Propositional Logic

Presentation by:

K.Lekshmi

SSN College of Engineering



Overview of the session

- Definition of Logic
- Definition of Propositional Logic
 - Syntax
 - Semantics



What is a Logic?

Logic is defined by:

- A set of sentences
 - A sentence is constructed from a set of primitives according to syntax rules.
- A set of interpretations
 - An interpretation gives a semantic to primitives. It associates primitives with values.
- The valuation (meaning) function V
 - Assigns a value (typically the truth value) to a given sentence under some interpretation

```
V: sentence \times interpretation \rightarrow \{True, False\}
```



Propositional Logic

Propositional logic: a formal language for representing knowledge and for making logical inferences

- A **proposition** is a statement that is either true or false.
- A **compound proposition** can be created from other propositions using logical connectives
- The **truth of a compound proposition is** defined by truth values of elementary propositions and the meaning of connectives.
- The **truth table for a compound proposition**: table with entries (rows) for all possible combinations of truth values of elementary propositions.

Propositional Logic

- Examples (cont.):
 - How are you?
 - a question is not a proposition
 - -x+5=3
 - since x is not specified, neither true nor false
 - 2 is a prime number.
 - · (T)
 - She is very talented.
 - since she is not specified, neither true nor false
 - There are other life forms on other planets in the universe.
 - · either T or F



Propositional Logic - Syntax

- Formally propositional logic P:
 - is defined by Syntax+interpretation+semantics of P

Syntax:

- Symbols (alphabet) in P:
 - Constants: True, False
 - Propositional symbols

Examples:

- P
- Pitt is located in the Oakland section of Pittsburgh.,
- It rains outside, etc.
- A set of connectives:

$$\neg, \land, \lor, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$$



Propositional Logic - Syntax

Sentences in the propositional logic:

- Atomic sentences:
 - Constructed from constants and propositional symbols
 - True, False are (atomic) sentences
 - P,Q or Light in the room is on, It rains outside are (atomic) sentences
- Composite sentences:
 - Constructed from valid sentences via connectives
 - If A, B are sentences then $\neg A \ (A \land B) \ (A \lor B) \ (A \Rightarrow B) \ (A \Leftrightarrow B)$ or $(A \lor B) \land (A \lor \neg B)$

are sentences



Compound Propositions

```
    Let p: 2 is a prime ..... T
    q: 6 is a prime ..... F
```

• Determine the truth value of the following statements:

```
\neg p:

p \land q:

p \land \neg q:

p \lor q:

p \oplus q:

q \to p:
```



Compound Propositions

- Let p: 2 is a prime T
 q: 6 is a prime F
- Determine the truth value of the following statements:

```
\neg p: \mathbf{F}
p \land q : \mathbf{F}
p \land \neg q: \mathbf{T}
p \lor q : \mathbf{T}
p \oplus q: \mathbf{T}
p \to q: \mathbf{F}
q \to p: \mathbf{T}
```



Definition of Propositional Logic

SYNTAX (what is a **formula**?):

- **▶** Vocabulary consists of a set P of propositional variables, usually denoted by (subscripted) p,q,r,...
- The set of propositional formulas over P is defined as:
 - Every propositional variable is a formula
 - If F is a formula, $\neg F$ is also a formula
 - If F and G are formulas, $(F \wedge G)$ is also a formula
 - If F and G are formulas, $(F \vee G)$ is also a formula
 - Nothing else is a formula
- Formulas are usually denoted by (subscripted) F, G, H, \dots
- Examples:

$$p \neg p (p \lor q) \neg (p \land q)$$

$$(p \land (\neg p \lor q))$$
 $((p \land q) \lor (r \lor \neg q))$...



Propositional Logic - Semantics

The semantic gives the meaning to sentences.

the semantics in the propositional logic is defined by:

- 1. Interpretation of propositional symbols and constants
 - Semantics of atomic sentences
- 2. Through the meaning of connectives
 - Meaning (semantics) of composite sentences



Semantic: propositional symbols

A propositional symbol

- a statement about the world that is either true or false Examples:
 - Pitt is located in the Oakland section of Pittsburgh
 - It rains outside
 - Light in the room is on
- An interpretation maps symbols to one of the two values:
 True (T), or False (F), depending on whether the symbol is satisfied in the world
 - I: Light in the room is on -> True, It rains outside -> False
 - I': Light in the room is on -> False, It rains outside -> False



Semantic: propositional symbols

The **meaning (value)** of the propositional symbol for a specific interpretation is given by its interpretation

I: Light in the room is on -> True, It rains outside -> False

V(Light in the room is on, I) = True

V(It rains outside, I) = False

I': Light in the room is on -> False, It rains outside -> False

V(Light in the room is on, I') = False



Semantic: constants

- The meaning (truth) of constants:
 - True and False constants are always (under any interpretation) assigned the corresponding *True,False* value

$$V(True, I) = True$$

$$V(False, I) = False$$
For any interpretation I



Semantic: composite sentences

- The meaning (truth value) of complex propositional sentences.
 - Determined using the standard rules of logic:

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \vee Q$	$P\Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
True	True	False	True	True	True	True
True	False	False	False	True	False	False
False	True	True	False	True	True	False
False	False	True	False	False	True	True

Rows define all possible interpretations (worlds)



Semantic: composite sentences – Constructing Truth Table

Constructing the truth table

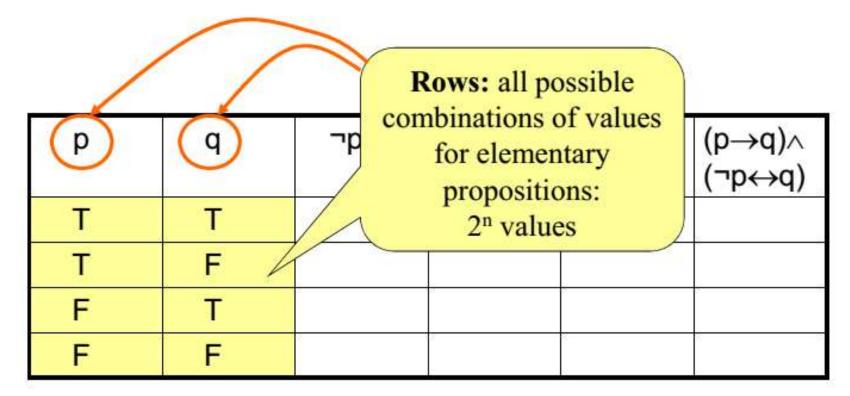
• Example: Construct the truth table for

$$(p \to q) \land (\neg p \leftrightarrow q)$$



Semantic: composite sentences – Constructing Truth Table

 Example: Construct the truth table for (p → q) ∧ (¬p ↔ q)





Semantic: composite sentences – Constructing Truth Table

Example: Construct the truth table for

$$(p \rightarrow q) \land (\neg p \leftrightarrow q)$$

Typically the target (unknown) compound proposition and its

р	q	¬р	$p \rightarrow q$	¬p ↔ q	(p→q)∧ (p↔qr)
Т	Т				
Т	F				
F	Т	Auxil	iary compo	ound	
F	F	1.04	propositions and their		
76			values		6



Semantic: composite sentences – Constructing Truth Table

 Examples: Construct a truth table for (p → q) ∧ (¬p ↔ q)

р	q	¬р	$p \rightarrow q$	¬p ↔ q	(p→q)∧ (¬p↔q)
Т	Т	F	Т	F	F
Т	F	F	F	Т	F
F	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
F	F	Т	Т	F	F



Definition of Propositional Logic (2)

SEMANTICS (what is an interpretation I, when I = F?):

- **●** An interpretation *I* over \mathcal{P} is a function $I: \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.
- *I* satisfies *F* (written $I \models F$) if and only if $eval_I(F) = 1$.
- $eval_I : Formulas \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is a function defined as follows:
 - $eval_I(p) = I(p)$
 - $eval_I(\neg F) = 1 eval_I(F)$
 - $eval_I((F \land G)) = min\{eval_I(F), eval_I(G)\}$
 - $eval_I((F \lor G)) = max\{eval_I(F), eval_I(G)\}$
- If $I \models F$ we say that
 - I is a model of F or, equivalently
 - F is true in I.



Semantics of propositional logic

We start with two truth values: $\{0, 1\}$

• 0 stands for False, and 1 stands for True

Let **D** be any subset of the *atomic* formulas An *assignment* **A** is a map $\mathbf{D} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

• A assigns True or False to every atomic in **D**

Let $E \supseteq D$ be set of formulas built from D using propositional connectives

Extended assignment A': $\mathbf{E} \to \{0, 1\}$ extends A from atomic formulas to all formulas

continued on the next slide

Semantics of propositional logic

For an atomic formula A_i in **D**: $A'(A_i) = A(A_i)$

$$\mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{F} \wedge \mathbf{G}) = 1$$
 if $\mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{F}) = 1$ and $\mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{G}) = 1$

= 0 otherwise

$$\mathbf{A}'(\neg \mathbf{F})$$
 = 1 if $\mathbf{A}'(\mathbf{F}) = 0$
= 0 otherwise

We write A instead of \hat{A} .



Exercise: Define Extended Assignment

$$F = \neg (A \land B) \lor C$$

$$\mathcal{A}(A) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{A}(B) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{A}(C) = 0$$

Is F true or false under A'?



Parse Tree

Formula

$$F = \neg (A \land B) \lor C$$

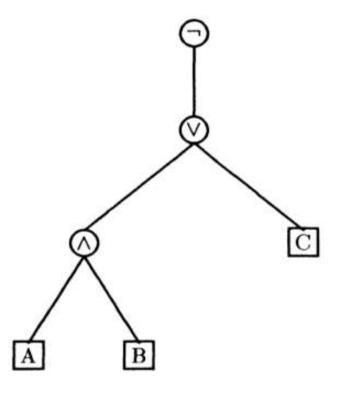
Assignment

$$\mathcal{A}(A) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{A}(B) = 1$$

$$\mathcal{A}(C) = 0$$

Abstract Syntax Tree (AST)





Is F true or false under A'?

$$F = (\neg A \to (A \to B))$$

\boldsymbol{A}	B	$\neg A$	$(A \rightarrow B)$	F
0	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1
1	1	0	1	1



Applications of Proposition Logic

- Translation of English sentences
- Inference and reasoning:
 - new true propositions are inferred from existing ones
 - Used in Artificial Intelligence:
 - Rule based (expert) systems
 - Automatic theorem provers
- Design of logic circuit

Assume the following sentences:

- It is not sunny this afternoon and it is colder than yesterday.
- We will go swimming only if it is sunny.
- If we do not go swimming then we will take a canoe trip.
- If we take a canoe trip, then we will be home by sunset.

Denote:

- p = It is sunny this afternoon
- q = it is colder than yesterday
- r = We will go swimming
- s= we will take a short trip
- t= We will be home by sunset



Assume the following sentences:

- It is not sunny this afternoon and it is colder than yesterday.
- We will go swimming only if it is sunny.
- If we do not go swimming then we will take a canoe trip.
- If we take a canoe trip, then we will be home by sunset.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 & p \land q \\
 & r \rightarrow p \\
 & r \rightarrow s \\
 & s \rightarrow t
\end{array}$$

Denote:

- p = It is sunny this afternoon
- q = it is colder than yesterday
- r = We will go swimming
- s= we will take a canoe trip
- t= We will be home by sunset



Assume a sentence:

If you are older than 13 or you are with your parents then you can attend a Horror movie.

Parse:

• If (you are older than 13 or you are with your parents)then (you can attend a Horror movie)

Atomic (elementary) propositions:

- -A= you are older than 13
- B= you are with your parents
- C=you can attend a Horror movie
- Translation: ?



Assume a sentence:

If you are older than 13 or you are with your parents then you can attend a Horror movie.

Parse:

• If (you are older than 13 or you are with your parents)then (you can attend a Horror movie)

Atomic (elementary) propositions:

- -A= you are older than 13
- -B= you are with your parents
- C=you can attend a Horror movie
- Translation: $A \lor B \to C$



- General rule for translation.
- Look for patterns corresponding to logical connectives in the sentence and use them to define elementary propositions.
- Example:

You can have free coffee if you are senior citizen and it is a Tuesday

Step 1 find logical connectives



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Step 2 break the sentence into elementary propositions



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- Look for patterns corresponding to logical connectives in the sentence and use them to define elementary propositions.
- Example:

You can have free coffee if you are senior citizen and it is a Tuesday

b

c

Step 2 break the sentence into elementary propositions



- General rule for translation.
- Look for patterns corresponding to logical connectives in the sentence and use them to define elementary propositions.
- Example:

You can have free coffee if you are senior citizen and it is a Tuesday

b

c

Step 3 rewrite the sentence in propositional logic

$$b \wedge c \rightarrow a$$



Propositional Logic: Semantics

An assignment A is <u>suitable</u> for a formula F if A assigns a truth value to every atomic proposition of F

An assignment A is a <u>model</u> for F, written A⊧ F, iff

- A is suitable for F
- A'(F) = 1, i.e., F evaluates to true (or holds) under A

A formula F is *satisfiable* iff F has a model, otherwise F is *unsatisfiable* (or contradictory)

A formula F is *valid* (or a tautology), written F F, iff every suitable assignment for F is a model for F



Formalizing natural language (I)

A device consists of two parts A and B, and a red light. We know that:

- A or B (or both) are broken.
- If A is broken, then B is broken.
- If B is broken and the red light is on, then A is not broken.
- The red light is on.

We use the atomic formulas: Ro (red light on), Ab (A is broken), Bb (B is broken), and formalize this situation by means of the formula

$$((((Ab \lor Bb) \land (Ab \to Bb)) \land ((Bb \land Ro) \to \neg Ab))) \land Ro)$$

Formalizing natural language (II)

Full truth table:				F
				$ ((((Ab \vee Bb) \land (Ab \rightarrow Bb))) \land $
	Ro	Ab	Bb	$((Bb \wedge Ro) \rightarrow \neg Ab)) \wedge Ro)$
	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0
	0	1	0	0
	0	1	1	0
	1	0	0	0
	1	0	1	1
	1	1	0	0
	1	1	1	0
				·

- I satisfies F (written $I \models F$) if and only if $eval_I(F) = 1$.
- If $I \models F$ we say that

 I is a model of F or, equivalently

 F is true in I.

Contradiction and Tautology

Some composite sentences may always (under any interpretation) evaluate to a single truth value:

Contradiction (always False) / Unsatisfiable

$$P \wedge \neg P$$

Tautology (always True)

$$P \vee \neg P$$

$$\neg (P \lor Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \land \neg Q)
\neg (P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor \neg Q)$$
DeMorgan's Laws



- A model (in logic): An interpretation is a model for a set of sentences if it assigns true to each sentence in the set.
- A sentence is satisfiable if it has a model;
 - There is at least one interpretation under which the sentence can evaluate to True.
- A sentence is valid if it is True in all interpretations
 - i.e., if its negation is **not satisfiable** (leads to contradiction)

P	Q	$P \vee Q$	$(P \vee Q) \wedge \neg Q$	$((P \vee Q) \wedge \neg Q) \Rightarrow P$
True	True	True	False	True
True	False	True	True	True
False	True	True	False	True
False	False	False	False	True



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P	Q	$P \vee Q$	$(P \lor Q) \land \neg Q$	$((P \lor Q) \land \neg Q) \Rightarrow P$
True	True	True	False	True
True	False	True	True	True
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	20		Satisfiable sentence		
P	Q	$P \vee Q$	$(P \lor Q) \land \neg Q$	$((P \vee Q) \wedge \neg Q) \Rightarrow P$	
True	True	True	False	True	
True	False	True	True	True	
False	True	True	False	True	
False	False	False	False	True	



- A model (in logic): An interpretation is a model for a set of sentences if it assigns true to each sentence in the set.
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- A sentence is valid if it is True in all interpretations
 - i.e., if its negation is **not satisfiable** (leads to contradiction)

	200		Satisfiable sentence	Valid sentence
P	Q	$P \vee Q$	$(P \lor Q) \land \neg Q$	$((P \vee Q) \wedge \neg Q) \Rightarrow P$
True	True	True	False	True
True	False	True	True	True
False	True	True	False	True
False	False	False	False	True



Validity and Unsatisfiability

Theorem:

A formula F is valid if and only if ¬F is unsatifsiable

Proof:

F is valid \Leftrightarrow every suitable assignment for F is a model for F

⇔ every suitable assignment for ¬ F is not a model for ¬ F

⇔ ¬ F does not have a model

⇔ ¬ F is unsatisfiable



Small Syntax Extension

- We will write $(F \to G)$ as an abbreviation for $(\neg F \lor G)$
- **⑤** Similarly, $(F \leftrightarrow G)$ is an abbreviation of $((F \to G) \land (G \to F))$

They both capture very intuitive concepts, which ones?



Small Syntax Extension

- We will write $(F \to G)$ as an abbreviation for $(\neg F \lor G)$
- **⑤** Similarly, $(F \leftrightarrow G)$ is an abbreviation of $((F \to G) \land (G \to F))$

They both capture very intuitive concepts, which ones?

•
$$I = (F \rightarrow G)$$
 iff $I = F$ implies $I = G$

$$I = (F \leftrightarrow G) \quad \text{iff} \quad I = F \text{ and } I = G \text{ or }$$

$$I = F \text{ and } I = G$$

$$\text{iff} \quad eval_I(F) = eval_I(G)$$



Operator (Connective) Precedence

Operator precedence:

```
binds weaker than

→ which binds weaker than

∨ which binds weaker than

∧ which binds weaker than

∧ which binds weaker than
```

So we have

$$A \leftrightarrow B \vee \neg C \to D \wedge \neg E \equiv (A \leftrightarrow ((B \vee \neg C) \to (D \wedge \neg E)))$$

But: well chosen parenthesis help to visually parse formulas.



EXCERCISE

1. Draw the parse tree for the following formula:

$$((\neg p) \land ((\neg q) \land ((\neg r) \land ((\neg s) \land \top))))$$

List all sub-formulas of the expression.

2. According to the operator precedences, the following formula has a unique reading.

$$\neg p \land q \rightarrow \neg r \lor \neg p \rightarrow r$$

Indicate this reading by writing all parentheses



EXERCISE on Translation

• Assume two elementary statements:

p: you drive over 65 mph; q: you get a speeding ticket

- Translate each of these sentences to logic
- a) you do not drive over 65 mph.
- b) you drive over 65 mph, but you don't get a speeding ticket.
- c) you will get a speeding ticket if you drive over 65 mph.
- d) if you do not drive over 65 mph then you will not get a speeding ticket.
- e) driving over 65 mph is sufficient for getting a speeding ticket.
- f) you get a speeding ticket, but you do not drive over 65 mph.



References

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 http://www.springerlink.com/content/978-0-8176-4762-9/

Logic for Computer Scientists
Uwe Schöning

