Formal Logic

Mathematical Structures for Computer Science Chapter 1



Logic: The foundation of reasoning

 What is formal logic? Multiple definitions
 Foundation for organized and careful method of thinking that characterizes reasoned activity

The study of reasoning : specifically concerned with whether something is true or false

- Formal logic focuses on the *relationship* between *statements* as opposed to the content of any particular statement.
- Applications of formal logic in computer science:
 - Prolog: programming languages based on logic.
 - Circuit Logic: logic governing computer circuitry.

Statement

• Definition of a statement:

A *statement*, also called a *proposition*, is a sentence that is either *true* or *false*, but not both.

- Hence the truth value of a statement is T (1) or F (0)
- Examples: Which ones are statements?
 - All mathematicians wear sandals.
 - 5 is greater than −2.
 - Where do you live?
 - You are a cool person.
 - Anyone who wears sandals is an algebraist.

- An example to illustrate how logic really helps us (3 statements written below):
 - All mathematicians wear sandals.
 - Anyone who wears sandals is an algebraist.
 - Therefore, all mathematicians are algebraists.
- Logic is of no help in determining the individual truth of these statements.
- However, if the first two statements are true, logic assures the truth of the third statement.
- Logical methods are used in mathematics to prove theorems and in computer science to prove that programs do what they are supposed to do.

Statements and Logical Connectives

- Usually, letters like A, B, C, D, etc. are used to represent statements.
- Logical connectives are symbols such as \land , V, \leftrightarrow , \rightarrow
 - A represents and
 - \rightarrow represents *implication*
 - \leftrightarrow represents *equivalence*
- A <u>statement form</u> or <u>propositional form</u> is an expression made up of statement variables (such as A and B) and logical connectives (such as ∧, V, ↔, →) that becomes a statement when actual statements are substituted for the component statement variables.
 - Example: $(A V A') \rightarrow (B \land B')$

- <u>Connective # 1</u>: Conjunction (symbol ∧)
 - If A and B are statement variables, the conjunction of A and B is A ∧ B, which is read "A and B".
 - $A \land B$ is true when both A and B are true.
 - $A \land B$ is false when at least one of A or B is false.
 - A and B are called the conjuncts of $A \land B$.
- <u>Connective # 2</u>: Disjunction (symbol V)
 - If A and B are statement variables, the disjunction of A and B is A V B, which is read "A or B".
 - A V B is true when at least one of A or B is true.
 - A V B is false when both A and B are false.
 - A and B are called the disjuncts of A V B.

- <u>Connective # 3</u>: Implication (symbol \rightarrow)
- If A and B are statement variables, the symbolic form of "if A then B" is A → B. This may also be read "A implies B" or "A only if B."Here A is called the hypothesis/antecedent statement and B is called the conclusion/consequent statement.
- "If A then B" is false when A is true and B is false, and it is true otherwise.
- Note: $A \rightarrow B$ is true if A is false, regardless of the truth of B
- Example: If Ms. X passes the exam, then she will get the job
- Here B is *She will get the job* and A is *Ms. X passes the exam.*
 - The statement states that Ms. X will get the job **if** a certain condition (passing the exam) is met; it says nothing about what will happen if the condition is not met. If the condition is not met, the truth of the conclusion cannot be determined; the conditional statement is therefore considered to be vacuously true, or true by default.

Another form of *implication*

- Representation of *If-Then* as **Or**
- Let A' be "You do your homework" and B be "You will flunk."
- The given statement is "Either you do your homework or you will flunk," which is A' V B.
- In *if-then* form, A → B means that "If you do not do your homework, then you will flunk," where A (which is equivalent to A") is "You do not do your homework."

• Hence,
$$A \rightarrow B \equiv A' \vee B$$

Α	В	А→В
Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F
F	Т	Т
F	F	Т

Α	A'	В	A' V B
Т	F	Т	Т
Т	F	F	F
F	Т	Т	Т
F	Т	F	Т

- <u>Connective # 4</u>: Equivalence (symbol \leftrightarrow)
- If A and B are statement variables, the symbolic form of "A if, and only if, B" and is denoted $A \leftrightarrow B$.
- It is true if both A and B have the same truth values.
- It is false if A and B have opposite truth values.
- The truth table is as follows:
- Note: $A \leftrightarrow B$ is a short form for $(A \rightarrow B) \land (B \rightarrow A)$

Α	В	А→В	В→А	$(\mathbf{A} \to \mathbf{B}) \land (\mathbf{B} \to \mathbf{A})$
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	Т	F
F	Т	Т	F	F
F	F	Т	Т	Т

- <u>Connective #5: Negation</u> (symbol ')
- If A is a statement variable, the negation of A is "not A" and is denoted A'.
- It has the opposite truth value from A: if A is true, then A' is false; if A is false, then A' is true.
- Example of a negation:
- A: 5 is greater than –2
 - A': 5 is less than -2
- B: She likes butter
 - B' : She dislikes butter / She hates butter
- A: She hates butter but likes cream / She hates butter and likes cream
- A' : She likes butter or hates cream
- Hence, in a negation, **and** becomes **or** and vice versa

Truth Tables

• A truth table is a table that displays the truth values of a statement form which correspond to the different combinations of truth values for the variables.

Α	В	$A \land B$
Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F
F	Т	F
F	F	F

A	В	A V B
Т	Т	Т
Т	F	Т
F	Т	Т
F	F	F

Α	В	A→B
Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F
F	Т	Т
F	F	Т

Α	В	A↔B
Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F
F	Т	F
F	F	Т



Well Formed Formula (wff)

- Combining letters, connectives, and parentheses can generate an expression which is meaningful, called a wff.
 - e.g. $(A \rightarrow B) \vee (B \rightarrow A)$ is a wff but A)) $\vee B (\rightarrow C)$ is not
- To reduce the number of parentheses, an order is stipulated in which the connectives can be applied, called the order of precedence, which is as follows:
 - Connectives within innermost parentheses first and then progress outwards
 - Negation (')
 - Conjunction (A), Disjunction (V)
 - Implication (\rightarrow)
 - Equivalence (\leftrightarrow)
 - Hence, $A \lor B \to C$ is the same as $(A \lor B) \to C$

Truth Tables for some wffs

 The truth table for the wff A V B' → (A V B)' shown below. The main connective, according to the rules of precedence, is implication.

А	В	B'	A V B'	A V B	(A V B)'	$A V B' \rightarrow (A V B)'$
Т	Т	F	Т	Т	F	F
Т	F	Т	Т	Т	F	F
F	Т	F	F	Т	F	Т
F	F	Т	Т	F	Т	Т

Wff with n statement letters

• The total number of rows in a truth table for *n* statement letters is 2^n .





(a)



Tautology and Contradiction

- Letters like P, Q, R, S etc. are used for representing wffs
 - $[(A V B) \land C'] \rightarrow A' V C$ can be represented by $P \rightarrow Q$ where
 - P is the wff $[(A V B) \land C']$ and Q represents A' V C
- <u>Definition of tautology</u>:
- A wff that is intrinsically true, i.e. no matter what the truth value of the statements that comprise the wff.
 - e.g. It will rain today or it will not rain today (A V A')
 - $P \leftrightarrow Q$ where P is $A \rightarrow B$ and Q is A' V B
- <u>Definition of a contradiction</u>:
- A wff that is intrinsically false, i.e. no matter what the truth value of the statements that comprise the wff.
 - e.g. It will rain today and it will not rain today ($A \land A'$)
 - (A ∧ B) ∧ A'
- Usually, tautology is represented by 1 and contradiction by 0

Tautological Equivalences

- Two statement forms are called *logically equivalent* if, and only if, they have identical truth values for each possible substitution of statements for their statement variables.
- The logical equivalence of statement forms P and Q is denoted by writing $P \Leftrightarrow Q$ or $P \equiv Q$.
- Truth table for $(A V B) V C \Leftrightarrow A V (B V C)$

А	В	C	A V B	B V C	(A V B) V C	A V (B V C)
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	Т	F	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	Т	F	Т	Т
F	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
F	Т	F	Т	Т	Т	Т
F	F	Т	F	Т	Т	Т
F	F	F	F	F	F	F

Some Common Equivalences

- The equivalences are listed in pairs, hence they are called duals of each other.
- One equivalence can be obtained from another by replacing V with Λ and 0 with 1 or vice versa.

Commutative	$A \lor B \Leftrightarrow B \lor A$	$A \land B \Leftrightarrow B \land A$
Associative	$(A V B) V C \Leftrightarrow A V (B V C)$	$(A \land B) \land C \Leftrightarrow A \land (B \land C)$
Distributive	$A V (B \land C) \Leftrightarrow (A V B) \land (A V C)$	$A \land (B \lor C) \Leftrightarrow (A \land B) \lor (A \land C)$
Identity	$A \lor 0 \Leftrightarrow A$	$A \land 1 \Leftrightarrow A$
Complement	$A V A' \Leftrightarrow 1$	$A \land A' \Leftrightarrow 0$

• Prove the distributive property using truth tables.

De Morgan's Laws

- 1. $(A V B)' \Leftrightarrow A' \land B'$
- 2. $(A \land B)' \Leftrightarrow A' \lor B'$

A	В	A'	B′	A V B	(A V B)'	$A' \wedge B'$
Т	Т	F	F	Т	F	F
Т	F	F	Т	Т	F	F
F	Т	Т	F	Т	F	F
F	F	Т	Т	F	Т	Т

- Conditional Statements in programming use logical connectives with statements.
- Example

if((outflow inflow) and not(pressure 1000))

do something;

else

do something else;

• <u>Definition of an algorithm:</u>

A set of instructions that can be mechanically executed in a finite amount of time in order to solve a problem unambiguously.

- Algorithms are the stage in between the verbal form of a problem and the computer program.
- Algorithms are usually represented by pseudocode.
- Pseudocode should be easy to understand even if you have no idea of programming.

j = 1 // initial value

Repeat

```
read a value for k

if ((j < 5) \text{ AND } (2*j < 10) \text{ OR } ((3*j)^{1/2} > 4)) then

write the value of j

otherwise

write the value of 4*j

end if statement

increase j by 1

Until j > 6
```

Tautology Test Algorithm

This algorithm applies only when the main connective is Implication (→)

TautologyTest(wff P; wff Q)

//Given wffs *P* and *Q*, decides whether the wff $P \rightarrow Q$ is a tautology.

//Assume $P \rightarrow Q$ is not a tautology

P =true // assign T to P

Q =false // assign F to Q

repeat

for each compound wff already assigned a truth value, assign the truth values determined for its components

until all occurrences of statements letters have truth values

if some letter has two truth values

then //contradiction, assumption false

```
write ("P \rightarrow Q is a tautology.")
```

```
else //found a way to make P \rightarrow Q false
```

```
write ("P \rightarrow Q is not a tautology.")
```

end if

end TautologyTest