Outline

Propositional Logic

Ideas Syntax Semantics Formula Evaluation

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Proposition

Propositional Logic formalises the notion of proposition, that is a statement that can be either true or false.

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Propositional Logic formalises the notion of proposition, that is a statement that can be either true or false.

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There are simple propositions, called atomic. For example:

- 1. 0 < 1;
- 2. Alan Turing was born in Manchester;
- 3. 1 + 1 = 10.

Proposition

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There are simple propositions, called atomic. For example:

- 1. 0 < 1;
- 2. Alan Turing was born in Manchester;
- 3. 1 + 1 = 10.

More complex propositions are built from simpler ones using a small number of constructs. Examples of more complex propositions:

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- 1. If 0 < 1, then Alan Turing was born in Manchester;
- 2. 1 + 1 = 10 or $1 + 1 \neq 10$.

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If a complex proposition *C* is build from simpler propositional S_1, \ldots, S_n using a construct, then the truth value of *C* is determined by the truth value of S_1, \ldots, S_n . More precisely, it is a function of truth values of S_1, \ldots, S_n defined by this construct.

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For example, 1 + 1 = 10 or $1 + 1 \neq 10$ is true if $1 + 1 \neq 10$ is true.

Assume a countable set of boolean variables. Propositional formula:

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 Every boolean variable is a formula, also called atomic formula, or simply atom.

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- \blacktriangleright T and \bot are formulas.
- ▶ If $A_1, ..., A_n$ are formulas, where $n \ge 2$, then $(A_1 \land ... \land A_n)$ and $(A_1 \lor ... \lor A_n)$ are formulas.

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• If A is a formula, then $(\neg A)$ is a formula.

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- If A is a formula, then $(\neg A)$ is a formula.
- ▶ If *A* and *B* are formulas, then $(A \rightarrow B)$ and $(A \leftrightarrow B)$ are formulas.

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- Every boolean variable is a formula, also called atomic formula, or simply atom.
- ▶ \top and \bot are formulas.
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- If A is a formula, then $(\neg A)$ is a formula.
- ▶ If A and B are formulas, then $(A \rightarrow B)$ and $(A \leftrightarrow B)$ are formulas.

The symbols $\top, \bot, \land, \lor, \neg, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$ are called connectives.

Subformula

- Formulas A_1, \ldots, A_n are the immediate subformulas of $(A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n)$ and $(A_1 \lor \ldots \lor A_n)$.
- Formula A is the immediate subformula of $(\neg A)$.
- Formulas A and B are the immediate subformulas of (A → B) and (A ↔ B).
- Every formula A is a subformula of itself.
- ▶ If *A* is a subformula of *B* and *B* is a subformula of *C*, then *A* is a subformula of *C*.

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We want to avoid expressions cluttered with parentheses. The standard way to avoid them is to assign precedence to operators and use the precedence to disambiguate expressions.

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We want to avoid expressions cluttered with parentheses. The standard way to avoid them is to assign precedence to operators and use the precedence to disambiguate expressions. For example, in arithmetic we know that the expression

 $x \cdot y + 2 \cdot z$

is equivalent to

 $(x\cdot y)+(2\cdot z),$

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since \cdot has a higher precedence than +.

Connectives and Their Precedences

Connective	Name	Precedence
Т	verum	
\perp	falsum	
_	negation	5
\wedge	conjunction	4
V	disjunction	3
\rightarrow	implication	2
\leftrightarrow	equivalence	1

Connective	Precedence
Т	
\perp	
—	5
\wedge	4
\vee	3
\rightarrow	2
\leftrightarrow	1



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Let us parse

 $\neg A \land B \rightarrow C \lor D \leftrightarrow E.$

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Inside-out (starting with the highest precedence connectives):

 $(\neg A) \land B \rightarrow C \lor D \iff E.$



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 $((\neg A) \land B) \rightarrow (C \lor D) \iff E.$



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Consider an arithmetical expression, for example

 $x \cdot y + 2 \cdot z$.

In arithmetic the meaning of expressions with variables is defined as follows.

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Take a mapping from variables to (integer) values, for example

 ${x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 7, z \mapsto -3}.$

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 $x \cdot y + 2 \cdot z$.

In arithmetic the meaning of expressions with variables is defined as follows.

Take a mapping from variables to (integer) values, for example

 ${x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 7, z \mapsto -3}.$

Then, under this mapping the expression has the value 1. In other words, when we interpret variables as values, we can compute the value of any expression built using these variables.

Likewise, the semantics of propositional formulas can be defined by assigning values to variables.

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There are two boolean values, also called truth values: true (denoted 1) and false (denoted 0).

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Likewise, the semantics of propositional formulas can be defined by assigning values to variables.

- There are two boolean values, also called truth values: true (denoted 1) and false (denoted 0).
- An interpretation for a set *P* of boolean variables is a mapping $I: P \rightarrow \{1, 0\}$.

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Semantics, Interpretation

Likewise, the semantics of propositional formulas can be defined by assigning values to variables.

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Interpretations are also called truth assignments.

Interpreting Formulas

The truth value of a complex formula is determined by the truth values of its components.

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Interpreting Formulas

The truth value of a complex formula is determined by the truth values of its components.

Given an interpretation *I*, extend *I* to a mapping from all formulas to truth values as follows.

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1. $I(\top) = 1$ and $I(\bot) = 0$.

2. $I(A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n) = 1$ if and only if $I(A_i) = 1$ for all *i*.

3. $I(A_1 \vee \ldots \vee A_n) = 1$ if and only if $I(A_i) = 1$ for some *i*.

4. $I(\neg A) = 1$ if and only if I(A) = 0.

- 5. $I(A_1 \rightarrow A_2) = 1$ if and only if $I(A_1) = 0$ or $I(A_2) = 1$.
- 6. $I(A_1 \leftrightarrow A_2) = 1$ if and only if $I(A_1) = I(A_2)$.

 $I(A_1 \lor A_2) = 1$ if and only if $I(A_1) = 1$ or $I(A_2) = 1$.

 $I(A_1 \leftrightarrow A_2) = 1$ if and only if $I(A_1) = I(A_2)$.



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 $I(A_1 \lor A_2) = 1$ if and only if $I(A_1) = 1$ or $I(A_2) = 1$. $I(A_1 \leftrightarrow A_2) = 1$ if and only if $I(A_1) = I(A_2)$.



Therefore, every connective can be considered as a function on truth values.

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Let A be a formula.

If I(A) = 1, then we say that the formula A is true in I and that I satisfies A and that I is a model of A, denoted by I ⊨ A.

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Let A be a formula.

If *I*(*A*) = 1, then we say that the formula *A* is true in *I* and that *I* satisfies *A* and that *I* is a model of *A*, denoted by *I* ⊨ *A*.

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• If I(A) = 0, then we say that the formula A is false in I.

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- If I(A) = 0, then we say that the formula A is false in I.
- *A* is satisfiable if it is true in some interpretation.
- ► *A* is valid (or a tautology) if it is true in every interpretation.

Let A be a formula.

- If *I*(*A*) = 1, then we say that the formula *A* is true in *I* and that *I* satisfies *A* and that *I* is a model of *A*, denoted by *I* ⊨ *A*.
- If I(A) = 0, then we say that the formula A is false in I.
- A is satisfiable if it is true in some interpretation.
- ► A is valid (or a tautology) if it is true in every interpretation.
- ► Two formulas *A* and *B* are called equivalent, denoted by $A \equiv B$ if they have the same models.

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 $A \rightarrow A$ and $A \lor \neg A$ are valid for all formulas A.



Examples

 $A \rightarrow A$ and $A \lor \neg A$ are valid for all formulas A. Evidently, every valid formula is also satisfiable.

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Examples

 $A \rightarrow A$ and $A \lor \neg A$ are valid for all formulas A. Evidently, every valid formula is also satisfiable. $A \land \neg A$ is unsatisfiable for all formulas A.

Examples

 $A \rightarrow A$ and $A \lor \neg A$ are valid for all formulas A.

Evidently, every valid formula is also satisfiable.

 $A \wedge \neg A$ is unsatisfiable for all formulas A.

Formula *p*, where *p* is a boolean variable, is satisfiable but not valid.

Examples: Equivalences

For all formulas *A* and *B*, the following equivalences hold.

$$A \rightarrow \perp \equiv \neg A;$$
 (1)

$$operator \to A \equiv A;$$
 (2)

$$A \rightarrow B \equiv \neg (A \land \neg B);$$
 (3)

$$A \wedge B \equiv \neg (\neg A \vee \neg B); \qquad (4)$$

$$A \vee B \equiv \neg A \to B. \tag{5}$$

- 1. A formula A is valid if and only if $\neg A$ is unsatisfiable.
- 2. A formula A is satisfiable if and only if $\neg A$ is not valid.

- 3. A formula A is valid if and only if A is equivalent to \top .
- Formulas A and B are equivalent if and only if the formula A ↔ B is valid.

- 5. Formulas *A* and *B* are equivalent if and only if the formula $\neg(A \leftrightarrow B)$ is unsatisfiable.
- 6. A formula A is satisfiable if and only if A is not equivalent to \bot .

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How to Evaluate a Formula?

Let's evaluate the formula

$$(p \rightarrow q) \land (p \land q \rightarrow r) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$$

in the interpretation

 $\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}.$

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 $\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}$

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 $\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}$

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formula	value
$(p \rightarrow q) \land (p \land q \rightarrow r) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$	
ho ightarrow r	
$(ho ightarrow q) \wedge (ho \wedge q ightarrow r)$	
$oldsymbol{ ho} \wedge oldsymbol{q} o oldsymbol{r}$	
ho ightarrow q	
$oldsymbol{ ho}\wedgeoldsymbol{q}$	
p p p	1
q q	0
r r	1

 $\{ p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1 \}$

formula	value
$(p ightarrow q) \wedge (p \wedge q ightarrow r) ightarrow (p ightarrow r)$	
ho ightarrow r	
$(ho ightarrow q) \wedge (ho \wedge q ightarrow r)$	
$oldsymbol{ ho} \wedge oldsymbol{q} ightarrow oldsymbol{r}$	
$oldsymbol{ ho} ightarrow oldsymbol{q}$	
$oldsymbol{ ho}\wedgeoldsymbol{q}$	0
p p p	1
q q	0
r r	1

 $\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}$

formula	value
$(p ightarrow q) \wedge (p \wedge q ightarrow r) ightarrow (p ightarrow r)$	
ho ightarrow r	
$(ho ightarrow q) \wedge (ho \wedge q ightarrow r)$	
$oldsymbol{ ho} \wedge oldsymbol{q} o oldsymbol{r}$	
$oldsymbol{ ho} ightarrow oldsymbol{q}$	0
$oldsymbol{p}\wedgeoldsymbol{q}$	0
p p p	1
q q	0
r r	1

 $\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}$

formula	value
$(p ightarrow q) \wedge (p \wedge q ightarrow r) ightarrow (p ightarrow r)$	
p ightarrow r	
$(p ightarrow q) \wedge (p \wedge q ightarrow r)$	
$oldsymbol{p} \wedge oldsymbol{q} ightarrow oldsymbol{r}$	1
$oldsymbol{ ho} ightarrow oldsymbol{q}$	0
$oldsymbol{p}\wedgeoldsymbol{q}$	0
р р р	1
q q	0
r r	1

 $\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}$

formula	value
$(p ightarrow q) \land (p \land q ightarrow r) ightarrow (p ightarrow r)$	
ho ightarrow r	
$({m p} ightarrow {m q}) \wedge ({m p} \wedge {m q} ightarrow {m r})$	0
$p \land q ightarrow r$	1
$oldsymbol{ ho} ightarrow oldsymbol{q}$	0
$oldsymbol{p}\wedgeoldsymbol{q}$	0
p p p	1
q q	0
r r	1

 $\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}$

formula	value
$\hline (p \rightarrow q) \land (p \land q \rightarrow r) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r)$	
ho ightarrow r	1
$({m ho} o {m q}) \wedge ({m ho} \wedge {m q} o {m r})$	0
$oldsymbol{ ho} \wedge oldsymbol{q} o oldsymbol{r}$	1
$oldsymbol{ ho} ightarrow oldsymbol{q}$	0
$oldsymbol{p}\wedgeoldsymbol{q}$	0
р р р	1
q q	0
r r	1
	1

 $\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}$

	formu	la			value
(p ightarrow q)	$) \land (p \land q \rightarrow$	→ r) —) (p –	→ <i>r</i>)	1
			р-	→ r	1
(p ightarrow q)	$) \land (p \land q \rightarrow$	→ r)			0
	$p \land q \rightarrow$	r r			1
p ightarrow q					0
	$oldsymbol{p}\wedgeoldsymbol{q}$				0
р	p		р		1
q	q				0
		r		r	1
				'	
$\{p \mapsto 1, q \mapsto 0, r \mapsto 1\}$					

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So the formula is true in this interpretation.

End of Lecture 2

Slides for lecture 2 end here ...



Equivalent replacement

Lemma (Equivalent Replacement)

Let A_1 be a subformula of B_1 and $I \models A_1 \leftrightarrow A_2$. Suppose that B_2 is obtained from B_1 by replacing one or more occurrences or A_1 by A_2 . Then $I \models B_1 \leftrightarrow B_2$.

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Theorem (Equivalent Replacement)

Let A_1 be a subformula of B_1 and $A_1 \equiv A_2$. Suppose that B_2 is obtained from B_1 by replacing one or more occurrences or A_1 by A_2 . Then $B_1 \equiv B_2$.

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In other words, replacing, in a formula B_1 , a subformula A_1 by an equivalent formula A_2 gives an equivalent formula.

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In other words, replacing, in a formula B_1 , a subformula A_1 by an equivalent formula A_2 gives an equivalent formula.

(thanks to compositionality!)

A purely syntactic algorithm

If
$$l \models p$$
, then $l \models p \leftrightarrow \top$;
If $l \not\models p$, then $l \models p \leftrightarrow \bot$;

A purely syntactic algorithm

```
If l \models p, then l \models p \leftrightarrow \top;
If l \not\models p, then l \models p \leftrightarrow \bot;
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Since we can replace a subformula by a formula with the same value, we can replace every variable p by either \top or \bot , depending on the value of p in l.

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Rewrite rules for evaluating a formula

Suppose that we have a formula consisting only of \bot and \top . One can note that every formula of this form different from \bot and \top can be "simplified" to a smaller equivalent formula.

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Suppose that we have a formula consisting only of \bot and \top . One can note that every formula of this form different from \bot and \top can be "simplified" to a smaller equivalent formula. For example, every formula of the form $A \to \top$ is equivalent to a simpler formula \top .

This simplification process can be formalised as a rewrite rule system:

We can define a purely syntax algorithm for evaluating a formula using the rewrite rule system.

procedure evaluate(G, I)**input**: formula G, interpretation I **output**: the boolean value I(G)

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```
procedure evaluate(G, I)

input: formula G, interpretation I

output: the boolean value I(G)

begin

<u>forall</u> variables p occurring in G

<u>if</u> I \models p

<u>then</u> replace all occurrences of p in G by \top;

<u>else</u> replace all occurrences of p in G by \bot;

rewrite G into a normal form using the rewrite rules

<u>end</u>
```

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procedure evaluate(G, I)

input: formula G, interpretation I

output: the boolean value I(G)

begin

forall variables p occurring in G

if I \models p

then replace all occurrences of p in G by \top;

else replace all occurrences of p in G by \bot;

rewrite G into a normal form using the rewrite rules

if G = \top then return 1 else return 0

end
```

Example

Let us evaluate the formula

$$(\boldsymbol{\rho}
ightarrow \boldsymbol{q}) \land (\boldsymbol{\rho} \land \boldsymbol{q}
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in the interpretation

 $\{\boldsymbol{p}\mapsto \boldsymbol{1},\boldsymbol{q}\mapsto \boldsymbol{0},r\mapsto \boldsymbol{1}\}.$

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The value of this formula is equal to the value of

 $(\top \rightarrow \bot) \land (\top \land \bot \rightarrow \top) \rightarrow (\top \rightarrow \top).$

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Inside-out, left-to-right:

 $(\top \to \bot) \land (\top \land \bot \to \top) \to (\top \to \top)$

 $\begin{array}{c} A \land \bot \Rightarrow \bot \\ \top \to \bot \Rightarrow \bot \\ A \to \top \Rightarrow \top \end{array}$

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The result will always be the same independently of the order of rewrites