

Propositional and Predicate Logic

Course on Discrete Maths

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Why "Formal Concepts in Computer Science"?

An (incomplete) list of arguments:

- Concrete knowledge
 - Common knowledge for computer scientists,
 - Common frame of reference, and
 - Prerequisite/advantage in future courses and projects.
- Meta-level knowledge, aid in providing
 - Abstract thinking,
 - Cogent reasoning,
 - Precise argumentation, and
 - Precise descriptions.



Introduction (I)

 Logic is a branch of mathematics used for precise reasoning, e.g. helpful in doing proofs and also used in programming languages:

```
while ( x < 5 \&\& (y != 8 || x <= 8) )
if ( x + y > 13 \&\& x > 2 \&\& !(y < 10) ) ...
else ...
```

Propositional logic is a simple logic:

$$P,\ Q:=p\mid \overline{P}\mid P\land Q\mid P\lor Q\mid P\veebar Q\mid P\rightarrow Q\mid P\leftrightarrow Q$$
 where p is a basic (atomic) **proposition** e.g. *the rose is red*

• its extension with variables and quantifiers

$$P, Q ::= \ldots \mid x \mid (\forall x)P \mid (\exists x)P$$

is called predicate logic.





Logic is used to establish the truth value, false (F) or true (T), of statements. Some **propositions** are always true or false

A triangle has three sides
 London is in Denmark

but the value of others may depend on the context

It's raining
 The sun is shining
 I'm getting wet

Not all propositions are basic, they may also be *compound* by logical connectives

- If it's raining then I'm getting wet
- If the sun is shining then it's not raining



Introduction (III)

Propositional Logic can be considered as a mathematical model to investigate certain *arguments* i.e. find a proof.

Given the propositions

- If it's not raining then I'm not getting wet
- If the sun is shining then it's not raining
- The sun is shining

we can then conclude

I'm not getting wet

Later we shall see how to prove formally this kind of things



Overview (Logic)

Propositional Logic

Logical Connectives

Tautologies

Logical Equivalence and Logical Implication

Arguments and Inference Rules

Predicate Logic

Universal and Existential Quantification

Arguments and Inference Rules

Two-place/n-ary Predicates

Negation of Quantified Predicates



Compound Proposition: Negation

• Denoted by: \overline{p} (sometimes also by $\neg p$, \tilde{p} , neg(p))

ullet Meaning: \overline{p} is false whenever p is true, and vice versa

• Example: $\begin{array}{rcl} p & = & \textit{It's raining} \\ \overline{p} & = & \textit{it's not raining} \end{array}$

• We can formally define it using a **truth table**:

$p \mid$	$\mid \overline{p} \mid$
T	\overline{F}
$\mid F \mid$	$\mid T \mid$



Compound Proposition: Conjunction

• Denoted by: $p \wedge q$ (it is also called **and**, binary operator)

• Meaning:

 $p \wedge q$ is true whenever both p and q are true, otherwise it's false

• Example:

It's raining and I'm getting wet.

$$egin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline P & q & P \wedge q \\ \hline T & T & T \\ T & F & F \\ \hline F & T & F \\ F & F & F \\ \hline \end{array}$$



Compound Proposition: Disjunction

• Denoted by: $p \lor q$ (it is also called **or**, binary operator)

• Meaning:

 $p \lor q$ is true whenever either p or q is true (or both), otherwise it's false

• Example:

It's raining or I'm getting wet.



What if two propositions, say *it's raining* and *the sun is shining*, should not be true simultaneously?

Inclusive disjunction is not appropriate.





• Denoted by: $p \vee q$ (also by \oplus , called **xor**, binary operator)

Meaning:

 $p\underline{\vee}q$ is true whenever either p or q is true (exclusively), otherwise it's false

• Example:

It's raining xor the sun is shining

$$egin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline F & Q & F & Q \\ \hline T & T & F \\ T & F & T \\ F & F & F \\ \hline \end{array}$$



Compound Proposition: Conditional

• Denoted by: $p \rightarrow q$ (also by \Rightarrow , \supset , aka **logical implication**)

• Meaning:

if p holds then also q must be true, however if pis false no requirement on q is posed

• Example:

If it's raining then I'm getting wet



Compound Proposition: Bidirectional

• Denoted by: $p \leftrightarrow q$ (also by iff, \Leftrightarrow , aka logical equivalence)

• Meaning: p and q have the same value

• Example: it's raining if and only if I'm getting wet



Example (I)

Let's construct the truth table for the compound proposition

$$(\overline{p} \lor q) \leftrightarrow (p \rightarrow q)$$



Example (II)

Let's construct the truth table for the compound proposition

$$(\overline{p} \lor q) \leftrightarrow (p \to q)$$



Example (III)

Let's construct the truth table for the following compound proposition

$$(\overline{p} \lor q) \leftrightarrow (p \to q)$$



Example (IV)

Let's construct the truth table for the following compound proposition

$$(\overline{p} \lor q) \leftrightarrow (p \to q)$$



Example (V)

Let's construct the truth table for the following compound proposition

$$(\overline{p} \lor q) \leftrightarrow (p \to q)$$

Tautologies



... some compound propositions are always true!

• A **tautology** is a proposition which is true no matter what the truth values of its simple components are.

 \bullet For example: $\boxed{p \vee \overline{p}}$ and $\boxed{(\overline{p} \vee q) \leftrightarrow (p \to q)}$

p	$ \overline{p} $	$p \vee \overline{p}$
T	$\mid F \mid$	T
T	$\mid F \mid$	T
F	$\mid T \mid$	T
F	$\mid T \mid$	T

p	q	$ \overline{p} $	$ \overline{p} \lor q $	$p \rightarrow q$	$(\overline{p} \vee q) \leftrightarrow (p \to q)$
T	$\mid T \mid$	$\mid F \mid$	T	T	T
T	F	$\mid F \mid$	F	F	T
F	T	$\mid T \mid$	T	$\mid T \mid$	T
$\mid F \mid$	F	$\mid T$	$\mid T \mid$	$\mid T \mid$	\mid T



Tautologies: Exercises

• Exercise: Show $[\overline{\overline{p}}\leftrightarrow p]$, $[p\wedge p\leftrightarrow p]$, $[p\vee p\leftrightarrow p]$, $[p\wedge T\leftrightarrow p]$ and $[p\vee F\leftrightarrow p]$ are tautologies.

• **Exercise:** Show $\overline{p \wedge q} \leftrightarrow \overline{p} \vee \overline{q}$ and $\overline{p \vee q} \leftrightarrow \overline{p} \wedge \overline{q}$ are tautologies (De Morgan's Laws).

- ullet Exercise: Show $\overline{(p o (q o r)) \leftrightarrow ((p \wedge q) o r)}$ is a tautology.
- ullet Exercise: Show $\overline{(p o q) \leftrightarrow (\overline{q} o \overline{p})}$ is a tautology.



Logical Equivalence

Two propositions p and q are <u>logically equivalent</u> if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology

- If p and q are logically equivalent we write $p \equiv q$.
- \bullet Example: $(\overline{p}\vee q)\equiv (p\to q)$ as $(\overline{p}\vee q)\leftrightarrow (p\to q)$ is a tautology
- Example: $(p \to q) \equiv (\overline{q} \to \overline{p})$ as $(p \to q) \leftrightarrow (\overline{q} \to \overline{p})$ is a tautology

Logically equivalent propositions can be interchanged in a compound proposition without altering its truth value.

• Example: $p \land (\overline{p} \lor q) \equiv p \land (p \to q)$ as $(\overline{p} \lor q) \equiv (p \to q)$



Logical Implication

A proposition p <u>logically implies</u> proposition q if $p \rightarrow q$ is a tautology.

• If p logically implies q we write $p \vdash q$.

Example $p \land (p \rightarrow q) \vdash q$ because $(p \land (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$ is a tautology.

Example $(p \to q) \vdash (\overline{q} \to \overline{p})$ because $(p \to q) \to (\overline{q} \to \overline{p})$ is a tautology.

Arguments (1)



An **argument** consists of **premises** (propositions P_1, \ldots, P_n) and a **conclusion** (a proposition Q) supposed to follow logically from the premises.

The argument with premises P_1, \ldots, P_n and conclusion Q is **valid** if

$$P_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge P_n \vdash Q$$

i.e. if the premises logically implies the conclusion.



Arguments (2)

Examples.

We may show an argument to be correct using truth tables, or we can reason at a higher level using generally valid rules (inference rules)



Inference Rules (I)

To help showing that a conclusion follows logically from a set of premises we may apply **inference rules** on the form:

$$\begin{array}{c} p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_n \\ \hline \vdots \\ q \end{array}$$

The validity of the rule is ensured if $(p_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge p_n) \to q$ is a tautology.



Inference Rules (II)

$$\underbrace{\frac{\overline{q}}{p \to q}}_{\text{:.} \, \overline{p}} \qquad \text{(based on } [\overline{q} \land (p \to q)] \to \overline{p}\text{)}$$

Example



Example Let p be *it's raining*, let q be l'm getting wet, and let r be the sun is shining. Let's argue that $(q \to p) \land (r \to \overline{p}) \land r \vdash \overline{q}$.

Given premises $q \to p$, $r \to \overline{p}$, and r the following steps show the conclusion \overline{q} follows logically from the premises:

```
1 r (premise)
```

2
$$r \rightarrow \overline{p}$$
 (premise)

3 \overline{p} (from 1 and 2 using Modus Ponens)

4
$$q \rightarrow p$$
 (premise)

5 \overline{q} (from 3 and 4 using Modus Tollens)

Notice the importance of the order of the steps.

Exercise Let p, q, and r be as above. What about the correctness of the argument $(p \to q) \land (r \to \overline{p}) \land r \vdash \overline{q}$?





In propositional logic we may state

Peter is a human being and Ann is a human being.

However, we have no means to express that the two propositions are about the same general property: *is a human being.*

A **predicate** P(x) describes a property, say

x is a human being.

where x is a free **variable** that may be substituted by values in the **universe of discourse** (UoD) of the predicate.

We can write the two propositions above as P(Peter) and P(Ann).



Predicate Logic (II)

Predicate Logic can be considered a model to investigate certain arguments, arguments that can't be expressed in propositional logic.

Given the following propositions as premises

All human beings are mammals

Peter is a human being

We should be able to conclude that

Peter is a mammal.

This immediate raises the two questions:

- How to express propositions like the first premise?
- How to provide rules to help judge the validity of the argument?



Universal Quantification

The proposition

All human beings are intelligent.

can be expressed in predicate logic using universal quantification.

If I(x) describes

x is intelligent

and H(x) describes

x is a human being.

then the proposition above can be defined by $\overline{(\forall x)[H(x) o I(x)]}$

If it's understood that the UoD is human beings, we may write $(\forall x)I(x)$ instead.



Existential Quantification

If M(x) describes

x is a mammal.

Then the proposition

Not all mammals are human beings.

can be expressed by (¬ is negation) $\boxed{\neg(\forall x)[M(x) \to H(x)]}$

Alternatively, using existential quantification we may write

$$\boxed{(\exists x)[M(x) \land \neg H(x)]}$$

or alternatively, if the UoD is mammals, $(\exists x)[\neg H(x)]$ saying that (at least) one mammal is not a human being.



Arguments in Predicate Logic

• What about the argument on slide 30, is it sound?

We can represent the premises by

$$(\forall x)[H(x) o M(x)]$$
 and $H(\textit{Peter})$

ullet But how to conclude $\overline{M(\textit{Peter})}$

• to formally do so we need inference rules about how to interpret quantifications.



Inference Rules for Universal Quantification

Universal Specification

If $(\forall x)P(x)$ is true then P(a) is true for every element a in UoD.

$$\frac{(\forall x)P(x)}{\therefore P(a) \text{ if } a \text{ in UoD}}$$

Universal Generalization

If P(a) is true for every element a in UoD then $(\forall x)P(x)$ is true.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|}\hline P(a) & \textit{for any } a & \textit{in UoD}\\ \hline \therefore (\forall x) P(x) & \\ \end{array}$$

Inference Rules for Quantification of Company of Compan

Existential Specification

If $(\exists x)P(x)$ is true then P(a) is true for (at least) one element a in UoD.

Existential Generalization

If P(a) is true for some element a in UoD then $(\exists x)P(x)$ is true.

$$\begin{array}{c} P(a) \text{ for some } a \text{ in UoD} \\ \therefore (\exists x) P(x) \end{array}$$

Example



Given the premises

$$(\forall x)[H(x) \to M(x)]$$

and

the following steps show that the the conclusion ${\cal M}(a)$ follows logically from the premises:

- 1 $(\forall x)[H(x) \rightarrow M(x)]$ (premise)
- 2 $H(a) \rightarrow M(a)$ (from 1 using Universal Specification)
- 3 H(a) (premise)
- 4 M(a) (from 3 and 2 using Modus Ponens)





Exercise Translate the following into symbolic form:

- *i*) Everybody likes him.
- ii) Somebody cried out for help and called the police.
- iii) Nobody can ignore her.

Define your predicates, and consider the UoD.

Exercise Find an UoD and two unary predicates P(x) and Q(x) such that $(\forall x)[P(x) \to Q(x)]$ is true.

Exercise Find an UoD and two unary predicates P(x) and Q(x) such that $(\exists x)[P(x) \land Q(x)]$ is false but $(\exists x)P(x) \land (\exists x)Q(x)$ is true.

Exercise Show that $(\forall x)P(x) \vdash (\exists x)P(x)$.

Exercise Given the premises $(\exists x)P(x)$ and $(\forall x)[P(x) \to Q(x)]$ give a series of steps concluding that $(\exists x)Q(x)$.



Two-place Predicates (I)

Consider properties like

is larger than and lives in the same city as

We need two variables in order to define predicates describing such properties

Let L(x, y) be the predicate

x lives in the same city as y

A single quantification, e.g. $(\forall x)L(x,y)$ leaves one variable free (and defines a predicate), so we must quantify over both x and y to make a proposition:

$$(\forall x)(\forall y)L(x,y), \quad (\forall x)(\exists y)L(x,y), \quad (\exists x)(\forall y)L(x,y), \quad (\exists x)(\exists y)L(x,y)$$
$$(\forall y)(\forall x)L(x,y), \quad (\forall y)(\exists x)L(x,y), \quad (\exists y)(\forall x)L(x,y), \quad (\exists y)(\exists x)L(x,y)$$



Two-place Predicates (II)

The order of the quantifications may be important, for instance letting UoD be Danish citizens then

$$(\exists y)(\forall x)L(x,y)$$

means that (at least) one Danish citizen lives in the same city as all other Danish citizens which is (hard to believe and) not the same as

$$(\forall x)(\exists y)L(x,y)$$

On the other hand

$$(\forall x)(\forall y)L(x,y) \equiv (\forall y)(\forall x)L(x,y)$$

and

$$(\exists x)(\exists y)L(x,y) \equiv (\exists y)(\exists x)L(x,y)$$

Exercise Give an intuitive argument for the validity of the logical equivalences above.

Negation of Quantified Predicates of Company of Company

The proposition

$$\neg(\forall x)P(x)$$

states that it's not the case that all a (in the UoD) satisfies P(x), this is that same as

$$(\exists x)[\neg P(x)]$$

SO

$$\neg(\forall x)P(x) \equiv (\exists x)[\neg P(x)]$$

likewise

$$\neg(\exists x)P(x) \equiv (\forall x)[\neg P(x)]$$

Exercise (Difficult) Show $\neg(\forall x)(\exists y)P(x,y) \vdash (\exists x)(\forall y)[\neg P(x,y)]$. Hint: $(\exists y)P(x,y)$ is a predicate over x.