L04 Propositional Logic - Semantics - 1 Chapter 2: Def 2.6 -- proof of 2.8 Chapter 3

Recall: Propositional Logic (a language)

- Syntax (of the language by which we can *represent* statements, called *propositions*)
- Semantics (of the language by which we can *reason* with the propositions)

Semantics

- Define the *meaning* of each propositional letter (intuitively, either T or F)
- Define the *meaning* of each logical connectives (following intuition of logical connectives)
- Define the *meaning* of a proposition

Section 1: Motivating example using arithmetic expression

Recall: we have defined the syntax of arithmetic expressions.

What is the meaning of an arithmetic expression: e.g., 1+2?

Intuitively, the meaning of an arithmetic expression is a value or a number: e.g., 1+2 is 3.

How to define the meaning? (problem decomposition - we decompose the syntactic structure of an expression as follows)

- Value/meaning of a number 5: 5 (this 5 is in a different language from arithmetic expression)
- Value/meaning of a variable x: we can really assign any value to it. This assignment gives meaning to a variable
- Value of \alpha (an expression) + \beta (an expression): the value of \alpha plus (different from syntax +) value of \beta

What is the meaning of 5 - 5 - 5? (could be two structure (5-5)-5 and 5-(5-5))

Once defining the meaning, we can talk about how the meaning of 1+2 is related to the meaning of 2+1. The communicative law

$$x + y = y + x$$

Really means that for any arithmetic expression (syntactic thing) x and expression y, the meaning of x + y (syntactic thing) is the same as that of y + x (syntactic thing).

Note that we do need meaning of the functions +, -, *, / ...

You can imagine that these functions are defined by table (normally infinite). E.g.,

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X Y +
1 1 2
1 2 3
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In reality, we just memorize part of the table and memorize an algorithm for adding/multiplying/dividing numbers.

Now are you clear what you have learned in elementary/secondary school is syntax and what are semantics?

Section 2: Semantics of Propositional Logic

What is the meaning of a proposition? Note that different from arithmetic expressions, we do not have constants in a proposition (syntax). The meaning of a proposition is True or False (**T** or **F** for short)!

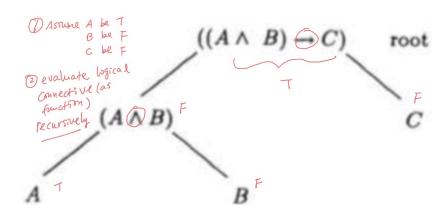
How do we define the meaning of propositions? Similarly to arithmetic expression, we decompose a proposition and assign meaning to the components

- Most basic proposition: propositional letter or variable: we have to assign it a value. For example, what is the meaning of P? We can only obtain the meaning of it by assigning a value. So, the base of semantic of propositions is to assign variables in a proposition values.
- Logical connectives (meaning in fact each connective is a function meaning wise)
 - \alpha and \beta (- binary function that takes two input and gives one output)
 - \alpha or \beta
 - 0 ...
- Once we have the above we can evaluate a proposition! Example: meaning of ((A and B) → C)?

A	В	C	$(A \wedge B)$	$((A \land B) \to C)$
T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	F
T	F	T	F	T
T	F	F	F	T
F	T	T	F	T
F	T	F	F .	T
\overline{F}	F	T	F	T
F	F	F	\overline{F}	T

FIGURE 4.

In summary, intuitively, given the (1) *truth values of propositional letters* of a proposition, by using the definitions of (2) *connectives*, we can know the (3) *truth value of the components of the proposition (including itself)* according to logical connectives and *the value* of its children (recursively). See below for a value (meaning) of the proposition $((A \land B) \to C)$.



We will give formal definitions below. Some of them may superficially seem to be different from intuition (but they do agree if you think more carefully and understand set theory: sets, functions, relations).

2.1 Definition of "meaning" of propositional variables/letters

Corresponding to (1), we have def 3.1

Definition 3.1: A **truth assignment** \mathcal{A} is a function that assigns to each propositional letter A a unique truth value $\mathcal{A}(A) \in \{T, F\}$.

Domain of \mathcal{A} : propositional letterS

Codomain of $A: \{T, F\}$

Example of a truth assignment

- $A_1 = \{ (A1, T), (A2, F), \dots \} //$ enumeration of a function as a set of pairs.
- ..

•

Intuition (2) and (3) leads to

Definition 3.2: A **truth valuation** $\mathcal V$ is a function that assigns to each proposition α a unique truth value $\mathcal V(\alpha)$ so that its value on a compound proposition (that is, one with a connective) is determined in accordance with the appropriate truth tables. Thus, for example, $\mathcal V((\neg \alpha)) = T$ iff $\mathcal V(\alpha) = F$ and $\mathcal V((\alpha \vee \beta)) = T$ iff $\mathcal V(\alpha) = T$ or $\mathcal V(\beta) = T$. We say that $\mathcal V$ makes α true if $\mathcal V(\alpha) = T$

A precise def on the condition of the "function" ${\cal V}$ in the def 3.2

For any compound proposition ($\alpha \land \beta$) where α and β are proposition, $\mathcal{V}(\alpha \land \beta) = T$ iff $\mathcal{V}(\alpha) = T$ and $\mathcal{V}(\beta) = T$

Recall the following definitions in discrete math (in latex)

Set theory definitions

- set, membership (not defined but can use)
- subset (defined based on set, membership and simple logic)

A \textit{relation} on A and B is a subset of $A \times B$.

Here, relation is the concept being defined and A,B are the parameters. You can tell these are parameters because if you remove these, the concept doesn't make much sense.

$$A \times B = \{(x, y) \mid x \in A, y \in B\}$$

$${a, b} X {1, 2} = {(a, 1), (a, 2), (b, 1), (b,2)}$$

A \textit{function} f from A to B is a relation on A and B such that $\forall x \in A, \exists$ a unique $y \in B$ such that $(x,y) \in f$. A is called the **domain** of f and B is called the **range** (codomain) of f.

 \land a function from {T, F} and {T, F} to {T, F}. \land = {(T, T, T), (T, F, F), ...} (see def of \land for a table representation of a function)

Example:

Let A={1}, B={2,3} and
$$\mathcal{R} = \{(1,2),(1,3)\}$$

 \mathcal{R} is a relation on A and B, but not a function from A to B.

Th3.3 For any truth assignment A, there is a unique truth valuation V such that $A \subseteq V$.

$$A(P1) = T$$
 $V(P1) = T$
 $A(P2) = F$ $V(P2) = T$
 $V((P1 \land P2)) = T$

Corollary 3.4 If V_1 and V_2 are two valuations that agree on the *support* of α , the finite set of propositional letters used in the construction of the proposition α , then $V_1(\alpha) = V_2(\alpha)$.

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\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{V1}(\operatorname{A1}) = \operatorname{V2}(\operatorname{A1}) = \operatorname{T} \\ \operatorname{V1}(\operatorname{A2}) = \operatorname{V2}(\operatorname{A2}) = \operatorname{F} \\ \operatorname{V1}(\operatorname{A3}) = \operatorname{T}, \operatorname{V2}(\operatorname{A3}) = \operatorname{F} \\ \dots \\ \operatorname{V1}((\operatorname{P1} \wedge \operatorname{P2})) \text{ must be the same as } \operatorname{V2}((\operatorname{P1} \wedge \operatorname{P2})) \\ \operatorname{Example of tautology} \\ (A(\neg A))(\alpha(\neg \alpha)) \\ \operatorname{A is a subset of B if for any } x \in A, x \in B. \\ \operatorname{A is a subset of B if for any } x, (x \in A) => (x \in B). \\ \operatorname{To prove a statement: } sth \text{ implies } sthElse \\ \operatorname{Proof.} \\ \operatorname{Assume sth.} \\ \dots \\ \operatorname{sthElse} \\ \operatorname{QED} \end{array}
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2.2 Definition of logical connectives

Meaning of logical connectives (definition technique: enumeration, we call it *truth table* here)

Definition 2.6 (Truth tables):

	α	β	$(\alpha \lor \beta)$
	T	T	T
	T	F	T
	F	T	T
P	F	F	F

α	β	$(\alpha \wedge \beta)$	
T	T	T	
T	F	F	
F	T	F	
F F		F	

α	β	$(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

α	β	$(\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta)$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	T

α	¬α	
T	F	
F	T	

The definition above might not always follow our daily life understanding of the logical connectives

• Or: This will be done by you **or** me. (Usually exclusive: not (you AND me))

We can define the meaning of propositions formally later. But **intuitively**, by definition, we can have the meaning of any proposition *informally*. Example:

A	В	C	$(A \wedge B)$	$((A \land B) \to C)$
T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	F
T	F	T	F	T
T	F	F	F	T
F	T	T	F	T
F	T	F	F	T
\overline{F}	F	T	F	T
F	F	\overline{F}	F	T

FIGURE 4.

Are the logical connectives we used sufficient to represent all possible logical connectives we may use (in daily life)?

- n-ary connective (truth functional connectives)
 - Syntax: $\sigma(A_1, \dots, A_n)$: it involves n parameters
 - Semantics:
 - $\sigma(A_1,\ldots,A_n)$ is a *function* from D_1,\ldots,D_n to D where $D_1=\ldots=D_n=D=\{T,F\}$
 - It can be defined by truth table, e.g.,

	A	В	C	?
1	T	T	T	T
2	T	T	F	F
3	T	F	T	F
4	T	F	\overline{F}	F
5	F	T	T	T
6	F	T	F	\overline{F}
7	F	F	T	F
8	F	F	F	T

FIGURE 7.

- Example of majority of three proposition
 - Syntax maj(A1, A2, A3)
 - Semantics
 - Intuitive meaning: maj(A1, A2, A3) takes the value of the majority of A1, A2, A3.
 - Formal definition (using truth table)
- Adequate: (see def 2.7)

Definition 2.7: A set S of truth functional connectives is adequate if, given any truth functional connective σ , we can find a proposition built up from the connectives in S with the same abbreviated truth table as σ .

(if you realize that an *abbreviated truth table* could be sth precisely defined, you will read the book to find its meaning. This shows how important you realized what may already have been defined in a definition.)

Answer to our question

Theorem 2.8 (Adequacy): $\{\neg, \land, \lor\}$ is adequate.

- Proof of TH 2.8
 - Intuitive ideas

	A	В	C	?
1	T	T	T	T
2	T	T	F	F
3	T	F	T	F
4	T	F	\widetilde{F}	F
5	F	T	T	T
6	F	T	F	\overline{F}
7	F	F	T	F
8	F	F	F	T

FIGURE 7.

(A=T and B=T and C= T) or (A=F and B=T and C=T) or (A=F and B = F and C=F) (A \land (B \land C)) \lor ((-A) \land B \land C) \lor ((-A) \land (-B) \land (-C))

- Go through the proof:
 - read and understand definitions!
 - Proof method (also problem solving methodology)

Theorem 2.8 (Adequacy): $\{\neg, \land, \lor\}$ is adequate.

Proof: Let A_1, \ldots, A_k be distinct propositional letters and let a_{ij} denote the entry (T or F) corresponding to the i^{th} row and j^{th} column of the truth table for $\sigma(A_1, \ldots, A_k)$ as in Figure 6. Suppose that at least one T appears in the last column.

A_1	 A_j	 A_k	 $\sigma(A_1,\ldots,A_k)$
			b_1
			b_2
			•
	a_{ij}		b_i

FIGURE 6.

For any proposition α , let α^T be α and α^F be $(\neg \alpha)$. For the i^{th} row denote the conjunction $(A_1^{a_{i1}} \land \ldots \land A_k^{a_{ik}})$ by a_i . Let i_1, \ldots, i_m be the rows with a T in the last column. The desired proposition is the disjunction $(a_{i_1} \lor \ldots \lor a_{i_m})$. The proof that this proposition has the given truth table is left as Exercise 14. (Note that we abused our notation by leaving out a lot of parentheses in the interest of readability. The convention is that of right associativity, that is, $A \land B \land C$ is an abbreviation for $(A \land (B \land C))$.) We also indicate a disjunction over a set of propositions with the usual set—theoretic terminology. Thus, the disjunction just constructed would be written as $\bigvee \{a_i | b_i = T\}$.

2.3. Formal definition of Consequence

Intuition: a set of propositions $\Sigma = \{A \to B, A\}$, and a proposition $\sigma = B$. We say sigma $isaconsequence of \Sigma.Reason: whenever every proposition of \Sigma <math>istrue, then$ sigma $istrue.What does it mean by "whener"? An assignment of the proposition variables in \Sigma! So, we have the follong whenevers$

• A=T, B=T: every proposition of Σ is T! And σ is T!

The following is not "whenever":

- A = T, B=F: $A \rightarrow B$ is not T!
- A = F, B = T: A is not T!
- A = F, B = F: A is not T!

Now we have the following formal definition:

Definition 3.7 Let Σ be a (possibly infinite) set of propositions. We say that σ is a consequence of Σ (and write $\Sigma \models \sigma$) if, for any valuation \mathcal{V} ,

$$(\mathcal{V}(\tau) = T \text{ for all } \tau \in \Sigma) \Rightarrow \mathcal{V}(\sigma) = T.$$

Note that, if Σ is empty, $\Sigma \models \sigma$ (or just $\models \sigma$) iff σ is valid. We also write this as $\models \sigma$. This definition gives a semantic notion of consequence.

Example 1

- Intuitive one
 - \circ Σ = { john is father or john is mother of peter \rightarrow john is parent of peter, john is father of peter}.
 - $\circ \quad \sigma \text{ is "john is parent of peter"} \\$
 - \circ $\Sigma \models \sigma$
- Formal one
 - $\circ \quad \Sigma = \{ f \lor m \to p, f \}$
 - \circ σ : p
 - $_{\circ}$ $\Sigma \models \sigma$

Example 2

- $\Sigma = \{a, b\}$
- $a \wedge b$ a consequence of Σ ? ($Cn(\Sigma)$: all consequences of Σ .

Let

- (p1) Σ be a set of propositions and
- (P2) $Cn(\Sigma)$ be the set of consequences of Σ .

Prove
$$\Sigma \subseteq Cn(\Sigma)$$
.

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Proof
   (B3.t)
              \forall x,
                    Assume x \in \Sigma
   (B4.t)
                     for any valuation \mathcal{V},
   (B7.t)
                      Assume \mathcal V is a model of \Sigma
   (B8.t)
                              for any y \in Sigma. V(y) = T. by (B8.t) and (A3)
   (F9)
                      \mathcal{V}(x) = T
   (B8.b)
                                                            by (B4.t), (F9) and \forall (and substitution)
                    if \mathcal{V} is a model of \Sigma then \mathcal{V}(x) = T .
   (B7.b)
                    for any valuation \mathcal V , if \mathcal V is a model of \Sigma then \mathcal V(x)=T .
  (B6)
                      \Sigma \models x
                                                            by (B6) and (A2)
  (B5)
                  x \in Cn(\Sigma)
  (B4.b)
                                                            by (p2) and (B5)
  (B3.b) x \in \Sigma \Longrightarrow x \in Cn(\Sigma)
             \forall x \, x \in \Sigma \Longrightarrow x \in Cn(\Sigma)
  (B2)
             \Sigma \subseteq Cn(\Sigma)
  (B1)
                                                                       by (A1) and (B2)
QED
```

Definition of concepts and apply the definition to a statement

- 1. When working backward from (B1), its main concept is subset (with two parameters)
 - Definition:

A is a subset of B if $\forall x \ x \in A \Longrightarrow x \in B$.

Substitution

A: $_\Sigma$ B: $Cn(\Sigma)$

- Result: the definition instance for main concept with parameters at (B1)
 - (A1) Σ is a subset of $Cn(\Sigma)$ if $\forall x \ x \in \Sigma \Longrightarrow x \in Cn(\Sigma)$.
- 2. When working backward from (B5), its main concept is consequence
 - Definition

Definition 3.7 Let Σ be a (possibly infinite) set of propositions. We say that σ is a consequence of Σ (and write $\Sigma \models \sigma$) if, for any valuation \mathcal{V} , $(\mathcal{V}(\tau) = T \text{ for all } \tau \in \Sigma) \Rightarrow \mathcal{V}(\sigma) = T$.

Note that, if Σ is empty, $\Sigma \models \sigma$ (or just $\models \sigma$) iff σ is valid. We also write this as $\models \sigma$. This definition gives a semantic notion of consequence.

Substitution:

 Σ : Σ σ : x

- The resulting definition instance is
 - (A2) $\Sigma \models x$ if for any valuation \mathcal{V} , if \mathcal{V} is a model of Σ then $\mathcal{V}(x) = T$.

- 3. When to obtain (F9)
 - Definition

Definition 3.8 A valuation \mathcal{V} is a model of Σ if $\mathcal{V}(\sigma) = T$ for every $\sigma \in \Sigma$. We denote by $\mathcal{M}(\Sigma)$ the set of all models of Σ .

• Substitution:

V: V $\Sigma: \Sigma$

• The resulting of applying the definition to concept at (8.t)

(A3) V is a model of Σ if (iff) for every $\sigma \in \Sigma, \ V(\sigma) = T$

note in general A \rightarrow B doesn't mean B \rightarrow A note: A <-> B if and only if A->B and B->A.

Note: main "if" is a definition means "if and only if"

Exercise: continue the proof above and finish. Write the final version.

2.4. Self-learn concepts in this and almost every subject

By reading the text, for any concept, you are expected to be able to know/create

- Motivation of the concept
- Intuitive meaning of the concept
- Definition of the concept
- Examples of the concept
- Proofs

Example of the self-learning of "consequence" concept, see above.

2.5 Application

An application of proposition: how to represent 2-queen problem using a set of propositions, and how the solution to 2-queen problem is related to the model(s) of the propositions.

P(i,j): propositional variable for cell (i,j), when it is true, it means there is a queen on cell (i,j)

```
\begin{array}{l} p(1,1) -> -p(1,2) \ [p(1,1) \to -p2?] \\ p(1,1) -> -p(2,1) \\ p(1,1) -> -p(2,2) \ // \ diagonal \ constraints \\ p(1,2) -> \dots \\ \dots \\ p(1,1) \ \lor \ p(1,2) \\ p(2,1) \ \lor \ p(2,2) \end{array}
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=== a more systematic way === For each row, there is one and only one queen: 
// There is one p(1,1) \lor p(1,2) \\ // only one? \\ p(1,j) -> (for all i \in 1..2 and $$i \neq j) -p(1, i) // note this is pseudocode
```