Lecture 2 Propositional logic

syntax and semantics, the satisfiability problem, constraint problems

Introduction to Logic for Computer Science

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These slides are minor variants of those made by Prof Worrell and Dr Haase for their logic course at Oxford.

Agenda

Propositional logic

Syntax and semantics of propositional logic

Encoding constraint problems into satisfiability problems

Propositional logic

- Informally, a study on a type of boolean expressions in PLs, called sentences, formulas or propositions.
- The most basic kind of sentences are atomic propositions, which can be true, or false, or variables.
- Sentences are combined using logical connectives.
- Propositional logic analyses how the truth values of compound sentences depend on their constituents.
- A prime concern: given a compound sentence, determine which truth values of its atoms make it true.
- Key to formulate the notions of logical consequence and valid argument.

- Atomic propositions:
 - a "Alice is an architect"
 - b "Bob is a builder"
 - c "Charlie is a cook"

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 $b \rightarrow c$ "If Bob is a builder then Charlie is a cook"

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• Ex: Assume the three propositions. What can you say about a?

Atomic propositions:

a "Alice is an architect"

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c "Charlie is a cook"

Compound sentences:

 $\neg c$ "Charlie is not a cook" $a \lor b$ "Alice is an architect or Bob is a builder"

b
ightarrow c "If Bob is a builder then Charlie is a cook"

- Ex: Assume the three propositions. What can you say about a?
- Answer: Alice is an architect. That is, $\{\neg c, a \lor b, b \to c\} \models a$.
- The correctness of this entailment is independent of the meaning of the atomic propositions!

Propositional logic

Syntax and semantics of propositional logic

3 Encoding constraint problems into satisfiability problems

Syntax of propositional logic

Definition (Syntax of propositional logic)

Let $X = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, ...\}$ be a countably infinite set of **propositional** variables. Formulas of propositional logic are inductively defined as follows:

- true and false are formulas.
- 2 Every propositional variable x_i is a formula.
- If F is a formula, then $\neg F$ is a formula.
- **1** If F and G are formulas, then $(F \land G)$ and $(F \lor G)$ are formulas.

Additional notation

- We often write x, y, z or p to denote propositional variables.
- We call $\neg F$ the **negation** of F.
- Given formulas F and G, (F ∧ G) is the conjunction of F and G, and (F ∨ G) is the disjunction of F and G.
- We call ¬, ∧ and ∨ logical connectives.
- We denote by F(X) the set of all formulas built from propositional variables in X.

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- Exclusive Or: $(F_1 \oplus F_2) := ??$
- Indexed Conjunction: $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} F_i := ??$
- Indexed Disjunction: $\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} F_i := ??$
- Ex1: Fill in ??.
- Ex2: Find a connective that can be used to define all the others.
- Ex3: Prove that ∧ is not an answer for Ex2.

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- Ex3: Prove that ∧ is not an answer for Ex2. By Mono.

Convention on bracketing

- We drop brackets, unless doing so causes big confusion.
- No outer brackets usually.
- Use the standard precedence of connectives.
- Example: $\neg x \land y \rightarrow z$ means $(((\neg x) \land y) \rightarrow z)$.
- Lecture notes for the detail. Ask me when confused.

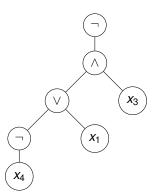
Syntax trees

- Every formula F can be represented by a syntax tree whose nodes are labelled with connectives or propositional variables.
- Subformulas of F correspond to all subtrees of F.

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- **Subformulas** of *F* correspond to all subtrees of *F*.

Example: syntax tree of $\neg((\neg x_4 \lor x_1) \land x_3)$:



Inductive definitions

Inductive definition of formulas allows us to define functions on formulas by **structural induction**, by defining the function

- for the base cases *true*, *false* and x_i , and
- for the induction steps $\neg F$, $F \land G$ and $F \lor G$.

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Example

The function $size: \mathcal{F}(X) \to \mathbb{N}$ returning the number of symbols in a given formula can be defined by:

- size(true) = size(false) = size(x) = 1;
- $size(\neg F) = 1 + size(F);$
- $size(F \land G) = size(F \lor G) = size(F) + size(G) + 1$.

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- $size(\neg F) = 1 + size(F);$
- $size(F \land G) = size(F \lor G) = size(F) + size(G) + 1$.
- Ex1: What is $size(\neg((\neg x_4 \lor x_1) \land x_3))$?
- Ex2: Define a function $sub: \mathcal{F}(X) \to 2^{\mathcal{F}(X)}$ that returns the set of all subformulas of a given formula.

Syntax vs semantics

The *syntax* tells us how we write something down, the *semantics* what it means:

- syntax: some formal language.
- semantics: some mathematical model.
- semantics should capture the 'essence' of what's going on.
- have to have semantics to prove anything about syntax.

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- semantics should capture the 'essence' of what's going on.
- have to have semantics to prove anything about syntax.
- our syntax: propositional formulas.
- our semantics: truth values {0, 1}.

Semantics of propositional logic

Definition

An **assignment** is a function $A: X \to \{0,1\}$. It induces a function $\hat{A}: \mathcal{F}(X) \to \{0,1\}$, called **assignment** again, by structural induction:

- $\hat{\mathcal{A}}(false) := 0, \hat{\mathcal{A}}(true) := 1.$
- **2** For every $x \in X$, $\hat{A}(x) := A(x)$.
- $\hat{\mathcal{A}}(\neg F) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F) = 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$
- $\hat{\mathcal{A}}(F \wedge G) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F) = 1 \text{ and } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(G) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$
- $\hat{\mathcal{A}}(F \vee G) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(F) = 1 \text{ or } \hat{\mathcal{A}}(G) = 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

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Ex: Let \mathcal{A} be an assignment s.t. $\mathcal{A}(x) = 1$ and $\mathcal{A}(y) = \mathcal{A}(z) = 0$. What are $\hat{\mathcal{A}}((x \land \neg y) \lor z)$ and $\hat{\mathcal{A}}(x \land (x \lor y) \land (y \lor \neg z))$?

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From now on we will not write the hat on top of A.

Example

| $\mathcal{A}(F)$ | $\mathcal{A}(G)$ | $\mathcal{A}(F \wedge G)$ | $\mathcal{A}(F)$ | $\mathcal{A}(G)$ | $A(F \vee G)$ |
|------------------|------------------|---------------------------|------------------|------------------|---------------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

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| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

| $\mathcal{A}(F)$ | $\mathcal{A}(G)$ | $A(F \rightarrow G)$ | $\mathcal{A}(F)$ | $\mathcal{A}(G)$ | $A(F \oplus G)$ |
|------------------|------------------|----------------------|------------------|------------------|-----------------|
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| 1 | 1 | 1 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

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Formalising natural language: an example

A device consists of a thermostat, a pump, and a warning light. Suppose we are told the following four facts about the pump:

- The thermostat or the pump (or both) are broken.
- If the thermostat is broken then the pump is also broken.
- If the pump is broken and the warning light is on then the thermostat is not broken.
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Ex: Is it possible for all four to be true at the same time? Express this question using a formula, and answer it using semantics.

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Answer:

$$F := (t \lor p) \land (t \to p) \land (p \land w \to \neg t) \land w$$

So, yes under A with A(t) = 0 and A(p) = A(w) = 1.

Truth table

$$F := (t \lor p) \land (t \to p) \land (p \land w \to \neg t) \land w$$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} t & p & w & f \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

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\end{array}$$

There is a unique assignment that makes F true. We can think of each assignment as describing a *possible world*, and there is only one world in which F is true.

Models, satisfiability and validity

Definition

Let $F \in \mathcal{F}(X)$ and $A \colon X \to \{0,1\}$ be an assignment.

- If A(F) = 1 then we write $A \models F$ ("F holds under A", or "A is a model of F", or "A satisfies F").
- If F has at least one model, then F is satisfiable. Otherwise, F is unsatisfiable.
- If F holds under any assignment $A: X \to \{0, 1\}$, then F is called **valid** or a **tautology**, written $\models F$.

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Definition

The **Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT)** is to decide whether a given formula $F \in \mathcal{F}(X)$ is satisfiable.

Ex: Suppose that we have a program for solving SAT. How to convert it to a checker for validity?

Models, satisfiability and validity

Example

The subsequent first two tautologies are known as the *distributive laws*, the last two as *de Morgan's laws*:

$$\models (F \lor (G \land H)) \leftrightarrow ((F \lor G) \land (F \lor H))$$

$$\models (F \land (G \lor H)) \leftrightarrow ((F \land G) \lor (F \land H))$$

$$\models \neg (F \land G) \leftrightarrow \neg F \lor \neg G$$

$$\models \neg (F \lor G) \leftrightarrow \neg F \land \neg G.$$

Ex: Prove the last two.

Entailment and equivalence

Definition (Entailment)

A formula G is a **consequence** of (or is **entailed** by) a set of formulas S if every assignment that satisfies all formulas in S also satisfies G. In this case, we write $S \models G$.

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Two formulas F and G are said to be **logically equivalent** if $\mathcal{A}(F) = \mathcal{A}(G)$ for every assignment \mathcal{A} . We write $F \equiv G$ to denote that F and G are equivalent.

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Propositional logic

Syntax and semantics of propositional logic

Encoding constraint problems into satisfiability problems

| | 2 | | 5 | | 1 | | 9 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8 | | | 2 | | က | | | 6 |
| | З | | | 6 | | | 7 | |
| | | 1 | | | | 6 | | |
| 5 | 4 | | | | | | 1 | 9 |
| | | 2 | | | | 7 | | |
| | 9 | | | 3 | | | 8 | |
| 2 | | | 8 | | 4 | | | 7 |
| | 1 | | 9 | | 7 | | 6 | |

How to encode an instance of Sudoku into the satisfiability of a propositional formula?

For each $i, j, k \in \{1, ..., 9\}$, we have a propositional variable $x_{i,j,k}$ expressing that *grid position* i, j *contains number* k.

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Build formula *F* as the conjunction of the following *constraints*:

Each number appears in each row and in each column:

Each number appears in each 3 × 3 block:

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$$F_1 := \bigwedge_{i=1}^{9} \bigwedge_{k=1}^{9} \bigvee_{j=1}^{9} x_{i,j,k}$$
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$$F_3 := \bigwedge_{u=0}^2 \bigwedge_{v=0}^2 \bigwedge_{k=1}^9 \bigvee_{i=1}^3 \bigvee_{j=1}^3 X_{3u+i,3v+j,k}$$

$$F_4 := \bigwedge_{i=1}^9 \bigwedge_{j=1}^9 \bigwedge_{1 \le k < k' \le 9} \neg (x_{i,j,k} \land x_{i,j,k'}).$$

• Certain numbers appear in certain positions: we assert

$$F_5 := x_{1,2,2} \wedge x_{2,1,8} \wedge x_{3,2,3} \wedge \ldots \wedge x_{9,8,6}$$
.

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

Missing constraints? What about: no number appears twice in the same row?

$$F_6 := \bigwedge_{i=1}^9 \bigwedge_{k=1}^9 \bigwedge_{1 \leq j < j' < 9} \neg (x_{i,j,k} \wedge x_{i,j',k})$$

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- Entailed by the existing formulas: adding F₆ as an extra constraint would not change the set of satisfying assignments.
- But adding logically redundant constraints may help a computer search for a satisfying assignment.
- The number of variables $x_{i,j,k}$ is $9^3 = 729$. Thus a truth table for the corresponding formula would have $2^{729} > 10^{200}$ lines! Nevertheless a modern SAT-solver can find a satisfying assignment in milliseconds.

Hamiltonian path

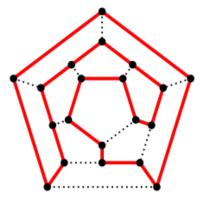


Figure: Example of a Hamiltonian path in an undirected graph.

How to encode an instance of the Hamiltonian path problem into the satisfiability of a propositional formula?

For each vertex $i, j \in \{1, ..., n\}$, we have propositional variables

- $x_{i,j}$ expressing that i is the jth vertex in the Hamiltonian path;
- $e_{i,j}$ expressing that there is an edge from vertex i to vertex j.

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$$F_4 := \bigwedge_{(i,j) \in E} e_{i,j} \wedge \bigwedge_{(i,j) \not \in E} \neg e_{i,j}.$$



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