(p \vee q)$	$((p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p))$	$((p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p)) \rightarrow q$
1	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	1	0	0	1

More proofs: Simplification

- the next proof is called Simplification

$$(26) \quad \frac{\text{Bill is short and Marie is tall.}}{\therefore \text{Bill is short.}}$$

$$(27) \quad \frac{(p \wedge q)}{\therefore p}$$

- show the validity of the proof with a truth table (solution on next page)

More proofs: Simplification

- here is the truth table that shows the validity of the proof for simplification:

(28)

p	q	$(p \wedge q)$	$((p \wedge q) \rightarrow p)$
1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
0	1	0	1
0	0	0	1

More proofs: Conjunction

- here is a proof called Conjunction

$$(29) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Bill is short.} \\ \text{Marie is tall.} \\ \hline \therefore \text{ Bill is short and Marie is tall.} \end{array}$$

$$(30) \quad \begin{array}{l} p \\ q \\ \hline \therefore (p \wedge q) \end{array}$$

- the validity of the proof by means of a truth table is as follows

(31)

p	q	$(p \wedge q)$	$((p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \wedge q))$
1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
0	1	0	1
0	0	0	1

More proofs: Addition

- the next proof is called Addition

$$(32) \quad \frac{\text{Bill is short.}}{\therefore \text{Bill is short or the earth is round.}}$$

$$(33) \quad \frac{p}{\therefore (p \vee q)}$$

- show the validity of the proof with a truth table (solution on next page)

More proofs: Addition

- here is the truth table that shows the validity of the proof for addition:

(34)

p	q	$(p \vee q)$	$(p \rightarrow (p \vee q))$
1	1	1	1
1	0	1	1
0	1	1	1
0	0	0	1

Logical Fallacies

- the proof below is an invalid argument!
- this particular logical fallacy is called: **fallacy of affirming the consequent**

$$(35) \quad \frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad q}{\therefore p}$$

- we can show that the proof is invalid with a truth table
- construct the truth table for this invalid proof. what would we expect as truth values in the last column (solution on next page)?

Logical Fallacies

- an invalid proof is defined as a conditional that does not always result in True
- this is illustrated by the following truth table for the fallacy of affirming the consequent

(36)

p	q	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge q)$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge q) \rightarrow p$
1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
0	0	1	0	1

Logical Fallacies

- fallacy of affirming the consequent:

$$(37) \quad \frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad q}{\therefore p}$$

- it is easy to see why the proof is invalid: the truth of q does not necessarily entail/imply the truth of the conclusion
- take the following natural language equivalent!

$$(38) \quad \frac{\text{If Marie eats another pizza, she will get sick.} \\ \text{Marie gets sick.}}{\therefore \text{Marie eats another pizza.}}$$

- Marie could have gotten sick for a million different reasons

Logical Fallacies

- here is another invalid argument
- this particular logical fallacy is called: **fallacy of denying the antecedent**

$$(39) \quad \frac{\begin{array}{l} (p \rightarrow q) \\ (\neg p) \end{array}}{\therefore (\neg q)}$$

- show that the proof is invalid with a truth table (solution on next page)
- recall that an invalid proof is defined as a conditional that does not always result in True

Logical Fallacies

- the truth table for showing the fallacy of denying the antecedent:

(40)

p	q	$(\neg p)$	$(\neg q)$	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (\neg p))$	$((p \rightarrow q) \wedge (\neg p)) \rightarrow (\neg q)$
1	1	0	0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	1	1	0
0	0	1	1	1	1	1

Logical Fallacies

- fallacy of denying the antecedent:

$$(41) \quad \frac{\begin{array}{l} (p \rightarrow q) \\ (\neg p) \end{array}}{\therefore (\neg q)}$$

- again, it is easy to see why the proof is invalid: denying the truth of p does not necessarily entail/imply the falsity of the conclusion
- let us think of a natural language equivalent!

$$(42) \quad \frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{If Marie eats another pizza, she will get sick.} \\ \text{Marie doesn't eat another pizza.} \end{array}}{\therefore \text{Marie will not get sick.}}$$

- Marie can get sick for different reasons, e.g. too many cocktails

Simple proofs

(43) **Modus Ponens**

$$\frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad p}{\therefore q}$$

(44) **Modus Tollens**

$$\frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad (\neg q)}{\therefore (\neg p)}$$

(45) **Hypothetical Syllogism**

$$\frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad (q \rightarrow r)}{\therefore (p \rightarrow r)}$$

(46) **Disjunctive Syllogism**

$$\frac{(p \vee q) \quad (\neg p)}{\therefore q}$$

(47) **Simplification**

$$\frac{(p \wedge q)}{\therefore p}$$

(48) **Conjunction**

$$\frac{p \quad q}{\therefore (p \wedge q)}$$

(49) **Addition**

$$\frac{p}{\therefore (p \vee q)}$$

Given the premises 1.-5. we can prove the atomic statement t !

(50) *simple proof:*

1. $(p \rightarrow q)$
2. $(p \vee s)$
3. $(q \rightarrow r)$
4. $(s \rightarrow t)$
5. $(\neg r)$
6. $(\neg q)$ 3,5 MT
7. $(\neg p)$ 1,6 MT
8. s 2,7 DS
9. t 4,8 MP

Complex proofs

(51) **Modus Ponens**

$$\frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad p}{\therefore q}$$

(52) **Modus Tollens**

$$\frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad (\neg q)}{\therefore (\neg p)}$$

(53) **Hyp. Syll.**

$$\frac{(p \rightarrow q) \quad (q \rightarrow r)}{\therefore (p \rightarrow r)}$$

(54) **Dis. Syll.**

$$\frac{(p \vee q) \quad (\neg p)}{\therefore q}$$

(55) **Simplification**

$$\frac{(p \wedge q)}{\therefore p}$$

(56) **Identity Laws:**

- a. $x \vee \text{False} \Leftrightarrow x$
- b. $x \wedge \text{False} \Leftrightarrow \text{False}$
- c. $x \vee \text{True} \Leftrightarrow \text{True}$
- d. $x \wedge \text{True} \Leftrightarrow x$

(57) **Conditional Laws:**

- a. $(p \rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow ((\neg p) \vee q)$
- b. $(p \rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow ((\neg q) \rightarrow (\neg p))$

(58) **Commutative Laws:**

- a. $(p \vee q) \Leftrightarrow (q \vee p)$
- b. $(p \wedge q) \Leftrightarrow (q \wedge p)$

(59) **Associative Laws:**

- a. $((p \vee q) \vee r) \Leftrightarrow (p \vee (q \vee r))$
- b. $((p \wedge q) \wedge r) \Leftrightarrow (p \wedge (q \wedge r))$

Given the premises 1.-2. we can prove the implication $(p \rightarrow q)$!

(60) *complex proof:*

1. $(p \rightarrow (q \vee r))$
2. $(\neg r)$
3. $((\neg p) \vee (q \vee r))$ 1 Cond
4. $((\neg p) \vee q) \vee r$ 3 Ass
5. $((\neg p) \vee q) \vee F$ 4 Neg
6. $((\neg p) \vee q)$ 5 Ident
7. $(p \rightarrow q)$ 6 Cond