

A brief introduction to Logic and its applications

Classical, Intuitionistic and Hoare

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Overview

- 1 Classical Logic
- 2 Brief History of Logic and Formalism
- 3 Intuitionistic Logic
- 4 Hoare Logic
- 5 Conclusion

Classical Logic

Components

Constants:

- true
- false

Logical propositions:

$p, q, r \dots$

operator	semantic	C
\neg	not	!
\wedge	and	&&
\vee	or	
\Rightarrow	imply	...? ...: 1
\Leftrightarrow	if and only if	

Truth Table

p	q	$p \wedge q$	$p \vee q$	$p \Rightarrow q$	$p \Leftrightarrow q$
false	false	false	false	true	true
false	true	false	true	true	false
true	false	false	true	false	false
true	true	true	true	true	true

p	$\neg p$
false	true
true	false

A logical proposition P composed of atomic literals (p, q, \dots) can therefore be evaluated and exhaustively tested : same principle as the boolean.

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Complexity

If we have n atomic propositions, the truth table will contain 2^n rows...

Brief History of Logic and Formalism

David Hilbert (1862 – 1943)



Entscheidungsproblem (1928):

There should be an algorithm for deciding the truth or falsity of any mathematical statement.

Precondition:

Logic completeness = every provable statement is true and every true statement is provable.

Kurt Gödels (1906 – 1978)



Incompleteness theorem (1931):

Any consistent formal system that includes enough of the theory of the natural numbers is incomplete: there are true statements expressible in its language that are unprovable within the system.

Any logic that includes arithmetic could encode :
“This statement is not provable”.

“This statement is not provable”

If it is False...

then it is provable, and **you would have proven something False...**

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try to prove it is True

and therefore unprovable...

At this time, to prove something, you didn't need a formal definition of a proof. Just write its steps (kind of algorithm) and it is done.

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If it is False...

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At this time, to prove something, you didn't need a formal definition of a proof. Just write its steps (kind of algorithm) and it is done.

Better prove it is undecidable

This require a **formal definition of Proof**. Hence we need a the formal foundations of what is an algorithm

Alonzo Church (1903 - 1995)



Lambda calculus (1932):

Expression:

e	$::= x$	variable
	$ \lambda x.e$	abstraction
	$ ee$	application

λ -calculus (1/2)

$e ::= x$	variable
$\lambda x.e$	abstraction
ee	application

λ -expression

$\lambda x. t$

Define a function of x where t is the body of the function.

β -reduction

$(\lambda x. t)s = t[x := s]$

Replace every occurrence of x in t by s .

Examples:

$\lambda x. x$ is the identity function ($f : x \mapsto x$).

$\lambda x. y$ is the constant function ($f : x \mapsto y$).

λ -calculus (2/2)

$square_add(x, y) = x \times x + y \times y.$

$square_add(5, 2) = 25 + 4 = 29.$

```
/* In Java 8 since 2014 ! */
```

```
(x,y) -> x * x + y * y
```

```
/* Since C++14 ! */
```

```
[] (auto a, auto b) { return a * a + b * b; }
```

In λ -calculus:

$$\lambda x. (\lambda y. (x * x + y * y)) 5 2 = \lambda y. (5 * 5 + y * y) 2 \quad (\beta\text{-reduction})$$

$$= (5 * 5 + 2 * 2) \quad (\beta\text{-reduction})$$

$$= 29$$

This is the root of functional programming
(Lisp 60, Caml 85, Haskell 87, Coq 88.)

What is the link with Logic?

Gerhard Gentzen (1909 – 1945)



Natural Deduction and Sequent Calculus (1934):

Kind of proof calculus in which logical reasoning is expressed by inference rules closely related to the “natural” way of reasoning.

Notation:

assumption \vdash *goal*

Natural Deduction : Some rules (not all)

Modus Ponens

$$\frac{\vdash A \quad \vdash A \Rightarrow B}{\vdash B}$$

If I have A and A implies B
Then I can infer B .

Notation:

$$\neg A := A \Rightarrow \perp$$

$$\frac{A \vdash B}{\vdash A \Rightarrow B}$$

$$\frac{\neg A \vdash \perp}{\vdash A}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \perp}{\vdash \neg A}$$

$$\frac{}{\perp(\text{False}) \vdash}$$

$$\frac{}{\vdash \top(\text{True})}$$

$$\frac{\vdash A \quad \vdash B}{\vdash A \wedge B}$$

$$\frac{\vdash A \wedge B}{\vdash A}$$

$$\frac{\vdash A \wedge B}{\vdash B}$$

$$\frac{A, B \vdash}{A \wedge B \vdash}$$

$$\frac{A \vdash \quad B \vdash}{A \vee B \vdash}$$

$$\frac{\vdash A}{\vdash A \vee B}$$

$$\frac{\vdash B}{\vdash A \vee B}$$

Natural Deduction : Proof example

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{}{A, B \vdash A} \text{ (assumption.)} \quad \frac{}{A, B \vdash B} \text{ (assumption.)} \\
 \frac{}{A, B \vdash A \wedge B} \text{ (split.)} \\
 \frac{A, B \vdash A \wedge B}{B \wedge A \vdash A \wedge B} \text{ (destruct H.)} \\
 \frac{B \wedge A \vdash A \wedge B}{\vdash B \wedge A \Rightarrow A \wedge B} \text{ (intro H.)}
 \end{array}$$

Remark:

A proof is written from bottom to top (\uparrow)
 but read from top to bottom (\downarrow).

Simply typed λ -Calculus (Church, 1940)

$$\frac{x : A \vdash N : B}{\vdash \lambda.x N : A \rightarrow B}$$

$$\frac{\vdash \lambda.x N : A \rightarrow B \quad \vdash y : A}{\vdash \lambda.x N y : B}$$

Let's add the Pair structure :

$$\frac{\vdash x : A \quad \vdash y : B}{\vdash (x, y) : A \times B}$$

$$\frac{\vdash p : A \times B}{\vdash fst p : A}$$

$$\frac{\vdash p : A \times B}{\vdash snd p : B}$$

From proof to programs

$$\frac{\frac{z : B \times A \vdash z : B \times A}{z : B \times A \vdash \text{snd } z : A} \quad \frac{z : B \times A \vdash z : B \times A}{z : B \times A \vdash \text{fst } z : B}}{z : B \times A \vdash (\text{snd } z, \text{fst } z) : A \times B}$$

$$\vdash \lambda.z (\text{snd } z, \text{fst } z) : B \times A \rightarrow A \times B$$

This is called the Curry-Howard Correspondence (1969)

Isomorphisme between computer programs and logical proofs.

Intuitionistic Logic

The philosophy

Classical Logic

Propositional formulae are assigned a Truth value (True or False).

Intuitionistic Logic (or Constructive Logic)

Propositional formulae in intuitionistic logic are considered **True** only when we have **direct evidence**, hence proof.

Propositional formulae in which there is no way to give evidence are therefore not provable.

Unavailables theorems

Reductio ad absurdum

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{(unprovable)} \\
 \frac{((P \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \vdash P}{\vdash ((P \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow P} \text{ (intro.)} \\
 \frac{\vdash ((P \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow \perp) \Rightarrow P}{\vdash \neg\neg P \Rightarrow P} \text{ (unfold not.)}
 \end{array}$$

Tertium Non Datur

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \text{(unprovable)} \\
 \frac{P \vdash \perp}{\vdash P \Rightarrow \perp} \text{ (intro.)} \\
 \frac{\vdash P \Rightarrow \perp}{\vdash \neg P} \text{ (unfold not.)} \\
 \frac{\vdash \neg P}{\vdash \neg P \vee P} \text{ (left.)}
 \end{array}
 \qquad
 \begin{array}{c}
 \text{(unprovable)} \\
 \frac{\vdash P}{\vdash \neg P \vee P} \text{ (right.)}
 \end{array}$$

Curry-Howard and *Tertium Non Datur*

Another reason why one could not prove $P \vee \neg P$?

When you prove a statement such as $A \vee B$ you can extract a proof that answers whether A or B holds.

If we were able to prove the *excluded middle*, we could extract an algorithm that, given some proposition tells us whether it is valid or not (Curry-Howard).

This is not possible due to the undecidability :
if we take P to mean “program p halts on input x ”, the excluded middle would yield a decider for the halting problem, which cannot exist.

Hoare Logic

Sir Charles Antony Richard Hoare (1934 – T.B.D.)



Hoare Logic (1969):

It describes how the execution of a piece of code changes the state of the computation.

Notation: $\{P\} C \{Q\}$

Where P is the *pre-condition*, C is the *command* and Q is the *post-condition*. This is called a Hoare triple.

Toward the code Verification...

$$\frac{}{\{P\} \text{ skip } \{P\}} \text{ (skip)}$$

$$\frac{}{\{Q[e/x]\} x := e \{Q\}} \text{ (assign)}$$

$$\frac{\{P\} C_1 \{Q\} \quad \{Q\} C_2 \{R\}}{\{P\} C_1; C_2 \{R\}} \text{ (seq)}$$

$$\frac{\{P \Rightarrow P'\} \quad \{P'\} C \{Q'\} \quad \{Q' \Rightarrow Q\}}{\{P\} C \{Q\}} \text{ (consequence)}$$

$$\frac{\{B \wedge P\} C_1 \{Q\} \quad \{\neg B \wedge P\} C_2 \{Q\}}{\{P\} \text{ if } B \text{ then } C_1 \text{ else } C_2 \text{ endif } \{Q\}} \text{ (cond)}$$

Similar to Dataflow analysis, Operational Semantics...

Example...

$$\frac{\frac{\frac{\{a \geq b \vdash a + 1 > b - 1\}}{\{a \geq b \Rightarrow a + 1 > b - 1\}} \text{ (intro)}}{\{a \geq b\} c := a + 1 \{c > b - 1\}} \text{ (con)}}{\vdots} \frac{\frac{\{a + 1 > b - 1\} c := a + 1 \{c > b - 1\}}{\{c > b - 1\} b := b - 1 \{c > b\}} \text{ (ass)}}{\{a \geq b\} c := a + 1; b := b - 1 \{c > b\}} \text{ (seq)} \text{ (omega)}$$

Conclusion

To sum up

Classical Logic

Propositional formulae are assigned a Truth value (True or False).

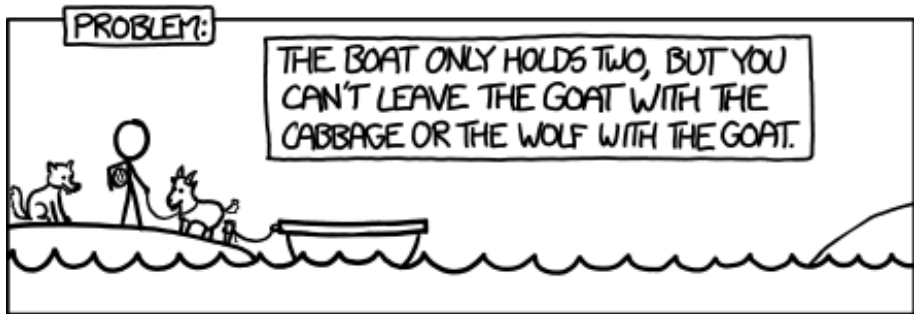
Intuitionistic Logic (or Constructive Logic)

Propositional formulae in intuitionistic logic are considered **True** only when we have **direct evidence**, hence proof.

Calculations can also be included in a proof (e.g. 4-color theorem).

Hoare Logic

Formal model to prove the correctness of a program.



<https://xkcd.com/1134/>

SOLUTION:

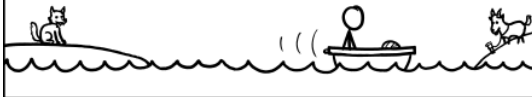
1. TAKE THE GOAT ACROSS.



2. RETURN ALONE.

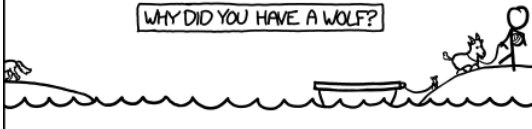


3. TAKE THE CABBAGE ACROSS.



4. LEAVE THE WOLF.

WHY DID YOU HAVE A WOLF?



Further Readings. . .

- Intuitionistic Logic - *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*
- Propositions as Types by *Philip Wadler* (paper)
- Propositions as Types by *Philip Wadler* (video)
- Introduction to Type Systems by *Delphine Demange*
- Why are logical connectives and booleans separate in Coq?
- Operational Semantics by *Delphine Demange*
- Background reading on Hoare Logic by *Mike Gordon*