

VL Logik (LVA-Nr. 342208), Winter Semester 2015/2016

Propositional Logic

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Propositions

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

Example

- Alice comes to the party.
- One has to wear a shirt.
- It rains.

With connectives, propositions can be combined to *complex propositions*.

Example

- Alice comes to the party and Bob comes to the party, but not Cecile.
- One has to wear either a shirt or a tie.
- If it rains, the street is wet.

Propositional Logic

- language for representing, combining, and interpreting propositions
- *two truth values (Boolean domain)*: true/false, verum/falsum, on/off, **1/0**
- *language elements*
 - atomic propositions (atoms, variables)
 - no internal structure
 - either true or false
 - logic connectives: not (\neg), and (\wedge), or (\vee), . . .
 - operators for construction of composite propositions
 - concise meaning
 - argument(s) and return value from Boolean domain
 - parenthesis

Example

formula of propositional logic: $(\neg t \vee s) \wedge (t \vee s) \wedge (\neg t \vee \neg s)$

- atoms: **t, s**
- connectives: \neg, \vee, \wedge
- parenthesis for structuring the expression

Background

- *historical origins*: ancient Greeks
- two very basic principles:
 - *Law of Excluded Middle*: Each expression is either true or false.
 - *Law of Contradiction*: No statement is both true and false.
- very *simple* language
 - no objects, no arguments to propositions
 - no functions
 - no quantifiers
- solving is *easy* (relative to other logics)
- investigated in philosophy, mathematics, and computer science
- propositional logic in computer science:
 - description of digital circuits
 - automated verification
 - planning, scheduling, configuration problems
 - large research area in theoretical computer science
 - many applications in industry

The Language of Propositional Logic: Syntax

Definition

The set \mathcal{L} of well-formed propositional formulas is the smallest set such that

1. $\top, \perp \in \mathcal{L}$;
2. $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ where \mathcal{P} is the set of atomic propositions (atoms, variables);
3. if $\phi \in \mathcal{L}$ then $(\neg\phi) \in \mathcal{L}$;
4. if $\phi, \psi \in \mathcal{L}$ then $(\phi \circ \psi) \in \mathcal{L}$ with $\circ \in \{\vee, \wedge, \leftrightarrow, \rightarrow\}$.

\mathcal{L} is the language of propositional logic. The elements of \mathcal{L} are *propositional formulas*.

In *Backus-Naur form (BNF)* propositional formulas are described as follows:

$$\phi ::= \top \mid \perp \mid p \mid (\neg\phi) \mid (\phi \vee \phi) \mid (\phi \wedge \phi) \mid (\phi \leftrightarrow \phi) \mid (\phi \rightarrow \phi)$$

Example

- | | | | | |
|----------|----------------|--------------------|---------------------------------|--|
| ■ \top | ■ $(\neg a)$ | ■ $(\neg(\neg a))$ | ■ $(\neg(a \vee b))$ | ■ $(((\neg a) \vee a') \leftrightarrow (b \rightarrow c))$ |
| ■ a | ■ $(\neg\top)$ | ■ $(a_1 \vee a_2)$ | ■ $(\neg(a \leftrightarrow b))$ | ■ $(((a_1 \vee a_2) \vee (a_3 \wedge \perp)) \rightarrow b)$ |

Rules of Precedence

To reduce the number of parenthesis, we use the following conventions:

- \neg is stronger than \wedge
- \wedge is stronger than \vee
- \vee is stronger than \rightarrow
- \rightarrow is stronger than \leftrightarrow
- Binary operators of same strength are assumed to be left parenthesized (also called “left associative”)

In case of doubt, uses parenthesis!

Example

- $\neg a \wedge b \vee c \rightarrow d \leftrightarrow f$ is the same as $(((((\neg a) \wedge b) \vee c) \rightarrow d) \leftrightarrow f)$.
- $a' \vee a'' \vee a''' \wedge b' \vee b''$ is the same as $((((a' \vee a'') \vee (a''' \wedge b')) \vee b'')$.
- $a' \wedge a'' \wedge a''' \vee b' \wedge b''$ is the same as $((((a' \wedge a'') \wedge a''') \vee (b' \wedge b'')))$.

Formula Tree

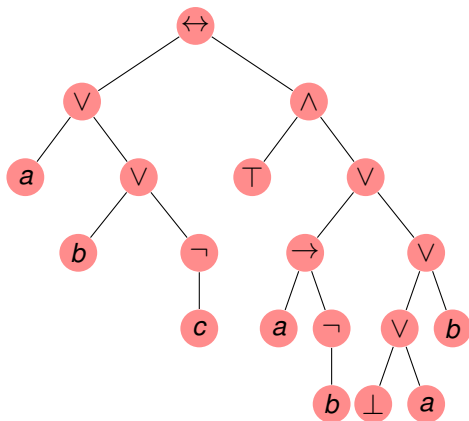
- formulas have a tree structure
 - *inner nodes*: connectives
 - *leaves*: truth constants, variables
- *default*: inner nodes have one child node (negation) or two nodes as children (other connectives).
- tree structure reflects the use of parenthesis
- *simplification*:
disjunction and conjunction may be considered as n -ary operators, i.e., if a node N and its child node C are of the same kind of connective (conjunction / disjunction), then the children of C can become direct children of N and the C is removed.

Formula Tree: Example (1/2)

The formula

$$(a \vee (b \vee \neg c)) \leftrightarrow (\top \wedge ((a \rightarrow \neg b) \vee (\perp \vee a \vee b)))$$

has the formula tree

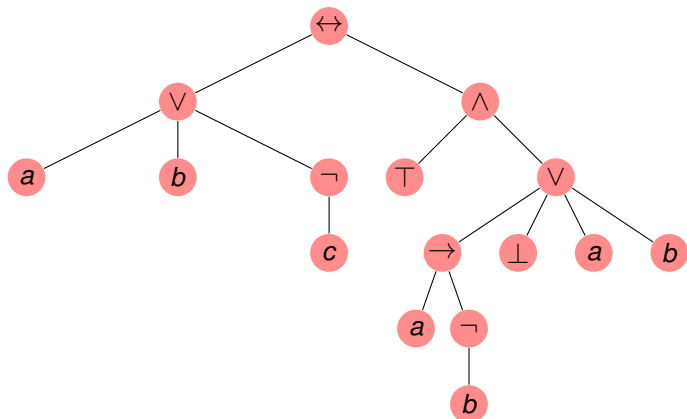


Formula Tree: Example (2/2)

The formula

$$(a \vee (b \vee \neg c)) \leftrightarrow (\top \wedge ((a \rightarrow \neg b) \vee (\perp \vee a \vee b)))$$

has the simplified formula tree



Subformulas

Definition

An *immediate subformula* is defined as follows:

- truth constants and atoms have no immediate subformula.
- only immediate subformula of $\neg\phi$ is ϕ .
- formula $\phi \circ \psi$ ($\circ \in \{\wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow, \rightarrow\}$) has immediate subformulas ϕ and ψ .

The *set of subformulas* of a formula ϕ is the smallest set S such that

1. $\phi \in S$
2. if $\psi \in S$ then all immediate subformulas of ψ are in S .

Informal: A subformula is a part of a formula and is itself a formula.

Example

The subformulas of $(a \vee b) \rightarrow (c \wedge \neg\neg d)$ are

$\{a, b, c, d, \neg d, \neg\neg d, a \vee b, c \wedge \neg\neg d, (a \vee b) \rightarrow (c \wedge \neg\neg d)\}$

- SAT-solver
- available at <http://fmv.jku.at/limboole/>
- input format in BNF:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle expr \rangle &::= \langle iff \rangle \\ \langle iff \rangle &::= \langle implies \rangle \mid \langle implies \rangle \text{ “<->” } \langle implies \rangle \\ \langle implies \rangle &::= \langle or \rangle \mid \langle or \rangle \text{ “->” } \langle or \rangle \mid \langle or \rangle \text{ “<-” } \langle or \rangle \\ \langle or \rangle &::= \langle and \rangle \mid \langle and \rangle \text{ “|” } \langle and \rangle \\ \langle and \rangle &::= \langle not \rangle \mid \langle not \rangle \text{ “&” } \langle not \rangle \\ \langle not \rangle &::= \langle basic \rangle \mid \text{ “!” } \langle not \rangle \\ \langle basic \rangle &::= \langle var \rangle \mid \text{ “(” } \langle expr \rangle \text{ “)”} \end{aligned}$$

where 'var' is a string over letters, digits, and `- _ . [] $ @`

Example

In Limboole the formula $(a \vee b) \rightarrow (c \wedge \neg\neg d)$ is represented as

$$((a \mid b) \text{ -> } (c \ \& \ !!d))$$

Special Formula Structures

- **literal:** variable or a negated variable (also (negated) truth constants)
 - examples of literals: $x, \neg x, y, \neg y$
 - If l is a literal with $l = x$ or $l = \neg x$ then $\text{var}(l) = x$.
 - For literals we use letter l, k (possibly indexed or primed).
 - In principle, we identify $\neg\neg l$ with l .
- **clause:** disjunction of literals
 - unary clause (clause of size one): l where l is a literal
 - empty clause (clause of size zero): \perp
 - examples of clauses: $(x \vee y), (\neg x \vee x' \vee \neg x''), x, \neg y$
- **cube:** conjunction of literals
 - unary cube (cubes of size one): l where l is a literal
 - empty cubes (cubes of size zero): \top
 - examples of cubes: $(x \wedge y), (\neg x \wedge x' \wedge \neg x''), x, \neg y$

Special Formula Structures: Negation Normal Form

Definition

Negation Normal Form (NNF) is defined as follows:

- Literals and truth constants are in NNF;
- $\phi \circ \psi$ ($\circ \in \{\vee, \wedge\}$) is in NNF iff ϕ and ψ are in NNF;
- no other formulas are in NNF.

In other words: A formula in NNF contains only conjunctions, disjunctions, and negations and negations only occur in front of variables and constants.

If a formula is in negation normal form then

- in the formula tree, nodes with negation symbols only occur directly before leaves.
- there are no subformulas of the form $\neg\phi$ where ϕ is something else than a variable or a constant.
- it does not contain NAND, NOR, XOR, equivalence, and implication connectives.

Example

The formula

$$((x \vee \neg x_1) \wedge (x \vee (\neg z \vee \neg x_1)))$$

is in NNF but

$$\neg((x \vee \neg x_1) \wedge (x \vee (\neg z \vee \neg x_1)))$$

is not in NNF.

Special Formula Structures: Conjunctive Normal Form

Definition

A propositional formula is in *conjunctive normal form* (CNF) iff it is a conjunction of clauses.

A formula in conjunctive normal form is

- in negation normal form.
- \top if it contains no clauses.
- easy to check whether it can be refuted (can be set to false).

remark: CNF is the input of most SAT-solvers (DIMACS format).

Example

- | | |
|------------|---|
| ■ \top | ■ $l_1 \wedge l_2 \wedge l_3$ |
| ■ \perp | ■ $l_1 \vee l_2 \vee l_3$ |
| ■ a | ■ $(a_1 \vee \neg a_2) \wedge (a_1 \vee b_2 \vee a_2) \wedge a_2$ |
| ■ $\neg a$ | ■ $((l_{11} \vee \dots \vee l_{1m_1}) \wedge \dots \wedge (l_{n1} \vee \dots \vee l_{nm_n}))$ |

Special Formula Structures: Disjunctive Normal Form

Definition

A propositional formula is in *disjunctive normal form (DNF)* if it is a disjunction of cubes.

A formula in disjunctive normal form is

- in negation normal form.
- \perp if it contains no clauses.
- easy to check whether it can be satisfied (can be set to true).

Example

- | | |
|------------|---|
| ■ \top | ■ $l_1 \wedge l_2 \wedge l_3$ |
| ■ \perp | ■ $l_1 \vee l_2 \vee l_3$ |
| ■ a | ■ $(a_1 \wedge \neg a_2) \vee (a_1 \wedge b_2 \wedge a_2) \vee a_2$ |
| ■ $\neg a$ | ■ $((l_{11} \wedge \dots \wedge l_{1m_1}) \vee \dots \vee (l_{n1} \wedge \dots \wedge l_{nm_n}))$ |

Conventions

In general, we use the following conventions unless stated otherwise:

- a, b, c, x, y, z denote *variables*.
- l, k denote *literals*.
- ϕ, ψ, γ denote *arbitrary formulas*.
- C, D denote *clauses or cubes* (clear from context).
- *Clauses* are also written as sets.
 - $(l_1 \vee \dots \vee l_n) = \{l_1, \dots, l_n\}$.
 - To add a literal l to clause C , we write $C \cup \{l\}$.
 - To remove a literal l from clause C , we write $C \setminus \{l\}$.
- *Formulas in CNF* are also written as sets of sets.
 - $((l_{11} \vee \dots \vee l_{1m_1}) \wedge \dots \wedge (l_{n1} \vee \dots \vee l_{nm_n})) = \{\{l_{11}, \dots, l_{1m_1}\}, \dots, \{l_{n1}, \dots, l_{nm_n}\}\}$.
 - To add a clause C to CNF ϕ , we write $\phi \cup \{C\}$.
 - To remove a clause C from CNF ϕ , we write $\phi \setminus \{C\}$.

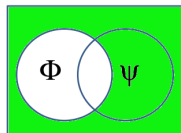
Elements of Propositional Logic: Negation

- unary connective (operator with exactly one argument)
- negating the truth value of its argument
- alternative notation for $\neg\phi$: $!\phi$, $\bar{\phi}$, $-\phi$, **NOT** ϕ

truth table:

ϕ	$\neg\phi$
0	1
1	0

set view:



Example

- If the proposition “It rains.” is true then the negation “It does not rain.” is false.
- If proposition a is true then proposition $\neg a$ is false.
- If formula $((a \vee x) \wedge y)$ is true then formula $\neg((a \vee x) \wedge y)$ is false.
- If proposition b is false, then proposition $\neg b$ is true.
- If formula $((b \rightarrow y) \wedge z)$ is true then formula $\neg((b \rightarrow y) \wedge z)$ is false.

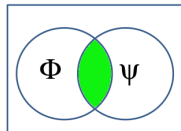
Elements of Propositional Logic: Conjunction

- a conjunction is true iff both arguments are true
- alternative notation for $\phi \wedge \psi$: $\phi \& \psi$, $\phi \psi$, $\phi * \psi$, $\phi \cdot \psi$, $\phi \text{AND} \psi$
- For $(\phi_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_n)$ we also write $\bigwedge_{i=1}^n \phi_i$.
- truth table:

truth table:

ϕ	ψ	$\phi \wedge \psi$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

set view:



Example

- If the proposition “I want tea.” is true and if the proposition “I want cake.” is true then also “I want tea and I want cake.” is true.
- The proposition $(a \wedge \neg a)$ is false.
- The proposition $(\top \wedge a)$ is true if a is true.
- The proposition $(\perp \wedge a)$ is false.
- If $(a \vee b)$ is true and $(\neg c \vee d)$ is true then $(a \vee b) \wedge (\neg c \vee d)$ is true.

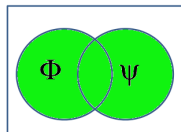
Elements of Propositional Logic: Disjunction

- a disjunction is true iff at least one of the arguments is true
- alternative notation for $\phi \vee \psi$: $\phi | \psi$, $\phi + \psi$, $\phi \text{OR} \psi$
- For $(\phi_1 \vee \dots \vee \phi_n)$ we also write $\bigvee_{i=1}^n \phi_i$.

truth table:

ϕ	ψ	$\phi \vee \psi$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

set view:



Example

- The proposition $(a \vee \neg a)$ is true.
- The proposition $(\top \vee a)$ is true.
- The proposition $(\perp \vee a)$ is true if a is true.
- If $(a \rightarrow b)$ is true and $(\neg c \rightarrow d)$ then $(a \rightarrow b) \vee (\neg c \rightarrow d)$ is true.
- If you see "The menu includes soup or dessert." in a restaurant then this is usually not a disjunction.

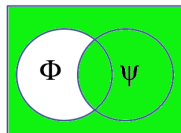
Elements of Propositional Logic: Implication

- an implication is true iff the first argument is false or both arguments are true
- alternative notation for $\phi \rightarrow \psi$: $\phi \supset \psi$, $\phi \text{IMPL} \psi$
- It holds: Verum ex quodlibet. Ex falsum quodlibet.

truth table:

ϕ	ψ	$\phi \rightarrow \psi$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

set view:



Example

- If the proposition "It rains." is true and the proposition "The street is wet." is true then the statement "If it rains, the street is wet." is true.
- If the proposition "If it rains, the street is wet." is true and the statement "The street is wet." is true, it does not necessarily rain.
- The propositions $(\perp \rightarrow a)$ and $(a \rightarrow a)$ are true.
- The proposition $\top \rightarrow \phi$ is true if ϕ is true.

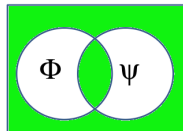
Elements of Propositional Logic: Equivalence

- binary connective
- an equivalence is true iff both elements have the same value
- alternative notation for $\phi \leftrightarrow \psi$: $\phi = \psi$, $\phi \equiv \psi$, $\phi \sim \psi$
- truth table:

truth table:

ϕ	ψ	$\phi \leftrightarrow \psi$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

set view:



Example

- The formula $a \leftrightarrow a$ is always true.
- The formula $a \leftrightarrow b$ is true iff a is true and b is true or a is false and b is false.
- $\top \leftrightarrow \perp$ is never true.

Implication vs. Equivalence

In natural language, there is not always a clear distinction between equivalence and implication. The distinction comes from the context.

equivalence:

- If a student passes a course, (s)he has more than 50 points on the test.
 - To pass the course, it is necessary to have more than 50 points.
 - If a student has more than 50 points on the test then (s)he passes the test.
 - If the student does not have more than 50 points, (s)he does not pass the test.
 - If the student does not pass the test, (s)he did not get at least 50 points.

implication:

- If a student passes a course, (s)he has more than 50 points on the test.
 - This statement would also be true if a student fails even though having more than 50 points.
 - Having more than 50 points is necessary, but not sufficient to pass a course.

The Logic Connectives at a Glance

- The meaning of the connectives can be summarized as follows:

ϕ	ψ	\top	\perp	$\neg\phi$	$\phi \wedge \psi$	$\phi \vee \psi$	$\phi \rightarrow \psi$	$\phi \leftrightarrow \psi$	$\phi \oplus \psi$	$\phi \uparrow \psi$	$\phi \downarrow \psi$
0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	0
1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0

Example

ϕ	ψ	$\neg(\neg\phi \wedge \neg\psi)$	$\neg\phi \vee \psi$	$(\phi \rightarrow \psi) \wedge (\psi \rightarrow \phi)$
0	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1

Observation: connectives can be expressed by other connectives.

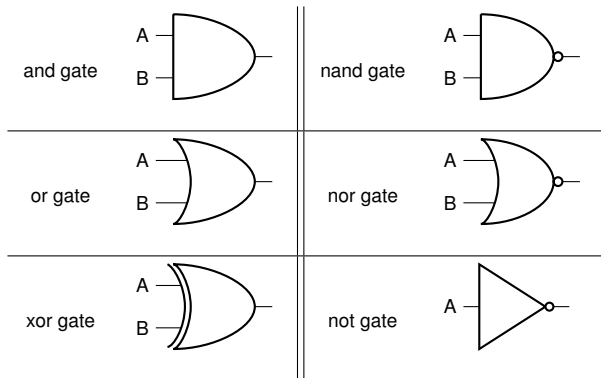
Other Connectives

- Overall, there are 16 different functions for binary connectives.
- So far, we had conjunction, disjunction, implication, equivalence.
- Further connectives:
 - $\phi \nleftrightarrow \psi$ (also \oplus , *xor*, antivalence)
 - $\phi \uparrow \psi$ (*nand*, Sheffer Stroke Function)
 - $\phi \downarrow \psi$ (*nor*, Pierce Function)

ϕ	ψ	$\phi \nleftrightarrow \psi$	$\phi \uparrow \psi$	$\phi \downarrow \psi$
0	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	0	0

- nor and nand can express every other boolean function (i.e., they are functional complete)
- often used for building digital circuits (like processors)

Propositional Formulas and Digital Circuits



Example of a Digital Circuit: Half Adder

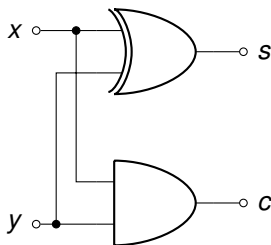
x	y	c	s
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

From the truth table, we see that

$$c \Leftrightarrow x \wedge y$$

and

$$s \Leftrightarrow x \oplus y.$$



Different Notations

operator	Verilog					
	logic	circuits	C/C++/Java/C#	VHDL	Limboole	
1	\top	1	<i>true</i>	1	—	
0	\perp	0	<i>false</i>	0	—	
negation	$\neg\phi$	$\bar{\phi}$ $-\phi$	$!\phi$	<i>not</i> ϕ	$!\phi$	
conjunction	$\phi \wedge \psi$	$\phi\psi$ $\phi \cdot \psi$	$\phi \&\& \psi$	ϕ <i>and</i> ψ	$\phi \& \psi$	
disjunction	$\phi \vee \psi$	$\phi + \psi$	$\phi \psi$	ϕ <i>or</i> ψ	$\phi \psi$	
exclusive or	$\phi \nleftrightarrow \psi$	$\phi \oplus \psi$	$\phi != \psi$	ϕ <i>xor</i> ψ	—	
implication	$\phi \rightarrow \psi$	$\phi \supset \psi$	—	—	$\phi -> \psi$	
equivalence	$\phi \leftrightarrow \psi$	$\phi = \psi$	$\phi == \psi$	ϕ <i>xnor</i> ψ	$\phi <-> \psi$	

Example

- $(a \vee (b \vee \neg c)) \leftrightarrow (\top \wedge ((a \rightarrow \neg b) \vee (c \vee a \vee b)))$
- $(a + (b + \bar{c})) = c ((a \supset -b) + (0 + a + b))$
- $(a || (b || !c)) == (c \&\& (!! a || ! b) || (false || a || b))$

All 16 Binary Functions

ϕ	ψ	constant 0	nor					xor	nand	and	equivalence		implication			or	constant 1
0	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	1
1	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Assignment

- A variable can be assigned one of two values from the two-valued domain \mathbb{B} , where $\mathbb{B} = \{1, 0\}$.
- The mapping $\nu : \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ is called *assignment*, where \mathcal{P} is the set of atomic propositions.
- We sometimes write an assignment ν as set $V \subseteq \mathcal{P} \cup \{\neg x \mid x \in \mathcal{P}\}$:
 - $x \in V$ iff $\nu(x) = 1$
 - $\neg x \in V$ iff $\nu(x) = 0$
- For n variables, there are 2^n assignments possible.
- An assignment corresponds to one line in the truth table.

Example

x	y	z	$(x \vee y) \wedge \neg z$
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	0

- One assignment: $\nu(x) = 1, \nu(y) = 0, \nu(z) = 1$
- Alternative notation: $V = \{x, \neg y, z\}$
- *Observation*: A variable assignment determines the truth value of the formulas containing these variables.

The Language of Propositional Logic: Semantics

Definition

Given assignment $\nu : \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$, the interpretation $[\cdot]_\nu : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$ is defined by:

- $[\top]_\nu = \mathbf{1}$, $[\perp]_\nu = \mathbf{0}$
- if $x \in \mathcal{P}$ then $[x]_\nu = \nu(x)$
- $[\neg\phi]_\nu = \mathbf{1}$ iff $[\phi]_\nu = \mathbf{0}$
- $[\phi \vee \psi]_\nu = \mathbf{1}$ iff $[\phi]_\nu = \mathbf{1}$ or $[\psi]_\nu = \mathbf{1}$

- An assignment is called
 - *satisfying* a formula ϕ iff $[\phi]_\nu = \mathbf{1}$.
 - *falsifying* a formula ϕ iff $[\phi]_\nu = \mathbf{0}$.
- An assignment satisfying a formula ϕ is a *model* of ϕ .
- An assignment falsifying a formula ϕ is a *counter-model* of ϕ .

Example

For formula $((x \vee y) \wedge \neg z)$,

- $\{x, y, z\}$ is a counter-model,
- $\{x, y, \neg z\}$ is a model.

Properties of Propositional Formulas (1/2)

- formula ϕ is *satisfiable* iff exists interpretation $[\cdot]_{\nu}$ with $[\phi]_{\nu} = \mathbf{1}$
check with `limboole -s`
- formula ϕ is *valid* iff for all interpretations $[\cdot]_{\nu}$ it holds that $[\phi]_{\nu} = \mathbf{1}$
check with `limboole`
- a valid formula is called *tautology*
- formula ϕ is *refutable* iff exists interpretation $[\cdot]_{\nu}$ with $[\phi]_{\nu} = \mathbf{0}$
check with `limboole`
- formula ϕ is *unsatisfiable* iff $[\phi]_{\nu} = \mathbf{0}$ for all interpretations $[\cdot]_{\nu}$
check with `limboole -s`
- an unsatisfiable formula is called *contradiction*

Example

- \top is valid.
- \perp is unsatisfiable.
- $(a \vee \neg b) \wedge (\neg a \vee b)$ is refutable.
- $a \rightarrow b$ is satisfiable.
- $a \leftrightarrow \neg a$ is a contradiction.
- $(a \vee \neg b) \wedge (\neg a \vee b)$ is satisfiable.

Properties of Propositional Formulas (2/2)

- A satisfiable formula is
 - possibly valid
 - possibly refutable
 - not unsatisfiable.
- A valid formula is
 - satisfiable
 - not refutable
 - not unsatisfiable.
- A refutable formula is
 - possibly satisfiable
 - possibly unsatisfiable
 - not valid.
- An unsatisfiable formula is
 - refutable
 - not valid
 - not satisfiable.

Example

- satisfiable, but not valid: $a \leftrightarrow b$
- satisfiable and refutable: $(a \vee b) \wedge (\neg a \vee c)$
- valid, not refutable $\top \vee (a \wedge \neg a)$
- not valid, refutable $(\perp \vee b)$

Semantic Equivalence

Definition

Two formula ϕ and ψ are *semantic equivalent* (written as $\phi \Leftrightarrow \psi$) iff for all interpretations $[\cdot]_{\nu}$ it holds that $[\phi]_{\nu} = [\psi]_{\nu}$.

Note:

- \Leftrightarrow is a *meta-symbol*, i.e., it is not part of the language.
- *natural language*: if and only if (iff)
- $\phi \Leftrightarrow \psi$ iff $\phi \leftrightarrow \psi$ is valid, i.e., we can express semantics by means of syntactics.
- If ϕ and ψ are not equivalent, we write $\phi \not\equiv \psi$.

Example

- $a \vee \neg a \not\equiv b \rightarrow \neg b$
- $(a \vee b) \wedge \neg(a \vee b) \Leftrightarrow \perp$
- $a \vee \neg a \Leftrightarrow b \vee \neg b$
- $(a \leftrightarrow (b \leftrightarrow c)) \Leftrightarrow ((a \leftrightarrow b) \leftrightarrow c)$

Examples of Semantic Equivalences

$\phi \wedge \psi \Leftrightarrow \psi \wedge \phi$	$\phi \vee \psi \Leftrightarrow \psi \vee \phi$	commutativity
$\phi \wedge (\psi \wedge \gamma) \Leftrightarrow (\phi \wedge \psi) \wedge \gamma$	$\phi \vee (\psi \vee \gamma) \Leftrightarrow (\phi \vee \psi) \vee \gamma$	associativity
$\phi \wedge (\phi \vee \psi) \Leftrightarrow \phi$	$\phi \vee (\phi \wedge \psi) \Leftrightarrow \phi$	absorption
$\phi \wedge (\psi \vee \gamma) \Leftrightarrow (\phi \wedge \psi) \vee (\phi \wedge \gamma)$	$\phi \vee (\psi \wedge \gamma) \Leftrightarrow (\phi \vee \psi) \wedge (\phi \vee \gamma)$	distributivity
$\neg(\phi \wedge \psi) \Leftrightarrow \neg\phi \vee \neg\psi$	$\neg(\phi \vee \psi) \Leftrightarrow \neg\phi \wedge \neg\psi$	laws of De Morgan
$\phi \leftrightarrow \psi \Leftrightarrow (\phi \rightarrow \psi) \wedge (\psi \rightarrow \phi)$	$\phi \leftrightarrow \psi \Leftrightarrow (\phi \wedge \psi) \vee (\neg\phi \wedge \neg\psi)$	synt. equivalence
$\phi \vee \psi \Leftrightarrow \neg\phi \rightarrow \psi$	$\phi \rightarrow \psi \Leftrightarrow \neg\psi \rightarrow \neg\phi$	implications
$\phi \wedge \neg\phi \Leftrightarrow \perp$	$\phi \vee \neg\phi \Leftrightarrow \top$	complement
$\neg\neg\phi \Leftrightarrow \phi$		double negation
$\phi \wedge \top \Leftrightarrow \phi$	$\phi \vee \perp \Leftrightarrow \phi$	neutrality
$\phi \vee \top \Leftrightarrow \top$	$\phi \wedge \perp \Leftrightarrow \perp$	
$\neg\top \Leftrightarrow \perp$	$\neg\perp \Leftrightarrow \top$	

Further Connections between Formulas

- A formula ϕ is valid iff $\neg\phi$ is unsatisfiable.
- A formula ϕ is satisfiable iff $\neg\phi$ is not valid.
- The formulas ϕ and ψ are equivalent iff $\phi \leftrightarrow \psi$ is valid.
- The formulas ϕ and ψ are equivalent iff $\neg(\phi \leftrightarrow \psi)$ is unsatisfiable.
- A formula ϕ is satisfiable iff $\phi \not\leftrightarrow \perp$.

Logic Entailment

Definition

Let $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n, \psi$ be propositional formulas. Then ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n *entail* ψ (written as $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$) iff $[\phi_1]_{\nu} = \mathbf{1}, \dots, [\phi_n]_{\nu} = \mathbf{1}$ implies that $[\psi]_{\nu} = \mathbf{1}$.

Informal meaning: True premises derive a true conclusion.

- \models is a *meta-symbol*, i.e., it is not part of the language.
- $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ iff $(\phi_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_n) \rightarrow \psi$ is valid, i.e., we can express semantics by means of syntactics.
- If ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_n do not entail ψ , we write $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n \not\models \psi$.

Example

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| ■ $a \models a \vee b$ | ■ $\perp \models a \vee \neg a$ |
| ■ $a, b \models a \wedge b$ | ■ $\not\models a \wedge \neg a$ |
| ■ $a, a \rightarrow b \models b$ | ■ $\perp \models a \wedge \neg a$ |

Satisfiability Equivalence

Definition

Two formulas ϕ and ψ are *satisfiability-equivalent* (written as $\phi \Leftrightarrow_{SAT} \psi$) iff both formulas are satisfiable or both are contradictory.

- Satisfiability-equivalent formulas are not necessarily satisfied by the same assignments.
- Satisfiability equivalence is a weaker property than equivalence.
- Often sufficient for simplification rules: If the complicated formula is satisfiable then also the simplified formula is satisfiable.

Example

Positive pure literal elimination rule: If a variable x occurs in a formula but $\neg x$ does not occur in the formula, then x can be substituted by \top . The resulting formula is satisfiability-equivalent.

- $x \Leftrightarrow_{SAT} \top$, but $x \not\equiv \top$
- $(a \wedge b) \vee (\neg c \wedge a) \Leftrightarrow_{SAT} b \vee \neg c$, but $(a \wedge b) \vee (\neg c \wedge a) \not\equiv b \vee \neg c$

Representing Functions as CNFs

- **Problem:** Given the truth table of a Boolean function ϕ . How is the function represented in propositional logic?

Solution (Representation as CNF):

1. Represent each assignment ν where ϕ has value **0** as clause:
 - If variable x is **1** in ν , add $\neg x$ to clause.
 - If variable x is **0** in ν , add x to clause.
2. Connect all clauses by conjunction.

Example

a	b	c	ϕ	clauses
0	0	0	0	$a \vee b \vee c$
0	0	1	1	
0	1	0	1	
0	1	1	0	$a \vee \neg b \vee \neg c$
1	0	0	1	
1	0	1	0	$\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c$
1	1	0	0	$\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c$
1	1	1	1	

$$\phi = (a \vee b \vee c) \wedge (a \vee \neg b \vee \neg c) \wedge (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) \wedge (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c)$$

Representing Functions as DNFs

- **Problem:** Given the truth table of a Boolean function ϕ . How is the function represented in propositional logic?

Solution (Representation as DNF):

1. Represent each assignment ν where ϕ has value **1** as cube:
 - If variable x is **1** in ν , add x to cube.
 - If variable x is **0** in ν , add $\neg x$ to cube.
2. Connect all cubes by disjunction.

Example

a	b	c	ϕ	cubes
0	0	0	0	
0	0	1	1	$\neg a \wedge \neg b \wedge c$
0	1	0	1	$\neg a \wedge b \wedge \neg c$
0	1	1	0	
1	0	0	1	$a \wedge \neg b \wedge \neg c$
1	0	1	0	
1	1	0	0	
1	1	1	1	$a \wedge b \wedge c$

$$\phi = (\neg a \wedge \neg b \wedge c) \vee (\neg a \wedge b \wedge \neg c) \vee (a \wedge \neg b \wedge \neg c) \vee (a \wedge b \wedge c)$$

Functional Completeness

- In propositional logic there are
 - 2 functions of arity 0 (\top , \perp)
 - 4 functions of arity 1 (e.g., not)
 - 16 functions of arity 2 (e.g., and, or, ...)
 - 2^{2^n} functions of arity n .
- A function of arity n has 2^n different combinations of arguments (lines in the truth table).
- A function maps its arguments either to **1** or **0**.

Definition

A set of functions is called *functional complete* for propositional logic iff it is possible to express all other functions of propositional logic with functions from this set.

Example

- $\{\neg, \wedge\}$ is functional complete.
- $\{\neg, \vee\}$ is functional complete.
- nand is functional complete.
- nor is functional complete.

Encoding the k-Coloring Problem

Given graph (V, E) with vertices V and edges E . Color each node with one of k colors, such that there is no edge $(v, w) \in E$, with vertices v and w colored in the same color.

Encoding:

1. *Propositional variables*: v_j ... node $v \in V$ has color j ($1 \leq j \leq k$)

2. each node has *a color*:

$$\bigwedge_{v \in V} \left(\bigvee_{1 \leq j \leq k} v_j \right)$$

3. each node has *just one color*:

$$\neg(v_i \wedge v_j) \text{ with } v \in V, 1 \leq i < j \leq k$$

4. neighbors have *different colors*:

$$\neg(v_i \wedge w_i) \text{ with } (v, w) \in E, 1 \leq i \leq k$$

Example

2-coloring of $(\{a, b, c\}, \{(a, b), (b, c)\})$

1. $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2, c_1, c_2$
2. $a_1 \vee a_2, b_1 \vee b_2, c_1 \vee c_2$
3. $\neg(a_1 \wedge a_2), \neg(b_1 \wedge b_2), \neg(c_1 \wedge c_2)$
4. $\neg(a_1 \wedge b_1), \neg(a_2 \wedge b_2)$
 $\neg(b_1 \wedge c_1), \neg(b_2 \wedge c_2)$

A Puzzle

A lady is in one of two rooms called *A* and *B*. A tiger is also in *A* or *B*. On the door of *A* there is a sign: "This room contains a lady, the other room contains a tiger." The door of room *B* has a sign: "The tiger and the lady are not in the same room." One sign lies. Where is the lady, where is the tiger?

based on a puzzle by Raymond Smullyan

One possible SAT encoding:

- $signOnA$ represents that sign of room *A* says the truth
- $signOnB$ represents that sign of room *B* says the truth
- $ladyInA$ or $ladyInB$ represents that lady is in *A* or *B* respectively
- $tigerInA$ or $tigerInB$ represents that tiger is in *A* or *B* respectively
- lady is in room *A* or *B*, but not in both: $(ladyInA \vee ladyInB) \wedge \neg(ladyInA \wedge ladyInB)$
- tiger is in room *A* or *B*, but not in both: $(tigerInA \vee tigerInB) \wedge \neg(tigerInA \wedge tigerInB)$
- one sign lies, one sign is true: $(signOnA \leftrightarrow \neg signOnB)$
- sign of room *A*: $signOnA \leftrightarrow (ladyInA \wedge tigerInB)$
- sign of room *B*: $signOnB \leftrightarrow (\neg(tigerInA \wedge ladyInA) \wedge \neg(tigerInB \wedge ladyInB))$