

# Math 303, Fall 2011, Lecture 12

## ① Free and bound variables

Are the following well formed?

(don't worry about parentheses as long as it's clear)

$$x = y$$

yes

good

$$\forall x \exists y \exists z (y = z)$$

yes

not good

$$\exists x (y \in z)$$

yes

not good

$$\exists x \forall x (x \in y)$$

yes

not good

x appears in  $\forall x(x \in y)$  but it isn't free

$$\forall y (\exists x (x \in y) \wedge \exists x (y \in x))$$

yes

not good because

share non-free variables

to describe what is unpleasant about these we need a definition

### Definition

Each occurrence of a variable symbol in a wff is **free** or **bound** as described below

(A) Every variable appearing in a formula built using rules (1) or (2) is free

(B) An occurrence of a variable in a formula coming from rule (3) is free or bound according to whether it is free or bound in  $A$  or  $B$

(Note we're talking about a **specific occurrence** of the variable and in particular this occurrence is only in one of  $A$  or  $B$ )

(C) The free and bound occurrences of a variable in  $\exists x A$  or  $\forall x A$  are the same as in  $A$  except that every occurrence of  $x$  which is free in  $A$  is now bound. As is the  $x$  in  $\exists x$  and  $\forall x$

eg  $x \in y$

free good



eg  $\forall x (x \in y)$

bound good

eg  $(x \in y) \wedge (\forall x (x \in y))$

not good note some  $x$ s are free  
free in  $x$  is and some bound in  
the same formula  
but not in

eg  $\exists x ((x \in y) \wedge (\forall x (x \in y)))$

not good in building it we used  
the previous one which was  
not good

eg  $\forall y \exists x ((x \in y) \wedge (\forall x (x \in y)))$

not good ||

But there is something very unpleasant going on  
even though these are well formed

## Definition

A wff is good if every time (3) was applied  
The only variables common to A and B are free in all of their occurrences  
and every time (4) was applied  $x$  appeared  
only as a free variable in A, and did so appear.

Note Good formulas are much easier for a person to understand. Generally best to use good formulas, you and your reader are less likely to get confused. However all our rules are ok for non-good formulas too.

The only tricky question is what do

$\forall x A$

$\exists x A$

mean if  $x$  doesn't appear in A?

Answer the  $\forall x$  or  $\exists x$  has no meaning

The formula has the same meaning as just A

eg Which of the formulas given so far today are good

If you stick to good formulas you are less likely to get confused.

**Definition** A formula with no free variables  
is a **sentence** or **statement**

eg  $\forall x \exists y (x \in y)$  sentence true in set theory


eg  $\forall x \exists y (y \in x)$  sentence false in set theory  
 $\emptyset$

eg  $\exists y (x \in y)$  not a sentence no meaning unless  $x$  is given a value.

Note a sentence is something which can be true or false  
Try the above examples

But be careful we're very used to saying things like

$$\boxed{x+y = y+x} \quad \text{for } x, y \in \omega$$

but we are quantifying here 

This corresponds to the sentence

$$\forall x \forall y ((x+y = y+x) \wedge (x \in \omega) \wedge (y \in \omega))$$

## ② Some important abbreviations

$x \subseteq y$  abbreviates  $\forall z ((z \in x) \rightarrow (z \in y))$

$x = \{y\}$  abbreviates  $(y \in x) \wedge \forall z ((z \in x) \rightarrow (z = y))$

You try the next 3 for the break *y is in x* and *nothing else is in x*

$x = \{y, z\}$  abbreviates  $(y \in x) \wedge (z \in x) \wedge \forall a ((a \in x) \rightarrow ((a = y) \vee (a = z)))$

$x = \cup y$  abbreviates  $\forall z \forall y' ((z \in y') \wedge (y' \in y) \rightarrow (z \in x))$

$x = (y, z)$   
 "  $\{\{y\}, \{y, z\}\}$

abbreviates  $(\forall a' (a' = \{y\} \rightarrow a' \in x)) \wedge \forall a ((a \in x) \rightarrow ((a = \{y\}) \vee (a = \{y, z\})))$   
 $\wedge (\forall a'' ((a'' = \{y, z\}) \rightarrow a'' \in x))$

a shorter one

$$\forall a ((a \in X) \leftrightarrow ((a = \{y\}) \vee (a = \{y, z\})))$$



Can use same idea to make others shorter

eg

$$X = \{y\}$$

abbreviates

$$\forall z ((z \in X) \leftrightarrow (z = y))$$

$$X = \{y, z\}$$

abbreviates

$$\forall a ((a \in X) \leftrightarrow ((a = y) \vee (a = z)))$$



We could have used a more concise language if we had wanted to

eg instead of

$A \leftrightarrow B$  we could write  $(A \rightarrow B) \wedge (B \rightarrow A)$

eg instead of

$A \rightarrow B$  we could write  $(\neg A) \vee B$

Can we be more concise?

In fact just need Nand

In logic it is often called the Sheffer stroke

$$A \uparrow B = \neg(A \wedge B)$$

### ③ Propositional calculus

**Definition** A **propositional function** on the letters  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  is a string of symbols defined as follows:

- ① Each  $A_i$  is a propositional function
- ② If  $P$  and  $Q$  are propositional functions then so are  $(P \wedge Q)$ ,  $(P \vee Q)$ ,  $(\sim P)$ ,  $(P \rightarrow Q)$  and  $(P \leftrightarrow Q)$

**Idea** this captures the part of our formal language with no quantifiers ( $\forall, \exists$ ) and where each  $A_i$  will ultimately be a well formed formula, moreover a sentence

**Note** these  $A_i$  are **different** from our variables in our formal language  $\rightarrow$  in particular they will ultimately be replaced with well formed formulas

We think of these as functions taking  $n$  tuples of truth values

eg  $n=3$   $(T, T, F)$

and returning a truth value

eg  $A_1 \wedge (A_2 \vee A_3)$

sub in

$$\begin{aligned} \text{get } T \wedge (T \vee F) \\ = T \wedge T = T \end{aligned}$$

As functions they are defined by the following truth tables

$A_1$	$\neg A_1$
F	T
T	F

$A_1$  ← input  
 ↓ output  

F	T
T	F

  
 $\neg A_1$

	$A_2 \rightarrow$	F	T
$A_1 \downarrow$	F	F	F
	T	F	T

  
 $A_1 \wedge A_2$

	$A_2 \rightarrow$	F	T
$A_1 \downarrow$	F	F	T
	T	T	T

  
 $A_1 \vee A_2$

	$A_2 \rightarrow$	F	T
$A_1 \downarrow$	F	T	T
	T	F	T

  
 $A_1 \rightarrow A_2$

	$A_2 \rightarrow$	F	T
$A_1 \downarrow$	F	T	F
	T	F	T

  
 $A_1 \leftrightarrow A_2$

$A_1$	$A_2$	$A_1 \rightarrow A_2$	$\neg A_1$	$(\neg A_1) \vee A_2$
F	F	T	T	T
F	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	F
T	T	T	F	T

same

as an eg lets check

$A_1 \rightarrow A_2$  is the same as  $(\neg A_1) \vee A_2$

eg Use a truth table to evaluate

$$(\neg(A \wedge B)) \vee (A \vee B)$$

A	B	$A \vee B$	$A \wedge B$	$\neg(A \wedge B)$	the whole thing
F	F	F	F	T	T
F	T	T	F	T	T
T	F	T	F	T	T
T	T	T	T	F	T

a propositional function which is always true is called **identically true**

eg Show  $A \vee (\neg A)$  is always true using a truth table

A	$\neg A$	$A \vee (\neg A)$
F	T	T
T	F	T

IF a propositional function is always true we say it is **identically true**.

We want rules to deduce **valid** statements. These should match our intuitive notion of true

Rule A Let  $P$  be a propositional function in the letters  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n$ . If  $P$  is identically true then  $P$  with each  $A_i$  replaced by any sentence is a valid statement

Rule B If  $A$  and  $A \rightarrow B$  are valid statements then so is  $B$

These together give us propositional calculus. There is another way to understand it

→ more rules

→ no truth tables

### Reductio ad absurdum (negation introduction)

From  $p$  and [accepting  $q$  leads to a proof that  $\neg p$ ], infer  $\neg q$ .

### Double negative elimination

From  $\neg\neg p$ , infer  $p$ .

### Conjunction Introduction

From  $p$  and  $q$ , infer  $(p \wedge q)$ .

From  $p$  and  $q$ , infer  $(q \wedge p)$ .

### Conjunction elimination

From  $(p \wedge q)$ , infer  $p$ .

From  $(p \wedge q)$ , infer  $q$ .

### Disjunction Introduction

From  $p$ , infer  $(p \vee q)$ .

From  $p$ , infer  $(q \vee p)$ .

### Disjunction elimination

From  $(p \vee q)$  and  $(p \rightarrow r)$  and  $(q \rightarrow r)$ , infer  $r$ .

### Biconditional Introduction

From  $(p \rightarrow q)$  and  $(q \rightarrow p)$ , infer  $(p \leftrightarrow q)$ .

### Biconditional elimination

From  $(p \leftrightarrow q)$ , infer  $(p \rightarrow q)$ .

From  $(p \leftrightarrow q)$ , infer  $(q \rightarrow p)$ .

### Modus ponens (conditional elimination)

From  $p$  and  $(p \rightarrow q)$ , infer  $q$ .

### Conditional proof (conditional introduction)

From [accepting  $p$  allows a proof of  $q$ ], infer  $(p \rightarrow q)$ .

(from Wikipedia "propositional calculus")

These are the usual deduction rules for propositional calculus.

We get them as, for example,  $\rightarrow$

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

if you put this in a truth table you would get that is is identically true

so by rule (A) this is valid

so if we knew  $p \vee q$ , and  $p \rightarrow r$ , and  $q \rightarrow r$

then use conjunction introd.

to get  $(p \wedge q) \wedge (p \rightarrow r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r)$

and then rule  $\textcircled{B}$

get  $r$  is valid

But what about conjunction introd.?

Same idea.



You can check that everything above comes from  
an identically true implication

Tougher is showing the  $\equiv$  rules above are enough  
to derive all identically true propositional functions.

④ Next time

The liar's paradox