

UCS1524 – Logic Programming

Fundamentals of Propositional Logic



Session Meta Data

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Session Objectives

- Understanding syntax and semantics of propositional logic (PL)
- Learning formal representation of PL, validity, satisfiability and semantic equivalence in PL.

Session Outcomes

- At the end of this session, participants will be able to
 - explain the formal representation of statements in PL and how to check validity of the statements in PL.

Agenda

- Syntax and Semantics of PL
- Validity and satisfiability
- Semantic equivalence

What is logic?

- The philosophical definition is that logic is a description of how **one should think**.
- In the context of AI, logic is "**formal**," which means it resembles math in its clarity and lack of ambiguity.
- According to Merriam-Webster dictionary, logic is a science that deals with the **principles and criteria of validity** of inference and demonstration
- E.g.
 - The arrangement of circuit elements (as in a computer) needed for computation
 - Parsing both natural language and programming language statements

Formal Logic

Formal Logic consists of

- syntax – what is a legal sentence in the logic
- semantics – what is the meaning of a sentence in the logic
- proof theory – formal (syntactic) procedure to construct valid/true sentences

Formal logic provides

- a language to precisely express knowledge, requirements, facts
- a formal way to reason about consequences of given facts rigorously

Where is Formal Logic used in SE?

Programming Languages

- conditional statements
- meaning (semantics) of programs

Requirements and Specification

- rigorous definition of what is to be constructed
- e.g., if we used formal logic for assignments, there would be no questions on what is required, what is optional, and no questions

Computer Hardware

- computers are build out of simple logical gates
- most computer hardware can be specified and understood in propositional logic

Testing and Verification

- rigorously validate that software satisfies its specifications

Algorithms and Optimization

- many complex problems can be reduced to logic and solved effectively using automated decision procedures

Propositional Logic (or Boolean Logic)

Explores simple grammatical connections such as *and*, *or*, and *not* between simplest “atomic sentences”

A = “Paris is the capital of France”

B = “mice chase elephants”

The subject of propositional logic is to declare formally the truth of complex structures from the truth of individual atomic components

A and B

A or B

if A then B

Syntax and Semantics

Syntax

- Rules used to express facts and concepts.
- The way in which linguistic elements (such as words) are put together to form constituents (such as phrases or clauses)
- Determines and restricts how things are written

Semantics

- The study of meanings
- Determine the truth value of the logic formula.
- Determines how syntax is interpreted to give meaning

Syntax of Propositional Logic

An *atomic formula* has a form A_i , where $i = 1, 2, 3 \dots$

Formulas are defined inductively as follows:

- All atomic formulas are formulas
- For every formula F , $\neg F$ (called not F) is a formula
- For all formulas F and G , $F \wedge G$ (called and) and $F \vee G$ (called or) are formulas

Abbreviations

- use A, B, C, \dots instead of A_1, A_2, \dots
- use $F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ instead of $\neg F_1 \vee F_2$ (implication)
- use $F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2$ instead of $(F_1 \rightarrow F_2) \wedge (F_2 \rightarrow F_1)$ (iff)

Syntax of Propositional Logic (PL)

$\text{truth_symbol} ::= \top(\text{true}) \mid \perp(\text{false})$

$\text{variable} ::= p, q, r, \dots$

$\text{atom} ::= \text{truth_symbol} \mid \text{variable}$

$\text{literal} ::= \text{atom} \mid \neg \text{atom}$

$\text{formula} ::= \text{literal} \mid$

$\neg \text{formula} \mid$

negation

$\text{formula} \wedge \text{formula} \mid$

conjunction

$\text{formula} \vee \text{formula} \mid$

disjunction

$\text{formula} \rightarrow \text{formula} \mid$

implies

$\text{formula} \leftrightarrow \text{formula}$

equivalence

Example

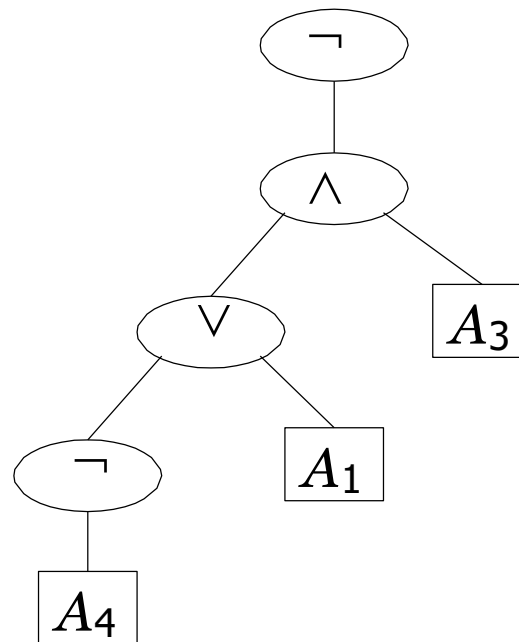
$$F = \neg((A_5 \wedge A_6) \vee \neg A_3)$$

Sub-formulas are

$$\begin{aligned} &F, ((A_5 \wedge A_6) \vee \neg A_3), \\ &A_5 \wedge A_6, \neg A_3, \\ &A_5, A_6, A_3 \end{aligned}$$

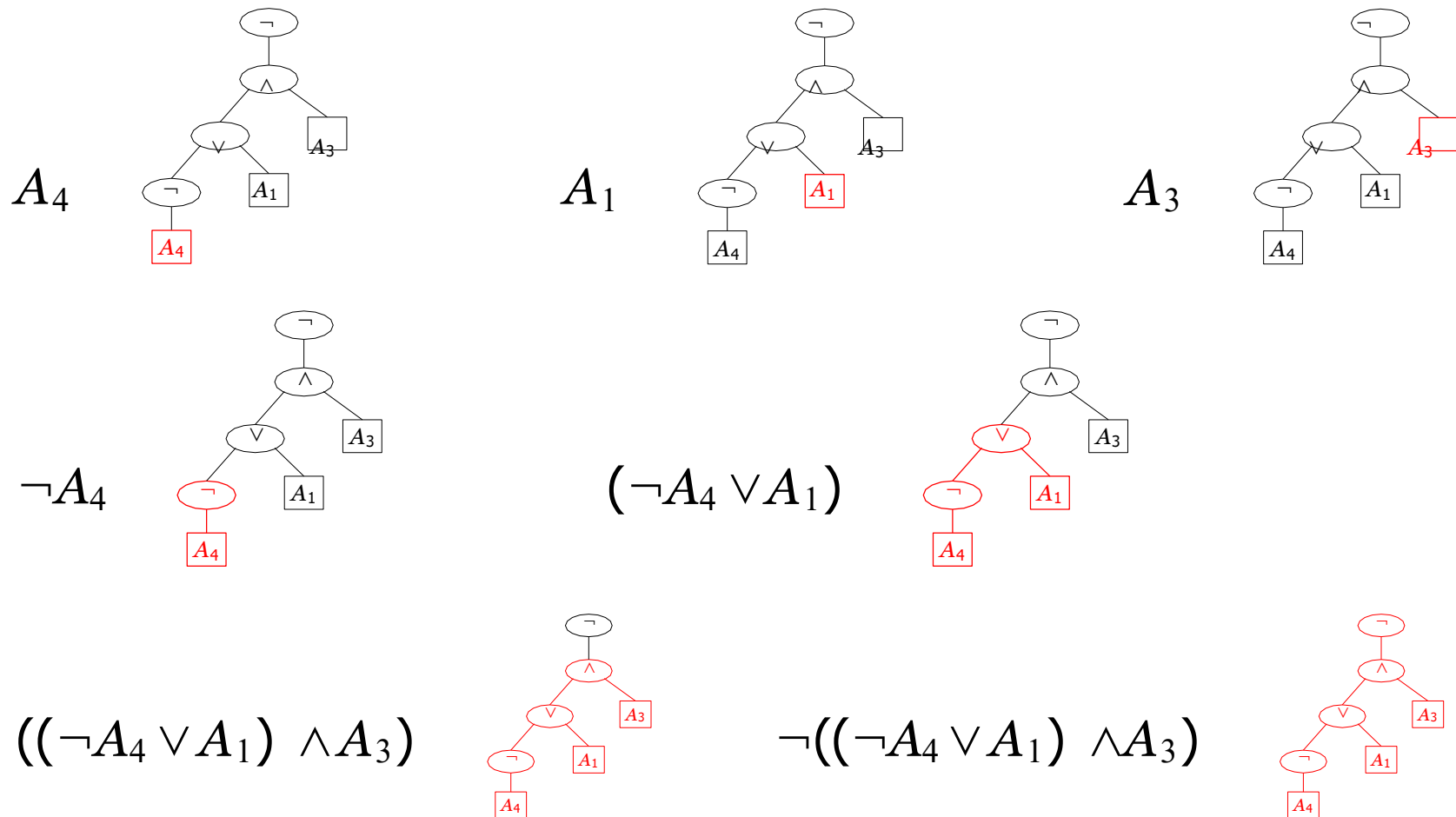
Syntax tree of a formula

Every formula can be represented by a syntax tree. **Example:** $F = \neg((\neg A_4 \vee A_1) \wedge A_3)$



Subformulas

The **subformulas** of a formula are the formulas corresponding to the subtrees of its syntax tree.



Semantics of propositional logic

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

- 0 stands for False, and 1 stands for True

Let \mathbf{D} be any subset of the *atomic* formulas

An *assignment* \mathbf{A} is a map $\mathbf{D} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

- \mathbf{A} assigns True or False to every atomic in \mathbf{D}

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

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

Semantics of propositional logic

For an atomic formula A_i in \mathbf{D} : $\mathbf{A}'(A_i) = \mathbf{A}(A_i)$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}'(F \wedge G) &= 1 && \text{if } \mathbf{A}'(F) = 1 \text{ and } \mathbf{A}'(G) = 1 \\ &= 0 && \text{otherwise} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}'(F \vee G) &= 1 && \text{if } \mathbf{A}'(F) = 1 \text{ or } \mathbf{A}'(G) = 1 \\ &= 0 && \text{otherwise} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}'(\neg F) &= 1 && \text{if } \mathbf{A}'(F) = 0 \\ &= 0 && \text{otherwise} \end{aligned}$$

Exercise: Define Extended Assignment

$$F = \neg(A \wedge B) \vee C$$

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

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

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

Is F true or false under A' ?

Truth Tables for Basic Operators

$\mathcal{A}(F)$	$\mathcal{A}(G)$	$\mathcal{A}'(F \wedge G)$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

$\mathcal{A}(F)$	$\mathcal{A}(G)$	$\mathcal{A}'(F \vee G)$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

An extended assignment \mathcal{A}' extends the truth table from atomic propositions to propositional formulas

$\mathcal{A}(F)$	$\mathcal{A}'(\neg F)$
0	1
1	0

Formula

$$F = \neg(A \wedge B) \vee C$$

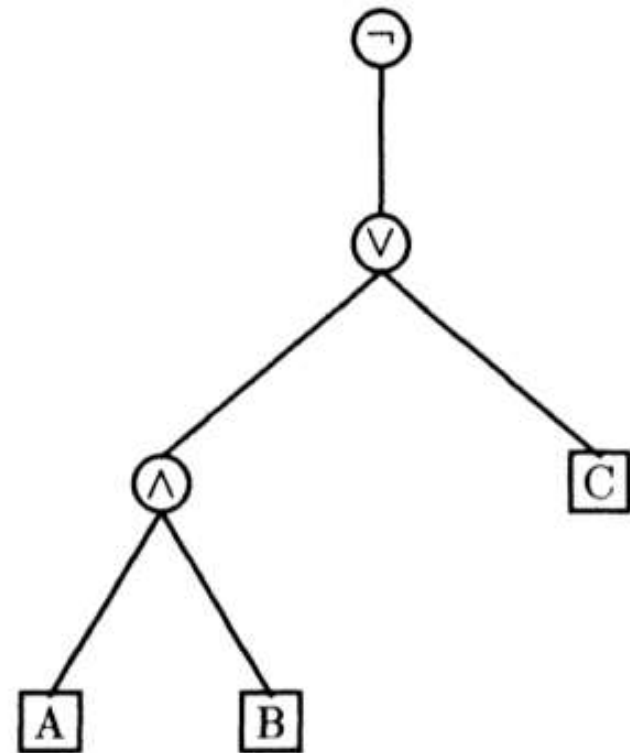
Assignment

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

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

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

Abstract Syntax Tree (AST)



Abbreviations

$A, B, C,$

$P, Q, R,$ or ... for $A_1, A_2, A_3 \dots$

$(F_1 \rightarrow F_2)$ for $(\neg F_1 \vee F_2)$

$(F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2)$ for $((F_1 \wedge F_2) \vee (\neg F_1 \wedge \neg F_2))$

$(\bigvee_{i=1}^n F_i)$ for $(\dots ((F_1 \vee F_2) \vee F_3) \vee \dots \vee F_n)$

$(\bigwedge_{i=1}^n F_i)$ for $(\dots ((F_1 \wedge F_2) \wedge F_3) \wedge \dots \wedge F_n)$

\top or true or 1 for $(A_1 \vee \neg A_1)$

\perp or false or 0 for $(A_1 \wedge \neg A_1)$

Truth tables

Tables for the operators \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow :

A	B	A	\rightarrow	B
0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	1
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

Name: *implication*

Interpretation: If A holds, then B holds.

A	B	A	\leftrightarrow	B
0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

Name: *equivalence*

Interpretation: A holds if and only if B holds.

Formalizing natural language

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

$$((((Ab \vee Bb) \wedge (Ab \rightarrow Bb)) \wedge ((Bb \wedge Ro) \rightarrow \neg Ab))) \wedge Ro$$

Formalizing natural language

Full truth table:

Ro	Ab	Bb	$(((((Ab \vee Bb) \wedge (Ab \rightarrow Bb)))) \wedge ((Bb \wedge Ro) \rightarrow \neg Ab)) \wedge Ro)$
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

Propositional Logic: Semantics

An assignment A is *suitable* for a formula F if A assigns a truth value to every atomic proposition of F

An assignment A is a *model* for F , written $A \models F$, 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 $\models F$, iff every suitable assignment for F is a model for F

Determining Satisfiability via a Truth Table

A formula F with n atomic sub-formulas has 2^n suitable assignments

Build a truth table enumerating all assignments

F is satisfiable iff there is at least one entry with 1 in the output

	A_1	A_2	\dots	A_{n-1}	A_n	F
$\mathcal{A}_1:$	0	0		0	0	$\mathcal{A}_1(F)$
$\mathcal{A}_2:$	0	0		0	1	$\mathcal{A}_2(F)$
\vdots			\ddots			\vdots
$\mathcal{A}_{2^n}:$	1	1		1	1	$\mathcal{A}_{2^n}(F)$

Problem: Is formula F SAT?

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

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

Validity and Unsatisfiability

Theorem:

A formula F is valid if and only if $\neg F$ is unsatisfiable

Proof:

F is valid \Leftrightarrow every suitable assignment for F is a model for F
 \Leftrightarrow every suitable assignment for $\neg F$ is not a model for $\neg F$
 $\Leftrightarrow \neg F$ does not have a model
 $\Leftrightarrow \neg F$ is unsatisfiable

Mirroring principle

valid formulas	satisfiable, but not valid formulas		unsatis- fiable formulas
$\neg G$	F	$\neg F$	G

Exercise

Prove or give a counter example

Valid

(a) If $(F \Rightarrow G)$ is *valid* and F is *valid*, then G is *valid*

(b) If $(F \Rightarrow G)$ is *sat* and F is *sat*, then G is *sat*

Not Valid

(c) If $(F \Rightarrow G)$ is *valid* and F is *sat*, then G is *sat*

Valid

Semantic Equivalence

Two formulas F and G are *(semantically) equivalent*, written $F \equiv G$, iff for every assignment A that is suitable for both F and G , $A'(F) = A'(G)$

For example, $(F \wedge G)$ is equivalent to $(G \wedge F)$

Formulas with different atomic propositions can be equivalent

- e.g., all tautologies are equivalent to True
- e.g., all unsatisfiable formulas are equivalent to False

Substitution Theorem

Theorem: Let F and G be equivalent formulas. Let H be a formula in which F occurs as a sub-formula. Let H' be a formula obtained from H by replacing every occurrence of F by G . Then, H and H' are equivalent.

Proof:

(Let's talk about proof by induction first...)

Mathematical Induction (over Natural Numbers)

To prove that a property $P(n)$ holds for all natural numbers n

1. Show that $P(0)$ is true
2. Assume that $P(k)$ is true for some natural number k
 - This assumption is called an **Inductive Hypothesis (IH)**
3. Show that $P(k+1)$ is true using IH from the previous step
4. Conclude that $P(n)$ holds for all natural numbers n
 - $P(n)$ is proven (or established, true) by mathematical induction

Example: Mathematical Induction

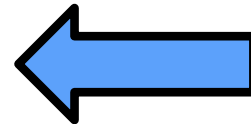
Show by induction that the formula for arithmetic series is correct

$$0 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Base Case: $P(0)$ is $0 = \frac{0(0+1)}{2}$

IH: Assume $P(k)$, show $P(k+1)$

$$\begin{aligned} & 0 + \dots + k + (k+1) \\ = & \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \\ = & \frac{k(k+1) + 2(k+1)}{2} \\ = & \frac{(k+1)((\frac{k}{2}+1)+1)}{2} \end{aligned}$$



IH is used in this step

Structural Induction on the formula structure

The definition of a syntax of a formula is an *inductive* definition

- first, define atomic formulas; second, define more complex formulas from simple ones, each next definition uses previous definition recursively

The definition of the semantics of a formula is also inductive

- first, determine value of atomic propositions; second, define values of more complex formulas

The same principle works for proving properties of formulas!

- To show that every formula F satisfies some property S :
- (base case) show that S holds for atomic formulae
- (induction step) assume S holds for an arbitrary fixed formulas F and G . Show that S holds for $(F \wedge G)$, $(F \vee G)$, and $(\neg F)$

Substitution Theorem

Theorem: Let F and G be equivalent formulas. Let H be a formula in which F occurs as a sub-formula. Let H' be a formula obtained from H by replacing every occurrence of F by G . Then, H and H' are equivalent.

Proof: by induction on formula structure

(base case) if H is atomic, then $F = H$, $H' = G$, and $F \equiv G$

(inductive step)

(case 1) $H = \neg H_1$

(case 2) $H = H_1 \wedge H_2$

(case 3) $H = H_1 \vee H_2$

Useful Equivalences

$$\begin{aligned}(F \wedge F) &\equiv F \\ (F \vee F) &\equiv F\end{aligned}\quad (\text{Idempotency})$$

$$\begin{aligned}(F \wedge G) &\equiv (G \wedge F) \\ (F \vee G) &\equiv (G \vee F)\end{aligned}\quad (\text{Commutativity})$$

$$\begin{aligned}((F \wedge G) \wedge H) &\equiv (F \wedge (G \wedge H)) \\ ((F \vee G) \vee H) &\equiv (F \vee (G \vee H))\end{aligned}\quad (\text{Associativity})$$

$$\begin{aligned}(F \wedge (F \vee G)) &\equiv F \\ (F \vee (F \wedge G)) &\equiv F\end{aligned}\quad (\text{Absorption})$$

$$\begin{aligned}(F \wedge (G \vee H)) &\equiv ((F \wedge G) \vee (F \wedge H)) \\ (F \vee (G \wedge H)) &\equiv ((F \vee G) \wedge (F \vee H))\end{aligned}\quad (\text{Distributivity})$$

$$\neg\neg F \equiv F \quad (\text{Double Negation})$$

Useful Equivalences

$$\begin{aligned}\neg(F \wedge G) &\equiv (\neg F \vee \neg G) \\ \neg(F \vee G) &\equiv (\neg F \wedge \neg G)\end{aligned}\quad (\text{deMorgan's Laws})$$

$$\begin{aligned}(F \vee G) &\equiv F, \text{ if } F \text{ is a tautology} \\ (F \wedge G) &\equiv G, \text{ if } F \text{ is a tautology}\end{aligned}\quad (\text{Tautology Laws})$$

$$\begin{aligned}(F \vee G) &\equiv G, \text{ if } F \text{ is unsatisfiable} \\ (F \wedge G) &\equiv F, \text{ if } F \text{ is unsatisfiable}\end{aligned}\quad (\text{Unsatisfiability Laws})$$

We can prove them using structural induction!

Equivalence

- Prove that using substitution theorem

$$((A \vee (B \vee C)) \wedge (C \vee \neg A)) = ((B \wedge \neg A) \vee C)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & ((A \vee (B \vee C)) \wedge (C \vee \neg A)) \\ \equiv & (((A \vee B) \vee C) \wedge (C \vee \neg A)) && \text{(Associativity and ST)} \\ \equiv & ((C \vee (A \vee B)) \wedge (C \vee \neg A)) && \text{(Commutativity and ST)} \\ \equiv & (C \vee ((A \vee B) \wedge \neg A)) && \text{(Distributivity)} \\ \equiv & (C \vee (\neg A \wedge (A \vee B))) && \text{(Commutativity und ST)} \\ \equiv & (C \vee ((\neg A \wedge A) \vee (\neg A \wedge B))) && \text{(Distributivity and ST)} \\ \equiv & (C \vee (\neg A \wedge B)) && \text{(Unsatisfiability Law and ST)} \\ \equiv & (C \vee (B \wedge \neg A)) && \text{(Commutativity and ST)} \\ \equiv & ((B \wedge \neg A) \vee C) && \text{(Commutativity)} \end{aligned}$$

Exercise : Children and Doctors

Formalize and show that the two statements are equivalent

- If the child has temperature or has a bad cough and we reach the doctor, then we call him

$$((T \vee C) \wedge R) \Rightarrow D$$

- If the child has temperature, then we call the doctor, provided we reach him, and, if we reach the doctor then we call him, if the child has a bad cough

$$(R \Rightarrow (T \Rightarrow D)) \wedge (C \Rightarrow (R \Rightarrow D))$$

$$((T \vee C) \wedge R) \Rightarrow D$$

$$((T \wedge R) \vee (C \wedge R) \Rightarrow D)$$

$$((T \wedge R) \Rightarrow D) \wedge ((C \wedge R) \Rightarrow D)$$

$$(\neg T \vee \neg R \vee D) \wedge (\neg C \vee \neg R \vee D)$$

$$(\neg R \vee \neg T \vee D) \wedge (\neg C \vee \neg R \vee D)$$

$$(\neg R \vee (T \Rightarrow D) \wedge (\neg C \vee (R \Rightarrow D)$$

$$(R \Rightarrow (T \Rightarrow D)) \wedge (C \Rightarrow (R \Rightarrow D))$$

Summary

- What is propositional logic (PL)?
- Syntax of PL
- Semantics of PL
- Validity and satisfiability
- Semantic equivalence in PL

Check your understanding

	Valid	Satisfiable	Unsatisfiable
A			
$A \vee B$			
$A \vee \neg A$			
$A \wedge \neg A$			
$A \rightarrow \neg A$			
$A \rightarrow B$			
$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$			
$A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow B)$			
$A \leftrightarrow \neg A$			

Check your understanding

Which of the following statements are true?

	Y/N
If F is valid, then F is satisfiable	
If F is satisfiable, then $\neg F$ is satisfiable	
If F is valid, then $\neg F$ is satisfiable	
If F is unsatisfiable, dann $\neg F$ is valid	