# CS4004/CS4504: FORMAL VERIFICATION

Lecture 2: Propositional Logic

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# Propositions are declarative statements.

- → "Alice is an engineer"
- $\rightarrow$  "The sum of 3 and 5 is 8"
- → "The train is late"

Declarative statements can be *declared* to be either **true** or **false** (but not both). These are the **truth-values** of propositions.

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**Not all** statements are declarative. The following cannot be declared true/false.

- → "Let's go to the cinema" (proposal)
- → "Where is Soli?" (question)
- → "Fantastic!" (exclamation)
- → "It will probably rain tomorrow" (likelihood)

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Propositional logic involves only declarative statements.

Complex propositions can be constructed by simple ones using operators.

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We can examine whether such propositions are true or false when we know the values of the basic propositions.

- → The train is not late ("the train is late" is false),
- → Bob is not late to work ("Bob late to work" is false),
- $\rightarrow$  Is p true? (without knowing whether there were any taxis in the station)

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We can examine the **necessary** values of the basic propositions that would make complex compositions be true/false.

- $\rightarrow$  p is true,
- → Bob is not late to work,
- $\rightarrow$  The train is late
- → Are there any taxis in the station?

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- → Are there any taxis in the station? Yes! Otherwise Bob would be late to work.

English (or any human language) is imprecise and subtle (verb tenses, etc.) and error prone.

A more mathematical language for logic would make the above arguments clear ("calculemus!" – stay tuned).

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- → Really advanced when combined with symbolic logic
  - → Leibniz (17th-18th c.): he wanted to turn logic into something as precise as calculus: "Calculus Ratiocinator".
  - → Believed all human ideas are made of small number of basic ideas (alphabet of human thought); complex ideas derived from basic ones with combinations similar to arithmetic multiplication.
  - → Arguments would be solved by calculating "Calculemus!".
  - $\rightarrow$  Symbolic rules for conjunction, disjunction, negation, ...



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- → Boole and De Morgan redescovered and improved Leibniz calculus of logic (1847) – modern form of Propositional Logic.
- → Developed more in the 20th c. (e.g., Gerhard Gentzen) influenced by other logicians/philosophers (e.g., Russell, Wittgenstein...)



Chrysippus of Soli – 3rd c. BC



Pierre Abelard - 12th c.



Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz – 17th/18th c.





George Boole, Augustus De Morgan – 19th c.

Images from wikipedia

- → Declarative statements have **no intrinsic truth-value**.
- → They are simply a string of symbols, representing the declarative statements.
- → A priori, all declarative statements (propositions) could be either True or False (but not both).
  - → "Logic is interesting"
  - → "This program terminates"
  - → "Bob is male"
  - → "Bob is female"
  - → "Gates graduated Harvard"

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- → We form complex propositions using the following operators
  - $\rightarrow$  **Negation**: symbols:  $\neg$   $\sim$  examples:  $\neg p$   $\sim q$
  - $\rightarrow$  disjunction: symbols:  $\lor$  or examples:  $p \lor q$  p' or q'
  - $\rightarrow$  conjunction: symbols:  $\land$  and examples:  $p \land q$  p' and q'
  - ightarrow implication or conditional: symbols: ightarrow implies examples: p 
    ightarrow q p' implies q'
  - $\rightarrow$  parantheses: symbols: ( [ ] )
- → We will call atomic and complex propositions formulas

# **EXAMPLES OF SYMBOLIC PROPOSITIONS**

p: "The train is late"

q: "There are taxis in the station"

r: "Bob is late to work"

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

p': "It is warm"
q': "It is humid"
r': "It is raining"

$$\begin{array}{c} q' \rightarrow p' \\ (p' \land q') \rightarrow (r' \lor p') \\ (p' \text{ and } q') \text{ implies } (r' \text{ or } p') \end{array}$$

To not use so many parentheses we use binding priorities:

¬ binds more tightly than

∧ and ∨ which bind more tightly than

 $\rightarrow$  which is right-associative

eg:

$$p_1 \wedge \neg q_1 \rightarrow r_1 \vee (p_2 \wedge \neg q_2) \rightarrow r_2$$

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Remember: everything so far is just syntax and syntactical conventions

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We have to be more rigorous:

We use a **formal grammar** that unambiguously accepts exactly the well-formed terms of our logic

To do this we need to define grammar (or meta-) variables that stand for any term derivable from the grammar. Variables:

$$A, C, B, \ldots$$

(The book uses the greek letters  $\phi, \psi, \chi$ )

# Definition

The **logical formulas** of Propositional Logic are exactly those accepted by the following grammar in Backus Naur Form (BNF):

$$A, C, B ::= p \quad | \quad (\neg A) \quad | \quad (A \land A) \quad | \quad (A \lor A) \quad | \quad (A \to A)$$

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It is useful to think of Propositional Formulas as syntax trees where

- → all the **leafs** are atomic propositions
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We also bring back binding priorities:

- $\neg$  binds more tightly than
- $\wedge$  and  $\vee$  which bind more tightly than
- → which is right-associative

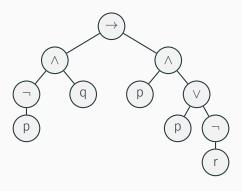
# **EXAMPLE**

What is the parse tree of the formula:

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

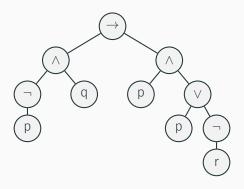
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With implicit binding priorities:

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

# **EXERCISES**

# Write in Symbolic Propositional Logic

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- 2. "If the sun shines today then it won't shine tomorrow"

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Can you parse the following formulas assuming the implicit binding?

- $3 p \lor q \rightarrow \neg p \land q$
- $3 p \land q \land q$

SEMANTICS: THE MEANING OF FORMULAS

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### Definition

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- → The meaning of each logical operator is a predefined function which maps the truth values of its parameters to the truth value of the formula obtained by applying the operator its parameters.
- → The valuation or model of a fomula A is an assignment of each propositional atom in A to a truth value.

# **SEMANTICS OF ATOMIC FORMULAS**

The **meaning** of p: "It is warm" can be any of the following:

- $\rightarrow$  sem(p) = T
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A **model** of the formula A = p can be any of the following

- $\rightarrow p \mapsto T$
- $\rightarrow p \mapsto F$

The meaning of operator  $\neg$  is a function  $f_{\sim}$  which takes one argument. This function is uniquely identified by the truth table:

Here the A colum lists all possible truth values of A. The  $\neg$ A column the result of applying the  $f_{\sim}$  to these values; these are the truth values of the formula  $\neg$ A.

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A **model** of the formula  $A = \neg p$  can be any of the following

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- $\rightarrow p \mapsto F$

The meaning of operators  $\wedge$  and  $\vee$  are two functions with two argumens:

Α	В	$A \wedge B$
Т	Т	T
Τ	F	F
F	Т	F
F	F	F

Α	В	$A \vee B$	
Т	Т	Т	
Τ	F	Т	
F	Т	Т	
F	F	F	

The meaning of operators  $\land$  and  $\lor$  are two functions with two argumens:

Α	В	$A \wedge B$
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Τ	F	F
F	Т	F
F	F	F

A **model** of the formula  $A = \neg p \land (q \lor p)$  can be any of the following

- $\rightarrow p \mapsto T, q \mapsto T$
- $\rightarrow p \mapsto T, q \mapsto F$
- $\rightarrow p \mapsto F, q \mapsto T$
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The meaning of operator  $\rightarrow$  is a function with two arguments:

В	$A \rightarrow B$
Т	Т
F	F
Τ	T
F	Т
	T F T

We can write truth tables of composed operators using multiple columns

e.g.: 
$$\neg A \lor \neg B \to B$$

Α	В	$\neg A$	$\neg B$	$\neg A \lor \neg B$	$\neg A \lor \neg B \to B$
Т	Т	F	F	F	Т
Т	l F	F	l T	Т	F
F	Т	Т	F	Т	Т
F	F	T T	Т	Т	F

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Α	В	$\neg A$	$\neg A \lor B$	$\neg A \lor B \to B$
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Τ	F			
F	Т			
F	F			

# Complete the following truth table

Α	В	$\neg A$	$\neg A \lor B$	$\neg A \lor B \to A$
Т	Т	F	Т	Т
Т	F	F	F	T
F	Т	Τ	Т	F
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Create the truth table of the formula:

$$(p \to \neg q) \to (q \vee \neg p)$$

Create the truth table of the formula:

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

Give a model that makes the formula true.

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Give a model that makes the formula true.

Give a model that makes the formula false.

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A is satisfiable when it has a model which makes it true.

A is falsifiable when it has a model which makes it false.

A is valid or a tautology when it has no model which makes it false.

A is invalid or a contradiction when it has **no model** which makes it true.

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**Q**: show that if  $A_1 \wedge (A_2 \wedge A_3)$  is satisfiable then  $(A_1 \wedge A_2) \wedge A_3$  is satisfiable.

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**Q**: show that if  $A_1 \wedge (A_2 \wedge A_3)$  is satisfiable then  $(A_1 \wedge A_2) \wedge A_3$  is satisfiable.

Q: Let  $(A_1 \wedge A_2) \rightarrow A_3$  be valid. Is it necessary that  $A_3$  is satisfiable?