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\mathcal{LOP} - Logic of Propositions

Handouts

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Disclaimer: These working notes are extracted from and somehow extend the content of the slides discussed in class (also available on line). As such, these notes may contain mistakes of various types (e.g., misspellings, typos, mistakes in formulas). Please keep this in mind and compare the content of these notes with that of the slides. In case you still have doubts, please send an email to fausto.giunchiglia@unitn.it. You are also welcome to send us comments aimed at improving the quality of this material. Your feedback will be used to improve the next version of these notes and slides, which will be used in next year's lectures. Thank you in advance for your feedback.

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Chapter 1

\mathcal{LOP} A Logic of Propositions

1.1 Introduction

In the chapter on \mathcal{LODE} we provided the definition below.

Definition 1.1 (Knowledge Bases (Reprise)) ¹ The original use of the term knowledge base was to describe one of the two sub-systems of an expert system (a knowledge-based system). A knowledge-based system [*] consists of:

- · a knowledge-base representing facts about the world and
- ways of reasoning about those facts to deduce new facts or highlight inconsistencies. (LOP)

 \mathcal{LODE} provides the formalization of knowledge Graphs (an evolution of Knowledge bases). In \mathcal{LOP} we concentrate on the formalization of reasoning, namely the second element of knowledge-based systems.

Observation 1.1 (Facts, Assertions, Definitions, (Populated) Descriptions, Propositions (Reprise)) Based on what delivered so far we have the following:

- 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)

¹ Hayes-Roth, Frederick; Donald Waterman; Douglas Lenat (1983). Building Expert Systems. Addison-Wesley.

- 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 (\mathcal{LODE} , data level complex formulas)
- We reason about grounded descriptions using propositions (\mathcal{LOP} , truth level complex formulas)

In the literature we have multiple notions of proposition,

Notion 1.1 (Propositions - Google/ Oxford Languages) A proposition is an assertion that expresses a judgement or opinion.

Notion 1.2 (Propositions - Aristotle) A proposition is a sentence which affirms or denies a predicate of a subject.

Notion 1.3 (Propositions - \mathcal{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).

We will focus on the latter notion.

Example 1.1 (Propositions) Representing Truth/Falsity is the key for implementing reasoning.

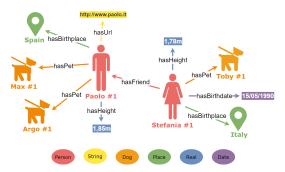


Fig. 1.1 Example of an EG.

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

1.3 Language 3

- · HF and HH
- HF or HH
- ..

Select an Interpretation function (the obvious one)? Based on the selected Interpretation function decide which propositions represented in the KG above are intuitively True, False or unknown.

1.2 Domain

Definition 1.2 (Reminder Definition Domain D) The domain can be formalized as the set of etypes, dtypes, a set of classes and the set of relations (as with \mathcal{LOE} , \mathcal{LOD} , \mathcal{LODE}).

$$D = \langle E, \{C\}, \{R\} \rangle \tag{1.1}$$

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 = $\{D_T\}$, $D_T = \{v\}$ are **set of etypes** and **dtypes**, respectively, and OR, DR are (**binary**) **object** and **data relations**.

1.3 Language

Definition 1.3 (The language \mathcal{L}^e)

$$\mathcal{L}^e = \mathcal{L}_a^e \cup \mathcal{L}_c^e \tag{1.2}$$

Definition 1.4 (The language of atomic formulas \mathcal{L}_a^e) In this logic, the language of sentences is defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{a}^{e} = \langle \mathcal{A}_{a}, \emptyset \rangle \tag{1.3}$$

Observation 1.2 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 goal in \mathcal{LOP} is to reason about truth!

Definition 1.5 (Alphabet A_a) The alphabet is formed by the set of sentences that denote facts in the world. These sentences are called "propositions" in \mathcal{LOP} .

$$\mathcal{A}_a = \langle \{P\} \rangle \tag{1.4}$$

Definition 1.6 (Language of Complex Formulas \mathcal{L}_c) The language of complex formulas includes the language of atomic formulas and the rules of complex formula formation, which are highly significant in this logic:

$$\mathcal{L}_c = \langle \mathcal{L}_a, \mathcal{W}_c \rangle \tag{1.5}$$

Definition 1.7 (Formation Rules of Complex Formulas)

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\begin{array}{lll} <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & ::= & <\!\!\operatorname{proposition}\!\!> \\ <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & ::= & \neg & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & | \\ & ::= & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & \wedge & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & | \\ & ::= & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & \vee & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & | \\ & ::= & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & \supset & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & | \\ & ::= & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> & \equiv & <\!\!\operatorname{cwff}\!\!> \\ <\!\!\operatorname{proposition}\!\!> ::= & \mathcal{P}_1 \dots \mathcal{P}_n \in \{P\} \end{array}
```

Observation 1.3 (Well-formed formula) As you may notice, a well-formed formula is nothing more than either a single proposition describing a fact or the combination of these prepositions by means of special logical symbols: negation (\neg) , and (\land) , or (\lor) , implication (\supset) and equivalence (\equiv) , fundamental for thinking about the world.

1.4 Interpretation function

Definition 1.8 (\mathcal{LOP} Interpretation function) Let D = < E, {C}, {R} > be a \mathcal{LODE} domain of interpretation. Let $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{LODE}} = \mathcal{L}_{a\mathcal{LODE}} \cup \mathcal{L}_{c\mathcal{LODE}}$ be a \mathcal{LODE} language for D. Let $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{LODE}}$ be a \mathcal{LODE} interpretation function, with $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{LODE}} : \mathcal{L}_{a\mathcal{LODE}} \longrightarrow D$.

```
Let \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{LOP}} = \mathcal{L}_{a\mathcal{LOP}} \cup \mathcal{L}_{c\mathcal{LOP}}. Let \mathcal{P} \in \{P\} be a \mathcal{LOP} proposition, with \{P\} = \mathcal{L}_{a\mathcal{LOP}}. Let \mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{LOP}} be a \mathcal{LOP} interpretation function, with \mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{LOP}}: \{P\} \longrightarrow \mathsf{T,F}.
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Let Translate a bijective (injective and surjective) function such that:

for all
$$A \in \mathcal{L}_{a\mathcal{LODE}}$$
, Translate $(A) = \mathcal{P}_A$ with $\mathcal{P}_A \in \{P\}$

Then we have the following:

- $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{LOP}}(\mathcal{P}) = T$ if and only if $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{LODE}}(Translate^{-1}(\mathcal{P})) \in M \ (\iff M \models_{\mathcal{LODE}} Translate^{-1}(\mathcal{P}))$
- $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{LOP}}(\mathcal{P}) = F$ if and only if $\mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{LODE}}(Translate^{-1}(\mathcal{P})) \notin M$

Observation 1.4 In the following we drop the name of the logic as not needed. We will in fact focus on \mathcal{LOP} .

Example 1.2 (Which truth values of which propositions) Take the example above.

1.5 Entailment Relation 5

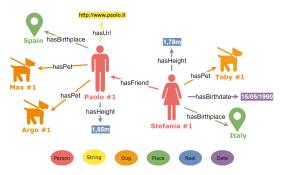


Fig. 1.2 Example of an EG.

- 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)
- ...

Follow Definition 1.8 and formalize as being True or false the propositions identified as such in the example above.

Definition 1.9 (Theory) A \mathcal{LOP} theory is a set of formulas $w \in \mathcal{T} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ (as before).

Definition 1.10 (Model) A \mathcal{LOP} model is a set of propositions $\{\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{T}}\}$, $\subseteq \{P\}$, with with $\{P\} = \mathcal{L}_a$.

Observation 1.5 (Model) A \mathcal{LOP} model is the set of propositions $\mathcal{P} \in \{P\}$ such that $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{P}) = \text{True}$, namely the set of propositions corresponding to assertions which are true in the corresponding \mathcal{LODE} model. As such, a \mathcal{LOP} model implicitly assigns False to the remaining propositions.

Observation 1.6 (Model) A \mathcal{LOP} model assigns to any proposition either True or False. For any \mathcal{LODE} model the corresponding \mathcal{LOP} model is obtained by adding negative propositions for those assertions do not hold in the \mathcal{LODE} Model.

Observation 1.7 (Model and Interpretation) In \mathcal{LOP} , the notion of model and that of interpretation are collapsed. It is said that "... a model is an interpretation which makes true all the formulas in a theory \mathcal{T} ".

1.5 Entailment Relation

Definition 1.11 (Entailment \models) A proposition P is entailed by an interpretation function \mathcal{I} if the facts below are valid:

Definition 1.12 (Entailment, truth, satisfiability) The following statements are equivalent natural language enunciations of the statement $I \models A$:

- 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.

Observation 1.8 (How connectives operate)

¬ True	False
\neg False	True

True ∧ True	True
$True \wedge False$	False
False ∧ True	False
$False \land False$	False

True ∨ True	True
<i>True</i> ∨ <i>False</i>	True
<i>False</i> ∨ <i>True</i>	True
$False \lor False$	False

<i>True</i> ⊃ <i>True</i>	True
	False
$False \supset True$	True
$False \supset False$	True

$True \equiv True$	True
$True \equiv False$	False
$False \equiv True$	False
$False \equiv False$	True

Observation 1.9 (The law of the excluded middle)

- The law of the excluded middle "A ∨ ¬A" is True in all models, for all formulas
 A.
- All formulas of the above form, independently of the shape of A, are called tautologies.
- Sometimes tautologies are written as T (for truth, as represented in the language)
- The interpretation of T is True

Observation 1.10 (The law of the noncontradiction)

• The law of noncontradiction " $A \land \neg A$ " is False in all models (that is, True in no model), for all formulas A.

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- All formulas of the above form, independently of the shape of A, 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 \bot is False

Observation 1.11 (Basic Facts about conjunction/disjunction)

- · Same proposition
 - $-A \wedge A \equiv A$
 - $-A \lor A \equiv A$
- · Commutativity
 - $\ A \wedge B \equiv B \wedge A$
 - $-A \lor B \equiv B \lor A$
- · De Morgan laws
 - $\neg (A \lor B) \equiv \neg A \land \neg B$
 - $\neg (A \land B) \equiv \neg A \lor \neg B$
- Associativity
 - $(A \wedge B) \wedge C \equiv A \wedge (B \wedge C)$
 - $(A \lor B) \lor C \equiv A \lor (B \lor C)$
- Distributivity
 - $A \wedge (B \vee C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$
 - $\ A \vee (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$

Observation 1.12 (Basic Facts about implication/equivalence)

- · Implication and disjunction
 - $-(A\supset B)\equiv (\neg A\vee B)$
- Implication and contradiction
 - $\bot \supset A$, 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
 - $(A \equiv B) \equiv ((A \supset B) \land (B \supset A))$
- Exclusive and inclusive disjunction

$$- (A+B) \equiv (\neg A \land B) \lor (\neg B \land A)$$

Observation 1.13 (Basic Facts about implication/conj/disj)

• Implication and conjunction (1)

$$-(A \land B) \supset C \equiv (A \supset C) \lor (B \supset C)$$

• 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)

$$- (A \supset (B \lor C) \equiv (A \supset B) \lor (A \supset C)$$

• Implication and disjunction (2)

$$- (A \lor B) \supset C \equiv (A \supset B) \land (B \supset C)$$

Observation 1.14 (Set theoretic representation of an interpretation function) An interpretation \mathcal{I} can be represented set theoretically as the set of propositions that are true in \mathcal{I} (as from the corresponding \mathcal{LODE} theory/model).

Example 1.3 (Set theoretic representation of an interpretation function) Assume we have any formula which contains three atomic propositions p, q, r.

	p	q	r	Set theoretic representation
	True			$\{p,q,r\}$
I_2	True	True	False	$\{p,q\}$
I_3	True	False	True	$\{p,r\}$
I_4	True	False	False	{ <i>p</i> }
-	False			$\{q,r\}$
I_6	False	True	False	$\{q\}$
I_7	False	False	True	{ <i>r</i> }
I_8	False	False	False	{}

Observation 1.15 (Interpretation and set of propositions) If $\{P\}$ is the set of propositions, an interpretation \mathcal{I} can be thought of as a subset $S \subseteq \{P\}$, and \mathcal{I} is the characteristics function of S, that is

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

Example 1.4 Let $\{P\} = \{P,Q\}$. I(P) = True and I(Q) = False can be also expressed with $I = \{P\}$

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Observation 1.16 (Number of interpretations) If $|\{P\}|$ is the cardinality of $\{P\}$ then there are $2^{|\{P\}|}$ different interpretations, corresponding to all the different subsets of $\{P\}$.

Observation 1.17 (Models of a theory) A theory \mathcal{T} has usually multiple models. To have only model, a theory \mathcal{T} must be complete, i.e., it must assign a truth value to all propositions allowed by the language. For instance, $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathcal{P}_1 \land \neg \mathcal{P}_2\}$, with $\{\mathcal{P}\} = \{\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2\}$. A theory which is complete is said to be maximal.

Observation 1.18 (Maximal theories) A Model M is (partially) described by multiple theories \mathcal{T} . There are multiple maximal theories \mathcal{T} which describe it completely. For instance, assume $\{\mathcal{P}\} = \{\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2\}$. If $M = \{\mathcal{P}_1\}$ then $\mathcal{T}_1 = \{\mathcal{P}_1 \land \neg \mathcal{P}_2\}$, $\mathcal{T}_2 = \{\mathcal{P}_1, \neg \mathcal{P}_2\}$ are maximal theories for M.

Observation 1.19 (Partiality of a theory) The more partial a theory \mathcal{T} is, in terms of positive truth values assigned to propositions, the more models it has. For instance, assume $\{\mathcal{P}\} = \{\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2\}$.

- $\mathcal{T} = \{\}$ has four models
- $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathcal{P}_1 \vee \mathcal{P}_2\}$, has three models
- $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathcal{P}_1\}$ has two models
- $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathcal{P}_1 \wedge \mathcal{P}_2\}$ has one model

The key point is that an increase in \mathcal{LODE} partiality is modeled by increase of the number of \mathcal{LOP} models

Observation 1.20 (Minimal models) Given a theory \mathcal{T} , there is no minimal Model M which is the intersection of all models of T, the main cause being disjunction. For instance, assume $\{\mathcal{P}\} = \{\mathcal{P}_1, \mathcal{P}_2\}$. $\mathcal{T} = \{\mathcal{P}_1 \vee \mathcal{P}_2\}$ has four models and no minimal model.

Observation 1.21 (\mathcal{LODE} minimal models) \mathcal{LODE} theories have minimal models (they contain no disjunctions, they have single premises)

Proposition 1.1 (Interpretation equivalence with respect to a formula) *If for all and only the atomic propositions P occurring in a formula A we have*

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

then

$$I \models A \quad iff \quad I' \models A.$$

Observation 1.22 (Interpretation equivalence with respect to a formula) The proposition above must be read as follows

- 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;

1.5.1 Entailment Properties

Proposition 1.2 (Deduction theorem - Logical consequence, validity)

$$\Gamma, \phi \models \psi$$
 if and only if $\Gamma \models \phi \supset \psi$

Observation 1.23 (Deduction theorem - Logical consequence, validity)

- The deduction theorem explains (left to right) the meaning of implication. Implication is how we express logical consequence in language.
- It also says (right to left) that from absurdity (i.e, $P \land \neg P$), we can derive everything, any formula (and assertion) A.

Proposition 1.3 (Refutation principle - Logical consequence, unsatisfiability)

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

Observation 1.24 (Refutation principle - Logical consequence, unsatisfiability)

- The refutation principle explains the meaning of negation. It captures the fact that absurdity (i.e, $\mathcal{P} \land \neg \mathcal{P}$) cannot be satisfied by any model depicting facts in the real world.
- Algorithmitically, it suggests how to reason backwards from goals.

1.6 Modeling Mistakes

Observation 1.25 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".

Observation 1.26 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.

Observation 1.27 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."

Observation 1.28 (Inclusive vs. exclusive disjunction) The natural, but longwinded, way to express exclusive disjunction is $(p \lor q) \land \neg (p \lor q)$. 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.

Observation 1.29 (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 translates 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.
- The solution of one problem would immediately entail the solution of all others which belonged to the same class.

Observation 1.30 (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 " $p \land (q \lor \neg q)$ ".

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.

Observation 1.31 (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.

Observation 1.32 (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 ⊃ 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.

1.7 Reasoning Problems

Now that we have all the necessary notions, we can address and reason about some common problems that must be solved when we want to make judgments about the world:

Reasoning Problem 1.1 (Model checking) Given \mathcal{T} and M, check whether $M \models \mathcal{T}$.

Example 1.5 (Model Checking) Use the truth table method to determine whether $(\neg p \lor q) \land (q \supset \neg r \land \neg p) \land (p \lor r)$ is a model for p = T, q = F, r = T or p = F, q = F.

p	q	r	$\neg p \lor q$	$\neg r \wedge \neg p$	$q \supset \neg r \land \neg p$	$(p \lor r)$	A
T	F	T	F	F	T	T	F
F	F	F	T	T	T	F	F

Observation 1.33 (Using model checking) useful for checking properties (T) of existing (artificial or natural) systems (M).

Reasoning Problem 1.2 (Satisfiability) Given \mathcal{T} , check whether there exists M such that M $\models \mathcal{T}$.

Example 1.6 (Satisfiability) Use the truth table method to determine whether $(\neg p \lor q) \land (q \supset \neg r \land \neg p) \land (p \lor r)$ (denoted with *A*) is satisfiable.

$p \mid c$	r	$\neg p \lor q$	$\neg r \wedge \neg p$	$q \supset \neg r \wedge \neg p$	$(p \lor r)$	A
$T \mid T$	$T \mid T \mid$	T	F	F	T	F
$T \mid T$	$\Gamma F $	T	F	F	T	F
$T \mid I$	T T	F	F	T	T	F
$T \mid I$	F F	F	F	T	T	F
F	T T	T	F	F	T	F
F	$T \mid T \mid$	T	F	F	T	F
$F \mid I$	$T \mid T$	T	F	T	T	T
$F \mid I$	F	T	T	T	F	F

There exists an interpretation satisfying A, thus A is satisfiable.

Observation 1.34 (Using satisfiability) The first reasoning problem by excellence! Given a set of requirements (T) find a system which satisfies it (e.g. TSM, scheduling)

Reasoning Problem 1.3 (Validity) Given \mathcal{T} , check whether there for all M we have $M \models \mathcal{T}$.

Example 1.7 (Validity) Compute the truth table of $(p \supset q) \lor (p \supset \neg q)$ to see whether this formula is valid or not

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

The formula is valid since it is satisfied by every interpretation.

Observation 1.35 (Using Validity) Find whether a property (or theorey) is true in all models (of interest). Useful for theory reformulation (using, e.g., equivalence)

Reasoning Problem 1.4 (Unsatisfiability) Given \mathcal{T} , check whether there is no M such that $\mathbb{M} \models \mathcal{T}$.

Example 1.8 (Unsatisfiability) Compute the truth table of $\neg((p \supset q) \lor (p \supset \neg q))$ to see whether this formula is unsatsifiable 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

The formula is unsatisfiable since there is no interpretation that satisfies it.

Observation 1.36 (Using Unsatisfiability) Find whether a property or theory is not satisfiable. Useful to check on the suitability of the representation of reality of a LODE theory (e.g., AI, non monotonic reasoning, planning). A theory or property which is not satisfiable cannot describe reality

Reasoning Problem 1.5 (Logical consequence) Given \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 , check whether $T_1 \models T_2$.

Example 1.9 (Logical consequence) Use the truth table method to determine whether $\neg p$ is a logical consequence of the formula $A = \{q \lor r \land q \supset \neg p \land \neg (r \land p)\}$

p	q	r	$q \vee r$	$q \supset \neg p$	$\neg(r \land p)$	A	$\neg p$
T	T	T	T	F	F	F	F
T	T	F	T	F	T	F	F
T	F	T	T	T	F	F	F
T	F	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T	T	<i>T</i>
F	F	F	F	T	T	F	T

Observation 1.37 (Logical consequence) Whenever the premise holds then the conclusion must hold. The truth value of teh conclusion is irrelevant when the premise does not hold

Observation 1.38 (Using Logical consequence) The second reasoning problem by excellence. Compute the consequences of a set of facts. Backward reasoning from goals. Because of the deduction theorem can be directly encoded into a satisfiability problem.

Reasoning Problem 1.6 (Logical equivalence) Given \mathcal{T}_1 and \mathcal{T}_2 , check whether $T_1 \models T_2$ and $T_2 \models T_1$.

Example 1.10 (Logical equivalence) Use the truth tables method to determine whether $p \supset (q \land \neg q)$ and $\neg p$ are logically equivalent.

p	q	$q \land \neg q$	$p\supset (q\wedge \neg q)$	$\neg p$
T	T	F	F	F
T	F	F	$\boldsymbol{\mathit{F}}$	$\boldsymbol{\mathit{F}}$
F	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	T	T

Observation 1.39 (Logical equivalence) The holding/ not holding of premise and conclusion must coincide for all interpretations.

Observation 1.40 (Using Logical consequence) Useful to substitute equivalents for equivalents (property reformulation).

Proposition 1.4 If a formula is valid, then it is also satisfiable, and it is also not unsatisfiable. That is:

Proposition 1.5 If a formula is unsatisfiable, then it is also not satisfiable, and also not valid. That is:

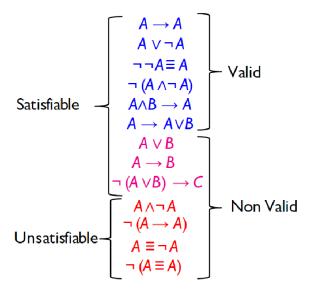
$$Unsatisfiability \implies not\ Satisfiable \implies not\ Valid$$

The validity, satisfiablity and unsatisfiabolity of a formula and of its negation are correlated as follows:

Proposition 1.6

if A is	then $\neg A$ is
Valid	Unsatisfiable
Satisfiable	not Valid
not Valid	Satisfiable
Unsatisfiable	Valid

Example 1.11 Prove that the blue formulas are valid, that the magenta formulas are satisfiable but not valid, and that the red formulas are unsatisfiable.



Observation 1.41 (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

Observation 1.42 (The practice of reasoning algorithms) All mainstream reasoning algorithms implement SAT and, to a lesser extent, UNSAT, plus problem reduction.

Observation 1.43 (Complexity of reasoning) Differently from satisfiability, checking the holding of validity a and unsatisfiability require checking all the 2^n interpretations. With satisfiability, this is only a worst case analysis as a satisfiability algorithm will stop as soon as the first model is found.

Observation 1.44 (Satisfiability of set of formulas or theory) For any finite set of formulas Γ , (i.e., $\Gamma = \{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$ for some $n \geq 1$), Γ is valid (respectively satisfiable and unsatisfiable) if and only if $A_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge A_n$ (respectively satisfiable and unsatisfiable).

1.8 Exercises

1.8.1 Basic concepts

Exercise 1.1 Which of the following are well formed propositional formulas?

```
1. \vee pq

2. (\neg(p \supset (q \land p)))

3. (\neg(p \supset (q = p)))

4. (\neg(\diamondsuit(q \lor p)))

5. (p \land \neg q) \lor (q \supset r)

6. p \neg r
```

Exercise 1.2 Let's consider the interpretation v where v(p) = F, v(q) = T, v(r) = T. Does v satisfy the following propositional formulas?

```
1. (p \supset \neg q) \lor \neg (r \land q)

2. (\neg p \lor \neg q) \supset (p \lor \neg r)

3. \neg (\neg p \supset \neg q) \land r

4. \neg (\neg p \supset q \land \neg r)
```

Exercise 1.3 Consider that we have a propositional language L and a theory T written in the language L. Let be I(L) an interpretation of L: the set of atomic propositions and negated atomic propositions that are true. Indicate which of the following statements are true:

1.8 Exercises 17

- 1. An interpretation I(L) is such that for every formula A belonging to L we have A belonging to I(L) or \neg A belonging to I(L).
- 2. A theory T is such that for every formula A belonging to L we have A belonging to T or ¬ A belonging to T.
- 3. A model M is an interpretation of a language L that satisfies all the formulas of T.
- 4. Every model M of a consistent theory T is such that T is a proper or improper subset of M.
- 5. An inconsistent theory has only one model.
- 6. Given a language L with N atomic propositions, a tautology (a valid formula) has 2^N models.

Exercise 1.4 Say which of the following statements are true:

- 1. If T_1 and T_2 are \mathcal{LOP} theories, then, if $T_1 \models A$ and $T_2 \cup \{A\} \models B$ then $T_1 \cup T_2 \models B$
- 2. Given a formula A in \mathcal{LOP} , the number of subformulas of A is equal to the number of logic and non-logic symbols occurring in A, plus 1. (|subformulas| = |A|+1)
- 3. *T* is a theory in \mathcal{LOP} if and only if $T \models A$ implies that $A \in T$
- 4. A \mathcal{LOP} theory always contains an infinite set of formulas.
- 5. If the \mathcal{LOP} formula A is satisfiable then $\neg A$ is unsatisfiable
- 6. If T_1 and T_2 are two \mathcal{LOP} theories then, $T_1 \models A$ and $T_1 \cup T_2 \models A$ if and only if T_2 is not empty
- 7. The set of \mathcal{LOP} formulas $\{A, A \supset B, B\}$ is a \mathcal{LOP} theory.
- 8. Given a \mathcal{LOP} theory, if there is a finite set of axioms that axiomatizes T, then there is more than one of this set of axioms.

Exercise 1.5 Let A be an atomic proposition in \mathcal{LOP} and B a generic propositional variable. Indicate which of the following answers are correct:

- 1. \neg A it is unsatisfiable
- 2. \neg A \vee B is satisfiable
- 3. $(A \land B) \supset B$ is satisfiable
- 4. $(A \land B) \supset is valid$
- 5. $(\neg A \lor A)$ is satisfiable, but not valid
- 6. If B is a tautology, then $A \supset B$ is valid

1.8.2 Informal to formal

Exercise 1.6 Let's consider a propositional language where

- p means Paola is happy,
- q means Paola paints a picture,
- r means Renzo is happy.

Formalize the following sentences:

1. if Paola is happy and paints a picture then Renzo isn't happy

- 2. if Paola is happy, then she paints a picture
- 3. Paola is happy only if she paints a picture

Exercise 1.7 Let's consider a propositional language where

- *p* means *x* is a prime number,
- *q* means *x* is odd.

Formalize the following sentences:

- 1. x being prime is a sufficient condition for x being odd
- 2. x being odd is a necessary condition for x being prime

Exercise 1.8 Let A = Aldo is *Italian* and B = Bob is *English*. Formalize the following sentences:

- 1. Aldo isn't Italian
- 2. Aldo is Italian while Bob is English
- 3. If Aldo is Italian then Bob is not English
- 4. Aldo is Italian or if Aldo isn't Italian then Bob is English
- 5. Either Aldo is Italian and Bob is English, or neither Aldo is Italian nor Bob is English

Exercise 1.9 Let's consider a propositional language where

- A =Angelo comes to the party,
- $B = Bruno\ comes\ to\ the\ party,$
- C = Carlo comes to the party,
- D = Davide comes to the party.

Formalize the following sentences:

- 1. If Davide comes to the party then Bruno and Carlo come too
- 2. Carlo comes to the party only if Angelo and Bruno do not come
- 3. Davide comes to the party if and only if Carlo comes and Angelo doesn't come
- 4. If Davide comes to the party, then, if Carlo doesn't come then Angelo comes
- 5. Carlo comes to the party provided that Davide doesn't come, but, if Davide comes, then Bruno doesn't come
- 6. A necessary condition for Angelo coming to the party, is that, if Bruno and Carlo aren't coming, Davide comes
- 7. Angelo, Bruno and Carlo come to the party if and only if Davide doesn't come, but, if neither Angelo nor Bruno come, then Davide comes only if Carlo comes

Exercise 1.10 Socrate says: If I'm guilty, I must be punished; I'm guilty. Thus I must be punished. Is the argument logically correct?

Exercise 1.11 Socrate says: If I'm guilty, I must be punished; I'm not guilty. Thus I must not be punished. Is the argument logically correct?

Exercise 1.12 Socrate says: *If I'm guilty, I must be punished; I must not be punished. Thus I'm not guilty.* Is the argument logically correct?

1.8 Exercises 19

Exercise 1.13 Socrate says: If I'm guilty, I must be punished; I must be punished. Thus I'm guilty. Is the argument logically correct?

Exercise 1.14 Angelo, Bruno and Carlo are three students that took the Logic exam. Let's consider a propositional language where

- $A = Aldo \ passed \ the \ exam,$
- B = Bruno passed the exam,
- $C = Carlo \ passed \ the \ exam.$

Formalize the following sentences:

- 1. Carlo is the only one passing the exam
- 2. Aldo is the only one not passing the exam
- 3. Only one, among Aldo, Bruno and Carlo, passed the exam
- 4. At least one among Aldo, Bruno and Carlo passed
- 5. At least two among Aldo, Bruno and Carlo passed the exam
- 6. At most two among Aldo, Bruno and Carlo passed the exam
- 7. Exactly two, among Aldo, Bruno and Carlo passed the exam

Exercise 1.15 Let's consider a propositional language where

- A =Angelo comes to the party,
- $B = Bruno\ comes\ to\ the\ party$,
- C = Carlo comes to the party,
- D =Davide comes to the party.

Formalize the following sentences:

- 1. Angelo comes to the party while Bruno doesn't
- 2. Either Carlo comes to the party, or Bruno and Davide don't come
- 3. If Angelo and Bruno come to the party, then Carlo comes provided that Davide doesn't come
- 4. Carlo comes to the party if Bruno and Angelo don't come, or if Davide comes
- 5. If Angelo comes to the party then Bruno or Carlo come too, but if Angelo doesn't come to the party, then Carlo and Davide come

Exercise 1.16 Formalize the following arguments and verify whether they are correct:

- If Carlo won the competition, then either Mario came second or Sergio came third. Sergio didn't come third. Thus, if Mario didn't come second, then Carlo didn't win the competition.
- If Carlo won the competition, then either Mario came second or Sergio came third. Mario didn't come second. Thus, if Carlo won the competition, then Sergio didn't come third.
- If Carlo won the competition, then Mario came second and Sergio came third. Mario didn't come second. Thus Carlo didn't win the competition.
- If Carlo won the competition, then, if Mario came second then Sergio came third. Mario didn't come second. Thus, either Carlo won or Sergio arrived third

If you play and you study you'll pass the exams, while if you play and don't study
you won't pass. Thus, if you play, either you study and you'll pass the exams, or
you don't study and you won't pass.

Exercise 1.17 Let's consider a propositional language where p stands for "Paola is happy", q stands for "Paola points a picture", and r stands for "Renzo is happy". Formalize the following sentences:

- 1. "if Paola is happy and points a picture then Renzo isn't happy"
- 2. "if Paola is happy, then she points a picture"
- 3. "It is not the case that Paola is happy and she does not point a picture"

Exercise 1.18 1. The requirements of a railway system contains the following description of the behavior of a train a level crossing:

- The safety light of a level crossing can be in only one of these two states: red or green.
- If the level crossing is closed then the traffic light is green.
- The traffic light cannot be green if the level crossing is open.
- The train can move if and only if the traffic light is green

Imagining to use the following formalization:

- OPEN =Level crossing is open
- ¬ OPEN = Level crossing is closed
- GREEN = Traffic light is green
- RED = Traffic light is red
- MOVE = The train is moving
- \neg MOVE = The train is still

indicate which of the following theories captures the informal representation described above.

```
a. RED ⇔ ¬GREEN
¬ OPEN ⊃ GREEN
OPEN ⊃ RED
GREEN ⇔ MOVE
```

b. RED ⊃ ¬GREEN OPEN ∧ ¬ RED

 $\mathsf{GREEN} \supset \mathsf{MOVE}$

MOVE ⊃ GREEN

c. RED \iff GREEN

¬ OPEN ⊃ GREEN

OPEN ⊃ GREEN

GREEN ← MOVE

d. RED ⇔ ¬ GREEN¬ OPEN ∨ GREENOPEN ⊃ RED

GREEN ⊃ MOVE

1.8 Exercises 21

MOVE ⊃ GREEN

2. Suppose we want to verify the following condition:

The train moves with the level crossing open

How would you formalise this condition? Choose one of this:

- ¬ (OPEN ∧ MOVE)
- OPEN ⊃ MOVE
- OPEN ← MOVE
- MOVE ∧ OPEN

Exercise 1.19 We want to represent in \mathcal{LOP} the knowledge necessary for a robot to operate in an environment in which there are three colored blocks: one red, one green and one yellow. Blocks can stand on top of each other or side by side. The robot is only able to move a block if it has no other blocks on it.

We represent that one block is on top of another by using propositional letters in the form COLOR_OF_COLOR. For example: RED_Over_GREEN, if true, indicates that the RED block is on top of the GREEN block.

We also represent the fact that the robot can move a block with the following propositional letter: MOVABLE_BLOCK. For example: RED_MOVABLE, if true, indicates that the RED block can be moved. In other words, the RED block has no blocks above it.

Which of the following formulas are valid in our world?

- 1. (RED_OVER_GREEN ∧ GREEN_OVER_YELLOW) ⊃ MOVABLE_RED
- 2. MOVABLE_RED \supset (\neg GREEN_OVER_RED $\land \neg$ YELLOW_OVER_RED)
- 3. (GREEN_OVER_RED ∨ YELLOW_OVER_RED) ⊃ ¬ MOVABLE_RED
- 4. MOVABLE_RED \iff RED_OVER_GREEN $\land \neg$ YELLOW_OVER_RED
- 5. MOVABLE RED ⇔ RED OVER GREEN ∧ GREEN OVER YELLOW
- 6. MOVABLE_RED ⊃ RED_OVER_GREEN ∧ GREEN_OVER_YELLOW

1.8.3 Reasoning

Exercise 1.20 Find an interpretation that does not satisfy the following formula:

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

specifying for each propositional variable the corresponding truth value assigned by the interpretation (True, False, Unassigned)

Exercise 1.21 Compute the truth table of $(F \vee G) \wedge \neg (F \wedge G)$.

Exercise 1.22 Use the truth tables method to determine whether $(p \supset q) \lor (p \supset \neg q)$ is valid.

Exercise 1.23 Use the truth tables method to determine whether $(\neg p \lor q) \land (q \supset \neg r \land \neg p) \land (p \lor r)$ (denoted with φ) is satisfiable.

Exercise 1.24 Use the truth tables method to determine whether the formula φ : $p \land \neg q \supset p \land q$ is a logical consequence of the formula ψ : $\neg p$.

Exercise 1.25 Use the truth tables method to determine whether $p \supset (q \land \neg q)$ and $\neg p$ are logically equivalent.

Exercise 1.26 Compute the truth tables for the following propositional formulas:

- $(p\supset p)\supset p$
- $p\supset (p\supset p)$
- $p \lor q \supset p \land q$
- $p \lor (q \land r) \supset (p \land r) \lor q$
- $p\supset (q\supset p)$
- $(p \land \neg q) \lor \neg (p \leftrightarrow q)$

Exercise 1.27 Use the truth table method to verify whether the following formulas are valid, satisfiable or unsatisfiable:

- $(p \supset q) \land \neg q \supset \neg p$
- $(p \supset q) \supset (p \supset \neg q)$
- $(p \lor q \supset r) \lor p \lor q$
- $(p \lor q) \land (p \supset r \land q) \land (q \supset \neg r \land p)$
- $(p\supset (q\supset r))\supset ((p\supset q)\supset (p\supset r))$
- $(p \lor q) \land (\neg q \land \neg p)$
- $(\neg p \supset q) \lor ((p \land \neg r) \leftrightarrow q)$
- $(p \supset q) \land (p \supset \neg q)$
- $(p \supset (q \lor r)) \lor (r \supset \neg p)$

Exercise 1.28 Use the truth table method to verify whether the following logical consequences and equivalences are correct:

- $(p \supset q) \models \neg p \supset \neg q$
- $(p \supset q) \land \neg q \models \neg p$
- $p \supset q \land r \models (p \supset q) \supset r$
- $p \lor (\neg q \land r) \models q \lor \neg r \supset p$
- $\neg (p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$
- $(p \lor q) \land (\neg p \supset \neg q) \equiv q$
- $(p \land q) \lor r \equiv (p \supset \neg q) \supset r$
- $(p \lor q) \land (\neg p \supset \neg q) \equiv p$
- $((p \supset q) \supset q) \supset q \equiv p \supset q$

Exercise 1.29 Check if $(P \land Q) \lor (R \supset S)$ is satisfiable.

Exercise 1.30 Check if $(P \land Q) \lor (R \supset S)$ is valid.

Exercise 1.31 Use the truth table method to determine whether $\neg p$ is a logical consequence of the formula $A = \{q \lor r \land q \supset \neg p \land \neg (r \land p)\}$

Exercise 1.32 Use the truth tables method to determine whether $p \supset (q \land \neg q)$ and $\neg p$ are logically equivalent.

1.8 Exercises 23

1.8.4 Solving problems

Exercise 1.33 (Treasure or Trap) Aladdin finds two trunks *A* and *B* in a cave. He knows that each of them either contains a treasure or a fatal trap.

On trunk A is written: At least one of these two trunks contains a treasure.

On trunk *B* is written: *In A there's a fatal trap.*

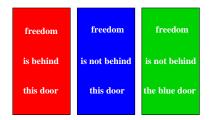
Aladdin knows that either both the inscriptions are true, or they are both false. Can Aladdin choose a trunk being sure that he will find a treasure? If this is the case, which trunk should he open?

Exercise 1.34 (The three boxes) Three boxes are presented to you. One contains gold, the other two are empty. Each box has imprinted on it a clue as to its contents; the clues are:

- Box 1: The gold is not here
- Box 2: The gold is not here
- Box 3: The gold is in Box 2

Only one message is true; the other two are false. Which box has the gold? Formalize the puzzle in \mathcal{LOP} and find the solution using a truth table.

Exercise 1.35 (The three doors) Kyle, Neal, and Grant find themselves trapped in a dark and cold dungeon (HOW they arrived there is another story). After a quick search the boys find three doors, the first one red, the second one blue, and the third one green. Behind one of the doors is a path to freedom. Behind the other two doors, however, is an evil fire-breathing dragon. Opening a door to the dragon means almost certain death. On each door there is an inscription:



Given the fact that at LEAST ONE of the three statements on the three doors is true and at LEAST ONE of them is false, which door would lead the boys to safety?

Exercise 1.36 (The Labyrinth Guardians.) You are walking in a labyrinth and all of a sudden you find yourself in front of three possible roads: the road on your left is paved with gold, the one in front of you is paved with marble, while the one on your right is made of small stones. Each street is protected by a guardian. You talk to the guardians and this is what they tell you:

- The guardian of the gold street: This road will bring you straight to the center. Moreover, if the stones take you to the center, then also the marble takes you to the center.
- The guardian of the marble street: Neither the gold nor the stones will take you to the center.
- The guardian of the stone street: Follow the gold and you'll reach the center, follow the marble and you will be lost.

Given that you know that all the guardians are liars, can you choose a road being sure that it will lead you to the center of the labyrinth? If this is the case, which road you choose? Provide a propositional language and a set of axioms that formalize the problem and show whether you can choose a road being sure it will lead to the center.

Exercise 1.37 (Binary Strings) Consider the finite set of binary strings

```
\[ \( (000000), (100000), (110000), (111000), (111100), (111110), \\ (111111), (011111), (001111), (000111), (000011), (000001) \\ \]
```

Explain how it is possible to represent such a set in a propositional formula and find the most compact representation.

Exercise 1.38 (Graph coloring problem) Provide a propositional language and a set of axioms that formalizes the graph coloring problem of a graph with at most n nodes, with connection degree $\leq m$, and with less then k+1 colors.

- node degree: number of adjacent nodes
- connection degree of a graph: max among all the degree of its nodes
- *graph coloring problem*: given a non-oriented graph, associate a color to each of its nodes in such a way that no pair of adjacent nodes have the same color.

Exercise 1.39 (Traffic light) Define a propositional language which allows to describe the state of a traffic light on different instants. With the language defined above provide a (set of) formulas which expresses the following facts:

- 1. the traffic light is either green, or red or orange;
- 2. the traffic light switches from green to orange, from orange to red, and from red to green;
- 3. it can keep the same color over at most 3 successive states.

Exercise 1.40 (Sudoku) Sudoku is a placement puzzle. The aim of the puzzle is to enter a numeral from 1 through 9 in each cell of a grid, most frequently a 9×9 grid made up of 3×3 subgrids (called "regions"), starting with various numerals given in some cells (the "givens"). Each row, column and region must contain only one instance of each numeral. Its grid layout is like the one shown in the following schema

1.8 Exercises 25

		9				7		
	4		5		9		1	
3				1				2
	1			6			7	
		2	7		1	8		
	5			4			3	
7				3				4
	8		2		4		6	
		6				5		

Provide a formalization in \mathcal{LOP} of the Sudoku problem, so that any truth assignment to the propositional variables that satisfy the axioms is a solution for the puzzle.

Exercise 1.41 Suppose we know that:

- if Paolo is thin, then Carlo is not blonde or Roberta is not tall
- if Roberta is tall then Sandra is lovely
- if Sandra is lovely and Carlo is blonde then Paolo is thin
- Carlo is blonde

Can we deduce that Roberta is not tall?

Exercise 1.42 Anna and Barbara carpool to work. On any day, either Anna drives Barbara or Barbara drives Anna. In the former case, Anna is the driver and Barbara is the passenger; in the latter case Barbara is the driver and Anna is the passenger. Formalize the problem using the following propositions:

- 1. Anna drives Barbara
- 2. Barbara drives Anna
- 3. Anna is the driver
- 4. Barbara is the driver
- 5. Anna is the passenger
- 6. Barbara is the passenger

Exercises of Chapter 1

Basic concepts

Solution 1.1 (Q) Which formulas are well formed?

- 1. $\vee pq$
- 2. $(\neg(p \rightarrow (q \land p)))$
- 3. $(\neg(p \rightarrow (q = p)))$
- 4. $(\neg(\Diamond(q \lor p)))$
- 5. $(p \land \neg q) \lor (q \rightarrow r)$
- 6. $p \neg r$
- (A) Well formed formulas: 2. and 5.

Solution **1.2** (Q) Let's consider the interpretation v where v(p) = F, v(q) = T, v(r) = T. Which propositional formulas does v satisfy? Does v satisfy the following propositional formulas?

- 1. $(p \rightarrow \neg q) \vee \neg (r \wedge q)$
- 2. $(\neg p \lor \neg q) \to (p \lor \neg r)$
- 3. $\neg(\neg p \rightarrow \neg q) \land r$
- 4. $\neg(\neg p \rightarrow q \land \neg r)$

(A) v satisfies formulas 1., 3. and 4. v doesn't satisfy 2.

Solution 1.3

- An interpretation I(L) is such that for every formula A belonging to L we have A belonging to I(L) or ¬ A belonging to I(L). (T)
- A theory T is such that for every formula A belonging to L we have A belonging to T or \neg A belonging to T. (**F**)
- A model M is an interpretation of a language L that satisfies all the formulas of T. (T)

- Every model M of a consistent theory T is such that T is a proper or improper subset of M. (T)
- An inconsistent theory has only one model. (**F**)
- Given a language L with N atomic propositions, a tautology (a valid formula) has 2^N models. (T)

Solution 1.4

- If T_1 and T_2 are PL theories, then, if $T_1 \models A$ and $T_2 \cup \{A\} \models B$ then $T_1 \cup T_2 \models B$. (T)
- Given a formula A in PL, the number of subformulas of A is equal to the number of logic and non-logic symbols occurring in A, plus 1. (|subformulas| = |A|+1).
 (F)
- T is a theory in PL if and only if $T \models A$ implies that $A \in T$. (T)
- A PL theory always contains an infinite set of formulas. (T)
- If the PL formula A is satisfiable then $\neg A$ is unsatisfiable. (F)
- If T_1 and T_2 are two PL theories then, $T_1 \models A$ and $T_1 \cup T_2 \models A$ if and only if T_2 is not empty. (**F**)
- The set of PL formulas $\{A, A \supset B, B\}$ is a PL theory. (**F**)
- Given a PL theory, if there is a finite set of axioms that axiomatizes T, then there is more than one of this set of axioms. (T)

Solution 1.5

- $\neg A \lor B$ is satisfiable
- $(A \land B) \supset B$ is satisfiable
- $(A \land B) \supset \text{is valid}$
- If B is a tautology, then $A \supset B$ is valid

Informal to formal

Solution **1.6** (Q) Formalize the following sentences (p means Paola is happy, q means Paola paints a picture, r means Renzo is happy):

- 1. if Paola is happy and paints a picture then Renzo isn't happy
- 2. if Paola is happy, then she paints a picture
- 3. Paola is happy only if she paints a picture
- (A) We have the following:
- 1. $p \land q \rightarrow \neg r$
- 2. $p \rightarrow q$
- 3. $\neg (p \land \neg q)$...which is equivalent to $p \rightarrow q$

(NOTE) Notice how the precision of formal languages avoid the ambiguities of natural languages.

Solution 1.7 (Q) Formalize the following sentences (p means x is a prime number, q means x is odd):

- 1. x being prime is a sufficient condition for x being odd
- 2. x being odd is a necessary condition for x being prime
- (A) For both statements 1. and 2. we have $p \rightarrow q$.

Solution **1.8** (Q) Formalize the following sentences (A = Aldo is Italian and B = Bob is English):

- 1. Aldo isn't Italian
- 2. Aldo is Italian while Bob is English
- 3. If Aldo is Italian then Bob is not English
- 4. Aldo is Italian or if Aldo isn't Italian then Bob is English
- 5. Either Aldo is Italian and Bob is English, or neither Aldo is Italian nor Bob is English
- (A) We have the following.
- 1. ¬*A*
- 2. $A \wedge B$
- 3. $A \rightarrow \neg B$
- 4. $A \lor (\neg A \to B)$ logically equivalent to $A \lor B$
- 5. $(A \land B) \lor (\neg A \land \neg B)$ logically equivalent to $A \leftrightarrow B$

Solution **1.9** Let's consider a propositional language ($A = Angelo \ comes \ to \ the \ party$), $B = Bruno \ comes \ to \ the \ party$, $C = Carlo \ comes \ to \ the \ party$, $D = Davide \ comes \ to \ the \ party$). Formalize the following sentences:

- 1. If Davide comes to the party then Bruno and Carlo come too.
- 2. Carlo comes to the party only if Angelo and Bruno do not come.
- 3. Davide comes to the party if and only if Carlo comes and Angelo doesn't come.
- 4. If Davide comes to the party, then, if Carlo doesn't come then Angelo comes.
- 5. Carlo comes to the party provided that Davide doesn't come, but, if Davide comes, then Bruno doesn't come.
- 6. A necessary condition for Angelo coming to the party, is that, if Bruno and Carlo aren't coming, Davide comes.
- 7. Angelo, Bruno and Carlo come to the party if and only if Davide doesn't come, but, if neither Angelo nor Bruno come, then Davide comes only if Carlo comes.
- (A) We have the following
- 1. $D \rightarrow B \wedge C$
- 2. $C \rightarrow \neg A \wedge \neg B$
- 3. $D \leftrightarrow (C \land \neg A)$
- 4. $D \rightarrow (\neg C \rightarrow A)$
- 5. $(\neg D \rightarrow C) \land (D \rightarrow \neg B)$
- 6. $A \rightarrow (\neg B \land \neg C \rightarrow D)$
- 7. $(A \land B \land C \leftrightarrow \neg D) \land (\neg A \land \neg B \rightarrow (D \leftrightarrow C))$

Solution **1.10** (Q17) Socrate says: *If I'm guilty, I must be punished; I'm guilty. Thus I must be punished.* Is the argument logically correct?

(A) The argument is logically correct: if p means I'm guilty and q means I must be punished, then: $(p \rightarrow q) \land p \models q$ (by modus ponens).

Solution **1.11** (Q18) Socrate says: *If I'm guilty, I must be punished; I'm not guilty. Thus I must not be punished.* Is the argument logically correct?

(A) The argument is not logically correct: $(p \to q) \land \neg p \not\models \neg q$. NOTE: consider for instance v(p) = F and v(q) = T

Solution 1.12 By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution 1.13 By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution 1.14 By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution 1.15 By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution 1.16 By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution 1.17

- 1. $p \lor q \supset \neg r$
- 2. $p \supset q$
- 3. $\neg (p \land \neg q)$ which is equivalent to $p \supset q !!!$

Notice that the precision of formal language in your answers allows to avoid ambiguities of natural languages.

Solution 1.18

- 1. The first one (a) is the correct one:
 - RED ⇐⇒ ¬GREEN
 - ¬ OPEN ⊃ GREEN
 - OPEN ⊃ RED
 - GREEN \iff MOVE
 - OPEN ⊃ MOVE
- 2. The correct formalization is: OPEN \supset MOVE.

Solution 1.19

- $(RED_OVER_GREEN \land GREEN_OVER_YELLOW) \supset MOVABLE_RED(T)$
- MOVABLE_RED ⊃ (¬ GREEN_OVER_RED ∧¬ YELLOW_OVER_RED) (T)
- (GREEN OVER RED ∨ YELLOW OVER RED) ⊃ ¬ MOVABLE RED (T)
- MOVABLE RED ⇐⇒ RED OVER GREEN ∧¬ YELLOW OVER RED (F)
- MOVABLE_RED ⇒ RED_OVER_GREEN ∧ GREEN_OVER_YELLOW
 (F)
- $MOVABLE_RED \supset RED_OVER_GREEN \land GREEN_OVER_YELLOW(F)$

Reasoning

Solution 1.20 To solve this exercise when can use a truth table

A	B	C	D	$(\neg (A \lor B) \land (C \land \neg D)) \supset (\neg C \lor B)$
T	T	T	T	T
T	T	T	F	T
	T	F	T	T
T	T	F	F	T
1 1	F	T	T	T
T	F	T	F	T
T	F	F	T	T
T	F	F	F	T
F	T	T	T	T
F	T	T	F	T
F	T	F	T	T
F	T	F	F	T
F	F	T	T	T
$\boldsymbol{\mathit{F}}$	\boldsymbol{F}	\boldsymbol{T}	$\boldsymbol{\mathit{F}}$	F
F	F	F	T	T
F	F	F	F	T

We can quickly fill the truth values of the formula for the rows where A or B are true. In fact, if you look at the first member of the formula $(\neg(A \lor B))$, this is true only if both A and B are false. Since this member is in conjunction (\land) with the other, the premise of the implication will always be false if either A or B are true. If the premise of the implication is false, we have that the entire implication evaluates to true. Then we have the last four cases that are to be evaluated manually.

Solution **1.21** (Q) Compute the truth table of $(F \vee G) \wedge \neg (F \wedge G)$.

F	G	$F \vee G$	$F \wedge G$	$\neg (F \land G)$	$(F \vee G) \wedge \neg (F \wedge G)$
T	T	T	Т	F	F
T	F	T	F	T	T
F	Т	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	F	T	F

(A) The truth table is reported below. (NOTE) the formula models an exclusive or!

Solution **1.22** (Q) Use the truth tables method to determine whether $(\neg p \lor q) \land (q \to \neg r \land \neg p) \land (p \lor r)$ (denoted with φ) is satisfiable.

p q	$p \rightarrow q$	$\neg q$	$p \to \neg q$	$(p \to q) \lor (p \to \neg q)$
TT	T	F	F	T
T F	F	T	T	T
F T	T	F	T	T
F F	T	T	T	T

(A) The formula is valid since it is satisfied by every interpretation. Being valid is also satisfiable

Solution **1.23** (Q) Use the truth tables method to determine whether $(\neg p \lor q) \land (q \to \neg r \land \neg p) \land (p \lor r)$ (denoted with φ) is satisfiable.

p	q	r	$\neg p \lor q$	$\neg r \wedge \neg p$	$q \to \neg r \land \neg p$	$(p \lor r)$	$ \varphi $
T	T	T	T	F	F	Т	F
T	Т	F	T	F	F	Т	F
T	F	Т	F	F	Т	Т	F
T	F	F	F	F	T	T	F
F	T	Т	T	F	F	T	F
F	T	F	T	T	T	F	F
F	F	Т	T	F	Т	Т	T
F	F	F	T	T	Т	F	F

(A) There exists an interpretation satisfying φ , thus φ is satisfiable.

Solution **1.24** (Q) Use the truth tables method to determine whether the formula $\varphi: p \land \neg q \to p \land q$ is a logical consequence of the formula $\psi: \neg p$.

p	q	$\neg p$	$p \wedge \neg q$	$p \wedge q$	$p \land \neg q \to p \land q$
T	T	F	F	T	T
T	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	F	T
F	F	T	F	F	T

(A) $\psi \models \varphi$ since each interpretation satisfying *psi* satisfies also φ .

Solution 1.25 (Q) Use the truth tables method to determine whether $p \to (q \land \neg q)$ and $\neg p$ are logically equivalent.

p	q	$q \land \neg q$	$p \to (q \land \neg q)$	$\neg p$
T	T	F	F	F
T	F	F	${f F}$	F
F	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	T	T

(A) The two formulas are equivalent since for every possible interpretation they evaluate to the same truth value.

Solution 1.26 By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution **1.27** By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution 1.28 By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution 1.29

- · Compute all I
 - $\{P, Q, R, S\}$
 - $\{P, Q, R\}$

- ...

• For each and any *I*, recursively replace each occurrence of each primitive proposition of the formula with the truth value assigned by *I*, and apply the definition for connectives.

• With $I = \{P\}$ we have the following

$$(True \land False) \lor (False \supset False)$$

$$False \lor True$$

$$True$$

Therefore the formula above is satisfiable.

Solution 1.30

- Check if $(P \land Q) \lor (R \supset S)$ is valid.
- · Compute all I
 - $\{P, Q, R, S\}$ - $\{P, Q, R\}$ - ...
- For each and any *I*, recursively replace each occurrence of each primitive proposition of the formula with the truth value assigned by *I*, and apply the definition for connectives.
- With $I = \{P, R\}$ we have the following

$$(True \land False) \lor (True \supset False)$$

$$False \lor False$$

$$False$$

Therefore the algorithm returns NO and we no longer have to check the other interpretations.

Solution 1.31

p	q	r	$q \vee r$	$q \supset \neg p$	$\neg (r \land p)$	A	$\neg p$
T	T	T	T	F	F	F	F
T	T	\boldsymbol{F}	T	F	T	\boldsymbol{F}	\boldsymbol{F}
T	\boldsymbol{F}	T	T	T	F	\boldsymbol{F}	\boldsymbol{F}
T	\boldsymbol{F}	\boldsymbol{F}	F	T	T	\boldsymbol{F}	\boldsymbol{F}
F	T	T	T	T	T	\boldsymbol{T}	\boldsymbol{T}
F	T	T	T	T	T	\boldsymbol{T}	\boldsymbol{T}
F	\boldsymbol{F}	T	T	T	T	\boldsymbol{T}	T
F	F	F	F	T	T	F	T

Whenever A is true, $\neg p$ is also true, making it a logical consequence of A

Solution 1.32

p	q	$q \land \neg q$	$p \supset (q \land \neg q)$	$\neg p$
T	T	F	$\boldsymbol{\mathit{F}}$	\boldsymbol{F}
T	F	\boldsymbol{F}	$\boldsymbol{\mathit{F}}$	\boldsymbol{F}
F	T	F	T	T
F	F	F	T	T

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

Solving problems

Solution **1.33** [Treasure or Trap] Let $a = Trunk \ A \ contains \ the treasure$ and $b = Trunk \ B \ contains \ the treasure$. Obviously $\neg a = Trunk \ a \ contains \ a \ trap$ (and similarly for $\neg b$), since each trunk either contains a treasure or a trap (exclusive or). Let's formalize what Aladdin knows.

- Formalization of the inscriptions: *a* ∨ *b*: *At least one of these two trunks contains a treasure*; ¬*a*: *A contains a trap*
- Formalization of the problem: either both the inscriptions are true, or they are both false: (a ∨ b) ↔ ¬a (1)

What we can do is to verify whether there is any interpretation satisfying the formula (1). The only interpretation satisfying 1. is: v(a) = F and v(b) = T. Thus Aladdin can open trunk B, being sure that it contains a treasure.

Solution **1.34** [The three boxes] Let B_i with $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ stand for "gold is in the *i*-th box". We can formalize the statements of the problem as follows:

• One box contains gold, the other two are empty.

$$(B_1 \wedge \neg B_2 \wedge \neg B_3) \vee (\neg B_1 \wedge B_2 \wedge \neg B_3) \vee (\neg B_1 \wedge \neg B_2 \wedge B_3) \tag{1.6}$$

• Only one message is true; the other two are false.

$$(\neg B_1 \land \neg \neg B_2 \land \neg B_2) \lor (\neg \neg B_1 \land \neg B_2 \land \neg B_2) \lor (\neg \neg B_1 \land \neg \neg B_2 \land B_2) \quad (1.7)$$

(1.7) is equivalent to:

$$(B_1 \wedge \neg B_2) \vee (B_1 \wedge B_2) \tag{1.8}$$

Let us compute the truth table for (1.6) and (1.8)

B_1	B_2	B_3	(1.6)	(1.8)
T	T	T	F	T
T	T	F	F	T
T	F	T	F	T
T	F	F	T	T
F	T	T	F	F
F	T	F	T	F
F	F	T	T	F
F	F	F	F	F

The only assignment I that verifies both (1.6) and (1.8) is the one with $I(B_1) = T$ and $I(B_2) = I(B_3) = F$, which implies that the gold is in the first box.

Solution 1.35 [The three doors] Let us assume we have the following propositions

- r: freedom is behind the red door
- b: freedom is behind the blue door
- g: freedom is behind the green door

... and the following axioms

1. behind one of the door is a path to freedom, behind the other two doors is an evil dragon

$$(r \wedge \neg b \wedge \neg g) \vee (\neg r \wedge b \wedge \neg g) \vee (\neg r \wedge \neg b \wedge g) \tag{1.9}$$

2. at least one of the three statements is true

$$r \vee \neg b \tag{1.10}$$

3. at least one of the three statements is false

$$\neg r \lor b \tag{1.11}$$

Then we can decide which is the right door.

r b g	1.10	1.11	1.10 \(1.11
TFF	T	F	F
F T F	F	T	F
FFI	` T	T	T

Freedom is behind the **green door!**

Solution 1.36 [The Labyrinth Guardians.] Let us assume we have the following propositions

- g: the gold road brings to the center
- m: the marble road brings to the center
- s: the stone road brings to the center

... and the following axioms

1. The guardian of the gold street is a liar

$$\neg (g \land (s \to m)) \tag{1.12}$$

which can be simplified to obtain

$$\neg g \lor (s \land \neg m)$$

2. The guardian of the marble street is a liar

$$\neg(\neg g \land \neg s) \tag{1.13}$$

which can be simplified to obtain

$$g \vee s$$

3. The guardian of the stone street is a liar

$$\neg (g \land \neg m) \tag{1.14}$$

which can be simplified to obtain

$$\neg g \lor m$$

We can now compute the solution.

g	1	m	S	1.12	1.13	1.14	$1.12 \wedge 1.13 \wedge 1.14$
1	T	1	1	0	1	1	0
1		1	0	0	1	1	0
1		0	1	1	1	0	0
1		0	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	١	1	0	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
0		0	0	1	0	1	0

We have two possible interpretations that satisfy the axioms, and in both of them the stone street brings to the center. Thus I can choose the **stone street** being sure that it leads to the center.

Solution **1.37** [Binary Strings] Let us define the following propositions. For each $0 \le i \le 5$, b_i is a proposition, which intuitively means that the *i*-th bit has value 1. Obviously, $\neg b_i$ means that the *i*-th bit does not have value 1, and thus it has value 0. Then, a possible (compact) representation of the finite set of binary strings is given by the following formula:

$$\bigvee_{k=0}^{5} \left(\left(\bigwedge_{i=0}^{k} \neg b_{i} \wedge \bigwedge_{i=k+1}^{5} b_{i} \right) \vee \left(\bigwedge_{i=0}^{k} b_{i} \wedge \bigwedge_{i=k+1}^{5} \neg b_{i} \right) \right)$$
 (1.15)

Solution 1.38 [Graph coloring problem] Let us define the following propositions.

- For each $1 \le i \le n$ and $1 \le c \le k$, C_{ic} is a proposition, which intuitively means that the i-th node has the c color
- For each $1 \le i \ne j \le n$, E_{ij} is a proposition, which intuitively means that the *i-th* node is connected with the j-th node.

Let us now define the following axioms.

- for each $1 \le i \le n$, $\bigvee_{c=1}^k C_{ic}$, that is, each node has at least one color; for each $1 \le i \le n$ and $1 \le c, c' \le k$, $C_{ic} \to \neg C_{ic'}$, that is, every node has at most 1
- for each $1 \le i, j \le n$ and $1 \le c \le k, E_{ij} \to \neg(C_{ic} \land C_{jc})$, that is, adjacent nodes do not have the same color
- for each $1 \le i \le n$, and each $J \subseteq \{1..n\}$, where |J| = m, $\bigwedge_{i \in J} E_{ij} \to \bigwedge_{j \notin J} \neg E_{ij}$ every node has at most m connected node

Solution 1.39 [Traffic light] Let us define the following propositions

- g_k =traffic light is green at instant k
- r_k =traffic light is red at instant k
- o_k =traffic light is orange at instant k

Then we have the following axioms.

• the traffic light is either green, or red or orange

$$(g_k \leftrightarrow (\neg r_k \land \neg o_k)) \land (r_k \leftrightarrow (\neg g_k \land \neg o_k)) \land (o_k \leftrightarrow (\neg r_k \land \neg g_k))$$

• the traffic light switches from green to orange, from orange to red, and from red to green

$$(g_{k-1} \rightarrow (g_k \lor o_k)) \land (o_{k-1} \rightarrow (o_k \lor r_k)) \land (r_{k-1} \rightarrow (r_k \lor g_k))$$

• the traffic light can keep the same color over at most 3 successive states

$$(g_{k-3} \land g_{k-2} \land g_{k-1} \rightarrow \neg g_k) \land (r_{k-3} \land r_{k-2} \land r_{k-1} \rightarrow \neg r_k) \land (o_{k-3} \land o_{k-2} \land o_{k-1} \rightarrow \neg o_k)$$

Solution 1.40 [Sudoku] Let us define the following propositions

For $1 \le n, r, c \le 9$, we define the proposition

which means that the number n has been inserted in the cross between row r and column c.

Then, let us define the following axioms.

1. A raw contains all numbers from 1 to 9

$$\bigwedge_{r=1}^{9} \left(\bigwedge_{n=1}^{9} \left(\bigvee_{c=1}^{9} I(n,r,c) \right) \right)$$

2. A column contains all numbers from 1 to 9

$$\bigwedge_{c=1}^{9} \left(\bigwedge_{n=1}^{9} \left(\bigvee_{r=1}^{9} I(n,r,c) \right) \right)$$

3. A region (sub-grid) contains all numbers from 1 to 9

for any
$$0 \le k, h \le 2$$

$$\bigwedge_{n=1}^{9} \left(\bigvee_{r=1}^{3} \left(\bigvee_{c=1}^{3} I(n, 3 * k + r, 3 * h + c) \right) \right)$$

4. A cell cannot contain two numbers

for any
$$1 \le n, n', c, r \le 9$$
 and $n \ne n'$ $I(n, r, c) \rightarrow \neg I(n', r, c)$

Solution 1.41 By now you should be able to do it without help.

Solution 1.42 By now you should be able to do it without help.