## IN3070/4070 - Logic - Autumn 2020

Lecture 2: Propositional Logic & Sequent Calculus

Martin Giese

27th August 2020





## Today's Plan

- Motivation
- ► Syntax
- Semantics
- ► Logical Equivalence
- ► Satisfiability & Validity
- Summary
- Motivation
- ► Sequent Calculus
- Decision Procedure
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## Outline

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- ▶ logical systems formalize reasoning similar to programming languages that formalize computation
- consequent separation of syntactical notions (formulae, proofs) and semantical notions (truth values, models)
- syntax defines what strings of symbols are "legal" formulae
- semantics assign meanings to legal formulae (through an interpretation of its symbols)

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### Definition 2.2 (Propositional Formulae).

The propositional formulae, denoted A, B, C, F, G, H, are inductively defined as follows:

- 1. Every atom  $A \in \mathcal{P}$  is a formula.
- 2. If A and B are formulae, then  $(\neg A)$ ,  $(A \land B)$ ,  $(A \lor B)$  and  $(A \to B)$  are formulae.

Let  $\mathcal{F}$  be the set of all (legal) formulae.

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#### Examples:

$$\begin{array}{l} ((p \to q) \leftrightarrow ((\neg p) \to (\neg q))) \ \ \text{is a (legal) formula, identical to} \\ (p \to q) \leftrightarrow (\neg p \to \neg q) \ \ \text{and} \ \ p \to q \leftrightarrow \neg p \to \neg q \end{array}$$

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Alternative connectives:  $\Rightarrow$  and  $\supset$  (for  $\rightarrow$ ),  $\Leftrightarrow$  (for  $\leftrightarrow$ ), & (for  $\land$ )

## Formula Trees

## **Definition 2.4 (Formula Tree).**

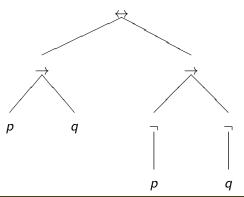
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## Semantics—Interpretation

Truth values are assigned to the atoms of a formula in order to evaluate the truth value of the formula.

### **Definition 3.1 (Interpretation).**

Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be a set of atoms.

An interpretation is a total function  $\mathcal{I}: \mathcal{P} \to \{T, F\}$  that assigns one of the truth values T or F to every atom in  $\mathcal{P}$ .

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Note: Ben-Ari defines  $\mathcal{P}_A$ , the atoms in A and  $\mathcal{I}_A$  an "interpretation for A" Simplfies some places, complicates things in others.

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### Definition 3.2 (Truth Value).

Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be an interpretation. The truth value  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A)$  of A under  $\mathcal{I}$  is defined inductively as follows.

- ▶ If  $A \in \mathcal{P}$  is an atom, then  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = \mathcal{I}(A)$
- $\triangleright$   $v_{\mathcal{I}}(\neg A) = T$  if  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = F$  and F otherwise.
- $ightharpoonup v_{\mathcal{I}}(A \wedge B) = T$  if  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = T$  and  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(B) = T$ , and F otherwise.
- ▶  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A \lor B) = F$  if  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = F$  and  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(B) = F$ , and T otherwise.
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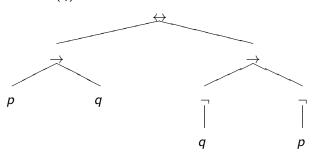
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Note: For the equivalence connective, it follows that

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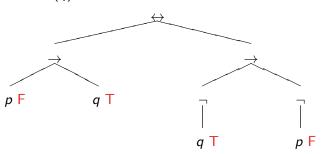
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Example: Let 
$$A = (p \rightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (\neg q \rightarrow \neg p)$$
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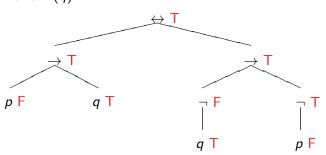
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## Definition 3.3 (Truth Table).

Let  $A \in \mathcal{F}$  with n atoms. A truth table has n+1 columns and  $2^n$  rows. There is a column for each atom in A, plus a column for the formula A. The first n columns specify all possible interpretations  $\mathcal{I}$  that map atoms in A to  $\{T,F\}$ . The last column shows  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A)$ , the truth value of A for each interpretation  $\mathcal{I}$ .

$p_1$	<i>p</i> <sub>2</sub>		p <sub>n</sub>	Α
T	T		T	$v_{\mathcal{I}}(A)$
T	T		F	$v_{\mathcal{I}}(A)$
:	:	:	:	:
F	F	• • •	F	$v_{\mathcal{I}}(A)$

Example:  $p \rightarrow q$ 

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р	q	p  o q
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
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р	q	$p \rightarrow q$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	eg q  o  eg p	$(p  ightarrow q) \leftrightarrow (\lnot q  ightarrow \lnot p)$
T	T					
T	F					
F	T					
F	F					

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T	T	T	F	F	Τ	T
T	F	F	F	T	F	T
F	T	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T	T

# Material Implication

The operator of  $p \rightarrow q$  is called material implication.

- p is the antecedent and q is the consequent
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"Earth is farther from the sun than Mars"  $\to$  "1 + 1 = 3" is true(!) as the falsity of the antecedent by itself is sufficient to ensure the truth of the implication

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Let  $A_1, A_2 \in \mathcal{F}$ . If  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A_1) = v_{\mathcal{I}}(A_2)$  for all interpretations  $\mathcal{I}$ , then  $A_1$  is logically equivalent to  $A_2$ , denoted  $A_1 \equiv A_2$ .

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Since  $\mathcal{I}$  was chosen arbitrarily,  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A \vee B) = v_{\mathcal{I}}(B \vee A)$  for all interpretations.  $\square$ 

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Suppose that  $A \equiv B$  and let  $\mathcal{I}$  be an arbitrary interpretation; then  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = v_{\mathcal{I}}(B)$  by definition of logical equivalence.

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# Logically Equivalent Formulae

Extend syntax to include the two constant atoms *true* and *false*.

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The following formulae are logical equivalent (more in [Ben-Ari, 2.3.3]):

```
A \lor true \equiv true
A \lor false \equiv A
A \to true \equiv true
A \to false \equiv \neg A
A \equiv A \land A
A \lor B \equiv B \lor A
A \lor (B \lor C) \equiv (A \lor B) \lor C
A \lor (B \land C) \equiv (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)
```

$$A \wedge true \equiv A$$
  
 $A \wedge false \equiv false$   
 $true \rightarrow A \equiv A$   
 $false \rightarrow A \equiv true$   
 $A \equiv A \vee A$   
 $A \wedge B \equiv B \wedge A$ 

$$A \wedge (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \wedge C$$

$$A \wedge (B \vee C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$$

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- Motivation
- ► Syntax
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## Definition 5.1 (Satisfiable, Model, Valid, Unsatisfiable, Invalid).

Let  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ .

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- ▶ A set of formulae  $U = \{A_1, ...\}$  is (simultaneously) satisfiable iff there exists an interpretation  $\mathcal{I}$  such that  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A_i) = T$  for all i; otherwise U is unsatisfiable. The satisfying interpretation is a model of U.

There is a close relation between these four semantical concepts.

Theorem 5.1 (Satisfiable, Valid, Unsatisfiable, Invalid).

Let  $A \in F$ . A is valid iff  $\neg A$  is unsatisfiable. A is satisfiable iff  $\neg A$  is invalid.

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#### Proof.

Let  $\mathcal{I}$  be an arbitrary interpretation.  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = T$  if and only if  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(\neg A) = F$  by definition of the truth value of negation. Since  $\mathcal{I}$  was arbitrary,  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = T$  for all interpretations if and only if  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(\neg A) = F$  for all interpretations, that is, iff  $\neg A$  is unsatisfiable.

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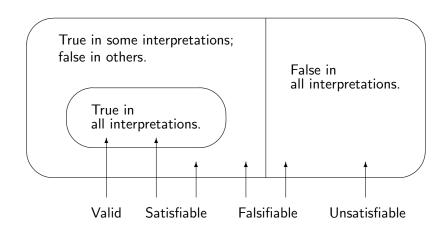
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If A is satisfiable then for some interpretation  $\mathcal{I}$ ,  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = T$ . By definition of the truth value of negation,  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(\neg A) = F$  so that  $\neg A$  is invalid. Conversely, if  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(\neg A) = F$  then  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = T$ .



# Decidability

#### Definition 5.2 (Decision Procedure).

Let  $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$  be a set of (propositional) formulae. An algorithm is a decision procedure for  $\mathcal{U}$  if given a formula  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , it terminates and returns the answer "yes" if  $A \in \mathcal{U}$  and the answer "no" if  $A \notin \mathcal{U}$ .

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For a given formula A with n atoms, use truth tables to evaluate truth values for A. If  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = T$  for all  $2^n$  possible interpretations  $\mathcal{I}$ , then answer "yes"; otherwise answer "no".

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This method is not very efficient; more efficient procedures will be introduced later.

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Let U be a set of formulas, A be a formula. A is a logical consequence of U, denoted  $U \models A$ , iff every model of U is a model of A.

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Example: Let  $A = (p \lor r) \land (\neg q \lor \neg r)$ . A is a logical consequence of  $\{p, \neg q\}$ , denoted  $\{p, \neg q\} \models A$ , as  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = T$  for all interpretations  $\mathcal{I}$  such that  $\mathcal{I}(p) = T$  and  $\mathcal{I}(q) = F$ . But A is not valid, as  $v_{\mathcal{I}}(A) = F$  for the interpretation  $\mathcal{I}$  where  $\mathcal{I}(p) = F$ ,  $\mathcal{I}(q) = T$ ,  $\mathcal{I}(r) = T$ .

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### Theorem 5.3 (Deduction Theorem).

Let  $U = \{A_1, ..., A_n\}$ . Then  $U \models A$  iff  $\models \bigwedge_i A_i \to A$ .

Proof. Left as an exercise.

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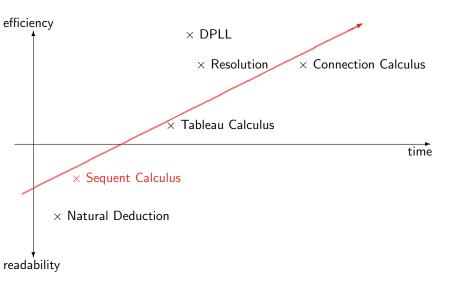
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### Proof Search Calculi



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▶ rules for → (implication)

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4 :: *B* 

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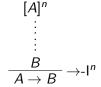
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\vdots \\
B \\
A \to B
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Goal: A derivation system similar to natural deduction but with "built-in" assumptions

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- ► Natural Deduction and Sequent calculus was developed by Gehard Gentzen in the 1930's
- ▶ Tools for investigating mathematical reasoning.

#### Definition 8.1 (Sequent).

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A sequent has the form  $\Gamma \Longrightarrow \Delta$  in which  $\Gamma$  and  $\Delta$  are finite (possibly empty) multisets of formulae. The left side of the sequent is called the antecedent, the right side is called the succedent.

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  - ▶ IF ALL of the formulae in Γ are true,
  - ightharpoonup THEN SOME of the formulae in  $\Delta$  are true

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- ► Example:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \hline p \implies p,q \text{ axiom} & \hline p,q \implies q \\ \hline \hline \hline p,p \rightarrow q \implies q & \rightarrow \text{-left} \\ \hline \hline p \land (p \rightarrow q) \implies q & \land \text{-left} \\ \hline \hline \Rightarrow p \land (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow q & \rightarrow \text{-right} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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$$\frac{p \implies p, q \text{ axiom}}{p, q \implies q} \xrightarrow{\text{axiom}} \frac{p, q \implies q}{p, p \rightarrow q \implies q} \xrightarrow{\text{$\rightarrow$-left}} \frac{p \land (p \rightarrow q) \implies q}{p \land (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow q} \xrightarrow{\text{$\rightarrow$-right}}$$

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- So let's look at the rules in detail!

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$$\frac{\Gamma, A \implies \Delta \qquad \Gamma, B \implies \Delta}{\Gamma, A \vee B \implies \Delta} \vee \text{-left} \qquad \frac{\Gamma \implies A, B, \Delta}{\Gamma \implies A \vee B, \Delta} \vee \text{-right}$$

▶ rules for → (implication)

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$$\frac{\Gamma \implies A, \Delta \qquad \Gamma, B \implies \Delta}{\Gamma, A \rightarrow B \implies \Delta} \rightarrow \text{-left}$$

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▶ rules for → (implication)

$$\frac{\Gamma \implies A, \Delta \qquad \Gamma, B \implies \Delta}{\Gamma, A \to B \implies \Delta} \to \mathsf{-left} \qquad \frac{\Gamma, A \implies B, \Delta}{\Gamma \implies A \to B, \Delta} \to \mathsf{-right}$$

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$$\frac{\Gamma \implies A, \Delta}{\Gamma, \neg A \implies \Delta} \neg \text{-left}$$

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$$\Gamma, A \implies A, \Delta$$
 axiom

Example:  $(p \land q) \rightarrow p$ 

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$$\frac{ \begin{array}{c} \overline{p,q} \Longrightarrow \overline{p} \text{ axiom} \\ \overline{p \wedge q} \Longrightarrow \overline{p} \end{array} \wedge \text{-left}}{ \Longrightarrow (p \wedge q) \rightarrow \overline{p}} \rightarrow \text{-right}$$

Example: 
$$p \land (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow q$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \hline p, \implies p, q & \text{axiom} & \hline p, q \implies q & \text{axiom} \\ \hline \hline p, p \rightarrow q & \implies q & \land \text{-left} \\ \hline \hline p \land (p \rightarrow q) & \implies q & \land \text{-right} \\ \hline \implies p \land (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow q & \rightarrow \text{-right} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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#### Calculus and Proof — General Definitions

### **Definition 8.2 (Calculus/Deductive System).**

A calculus consists of axioms and inference rules.

Axioms have the form  $\frac{w_1 \cdots w_n}{w}$ ; rules have the form  $\frac{w_1 \cdots w_n}{w}$   $(w_1, \dots, w_n \text{ are the premises, } w \text{ is the conclusion}).$ 

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#### Definition 8.3 (Proof, Derivation).

Let  $A=\{A_1,\ldots\}$  be axioms and  $R=\{R_1,\ldots\}$  be rules of a calculus.

- 1. Let  $\overline{w}$  be an instance of an axiom  $A_i \in \mathcal{A}$ . Then  $\overline{w}$  is a proof of w.
- 2. Let  $\frac{w_1 \cdots w_n}{w}$  be an instance of a rule  $R_i \in \mathcal{R}$  and  $\mathcal{D}_1, ..., \mathcal{D}_n$  proofs of  $w_1, ..., w_n$ . Then  $\frac{\mathcal{D}_1 \cdots \mathcal{D}_n}{w}$  is a proof of w.

A derivation is defined similarly, but leaves do not need to be axioms.

#### Definition 8.4 (Proofs in LK).

A proof of a formula A in the LK calculus is a proof of the sequent  $\implies A$  using the rules and axiom of LK. A formula A is provable, written  $\vdash A$ , iff there is a proof for A.

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#### Theorem 8.1 (Soundness and Completeness of LK).

The calculus of natural deduction LK is sound and complete, i.e.

- ▶ if A is provable in LK, then A is valid (if  $\vdash$  A then  $\models$  A)
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#### Proof.

Next week!



#### Outline

- ▶ Motivation
- ► Syntax
- Semantics
- ► Logical Equivalence
- ► Satisfiability & Validity
- Summary
- Motivation
- ► Sequent Calculus
- ▶ Decision Procedure
- Summary

The sequent calculus can be used as a decision procedure.

▶ Starting from the root  $\implies$  A, apply the rules of the sequent calculus LK to every sequent until no more rules can be applied

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- ▶ Next week: Soundness and Completeness proofs