

# Formalizing propositional logic

Joris Roos

University of Wisconsin-Madison

Sommerakademie Leysin 2018

August 14, 2018

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Syntax and semantics
- 3 Normal forms

Consider a propositional formula

$$((A \vee D) \rightarrow (D \vee \neg B)) \wedge \neg(A \leftarrow (B \vee C \wedge D))$$

Consider a propositional formula

$$((A \vee D) \rightarrow (D \vee \neg B)) \wedge \neg(A \leftarrow (B \vee C \wedge D))$$

- Is it satisfiable? (“SAT”)
- Is it a tautology?

Consider a propositional formula

$$((A \vee D) \rightarrow (D \vee \neg B)) \wedge \neg(A \leftarrow (B \vee C \wedge D))$$

- Is it satisfiable? (“SAT”)
- Is it a tautology?

In principle, “trivially” decidable by truth tables.

Consider a propositional formula

$$((A \vee D) \rightarrow (D \vee \neg B)) \wedge \neg(A \leftarrow (B \vee C \wedge D))$$

- Is it satisfiable? (“SAT”)
- Is it a tautology?

In principle, “trivially” decidable by truth tables.

Goal: Formalize the problem and program a computer to solve it (provably correctly and “efficiently”, if possible).

# Why?

- Logic puzzles: knights and knaves and co.

# Why?

- Logic puzzles: knights and knaves and co.
- Circuit design: circuits *are* propositional formulas!



# Why?

- Logic puzzles: knights and knaves and co.
- Circuit design: circuits *are* propositional formulas!
- Surprisingly many problems can be rephrased as SAT: e.g. primality

# Why?

- Logic puzzles: knights and knaves and co.
- Circuit design: circuits *are* propositional formulas!
- Surprisingly many problems can be rephrased as SAT: e.g. primality
- SAT is a computationally *hard* problem (NP-complete).

# Why?

- Logic puzzles: knights and knaves and co.
- Circuit design: circuits *are* propositional formulas!
- Surprisingly many problems can be rephrased as SAT: e.g. primality
- SAT is a computationally *hard* problem (NP-complete).
- Classical first-order theorem provers rely on SAT algorithms

1 Introduction

2 Syntax and semantics

3 Normal forms

A propositional formula is a *string* (i.e. a list of symbols from a certain alphabet).

A propositional formula is a *string* (i.e. a list of symbols from a certain alphabet).

**Admissible symbols are:**

- Constants:  $\top$  (true),  $\perp$  (false)

A propositional formula is a *string* (i.e. a list of symbols from a certain alphabet).

**Admissible symbols are:**

- Constants:  $\top$  (true),  $\perp$  (false)
- Atomic propositions/literals:  $P, Q, R, \dots$

A propositional formula is a *string* (i.e. a list of symbols from a certain alphabet).

**Admissible symbols are:**

- Constants:  $\top$  (true),  $\perp$  (false)
- Atomic propositions/literals:  $P, Q, R, \dots$
- Logical operators:  $\neg, \wedge, \vee$



A propositional formula is a *string* (i.e. a list of symbols from a certain alphabet).

**Admissible symbols are:**

- Constants:  $\top$  (true),  $\perp$  (false)
- Atomic propositions/literals:  $P, Q, R, \dots$
- Logical operators:  $\neg, \wedge, \vee$
- Punctuation: brackets  $( )$  and  $,$

A propositional formula is a *string* (i.e. a list of symbols from a certain alphabet).

**Admissible symbols are:**

- Constants:  $\top$  (true),  $\perp$  (false)
- Atomic propositions/literals:  $P, Q, R, \dots$
- Logical operators:  $\neg, \wedge, \vee$
- Punctuation: brackets  $( )$  and  $,$

## Definition

The set of *propositional formulas* is the smallest set  $\mathbf{P}$  of strings such that

- 1  $\top, \perp, P, Q, R, \dots \in \mathbf{P}$ .
- 2 If  $X \in \mathbf{P}$ , then  $\neg X \in \mathbf{P}$ .
- 3 If  $X, Y \in \mathbf{P}$ , then  $\vee(X, Y) \in \mathbf{P}$  and  $\wedge(X, Y) \in \mathbf{P}$ .

A propositional formula is a *string* (i.e. a list of symbols from a certain alphabet).

**Admissible symbols are:**

- Constants:  $\top$  (true),  $\perp$  (false)
- Atomic propositions/literals:  $P, Q, R, \dots$
- Logical operators:  $\neg, \wedge, \vee$
- Punctuation: brackets  $( )$  and  $,$

## Definition

The set of *propositional formulas* is the smallest set  $\mathbf{P}$  of strings such that

- 1  $\top, \perp, P, Q, R, \dots \in \mathbf{P}$ .
- 2 If  $X \in \mathbf{P}$ , then  $\neg X \in \mathbf{P}$ .
- 3 If  $X, Y \in \mathbf{P}$ , then  $\vee(X, Y) \in \mathbf{P}$  and  $\wedge(X, Y) \in \mathbf{P}$ .

# Syntactic sugar

Not part of the basic formal syntax. Just convenience.

# Syntactic sugar

Not part of the basic formal syntax. Just convenience.

- Write  $(X \vee Y)$  for  $\vee(X, Y)$  and  $(X \wedge Y)$  for  $\wedge(X, Y)$ .

Not part of the basic formal syntax. Just convenience.

- Write  $(X \vee Y)$  for  $\vee(X, Y)$  and  $(X \wedge Y)$  for  $\wedge(X, Y)$ .
- Brackets are ignored whenever possible according to usual operator precedence conventions ( $\neg \gg \wedge \gg \vee$ ).

Not part of the basic formal syntax. Just convenience.

- Write  $(X \vee Y)$  for  $\vee(X, Y)$  and  $(X \wedge Y)$  for  $\wedge(X, Y)$ .
- Brackets are ignored whenever possible according to usual operator precedence conventions ( $\neg \gg \wedge \gg \vee$ ).
- $(X \rightarrow Y)$  is short for  $(\neg X \vee Y)$ .

Not part of the basic formal syntax. Just convenience.

- Write  $(X \vee Y)$  for  $\vee(X, Y)$  and  $(X \wedge Y)$  for  $\wedge(X, Y)$ .
- Brackets are ignored whenever possible according to usual operator precedence conventions ( $\neg \gg \wedge \gg \vee$ ).
- $(X \rightarrow Y)$  is short for  $(\neg X \vee Y)$ .
- may include other common logical operators,  $\leftarrow, \leftrightarrow, \nleftrightarrow, \dots$



## Example:

$$\forall(P, \neg \wedge (Q, P))$$

is in **P** (written sugarfree).

## Example:

$$\forall(P, \neg \wedge (Q, P))$$

is in **P** (written sugarfree).

Same formula with sugar:

$$P \vee \neg(Q \wedge P)$$

We will always use sugar.

## Example:

$$\forall(P, \neg \wedge(Q, P))$$

is in **P** (written sugarfree).

Same formula with sugar:

$$P \vee \neg(Q \wedge P)$$

We will always use sugar.

## Non-example:

$$\wedge \vee(P, \neg Q())$$

is not in **P**.

## Example:

$$\forall(P, \neg \wedge (Q, P))$$

is in **P** (written sugarfree).

Same formula with sugar:

$$P \vee \neg(Q \wedge P)$$

We will always use sugar.

## Non-example:

$$\wedge \vee (P, \neg Q())$$

is not in **P**.

*So far, formulas do not have any meaning!*

*A propositional formula is just a string with a certain structure.*

# Structural induction

Say we want to *prove* that every formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  has a certain property  $Q$ .

# Structural induction

Say we want to *prove* that every formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  has a certain property  $Q$ . Then it suffices to show:

- 1  $\top, \perp, p, q, r, \dots$  have property  $Q$ .
- 2 If  $F$  has property  $Q$ , then  $\neg F$  has property  $Q$ .
- 3 If  $F$  and  $F'$  have property  $Q$ , then  $F \vee F'$  and  $F \wedge F'$  have property  $Q$ .

# Structural induction

Say we want to *prove* that every formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  has a certain property  $Q$ . Then it suffices to show:

- 1  $\top, \perp, p, q, r, \dots$  have property  $Q$ .
- 2 If  $F$  has property  $Q$ , then  $\neg F$  has property  $Q$ .
- 3 If  $F$  and  $F'$  have property  $Q$ , then  $F \vee F'$  and  $F \wedge F'$  have property  $Q$ .

This is a theorem! [Exercise: Prove it.]

# Structural induction

Say we want to *prove* that every formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  has a certain property  $Q$ . Then it suffices to show:

- 1  $\top, \perp, p, q, r, \dots$  have property  $Q$ .
- 2 If  $F$  has property  $Q$ , then  $\neg F$  has property  $Q$ .
- 3 If  $F$  and  $F'$  have property  $Q$ , then  $F \vee F'$  and  $F \wedge F'$  have property  $Q$ .

This is a theorem! [Exercise: Prove it.]

## **Example.**

Exercise: Prove that no propositional formula consists entirely of the symbol  $\neg$ .



## Definition

A *valuation*  $v$  is a map that assigns each atomic proposition  $P, Q, \dots$  one of the truth values true or false:

$$v(P) \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$$

## Definition

A *valuation*  $v$  is a map that assigns each atomic proposition  $P, Q, \dots$  one of the truth values true or false:

$$v(P) \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$$

(Given  $n$  atomic propositions we have  $2^n$  possible valuations.)

## Definition

A *valuation*  $v$  is a map that assigns each atomic proposition  $P, Q, \dots$  one of the truth values true or false:

$$v(P) \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$$

(Given  $n$  atomic propositions we have  $2^n$  possible valuations.)

# Semantics: Introducing meaning

Let  $v$  be a valuation. We extend  $v$  to all propositional formulas:

# Semantics: Introducing meaning

Let  $v$  be a valuation. We extend  $v$  to all propositional formulas:

- $v(\top) := \text{true}$ ,  $v(\perp) := \text{false}$ ,

# Semantics: Introducing meaning

Let  $v$  be a valuation. We extend  $v$  to all propositional formulas:

- $v(\top) := \text{true}$ ,  $v(\perp) := \text{false}$ ,
- $v(\neg F)$  is true iff  $v(F)$  is false.

# Semantics: Introducing meaning

Let  $v$  be a valuation. We extend  $v$  to all propositional formulas:

- $v(\top) := \text{true}$ ,  $v(\perp) := \text{false}$ ,
- $v(\neg F)$  is true iff  $v(F)$  is false.
- $v(F \vee F')$  is true iff at least one of  $v(F)$ ,  $v(F')$  is true.

Let  $v$  be a valuation. We extend  $v$  to all propositional formulas:

- $v(\top) := \text{true}$ ,  $v(\perp) := \text{false}$ ,
- $v(\neg F)$  is true iff  $v(F)$  is false.
- $v(F \vee F')$  is true iff at least one of  $v(F)$ ,  $v(F')$  is true.
- $v(F \wedge F')$  is true iff both,  $v(F)$  and  $v(F')$  are true.



Let  $v$  be a valuation. We extend  $v$  to all propositional formulas:

- $v(\top) := \text{true}$ ,  $v(\perp) := \text{false}$ ,
- $v(\neg F)$  is true iff  $v(F)$  is false.
- $v(F \vee F')$  is true iff at least one of  $v(F)$ ,  $v(F')$  is true.
- $v(F \wedge F')$  is true iff both,  $v(F)$  and  $v(F')$  are true.

By a structural induction this uniquely defines  $v(F)$  for every  $F \in \mathbf{P}$ .

Consider the formula

$$F := \neg P \vee Q$$

# Semantics: Example

Consider the formula

$$F := \neg P \vee Q$$

Define a valuation by  $v(P) := \text{false}$  and  $v(Q) := \text{false}$ .

Consider the formula

$$F := \neg P \vee Q$$

Define a valuation by  $v(P) := \text{false}$  and  $v(Q) := \text{false}$ . Then

$$v(F) = \text{true}.$$

## Definition

A formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  is called *satisfiable* if there exists a valuation  $v$  such that  $v(F) = \text{true}$ .

## Definition

A formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  is called *satisfiable* if there exists a valuation  $v$  such that  $v(F) = \text{true}$ .

## Definition

A formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  is called a *tautology* or *valid* if for every valuation  $v$  we have  $v(F) = \text{true}$ .

## Definition

A formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  is called *satisfiable* if there exists a valuation  $v$  such that  $v(F) = \text{true}$ .

## Definition

A formula  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  is called a *tautology* or *valid* if for every valuation  $v$  we have  $v(F) = \text{true}$ .

**Exercise:** Show that  $F$  is satisfiable if and only if  $\neg F$  is not valid.

# Examples

For each of the following formulas decide satisfiability and validity:

①  $\neg(P \wedge Q) \vee Q \vee R$

②  $\neg P \wedge (Q \vee R \vee P)$

③  $((P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow P) \wedge \neg P$



# Substitution theorem

## Definition

Two formulas  $F, F' \in \mathbf{P}$  are called *logically equivalent* if  $v(F) = v(F')$  for all valuations  $v$ . (Equivalently, if  $F \leftrightarrow F'$  is a tautology.) We write  $F \equiv F'$ .

# Substitution theorem

## Definition

Two formulas  $F, F' \in \mathbf{P}$  are called *logically equivalent* if  $v(F) = v(F')$  for all valuations  $v$ . (Equivalently, if  $F \leftrightarrow F'$  is a tautology.) We write  $F \equiv F'$ .

For formulas  $F, X$  and an atomic proposition  $P$  we define  $F[P \mapsto X]$  to be the formula where every occurrence of  $P$  in  $F$  is replaced by  $X$ .

# Substitution theorem

## Definition

Two formulas  $F, F' \in \mathbf{P}$  are called *logically equivalent* if  $v(F) = v(F')$  for all valuations  $v$ . (Equivalently, if  $F \leftrightarrow F'$  is a tautology.) We write  $F \equiv F'$ .

For formulas  $F, X$  and an atomic proposition  $P$  we define  $F[P \mapsto X]$  to be the formula where every occurrence of  $P$  in  $F$  is replaced by  $X$ .

## Theorem

Let  $X, Y \in \mathbf{P}$  be logically equivalent,  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  and  $P$  an atomic proposition. Then,

$$v(F[P \mapsto X]) = v(F[P \mapsto Y])$$

for every valuation  $v$ .

# Substitution theorem

## Definition

Two formulas  $F, F' \in \mathbf{P}$  are called *logically equivalent* if  $v(F) = v(F')$  for all valuations  $v$ . (Equivalently, if  $F \leftrightarrow F'$  is a tautology.) We write  $F \equiv F'$ .

For formulas  $F, X$  and an atomic proposition  $P$  we define  $F[P \mapsto X]$  to be the formula where every occurrence of  $P$  in  $F$  is replaced by  $X$ .

## Theorem

Let  $X, Y \in \mathbf{P}$  be logically equivalent,  $F \in \mathbf{P}$  and  $P$  an atomic proposition. Then,

$$v(F[P \mapsto X]) = v(F[P \mapsto Y])$$

for every valuation  $v$ .

Together with a list of basic tautologies this enables *simplification* and transformation to *normal forms*.

1 Introduction

2 Syntax and semantics

3 Normal forms

## Definition

A formula is in *negation normal form (NNF)* if the symbol  $\neg$  only appears directly in front of literals.

## Definition

A formula is in *negation normal form (NNF)* if the symbol  $\neg$  only appears directly in front of literals.

Every propositional formula can be transformed into a logically equivalent formula in NNF.

## Definition

A formula is in *negation normal form (NNF)* if the symbol  $\neg$  only appears directly in front of literals.

Every propositional formula can be transformed into a logically equivalent formula in NNF.

**Example.**

$$\neg(P \wedge \neg Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$$



## Definition

A formula is in *negation normal form (NNF)* if the symbol  $\neg$  only appears directly in front of literals.

Every propositional formula can be transformed into a logically equivalent formula in NNF.

**Example.**

$$\neg(P \wedge \neg Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$$

$$\equiv \neg P \vee Q \wedge (P \vee R)$$

## Definition

A formula is in *negation normal form (NNF)* if the symbol  $\neg$  only appears directly in front of literals.

Every propositional formula can be transformed into a logically equivalent formula in NNF.

**Example.**

$$\neg(P \wedge \neg Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$$

$$\equiv \neg P \vee Q \wedge (P \vee R)$$

## Definition

A formula is in *disjunctive normal form (DNF)* if it is of the form

$$D_1 \vee D_2 \vee \cdots \vee D_n$$

where each  $D_i$  is of the form

$$P_{i1} \wedge \cdots \wedge P_{im_i}$$

with  $P_{ij}$  being literals or negated literals.

## Definition

A formula is in *disjunctive normal form (DNF)* if it is of the form

$$D_1 \vee D_2 \vee \cdots \vee D_n$$

where each  $D_i$  is of the form

$$P_{i1} \wedge \cdots \wedge P_{im_i}$$

with  $P_{ij}$  being literals or negated literals.

A DNF is “a disjunction of conjunctions”, or an “OR of ANDs”.

## Definition

A formula is in *disjunctive normal form (DNF)* if it is of the form

$$D_1 \vee D_2 \vee \cdots \vee D_n$$

where each  $D_i$  is of the form

$$P_{i1} \wedge \cdots \wedge P_{im_i}$$

with  $P_{ij}$  being literals or negated literals.

A DNF is “a disjunction of conjunctions”, or an “OR of ANDs”.

Dually, *conjunctive normal form (CNF)* is “a conjunction of disjunctions”.

Every formula can be transformed into DNF and CNF.

## Definition

A formula is in *disjunctive normal form (DNF)* if it is of the form

$$D_1 \vee D_2 \vee \cdots \vee D_n$$

where each  $D_i$  is of the form

$$P_{i1} \wedge \cdots \wedge P_{im_i}$$

with  $P_{ij}$  being literals or negated literals.

A DNF is “a disjunction of conjunctions”, or an “OR of ANDs”.

Dually, *conjunctive normal form (CNF)* is “a conjunction of disjunctions”.

Every formula can be transformed into DNF and CNF.

It is very efficient to check a DNF formula for satisfiability:

*A formula in DNF is satisfiable if and only if in at least one of the disjuncts there is no literal that appears negated and unnegated.*

**Example.** The DNF

$$P \wedge Q \wedge R \vee P \wedge \neg Q \vee \neg R \wedge Q \wedge R$$

is satisfiable.

## Clausal form is the same as CNF.

A *clause* is a disjunction:  $P_1 \vee \cdots \vee P_m$  with  $P_i$  literals or negated literals. It is often convenient to represent CNF as a list of lists, for example,

$$(P \vee Q \vee \neg R) \wedge P \wedge \neg Q \wedge (R \vee Q)$$

becomes

$$[[P, Q, \neg R], [P], [\neg Q], [R, Q]]$$



# To be continued..

Next step: first-order logic!

- FOL satisfiability is only semi-decidable.
- Syntax and semantics will much more involved.
- We will also need more sophisticated (propositional) SAT methods.



Melvin Fitting. *First-order Logic and Automated Theorem Proving*. (Springer, 1996)



John Harrison. *Handbook of Practical Logic and Automated Reasoning*. (Cambridge, 2009)