



Introduction to Logic

JAKE CHANDLER

Truth Tables



Last week

- The language of sentential logic and its syntax
- How to translate an argument in English into sentential logic
- The issue of proving that a sentential form is valid as an instance of the SAT problem
- The notions of decidability and complexity

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Spotting a valid sentential form

- How do I *tell* that a sentence form is valid?
- Possibilities:
 - (1) Notice that it is one of the **well-know valid forms**
Problem: what if it isn't?
 - (2) **Brainstorm** a counterexample
Problem: very hard to do for non-trivial cases
- This week and next week: two easy and reliable methods
- Both involve searching for counterexamples *systematically*

INTRODUCING TRUTH TABLES

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Truth-functionality

- Our connectives are commonly taken to be:
truth-functional: the truth value of their output is determined by (= is a function of) the truth value of their inputs.

- Swapping a subsentence for a subsentence with the same truth value shouldn't affect the truth value of the complex sentence

“...or ...”

‘Melbourne is in Australia or Melbourne is in France’: **true**

‘Paris is in France or Melbourne is in France’: **true**

‘Humans have opposable thumbs or Melbourne is in France’: **true**

...

- *Not all* connectives are truth-functional!!

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Truth-functionality (ctd)

“It's well known that...”

We have:

‘It's well known that *Paris is the capital of France*’: **true**

and:

‘Paris is the capital of France’: **true**

‘The heart of a shrimp is located in its head’: **true**

but:

‘It's well known that *the heart of a shrimp is located in its head*’:
false!

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Truth-functionality (ctd)

Other non truth-functional connectives

‘It could have been the case that...’

‘It's a pity that...’

‘It's immoral that...’

‘If it *had been* the case that ..., then it *would have been* the case that...’ (≠ ‘If it *is* the case that ..., then it *is* the case that...!’)

- Can you think of examples showing that these aren't truth-functional?

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Truth tables

- The way in which a certain connective determines the truth value of its output from the truth value of its inputs is summarised in a **truth table**, using **0 for false** and **1 for true**
- Note: here we assume there are only two truth values ($\Rightarrow$ sentences cannot be neither true nor false)
- Mathematically speaking, connectives are **Boolean functions**
- Straightforward: conjunctions, negations
- Require comment: disjunctions, conditionals, maybe biconditionals
- With all these tables in hand, we'll then be able to construct tables for *any* kind of sentence or indeed argument whatsoever.

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Conjunctions and negations

- A **conjunction** is **true** if and only if **both its conjuncts are true**. Otherwise it is false.

P	Q	$P \& Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0

- A **negation** is **true** if and only if **its negand is false**. Otherwise it is false.

P	$\sim P$
1	0
0	1

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Biconditionals

- A **biconditional** is **true** if and only if **both its terms have the same truth value**. Otherwise it is false.

P	Q	$P \equiv Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	1

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Disjunctions

- A **disjunction** is **true** if and only if **at least one of its disjuncts is true**. Otherwise it is false.

P	Q	$P \vee Q$
1	1	1
1	0	1
0	1	1
0	0	0

- Note: a disjunction is considered true when both disjuncts are true (more on this shortly)

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Conditionals

- A **conditional** is **true** if and only if **either its antecedent is false or its consequent is true**. It is false if and only if its antecedent is true but its consequent is false.

P	Q	$P \supset Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	1
0	0	1

- Note: a conditional whose antecedent is false is considered true!
- This is a bit controversial. More on this shortly.

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Truth Tables



Tables for longer sentences: Example 1

- The construction of a table for $((P \equiv Q) \& P) \supset Q$:

P	Q	$((P \equiv Q) \& P) \supset Q$

Step 1

Draw up a table: $r = 2^n$ rows, where n is the number of atomic sentences. (Here: $r = 4$.)

Column headers: atomic sentences on the left, complex sentence on the right.

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Tables for longer sentences: Example 1 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \equiv Q) \& P) \supset Q$
1	1	
1	0	
0	1	
0	0	

Step 2

Fill in the columns for the atomic sentences on the left, making sure to write down every possible combination of truth values.

Tables for longer sentences: Example 1 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \equiv Q) \& P) \supset Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	1

Step 3

Work your way up the parse tree, filling in the values for increasingly more complex sentences, writing the values under the main connective

Tables for longer sentences: Example 1 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \equiv Q) \& P) \supset Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	1

Step 3

Work your way up the parse tree, filling in the values for increasingly more complex sentences, writing the values under the main connective

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Tables for longer sentences: Example 1 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \equiv Q) \& P) \supset Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	1

Step 3

Work your way up the parse tree, filling in the values for increasingly more complex sentences, writing the values under the main connective

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Tables for longer sentences: Example 2

- Let's do another one: $((P \supset Q) \& P) \& \sim Q$.

P	Q	$((P \supset Q) \& P) \& \sim Q$

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Tables for longer sentences: Example 2 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \supset Q) \& P) \& \sim Q$
1	1	
1	0	
0	1	
0	0	

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Tables for longer sentences: Example 2 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \supset Q) \& P) \& \sim Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	1
0	0	1

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Tables for longer sentences: Example 2 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \supset Q) \& P) \& \sim Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0

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Tables for longer sentences: Example 2 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \supset Q) \& P) \& \sim Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0

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Tables for longer sentences: Example 2 (ctd)

P	Q	$((P \supset Q) \& P) \& \sim Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	0

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Some important terms

- Each row of the table represents a **valuation** (aka evaluation, interpretation, model): an assignment of truth values to the argument's sentences / subsentences that is consistent with the t. tables for the connectives.
- Think of these as describing **possible situations** (aka possible worlds)
- Formally, a valuation v is a **function**: it maps each sentence onto a single truth value.
- If v assigns the value 1 to P , we write $v(P) = 1$. We then say that v **satisfies**, or is a **model** of, P .
- If v assigns the value 0 to P , we write $v(P) = 0$, of course.

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Truth Tables

Tautologies and contradictions

- Under the main connective of Example 1, we find a column of 1's: the sentence is true on all valuations
- The sentence is a **tautology**
- Under the main connective of Example 2, we find a column of 0's: the sentence is false on all valuations
- The sentence is a **contradiction**
- If we have a mix of 0's and 1's, we have a **contingent** sentence

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EXPRESSIVE COMPLETENESS

Tables for “exotic” connectives

- We have seen tables for 5 connectives: 1 “unary” and 4 “binary”
- But there are as many possible t. tables as there are possible combinations of truth values in the right hand cells
- For binary connectives: 4 cells, so $2^4 = 16$, and hence **12 more!**
- For unary connectives: 2 cells, so $2^2 = 4$, so **3 more!**
- These typically don’t correspond to “real” (lexicalised) connectives

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Tables for “exotic” connectives (ctd)

Some alternative truth tables

P	Q	$P \uparrow Q$
1	1	0
1	0	1
0	1	1
0	0	1

Alternative denial
(NAND; “not both”)

P	Q	$P \downarrow Q$
1	1	0
1	0	0
0	1	0
0	0	1

Joint denial
(NOR; “neither nor”)

P	Q	$P \vee Q$
1	1	0
1	0	1
0	1	1
0	0	0

Exclusive or
(XOR; “either or but not both”)

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Expressing connectives in terms of others

- These connectives can be expressed using combinations of the standard ones

Expressing $\downarrow$

P	Q	$P \downarrow Q$	P	Q	$(P \vee Q) \& \sim (P \& Q)$
1	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	1	1	0	1
0	1	1	0	1	1
0	0	0	0	0	0

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Logical equivalence

- We say that $P \downarrow Q$ and $(P \vee Q) \& \sim (P \& Q)$ are **logically equivalent** to each other:

$$P \downarrow Q \Leftrightarrow (P \vee Q) \& \sim (P \& Q)$$

- Two other ways of putting this:

$P \downarrow Q \equiv (P \vee Q) \& \sim (P \& Q)$ is a tautology

$P \downarrow Q$ and $(P \vee Q) \& \sim (P \& Q)$ entail each other

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Expressive completeness

- A set of connectives is **expressively complete** if and only if you can use it to express any possible t. table
- It is **minimally complete** if and only if it doesn't have a subset that is complete.
- Our set $\{\vee, \&, \supset, \equiv, \sim\}$ is complete but not minimally so!
- Minimally complete sets using connectives that we've seen: $\{\downarrow\}$, $\{\uparrow\}$, $\{\vee, \sim\}$, $\{\&, \sim\}$, $\{\supset, \sim\}$
- Note that none of these involve $\equiv$ or $\vee$

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Two more tables...

- Let's apply our procedure to $\sim (P \& \sim Q)$ and $\sim P \vee Q$.

P	Q	$\sim$	$(P \& \sim Q)$
1	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
0	1	1	0
0	0	1	0

P	Q	$\sim$	$P \vee Q$
1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
0	1	1	1
0	0	1	0

- So $\sim (P \& \sim Q)$ and $\sim P \vee Q$ are equivalent

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An interesting observation (ctd.)

- But they are also equivalent to *something else*, right?

P	Q	$P \supset Q$
1	1	1
1	0	0
0	1	1
0	0	1

- OK...and so what?

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The “paradoxes of material implication”

- The t. table for $\supset$ is controversial
 - Agreement that $P \supset Q$ is false when P is true and Q is false
 - Some disagreement on the rest
- Indeed, it's easy to show that it has some arguably (!) awkward consequences
 - (i) P entails $Q \supset P$

Cats

“Cats have tails. Therefore if cats have paws, then cats have tails.”

- (ii) $\sim Q$ entails $Q \supset P$

Wings

“Bicycles don't have wings. Therefore if bicycles have wings, then fridges have wings too.”

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The “paradoxes of material implication” (ctd)

Also:

(iii) $(Q \& P) \supset R$ entails $(Q \supset R) \vee (P \supset R)$

Explosion

“If you leave the gas on and light a match, then the flat will blow up
Therefore either the flat will blow up if you leave the gas on, or it will
blow up if you light a match.”

(iv) $(Q \supset P) \vee (P \supset R)$ is a tautology

Beach

“Either we will go to the beach if it snows or pigs will fly if we go to the
beach.”

- Our earlier equivalences can be used as a basis for an argument for the t. table for $\supset$

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The t. table for ‘ $\supset$ ’

- Restall provides an argument involving $\sim (P \& \sim Q)$:
 - If $P \supset Q$ is true, then $P \& \sim Q$ must be false and hence its negation, $\sim (P \& \sim Q)$, must be true.
 - Conversely, if $\sim (P \& \sim Q)$ is true, then if P is true, then $\sim Q$ must be false, and hence Q must be true. So if $\sim (P \& \sim Q)$ is true, then $P \supset Q$ is also true.
 - Putting the two together, $P \supset Q$ and $\sim (P \& \sim Q)$ are true in exactly the same circumstances: they must have the same truth tables.
- There is also a similar argument involving $\sim P \vee Q$.

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Truth Tables

TRUTH TABLES FOR ARGUMENTS

Truth tables for arguments

- We can apply the method of truth tables to prove the validity or invalidity of a sentential argument form.
- We draw up, side by side, the sub-tables for the various sentences of the argument form.
- Table for the **disjunctive syllogism** (see *Cluedo* example):

P	Q	$P \vee Q$	$\sim P$	P	Q
1	1	1	0	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	1	0	1
0	0	0	1	0	0

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Decidability and complexity

- Good news: since the t. table method finds the answer in a finite number of steps, **SAT** is **decidable**
- Bad news: in general, our t. table procedure is **complex**!
- For n atomic sentences, we have 2^n valuations to check: **exponential time**!

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Truth tables for arguments (ctd.)

- We then consider the question:
Is there a valuation that makes all the premises true but the conclusion false?
- If NO, then the form is valid.
- If YES, then the form is invalid.
- Metalinguistic symbol for validity: $\models$ (invalidity: $\not\models$)

Using the symbol for (in)validity

$$p \models p \vee q$$

$$p \vee q \not\models p$$

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Two further uses of ' $\models$ '

- ' $\models$ ' is also used to talk about things that aren't, strictly-speaking, *argument* forms.
- Two uses:
 - (1) $\models C$: there is no valuation that does not satisfy C . In other words, C is a tautology.
 - (2) $P_1, \dots, P_n \models$: there is no valuation that satisfies every member of $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$. We say that the set is **inconsistent** (the conjunction of its members is a contradiction).

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A valid form

- We can now see that the disjunctive syllogism is valid

P	Q	$P \vee Q$	$\sim P$	Q
1	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	1	0

- The only rows that give us a false conclusion are the second and fourth ones. But in both cases, one of the premises is false
- Exercise: use tables to check the validity of our other valid sentential forms

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Some invalid forms: *Affirming a Disjunct*

- Recall our examples of common arguments with deductively invalid sentential forms (**formal fallacies**)

Treats

- Isaac either got a cookie or got an ice-cream.
- Isaac got a cookie.
- Isaac didn't get an ice-cream.

Form: $P \vee Q, P, \text{ therefore } \sim Q$ (aka **Affirming a Disjunct**)

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Some invalid forms: *Affirming a Disjunct* (ctd)

P	Q	$P \vee Q$	P	$\sim Q$
1	1	1	1	0
1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1

- Row 1 (P and Q both true): all the premises are true but the conclusion is false
- The valuation that this row represents is known as a **countermodel** (or counterexample)
- In *Treats*: Isaac's having both a cookie *and* an ice-cream

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Some invalid forms: *Affirming the Consequent*

Steroids

- If steroids were taken, the test will come out positive.
- Sam's test came out positive.
- Sam took steroids.

Form: $P \supset Q, Q, \text{ therefore } P$ (aka **Affirming the Consequent**)

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Some invalid forms: *Affirming the Consequent* (ctd)

P	Q	$P \supset Q$	Q	P
1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
0	0	1	0	0

- Row 3 (P false, Q true): all the premises are true but the conclusion is false
- In *Steroids*: Sam's test came out positive, but he didn't take steroids (he's perhaps on some other medication)

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Some invalid forms: *Denying the Antecedent*

Penknife

- (1) If Billy's dad found his penknife, he's in deep trouble.
 - (2) Billy's dad didn't find his penknife.
-
- (3) Billy isn't in deep trouble.

Form: $P \supset Q, \sim P$, therefore $\sim Q$ (aka **denying the antecedent**)

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Some invalid forms: *Denying the Antecedent* (ctd)

P	Q	$P \supset Q$	$\sim P$	$\sim Q$
1	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	0
0	0	1	1	1

- Row 3 again (P false, Q true): all the premises are true but the conclusion is false
- In *Penknife*: Billy's dad didn't find the penknife, but Billy is still in trouble (for some other reason)

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What is said vs what is implied

- But *why* do we make these mistakes?!
- Same arguable root cause:

We are confusing what the premises *imply* with what the premises *say* and hence considering different arguments (which happen to be valid)

Interview

You tell me that you think the candidate was funny and smart. I tell you "I definitely think he was funny". I have told you one thing, but implied something rather stronger: that I think the candidate was funny *and that I don't think that the candidate was smart*.

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What is said vs what is implied (ctd)

Greedy Dad

You ask me whether I've had some cookies yet. I tell you "Yes, actually, I have had some cookies." I have said one thing but implied something stronger: that I have had some of the cookies *and that I have not had all of them.*

Back to our fallacies: Asserting a Disjunct

- When we read $P \vee Q$, we might assume that it isn't the case that both P and Q are true

Interpretation: $P \vee Q$

- On the alternative truth table, the argument is valid:

P	Q	$P \vee Q$	P	$\sim Q$
1	1	1	1	0
1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	0
0	0	0	0	1

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Back to our fallacies: The remaining two fallacies

- When we read $P \supset Q$, we might assume that there is no other sufficient condition for Q other than P

Interpretation: $P \equiv Q$

- On the alternative truth table (here for Affirming the Consequent), the argument is valid:

P	Q	$P \equiv Q$	P	Q
1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1	0
0	0	1	0	0

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