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**Atrium Learning Center Math Tutors' Cheat Sheet**  
**MAT 1190 - Reasoning and Logic**

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This document summarizes material from Sections 1-1, 3-1, and 3-2 of Sobecki and Bluman's *Math in Our World* (3rd Edition, McGraw-Hill) as is relevant for MAT 1190. It should be used by ALC math tutors to familiarize themselves with the basics in order to tutor MAT 1190 students.

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**Section 1-1: The Nature of Mathematical Reasoning**

Chapter 1 focuses on problem solving; only Sections 1-1 and 1-2 are covered in MAT 1190. Since the material in Section 1-2 should already be familiar to tutors, we focus here only on Section 1-1.

The primary focus of this section is the distinction between *inductive* and *deductive* reasoning. Tutors should already be aware of the distinction though they may not know the formal language.

- *Inductive reasoning* is the process of reasoning that arrives at a general conclusion based on the observation of specific examples (think: generalizing or predicting by recognizing a pattern or a trend).
- *Deductive reasoning* is the process of reasoning that arrives at a general conclusion based on previously accepted general statements (think: generalizing using formal proofs). It does not rely on specific examples.

Often, one might use inductive reasoning to recognize a pattern in order to form a conjecture and then use inductive reasoning to prove the conjecture. Question #4 on the final exam review sheet, copied here, is an example of these uses.

*Pick a number, subtract 5, multiply the answer by 4, divide the answer by 2, and subtract 2 times the original number*

- (a) *Use inductive reasoning to find a rule that relates the number selected to the final answer.*
- (b) *Use deductive reasoning to prove your conjecture.*

To answer (a), we will select a few numbers (somewhat at random, though small positive integers will be easiest to work with), apply the operations, and see if we can find a pattern. If we don't see a pattern right away, we can select a few more numbers.

- Input: 1; output:  $\frac{(1-5) \times 4}{2} - 2 \times 1 = -10$
- Input: 2; output:  $\frac{(2-5) \times 4}{2} - 2 \times 2 = -10$

- Input: 3; output:  $\frac{(3-5) \times 4}{2} - 2 \times 3 = -10$

Since the output for three different inputs is always  $-10$ , an obvious guess is that the output is *always*  $-10$ , no matter what the input is. We can make this a precise conjecture using a variable as an input; here, we let  $a$  represent any real number. Then our conjecture is:

$$\frac{(a-5) \times 4}{2} - 2 \times a = -10.$$

To prove this conjecture for (b), we perform the operations step-by-step to the input  $a$  as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & a \\ & a - 5 \\ (a - 5) \times 4 &= 4a - 20 \\ \frac{4a - 20}{2} &= 2a - 10 \\ (2a - 10) - 2a &= -10 \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

This shows us that no matter what number the input  $a$  is, the output will always be  $-10$ .

### Chapter 3: Logic

Chapter 3 focuses on logic; only Sections 3-1 and 3-2 are covered in MAT 1190. Section 3-1 lays out basic definitions and rules and Section 3-2 covers truth tables.

A *statement* (also called a *proposition* in other texts) is a declarative sentence that is either true or false, but not both.

That is, a statement must have a *truth value*, usually indicated as T or F. Here are some examples.

- “ $3 > 5$ ” is an example of a statement because we can check its truth value.
- “ $x > 5$ ” is not an example of a statement because we cannot check its truth value since we don't know what the value of  $x$  is.
- “What time does the movie start?” is not an example of a statement because it is a question; it cannot have a truth value.
- “That movie was great,” is not an example of a statement because it is an opinion; it does not have an objective truth value.
- “Janelle Monáe is in the movie *Hidden Figures*,” is an example of a statement because we can check its truth value.

Of the two examples that are statements, (a) is false and (b) is true.

Often we use *propositional variables* to represent specific propositions. This helps when we want to form *compound propositions* (new propositions created from old ones) and check their truth values. Common variables are  $p$  and  $q$ .

Given propositions  $p$  and  $q$ , relevant examples of compound propositions are:

- *negation*  $\sim p$  (sometimes denoted  $\neg p$ ), read as “not  $p$ ,”
- *conjunction*  $p \wedge q$ , read as “ $p$  and  $q$ ,”
- *disjunction*  $p \vee q$ , read as “either  $p$  or  $q$  (or both),”
- *conditional*  $p \rightarrow q$ , read as “if  $p$ , then  $q$ ,” and
- *biconditional*  $p \leftrightarrow q$ , read as “ $p$ , if and only if  $q$ ” (equivalent to  $(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$ ).

For example, if  $p$  represents the statement “ $3 > 5$ ” and  $q$  represents the statement “Janelle Monáe is in the movie *Hidden Figures*,” then

- $\sim p$  represents “3 is not greater than 5” (equivalently, “ $3 \leq 5$ ”),
- $p \wedge q$  represents “ $3 > 5$  and Janelle Monáe is in the movie *Hidden Figures*,”
- $p \vee q$  represents “either  $3 > 5$  or Janelle Monáe is in the movie *Hidden Figures* (or both),”
- $p \rightarrow q$  represents “if  $3 > 5$  then Janelle Monáe is in the movie *Hidden Figures*,”
- $p \leftrightarrow q$  represents “ $3 > 5$  if and only if Janelle Monáe is in the movie *Hidden Figures*.”

*Truth tables* help us determine truth values of compound statements in terms of the truth values that make them up. For the relevant examples above, we have the following table:

$p$	$q$	$\sim p$	$p \wedge q$	$p \vee q$	$p \rightarrow q$	$p \leftrightarrow q$
T	T	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T	F
F	F	T	F	F	T	T

Often students struggle the most with understanding the  $p \rightarrow q$  column. It can be helpful to think of  $p \rightarrow q$  as meaning “if  $p$  is true then  $q$  must also be true.” Therefore,  $p \rightarrow q$  is true if  $p$  and  $q$  are both true and false if  $p$  is true but  $q$  is not true. The next two rows in this column might present more of a challenge. One way to think of it is like this. This statement does not make *any* claim at all unless  $p$  is true. Therefore, if  $p$  is false, it doesn’t matter what the truth value of  $q$  is; it is impossible for  $p \rightarrow q$  to be false, therefore it must be true.

Using these truth values, we can make truth tables for other compound statements, building up step-by-step. The statement  $\sim p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)$  from Question #3 of the final exam review sheet has the following truth table.

$p$	$q$	$\sim p$	$p \rightarrow q$	$\sim p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)$
T	T	F	T	F
T	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T