

Propositional Logic: Part I - Semantics

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Outline

- What is propositional logic?
- Logical connectives
- Semantics of propositional logic
- Tautologies & Logical equivalence
Applications:
 1. Building the world with NAND
 2. Normal Forms & minimizing gate delays
- Logical implication, Valid arguments & Semantic entailment \models

A Bit of Notation

Consider negation on the real numbers \mathbb{R} :

$$f(x) = -x$$

Then $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the signature of f meaning f takes a real argument and produce a real.

Here $-$ is a *unary prefix* operator meaning it takes one argument, the number immediately following $-$ (e.g., $-(5) = -5$). So really

$$- : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Similarly $+$: $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$+$ is a *binary* operator on \mathbb{R} so we could treat it as a prefix operator and write $+(3,5)=8$.

But this is tedious so we use *infix* notation and write $3 + 5 = 8$.

What is Propositional Logic?

Def: A *proposition* is a statement that is either true or false.

E.g. p : “The prof looks tired.”

q : “We’re hungry and not able to eat.”

Propositional logic is a formal mathematical system for reasoning about such statements.

The first statement p is an *atomic proposition*. It cannot be further subdivided.

The 2nd statement q is a *compound proposition* that’s truth depends upon the value of the two atomic propositions:

1. h : “We are hungry.”
2. e : “We are able eat.”

The *logical connectives* “and” and “not” determine how the atomic proposition affect q .

Restating q in the formal language of propositional logic:

$$q : h \wedge \neg e$$

Logical Connectives

Let T and F represent true and false respectively.

Define $\mathcal{V} := \{T, F\}$, the set of possible truth values for a proposition. In the following let p, q be propositional variables.

Negation: \neg (NOT)

$\neg : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$

p	$\neg p$
F	T
T	F

A *truth table* is tabular representation of the truth values of a proposition under all possible assignments. The above is the table for $\neg p$. Clearly it defines a function.

Truth tables define the meaning or interpretation propositions. We call this the *semantics* of the propositional logic.

Conjunction: \wedge (AND)

$$\wedge : \mathcal{V}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$$

p	q	$p \wedge q$
F	F	F
F	T	F
T	F	F
T	T	T

Other English equivalents: “p but q” - “The students are interested but look bored.”

Disjunction: \vee (OR)

$$\vee : \mathcal{V}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$$

p	q	$p \vee q$
F	F	F
F	T	T
T	F	T
T	T	T

Note: This is a “non-exclusive OR”. Why?

Conditional: \rightarrow (IMPLIES)

$\rightarrow: \mathcal{V}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$
F	F	T
F	T	T
T	F	F
T	T	T

Other English equivalents: “If p then q ”, “ p only if q ”, “ q if p ”, “ p is sufficient for q ”, “ q is necessary for p ”.

Biconditional: \leftrightarrow (IFF)

$\leftrightarrow: \mathcal{V}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$

p	q	$p \leftrightarrow q$
F	F	T
F	T	F
T	F	F
T	T	T

Other English equivalents: “ p if and only if q ”, “ p is equivalent to q ”, “ p is necessary and sufficient for q ”

Precedence of Logical Connectives

We write: $-5 \cdot 2 + 10/5 - 8$ and know that it means: $((-(5) \cdot 2) + (10/5)) - 8$ because the operators of arithmetic have the implicit order of precedence

\rightarrow decreasing order \rightarrow
 Do 1st $\langle \text{-----} \rangle$ Do last
 $\quad \quad \quad \cdot \quad \quad +$
 $\quad \quad \quad - , / , -$

We say that operators with a higher order of precedence “have a tighter binding”.

Similarly for logical connectives we define the order of precedence as:

Do 1st $\langle \text{-----} \rangle$ Do last
 $\quad \quad \quad \wedge \quad \quad \rightarrow$
 $\quad \quad \quad \neg , \vee , \leftrightarrow$

Thus $((p \wedge \neg(q)) \rightarrow r)$ becomes: $p \wedge \neg q \rightarrow r$

Properties of Binary Operators

Def: A binary operator $*$: $\mathcal{V}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is *commutative* if for all values of $p, q \in \mathcal{V}$:

$$p * q = q * p$$

E.g. Addition and multiplication are commutative over the reals but division is not.

$\wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow$ are commutative

but \rightarrow is not!

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$q \rightarrow p$
F	F	T	T
F	T	T	F
T	F	F	T
T	T	T	T

Properties of Binary Operators

Def: A binary operator $*$: $\mathcal{V}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$ is *associative* if for all values of $p, q, r \in \mathcal{V}$:

$$(p * q) * r = p * (q * r)$$

E.g. $+$ and \cdot are associative over the reals but $/$ is not (e.g. $(4/2)/2 = 1$ but $4/(2/2) = 4$).

$\wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow$ are associative. Therefore $(p \wedge q) \wedge r$ and $p \wedge (q \wedge r)$ “mean the same thing” so we write $p \wedge q \wedge r$.

(Similar to writing $5 \cdot 2 \cdot 4$ for integer mult.)

Note: $(p \wedge q) \vee r$ is NOT “equivalent” to $p \wedge (q \vee r)$! (Check using truth tables.)

\rightarrow is not associative!

	p	q	r	$(p \rightarrow q)$	$\rightarrow r$	$p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r)$
0	F	F	F	T	F	T
1	F	F	T	T		T
2	F	T	F	T		F
3	F	T	T	T		
4	T	F	F			
5	T	F	T			
6	T	T	F			
7	T	T	T			

Row 0 of the truth table provides counter example so we can stop.

Note that there are 2^3 rows numbered 0 to $7 = 2^3 - 1$.

In general, a truth table for compound proposition will have 2^n rows, where $n =$ number of unique propositional variables occurring in the expression.

Count in binary with F being 0 and T being 1 to cover all cases.

Tautologies and Contradictions

Def: A logical expression is a *tautology* (*contradiction*) if it is true (false) under all possible assignments to its propositional variables.

E.g. $p \vee \neg p$ is a tautology since its truth table results in all T 's while $p \wedge \neg p$ is a contradiction:

p	$\neg p$	$p \vee \neg p$	$p \wedge \neg p$
F	T	T	F
T	F	T	F

The negation of any tautology is a contradiction and vice versa. Why?

If S is a tautology, then so is any substitution instance of it (i.e. consistently replacing variables with any other formulas results in a tautology!).

E.g. $(p \rightarrow q) \vee \neg(p \rightarrow q)$ is a tautology.

Logical (Semantic) Equivalence

Def: Two propositional formulas are *logically equivalent* if they have the same truth table.

This means the propositions define the same function from \mathcal{V}^n to \mathcal{V} where $n :=$ number of propositional variables in the formulas.

E.g. The formulas $\neg(p \wedge q)$ and $\neg p \vee \neg q$ define the same function $f : \mathcal{V}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$

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

Logical (Semantic) Equivalence (cont)

Note that $\neg(p \wedge q)$ and $\neg p \vee \neg q$ are logically equivalent iff $\neg(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow \neg p \vee \neg q$ is a tautology. Why?

p	q	$\neg(p \wedge q)$	$\neg p \vee \neg q$	$\neg(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow \neg p \vee \neg q$
F	F	T	T	
F	T	T	T	
T	F	T	T	
T	T	F	F	

This is why Rubin refers to logical equivalence as *tautological equivalence* and when ϕ is logically equivalent to ψ writes:

$$\phi \Leftrightarrow \psi$$

Huth+Ryan refer logical equivalence as *semantic equivalence* and write:

$$\phi \equiv \psi$$

It all means the same thing. The formulas have the same truth table.

Building the World with NAND

NAND: (Negation of AND)

NAND : $\mathcal{V}^2 \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$

p	q	$p \text{ NAND } q$	$\neg(p \wedge q)$
F	F	T	T
F	T	T	T
T	F	T	T
T	T	F	F

Thus $p \text{ NAND } q \equiv \neg(p \wedge q)$

“ $p \text{ NAND } q$ is logically equivalent to $\neg(p \wedge q)$ ”

$\neg p \equiv T \text{ NAND } p$

p	$\neg p$	$T \text{ NAND } p$
F	T	T
T	F	F

This means NAND can implement negation!

Note: Using T and F in the formulas is a minor abuse of notation! It is possible to “fake” $\neg p$ without using T or F . How?

$$p \wedge q \equiv \neg(p \text{ NAND } q)$$

p	q	$p \wedge q$	$p \text{ NAND } q$	$\neg(p \text{ NAND } q)$
F	F	F	T	F
F	T	F	T	F
T	F	F	T	F
T	T	T	F	T

So

$$\begin{aligned} p \wedge q &\equiv \neg(p \text{ NAND } q) \\ &\equiv (T \text{ NAND } (p \text{ NAND } q)) \end{aligned}$$

Also $p \vee q \equiv \neg p \text{ NAND } \neg q$ and similar
NAND-only equivalents exist for \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow .

Any logical formula uses a combination of
 $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$

Therefore any logic formula can be written as
an equivalent formula using only NAND.

Note: This is an informal proof. To do it rigorously we
have to use structural induction on propositional formula-
las.

Normal Forms

Normal forms in mathematics are canonical representations (i.e. all equivalent objects result in the same representation).

Def: A formula ϕ with p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n propositional variables is in *Disjunctive Normal Form* (DNF) if it has the structure:

$$(x_1^1 \wedge x_2^1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_n^1) \vee \dots \vee (x_1^m \wedge x_2^m \wedge \dots \wedge x_n^m)$$

where $m \leq 2^n$ and for $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $j = 1, \dots, m$, x_i^j is either p_i or $\neg p_i$

E.g. $(\neg p \wedge \neg q \wedge r) \vee (p \wedge \neg q \wedge \neg r)$ is in DNF
 $\neg(p \vee q) \wedge r$ is not. Each of the series of conjunctions picks out a row of the truth table where formula is true. DNF ORs together the ANDs for the true rows.

Normal Forms (cont)

Consider the truth tables for the formulas $\neg p \wedge \neg q \wedge r$ and $p \wedge \neg q \wedge \neg r$:

	p	q	r	$\neg p \wedge \neg q \wedge r$	$\neg p \wedge q \wedge r$
0	F	F	F	F	F
1	F	F	T	T	F
2	F	T	F	F	F
3	F	T	T	F	T
4	T	F	F	F	F
5	T	F	T	F	F
6	T	T	F	F	F
7	T	T	T	F	F

For $\neg p \wedge \neg q \wedge r$ only row 1 is true.

For $\neg p \wedge q \wedge r$ only row 3 is true.

What conjunct is only true on row 6?

$(\neg p \wedge \neg q \wedge r) \vee (\neg p \wedge q \wedge r) \vee (p \wedge q \wedge \neg r)$ is true on rows 1, 3 & 6. Why?

Theorem: For every truth table, there is a propositional formula that generates the truth table.

Normal Forms (cont)

Theorem: Every propositional formula that is not a contradiction is a logically equivalent to a DNF formula.

Corollary: For ϕ, ψ not contradictions, $\phi \equiv \psi$ iff ϕ and ψ have the same DNF representation.

Proof: Two formulas are logically equivalent if and only if they have the same truth table (i.e. same true rows) & thus the same DNF.

Application: Minimizing gate delays

If each input & its negation are available, any logic function can be implemented with one “stage” of multi-input AND gates followed by one “stage” of multi-input OR gates.

Logical Implication

Def: We say ϕ *logically implies* ψ if $\phi \rightarrow \psi$ is a tautology. In this case Rubin writes $\phi \Rightarrow \psi$. If ϕ is a conjunction (i.e. ϕ is $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_n$) then we say $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ logically imply ψ .

Huth+Ryan write $\models \phi \rightarrow \psi$ or $\phi \models \psi$.

Premises ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n with conclusion ψ is a *sound* or *valid argument*, denoted

$$\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$$

if whenever all the ϕ_i s are true, then ψ is true.

Theorem: $\models \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_n \rightarrow \psi$ if and only if $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$.

Modus Ponens: $p, p \rightarrow q \models q$

p	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)$	q
F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T
T	F	F	F	F
T	T	T	T	T

Checking validity (soundness) of arguments:

- To prove an argument is valid we only have to check that the conclusion (ψ) is true in rows in which all the premises (ϕ_i 's) are true.
- To prove an argument is *invalid* (unsound), we need only find one counter example, a row in which each ϕ_i is true but ψ is false.

Examples: 1. $(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r \models p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r)$ but $p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r) \not\models (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$

2. $p, p \rightarrow q, \neg r \rightarrow \neg q \models r$

	p	q	r	$p \rightarrow q$	$\neg r \rightarrow \neg q$	r
0	F	F	F			
1	F	F	T			
2	F	T	F			
3	F	T	T			
4	T	F	F	F		
5	T	F	T	F		
6	T	T	F	T	F	
7	T	T	T	T	T	T

Special Cases

1. **No premises:** Premises restrict the cases that we have to consider. No premises means we consider all cases. ψ is a valid argument by itself if it is always true (i.e. it is a tautology). Then we write $\models \psi$ and say that ψ is *valid*.
2. **Premises never all true:** At least one ϕ_i is always false so $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_n$ is a contradiction. Then $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$.

“If pigs could fly then I’d enjoy brussel sprouts!”
 p : Pigs fly; b : Enjoy sprouts

This is an *invalid argument*. Why use it?

The real argument is: $p, \neg p \models b$ which is a valid argument. Why? There is no counter example where $p \wedge \neg p$ is true and b is false. “From false all things are possible!”

$\neg p$ is an *implicit assumption*. These are extremely dangerous in software. Make your assumptions explicit!

Validity & Satisfiability

Let ϕ be some formula of propositional logic. In the case that $\models \phi$, we say that ϕ is *valid*.

In the case that ϕ is **not** valid (i.e., there is some assignment to its variables that makes it false) we will write $\not\models \phi$.

If there is some assignment to the propositional variables that makes ϕ true (i.e., there is one or more T in the final column of ϕ 's truth table), then we say that ϕ is *satisfiable*.

Proposition: ϕ is satisfiable iff $\not\models \neg\phi$.

Conjunctive Normal Form

Def: A formula with p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n propositional variables is in *Conjunctive Normal Form* (CNF) if it has the structure:

$$(x_1^1 \vee x_2^1 \vee \dots \vee x_n^1) \wedge \dots \wedge (x_1^m \vee x_2^m \vee \dots \vee x_n^m)$$

where $m \leq 2^n$ and for $i = 1, \dots, n$ and $j = 1, \dots, m$, x_i^j is either p_i or $\neg p_i$

E.g. $(\neg p \vee \neg q \vee r) \wedge (p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r)$ is in CNF
 $\neg(p \wedge q) \vee r$ is not. Each of the series of disjunctions rules out a row of the truth table where formula is false. CNF ANDs together the ORs for the false rows.

One way to obtain the CNF form of a formula ϕ is to write down the DNF for $\neg\phi$ and then negate it and “Demorgan it to death”.

Using CNF to Check $\models \phi$

Q: CNF seems a little harder to understand than DNF, so why use it?

A: Because it is trivial to check $\models \phi$ if ϕ is in CNF.

Why? Because

$$\models (x_1^1 \vee x_2^1 \vee \dots \vee x_n^1) \wedge (x_1^2 \vee x_2^2 \vee \dots \vee x_n^2) \\ \dots \wedge (x_1^m \vee x_2^m \vee \dots \vee x_n^m)$$

if and only if

$$\models (x_1^1 \vee x_2^1 \vee \dots \vee x_n^1) \\ \text{and} \\ \models (x_1^2 \vee x_2^2 \vee \dots \vee x_n^2) \\ \vdots \\ \text{and} \\ \models (x_1^m \vee x_2^m \vee \dots \vee x_n^m)$$

If each x_i^j is a *literal* (e.g., p) or its negation (e.g., $\neg p$) then $\models (x_1^j \vee x_2^j \vee \dots \vee x_n^j)$ iff there exists k, l s.t. $x_k^j = p$ and $x_l^j = \neg p$.