# 基礎數學 MA-1015A

## **Chapter 1. Logic and Proofs**

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#### Definition

A **proposition** is a sentence that has exactly one truth value. It is either true, which we denote by T, or false, which we denote by F.

### Example

 $7^2 > 60$  (F),  $\pi > 3$  (T), Earth is the closest planet to the sun (F).

### Example

The statement "the north Pacific right whale (露脊鯨) will be extinct species before the year 2525" has one truth value but it takes time to determine the truth value.

### Example

That "Euclid was left-handed" is a statement that has one truth value but may never be known.

#### Definition

A negation of a proposition P, denoted by  $\sim P$ , is the proposition "not P". The proposition  $\sim P$  is  $\begin{array}{c} \mathsf{true} \\ \mathsf{false} \end{array} \text{ exactly when } P \text{ is } \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{false} \\ \mathsf{true} \end{array}.$ 

#### Definition

Given propositions P and Q, the  $\frac{\textit{conjunction}}{\textit{disjunction}} \text{ of } P \text{ and } Q \text{, denoted}$  by  $\frac{P \wedge Q}{P \vee Q} \text{, is the proposition "P} \frac{\text{and}}{\text{or}} Q \text{".} \frac{P \wedge Q}{P \vee Q} \text{ is true exactly}$  when  $\frac{\text{both } P \text{ and } Q \text{ are true}}{\text{at least one of } P \text{ or } Q \text{ is true}}.$ 

### Example

Now we analyze the sentence "either 7 is prime and 9 is even, or else 11 is not less than 3". Let P denote the sentence "7 is a prime", Q denote the sentence "9 is even", and R denote the sentence "11 is less than 3". Then the original sentence can be symbolized by  $(P \wedge Q) \vee (\sim R)$ , and the table of truth value for this sentence is

Р	Q	R	$P \wedge Q$	$\sim$ R	$(P \wedge Q) \vee (\sim R)$
Т	Т	Т	Т	F	Т
T	Т	F	Т	Т	T
T	F	Т	F	F	F
F	Т	Т	F	F	F
Т	F	F	F	Т	Т
F	Т	F	F	Т	Τ
F	F	Т	F	F	F
F	F	F	F	Т	T

Since P is true and  $Q,\ R$  are false, the sentence  $(P \wedge Q) \vee ({\sim}\,R)$  is true.

#### Definition

A **tautology**contradiction is a propositional form that is for every false assignment of truth values to its component.

### Example

The logic symbol  $(P \vee Q) \vee (\sim P \wedge \sim Q)$  is a tautology.

### Example

The logic symbol  $\sim (P \lor \sim P) \lor (Q \land \sim Q)$  is a contradiction.

#### Definition

Two propositional forms are said to be *equivalent* if they have the same truth value.

#### $\mathsf{Theorem}$

For propositions P, Q, R, we have the following:

(a) 
$$P \Leftrightarrow \sim (\sim P)$$
. (Double Negation Law)

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{(b) } P \vee Q \Leftrightarrow Q \vee P \\ \text{(c) } P \wedge Q \Leftrightarrow Q \wedge P \end{array} \right\} \quad \text{(Commutative Laws)}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} (d) \ P \lor (Q \lor R) \Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \lor R \\ (e) \ P \land (Q \land R) \Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \land R \end{array} \right\} \quad \textbf{(Associative Laws)}$$

(e) 
$$P \wedge (Q \wedge R) \Leftrightarrow (P \wedge Q) \wedge R$$

$$\begin{array}{c} (f) \ P \wedge (Q \vee R) \Leftrightarrow (P \wedge Q) \vee (P \wedge R) \\ (g) \ P \vee (Q \wedge R) \Leftrightarrow (P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R) \end{array} \right\} \quad \text{(\textbf{Distributive Laws})}$$

(g) 
$$P \vee (Q \wedge R) \Leftrightarrow (P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} (h) \sim (P \wedge Q) \Leftrightarrow (\sim P) \vee (\sim Q) \\ (i) \sim (P \vee Q) \Leftrightarrow (\sim P) \wedge (\sim Q) \end{array} \right\} \quad \text{(De Morgan)}$$

(i) 
$$\sim$$
 (P  $\vee$  Q)  $\Leftrightarrow$  ( $\sim$  P)  $\wedge$  ( $\sim$  Q)

(De Morgan's Laws)

#### Proof.

We prove (g) for example, and the other cases can be shown in a similar fashion. Using the truth table,

P	Q	R	Q∧R	P∨(Q∧R)	PvQ	PvR	$(P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
T	Т	F	F	Т	T	Т	T
T	F	Т	F	Т	Т	Т	Т
F	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
T	F	F	F	Т	Т	Т	Т
F	Т	F	F	F	Т	F	F
F	F	Т	F	F	F	Т	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

we find that " $P \lor (Q \land R)$ " is equivalent to " $(P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$ ".  $\square$ 



#### Definition

A *denial* of a proposition is any proposition equivalent to  $\sim P$ .

- Rules for  $\sim$ ,  $\wedge$  and  $\vee$ :
  - $oldsymbol{0}$   $\sim$  is always applied to the smallest proposition following it.
  - 2 \( \tau \) connects the smallest propositions surrounding it.
  - O v connects the smallest propositions surrounding it.

### Example

Under the convention above, we have

- $2 \ P \lor Q \lor R \Leftrightarrow (P \lor Q) \lor R \Leftrightarrow P \lor (Q \lor R).$



#### Definition

For propositions P and Q, the *conditional sentence*  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is the proposition "if P, then Q". Proposition P is called the *antecedent* and Q is the *consequence*. The sentence  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is true if and only if P is false or Q is true.

### Remark:

In a conditional sentence, P and Q might not have connections. The truth value of the sentence " $P \Rightarrow Q$ " only depends on the truth value of P and Q.

### Example

We would like to determine the truth value of the sentence "if x > 8, then x > 5". Let P denote the sentence "x > 8" and Q the sentence "x > 5".

- If P, Q are both true statements, then x > 8 which is (exactly the same as P thus) true.
- 2 If P is false while Q is true, then  $5 < x \le 8$  which is (exactly the same as  $\sim P \wedge Q$  thus) true.
- ③ If P, Q are both false statements, then  $x \le 5$  which is (exactly the same as  $\sim Q$  thus) true.
- 4 It is not possible to have P true but Q false.

- How to read  $P \Rightarrow Q$  in English?
  - 1. If P, then Q. 2. P is sufficient for Q. 3. P only if Q.
  - 4. Q whenever P. 5. Q is necessary for P. 6. Q, if/when P.

### Definition

Let P and Q be propositions.

- **1** The *converse* of  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is  $Q \Rightarrow P$ .
- **2** The *contrapositive* of  $P \Rightarrow Q$  is  $\sim Q \Rightarrow \sim P$ .



### Example

We would like to determine the truth value, as well as the converse and the contrapositive, of the sentence "if  $\pi$  is an integer, then 14 is even".

- Since that  $\pi$  is an integer is false, the implication "if  $\pi$  is an integer, then 14 is even" is true.
- 2 The converse of the sentence is "if 14 is even, then  $\pi$  is an integer" which is a false statement.
- **3** The contrapositive of the sentence is "if 14 is not even, then  $\pi$  is not an integer" which is a true statement since the antecedent "14 is not even" is false.

By this example, we know that a sentence and its converse cannot be equivalent.

#### Theorem

For propositions P and Q, the sentence  $P\Rightarrow Q$  is equivalent to its contrapositive  $\sim Q\Rightarrow \sim P$ .

#### Proof.

Using the truth table

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	~ Q	~ P	$\sim Q \Rightarrow \sim P$
Т	Т	Т	F	F	Т
Т	F	F	Т	F	F
F	Т	Т	F	Т	Т
F	F	Т	Т	Т	Т

we conclude that the truth value of  $P\Rightarrow Q$  and  $\sim Q\Rightarrow \sim P$  are the same; thus they are equivalent sentences.

#### Definition

For propositions P and Q, the **bi-conditional sentence**  $P\Leftrightarrow Q$  is the proposition "P if and only if Q". The sentence  $P\Leftrightarrow Q$  is true exactly when P and Q have the same truth values. In other words,  $P\Leftrightarrow Q$  is true if and only if P is equivalent to Q.

**Remark**: The notation  $\Leftrightarrow$  is a combination of  $\Rightarrow$  and its converse  $\Leftarrow$ , so the notation seems to suggest that  $(P \Leftrightarrow Q)$  is equivalent to  $(P \Rightarrow Q) \land (Q \Rightarrow P)$ . This is in fact true since

P	Q	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$Q \Rightarrow P$	$(P \Rightarrow Q) \land (P \Rightarrow Q)$
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
T	F	F	F	Т	F
F	Т	F	Т	F	F
F	F	Т	Т	Т	Т

### Example

- The proposition " $2^3 = 8$  if and only if 49 is a perfect square" is true because both components are true.
- **2** The proposition " $\pi = \frac{22}{7}$  if and only if  $\sqrt{2}$  is a rational number" is also true (since both components are false).
- **3** The proposition "6+1=7 if and only if Argentina is north of the equator" is false because the truth values of the components differ.

### Remark:

Definitions may be stated with the "if and only if" wording, but it is also common practice to state a formal definition using the word "if". For example, we could say that "a function f is continuous at a number c if  $\cdots$ " leaving the "only if" part understood.

### Example

A teacher says "If you score 74% or higher on the next test, you will pass the exam". Even though this is a conditional sentence, everyone will interpret the meaning as a biconditional (since the teacher tries to "define" how you can pass the exam).

#### $\mathsf{Theorem}$

For propositions P, Q and R, we have the following:

- (a)  $(P \Rightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (\sim P \vee Q)$ .
- (b)  $(P \Leftrightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \Rightarrow Q) \land (Q \Rightarrow P)$ .
- (c)  $\sim (P \Rightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \land \sim Q)$ .
- (d)  $\sim (P \wedge Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \Rightarrow \sim Q)$ .
- (e)  $\sim (P \wedge Q) \Leftrightarrow (Q \Rightarrow \sim P)$ .
- (f)  $P \Rightarrow (Q \Rightarrow R) \Leftrightarrow (P \land Q) \Rightarrow R$ .
- (g)  $P \Rightarrow (Q \land R) \Leftrightarrow (P \Rightarrow Q) \land (P \Rightarrow R)$ .
- (h)  $(P \lor Q) \Rightarrow R \Leftrightarrow (P \Rightarrow R) \land (Q \Rightarrow R)$ .



- How to read  $P \Leftrightarrow Q$  in English?
  - 1. P if and only if Q.

- 2. P if, but only if, Q.
- 3. P implies Q, and conversely. 4. P is equivalent to Q.
- 5. P is necessary and sufficient for Q.
- Rules for  $\sim$ ,  $\wedge$ ,  $\vee$ ,  $\Rightarrow$  and  $\Leftrightarrow$ : These connectives are always applied in the order listed.

### Example

- $\bullet \ P \Rightarrow \sim Q \vee R \Leftrightarrow S \text{ is an abbr. for } \left(P \Rightarrow \left[(\sim Q) \vee R\right]\right) \Leftrightarrow S.$
- $\textbf{2} \ P \lor \sim Q \Leftrightarrow R \Rightarrow S \text{ is an abbr. for } \left[ P \lor (\sim Q) \right] \Leftrightarrow (R \Rightarrow S).$



#### Definition

An *open sentence* is a sentence that contains variables. When P is an open sentence with a variable x (or variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ ), the sentence is symbolized by P(x) (or  $P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ ).

The **truth set** of an open sentence is the collection of variables (from a certain universe) that may be substituted to make the open sentence a true proposition. (使得 P(x) 為真的所有 x 形成 the truth set of P(x))

### Remark:

In general, an open sentence is not a proposition. It can be true or false depending on the value of variables.



### Example

Let P(x) be the open sentence "x is a prime number between 5060 and 5090". In this open sentence, the universe is usually chosen to be  $\mathbb{N}$ , the natural number system, and the truth set of P(x) is  $\{5077, 5081, 5087\}$ .

### Remark:

The truth set of an open sentence P(x) depends on the universe where x belongs to. For example, suppose that P(x) is the open sentence " $x^2+1=0$ ". If the universe is  $\mathbb{R}$ , then P(x) is false for all x (in the universe). On the other hand, if the universe is  $\mathbb{C}$ , the complex plane, then P(x) is true when  $x=\pm i$  (which also implies that the truth set of P(x) is  $\{i,-i\}$ ).

#### Definition

With a universe X specified, two open sentences  $\mathrm{P}(x)$  and  $\mathrm{Q}(x)$  are equivalent if they have the same truth set of all  $x \in X$ .

### Example

The two sentences "3x+2=20" and "2x-7=5" are equivalent open sentences in any of the number system, such as  $\mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbb{C}$ .

### Example

The two sentences " $x^2-1>0$ " and " $(x<-1)\vee(x>1)$ " are equivalent open sentences in  $\mathbb R$ .



Given an open sentence P(x), the first question that we should ask ourself is "whether the truth set of P(x) is empty or not".

#### Definition

The symbol  $\exists$  is called the *existential quantifier*. For an open sentence P(x), the sentence  $(\exists x)P(x)$  is read "there exists x such that P(x)" or "for some x, P(x)". The sentence  $(\exists x)P(x)$  is true if the truth set of P(x) is non-empty.

### Remark:

An open sentence P(x) does **not** have a truth value, but the quantified sentence  $(\exists x)P(x)$  does.



### Example

The quantified sentence  $(\exists x)(x^7 - 12x^3 + 16x - 3 = 0)$  is true in the universe of real numbers.

## Example (Fermat number)

The quantified sentence  $(\exists n)(2^{2^n} + 1)$  is a prime number is true in the universe of natural numbers.

### Example (Fermat's last theorem)

The quantified sentence

$$(\exists x, y, z, n)(x^n + y^n = z^n \land n \geqslant 3)$$

is true in the universe of integers, but is false in the universe of natural numbers.



#### Definition

The symbol  $\forall$  is called the *universal quantifier*. For an open sentence P(x), the sentence  $(\forall x)P(x)$  is read "for all x, P(x)", "for every x, P(x)" or "for every given x (in the universe), P(x)". The sentence  $(\forall x)P(x)$  is true if the truth set of P(x) is the entire universe.

### Example

The quantified sentence  $(\forall n)(2^{2^n} + 1 \text{ is a prime number})$  is false in the universe of natural numbers since

$$2^{2^6} + 1 = 641 \times 6700417$$
.



In general, statements of the form "every element of the set A has the property P" and "some element of the set A has property P" may be symbolized as  $(\forall \, x \in A) P(x)$  and  $(\exists \, x \in A) P(x)$ , respective. Moreover,

● "All P(x) are Q(x)" (所有滿足 P 的 x 都滿足 Q or 只要滿足 P 的 x 就滿足 Q) should be symbolized as

"
$$(\forall x)(P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x))$$
".

## (See the next slide for the explanation!)

② "Some P(x) are Q(x)" (有些满足 P 的 x 也满足 Q or 有些 x 同時满足 P 和 Q) should be symbolized as

"
$$(\exists x)(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$$
".

