

# Transformations of logical formulae

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## Previous lecture

- ▶ Why formal logic ?
- ▶ Propositional logic
- ▶ Syntax
- ▶ Meaning of formulae

## Our example with a truth table

### Hypotheses:

- ▶ (H1): If Peter is old, then John is not the son of Peter
- ▶ (H2): If Peter is not old, then John is the son of Peter
- ▶ (H3): If John is Peter's son then Mary is the sister of John

**Conclusion (C):** Mary is the sister of John, or Peter is old.

$$(p \Rightarrow \neg j) \wedge (\neg p \Rightarrow j) \wedge (j \Rightarrow m) \Rightarrow m \vee p$$

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$$(p \Rightarrow \neg j) \wedge (\neg p \Rightarrow j) \wedge (j \Rightarrow m) \Rightarrow m \vee p$$

$p$	$j$	$m$	$p \Rightarrow \neg j$	$\neg p \Rightarrow j$	$j \Rightarrow m$	$H_1 \wedge H_2 \wedge H_3$	$m \vee p$	$H_1 \wedge H_2 \wedge H_3 \Rightarrow m \vee p$
0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1

# Plan

Consequence

Important equivalences

Substitution and replacement

Normal forms

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## Logical consequence (entailment)

### Definition 1.2.24

$A$  is a **consequence** of the set  $\Gamma$  of hypotheses ( $\Gamma \models A$ ) if every model of  $\Gamma$  is a model of  $A$ .

### Remark 1.2.26

$\models A$  denotes that  $A$  is valid.

(Every truth assignment is a model for the empty set.)

## Example of a consequence

### Example 1.2.28

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0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1

## ESSENTIAL property

Often used in exercises and during exams.

### Property 1.2.27

Let  $H_n = A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n$ .

The following three formulations are equivalent:

1.  $A_1, \dots, A_n \models B$
2.  $H_n \Rightarrow B$  is valid.
3.  $H_n \wedge \neg B$  is unsatisfiable.

### Proof.

Based on the truth tables of the connectives.

We prove that  $1 \Rightarrow 2$  then  $2 \Rightarrow 3$  and  $3 \Rightarrow 1$ . □

## Proof (1/3)

- ▶  $1 \Rightarrow 2$ : let us assume that  $A_1, \dots, A_n \models B$ .

Let  $v$  be a truth assignment:

- ▶ if  $v$  is not a model for  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ :  
for a certain  $i$  we have  $[A_i]_v = 0$ , hence  $[H_n]_v = 0$ .  
Thus  $[H_n \Rightarrow B]_v = 1$ .
- ▶ if  $v$  is a model for  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ :  
then by hypothesis  $v$  is a model for  $B$  therefore  $[B]_v = 1$ .  
Thus  $[H_n \Rightarrow B]_v = 1$ .

Therefore  $H_n \Rightarrow B$  is valid.

## Proof (2/3)

- ▶  $2 \Rightarrow 3$ : let us assume that  $H_n \Rightarrow B$  is valid.

For every truth assignment  $v$ :

- ▶ either  $[H_n]_v = 0$ ,
- ▶ or  $[H_n]_v = 1$  and  $[B]_v = 1$ .

However  $[H_n \wedge \neg B]_v = \min([H_n]_v, [\neg B]_v) = \min([H_n]_v, 1 - [B]_v)$ .

In both cases, we have  $[H_n \wedge \neg B]_v = 0$ .

Therefore  $H_n \wedge \neg B$  is unsatisfiable.

## Proof (3/3)

- ▶  $3 \Rightarrow 1$ : let us assume that  $H_n \wedge \neg B$  is unsatisfiable.  
Let us show that  $A_1, \dots, A_n \models B$ .

Let  $v$  be a truth assignment model of  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ :

- ▶  $[H_n]_v = [A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n]_v = 1$ .
- ▶ According to our hypothesis  $[\neg B]_v = 0$ .  
Hence,  $1 - [B]_v = 0$  so  $[B]_v = 1$ , i.e.  $v$  is a model for  $B$ .

Exercise 7 shows why proving these 3 circular implications is sufficient.

## Instance of the property

## Example 1.2.28

$a$	$b$	$c$	$a \Rightarrow b$	$b \Rightarrow c$	$a \Rightarrow c$	$(a \Rightarrow b) \wedge (b \Rightarrow c)$ $\Rightarrow (a \Rightarrow c)$	$(a \Rightarrow b) \wedge (b \Rightarrow c)$ $\wedge \neg(a \Rightarrow c)$
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0	0	1	1	1	1		
0	1	0	1	0	1		
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1	1	0	1	0	0	1	0
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# Compactness

## Theorem 1.2.30 Propositional compactness

A set of **propositional** formulae has a model if and only if every finite subset of it has a model.

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A set of **propositional** formulae has a model if and only if every finite subset of it has a model.

This theorem may look trivial. However, the set of formulae may be infinite !

This result will be used at a later stage in the course (bases for automated theorem proving).

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How to prove that a formula is valid?

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- ▶ Truth table
  - ▶ Problem: for a formula having 100 variables, the truth table will contain  $2^{100}$  lines (unable to be computed, even by a computer!).

# Preamble

## How to prove that a formula is valid?

- ▶ Truth table
  - ▶ Problem: for a formula having 100 variables, the truth table will contain  $2^{100}$  lines (unable to be computed, even by a computer!).
- ▶ Idea:
  - ▶ Simplify the formula using **transformations**
  - ▶ Then, study the simplified formula using truth tables or a logic reasoning

# Disjunction

- ▶ **associative**  $x \vee (y \vee z) \equiv (x \vee y) \vee z$
- ▶ **commutative**  $x \vee y \equiv y \vee x$
- ▶ **idempotent**  $x \vee x \equiv x$

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Ditto for conjunction.



# Distributivity

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## Neutrality and Absorption

- ▶ 0 is the neutral element for disjunction  $0 \vee x \equiv x$
- ▶ 1 is the neutral element for conjunction  $1 \wedge x \equiv x$
- ▶ 1 is the absorbing element for disjunction  $1 \vee x \equiv 1$
- ▶ 0 is the absorbing element for conjunction  $0 \wedge x \equiv 0$

# Negation

▶ Negation laws:

▶  $x \wedge \neg x \equiv 0$

▶  $x \vee \neg x \equiv 1$  (The law of excluded middle)

▶  $\neg\neg x \equiv x$

▶  $\neg 0 \equiv 1$

▶  $\neg 1 \equiv 0$

## De Morgan laws

$$\blacktriangleright \neg(x \wedge y) \equiv \neg x \vee \neg y$$

$$\blacktriangleright \neg(x \vee y) \equiv \neg x \wedge \neg y$$

Augustus De Morgan (1860) builds on Boole's algebra:

- ▶ Work about quantifiers
- ▶ Calculus of relations  
(also see C.S. Peirce's works)

which laid grounds for first-order logic (see 2nd part of the course).



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- ▶ Notion of duality in Boole's algebras

expressed in particular as De Morgan's laws

- ▶ Involved (though very briefly) in the first conjectures about the four colour theorem





# Simplification laws

## Property 1.2.31

For every  $x, y$  we have:

- ▶  $x \vee (x \wedge y) \equiv x$
- ▶  $x \wedge (x \vee y) \equiv x$
- ▶  $x \vee (\neg x \wedge y) \equiv x \vee y$

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# Substitution

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Example:  $A = \neg(p \wedge q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg p \vee \neg q)$

- ▶ Let  $\sigma$  the following substitution:  $\sigma(p) = (a \vee b), \sigma(q) = (c \wedge d)$
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- ▶  $A\sigma = \neg((a \vee b) \wedge (c \wedge d)) \Leftrightarrow (\neg(a \vee b) \vee \neg(c \wedge d))$

# Finite support substitution

## Definition 1.3.2

- ▶ **The support** of a substitution  $\sigma$  is the set of variables  $x$  such that  $x\sigma \neq x$ .
- ▶ A **finite support substitution**  $\sigma$  is denoted  $\langle x_1 := A_1, \dots, x_n := A_n \rangle$

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### Example 1.3.3

$A = x \vee x \wedge y \Rightarrow z \wedge y$  and  $\sigma = \langle x := a \vee b, z := b \wedge c \rangle$

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$$A\sigma = (a \vee b) \vee (a \vee b) \wedge y \Rightarrow (b \wedge c) \wedge y$$

# Properties of substitutions

## Property 1.3.4

Let  $v$  be a truth assignment and  $\sigma$  a substitution.

Let  $w$  be the assignment  $w : x \mapsto [\sigma(x)]_v$ .

For any formula  $A$ , we have  $[A\sigma]_v = [A]_w$ .

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### Example 1.3.5 :

Let  $A = x \vee y \vee d$

Let  $\sigma = \langle x := a \vee b, y := b \wedge c \rangle$

Let  $v$  be  $v(a) = 1, v(b) = 0, v(c) = 0, v(d) = 0$

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$$A\sigma = (a \vee b) \vee (b \wedge c) \vee d$$

$$\begin{aligned} [A\sigma]_v &= (1 \vee 0) \vee (0 \wedge 0) \vee 0 \\ &= 1 \vee 0 \vee 0 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

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$$A\sigma = (a \vee b) \vee (b \wedge c) \vee d$$

$$w(x) = [a \vee b]_v = 1 \vee 0 = 1$$

$$w(y) = [b \wedge c]_v = 0 \wedge 0 = 0$$

$$w(d) = [d]_v = 0$$

$$[A\sigma]_v = (1 \vee 0) \vee (0 \wedge 0) \vee 0$$

$$= 1 \vee 0 \vee 0 = 1$$

$$[A]_w = 1 \vee 0 \vee 0 = 1$$

Initial step:  $|A| = 0$

Two possible cases:

- ▶ If  $A$  is  $\top$  or  $\perp$  then  $A\sigma = A$  and  $[A]_v$  does not depend on  $v$ .
- ▶ If  $A$  is a variable  $x$ , then by construction  $[x\sigma]_v \equiv w(x)$ .

# Induction

**Hypothesis:** Assume the property holds for any formula of height less or equal to  $n$ .

Let  $A$  be a formula of height  $n + 1$ ; there are two possible cases:

- Case 1:  $A = \neg B$  with  $|B| = n$ .

$$[A\sigma]_v = [\neg B\sigma]_v = [\neg(B\sigma)]_v = 1 - [B\sigma]_v \text{ and}$$

$$[A]_w = [\neg B]_w = 1 - [B]_w.$$

Since  $|B| = n$ , by induction hypothesis  $[B\sigma]_v = [B]_w$

Hence,  $[A\sigma]_v = [A]_w$ .

# Induction

**Hypothesis:** Assume the property is true for any formula of height less or equal to  $n$ .

Let  $A$  be a formula of height  $n + 1$ ; there are two possible cases:

- ▶ Case 2:  $A = (B \circ C)$  with  $|B| < n + 1$  and  $|C| < n + 1$ .

$$\text{Then } [A\sigma]_v = [B\sigma \circ C\sigma]_v$$

$$\text{and } [A]_w = [B \circ C]_w$$

By induction hypothesis  $[B\sigma]_v = [B]_w$  and  $[C\sigma]_v = [C]_w$ .

Since the semantics for  $\circ$  remain the same,  $[A\sigma]_v = [A]_w$ .



## Substitution of a valid formula

### Theorem 1.3.6

If  $A$  is valid then  $A\sigma$  is valid for any  $\sigma$ .

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According to property 1.3.4 :  $[A\sigma]_v = [A]_w$  where  $w(x) = [\sigma(x)]_v$ .



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According to property 1.3.4 :  $[A\sigma]_v = [A]_w$  where  $w(x) = [\sigma(x)]_v$ .

Since  $A$  is valid,  $[A]_w = 1$ .

Consequently,  $A\sigma$  equals 1 in every truth assignment, therefore  $A\sigma$  is a valid formula. □

# Examples

## Example 1.3.7

Let  $A$  be the formula  $\neg(p \wedge q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg p \vee \neg q)$ . This formula is valid, it is an important equivalence. Let  $\sigma$  the following substitution:

$\langle p := (a \vee b), q := (c \wedge d) \rangle$ . The formula

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$A\sigma = \neg((a \vee b) \wedge (c \wedge d)) \Leftrightarrow (\neg(a \vee b) \vee \neg(c \wedge d))$  is also valid.

# Replacement

## Definition 1.3.8

The formula  $D$  is obtained by replacing certain **occurrences** of  $A$  by  $B$  in  $C$  if:

- ▶  $C$  can be written  $E \langle x := A \rangle$
- ▶  $D$  can be written  $E \langle x := B \rangle$

for some formula  $E$ .

# Examples

## Example 1.3.9

Consider the formula  $C = ((a \Rightarrow b) \vee \neg(a \Rightarrow b))$ .

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## Properties of the replacements

### Theorem 1.3.10

If  $D$  is obtained by replacing, in  $C$ , some occurrences of  $A$  by  $B$ , then  
 $(A \Leftrightarrow B) \models (C \Leftrightarrow D)$ .

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### Proof.

By definition,  $C = E \langle x := A \rangle$  et  $D = E \langle x := B \rangle$ .

Assume that  $[A]_v = [B]_v$ , then  $w$  is the same for both substitutions.

Therefore  $[C]_v = [D]_v$  : the assignment  $v$  is a model of  $(C \Leftrightarrow D)$ .  $\square$

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Example 1.3.12:  $p \Leftrightarrow q \models (p \vee (\boxed{p} \Rightarrow r)) \Leftrightarrow (p \vee (\boxed{q} \Rightarrow r))$ .

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Therefore  $[C]_v = [D]_v$ : the assignment  $v$  is a model of  $(C \Leftrightarrow D)$ .  $\square$

Example 1.3.12:  $p \Leftrightarrow q \models (p \vee (\boxed{p} \Rightarrow r)) \Leftrightarrow (p \vee (\boxed{q} \Rightarrow r))$ .

### Corollary 1.3.11

Let  $D$  be obtained by replacing, in  $C$ , one occurrence of  $A$  by  $B$ .  
If  $A \equiv B$  then  $C \equiv D$ .

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- ▶ A **clause** is a disjunction of literals (special cases 0 and 1).

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- ▶ A **monomial** is a conjunction of literals (special cases 0 and 1).
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# Normal form

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**Every formula admits an equivalent normal form.**

# Computing a normal form

1. **Equivalence elimination**
2. **Implication elimination**
3. **Shifting negations towards variables**

# Computing a normal form

## 1. Equivalence elimination

Replace any occurrence of  $A \Leftrightarrow B$  by

(a)  $(\neg A \vee B) \wedge (\neg B \vee A)$

OR

(b)  $(A \wedge B) \vee (\neg A \wedge \neg B)$

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Replace any occurrence of

(a)  $\neg\neg A$  by  $A$

(b)  $\neg(A \vee B)$  by  $\neg A \wedge \neg B$

(c)  $\neg(A \wedge B)$  by  $\neg A \vee \neg B$

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5. Apply the simplifications:
  - ▶  $x \vee (x \wedge y) \equiv x$ ,
  - ▶  $x \wedge (x \vee y) \equiv x$ ,
  - ▶  $x \vee (\neg x \wedge y) \equiv x \vee y$

## Disjunctive normal form (DNF)

### Definition 1.4.6

A formula is in **disjunctive normal form (DNF)** if and only if it is a disjunction (sum) of monomials.

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## Examples 1.4.8 and 1.4.13

Transformation in **DNF** of the following:

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- ▶ **Otherwise**  $B$  is equal to a disjunction of nonzero monomials equivalent to  $\neg A$ , which give us models of  $\neg A$ , hence counter-models of  $A$ .

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Determine whether  $A$  is valid.

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$\equiv (r) \wedge p \wedge q \wedge \neg r$	simplification $x \wedge (\neg x \vee y)$
$= 0$	since we have $r \wedge \neg r$ in the monomial

Hence  $\neg A = 0$  and  $A = 1$ , that is  $A$  is valid.

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We obtain 3 models of  $\neg A$ :  $(a \mapsto 1, b \mapsto 0, d \mapsto 0)$ ,  $(a \mapsto 0, c \mapsto 0)$ ,  
 $(c \mapsto 0, d \mapsto 0)$ .

That is, counter-models of  $A$ .

Hence  $A$  is not valid.

# Plan

Consequence

Important equivalences

Substitution and replacement

Normal forms

Conclusion

# Today

- ▶ **Substitutions** allow us to **deduce the validity** of a formula from another
- ▶ **Replacements** allow us to change part of a formula **without changing its meaning** and thus allow us to compute a simpler equivalent formula
- ▶ Every formula admits **normal forms** which allow to **highlight its models** and counter-models

## Next course

- ▶ Boolean algebra
- ▶ Boolean functions
- ▶ Resolution

Prove our example by formula simplification

$$(p \Rightarrow \neg j) \wedge (\neg p \Rightarrow j) \wedge (j \Rightarrow m) \Rightarrow m \vee p$$