

# Propositional and Predicate Logic - I

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# What is logic good for?

For **mathematicians**: “*mathematics about mathematics*”.

For **computer scientists**:

- formal specification (case EU vs. Microsoft),
- software and hardware verification (formal verification, model checking),
- declarative programming (e.g. Prolog),
- complexity theory (Boolean functions, circuits, proof complexity),
- computability (undecidability, incompleteness theorems),
- artificial intelligence (automatic reasoning, planning, Lean),
- universal tools: SAT and SMT solvers (SAT modulo theory),
- database design (finite relation structures, Datalog), ...

# Recommended reading

- J. Bulín, *Lecture Notes on Propositional and Predicate Logic*, 2024.
- M. Pilát, *Lecture Notes on Propositional and Predicate Logic*, 2020.
- A. Nerode, R. A. Shore, *Logic for Applications*, Springer, 2<sup>nd</sup> edition, 1997.
- P. Pudlák, *Logical Foundations of Mathematics and Computational Complexity - A Gentle Introduction*, Springer, 2013.
- J. R. Shoenfield, *Mathematical Logic*, A. K. Peters, 2001.
- W. Rautenberg, *A concise introduction to mathematical logic*, Springer, 2009.
- lecture slides, appendix, ...

# Historical overview

- **Aristotle** (384-322 B.C.E.) - theory of **sylogistic**, e.g.  
from *'no Q is R'* and *'every P is Q'* infer *'no P is R'*.
- **Euclid: *Elements*** (about 330 B.C.E.) - **axiomatic** approach to geometry  
*"There is at most one line that can be drawn parallel to another given one through an external point."* (5th postulate)
- **Descartes: *Geometry*** (1637) - **algebraic** approach to geometry
- **Leibniz** - dream of *"lingua characteristica, calculus ratiocinator"* (1679-90)
- **De Morgan** - introduction of **propositional connectives** (1847)  

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

$$\neg(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow \neg p \vee \neg q$$
- **Boole** - propositional functions, **algebra** of logic (1847)
- **Schröder** - semantics of predicate logic, concept of a **model** (1890-1905)

# Historical overview - set theory

- Cantor - intuitive set theory (1878), e.g. the comprehension principle

*“For every property  $\varphi(x)$  there exists a set  $\{x \mid \varphi(x)\}$ .”*

- Frege - first formal system with quantifiers and relations, concept of proofs based on inference, axiomatic set theory (1879, 1884)

- Russel - Frege's set theory is contradictory (1903)

*For a set  $a = \{x \mid \neg(x \in x)\}$  is  $a \in a$  ?*

- Russel, Whitehead - theory of types (1910-13)

- Zermelo (1908), Fraenkel (1922) - standard set theory ZFC, e.g.

*“For every property  $\varphi(x)$  and a set  $y$  there is a set  $\{x \in y \mid \varphi(x)\}$ .”*

- Bernays (1937), Gödel (1940) - set theory based on classes, e.g.

*“For every property of sets  $\varphi(x)$  there exists a class  $\{x \mid \varphi(x)\}$ .”*

# Historical overview - algorithmization

- **Hilbert** - **complete** axiomatization of Euclidean geometry (1899),  
**formalism** - strict divorce from the intended meanings  
*"It could be shown that all of mathematics follows from a correctly chosen finite system of axioms."*
- **Brouwer** - **intuitionism**, emphasis on explicit **constructive** proofs  
*"A mathematical statement corresponds to a mental construction, and its validity is verified by intuition."*
- **Post** - **completeness** of propositional (and **Gödel** - predicate) logic
- **Gödel** - **incompleteness** theorems (1931)
- **Kleene, Post, Church, Turing** - formalizations of the notion of **algorithm**,  
an existence of algorithmically **undecidable** problems (1936)
- **Robinson** - **resolution** method (1965)
- **Kowalski; Colmerauer, Roussel** - **Prolog** (1972)

# Levels of language

We distinguish different levels of logic according to the means of language, in particular to which level of quantification is admitted.

- **propositional connectives** *propositional logic*

This allows to form combined propositions from the basic ones.

- **variables for objects, symbols for relations and functions, quantifiers** *first-order logic*

This allows to form statements on objects, their properties and relations.

The (standard) set theory is also described by a first-order language.

In higher-order languages we have, in addition,

- **variables for sets of objects (also relations, functions)** *second-order logic*
- **variables for sets of sets of objects, etc.** *third-order logic*
- ...

# Examples of statements of various orders

- “If it will not rain, we will not get wet. And if it will rain, we will get wet, but then we will get dry on the sun.” *proposition*

$$(\neg r \rightarrow \neg w) \wedge (r \rightarrow (w \wedge d))$$

- “There exists the smallest element.” *first-order*

$$\exists x \forall y (x \leq y)$$

- The axiom of induction. *second-order*

$$\forall X ((X(0) \wedge \forall y (X(y) \rightarrow X(y+1))) \rightarrow \forall y X(y))$$

- “Every union of open sets is an open set.” *third-order*

$$\forall \mathcal{X} \forall Y ((\forall X (\mathcal{X}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(X)) \wedge \forall z (Y(z) \leftrightarrow \exists X (\mathcal{X}(X) \wedge X(z)))) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}(Y))$$



# Syntax and semantics

We will study relation between syntax and semantics:

- *syntax*: language, rules for formation of formulas, inference rules, formal proof system, proof, provability,
- *semantics*: interpreted meaning, structures, models, satisfiability, validity.

We will introduce the notion of **proof** as a well-defined syntactical object.

A formal proof system is

- *sound*, if every provable formula is valid,
- *complete*, if every valid formula is provable.

We will show that predicate logic (first-order logic) has formal proof systems that are both sound and complete. This does not hold for higher order logics.

# Paradoxes

“Paradoxes” show us the need of precise definitions of foundational concepts.

- *Cretan paradox*

*Cretan said: “All Cretans are liars.”*

- *Barber paradox*

*There is a barber in a town who shaves all that do not shave themselves.  
Does he shave himself?*

- *Liar paradox*

*This sentence is false.*

- *Berry paradox*

*The expression “The smallest positive integer not definable in under eleven words” defines it in ten words.*

# Propositional Logic

# Language

Propositional logic is a “*logic of propositional connectives*”. We start from a (nonempty) set  $\mathbb{P}$  of *propositional letters* (*variables*), e.g.

$$\mathbb{P} = \{p, p_1, p_2, \dots, q, q_1, q_2, \dots\}$$

We usually assume that  $\mathbb{P}$  is countable.

The *language* of propositional logic (over  $\mathbb{P}$ ) consists of **symbols**

- propositional letters from  $\mathbb{P}$
- propositional connectives  $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$
- parentheses  $(, )$

Thus the language is given by the set  $\mathbb{P}$ . We say that connectives and parentheses are *symbols of logic*.

We also use symbols for **constants**  $\top$  (true),  $\perp$  (false) which are introduced as **shortcuts** for  $p \vee \neg p$ , resp.  $p \wedge \neg p$  where  $p$  is any fixed variable from  $\mathbb{P}$ .

# Formula

*Propositional formulas* (*propositions*) (over  $\mathbb{P}$ ) are given inductively by

- (i) every propositional letter from  $\mathbb{P}$  is a proposition,
- (ii) if  $\varphi, \psi$  are propositions, then also

$$(\neg\varphi), (\varphi \wedge \psi), (\varphi \vee \psi), (\varphi \rightarrow \psi), (\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi)$$

are propositions,

- (iii) every proposition is formed by a **finite** number of steps (i), (ii).

- Thus propositions are (well-formed) **finite sequences** of symbols from the given language (**strings**).
- A proposition that is a part of another proposition  $\varphi$  as a substring is called a *subformula* (*subproposition*) of  $\varphi$ .
- The set of all propositions over  $\mathbb{P}$  is denoted by  $\text{PF}_{\mathbb{P}}$ .
- The set of all letters (variables) that occur in  $\varphi$  is denoted by  $\text{var}(\varphi)$ .

# Conventions

After introducing (standard) *priorities* for connectives we are allowed in a **concise form** to omit parentheses that are around a subformula formed by a connective of a **higher** priority.

(1)  $\neg$

(2)  $\wedge, \vee$

(3)  $\rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$

The outer parentheses can be omitted as well, e.g.

$((\neg p) \wedge q) \rightarrow (\neg(p \vee (\neg q)))$  is shortly  $\neg p \wedge q \rightarrow \neg(p \vee \neg q)$

**Note** If we do not respect the priorities, we can obtain an **ambiguous** form or even a concise form of a **non-equivalent** proposition.

Further possibilities to omit parentheses follow from semantical properties of connectives (**associativity** of  $\vee, \wedge$ ).

# Formation trees

A *formation tree* is a finite **ordered tree** whose nodes are labeled with propositions according to the following rules

- leaves (and only leaves) are labeled with propositional letters,
- if a node has label  $(\neg\varphi)$ , then it has a single son labeled with  $\varphi$ ,
- if a node has label  $(\varphi \wedge \psi)$ ,  $(\varphi \vee \psi)$ ,  $(\varphi \rightarrow \psi)$ , or  $(\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi)$ , then it has two sons, the **left** son labeled with  $\varphi$ , and the **right** son labeled with  $\psi$ .

A *formation tree of a proposition*  $\varphi$  is a formation tree with the root labeled with  $\varphi$ .

**Proposition** *Every proposition is associated with a unique formation tree.*

*Proof* By induction on the number of nested parentheses.  $\square$

# Semantics

- We consider only **two-valued** logic.
- Propositional letters represent (atomic) statements whose ‘meaning’ is given by an assignment of **truth values** 0 (*false*) or 1 (*true*).
- Semantics of propositional connectives is given by their **truth tables**.

$p$	$q$	$\neg p$	$p \wedge q$	$p \vee q$	$p \rightarrow q$	$p \leftrightarrow q$
0	0	1	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	1	1	1	1

This determines the truth value of every proposition based on the values assigned to its propositional letters.

- Thus we may assign “*truth tables*” also to all propositions. We say that propositions **represent** Boolean functions (up to the order of variables).
- A **Boolean function** is an  $n$ -ary operation on  $\{0, 1\}$ , i.e.  $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ .



# Truth valuations

- A *truth assignment* is a function  $\nu: \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ .
- A *truth value*  $\bar{\nu}(\varphi)$  of a proposition  $\varphi$  for a truth assignment  $\nu$  is given by

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \bar{\nu}(p) = \nu(p) & \text{if } p \in \mathbb{P} & \bar{\nu}(\neg\varphi) = \neg_1(\bar{\nu}(\varphi)) \\
 \bar{\nu}(\varphi \wedge \psi) = \wedge_1(\bar{\nu}(\varphi), \bar{\nu}(\psi)) & & \bar{\nu}(\varphi \vee \psi) = \vee_1(\bar{\nu}(\varphi), \bar{\nu}(\psi)) \\
 \bar{\nu}(\varphi \rightarrow \psi) = \rightarrow_1(\bar{\nu}(\varphi), \bar{\nu}(\psi)) & & \bar{\nu}(\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi) = \leftrightarrow_1(\bar{\nu}(\varphi), \bar{\nu}(\psi))
 \end{array}$$

where  $\neg_1, \wedge_1, \vee_1, \rightarrow_1, \leftrightarrow_1$  are the Boolean functions given by the tables.

**Proposition** *The truth value of a proposition  $\varphi$  depends only on the truth assignment of  $\text{var}(\varphi)$ .*

*Proof* Easily by induction on the structure of the formula.  $\square$

*Note* Since the function  $\bar{\nu}: \text{PF}_{\mathbb{P}} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  is a unique **extension** of the function  $\nu$ , we can (unambiguously) write  $\nu$  instead of  $\bar{\nu}$ .

# Semantic notions

A proposition  $\varphi$  over  $\mathbb{P}$  is

- *is true in (satisfied by) an assignment*  $v: \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , if  $\bar{v}(\varphi) = 1$ .  
Then  $v$  is a *satisfying assignment* for  $\varphi$ , denoted by  $v \models \varphi$ .
- *valid (a tautology)*, if  $\bar{v}(\varphi) = 1$  for every  $v: \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ ,  
i.e.  $\varphi$  is satisfied by every assignment, denoted by  $\models \varphi$ .
- *unsatisfiable (a contradiction)*, if  $\bar{v}(\varphi) = 0$  for every  $v: \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , i.e.  
 $\neg\varphi$  is valid.
- *independent (a contingency)*, if  $\bar{v}_1(\varphi) = 0$  and  $\bar{v}_2(\varphi) = 1$  for some  
 $v_1, v_2: \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , i.e.  $\varphi$  is neither a tautology nor a contradiction.
- *satisfiable*, if  $\bar{v}(\varphi) = 1$  for some  $v: \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , i.e.  $\varphi$  is not a contradiction.

Propositions  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are (logically) *equivalent*, denoted by  $\varphi \sim \psi$ , if  
 $\bar{v}(\varphi) = \bar{v}(\psi)$  for every  $v: \mathbb{P} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , i.e. the proposition  $\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$  is valid.

# Models

We reformulate these semantic notions in the terminology of models.

A *model of a language*  $\mathbb{P}$  is a truth assignment of  $\mathbb{P}$ . The class of all models of  $\mathbb{P}$  is denoted by  $M(\mathbb{P})$ . A proposition  $\varphi$  over  $\mathbb{P}$  is

- *true in a model*  $v \in M(\mathbb{P})$ , if  $\bar{v}(\varphi) = 1$ . Then  $v$  is a *model of*  $\varphi$ , denoted by  $v \models \varphi$  and  $M^{\mathbb{P}}(\varphi) = \{v \in M(\mathbb{P}) \mid v \models \varphi\}$  is the *class of all models* of  $\varphi$ .
- *valid (a tautology)* if it is true in every model of the language, denoted by  $\models \varphi$ .
- *unsatisfiable (a contradiction)* if it does not have a model.
- *independent (a contingency)* if it is true in some model and false in other.
- *satisfiable* if it has a model.

Propositions  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are (logically) *equivalent*, denoted by  $\varphi \sim \psi$ , if they have same models.

# Theory

*Informally, a theory is a description of “world” to which we restrict ourselves.*

- A propositional *theory* over the language  $\mathbb{P}$  is any set  $T$  of propositions from  $\text{PF}_{\mathbb{P}}$ . We say that propositions of  $T$  are *axioms* of the theory  $T$ .
- A *model of theory*  $T$  over  $\mathbb{P}$  is an assignment  $v \in M(\mathbb{P})$  (i.e. a model of the language) in which all axioms of  $T$  are true, denoted by  $v \models T$ .
- A *class of models* of  $T$  is  $M^{\mathbb{P}}(T) = \{v \in M(\mathbb{P}) \mid v \models \varphi \text{ for every } \varphi \in T\}$ .

For example, for  $T = \{p, \neg p \vee \neg q, q \rightarrow r\}$  over  $\mathbb{P} = \{p, q, r\}$  we have

$$M^{\mathbb{P}}(T) = \{(1, 0, 0), (1, 0, 1)\}$$

- If a theory is finite, it can be replaced by a *conjunction* of its axioms.
- We write  $M(T, \varphi)$  as a shortcut for  $M(T \cup \{\varphi\})$ .

## Semantics with respect to a theory

Semantic notions can be defined with respect to a theory, more precisely, with respect to its models. Let  $T$  be a theory over  $\mathbb{P}$ . A proposition  $\varphi$  over  $\mathbb{P}$  is

- *valid in  $T$  (true in  $T$ )* if it is true in every model of  $T$ , denoted by  $T \models \varphi$ . We also say that  $\varphi$  is a (semantic) *consequence* of  $T$ .
- *unsatisfiable (contradictory) in  $T$  (inconsistent with  $T$ )* if it is false in every model of  $T$ ,
- *independent (or contingency) in  $T$*  if it is true in some model of  $T$  and false in some other,
- *satisfiable in  $T$  (consistent with  $T$ )* if it is true in some model of  $T$ .

Propositions  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are *equivalent in  $T$  ( $T$ -equivalent)*, denoted by  $\varphi \sim_T \psi$ , if for every model  $v$  of  $T$ ,  $v \models \varphi$  if and only if  $v \models \psi$ .

*Note* If all axioms of a theory  $T$  are valid (tautologies), e.g. for  $T = \emptyset$ , then all notions with respect to  $T$  correspond to the same notions in (pure) logic.