

## Propositional Logic: Well-Formed Formulas

Recall our inductive definition of the set  $W$  of well-formed formulas in propositional logic. Given the alphabet  $\{(, ), \neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow, A_1, A_2, \dots\}$ ,

- $U =$
- $B =$
- $F =$

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- $U$  = the set of all expressions over the alphabet.
- $B$  = the set of expressions consisting of a single propositional symbol.
- $F$  = the set of formula-building operations:
  - $\mathcal{E}_{\neg}(\alpha) = (\neg\alpha)$
  - $\mathcal{E}_{\wedge}(\alpha, \beta) = (\alpha \wedge \beta)$
  - $\mathcal{E}_{\vee}(\alpha, \beta) = (\alpha \vee \beta)$
  - $\mathcal{E}_{\rightarrow}(\alpha, \beta) = (\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$
  - $\mathcal{E}_{\leftrightarrow}(\alpha, \beta) = (\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta)$

## An Algorithm for Recognizing WFFs

### Lemma

Let  $\alpha$  be a *wff*. Then exactly one of the following is true.

- $\alpha$  is a propositional symbol.
- $\alpha = (\neg\beta)$  where  $\beta$  is a *wff*.
- $\alpha = (\beta \odot \gamma)$  where  $\odot$  is one of  $\{\wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$ ,  $\beta$  is the first parentheses-balanced initial segment of the result of dropping the first ( from  $\alpha$ , and  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are *wffs*.

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*How would you prove this?*

Induction, of course!

## An Algorithm for Recognizing WFFs

Input: expression  $\alpha$  Output: *true* or *false* (indicating whether  $\alpha$  is a *wff*).

0. Begin with an initial construction tree  $T$  containing a single node labeled with  $\alpha$ .
1. If all leaves of  $T$  are labeled with propositional symbols, return *true*.
2. Select a leaf labeled with an expression  $\alpha_1$  which is not a propositional symbol.
3. If  $\alpha_1$  does not begin with ( return *false*.
4. If  $\alpha_1 = (\neg\beta)$ , then add a child to the leaf labeled by  $\alpha_1$ , label it with  $\beta$ , and goto 1.
5. Scan  $\alpha_1$  until first reaching  $(\beta$ , where  $\beta$  is a nonempty expression having the same number of left and right parentheses. If there is no such  $\beta$ , return *false*.
6. If  $\alpha_1 = (\beta \odot \gamma)$  where  $\odot$  is one of  $\{\wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$ , then add two children to the leaf labeled by  $\alpha_1$ , label them with  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ , and goto 1.
7. Return *false*.

## Termination

*How do we prove termination of this algorithm?*

We can show that the sum of the lengths of all the expressions labeling leaves decreases on each iteration of the loop.

## Soundness

If the algorithm returns *true* when given input  $\alpha$ , then  $\alpha$  is a *wff*.

The proof is by induction on the tree  $T$  generated by the algorithm from the leaves up to the root.

## Completeness

If  $\alpha$  is a *wff*, then the algorithm will return *true*.

Proof using the induction principle for the set of *wffs*.

## Notational Conventions

- Larger variety of propositional symbols:  $A, B, C, D, p, q, r$ , etc.
- Outermost parentheses can be omitted:  $A \wedge B$  instead of  $(A \wedge B)$ .
- Negation symbol binds stronger than binary connectives and its scope is as small as possible:  $\neg A \wedge B$  means  $((\neg A) \wedge B)$ .
- $\{\wedge, \vee\}$  bind stronger than  $\{\rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$ :  $A \wedge B \rightarrow \neg C \vee D$  is  $((A \wedge B) \rightarrow ((\neg C) \vee D))$
- When one symbol is used repeatedly, grouping is to the right:  $A \wedge B \wedge C$  is  $(A \wedge (B \wedge C))$

Note that conventions are only unambiguous for *wffs*, not for arbitrary expressions.

## Propositional Logic: Semantics

Intuitively, given a *wff*  $\alpha$  and a value (either **T** or **F**) for each propositional symbol in  $\alpha$ , we should be able to determine the value of  $\alpha$ .

How do we make this precise?

Let  $v$  be a function from  $B$  to  $\{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}\}$ . We call this function a *truth assignment*.

Now, we define  $\bar{v}$ , a function from  $W$  to  $\{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}\}$  as follows (we compute with **F** and **T** as if they were 0 and 1 respectively).

- For each propositional symbol  $A_i$ ,  $\bar{v}(A_i) = v(A_i)$ .
- $\bar{v}(\mathcal{E}_{\neg}(\alpha)) = \mathbf{T} - \bar{v}(\alpha)$
- $\bar{v}(\mathcal{E}_{\wedge}(\alpha, \beta)) = \min(\bar{v}(\alpha), \bar{v}(\beta))$
- $\bar{v}(\mathcal{E}_{\vee}(\alpha, \beta)) = \max(\bar{v}(\alpha), \bar{v}(\beta))$
- $\bar{v}(\mathcal{E}_{\rightarrow}(\alpha, \beta)) = \max(\mathbf{T} - \bar{v}(\alpha), \bar{v}(\beta))$
- $\bar{v}(\mathcal{E}_{\leftrightarrow}(\alpha, \beta)) = \mathbf{T} - |\bar{v}(\alpha) - \bar{v}(\beta)|$

The recursion theorem and the unique readability theorem guarantee that  $\bar{v}$  is well-defined.

## Truth Tables

There are other ways to present the semantics which are less formal but perhaps more intuitive.

$\alpha$	$\neg\alpha$
<b>T</b>	
<b>F</b>	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \wedge \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \vee \beta$
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

## Truth Tables

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$\alpha$	$\neg\alpha$
T	F
F	T

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \wedge \beta$
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \vee \beta$
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$
T	T	
T	F	
F	T	
F	F	

## Truth Tables

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$\alpha$	$\neg\alpha$
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \wedge \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \vee \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	
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<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \wedge \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \vee \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>

$\alpha$	$\beta$	$\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$
<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>T</b>
<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>T</b>

## Complex truth tables

Truth tables can also be used to calculate all possible values of  $\bar{v}$  for a given *wff*: We associate a column with each propositional symbol and a column with each propositional connective. There is a row for each possible truth assignment to the propositional connectives.

$A_1$	$A_2$	$A_3$	$(A_1 \vee (A_2 \wedge \neg A_3))$
T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T
T	F	T	F
T	F	F	F
F	T	T	T
F	T	F	T
F	F	T	F
F	F	F	F

## Complex truth tables

$A_1$	$A_2$	$A_3$	$(A_1 \vee (A_2 \wedge \neg A_3))$
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F	T	F	T
F	F	T	F
F	F	F	F

## Complex truth tables

A <sub>1</sub>	A <sub>2</sub>	A <sub>3</sub>	(A <sub>1</sub> ∨ (A <sub>2</sub> ∧ ¬A <sub>3</sub> ))
T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T
T	F	T	T
T	F	F	T
F	T	T	F
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A <sub>1</sub>	A <sub>2</sub>	A <sub>3</sub>	(A <sub>1</sub> ∨ (A <sub>2</sub> ∧ ¬A <sub>3</sub> ))
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T	T	F	T
T	F	T	T
T	F	F	T
F	T	T	F
F	T	F	F
F	F	T	F
F	F	F	F

## Definitions

If  $\alpha$  is a *wff*, then a truth assignment  $v$  *satisfies*  $\alpha$  if  $\bar{v}(\alpha) = \mathbf{T}$ .

A *wff*  $\alpha$  is *satisfiable* if there exists some truth assignment  $v$  which satisfies  $\alpha$ .

Suppose  $\Sigma$  is a set of *wffs*. Then  $\Sigma$  *tautologically implies*  $\alpha$ ,  $\Sigma \models \alpha$ , if every truth assignment which satisfies each formula in  $\Sigma$  also satisfies  $\alpha$ .

Particular cases:

- If  $\emptyset \models \alpha$ , then we say  $\alpha$  is a *tautology* or  $\alpha$  is *valid* and write  $\models \alpha$ .
- If  $\Sigma$  is *unsatisfiable*, then  $\Sigma \models \alpha$  for every *wff*  $\alpha$ .
- If  $\alpha \models \beta$  (shorthand for  $\{\alpha\} \models \beta$ ) and  $\beta \models \alpha$ , then  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are *tautologically equivalent*.
- $\Sigma \models \alpha$  if and only if  $\bigwedge(\Sigma) \rightarrow \alpha$  is valid.

## Examples

- $(A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B)$  is satisfiable, but not valid.
- $(A \vee B) \wedge (\neg A \vee \neg B) \wedge (A \leftrightarrow B)$  is unsatisfiable.
- $\{A, A \rightarrow B\} \models B$        $(A \wedge (A \rightarrow B) \wedge (\neg B))$
- $\{A, \neg A\} \models (A \wedge \neg A)$
- $\neg(A \wedge B)$  is tautologically equivalent to  $\neg A \vee \neg B$

Suppose you had an algorithm *SAT* which would take a *wff*  $\alpha$  as input and return *true* if  $\alpha$  is satisfiable and *false* otherwise. How would you use this algorithm to verify each of the claims made above?

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- $\{A, \neg A\} \models (A \wedge \neg A)$      $(A \wedge (\neg A) \wedge \neg(A \wedge \neg A))$
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 $\neg(\neg(A \wedge B) \leftrightarrow (\neg A \vee \neg B))$

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Now suppose you had an algorithm *CHECKVALID* which returns *true* when  $\alpha$  is valid and *false* otherwise. How would you verify the claims given this algorithm?

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- $\{A, A \rightarrow B\} \models B$        $(A \wedge (A \rightarrow B) \wedge (\neg B))$
- $\{A, \neg A\} \models (A \wedge \neg A)$      $(A \wedge (\neg A) \wedge \neg(A \wedge \neg A))$
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Now suppose you had an algorithm *CHECKVALID* which returns *true* when  $\alpha$  is valid and *false* otherwise. How would you verify the claims given this algorithm?

Satisfiability and validity are dual notions:  $\alpha$  is unsatisfiable if and only if  $\neg\alpha$  is valid.

## Determining Satisfiability using Truth Tables

### An Algorithm for Satisfiability

To check whether  $\alpha$  is satisfiable, form the truth table for  $\alpha$ . If there is a row in which **T** appears as the value for  $\alpha$ , then  $\alpha$  is satisfiable. Otherwise,  $\alpha$  is unsatisfiable.

### An Algorithm for Tautological Implication

To check whether  $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k\} \models \beta$ , check the satisfiability of  $(\alpha_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_k) \wedge (\neg\beta)$ . If it is unsatisfiable, then  $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k\} \models \beta$ , otherwise  $\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k\} \not\models \beta$ .

## Determining Satisfiability using Truth Tables

### Example

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

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

## Determining Satisfiability using Truth Tables

### Example

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

$A$	$B$	$C$	$A \wedge ((B \vee \neg A) \wedge (C \vee \neg B))$
<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>F</b> <b>T</b> <b>T</b> <b>T</b> <b>T</b> <b>T</b>

## Determining Satisfiability using Truth Tables

### Example

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

$A$	$B$	$C$	$A \wedge ((B \vee \neg A) \wedge (C \vee \neg B))$
F	F	F	F
F	F	T	F
F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F
T	F	F	F
T	F	T	F
T	T	F	F
T	T	T	T

## Determining Satisfiability using Truth Tables

What is the complexity of this algorithm?

$2^n$  where  $n$  is the number of propositional symbols.

Can you think of a way to speed up these algorithms?

In an upcoming lecture, we will discuss some of the applications and best-known techniques for the *SAT* algorithm.

## Some tautologies

**Associative and Commutative laws for  $\wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow$**

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**Associative and Commutative laws for  $\wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow$**

### **Distributive Laws**

- $(A \wedge (B \vee C)) \leftrightarrow ((A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)).$
- $(A \vee (B \wedge C)) \leftrightarrow ((A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)).$

### **Negation**

- $\neg\neg A \leftrightarrow A$
- $\neg(A \rightarrow B) \leftrightarrow (A \wedge \neg B)$
- $\neg(A \leftrightarrow B) \leftrightarrow ((A \wedge \neg B) \vee (\neg A \wedge B))$

### **De Morgan's Laws**

- $\neg(A \wedge B) \leftrightarrow (\neg A \vee \neg B)$
- $\neg(A \vee B) \leftrightarrow (\neg A \wedge \neg B)$

## More Tautologies

### **Implication**

- $(A \rightarrow B) \leftrightarrow (\neg A \vee B)$

### **Excluded Middle**

- $A \vee \neg A$

### **Contradiction**

- $\neg(A \wedge \neg A)$

**Contraposition**

- $(A \rightarrow B) \leftrightarrow (\neg B \rightarrow \neg A)$

**Exportation**

- $((A \wedge B) \rightarrow C) \leftrightarrow (A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C))$

**Propositional Connectives**

We have five connectives:  $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$ . Would we gain anything by having more? Would we lose anything by having fewer?

**Example: Ternary Majority Connective #**

$$\mathcal{E}_{\#}(\alpha, \beta, \gamma) = (\#\alpha\beta\gamma)$$

$\bar{v}(\#\alpha\beta\gamma) = \mathbf{T}$  iff the majority of  $\bar{v}(\alpha)$ ,  $\bar{v}(\beta)$ , and  $\bar{v}(\gamma)$  are  $\mathbf{T}$ .

What does this new connective do for us?

**Claim: The extended language obtained by allowing this new symbol has the same expressive power as the original language.**

How do we show this formally?

**Boolean Functions**

For  $k \geq 0$ , a  $k$ -place *Boolean function* is a function from  $\{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}\}^k$  to  $\{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}\}$ . A *Boolean function* then is anything which is a  $k$ -place Boolean function for some  $k$ .

Each *wff*  $\alpha$  determines a corresponding Boolean function  $B_{\alpha}$ . For example, if  $\alpha = A_1 \wedge A_2$ , then  $B_{\alpha}$  is a 2-place Boolean function whose value is given by the following table.

$X_1$	$X_2$	$B_\alpha(X_1, X_2)$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

## Realizing Boolean Functions

In general, suppose that  $\alpha$  is a *wff* whose propositional symbols are included in  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ . We define an  $n$ -place Boolean function  $B_\alpha^n$ , the Boolean function *realized* by  $\alpha$  as

$B_\alpha^n(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  = the truth value given to  $\alpha$  when  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  are given the values  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ .

In other words,

$$B_\alpha^n(X_1, \dots, X_n) = \bar{v}(\alpha) \text{ where } v(A_i) = X_i.$$

Note that the function  $B_\alpha^n$  is determined by *both* the formula  $\alpha$  and the choice of  $n$ . In particular,  $\alpha$  does not need to include all the symbols in  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ .

## Examples

- $I_i^n = B_{A_i}^n$
- $N = B_{\neg A_1}^1$
- $K = B_{A_1 \wedge A_2}^2$
- $A = B_{A_1 \vee A_2}^2$
- $C = B_{A_1 \rightarrow A_2}^2$
- $E = B_{A_1 \leftrightarrow A_2}^2$

From these functions, we can construct others by composition.

$$B_{\neg A_1 \vee \neg A_2}^2(X_1, X_2) = A(N(I_1^2(X_1, X_2)), N(I_2^2(X_1, X_2)))$$

**Claim: Every Boolean function can be obtained as a composition of  $I$ ,  $N$ ,  $K$ ,  $A$ ,  $C$ , and  $E$ .**

We will explain why this is true shortly.

## Formulas and the Boolean Functions they Realize

### Theorem

Let  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  be *wffs* whose sentence symbols are among  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ .

- (a)  $\alpha \models \beta$  iff  $B_\alpha^n(\vec{X}) \leq B_\beta^n(\vec{X})$  for all  $\vec{X} \in \{\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}\}^n$ .
- (b)  $\alpha$  is tautologically equivalent to  $\beta$  iff  $B_\alpha^n = B_\beta^n$ .
- (c)  $\models \beta$  iff the range of  $B_\beta^n = \{\mathbf{T}\}$ .

### Proof

- (a)
  - $\alpha \models \beta$  iff every truth assignment satisfying  $\alpha$  also satisfies  $\beta$
  - iff for every truth assignment  $v$ ,  $\bar{v}(\alpha) = \mathbf{T}$  implies  $\bar{v}(\beta) = \mathbf{T}$
  - iff for all  $n$ -tuples  $\vec{X}$ ,  $B_\alpha^n(\vec{X}) = \mathbf{T}$  implies  $B_\beta^n(\vec{X}) = \mathbf{T}$
  - iff for all  $n$ -tuples  $\vec{X}$ ,  $B_\alpha^n(\vec{X}) \leq B_\beta^n(\vec{X})$
- (b) Follows from (a) and  $X = Y$  iff  $X \leq Y$  and  $Y \leq X$ .
- (c) Follows from definition of tautology.

By shifting our focus from formulas to Boolean functions, tautologically equivalent *wffs* are identified.

## Completeness of Propositional Connectives

### Theorem (Post 1921)

Let  $G$  be an  $n$ -place Boolean function,  $n \geq 1$ . There exists a *wff*  $\alpha$  such that  $G = B_\alpha^n$ , i.e., such that  $\alpha$  realizes the function  $G$ .

### Proof

If the range of  $G$  is just  $\{\mathbf{F}\}$ , then let  $\alpha = A_1 \wedge \neg A_1$ . Clearly,  $B_\alpha^n = G$ . Otherwise,  $G = \mathbf{T}$  somewhere. Suppose there are  $k$  points where  $G = \mathbf{T}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} G(X_{11}, X_{12}, \dots, X_{1n}) &= \mathbf{T} \\ G(X_{21}, X_{22}, \dots, X_{2n}) &= \mathbf{T} \\ &\dots \\ G(X_{k1}, X_{k2}, \dots, X_{kn}) &= \mathbf{T} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } \beta_{ij} &= \begin{cases} A_j & \text{if } X_{ij} = \mathbf{T} \\ \neg A_j & \text{if } X_{ij} = \mathbf{F} \end{cases} \\ \gamma_i &= \beta_{i1} \wedge \dots \wedge \beta_{in} \\ \alpha &= \gamma_1 \vee \gamma_2 \vee \dots \vee \gamma_k \end{aligned}$$

Then  $\alpha$  realizes  $G$

## Completeness of Propositional Connectives

### Proof, continued

We know that  $B_\alpha^n(\vec{X}) = \bar{v}(\alpha)$  where  $v(A_i) = X_i$ .

Since  $\alpha = \gamma_1 \vee \gamma_2 \vee \dots \vee \gamma_k$ , it follows that  $B_\alpha^n(\vec{X}) = \max(B_{\gamma_i}^n(\vec{X}))$ .

But by construction,  $B_{\gamma_i}^n(\vec{X}) = \mathbf{T}$  iff  $\vec{X} = \langle X_{i1}, \dots, X_{in} \rangle$ .

Thus  $B_\alpha^n(\vec{X}) = \mathbf{T}$  iff  $\vec{X}$  is one of the points where  $G$  is  $\mathbf{T}$ .

This shows that every Boolean function can be realized by a *wff*. In fact, every Boolean function can be realized by a *wff* which uses only the connectives  $\{\neg, \wedge, \vee\}$ . We say that this set of connectives is *complete*.

The realizing formula is not unique. The formula built is in so-called *disjunctive normal form* (DNF). A formula is in DNF if it is a disjunction of formulas, each of which is a conjunction of *literals*, where a literal is either a propositional symbol or its negation.

Thus, a corollary is that for every *wff*, there exists a tautologically equivalent *wff* in disjunctive normal form.

### Example

Let  $G$  be a 3-place Boolean function defined as follows:

$$G(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{F}) = \mathbf{F}$$

$$G(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}) = \mathbf{T}$$

$$G(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}) = \mathbf{T}$$

$$G(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{T}) = \mathbf{F}$$

$$G(\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{F}) = \mathbf{T}$$

$$G(\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}) = \mathbf{F}$$

$$G(\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{F}) = \mathbf{F}$$

$$G(\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{T}, \mathbf{T}) = \mathbf{T}$$

There are four points at which  $G$  is true, so a DNF formula which realizes  $G$  is  $(\neg A_1 \wedge \neg A_2 \wedge A_3) \vee (\neg A_1 \wedge A_2 \wedge \neg A_3) \vee (A_1 \wedge \neg A_2 \wedge \neg A_3) \vee (A_1 \wedge A_2 \wedge A_3)$ .

Note that another formula which realizes  $G$  is  $A_1 \leftrightarrow A_2 \leftrightarrow A_3$ . Thus, adding additional connectives to a complete set may allow a function to be realized more concisely.

Recall our definition of some basic Boolean functions:

- $I_i^n = B_{A_i}^n$
- $N = B_{\neg A_1}^1$
- $K = B_{A_1 \wedge A_2}^2$
- $A = B_{A_1 \vee A_2}^2$

Given that  $\{\neg, \wedge, \vee\}$  is complete, it is not hard to see that any Boolean function can be constructed using only the Boolean functions  $I$ ,  $N$ ,  $K$ , and  $A$ .

In fact, we can do better. It turns out that  $\{\neg, \wedge\}$  and  $\{\neg, \vee\}$  are complete as well.

Why?

$$\alpha \vee \beta \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg\alpha \wedge \neg\beta)$$

$$\alpha \wedge \beta \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg\alpha \vee \neg\beta)$$

Using these identities, the completeness can be easily proved by induction.

## Incompleteness of Connectives

To prove that some set of connectives is incomplete, we find a property that is true of all *wffs* built using those connectives, but that is not true for some Boolean function.

### Example

$\{\wedge, \rightarrow\}$  is not complete.

### Proof

Let  $\alpha$  be a *wff* which uses only these connectives, and let  $v$  be a truth assignment such that  $v(A_i) = \mathbf{T}$  for all  $A_i$ . We prove by induction that  $\bar{v}(\alpha) = \mathbf{T}$ .

### Base Case

$$\bar{v}(A_i) = v(A_i) = \mathbf{T}.$$

### Inductive Case

$$\bar{v}(\beta \wedge \gamma) = \min(\bar{v}(\beta), \bar{v}(\gamma)) = \min(\mathbf{T}, \mathbf{T}) = \mathbf{T}$$

$$\bar{v}(\beta \rightarrow \gamma) = \max(\mathbf{T} - \bar{v}(\beta), \bar{v}(\gamma)) = \max(\mathbf{F}, \mathbf{T}) = \mathbf{T}$$

Thus,  $\bar{v}(\alpha) = \mathbf{T}$  for all *wffs*  $\alpha$  built from  $\{\wedge, \rightarrow\}$ . But  $\bar{v}(\neg A_1) = \mathbf{F}$ , so there is no such formula tautologically equivalent to  $\neg A_1$ .

## Other Propositional Connectives

For each  $n$ , there are  $2^{2^n}$  different  $n$ -place Boolean functions  $B(X_1, \dots, X_n)$

Why?

There are  $2^n$  different input points and 2 possible output values for each input point.  $2^{2^n}$  is also the number of possible  $n$ -ary propositional connectives.

### 0-ary connectives

There are two 0-place Boolean functions: the constants  $\mathbf{F}$  and  $\mathbf{T}$ . We can construct corresponding 0-ary connectives  $\perp$  and  $\top$  with the meaning that  $\bar{v}(\perp) = \mathbf{F}$  and  $\bar{v}(\top) = \mathbf{T}$  regardless of the truth assignment  $v$ .

### Unary connectives

There are four 1-place functions, but these include the two constant functions mentioned above and the identity function. Thus the only additional connective of interest is negation:  $\neg$ .

## Binary connectives

There are sixteen 2-place Boolean functions. They are cataloged in the following table. Note that the first six correspond to 0-ary and unary connectives.

Symbol	Equivalent	Description
	$\perp$	constant <b>F</b>
	$\top$	constant <b>T</b>
	$A$	projection of first argument
	$B$	projection of second argument
	$\neg A$	negation of first argument
	$\neg B$	negation of second argument
$\wedge$	$A \wedge B$	and
$\vee$	$A \vee B$	or
$\rightarrow$	$A \rightarrow B$	conditional
$\leftrightarrow$	$A \leftrightarrow B$	bi-conditional
$\leftarrow$	$B \rightarrow A$	reverse conditional
$\oplus$	$(A \wedge \neg B) \vee (\neg A \wedge B)$	exclusive or
$\downarrow$	$\neg(A \vee B)$	nor (or Nicod stroke)
$ $	$\neg(A \wedge B)$	nand (or Sheffer stroke)
$<$	$\neg A \wedge B$	less than
$>$	$A \wedge \neg B$	greater than

## Compactness

Recall that a wff  $\alpha$  is satisfiable if there exists a truth assignment  $v$  such that  $\bar{v}(\alpha) = \mathbf{T}$ .

A set  $\Sigma$  of *wffs* is satisfiable if there exists a truth assignment  $v$  such that  $\bar{v}(\alpha) = \mathbf{T}$  for each  $\alpha \in \Sigma$ .

A set  $\Sigma$  is *finitely satisfiable* iff every finite subset of  $\Sigma$  is satisfiable.

### Compactness Theorem

A set of *wffs* is satisfiable iff it is finitely satisfiable.

### Proof

The *only if* direction is trivial since any subset of a satisfiable set is clearly satisfiable.

To prove the other direction, assume that  $\Sigma$  is a set which is finitely satisfiable. We must show that  $\Sigma$  is satisfiable.

## Compactness

Let  $\Sigma$  be finitely satisfiable. We extend  $\Sigma$  to form a *maximal* finitely satisfiable set  $\Delta$  as follows.

Let  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \dots$  be a fixed enumeration of all *wffs*.

Why is this possible?

The set of all sequences of a countable set is countable.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, let } \Delta_0 &= \Sigma, \\ \Delta_{n+1} &= \begin{cases} \Delta_n \cup \{\alpha_{n+1}\} & \text{if this is finitely satisfiable,} \\ \Delta_n \cup \{\neg\alpha_{n+1}\} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

It is not hard to show that each  $\Delta_n$  is finitely satisfiable.

Let  $\Delta = \bigcup_n \Delta_n$ . It is then clear that

1.  $\Sigma \subseteq \Delta$
2.  $\alpha \in \Delta$  or  $\neg\alpha \in \Delta$  for any *wff*  $\alpha$ , and
3.  $\Delta$  is finitely satisfiable.

## Compactness

Now we show that  $\Delta$  is satisfiable (and thus  $\Sigma \subseteq \Delta$  is also satisfiable).

Define a truth assignment  $v$  as follows. For each propositional symbol  $A_i$ ,

$$v(A_i) = \mathbf{T} \text{ iff } A_i \in \Delta.$$

We claim that for any wff  $\alpha$ ,  $v$  satisfies  $\alpha$  iff  $\alpha \in \Delta$ . The proof is by induction on well-formed formulas.

### Base Case

Follows directly from the definition of  $v$ .

### Induction Case

We will just consider one case. Suppose  $\alpha = \beta \wedge \gamma$ . Then

$$\bar{v}(\alpha) = \mathbf{T} \text{ iff both } \bar{v}(\beta) = \mathbf{T} \text{ and } \bar{v}(\gamma) = \mathbf{T} \text{ iff both } \beta \in \Delta \text{ and } \gamma \in \Delta.$$

Now, if both  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  are in  $\Delta$ , then since  $\{\beta, \gamma, \neg\alpha\}$  is not satisfiable, we must have  $\alpha \in \Delta$ .

Similarly, if one of  $\beta$  or  $\gamma$  is not in  $\Delta$ , then its negation must be in  $\Delta$ , so  $\alpha \notin \Delta$ .

### Corollary

If  $\Sigma \models \alpha$  then there is a finite  $\Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma$  such that  $\Sigma_0 \models \alpha$ .

### Proof

Suppose that  $\Sigma_0 \not\models \alpha$  for every finite  $\Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma$ .

Then,  $\Sigma_0 \cup \{\neg\alpha\}$  is satisfiable for every finite  $\Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma$ .

So, by compactness,  $\Sigma \cup \{\neg\alpha\}$  is satisfiable which contradicts the fact that  $\Sigma \models \alpha$ .