

Problem Set 4  
Solutions

*Mathematical Logic*

Math 114L, Spring Quarter 2008

1. The countries are  $C_1, C_2, \dots$ . We can use  $\mathbf{A}_1$  to say that  $C_1$  is red,  $\mathbf{A}_2$  to say that  $C_1$  is green,  $\mathbf{A}_3$  to say that  $C_1$  is blue, and  $\mathbf{A}_4$  to say that  $C_1$  is yellow. And then we can use  $\mathbf{A}_5$ – $\mathbf{A}_8$  to describe similarly the color of  $C_2$ , and so forth.

Let's change the notation to something easier to read. Write  $\mathbf{A}_{4i-3}$  as  $\mathbf{R}_i$ ; use it to say  $C_i$  is red. Write  $\mathbf{A}_{4i-2}$  as  $\mathbf{G}_i$ ; use it to say  $C_i$  is green. Write  $\mathbf{A}_{4i-1}$  as  $\mathbf{B}_i$ ; use it to say  $C_i$  is blue. Write  $\mathbf{A}_{4i}$  as  $\mathbf{Y}_i$ ; use it to say  $C_i$  is yellow. For example, to say that country  $C_7$  is red, we use  $\mathbf{R}_7$ , which is the same as  $\mathbf{A}_{25}$ . And the formula

$$(\mathbf{R}_7 \wedge \neg \mathbf{G}_7 \wedge \neg \mathbf{B}_7 \wedge \neg \mathbf{Y}_7)$$

says that  $C_7$  is red and nothing but red.

Then let  $\Sigma_1$  consist of the following sentences, for  $i = 1, 2, \dots$ :

$$(\mathbf{R}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{G}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{B}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{Y}_i) \vee (\neg \mathbf{R}_i \wedge \mathbf{G}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{B}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{Y}_i) \vee (\neg \mathbf{R}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{G}_i \wedge \mathbf{B}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{Y}_i) \vee (\neg \mathbf{R}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{G}_i \wedge \neg \mathbf{B}_i \wedge \mathbf{Y}_i)$$

These sentences say that each country  $C_i$  has exactly one color.

Next, for a pair  $C_i, C_j$  of adjacent countries, we use the formula

$$\neg(\mathbf{R}_i \wedge \mathbf{R}_j) \wedge \neg(\mathbf{B}_i \wedge \mathbf{B}_j) \wedge \neg(\mathbf{G}_i \wedge \mathbf{G}_j) \wedge \neg(\mathbf{Y}_i \wedge \mathbf{Y}_j)$$

to say that  $C_i$  and  $C_j$  are not the same color. Let  $\Sigma_2$  be the set of all such sentences, for each pair  $C_i, C_j$  of adjacent countries.

Together, the formulas in the union  $\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$  say that each country has exactly one color, and adjacent countries have different colors. Any truth assignment  $v$  that satisfies  $\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$  gives us a proper coloring of the infinite map; we just do what  $v$  tells us: if  $v(\mathbf{G}_7) = T$ , then we color  $C_7$  green. But is there any such  $v$ ? That is, is the set  $\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$  satisfiable?

To show this fact, we use compactness and the four-color theorem. By compactness, it suffices to show that every finite subset of  $\Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2$  is satisfiable. So consider an arbitrary finite subset. The sentence symbols in that subset refer to only finitely many countries; say  $C_M$  is mentioned somewhere in the subset but not  $C_i$  for any  $i > M$ .

By the four-color theorem, there is a proper coloring of the finite map consisting of countries  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_M$ . From that coloring, make a truth assignment  $u$ . For example, if  $C_7$  is blue, then  $u(\mathbf{B}_7) = T$  and  $u(\mathbf{R}_7) = u(\mathbf{G}_7) = u(\mathbf{Y}_7) = F$ . The truth assignment  $u$  satisfies the finite subset.

2. (Thanks to all the people who alerted me to the typo in the statement of the problem!) We compute

$$\text{free}((= v_1 v_2 \wedge \forall v_1 (Pv_1 v_2 \rightarrow Pv_2 v_3)))$$

by following the recursive definition of  $\text{free}(\dots)$ . But first we convert the given expression into a “legal” wff  $\alpha$  by unwinding the abbreviations:

$$\alpha = (\neg(= v_1 v_2 \rightarrow (\neg \forall v_1 (Pv_1 v_2 \rightarrow Pv_2 v_3))))).$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} \text{free}(\alpha) &= \text{free}((= v_1 v_2 \rightarrow (\neg \forall v_1 (Pv_1 v_2 \rightarrow Pv_2 v_3)))) \\ &= \text{free}(= v_1 v_2) \cup \text{free}((\neg \forall v_1 (Pv_1 v_2 \rightarrow Pv_2 v_3))) \\ &= \{v_1, v_2\} \cup \text{free}(\forall v_1 (Pv_1 v_2 \rightarrow Pv_2 v_3)) \\ &= \{v_1, v_2\} \cup \text{free}((Pv_1 v_2 \rightarrow Pv_2 v_3) \setminus \{v_1\}) \\ &= \{v_1, v_2\} \cup (\text{free}(Pv_1 v_2) \cup \text{free}(Pv_2 v_3)) \setminus \{v_1\} \\ &= \{v_1, v_2\} \cup (\{v_1, v_2\} \cup \{v_2, v_3\}) \setminus \{v_1\} = \{v_1, v_2, v_3\}. \end{aligned}$$

3. (a) “Zero is less than any number.”  $\forall x(Nx \rightarrow <0x)$  But the translation of “Zero is less than any *other* number” is different.
- (b) “If any number is interesting, then zero is interesting.” Probably this means “If *every* number is interesting, then zero is interesting.” But conceivably it is like “If there’s any man alive who can get the message through to Garcia, this man can do it.” In the former case, we get  $(\forall x(Nx \rightarrow Ix) \rightarrow I0)$ . In the latter case, we get as a first approximation,  $\exists x(Nx \wedge Ix) \rightarrow I0$ . Cleaned up, this becomes  $((\neg \forall x(Nx \rightarrow (\neg Ix))) \rightarrow I0)$ . This can be rewritten in a variety of ways. But the two cases are *not* equivalent.
- (c) “No number is less than zero.” As a first approximation we obtain  $\neg \exists x(Nx \wedge x < 0)$ . A legal version of this is  $\forall x(Nx \rightarrow (\neg <x0))$ .
- (d) “Any uninteresting number with the property that all smaller numbers are interesting certainly is interesting.”

$$\forall x(Nx \rightarrow ((\neg Ix) \rightarrow (\forall y(Ny \rightarrow (<yx \rightarrow Iy)) \rightarrow Ix)))$$

- (e) “There is no number such all numbers are less than it.” (As in (a), the speaker seems to have forgotten the word ‘other.’) A first approximation:  $\neg \exists x(Nx \wedge \forall y(Ny \rightarrow y < x))$ . A legal version:

$$\forall x(Nx \rightarrow (\neg \forall y(Ny \rightarrow <yx)))$$

- (f) “There is no number such that no number is less than it.” A first approximation is the sentence:  $\neg \exists x(Nx \wedge \neg \exists y(Ny \wedge y < x))$ . A legal version of this:  $\forall x(Nx \rightarrow (\neg \forall y(Ny \rightarrow (\neg <yx))))$

4. “It is not the case that  $a$  is a member of every set, and it is also not the case that  $b$  is a member of every set:”  $\neg(\forall x(a \in x) \vee \forall x(b \in x))$

5. (a) “You can fool some of the people all of the time.” I take this to mean that there is at least one person who is so gullible that he or she can always be fooled (but other readings might be possible):

$$\exists x(Px \wedge \forall y(Ty \rightarrow Fxy))$$

(b) “You can fool all of the people some of the time.” Two inequivalent translations are

$$\exists y(Ty \wedge \forall x(Px \rightarrow Fxy)) \quad \text{and} \quad \forall x(Px \rightarrow \exists y(Ty \wedge Fxy)).$$

One of the advantages of a precise formal language is that it clarifies the different possible readings of an English sentence.

(c) “You can’t fool all the people all of the time.”

$$\neg \forall x \forall y (Px \wedge Ty \rightarrow Fxy)$$

6. Slightly rewritten, the sentences are these:

(a)  $\forall x \forall y \forall z (Pxy \wedge Pyz \rightarrow Pxz)$  (transitivity)

(b)  $\forall x \forall y (Pxy \wedge Pyx \rightarrow x = y)$  (antisymmetry)

(c)  $\forall x \exists y Pxy \rightarrow \exists y \forall x Pxy$

I will use *finite* structures; in this particular case it is possible to do so.

(a) Let  $\mathfrak{A}$  be the structure  $(\{0, 1, 2\}; \{\langle 0, 1 \rangle, \langle 1, 2 \rangle\})$ . That is,  $|\mathfrak{A}|$  is  $\{0, 1, 2\}$  and to  $P$  we assign the binary relation  $P^{\mathfrak{A}} = \{\langle 0, 1 \rangle, \langle 1, 2 \rangle\}$ . (In the notation I used on the blackboard in class, we would denote  $\mathfrak{A}$  by  $\underline{A}$ , and  $|\mathfrak{A}|$  simply by  $A$ .) This structure can be pictured as the directed graph:

$$0 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2$$

Then (a) is false in  $\mathfrak{A}$ , (b) is vacuously true in  $\mathfrak{A}$ , and (c) is true (because  $\forall x \exists y Pxy$  is false) in  $\mathfrak{A}$ . Hence  $\{(b), (c)\} \not\models (a)$ .

(b) Take  $\mathfrak{B}$  to be the two-element structure with  $|\mathfrak{B}| = \{0, 1\}$  and for the binary relation  $P^{\mathfrak{B}}$  take the entire Cartesian product  $\{0, 1\} \times \{0, 1\} = \{\langle 0, 0 \rangle, \langle 0, 1 \rangle, \langle 1, 0 \rangle, \langle 1, 1 \rangle\}$ . Then (a) is true in  $\mathfrak{B}$  and (c) is true in  $\mathfrak{B}$  (because  $\exists y \forall x Pxy$  is true in  $\mathfrak{B}$ ). But (b) is false in  $\mathfrak{B}$ .

(c) Take  $\mathfrak{C}$  to be the two-element structure  $(\{0, 1\}; =)$ . That is,  $|\mathfrak{C}| = \{0, 1\}$  and the binary relation is  $\{\langle 0, 0 \rangle, \langle 1, 1 \rangle\}$ . Then (a) and (b) are true in  $\mathfrak{C}$  but (c) is false in  $\mathfrak{C}$ . (Everything is equal to something, but there is nothing that equals everything.)

7. One possibility for a first-order language appropriate for talking about vector spaces over the rational numbers has a constant symbol  $0$  (for the zero vector), a 2-place function symbol  $+$  (for vector addition), and for each  $q \in \mathbb{Q}$  a 1-place function symbol  $\mu_q$  (for scalar multiplication by  $q$ ).