PROPOSITIONAL LOGIC

- Logic deals with the formalization of natural language and reasoning methods.
- A **proposition** is a sentence that is either true or false, but not both.
- Propositional logic is the study of:
 - the structure (syntax) and
 - the meaning (semantics) of (simple and complex) propositions (true / false).
- Propositional logic is the basis of day to day reasoning.
- It is the theory behind logical circuits
- It is part of more complex logics (e.g., first-order logic also called predicate logic)
- Key questions are:
 - * How is the truth value of a complex proposition obtained from the truth value of its simpler components?
 - * How do you prove that a complex proposition is true?

Examples

- Simple propositions include:
 - I passed the exam.
 - -5+1=6
 - -426 > 1721
 - It is 52 degrees outside right now.
- Some *complex* propositions are:
 - John is five and Mary is six.
 - I passed the exam or I did not pass it.
- Sentences which are not propositions include:
 - Did Bill get an 20 on the exam?
 - Go away!

Propositional Formulas

- Propositions are built from propositional variables, which represent simple propositions, and symbols representing logical connectives such as and, or, not, etc.
- We use the letters p, q, r, s, \ldots to denote propositional variables and the symbols such as \land , \lor , \neg , \rightarrow , and \iff to denote the standard logical connectives.
- Example 1 of proposition: I passed the exam or I did not pass it.

Corresponding formula: $p \lor \neg p$

• Example 2 of proposition: If I do not pass the exam I will fail the course.

Corresponding formula: $\neg p \rightarrow q$

Truth tables

A truth table for a formula lists all possible "situations" of truth or falsity, depending on the values assigned to the propositional variables of the formula.

¬:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} p & \neg p \\ \hline \mathsf{T} & \mathsf{F} \\ \mathsf{F} & \mathsf{T} \end{array}$$

\:\:

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} p & q & p \wedge q \\ \hline T & T & T \\ T & F & F \\ F & T & F \\ F & F & F \end{array}$$

\:

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} p & q & p \lor q \\ \hline T & T & T \\ T & F & T \\ F & T & T \\ F & F & F \end{array}$$

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$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} p & q & p \rightarrow q \\ \hline T & T & T \\ T & F & F \\ F & T & T \\ F & F & T \end{array}$$

$\bullet \iff :$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} p & q & p & \Longleftrightarrow & q \\ \hline T & T & T & T \\ T & F & F \\ F & T & F \\ F & F & T \end{array}$$

• Example 1: $p \land \neg q$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} p & q & \neg q & p \wedge \neg q \\ \hline T & T & F & F \\ T & F & T & T \\ F & T & F & F \\ F & F & T & F \end{array}$$

• Example 2: $p \wedge (q \vee r)$ (read "p and, in addition, q or r")

p	q	r	$q \lor r$	$p \wedge (q \vee r)$
T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	T
T	F	Т	T	T
T	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	F
F	T	F	T	F
F	F	Т	T	F
F	F	F	F	F

ullet How many rows are there in a truth table with n propositional variables?

For n=1, there are two rows, for n=2, there are four rows, for n=3, there are eight rows, and so on.

Do you see a pattern?

Tautologies and Contradictions

- A tautology is a formula that is always true, no matter which truth values we assign to its variables.
- $p \vee \neg p$ is a tautology

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} p & \neg p & p \lor \neg p \\ \hline \mathsf{T} & \mathsf{F} & \mathsf{T} \\ \mathsf{F} & \mathsf{T} & \mathsf{T} \end{array}$$

- A contradiction is a formula that is always false.
- $p \land \neg p$ is a contradiction

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} p & \neg p & p \wedge \neg p \\ \hline \mathsf{T} & \mathsf{F} & \mathsf{F} \\ \mathsf{F} & \mathsf{T} & \mathsf{F} \end{array}$$

• Tautologies and contradictions are related.

Theorem: If α is a tautology (resp. contradiction) then $\neg \alpha$ is a contradiction (resp. tautology).

Logical Equivalence

 If two formulas evaluate to the same truth value in all situations, so that their truth tables are the same, they are said to be logically equivalent.

We write $\alpha \equiv q$.

• Example 1:

Is $\neg(p \land q)$ logically equivalent to $\neg p \land \neg q$?

p	q	$(p \wedge q)$	$\neg(p \land q)$	$ \neg p$	$\neg q$	$\neg p \wedge \neg q$
T	T	Т	F	F	F	F
T	F	F	Т	F	T	F
F	T	F	Т	T	F	F
F	F	F	Т	T	T	Т

Lines 2 and 3 prove that this is not the case.

• Example 2:

Is $\neg(p \land q)$ logically equivalent to $\neg p \lor \neg q$?

p	q	$(p \wedge q)$	$\neg (p \land q)$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$\neg p \vee \neg q$
T	T	T	F	F	F	F
T	F	F	Т	F	T	T
F	Т	F	T	T	F	T
F	F	F	Т	T	T	Т

Yes, $\neg(p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$.

De Morgan's Laws

• There are a number of important equivalences, including the following **De Morgan's Laws**:

$$\neg(p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$$

$$\neg(p \lor q) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q$$

These equivalences can be used to transform a formula into a logically equivalent one of a certain syntactic form (called a "normal form").

Some Logical Equivalences

You can prove each of these:

Commutativity of \wedge : $p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$

Commutativity of \vee : $p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$

Associativity of \wedge : $p \wedge (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \wedge r$

Associativity of \vee : $p \vee (q \vee r) \equiv (p \vee q) \vee r$

Idempotence: $p \equiv p \land p \equiv p \lor p$

Absorption: $p \equiv p \land (p \lor q) \equiv p \lor (p \land q)$

Distributivity of \wedge : $p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$

Distributivity of \vee : $p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$

De Morgan's Law for \wedge : $\neg(p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$

De Morgan's Law for \vee : $\neg(p \lor q) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q$

Double Negation: $p \equiv \neg \neg p$

Contradictions: $p \wedge F \equiv F \equiv p \wedge \neg p$

Identities: $p \wedge T \equiv p \equiv p \vee F$

Tautologies: $p \lor \neg p \equiv T \equiv p \lor T$

Deriving Logical Equivalences

- We can establish logical equivalence either symbolically (Symbolic proofs) or via truth tables.
- Example: $(p \land q) \equiv (p \lor \neg q) \land q$ Proof: (which laws are used at each step?)

$$(p \vee \neg q) \wedge q \equiv q \wedge (p \vee \neg q) \qquad (1)$$

$$\equiv (q \wedge p) \vee (q \wedge \neg q) \qquad (2)$$

$$\equiv (q \wedge p) \vee F \qquad (3)$$

$$\equiv (q \wedge p) \qquad (4)$$

$$\equiv (p \wedge q) \qquad (5)$$

Modus Ponens

- Instead of using truth tables, we will use syntactic methods to do proofs
- Modus Ponens (Latin for "method of affirming") is the following inference rule:

From $(\alpha \to \beta)$ and α , infer β .

$$\begin{array}{c} \alpha \to \beta \\ \alpha \\ \hline \vdots \beta \end{array}$$

Example of the Modus Ponens

- If we assume that:
 - (1) if it is raining then today must be Monday, and
 - -(2) it is raining,
 - then we can conclude that (3) today must be Monday.

But why?

- Let r denote the proposition "it is raining".
- Let m denote "today must be Monday".

Then $((r \to m) \land r) \to m$ is a tautology, so m is a logical consequence of $(r \to m)$ and r.

Modus Tollens

• Modus Tollens (Latin for "method of denying"):

From $(\alpha \to \beta)$ and $\neg \beta$, infer $\neg \alpha$.

$$\begin{array}{c} \alpha \to \beta \\ \neg \beta \\ \hline \vdots \neg \alpha \end{array}$$

Sherlock Holmes in Action

"And now we come to the great question as to the reason why. Robbery has not been the object of this murder, for nothing was taken. Was it politics, or was it a woman? That is the question confronting me. I was inclined from the first to the latter supposition. Political assassins are only too glad to do their work and fly. This murder had, on the contrary, been done most deliberately and the perpetrator had left his tracks all over the room, showing he had been there all the time." – A. Conan Doyle, A Study in Scarlet

What did Sherlock Holmes conclude?

Knowledge and Reasoning

- We can break the story into the following propositions:
- P1: It was robbery.
- P2: Nothing was taken.
- P3: It was politics.
- P4: It was a woman.
- P5: The assassin left immediately.
- P6: The assassin left tracks all over the room.
- Holmes identifies the following premises defined on these propositions:
- $-P2 \rightarrow \neg P1$
- P2
- $-P1 \lor (P3 \lor P4)$
- $-P3 \rightarrow P5$
- $-P6 \rightarrow \neg P5$
- *P*6
- \bullet Conclusion: P4! Prove that P4 is true based on the premises.

Logic Propositional is Decidable

- A problem is decidable if there is exist an algorithm to solve it
- Examples of undecidable problems
 - Halting problem: There exists no algorithm that can decide that a program terminates or not
 - First-order / predicate logic: It is undecidable whether a first order logic formula is provable (or true under all possible interpretations)
- Propositional logic is decidable and NP-complete. We can determine if α is a tautology by constructing its truth table or we do a symbolic proof of α . The algorithm using truth tables is exponential. Making a proof requires a set of inference (e.g., Natural Deduction developped by Gentzen and Prawitz).

Homework

• Read: Slides

- Revise: NP-complet, P, decidable, undecidable. Provide, in Slack (lesson 2), an example of a decidable problem and an undecidable one. Using the format: Name of the problem, description (3 lines answers that are more than 3 lines will not be accepted) (Use your own words!)
- Do the proof of slide 12
- Do the proof of slide 17