LoP- The Logic of Propositions

Reasoning about what is True and what is False

LoP – The Logic of Propositions

- Introduction
- Domain
- Language
- Interpretation function
- Entailment
- Entailment properties
- Modeling mistakes
- Reasoning problems

Knowledge Bases (reprise)

The original use of the term knowledge base was to describe one of the two sub-systems of an <u>expert system</u> (a <u>knowledge-based system</u>).

A <u>knowledge-based system</u> [*] consists of

- a <u>knowledge-base</u> representing *facts* about the world and (LODE)
- <mark>ways of <u>reasoning</u> about those *facts* to deduce new facts or highlight inconsistencies. (LOP)</mark>

[*] Hayes-Roth, Frederick; Donald Waterman; Douglas Lenat (1983). <u>Building Expert Systems</u>. Addison-Wesley.

Facts, Assertions, Definitions, ... (reprise)

- We **depict** the world as a set of **facts** (Set, domain, model, *data and knowledge level depictions of the world*)

- We **structure** facts in terms of entities, types, properties (*data or knowledge level depictions of the world*)

- We **describe** facts (involving entities, types, properties) in the world using **assertions** (LoE, language, theory, *data level atomic assertions, descriptions of the world*)

- We **define** and **inter-relate** the concepts (i.e., the meaning of the words) we use in assertions using **definitions**. This allows us to describe facts at different levels of abstraction (LoD, definitions, *knowledge level complex formulas, descriptions of the world*)

… (Populated) Descriptions, Propositions (reprise)

- We **describe** the diversity/ variability of concepts using **descriptions** (LoD, descriptions, *knowledge level complex formulas*)

- We **describe** the diversity/ variability of entities populating concepts using **grounded descriptions** (LoDE, *data level complex formulas*)

- We **reason about** grounded descriptions using **propositions** (LoP, *truth level complex formulas*)

Propositions

Notion (Google/ Oxford Languages). A **proposition** is an assertion that expresses a judgement or opinion.

Notion (Aristotle). A **proposition** is a sentence which affirms or denies a predicate of a subject.

Notion (LoP). A **proposition** is a formula which can be either true or false; it must be one or the other (*Law of excluded middle*), and it cannot be both (*Law of noncontradiction*).

Observation. Representing Truth/Falsity is the key for implementing reasoning.

An example of EG
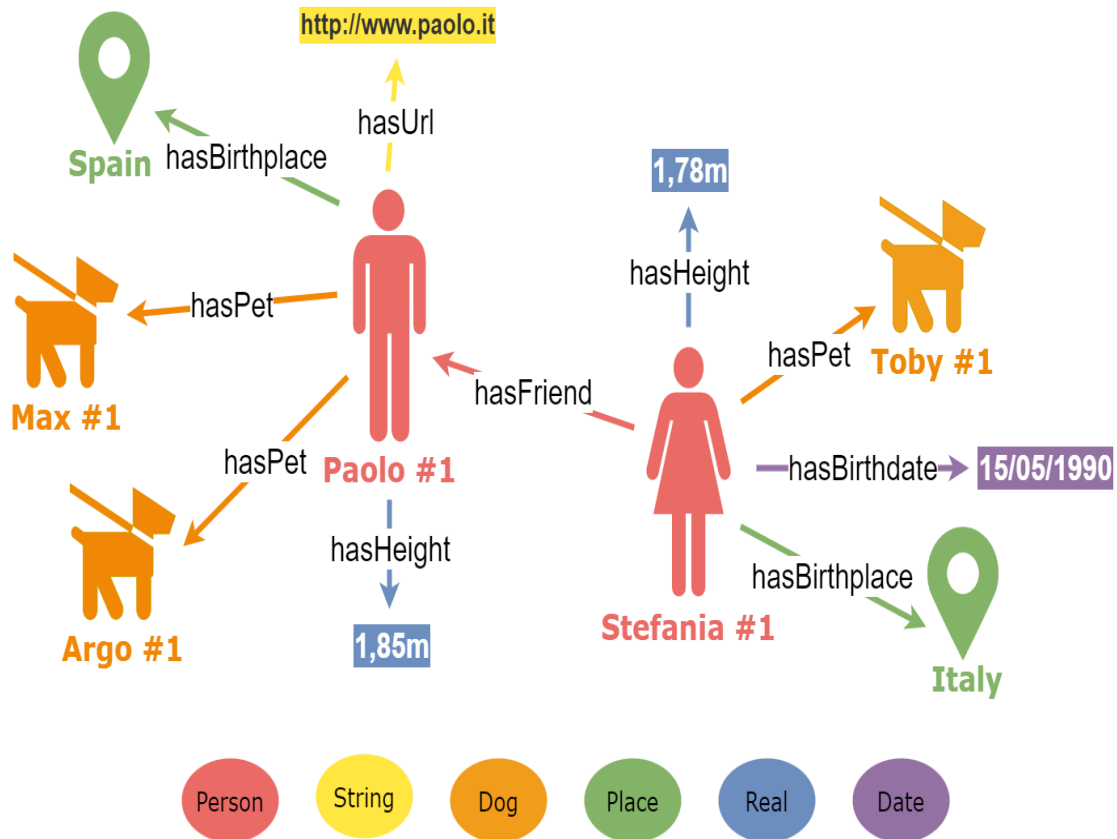
Which of the following assertions are intuitively true?

- *HasFriend(Paolo#1,Stefania#1)*
- *Hasheight(Stefania#1, 2m)*
- *HasPet (Stefania#1, Fido#1)*
- *Not HasHeight(Stefania#1, 2m)*
- *HasFriend(Paolo#1,Stefania#1)*
  and HasHeight(Stefania#1, 2m)
- *HasFriend(Paolo#1,Stefania#1)*
  or HasHeight(Stefania#1, 2m)
- *HF*
- *HF and HH*
- *HF or HH*
- *....*

Which Interpretation function?

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LoP (= LoDE) – Domain

Definition (LoE/ LoD/ LoDE Domain)

$$D = < E, \{C\}, \{R\} >$$

with:

$$E = \{e\} \cup \{v\}$$

$$\{C\} = ET \cup DT \cup DET$$

$$\{R\} = \{OR\} \cup \{DR\}$$

where:

- E is a set of **entities** and **values**,

- ET = $\{E_T\}$, E_T = $\{e\}$ and DT = $\{D_T\}$, D_T = $\{v\}$, DET = $\{DE_T\}$, are **sets of etypes, dtypes**, and **defined etypes**, respectively

- OR, DR are **(binary) object** and **data relations**.

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Language

Definition (The language of LoP)

$$L = La \cup Lc$$

Definition (The language of atomic formulas La**)**

$$La = \langle Aa, \emptyset \rangle$$

Definition (Alphabet Aa**)**

$$Aa = \langle \{P\} \rangle$$

Where $P \in \{P\}$ is a **proposition**.

Observation: There are no formation rules for atomic formulas. Propositions are judgements about facts, without references to their internal structure, i.e., the entities and relations that compose them. **The *only interest* *is to reason about truth!***

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Language (cont) - Lc

<cwff> ::= <proposition> |

             ¬ <cwff> |

             <cwff> ∧ <cwff> |

             <cwff> ∨ <cwff> |

             <cwff> ⊃ <cwff> |

             <cwff> ≡ <cwff>

<proposition> ::= P1 . . . Pn ∈ {P}

Where do P1, ..., Pn come from?

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LOP Interpretation function

Definition (LOP Interpretation function). Let D = < E, {C}, {R} > be a LoDE domain of interpretation. Let L_{LODE} = La_{LODE} ∪ Lc_{LODE} be a LoDE language for D. Let I_{LODE} be a LoDE interpretation function, with I_{LODE}: La_{LODE} → D.

Let L_{LOP} = La_{LOP} ∪ Lc_{LOP}. Let P ∈ {P} be a LOP proposition, with {P} = La_{LOP}. Let I_{LOP} be a LoP interpretation function, with I_{LOP}: {P} → {T,F}.

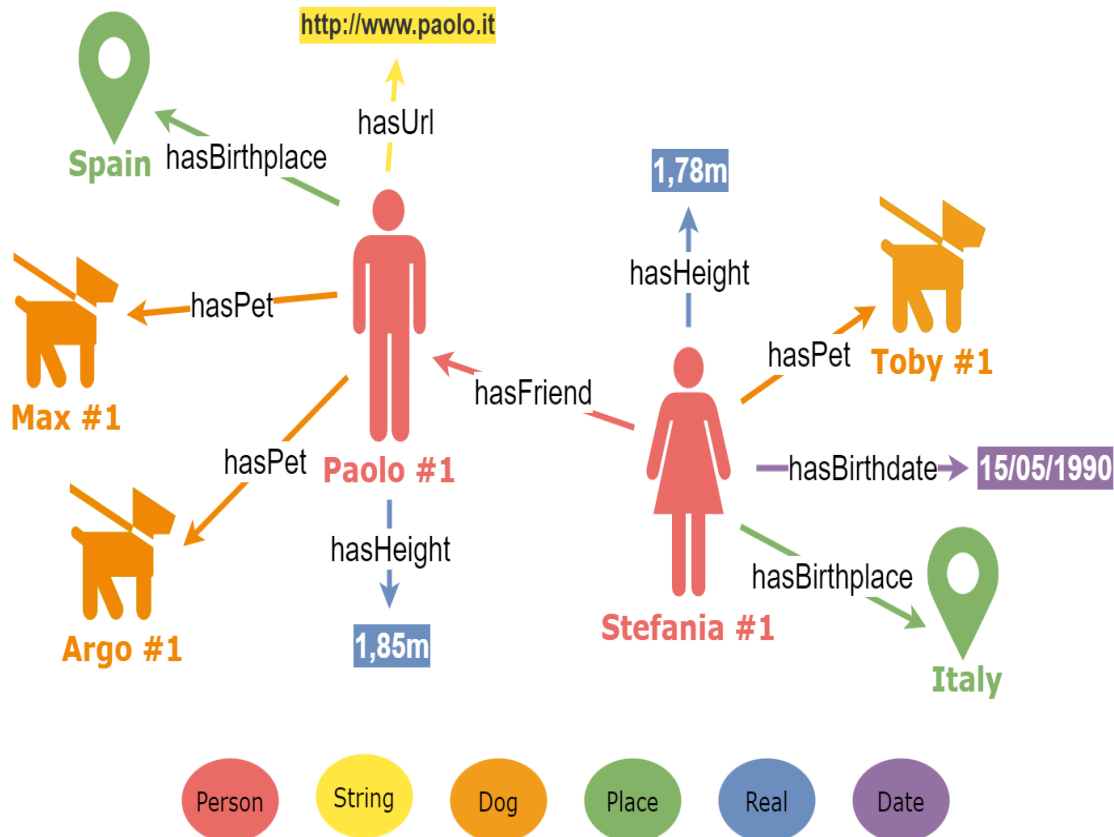Let *Translate* a bijective (injective and surjective) function such that

$$\text{for all } A \in La_{LODE}, \textit{Translate(A) = } P_A \text{ with } P_A \in \{P\}$$

Then we have the following

- $\mathbf{I_{LOP}}$ **(P) = T** se e solo se I_{LODE}*(Translate^{-1}(P))* ∈ M   (⟸⟹ M |=$_{LODE}$*Translate^{-1}(P)*)
- $\mathbf{I_{LOP}}$ **(P) = F** se e solo se I_{LODE}*(Translate^{-1}(P))* *NOT* ∈ M

Example – which truth values of which propositions

- *HasFriend(Paolo#1,Stefania#1)*
- *Hasheight(Stefania#1, 2m)*
- *HasPet (Stefania#1, Fido#1)*
- *Not HasHeight(Stefania#1, 2m)*
- *HasFriend(Paolo#1,Stefania#1)*
  and HasHeight(Stefania#1, 2m)
- *HasFriend(Paolo#1,Stefania#1)*
  or HasHeight(Stefania#1, 2m)

...

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LOP Model

Definition (LOP Theory). A LOP theory is a set of formulas $w \in T \subseteq L$ (as before).

Definition (LOP Model). A LOP model is a set of propositions $\{P_T\}$, $\subseteq \{P\}$, with with $\{P\} = La_{LOP}$

Observation 1: A LOP model is the set of propositions $P \in \{P\}$ such that $I_{LOP}(P) = T$, namely the set of propositions corresponding (via *Translate*) to assertions which are true in the LODE model.

Observation 2: In LOP, the notion of model and that of interpretation are collapsed and it is said that "… a model is an interpretation which makes true all the formulas in a theory T".

Observation 3: A LOP model assigns to any LOP atomic formula either T or F. For any LODE model the corresponding LOP model is obtained by adding negative propositions for those assertions do not hold in the LODE Model.

LOP Entailment ⊨

$I \models P,$	if $I(P) = T,$	with	$P \in \{P\}$
$I \models \neg P,$	if	not	$I \models P$
$I \models P_1 \wedge P_2,$	if $I \models P_1$	and	$I \models P_2$
$I \models P_1 \vee P_2,$	if $I \models P_1$	or	$I \models P_2$
$I \models P_1 \supset P_2,$	if when $I \models P_1,$	then	$I \models P_2$
$I \models P_1 \equiv P_2,$	$I \models P_1$	if and only if	$I \models P_2$

Observation 1. The key intuition underlying LOP (and therefore how we model reasoning) is that reasoning is completely independent of how we ascertain the truth of atomic propositions.

Observation 2. The real world (that is, analogic representations) only tell us the truth of assertions. Once we have that, reasoning is only linguistic and independent of what is the case in the world.

How Connectives Operate

Truth values are both in input and output to connectives

Negation	
¬ **True**	**False**
¬ **False**	**True**

Conjunction	
True ∧ **True**	**True**
True ∧ **False**	**False**
False ∧ **True**	**False**
False ∧ **False**	**False**

Consequence	
True ⊃ **True**	**True**
True ⊃ **False**	**False**
False ⊃ **True**	**True**
False ⊃ **False**	**True**

Disjunction	
True ∨ **True**	**True**
True ∨ **False**	**True**
False ∨ **True**	**True**
False ∨ **False**	**False**

Equivalence	
True ≡ **True**	**True**
True ≡ **False**	**False**
False ≡ **True**	**False**
False ≡ **False**	**True**

Entailment - Basic Facts about negation

The law of the excluded middle

$$P \lor \neg P$$

- True in all models.

- All formulas of the above form, independently of the shape of P, are called **tautologies**.

- Sometimes they are written as **T** (for truth, as represented in the language)

- The interpretation of **T** is T

The law of noncontradiction

$$P \land \neg P$$

- Never true, in no model.

- All formulas of the above form, independently of the shape of P, are called **contradictions**.

- Sometimes they are written as ⊥ (for falsity, as represented in the language). Not to be confused with ⊥ (bottom) in LOE!

- The interpretation of ⊥ is F

Prove them!

Entailment - Basic Facts about conjunction/disjunction

Same proposition
- $A \wedge A \equiv A$
- $A \vee A = A$

Commutativity
- $A \wedge B \equiv B \wedge A$
- $A \vee B \equiv B \vee A$

De Morgan laws
- $\neg (A \vee B) \equiv \neg A \wedge \neg B$
- $\neg (A \wedge B) \equiv \neg A \vee \neg B$

Associativity
- $(A \wedge B) \wedge C \equiv A \wedge (B \wedge C)$
- $(A \vee B) \vee C \equiv A \vee (B \vee C)$

Distributivity
- $A \wedge (B \vee C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$
- $A \vee (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$

Prove them!

Which intuition in LODE semantics?

Entailment - Basic Facts about implication/equivalence

Implication and disjunction
- $(A \supset B) \equiv (\neg A \vee B)$

Implication and contradiction
- $\perp \supset A$, for any A

Equivalence and exclusive disjunction (exor)
- $(A \equiv B) \equiv \neg(A + B)$

Implication and negation
- $A \supset B \equiv \neg B \supset \neg A$

Implication and equivalence
- $(A \equiv B) \equiv ((A \supset B) \wedge (B \supset A))$

Exclusive and inclusive disjunction
- $(A + B) \equiv (\neg A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge \neg B)$

Prove them!

Which intuition in LODE semantics?

Entailment - Basic Facts about implication/conj/disj

Implication and conjunction (1)
- $(A \wedge B) \supset C \equiv (A \supset C) \vee (B \supset C)$

Implication and conjunction (2)
- $(A \wedge B) \supset C \equiv A \supset (B \supset C)$

Implication and conjunction (3)
- $(A \wedge B) \supset C \equiv A \supset (\neg B \vee C)$

Implication and conjunction (4)
- $A \supset (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \supset B) \wedge (A \supset C)$

Implication and disjunction (1)
- $(A \supset (B \vee C) \equiv (A \supset B) \vee (A \supset C)$

Implication and disjunction (2)
- $(A \vee B) \supset C \equiv (A \supset C) \wedge (B \supset C)$

Prove them!

Which intuition in LODE semantics?

Entailment, observations

Observation 1. An interpretation I can be represented set theoretically as the set of propositions that are true in M (as from the corresponding LODE theory/model).

Example:

	p	q	r	Set Theoretic Representation
I_1	True	True	True	$\{\,p, q, r\,\}$
I_2	True	True	False	$\{\,p, q\,\}$
I_3	True	False	True	$\{\,p, r\,\}$
I_4	True	False	False	$\{\,p\,\}$
I_5	False	True	True	$\{\,q, r\,\}$
I_6	False	True	False	$\{\,q\,\}$
I_7	False	False	True	$\{\,r\,\}$
I_8	False	False	False	$\{\,\}$

Observation 2. A propositional interpretation can be thought as a subset S of $\{P\}$ and I is the characteristic function of S, i.e.

$$A \in S \text{ if and only if } I(A) = True.$$

Entailment, observations

Consider M ⊨ T

Observation 3. A theory T has usually multiple models. To have only model, a theory T must be complete, i.e., it must assign a truth value to all propositions allowed by the language. For instance, T= $\{P_1 \wedge \neg P_2\}$, with $\{P\} = \{P_1, P_2\}$.

Observation 4. The more partial a theory T is, in terms of positive truth values assigned to propositions, the more models. For instance, assume $\{P\} = \{P_1, P_2\}$.

- T = {} has four models
- T = $\{P_1 \vee P_2\}$, has three models
- T = $\{P_1\}$ has two models
- T = $\{P_1 \wedge P_2\}$ has one model

Increase in LODE partiality is modeled by increase of the number of LOP models

Entailment, observations

Consider $M \models T$

Observation 5. A Model M is (partially) described by multiple theories T. There are multiple *maximal* theories T which describe it completely. For instance, assume $\{P\} = \{P_1, P_2\}$. If M=$\{P_1\}$ then T1= $\{P_1 \wedge \neg P_2\}$, T2= $\{P_1, \neg P_2\}$ are maximal theories for M.

Observation 6. Given a theory T, there is no *minimal* Model M which is the intersection of all models of T, the main cause being disjunction. For instance, assume $\{P\} = \{P_1, P_2\}$. T= $\{P_1 \vee P_2\}$ has four models and no minimal model.

Observation 7: LODE theories have minimal models (no disjunctions, single premises)

Entailment - properties

Observation 8. If $|\{P\}|$ is the cardinality of $\{P\}$, then there are $2^{|\{P\}|}$ different interpretations, corresponding to all the different subsets of $\{P\}$.

Observation 9. If for all and only the atomic propositions P occurring in a formula A we have:

$$I(P) = I'(P),$$

then

$$I \vDash A \ \text{ iff } \ I' \vDash A.$$

That is:

- The truth value of atomic propositions which occur in A fully determines the truth value of A
- The truth value of the atomic propositions which do not occur in A play no role in the computation of the truth value of A;

Entailment, Truth and Satisfiability

The following statements are **equivalent enunciations** of the statement $I \vDash A$:

- the interpretation function (model) I **entails** the formula A;
- the formula A is **true** in the interpretation function (model) I;
- the formula A is **satisfied** by the interpretation function (model) I.

Example: Let P and Q be two propositions: $\{P\} = \{A, B\}$. $I(A) = True$ and $I(B) = False$ can be also expressed with $I = \{A\}$.

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Entailment properties (NEW!)

Deduction theorem (Logical consequence, validity):

$$\Gamma, \phi \vDash \psi \text{ if and only if } \Gamma \vDash \phi \supset \psi$$

Observation 1: The deduction theorem explains (left to right) the meaning of implication. Implication is how we express logical consequence in language.

Observation 2: It also says (right to left) that from absurdity (i.e, $P \wedge \neg P$),we can derive everything, any formula (and assertion) A.

Entailment properties (NEW!)

Refutation principle (Logical consequence, unsatisfiability):

$$\Gamma \vDash \phi \text{ if and only if } \Gamma \cup \{\neg \phi\} \text{ is unsatisfiable}$$

Observation 1: The refutation principle explains the meaning of negation. It captures the fact that absurdity (i.e, $P \wedge \neg P$) cannot be satisfied by any model depicting facts in the real world.

Observation 2: Algorithmitically, it suggests how to reason backwards from goals.

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Modeling mistakes – And (1)

We express conjunction with many words other than "and", including "but," "moreover," "however, "although", and "even though".

For example: "I enjoyed the holiday, even though it rained a lot" can be translated into the facts "I enjoyed the holiday" and "It rained a lot".

Sometimes "and" joins adjectives.

For example: "The leech was long and wet and slimy." This can be paraphrased as "The leech was long, and the leech was wet, and the leech was slimy.

Modeling mistakes – And (2)

Sometimes "and" does not join whole propositions into a compound proposition. Sometimes it simply joins nouns. This cannot be paraphrased. In these cases, the "and" is expressed inside the propositional variable, and not as logical connective.

For example: "Bert and Ernie are brothers". This cannot be paraphrased. "Bert is a brother and Ernie is a brother", for that does not assert that they are brothers to each other.

Modeling mistakes – Inclusive vs. Exclusive

The natural, but longwinded, way to express exclusive disjunction is $(\neg p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee \neg q)$.

The way to say they have different truth values is to deny their equivalence: $\neg (p \equiv q)$.

For example: When a menu says "cream or sugar", it uses an inclusive "or", because you may take one, the other, or both. But when it says "coffee or tea", it uses an exclusive "or", because you are not invited to take both.

Modeling mistakes – Implication

$p \supset q$ translates a wide variety of English expressions, for example, "if p, then q", "if p, q", "p implies q", "p entails q", "p therefore q", "p hence q", "q if p", "q provided p", "q follows from p", "p is the sufficient condition of q", and "q is the necessary condition of p". The least intuitive is "p only if q" (to be understood from $\neg q \supset \neg p$).

For example the following all translate to $p \supset q$:
• If Mario goes to the party, (then) I'll go too.
• I'll go to the party if/provided that Mario comes too.
• I'll go to the party only if Mario goes.
• Mario going to the party is the sufficient condition of me going to the party.
• Me going to the party is necessary condition of Mario going to the party.
• The decrease in white blood cells implies the antibiotic is working.

Modeling mistakes – Even If

"p even if q" means "p whether or not q" or "p regardless of q". Therefore one perfectly acceptable translation of it is simply "p". If you want to spell out the claim of "regardlessness", then you could write "$p \wedge (q \vee \neg q)$".

For example:

- I'll go to the party even if Mario doesn't go.
- I'll go to the party whether or not Mario goes.
- I'll go to the party regardless of whether Mario comes or not

Modeling mistakes – Unless

Sometimes "unless" should be translated as inclusive disjunction, and sometimes as exclusive disjunction.

For example (inclusive disjunction): "I'll go to the party unless I get another offer" means that I'll go if nothing else comes along. In many contexts it also means that I might go anyway; the second offer might be worse. So I'll go or I'll get another offer or both.

For example (exclusive disjunction): Consider by contrast, "I'll go to the party unless Rufus is there". In many contexts this means that if I learn Rufus is going, then I'll change my mind and not go. So either I'll go or Rufus will go but not both.

Modeling mistakes – Necessary and Sufficient Condition

We say that p is a sufficient condition of q when p's truth guarantees q's truth. By contrast, q is a necessary condition of p when q's falsehood guarantees p's falsehood.

In the ordinary material implication, $p \supset q$, the antecedent p is a sufficient condition of the consequent q, and the consequent q is a necessary condition of the antecedent p.

Notice that $p \supset q$ if and only if $\neg q \supset \neg p$.

For example: "If Socks is a cat, then Socks is a mammal". Being a cat is a sufficient condition of being a mammal. Being a mammal is a necessary condition of being a cat.

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Model Checking

Given T and M, check whether $M \vDash T$.

For example, using the truth table method we can determine whether $(\neg p \vee q) \wedge (q \supset \neg r \wedge \neg p) \wedge (p \vee r)$ is a model for $p =$ T, $q =$ F, $r =$ T or $p =$ F, $q =$ F, $r =$ F.

p	q	r	$\neg p \vee q$	$\neg r \wedge \neg p$	$q \supset \neg r \wedge \neg p$	$p \vee r$	A
T	F	T	F	F	T	T	F
F	F	F	F	T	T	F	F

Observation: useful for checking properties (T) of existing (artificial or natural) systems (M).

Satisfiability

Given T, check whether there exists M such that $M \vDash T$.

For example, using the truth table method we can determine if $(\neg p \vee q) \wedge (q \supset \neg r \wedge \neg p) \wedge (p \vee r)$ (denoted with A) is satisfiable.

p	q	r	$\neg p \vee q$	$\neg r \wedge \neg p$	$q \supset \neg r \wedge \neg p$	$p \vee r$	A
T	T	T	T	F	F	T	F
T	T	F	T	F	F	T	F
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
F	F	T	T	F	T	T	T
F	F	F	T	T	T	F	F

Observation: The first reasoning problem by excellence! Given a set of requirements (T) find a system which satisfies it (e.g. TSM, scheduling)

Validity

Given T, check whether there for all M we have $M \vDash T$.

For example, using the truth table method we can determine if $(p \supset q) \vee (p \supset \neg q)$ is a valid formula or not.

p	q	$p \supset q$	$\neg q$	$p \supset \neg q$	$(p \supset q) \vee (p \supset \neg q)$
T	T	T	F	F	T
T	F	F	T	T	T
F	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T

Observation: Find whether a property (T) is true in all models (of interest). Useful for theory reformulation (using, e.g., equivalence)

Unsatisfiability

Given T, check whether there is no M such that $M \vDash T$.

For example, using the truth table method we can determine if $\neg((p \supset q) \lor (p \supset \neg q))$ is unsatisfiable or not.

p	q	$p \supset q$	$\neg q$	$p \supset \neg q$	$\neg((p \supset q) \lor (p \supset \neg q))$
T	T	T	F	F	F
T	F	F	T	T	F
F	T	T	F	T	F
F	F	T	T	T	F

Observation: Find whether a property (T) is not realisable. Useful check on the suitability of the representation of reality of a LODE theory (e.g., AI, non monotonic resoning, planning)

Logical Consequence

Given T_1 and T_2, check whether $T_1 \vDash T_2$.

For example, using the truth table method we can determine if $\neg q \lor \neg p$ is a logical consequence of the formula $\neg q$.

p	q	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$\neg q \lor \neg p$
T	T	F	F	F
T	F	F	T	T
F	T	T	F	T
F	F	T	T	T

Whenever $\neg q$ is True, $\neg q \lor \neg p$ is also True, making it a logical consequence of $\neg q$.

Observation: The second reasoning problem by excellence. Compute the consequences of a set of facts. (Look at deduction theorem!). Backward reasoning from goals.

Logical Equivalence

Given T_1 and T_2, check whether $T_1 \vDash T_2$ and $T_1 \vDash T_2$.

For example, using the truth table method we can determine whether $p \supset (q \wedge \neg q)$ and $\neg p$ are logically equivalent.

p	q	$q \wedge \neg q$	$p \supset (q \wedge \neg q)$	$\neg p$
T	T	F	F	F
T	F	F	F	F
F	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	T	T

The truth value is the same for every interpretation, therefore the formulas are logically equivalent.

Observation: Useful to substitute equivalents for equivalents (property reformulation).

Reasoning problems - Correlations

Theorem. If a formula is valid, then it is also satisfiable, and it is also not unsatisfiable. That is:

Validity implies **Satisfiability** implies **not Unsatisfiability**

Theorem. If a formula is unsatisfiable, then it is also not satisfiable, and also not valid. That is:

Unsatisfiability implies **not Satisfiable** implies **not Valid**

Reasoning problems - Correlations

Theorem. The validity, satisfiability and unsatisfiability of a formula and of its negation correlate as follows:

If A is	then ¬ A is
Valid	**Unsatisfiable**
Satisfiable	**Not Valid**
Not Valid	**Satisfiable**
Unsatisfiable	**Valid**

Reasoning problems - Correlations

- **Model checking (= entailment) (MC)** is the core decision problem
- **Satisfiability (SAT)** reduces to generating all models and then test MC
- **Unsatisfiability (UNSAT)** reduces to failure in proving SAT
- **Validity (VAL)** can be reduced to the unsatisfiability of the negation of the input theory
- **Logical Consequence (LC)**
  - Can be reduced to SAT via the deduction theorem
  - Can be reduced to UNSAT via the refutation principle
- **Logical Equivalence (LE)** reduces to LC

Reasoning Problems - observations

Observation 1. Differently from Satisfiability, Validity and unsatisfiability require checking all the 2^n interpretations for success. With satisfiability this is only a worst case analysis (only one model, which is also the last to be selected).
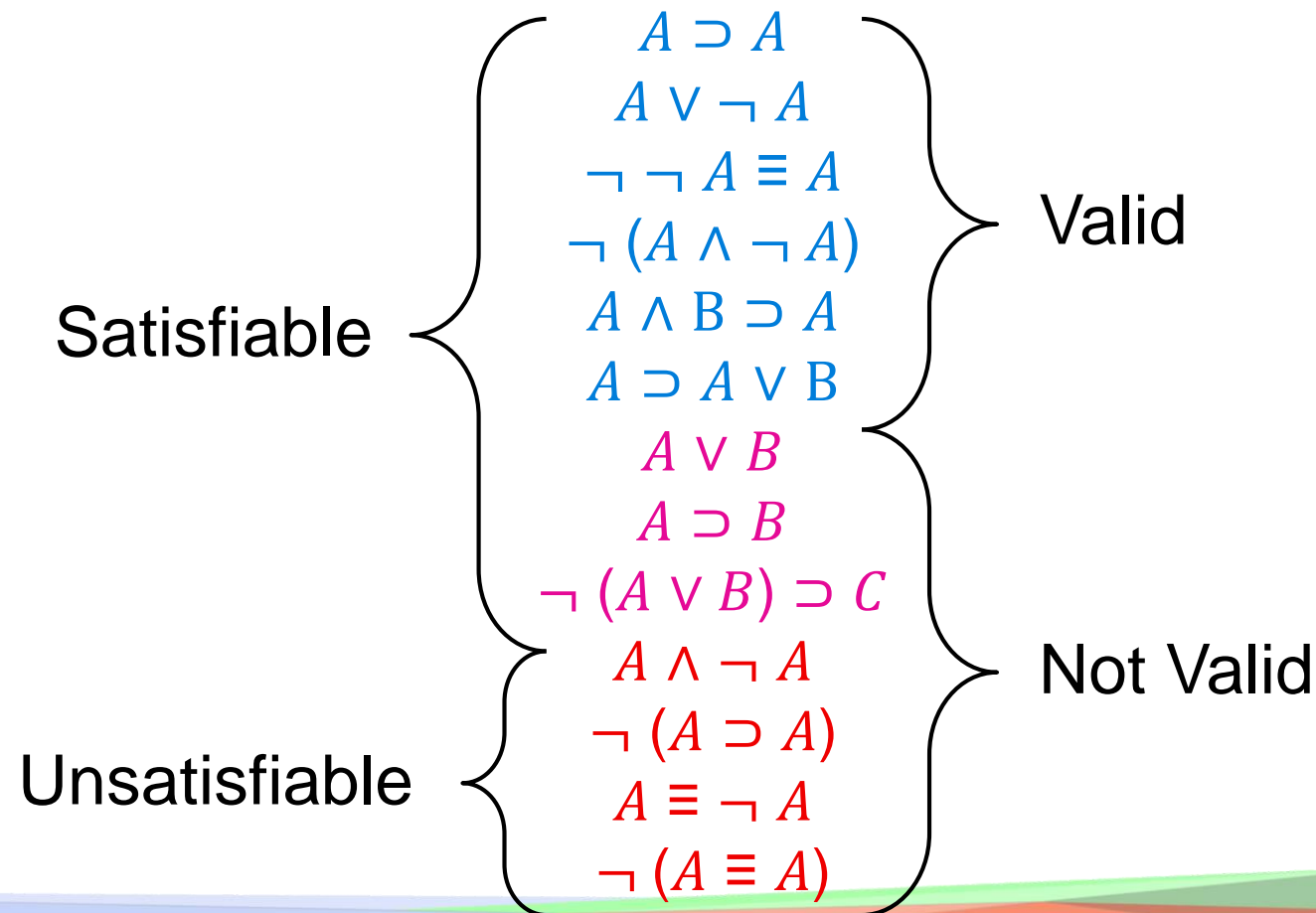
Observation 2. For any finite set of formulas Γ, (i.e., Γ = A_1, … , A_n for some n ≥ 1), Γ is valid (respectively, satisfiable and unsatisfiable) if and only if $A_1 \wedge … \wedge A_n$ (respectively, satisfiable and unsatisfiable)

Observation 3. All mainstream reasoning algorithms implement SAT and, to a lesser extent, UNSAT, plus problem reduction.

Example: Valid, Satisfiable or Unsatisfiable?

Prove that

- Blue Fomulas are valid,

- Magenta Formulas are satisfiable but not valid

- Red Formulas are unsatisfiable.

$$A \supset A$$
$$A \lor \neg A$$
$$\neg \neg A \equiv A$$
$$\neg (A \land \neg A)$$
$$A \land B \supset A$$
$$A \supset A \lor B$$

Valid

$$A \lor B$$
$$A \supset B$$
$$\neg (A \lor B) \supset C$$

Satisfiable

$$A \land \neg A$$
$$\neg (A \supset A)$$
$$A \equiv \neg A$$
$$\neg (A \equiv A)$$

Not Valid

Unsatisfiable

LoP- The Logic of Propositions

Reasoning about what is True and what is False