

# Notes for Logic (COMP0009)

Raphael Li

Sep 2025

---

## Contents

<b>1</b>	<b>Introduction and revision</b>	<b>2</b>
1.1	Propositional logic . . . . .	2
1.1.1	Syntax . . . . .	2
1.1.2	Semantics . . . . .	2
1.2	First-order logic . . . . .	3
1.2.1	Syntax . . . . .	3
1.2.2	Semantics . . . . .	3
1.2.3	Example: Arithmetic in the set of natural numbers . . . . .	4
1.2.4	First-order structures and directed graphs . . . . .	5

# 1 Introduction and revision

Formally, a *logic* consists of three components:

Component	Describes...
Syntax	The language and grammar for writing formulas
Semantics	How formulas are interpreted
Inference system (or proof system)	A syntactic device for proving true statements

Table 1: The three key components of a logic.

This module concerns algorithms that automatically parse and determine the validity of a formula.

## 1.1 Propositional logic

### 1.1.1 Syntax

Formulas are constructed by applying negation, conjunction and disjunction to propositions.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{proposition} &:= p \mid q \mid r \mid \dots \\ \text{formula} &:= \text{proposition} \mid \neg \text{formula} \mid (\text{formula} \circ \text{formula}) \end{aligned} \quad (\text{where } \circ \text{ is } \wedge, \vee \text{ or } \rightarrow)$$

A proposition or its negation is called a *literal*<sup>1</sup>.

For any formula that isn't a proposition, the *main connective* is the one with the largest scope. In other words, it is not in the scope of any other connective.

$$((p \wedge q) \vee \neg(q \rightarrow r))$$

This is the connective with which evaluation begins. This is especially important when building parsers for algorithmically evaluating formulas.

### 1.1.2 Semantics

A valuation is a function  $v$  that maps each proposition to a truth value in  $\{\top, \perp\}$ .

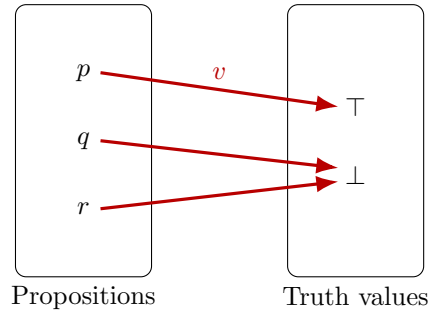


Figure 1: A valuation maps propositions to truth values.

A valuation  $v$  can be extended to a unique *truth function* defined on all possible formulas. A truth function  $v'$  must satisfy

$$\begin{aligned} v'(\neg\phi) = \top &\iff v'(\phi) = \perp \\ v'(\phi \vee \psi) = \top &\iff v'(\phi) = \top \text{ or } v'(\psi) = \top \\ v'(\phi \wedge \psi) = \top &\iff v'(\phi) = \top \text{ and } v'(\psi) = \top \\ v'(\phi \rightarrow \psi) = \top &\iff v'(\phi) = \perp \text{ or } v'(\psi) = \top \\ v'(\phi \leftrightarrow \psi) = \top &\iff v'(\phi) = v'(\psi) \end{aligned}$$

<sup>1</sup>For example,  $p$  and  $\neg p$  are both literals, but  $\neg\neg q$  is not.

for all formulas  $\phi$  and  $\psi$ . From now on we use  $v$  to denote the more general truth function.

The result of applying a valuation  $v$  to a formula  $\phi$  depends only on the propositional letters that occur in  $\phi$ .

A formula  $\phi$  is *valid* if  $v(\phi) = \top$  for all valuations  $v$ , which we denote as  $\models \phi$ . A formula  $\phi$  is *satisfiable* if  $v(\phi) = \top$  for at least one valuation  $v$ . All valid formulas are satisfiable, but *not* vice versa.

Two formulas  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  are *logically equivalent*, written as  $\phi \equiv \psi$ , if and only if for every valuation  $v$  we have  $v(\phi) = v(\psi)$ .

## 1.2 First-order logic

### 1.2.1 Syntax

A first-order language  $L(C, F, P)$  is determined by a set  $C$  of constant symbols, a set  $F$  of function symbols and a non-empty set  $P$  of predicate symbols. Each function symbol and predicate symbol has an associated *arity*  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We write  $f^n$  and  $p^n$  to represent an  $n$ -ary function symbol and an  $n$ -ary predicate symbol respectively. Moreover, let  $V$  be a countably infinite set of variable symbols.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{term} &:= c \mid v \mid f^n(\text{term}_0, \text{term}_1, \dots, \text{term}_{n-1}) && (\text{where } c \in C, v \in V \text{ and } f^n \in F) \\ \text{atom} &:= p^n(\text{term}_0, \text{term}_1, \dots, \text{term}_{n-1}) && (\text{where } p^n \in P) \\ \text{formula} &:= \text{atom} \mid \neg \text{formula} \mid (\text{formula}_0 \vee \text{formula}_1) \mid \exists v \text{ formula} && (\text{where } v \in V) \end{aligned}$$

A *closed term* is a term with no variable symbols. A *sentence* is a formula with no free variables.

### 1.2.2 Semantics

For a first-order language  $L(C, F, P)$ , we may construct a corresponding first-order structure<sup>2</sup>  $S = (D, I)$  where  $I = (I_c, I_f, I_p)$ .

$$S = ( \underbrace{D}_{\text{non-empty domain}}, \underbrace{(I_c, I_f, I_p)}_{\text{interpretation } I} )$$

Here,

- $I_c$  maps each constant symbol in  $C$  to an element of  $D$ .
- $I_f$  maps each  $n$ -ary function symbol in  $F$  to an  $n$ -ary function over  $D$ .
- $I_p$  maps each  $n$ -ary predicate symbol  $p \in P$  to an  $n$ -ary relation over  $D$  (i.e. a subset of  $D^n$ ).
- We may occasionally use  $I$  to denote an interpretation function where

$$\begin{aligned} I(c) &= I_c(c) && (\text{for all } c \in C) \\ I(f) &= I_f(f) && (\text{for all } f \in F) \\ I(p) &= I_p(p) && (\text{for all } p \in P) \end{aligned}$$

If  $P$  includes the equality symbol  $=$ , then it is always interpreted as the binary relation of true equality.

$$I_p(=) = \{(d, d) : d \in D\}$$

Given a structure  $S = (D, I)$ , a variable assignment  $A$  is a map from  $V$  to  $D$ . For any variable  $v \in V$ , two variable assignments  $A$  and  $A^*$  are said to be  $v$ -equivalent if  $A(x) = A^*(x)$  for all  $x \in V \setminus \{v\}$ .

---

<sup>2</sup>Also known as an  $L$ -structure.

In other words, two variable assignments are said to be  $v$ -equivalent if they are completely identical except possibly for the element in  $D$  assigned to  $v$ . This is written as  $A \equiv_v A^*$ .

Given a structure  $S$  and a variable assignment  $A$ , we may interpret any term as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} c^{S,A} &= I_c(c) \\ v^{S,A} &= A(v) \\ f^n(t_0, t_1, \dots, t_{n-1})^{S,A} &= \underbrace{(I_f(f^n))}_{\text{interpreted function}}(t_0^{S,A}, t_1^{S,A}, \dots, t_{n-1}^{S,A}) \end{aligned}$$

Formulas are evaluated as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} S \models_A p^n(t_0, t_1, \dots, t_{n-1}) &\iff (t_0^{S,A}, t_1^{S,A}, \dots, t_{n-1}^{S,A}) \in I_p(p^n) \\ S \models_A \neg \text{formula} &\iff S \not\models_A \text{formula} \\ S \models_A (\text{formula}_0 \vee \text{formula}_1) &\iff S \models_A \text{formula}_0 \text{ or } S \models_A \text{formula}_1 \\ S \models_A \exists v \text{ formula} &\iff S \models_{A[x \mapsto d]} \text{formula for some } d \in D \end{aligned}$$

Given a structure  $S$  and a formula  $\phi$ , we say that

- $\phi$  is “valid in  $S$ ” if  $S \models_A \phi$  for every variable assignment  $A$ . This is written as  $S \models \phi$ .
- $\phi$  is “satisfiable in  $S$ ” if  $S \models_A \phi$  for some variable assignment  $A$ .
- $\phi$  is “valid” if  $\phi$  is valid in all possible structures. This is written as  $\models \phi$ .
- $\phi$  is “satisfiable” if there exists some structure in which  $\phi$  is satisfiable.

A formula  $\phi$  is not valid if and only if  $\neg\phi$  is satisfiable.

If  $\phi$  is a sentence, then  $\phi$  is valid in  $S$  if and only if it is also satisfiable in  $S$ .

### 1.2.3 Example: Arithmetic in the set of natural numbers

Consider the first-order language  $L(C, F, P)$  defined as follows. Also assume a countably infinite set  $V$  of variable symbols.

$$\begin{aligned} C &= 1, 2, 3, \dots && \text{(constant symbols)} \\ F &= \{+, \times\} && \text{(function symbols, both binary)} \\ P &= \{=, <\} && \text{(predicate symbols, both binary)} \\ V &= \{x, y, z, \dots\} && \text{(variable symbols)} \end{aligned}$$

A term is a string of symbols that represents a “thing” or an “object” — this could be a constant, a variable, or anything outputted by a function.

- $x$
- $1 + 3$
- $2 \times x + 1$

Of the terms shown above, only the second one is a closed terms because it has no variable symbols.

An atom is a string of symbols that represents the output of a predicate, which is a truth value.

- $1 = 2$

- $y < 3$
- $x + 1 < 2 \times z + 3$

Finally, a formula is constructed by applying conjunctions, disjunctions, negations and quantifiers to atoms.

- $1 = 2 \wedge y < 3$
- $\neg \exists z \ x + 1 < 2 \times z + 3$

The latter example is a sentence because all of its variable symbols are bounded.

For this particular first-order language, we may use the structure of ordinary arithmetic<sup>3</sup>, defined as  $N = \{\mathbb{N}, \{I_c, I_f, I_p\}\}$  where

- $I_c$  is a function that maps numerical symbols to the corresponding natural number.

$$\begin{aligned} I_c(1) &= 1 \\ I_c(2) &= 2 \\ I_c(3) &= 3 \\ &\vdots \end{aligned}$$

- $I_f$  maps  $+$  and  $\times$  to the addition and multiplication operations in arithmetic respectively.
- $I_p$  maps  $=$  and  $<$  to the following relations.

$$\begin{aligned} I_p(=) &= \{(n, n) : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \\ I_p(<) &= \{(m, n) \in \mathbb{N}^2 : m < n\} \end{aligned}$$

#### 1.2.4 First-order structures and directed graphs

Consider a first-order language with only one binary predicate symbol  $p$ .

$$L(C, F, \{p\})$$

Any first-order structure  $S = \{D, \{I_c, I_f, I_p\}\}$  for this language can be represented as a directed graph, where each vertex is an element of  $D$  and each directed edge represents an element of the relation  $I_p(p)$ .

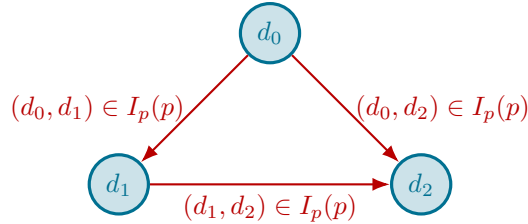


Figure 2: The first-order structure  $S$  can be visualised as a directed graph.

<sup>3</sup>There is also a similar structure  $R = (\mathbb{R}, I)$  where the domain is the set of real numbers.