

Formal Logic

A Pragmatic Introduction (Based on [Gallier 1986] and [Huth and Ryan 2004])

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Formal Logic

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What It Is



- logic concerns two concepts:
 - truth (in a specific or general context/model)
 - provability (of truth from assumed truth)
- Formal (symbolic) logic approaches logic by rules for manipulating symbols:
 - syntax rules: for writing statements or formulae.
 (There are also semantic rules determining whether a statement is true or false in a context or mathematical structure.)
 - inference rules: for obtaining true statements from other true statements.

(It is also possible to confirm true statements by considering all possible contexts.)

- 😚 Two main branches of formal logic:
 - 🌻 propositional logic
 - first-order logic (predicate logic/calculus)

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Why We Need It (in Software Development)



- Correctness of software hinges on a precise statement of its requirements.
- Logical formulae give the most precise kind of statements about software requirements.
- The fact that "a software program satisfies a requirement" is very much the same as "a mathematical structure satisfies a logical formula":

 $prog \models req$ vs. $M \models \varphi$

- To prove (formally verify) that a software program is correct, one may utilize the kind of inferences seen in formal logic.
- The verification may be done manually, semi-automatically, or fully automatically.

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Propositions



A proposition is a statement that is either true or false such as the following:

- Leslie is a teacher.
- Leslie is rich.
- 🌻 Leslie is a pop singer.
- Simplest (atomic) propositions may be combined to form compound propositions:
 - Leslie is not a teacher.
 - *Either* Leslie is not a teacher *or* Leslie is not rich.
 - *If* Leslie is a pop singer, *then* Leslie is rich.

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Inferences



📀 We are given the following assumptions:

- Leslie is a teacher.
- Either Leslie is not a teacher or Leslie is not rich.
- If Leslie is a pop singer, then Leslie is rich.
- We wish to conclude the following:
 - 🏓 Leslie is not a pop singer.
- The above process is an example of *inference* (deduction). Is it correct?

Symbolic Propositions



Propositions are represented by symbols, when only their truth values are of concern.

- P: Leslie is a teacher.
- 🟓 📿: Leslie is rich.
- *R*: Leslie is a pop singer.

Sompound propositions can then be more succinctly written.

- not P: Leslie is not a teacher.
- not P or not Q: Either Leslie is not a teacher or Leslie is not rich.
- R *implies Q*: If Leslie is a pop singer, then Leslie is rich.

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Symbolic Inferences



😚 We are given the following assumptions:

- P (Leslie is a teacher.)
- not P or not Q (Either Leslie is not a teacher or Leslie is not rich.)
- \circledast *R* implies *Q* (If Leslie is a pop singer, then Leslie is rich.)
- We wish to conclude the following:
 - *not* R (Leslie is not a pop singer.)
- Correctness of the inference may be checked by asking:
 - Is (P and (not P or not Q) and (R implies Q)) implies (not R) a tautology (valid formula)?
 - ${\ensuremath{\stackrel{@}{=}}}$ Or, is $P \wedge (\neg P \lor \neg Q) \land (R \to Q) \to \neg R$ valid?

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Boolean Expressions and Propositions



 Boolean expressions are essentially propositional formulae, though they may allow more things as atomic formulae.
 Boolean expressions:

Solution Propositional formula: $(P \lor Q \lor \neg R) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q) \land P$

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Normal Forms



- A *literal* is an atomic proposition or its negation.
- A propositional formula is in Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) if it is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals.

$$\stackrel{\scriptstyle \bullet}{=} (P \lor Q \lor \neg R) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q) \land P$$

$$\stackrel{\flat}{=} (P \lor Q \lor \neg R) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q \lor R) \land (P \lor \neg Q \lor \neg R)$$

A propositional formula is in Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF) if it is a disjunction of conjunctions of literals.

$$\begin{array}{l} \bullet \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \end{array} (P \land Q \land \neg R) \lor (\neg P \land \neg Q) \lor P \\ \bullet \\ \bullet \\ (\neg P \land \neg Q \land R) \lor (P \land Q \land \neg R) \lor (\neg P \land Q \land R) \\ \end{array}$$

- A propositional formula is in Negation Normal Form (NNF) if negations occur only in literals.
 - CNF or DNF is also NNF (but not vice versa).

♦ $(P \land \neg Q) \land (P \lor (Q \land \neg R))$ in NNF, but not CNF or DNF.

Every propositional formula has an equivalent formula in each of these normal forms.

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Models, Satisfiability, and Validity



- Models provide the (semantic) context in which a logic formula is judged to be true or false.
- Hodels are formally represented as mathematical structures.
- I formula can be true in one model, but false in another.
- A model *satisfies* a formula if the formula is true in the model (notation: $M \models \varphi$).

$$\stackrel{\hspace{0.1em} \bullet}{=} v(P) = F, v(Q) = T \models (P \lor Q) \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q)$$

- A formula is satisfiable if there is a model that satisfies the formula.
- A formula is *valid* if it is true in every model (notation: $\models \varphi$).

$$\stackrel{\bigstar}{=} \begin{array}{l} A \lor \neg A \\ \stackrel{\bigstar}{=} \left(A \land B \right) \rightarrow (A \lor B) \end{array}$$

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Semantic Entailment



- 📀 Let Γ be a set of formulae.
- Output A model satisfies Γ if the model satisfies every formula in Γ.
- We say that Γ semantically entails C if every model that satisfies Γ also satisfies C, written as Γ ⊨ C.

$$\stackrel{{}_{\bullet}}{=} A, A \rightarrow B \models B$$

$$A \to B, \neg B \models \neg A$$

• A main ingredient of a logic is a systematic way to draw conclusions of the above form, namely $\Gamma \models C$.

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Sequents



- We write " $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m \vdash C$ " to mean that the truth of formula C follows from the truth of formulae A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m .
- " $A_1, A_2, \cdots, A_m \vdash C$ " is called a *sequent*.
- In the sequent, A_1, A_2, \dots, A_m collectively are called the *antecedent* (also *context*) and C the *consequent*.

Note: Many authors prefer to write a sequent as $\Gamma \longrightarrow C$ or $\Gamma \implies C$, while reserving the symbol \vdash for provability (deducibility) in the proof (deduction) system under consideration.



- Inference rules allow one to obtain true statements from other true statements.
- Below is an inference rule for conjunction.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \land B} (\land I)$$

In an inference rule, the upper sequents (above the horizontal line) are called the *premises* and the lower sequent is called the *conclusion*.

Proofs



A deduction tree is a tree where each node is labeled with a sequent such that, for every internal (non-leaf) node,

the label of the node corresponds to the conclusion and

the labels of its children correspond to the premises

of an instance of an inference rule.

- A proof tree is a deduction tree, each of whose leaves is labeled with an axiom.
- The root of a deduction or proof tree is called the conclusion.
- A sequent is provable if there exists a proof tree of which it is the conclusion.

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Natural Deduction in the Sequent Form

$$\frac{\overline{\Gamma, A \vdash A}}{\Gamma \vdash A \land B} (Ax)$$

$$\frac{\overline{\Gamma \vdash A \land B}}{\Gamma \vdash A \land B} (\land I) \qquad \frac{\overline{\Gamma \vdash A \land B}}{\Gamma \vdash A} (\land E_1)$$

$$\frac{\overline{\Gamma \vdash A \land B}}{\Gamma \vdash B} (\land E_2)$$

$$\frac{A}{\lor B} (\lor I_1) \qquad \Gamma \vdash A \lor B \qquad \Gamma A \vdash C \qquad \Gamma B \vdash C$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B}{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B} (\lor I_1) \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B}{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B} (\lor I_2) \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B}{\Gamma \vdash C} (\lor E)$$

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Natural Deduction (cont.)



$$\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \to B} (\to I) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \to B}{\Gamma \vdash B} (\to E)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B \land \neg B}{\Gamma \vdash \neg A} (\neg I) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash B} (\neg E)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash \neg \neg A} (\neg \neg I) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \neg \neg A}{\Gamma \vdash A} (\neg \neg E)$$

Note: these inference rules collectively are called System ND.

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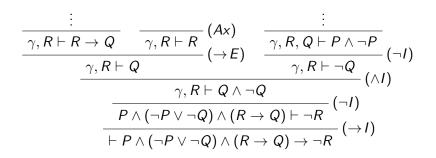
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A Proof in Propositional ND



Below is a partial proof of the validity of $P \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q) \land (R \to Q) \to \neg R \text{ in } ND$, where γ denotes $P \land (\neg P \lor \neg Q) \land (R \to Q)$.



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Soundness



- A deduction (proof) system is *sound* if it produces only semantically valid results.
- More formally, a system is sound if, whenever $\Gamma \vdash C$ is provable in the system, then $\Gamma \models C$.
- Soundness allows us to draw semantically valid conclusions from purely syntactical inferences.

Predicates



- A predicate is a "parameterized" statement that, when supplied with actual arguments, is either true or false such as the following:
 - Leslie is a teacher.
 - Chris is a teacher.
 - Leslie is a pop singer.
 - Chris is a pop singer.
- Like propositions, simplest (atomic) predicates may be combined to form compound predicates.

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Inferences





- *For any* person, *either* the person is not a teacher *or* the person is not rich.
- For any person, if the person is a pop singer, then the person is rich.
- We wish to conclude the following:
 - For any person, if the person is a teacher, then the person is not a pop singer.

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Symbolic Predicates



Like propositions, predicates are represented by symbols.

- (x): x is a teacher.
- (x): x is rich.
- # r(y): y is a pop singer.
- Compound predicates can be expressed:
 - For all $x, r(x) \rightarrow q(x)$: For any person, if the person is a pop singer, then the person is rich.
 - For all y, $p(y) \rightarrow \neg r(y)$: For any person, if the person is a teacher, then the person is not a pop singer.

Symbolic Inferences



📀 We are given the following assumptions:

- [●] For all $x, \neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)$.
- \circledast For all $x, r(x) \to q(x)$.
- 😚 We wish to conclude the following:
 - \circledast For all $x, p(x) \rightarrow \neg r(x)$.
- To check the correctness of the inference above, we ask:
 - is ((for all $x, \neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land$ (for all $x, r(x) \rightarrow q(x)$)) \rightarrow (for all $x, p(x) \rightarrow \neg r(x)$) valid?
 - or, is $\forall x(\neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \to q(x)) \to \forall x(p(x) \to \neg r(x))$ valid?

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Syntax and Semantics by Examples



- A first-order formula is written using logical and non-logical symbols.
 - logical symbols: variables, boolean connectives, and quantifiers (which are standard)
 - non-logical symbols: predicates, functions, and constants (which vary, depending on the purpose)
- Below are some terms and formulae in the simple language with predicate =, function ·, and constant e:

* terms: e, x, x · y, x · (y · z), etc..
* formulae:
$$\forall x((x \cdot e = e \cdot x) \land (e \cdot x = x))$$
 or
 $\forall x(x \cdot e = e \cdot x = x),$
 $\forall x(\forall y(\forall z(x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z))))$ or
 $\forall x, y, z(x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z)$, etc.

What do the formulae mean?

$$(Z, \{+, 0\}) \models \forall x (x \cdot e = e \cdot x = x) (Q \setminus \{0\}, \{\times, 1\}) \models \forall x, y, z (x \cdot (y \cdot z) = (x \cdot y) \cdot z)$$

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What about Types



- Ordinary first-order formulae are interpreted over a single domain of discourse (the universe).
- A variant of first-order logic, called many-sorted (or typed) first-order logic, allows variables of different sorts (which correspond to partitions of the universe).
- When the number of sorts is finite, one can emulate sorts by introducing additional unary predicates in the ordinary first-order logic.
 - Suppose there are two sorts.
 - We introduce two new unary predicates P_1 and P_2 .
 - 🌻 We then stipulate that
 - $\forall x (P_1(x) \lor P_2(x)) \land \neg (\exists x (P_1(x) \land P_2(x))).$
 - * As an example, $\exists x(P_1(x) \land \varphi(x))$ means that there is an element of the first sort satisfying φ .

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Free and Bound Variables



- In a formula ∀xA (or ∃xA), the variable x is bound by the quantifier ∀ (or ∃).
- A *free* variable is one that is not bound.
- The same variable may have both a free and a bound occurrence.
- For example, consider (∀x(R(x, y) → P(x)) ∧ ∀y(¬R(x, y) ∧ ∀xP(x))). The underlined occurrences of x and y are free, while others are bound.
- A formula is *closed*, also called a *sentence*, if it does not contain a free variable.

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Substitutions



- Solution to the second second
- The result of substituting t for a free variable x in A is denoted by A[t/x].
- Consider $A = \forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x, f(y))).$
 - When t = g(y), $A[t/y] = \forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x, f(g(y))))$.
 - For any t, A[t/x] = ∀x(P(x) → Q(x, f(y))) = A, since there is no free occurrence of x in A.
- A substitution is *admissible* if no free variable of *t* would become bound (be captured by a quantifier) after the substitution.
- For example, when t = g(x, y), A[t/y] is not admissible, as the free variable x of t would become bound.

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Quantifier Rules of Natural Deduction



$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A[y/x]}{\Gamma \vdash \forall xA} (\forall I) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \forall xA}{\Gamma \vdash A[t/x]} (\forall E)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A[t/x]}{\Gamma \vdash \exists xA} (\exists I) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \exists xA \quad \Gamma, A[y/x] \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash B} (\exists E)$$

In the rules above, we assume that all substitutions are admissible and y does not occur free in Γ or A.

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A Proof in First-Order ND

Below is a partial proof of the validity of $\forall x(\neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \to q(x)) \to \forall x(p(x) \to \neg r(x))$ in *ND*, where γ denotes $\forall x(\neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \to q(x))$.

$$\frac{\overline{\gamma, p(y), r(y) \vdash r(y) \rightarrow q(y)}}{\gamma, p(y), r(y) \vdash q(y)} \xrightarrow{(Ax)} (Ax)$$

$$\frac{\gamma, p(y), r(y) \vdash q(y)}{(\gamma, p(x) \lor \gamma q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \rightarrow q(x)), p(y), r(y) \vdash q(y) \land \neg q(y)} (A)$$

$$\frac{\forall x(\neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \rightarrow q(x)), p(y) \vdash \neg r(y)}{\forall x(\neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \rightarrow q(x)), p(y) \vdash \neg r(y)} (A)$$

$$\frac{\forall x(\neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \rightarrow q(x)) \vdash p(y) \rightarrow \neg r(y)}{\forall x(\neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \rightarrow q(x)) \vdash \forall x(p(x) \rightarrow \neg r(x))} (A)$$

$$\frac{\forall x(\neg p(x) \lor \neg q(x)) \land \forall x(r(x) \rightarrow q(x)) \vdash \forall x(p(x) \rightarrow \neg r(x))} (A)$$

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Let t, t_1, t_2 be arbitrary terms; again, assume all substitutions are admissible.

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t = t}{\Gamma \vdash t = t} (= I) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 = t_2 \quad \Gamma \vdash A[t_1/x]}{\Gamma \vdash A[t_2/x]} (= E)$$

Note: The = sign is part of the object language, not a meta symbol.

Theory



S Assume a fixed first-order language.

 \bigcirc A set S of sentences is closed under provability if

$$S = \{A \mid A \text{ is a sentence and } S \vdash A \text{ is provable}\}.$$

- A set of sentences is called a *theory* if it is closed under provability.
- A theory is typically represented by a smaller set of sentences, called its axioms.

Note: a sentence is a formula without free variables. For example, $\forall x (x \ge 0)$ is a sentence, but $x \ge 0$ is not.

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Group as a First-Order Theory



The set of non-logical symbols is {·, e}, where · is a binary function (operation) and e is a constant (the identity).

📀 Axioms:

- \bigcirc (Z, {+, 0}) is a model of the theory.
- So is $(Q \setminus \{0\}, \{\times, 1\})$.

Additional axiom for Abelian groups:

 $\forall a, b(a \cdot b = b \cdot a)$ (Commutativity)

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Theorems



- A theorem is just a statement (sentence) in a theory (a set of sentences).
- For example, the following are theorems in Group theory:

$$> \forall a \forall b \forall c ((a \cdot b = a \cdot c) \rightarrow b = c).$$

∀a∀b∀c(((a⋅b = e) ∧ (b⋅a = e) ∧ (a⋅c = e) ∧ (c⋅a = e)) → b = c),
 which says that every element has a unique inverse.

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