# Logic and Proof

Computer Science Tripos Part IB Michaelmas Term

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## Contents

1	Introduction	1
<b>2</b>	Propositional Logic	6
3	Gentzen's Logical Calculi	11
4	Binary Decision Diagrams	16
<b>5</b>	First-Order Logic	<b>21</b>
6	Formal Reasoning in First-Order Logic	26
7	Davis-Putnam & Propositional Resolution	<b>32</b>
8	Skolem Functions and Herbrand's Theorem	38
9	Unification	<b>43</b>
10	Resolution and Prolog	<b>49</b>
11	Modal Logics	<b>54</b>
12	Tableaux-Based Methods	<b>59</b>

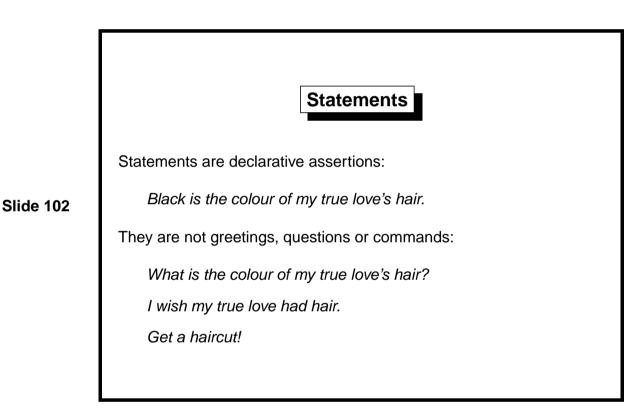
### Introduction to Logic

Logic concerns *statements* in some *language*.

Slide 101

The language can be informal (say English) or *formal*.
Some statements are *true*, others *false* or *meaningless*.
Logic concerns *relationships* between statements: consistency, entailment, . . .

Logical *proofs* model human reasoning (supposedly).



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Schematic Statements

The meta-variables  $X, Y, Z, \ldots$  range over 'real' objects

Black is the colour of X's hair. Black is the colour of Y.

Z is the colour of Y.

Schematic statements can express general statements, or questions:

What things are black?



An *interpretation* maps meta-variables to real objects:

Slide 104 The interpretation  $Y \mapsto \text{coal satisfies the statement}$ 

Black is the colour of Y.

but the interpretation  $Y\mapsto \text{strawberries}$  does not!

A statement A is *valid* if all interpretations satisfy A.

### Consistency, or Satisfiability

A set S of statements is *consistent* if some interpretation satisfies all elements of S at the same time. Otherwise S is *inconsistent*.

Slide 105 Examples of inconsistent sets:

Slide 106

{X part of Y, Y part of Z, X NOT part of Z}

 $\{n \text{ is a positive integer}, n \neq 1, n \neq 2, \ldots\}$ 

Satisfiable means the same as consistent.

Unsatisfiable means the same as inconsistent.

### Entailment, or Logical Consequence

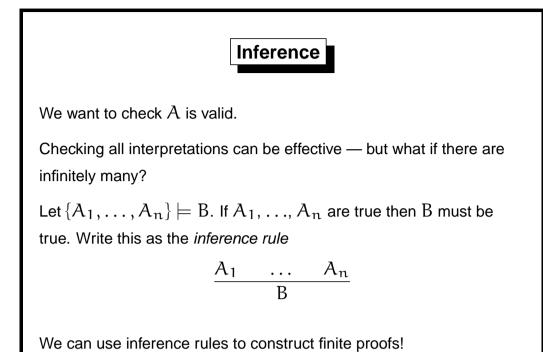
A set S of statements *entails* A if every interpretation that satisfies all elements of S, also satisfies A. We write  $S \models A$ .

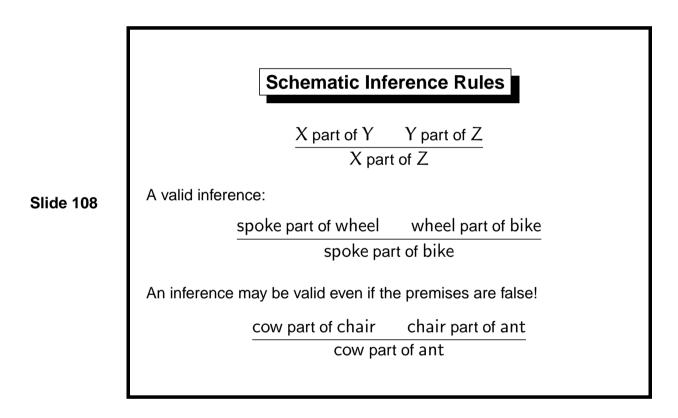
 $\{X \text{ part of } Y, Y \text{ part of } Z\} \models X \text{ part of } Z$ 

 $\{n \neq 1, n \neq 2, \ldots\} \models n$  is NOT a positive integer

 $S\models A \text{ if and only if } \{\neg A\}\cup S \text{ is inconsistent}$ 

 $\models$  A if and only if A is valid, if and only if  $\{\neg A\}$  is inconsistent.





### Survey of Formal Logics

propositional logic is traditional boolean algebra.

first-order logic can say for all and there exists.

higher-order logic reasons about sets and functions.

modal/temporal logics reason about what must, or may, happen.

type theories support *constructive* mathematics.

All have been used to prove correctness of computer systems.

### Why Should the Language be Formal?

Consider this 'definition':

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Slide 109

The least integer not definable using eight words

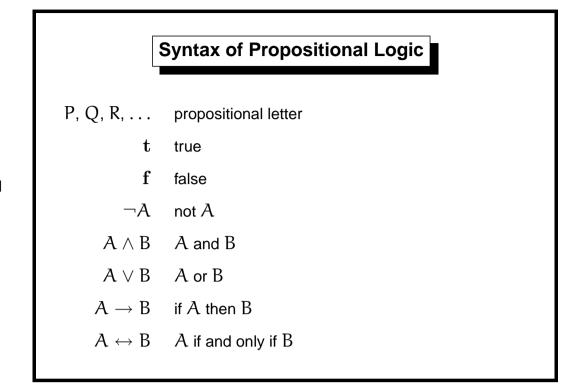
Greater than The number of atoms in the entire Universe

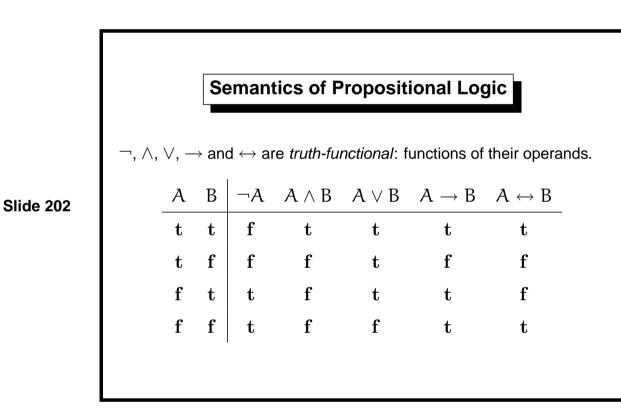
Also greater than The least integer not definable using eight words

• A formal language prevents AMBIGUITY.

6

Slide 201



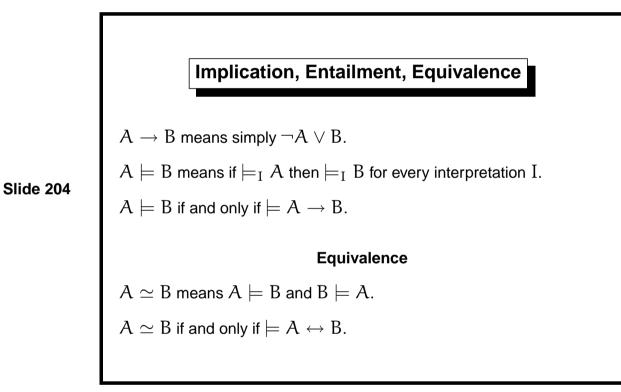


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### Interpretations of Propositional Logic

An *interpretation* is a function from the propositional letters to  $\{\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{f}\}$ . Interpretation I *satisfies* a formula A if the formula evaluates to  $\mathbf{t}$ . Write  $\models_I A$ A is *valid* (a *tautology*) if every interpretation satisfies A. Write  $\models A$ S is *satisfiable* if some interpretation satisfies every formula in S.



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Slide 203

8

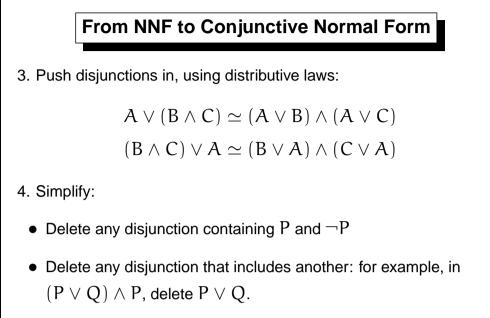
Equivalences $A \land A \simeq A$  $A \land B \simeq B \land A$  $(A \land B) \land C \simeq A \land (B \land C)$  $A \lor (B \land C) \simeq (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$  $A \land f \simeq f$  $A \land t \simeq A$  $A \land -A \simeq f$ Dual versions: exchange  $\land$  with  $\lor$  and t with f in any equivalence

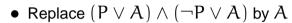
Negation Normal Form1. Get rid of  $\leftrightarrow$  and  $\rightarrow$ , leaving just  $\land$ ,  $\lor$ ,  $\neg$ : $A \leftrightarrow B \simeq (A \rightarrow B) \land (B \rightarrow A)$  $A \rightarrow B \simeq \neg A \lor B$ Slide 2062. Push negations in, using de Morgan's laws: $\neg \neg A \simeq A$  $\neg (A \land B) \simeq \neg A \lor \neg B$  $\neg (A \land B) \simeq \neg A \land \neg B$ 

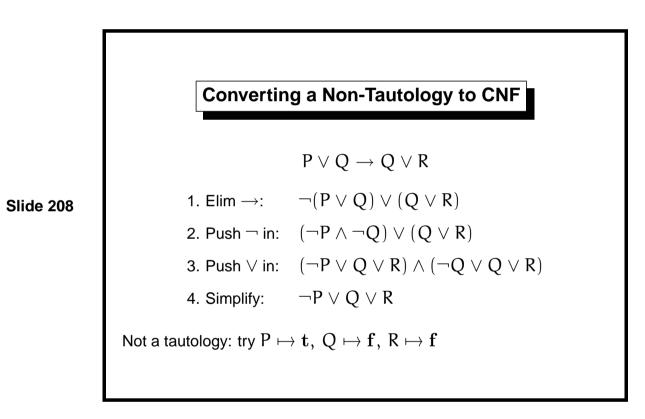
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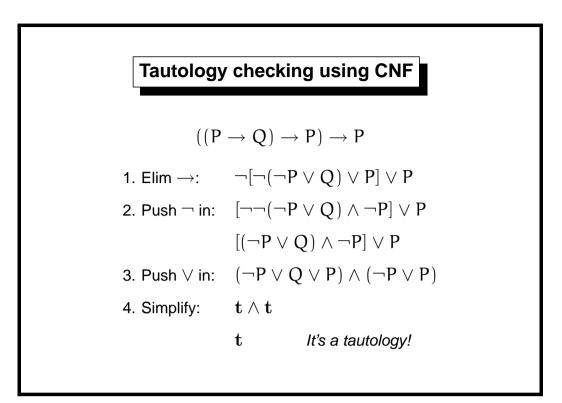
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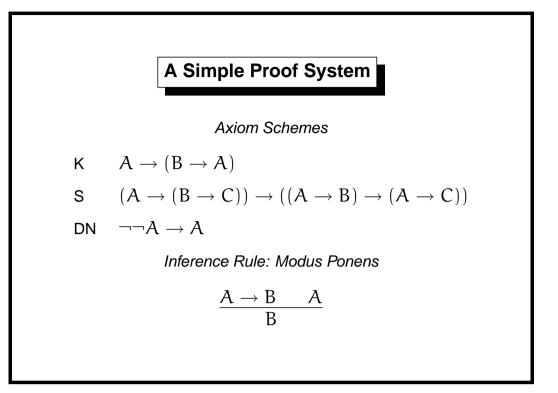








III



$$\begin{array}{l} \textbf{A Simple (?) Proof of } A \to A \end{array}$$

$$(A \to ((D \to A) \to A)) \to \qquad (1)$$

$$((A \to (D \to A)) \to (A \to A)) \quad \text{by S}$$

$$A \to ((D \to A) \to A) \quad \text{by K} \qquad (2)$$

$$(A \to (D \to A)) \to (A \to A) \quad \text{by MP, (1), (2)} \qquad (3)$$

$$A \to (D \to A) \quad \text{by K} \qquad (4)$$

$$A \to A \quad \text{by MP, (3), (4)} \qquad (5)$$

Slide 302

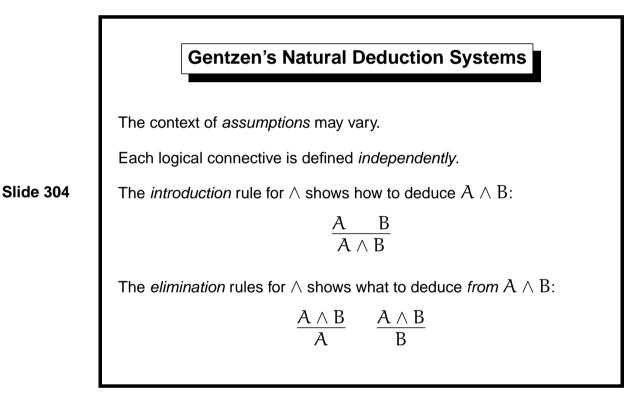
### Some Facts about Deducibility

A is *deducible from* the set S if there is a finite proof of A starting from elements of S. Write  $S \vdash A$ .

**Soundness Theorem**. If  $S \vdash A$  then  $S \models A$ .

**Completeness Theorem**. If  $S \models A$  then  $S \vdash A$ .

**Deduction Theorem**. If  $S \cup \{A\} \vdash B$  then  $S \vdash A \rightarrow B$ .



Slide 303

### The Sequent Calculus

Sequent  $A_1, \ldots, A_m \Rightarrow B_1, \ldots, B_n$  means,

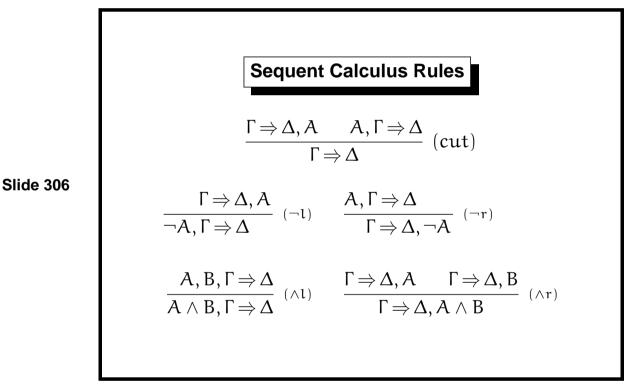


if 
$$A_1 \land \ldots \land A_m$$
 then  $B_1 \lor \ldots \lor B_n$ 

 $A_1, \ldots, A_m$  are assumptions;  $B_1, \ldots, B_n$  are goals

 $\Gamma$  and  $\Delta$  are *sets* in  $\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta$ 

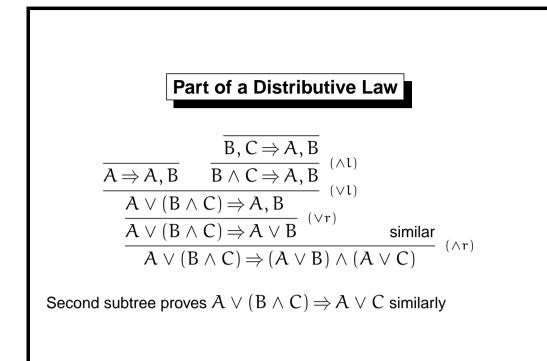
The sequent  $A, \Gamma \Rightarrow A, \Delta$  is trivially true (*basic sequent*).

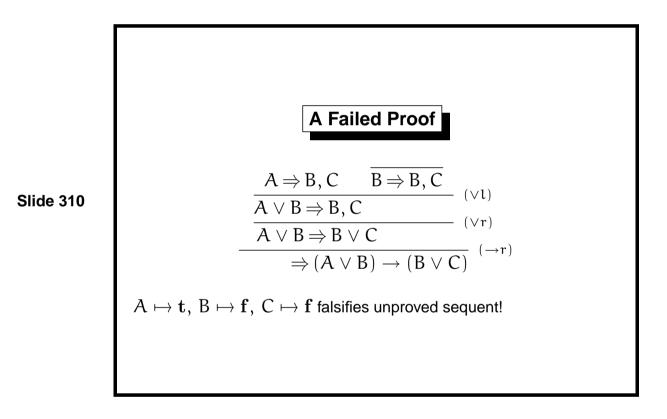


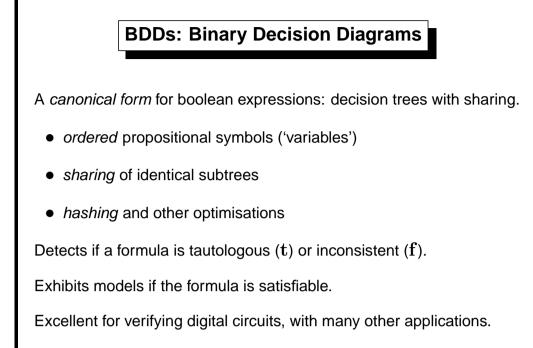
$$\frac{A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta \quad B, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{A \lor B, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} (\lor \iota) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A, B}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A \lor B} (\lor r)$$

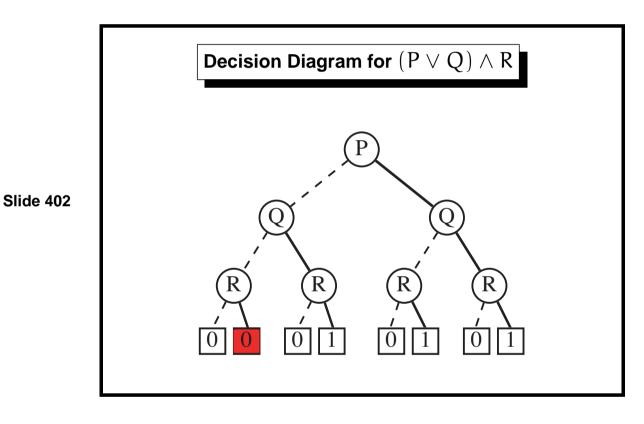
$$\frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A \qquad B, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{A \to B, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} (\rightarrow \iota) \qquad \frac{A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, B}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A \to B} (\rightarrow r)$$

Slide 308  $\frac{\overline{A, B \Rightarrow A}}{\overline{A \land B \Rightarrow A}} (\land l) \\ \overrightarrow{A \land B \Rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \land B \Rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \land B \Rightarrow B, A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r) \\ \overrightarrow{A \Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} (\rightarrow r)$ 



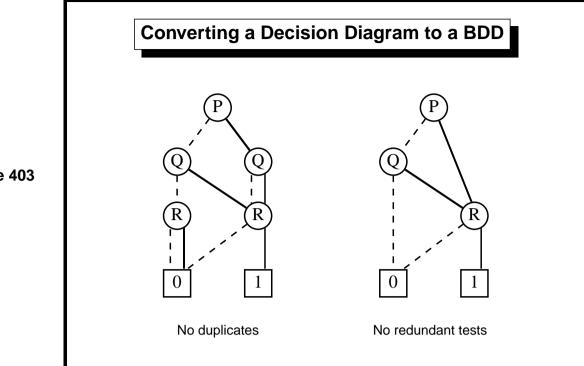


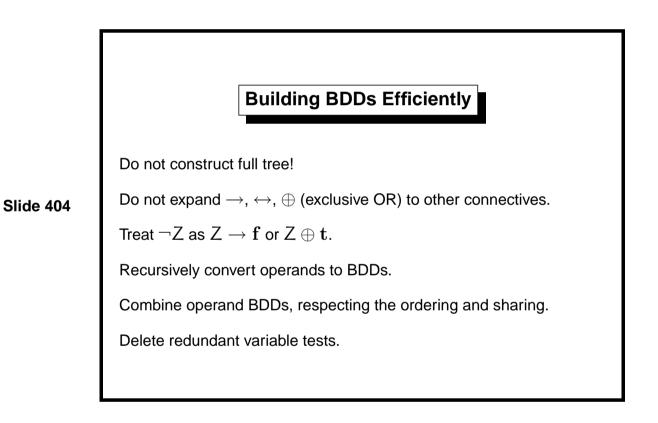




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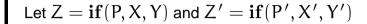
 $\mathbf{IV}$ 

### Canonical Form Algorithm

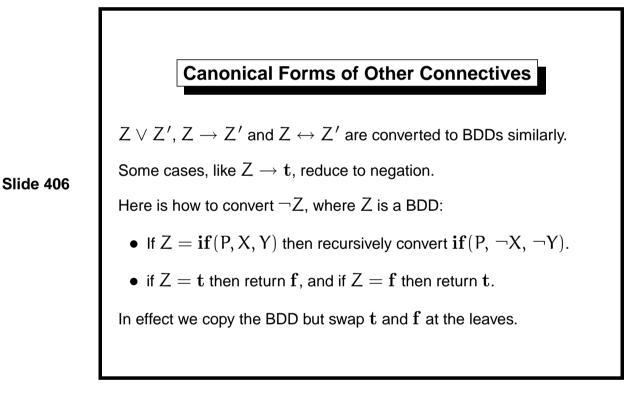
To convert  $Z \wedge Z'$ , where Z and Z' are already BDDs:

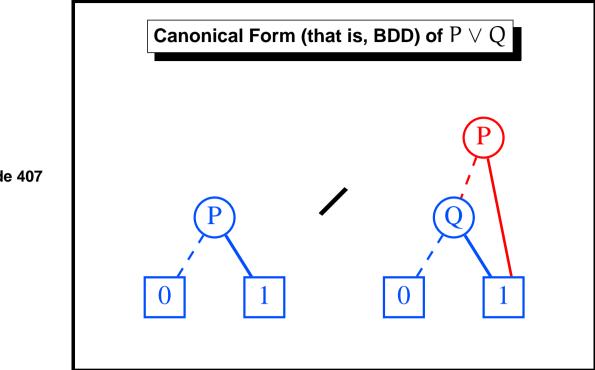
Trivial if either operand is t or f.

Slide 405

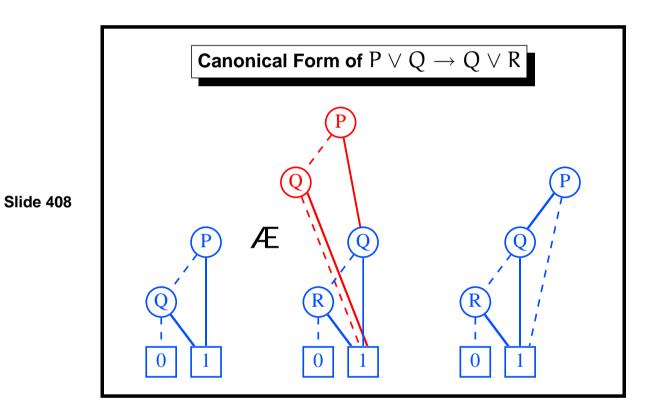


- If  $P=P^{\,\prime}$  then recursively convert  $\mathbf{if}(P,\,X\wedge X^{\,\prime},\,Y\wedge Y^{\prime}).$
- If P < P' then recursively convert  $\mathbf{if}(P, X \wedge Z', Y \wedge Z')$ .
- If P > P' then recursively convert  $\mathbf{if}(P', Z \wedge X', Z \wedge Y')$ .





IV



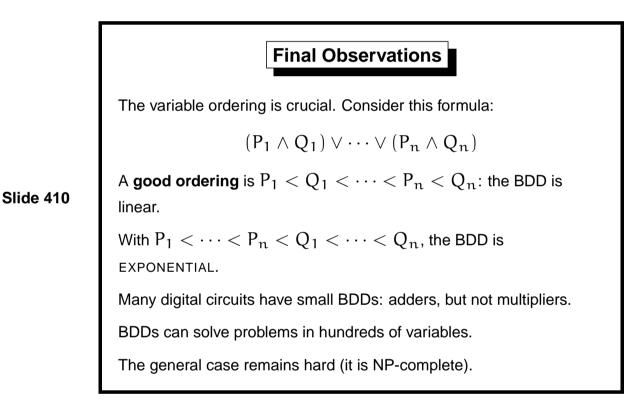
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# Optimisations Based On Hash Tables

Never build the same BDD twice, but share pointers. Advantages:

- If  $X \leftrightarrow Y$ , then the addresses of X and Y are equal.
- Can see if if(P, X, Y) is redundant by checking if X = Y.
- Can quickly simplify special cases like  $X \wedge X$ .

Never convert  $X \wedge Y$  twice, but keep a table of known canonical forms.



Slide 409

### Outline of First-Order Logic

Reasons about *functions* and *relations* over a set of *individuals*:

$$\frac{father(father(x)) = father(father(y))}{cousin(x, y)}$$

Slide 501

Reasons about all and some individuals:

All men are mortal Socrates is a man Socrates is mortal

Cannot reason about *all functions* or *all relations*, etc.

# Function Symbols; TermsEach function symbol stands for an n-place function.A constant symbol is a 0-place function symbol.A variable ranges over all individuals.A term is a variable, constant or a function application $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ where f is an n-place function symbol and $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ are terms.We choose the language, adopting any desired function symbols.

### Relation Symbols; Formulae

Each *relation symbol* stands for an n-place relation.

Equality is the 2-place relation symbol =

Slide 503

An atomic formula has the form  $R(t_1,\ldots,t_n)$  where R is an

n-place relation symbol and  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  are terms.

A formula is built up from atomic formulæ using  $\neg, \wedge, \vee,$  and so forth.

Later, we can add quantifiers.

### The Power of Quantifier-Free FOL

It is surprisingly expressive, if we include strong induction rules.

It is easy to equivalence of mathematical functions:

Slide 504

 $p(z,0) = 1 \qquad q(z,1) = z$  $p(z,n+1) = p(z,n) \times z \qquad q(z,2 \times n) = q(z \times z,n)$ 

 $q(z, 2 \times n + 1) = q(z \times z, n) \times z$ 

The prover ACL2 uses this logic and has been used in major hardware proofs.



Universal and Existential Quantifiers

 $\forall x A$  for all x, the formula A holds

 $\exists x A$  there exists x such that A holds

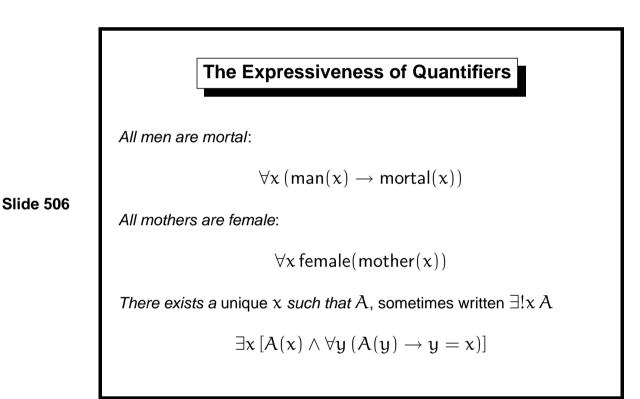
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Syntactic variations:

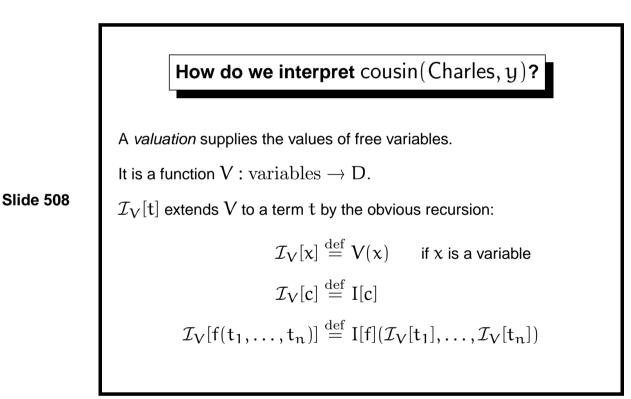
 $\forall xyz A$  abbreviates  $\forall x \forall y \forall z A$ 

 $\forall z \, . \, A \land B$  is an alternative to  $\forall z \, (A \land B)$ 

The variable x is *bound* in  $\forall x A$ ; compare with  $\int f(x) dx$ 



How do we interpret mortal(Socrates)?Take an interpretation  $\mathcal{I} = (D, I)$  of our first-order language.D is a non-empty set, called the *domain* or *universe*.I maps symbols to 'real' elements, functions and relations:c a constant symbolI[c]  $\in D$ f an n-place function symbolI[f]  $\in D^n \rightarrow D$ P an n-place relation symbolI[P]  $\subseteq D^n$ 

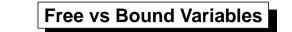


V

The Meaning of Truth — in FOLFor interpretation  $\mathcal{I}$  and valuation V, define  $\models_{\mathcal{I},V}$  by recursion. $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} P(t)$ if  $\mathcal{I}_V[t] \in I[P]$  holds $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} t = u$ if  $\mathcal{I}_V[t]$  equals  $\mathcal{I}_V[u]$  $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A \land B$ if  $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A$  and  $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} B$  $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} \exists x A$ if  $\models_{\mathcal{I},V\{m/x\}} A$  holds for some  $m \in D$ Finally, we define $\models_{\mathcal{I}} A$ if  $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A$  holds for all V.Formula A is satisfiable if  $\models_{\mathcal{I}} A$  for some  $\mathcal{I}$ .

Slide 509

 $\mathbf{V}$ 



All occurrences of x in  $\forall x A$  and  $\exists x A$  are bound

An occurrence of x is *free* if it is not bound:

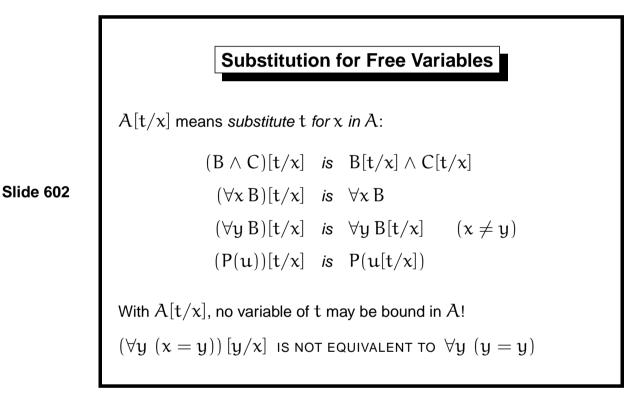
Slide 601

 $\forall y \exists z R(y, z, f(y, x))$ 

In this formula, y and z are bound while x is free.

May rename bound variables:

 $\forall w \exists z' \mathsf{R}(w, z', \mathsf{f}(w, x))$ 



VI

$$\neg(\forall x A) \simeq \exists x \neg A$$
$$\forall x A \simeq \forall x A \land A[t/x]$$
$$(\forall x A) \land (\forall x B) \simeq \forall x (A \land B)$$

Some Equivalences for Quantifiers

But we do not have  $(\forall x A) \lor (\forall x B) \simeq \forall x (A \lor B).$ 

Dual versions: exchange  $\forall$  with  $\exists$  and  $\land$  with  $\lor$ 



These hold only if x is not free in B.

Slide 604

$$(\forall \mathbf{x} \mathbf{A}) \land \mathbf{B} \simeq \forall \mathbf{x} (\mathbf{A} \land \mathbf{B})$$
$$(\forall \mathbf{x} \mathbf{A}) \lor \mathbf{B} \simeq \forall \mathbf{x} (\mathbf{A} \lor \mathbf{B})$$

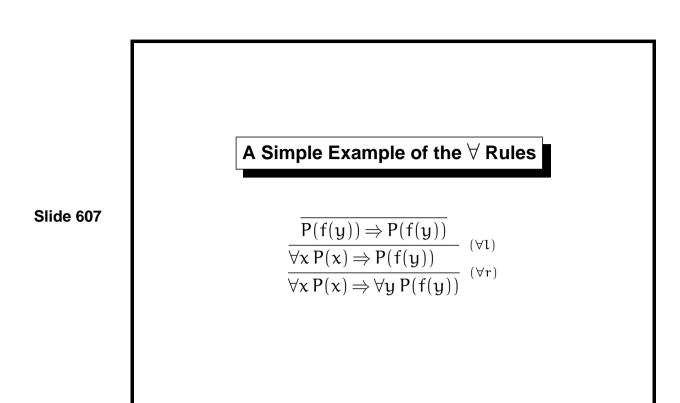
$$(\forall x A) \rightarrow B \simeq \exists x (A \rightarrow B)$$

These let us expand or contract a quantifier's scope.

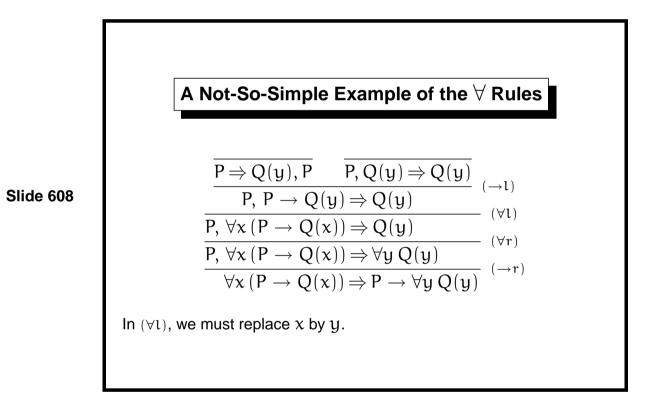
$$\exists x (x = a \land P(x)) \simeq \exists x (x = a \land P(a)) \simeq \exists x (x = a) \land P(a) \simeq P(a) \exists z (P(z) \rightarrow P(a) \land P(b)) \simeq \forall z P(z) \rightarrow P(a) \land P(b) \simeq \forall z P(z) \land P(a) \land P(b) \rightarrow P(a) \land P(b)$$

**Sequent Calculus Rules for**  $\forall$   $\frac{A[t/x], \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{\forall x A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} (\forall \iota) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, \forall x A} (\forall r)$ Rule ( $\forall \iota$ ) can create many instances of  $\forall x A$ Rule ( $\forall r$ ) holds *provided* x is not free in the conclusion! Not allowed to prove  $\frac{\overline{P(y) \Rightarrow P(y)}}{P(y) \Rightarrow \forall y P(y)} (\forall r)$ THIS IS NONSENSE!

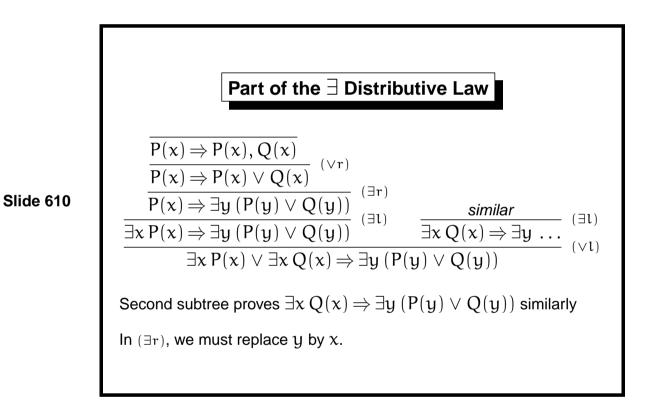
 $\simeq {f t}$ 

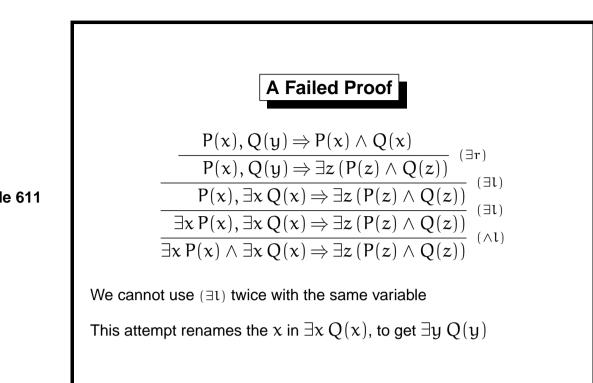


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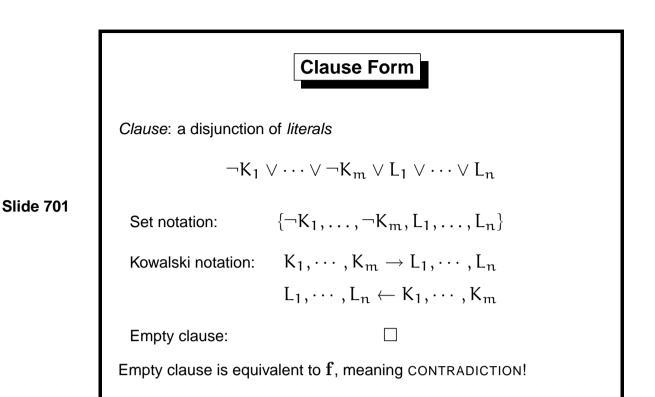


Sequent Calculus Rules for  $\exists$  $A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta$  $(\exists \iota)$  $\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A[t/x]$  $(\exists r)$  $\exists x A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta$  $(\exists \iota)$  $\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, \exists x A$  $(\exists r)$ Rule ( $\exists \iota$ ) holds *provided* x is not free in the conclusion!Rule ( $\exists r$ ) can create many instances of  $\exists x A$ For example, to prove this counter-intuitive formula: $\exists z (P(z) \rightarrow P(a) \land P(b))$ 



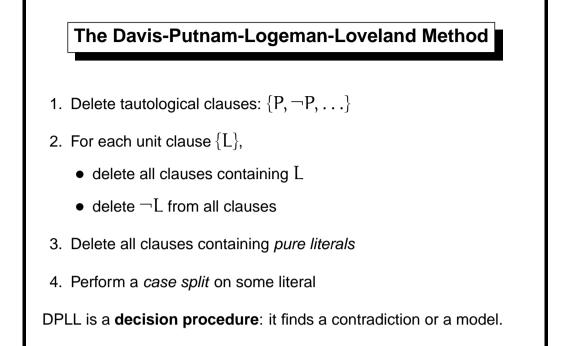


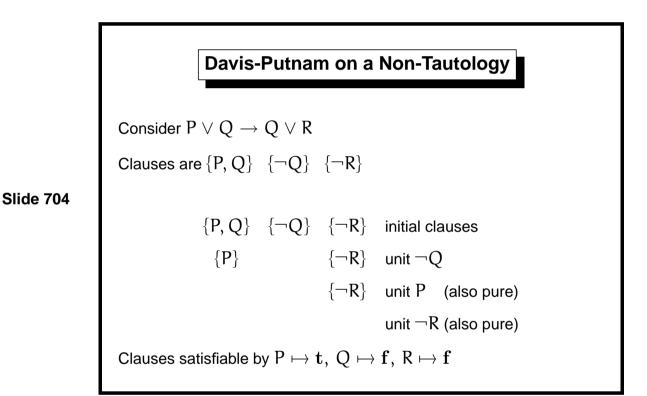
VI



# **Outline of Clause Form Methods** To prove A, obtain a contradiction from $\neg A$ : 1. Translate $\neg A$ into CNF as $A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_m$ 2. This is the set of clauses $A_1, \ldots, A_m$ 3. Transform the clause set, preserving consistency Deducing the empty *clause* refutes $\neg A$ . An empty *clause set* (all clauses deleted) means $\neg A$ is satisfiable. The basis for SAT SOLVERS and RESOLUTION PROVERS.

VII

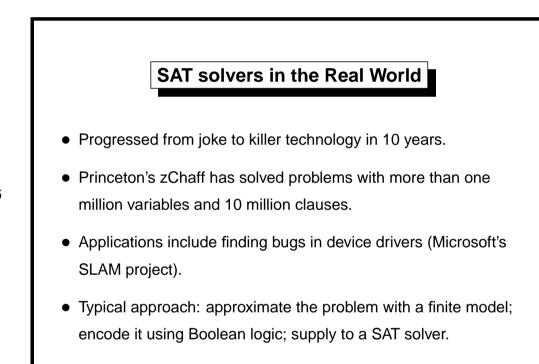




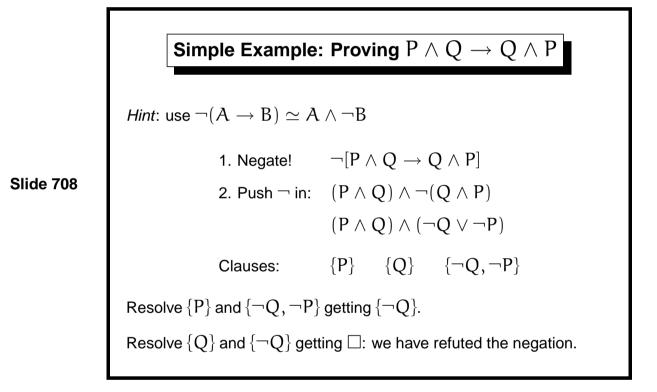
Example of a Case Split on  ${\boldsymbol{\mathsf{P}}}$  $\{\neg Q, R\} \quad \{\neg R, P\} \quad \{\neg R, Q\} \quad \{\neg P, Q, R\} \quad \{P, Q\} \quad \{\neg P, \neg Q\}$  $\{\neg Q, R\} \{\neg R, Q\}$  $\{Q, R\}$  $\{\neg Q\}$  if P is true  $\{\neg R\}$  $\{R\}$ unit  $\neg Q$ unit R  $\{\neg Q, R\}$  $\{\neg R\}$  $\{\neg R, Q\}$  $\{Q\}$ if P is false  $\{\neg Q\}$  $\{Q\}$ unit ¬R

Slide 705

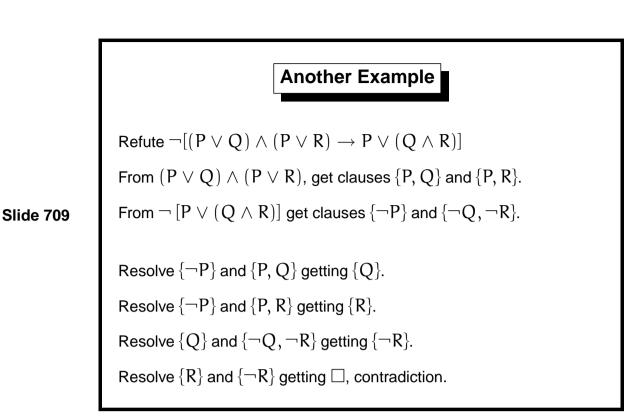
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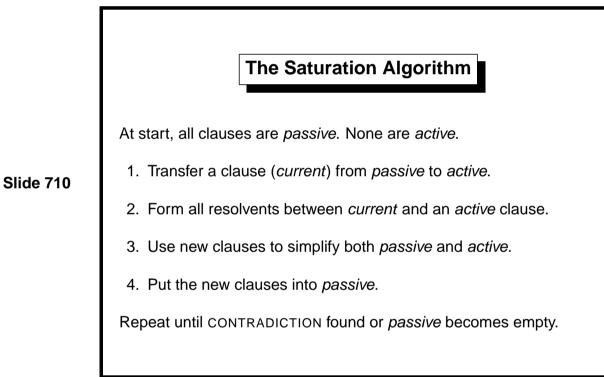


unit ¬Q



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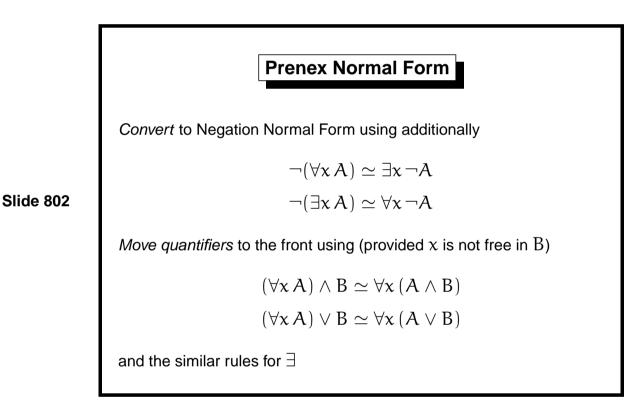
## **Refinements of Resolution**

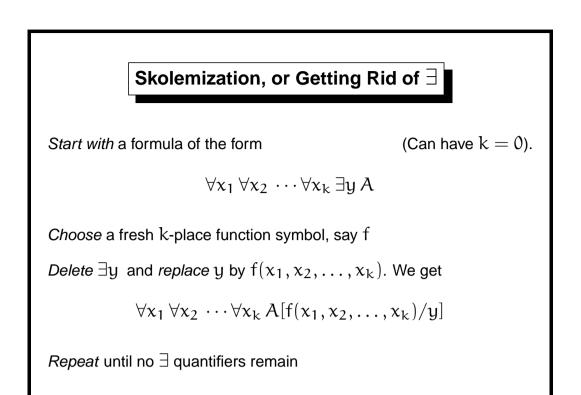
Subsumption:	deleting redundant clauses
Preprocessing:	removing tautologies, symmetries
Indexing:	elaborate data structures for speed
Ordered resolution	restrictions to focus the search
Weighting:	giving priority to the smallest clauses
Set of Support:	working on the goal, not the axioms

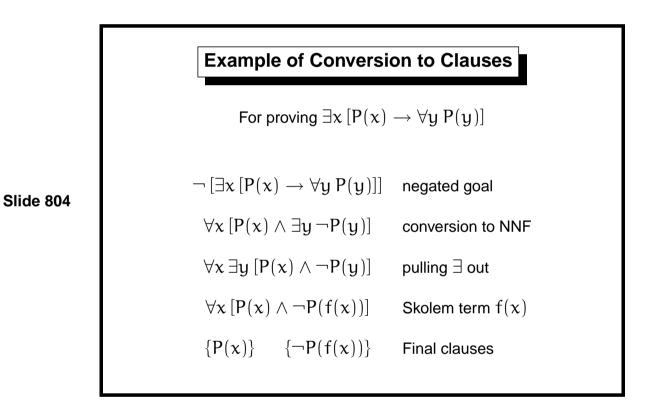
## Reducing FOL to Propositional Logic

Slide 801

Prenex:Move quantifiers to the frontSkolemize:Remove quantifiers, preserving consistencyHerbrand models:Reduce the class of interpretationsHerbrand's Thm:Contradictions have finite, ground proofsUnification:Automatically find the right instantiationsFinally, combine unification with resolution





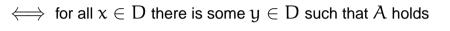




The formula  $\forall x \exists y A$  is consistent

 $\iff$  it holds in some interpretation  $\mathcal{I} = (D, I)$ 

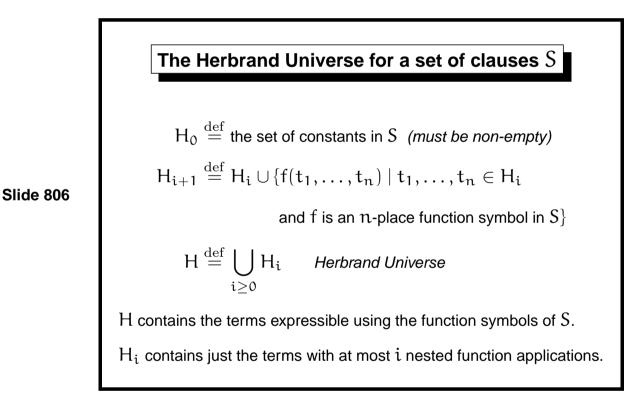
Slide 805



- $\iff$  some function  $\widehat{f} \text{ in } D \rightarrow D$  yields suitable values of y
- $\iff A[f(x)/y] \text{ holds in some } \mathcal{I}' \text{ extending } \mathcal{I} \text{ so that } f \text{ denotes } \hat{f}$

 $\iff$  the formula  $\forall x A[f(x)/y]$  is consistent.

Don't panic if you can't follow this reasoning!



Herbrand Interpretations for a set of clauses S

$$HB \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{P(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \mid t_1, \ldots, t_n \in H$$

and P is an n-place predicate symbol in S

Slide 807

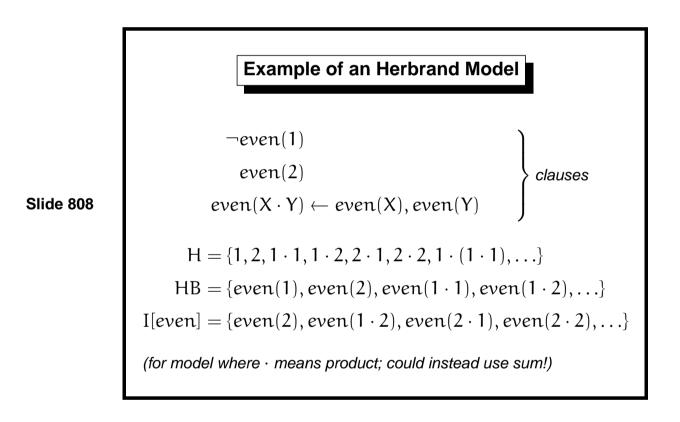
HB contains all applications of predicates to elements of  $H. \label{eq:HB}$ 

Each subset of HB defines the cases where the predicates are true.

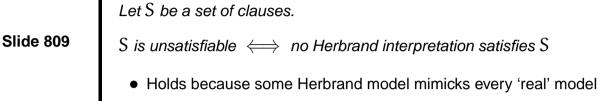
A Herbrand model will interpret the predicates by some subset of HB.

It will interpret function symbols by term-forming operations:

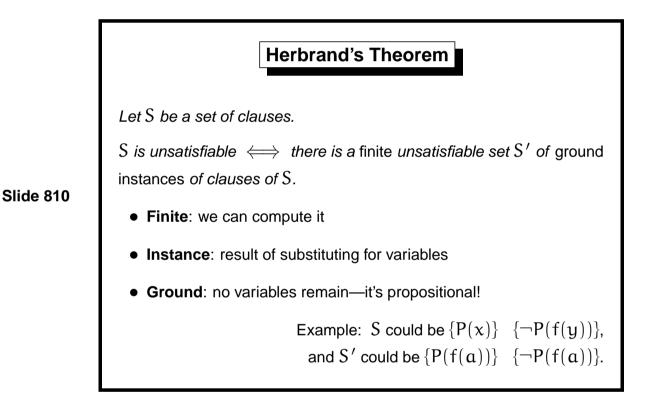
f denotes the function that puts f in front of the given arguments.



A Key Fact about Herbrand Interpretations



- We must consider only a small class of models
- Herbrand models are syntactic, easily processed by computer



## Unification

Finding a *common instance* of two terms. Lots of applications:

• **Prolog** and other logic programming languages



Slide 902

- Theorem proving: resolution and other procedures
  - Tools for reasoning with **equations**
  - Tools for satisfying multiple **constraints**

• Polymorphic type-checking (**ML** and other functional languages)

It's an intuitive generalization of pattern-matching.

## $$\label{eq:substitution} \begin{split} \textbf{Substitutions: A Mathematical Treatment} \\ A \ \text{substitution is a finite set of } replacements \\ & \theta = [t_1/x_1, \ldots, t_k/x_k] \\ \text{where } x_1, \ldots, x_k \ \text{are distinct variables and } t_i \neq x_i. \\ & f(t,u)\theta = f(t\theta, u\theta) \qquad (\text{substitution in terms}) \\ & P(t,u)\theta = P(t\theta, u\theta) \qquad (\text{in literals}) \\ & \{L_1, \ldots, L_m\}\theta = \{L_1\theta, \ldots, L_m\theta\} \qquad (\text{in clauses}) \end{split}$$

\_\_\_\_\_

44

## **Composing Substitutions**

Composition of  $\varphi$  and  $\theta,$  written  $\varphi\circ\theta,$  satisfies for all terms t

$$\mathsf{t}(\phi \circ \theta) = (\mathsf{t}\phi)\theta$$

Slide 903

Slide 904

It is defined by (for all relevant x)

$$\phi \circ \theta \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} [(x\phi)\theta / x, \ldots]$$

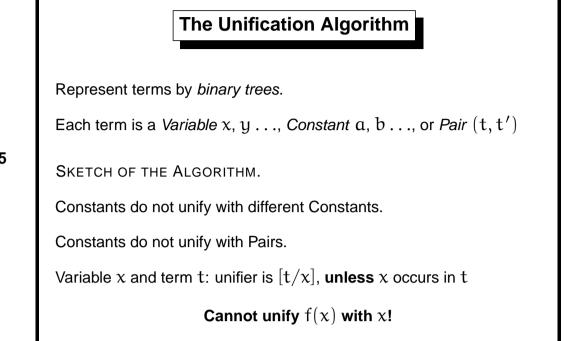
Consequences include  $\theta \circ [] = \theta$ , and *associativity*:

$$(\phi \circ \theta) \circ \sigma = \phi \circ (\theta \circ \sigma)$$

## $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{Most General Unifiers} \\ \theta \text{ is a unifier of terms t and } u \text{ if } t\theta = u\theta. \\ \theta \text{ is more general than } \phi \text{ if } \phi = \theta \circ \sigma \text{ for some substitution } \sigma. \\ \theta \text{ is most general if it is more general than every other unifier.} \\ \text{If } \theta \text{ unifies t and } u \text{ then so does } \theta \circ \sigma: \\ t(\theta \circ \sigma) = t\theta\sigma = u\theta\sigma = u(\theta \circ \sigma) \\ \text{A most general unifier of } f(a, x) \text{ and } f(y, g(z)) \text{ is } [a/y, g(z)/x]. \\ \text{The common instance is } f(a, g(z)). \end{array}$

University of Cambridge

IX



IX

The Unification Algorithm: The Case of Two Pairs

Slide 906

 $\theta \circ \theta'$  unifies (t,t') with  $(\mathfrak{u},\mathfrak{u}')$ 

if  $\theta$  unifies t with u and  $\theta'$  unifies t' $\theta$  with  $u'\theta$ .

We unify the left sides, then the right sides.

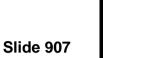
In an implementation, substitutions are formed by updating pointers.

Composition happens automatically as more pointers are updated.

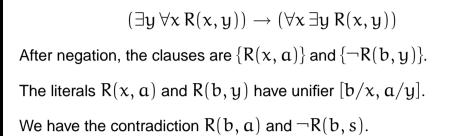
Mathematical justification It's easy to check that  $\theta \circ \theta'$  unifies (t,t') with (u,u'): $(t,t')(\theta \circ \theta') = (t,t')\theta \theta'$  $=(t\theta\theta',t'\theta\theta')$  $= (\mathfrak{u}\theta\theta',\mathfrak{u}'\theta\theta')$  $= (\mathfrak{u},\mathfrak{u}')\theta\theta'$  $= (\mathfrak{u},\mathfrak{u}')(\theta\circ\theta')$  $\theta \circ \theta'$  is even a most general unifier, if  $\theta$  and  $\theta'$  are!

Four Unification Examples f(x, b)f(x, x)f(x, x) $\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x},z)$ f(a, y)f(a, b)f(y, g(y)) $\mathfrak{j}(w, \mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{h}(w))$ Slide 908 f(a, b) $\mathfrak{j}(\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{h}(\mathfrak{a}))$ None None [a/w, a/x, h(a)/z][a/x, b/y]Fail Fail Remember, the output is a *substitution*. The algorithm yields a most general unifier.

Lawrence C. Paulson



## Theorem-Proving Example 1



THE THEOREM IS PROVED BY CONTRADICTION!

## Theorem-Proving Example 2 $(\forall x \exists y R(x, y)) \rightarrow (\exists y \forall x R(x, y))$ After negation, the clauses are $\{R(x, f(x))\}$ and $\{\neg R(g(y), y)\}$ . The literals R(x, f(x)) and R(g(y), y) are not unifiable. (They fail the occurs check.) We can't get a contradiction. FORMULA IS NOT A THEOREM!

Slide 910

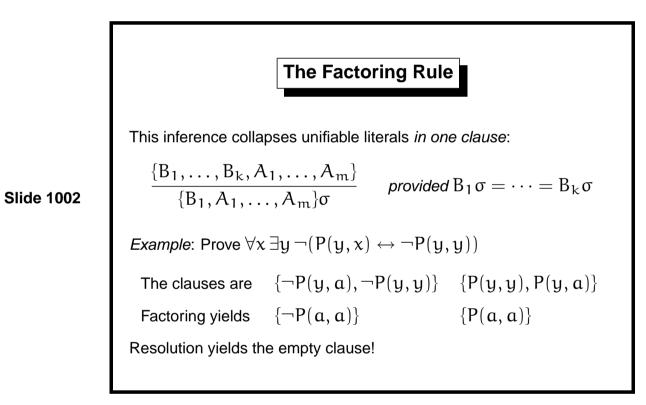
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# Variations on UnificationEfficient unification algorithms: near-linear timeIndexing & Discrimination networks: fast retrieval of a unifiable termAssociative/commutative unification• Example: unify a + (y + c) with (c + x) + b, get [a/x, b/y]• Algorithm is very complicated• The number of unifiers can be exponentialUnification in many other theories (often undecidable!)

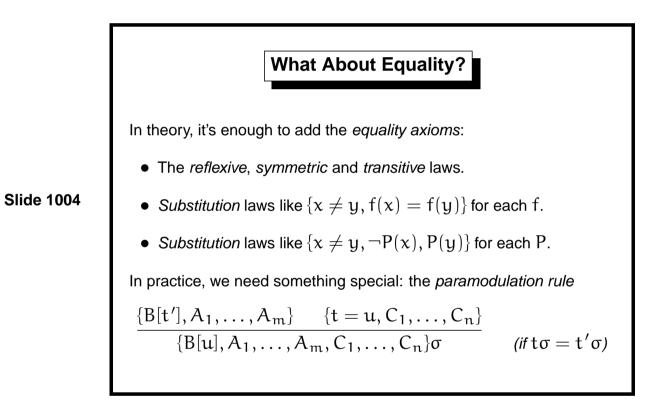
## Slide 911

Lawrence C. Paulson

 $\label{eq:B} \begin{array}{l} \hline \textbf{The Binary Resolution Rule} \\ \hline \hline \textbf{B}, A_1, \dots, A_m \} & \{\neg D, C_1, \dots, C_n\} \\ \hline \hline \textbf{A}_1, \dots, \textbf{A}_m, C_1, \dots, C_n \} \sigma & \textit{provided B} \sigma = D \sigma \\ \hline \textbf{First, rename variables apart in the clauses! For example, given} \\ \hline \{P(x)\} & \textit{and} \ \{\neg P(g(x))\} \\ \hline \textbf{rename x in one of the clauses before attempting unification.} \\ \hline \textbf{Always use a most general unifier (MGU).} \end{array}$ 









## Prolog Clauses

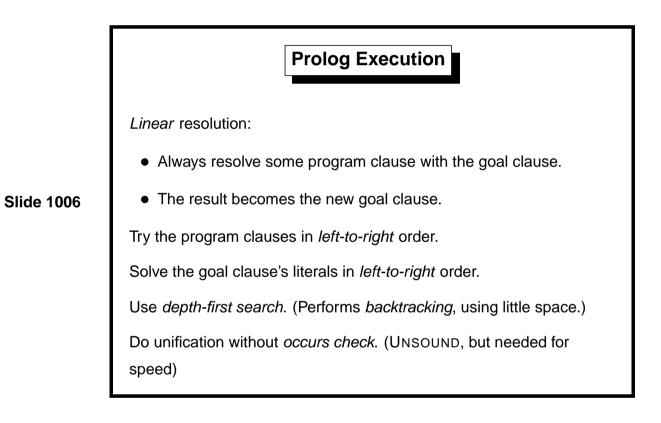
Prolog clauses have a restricted form, with *at most one* positive literal.

The *definite clauses* form the program. Procedure B with body "commands"  $A_1, \ldots, A_m$  is

$$B \leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m$$

The single goal clause is like the "execution stack", with say m tasks left to be done.

$$\leftarrow A_1, \ldots, A_m$$





52

## A (Pure) Prolog Program

parent(elizabeth,charles). parent(elizabeth,andrew).

Slide 1007

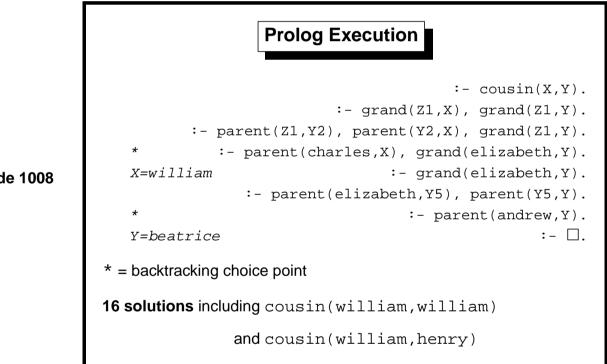
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parent(andrew,beatrice).

parent(charles,william). parent(charles,henry).

parent(andrew,eugenia).

grand(X,Z) :- parent(X,Y), parent(Y,Z). cousin(X,Y) := grand(Z,X), grand(Z,Y).



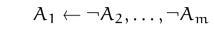
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53

## Another FOL Proof Procedure: Model Elimination A Prolog-like method to run on fast Prolog architectures.

Contrapositives: treat clause  $\{A_1, \ldots, A_m\}$  like the m clauses





$$\mathsf{A}_2 \leftarrow \neg \mathsf{A}_3, \ldots, \neg \mathsf{A}_{\mathfrak{m}}, \neg \mathsf{A}_{\mathfrak{l}}$$

$$A_{m} \leftarrow \neg A_{1}, \ldots, \neg A_{m-1}$$

*Extension* rule: when proving goal P, assume  $\neg P$ .

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A Survey of Automatic Theorem Provers

Saturation (that is, resolution): E, Gandalf, SPASS, Vampire, ...

Slide 1010

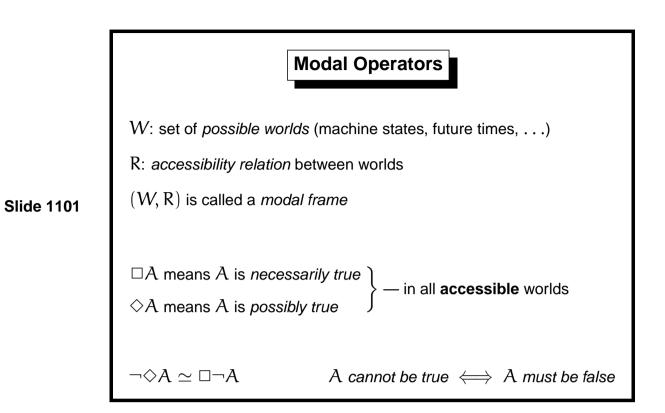
Higher-Order Logic: TPS, LEO

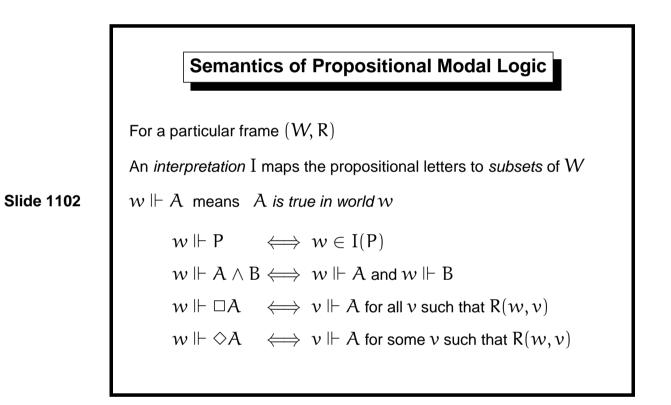
Model Elimination: Prolog Technology Theorem Prover, SETHEO

Parallel ME: PARTHENON, PARTHEO

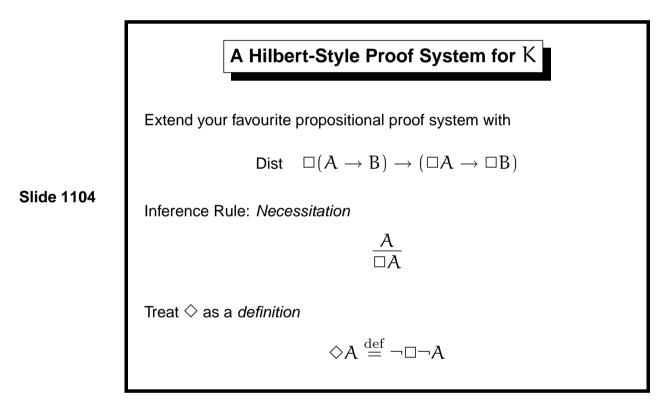
Tableau (sequent) based: LeanTAP, 3TAP, ...

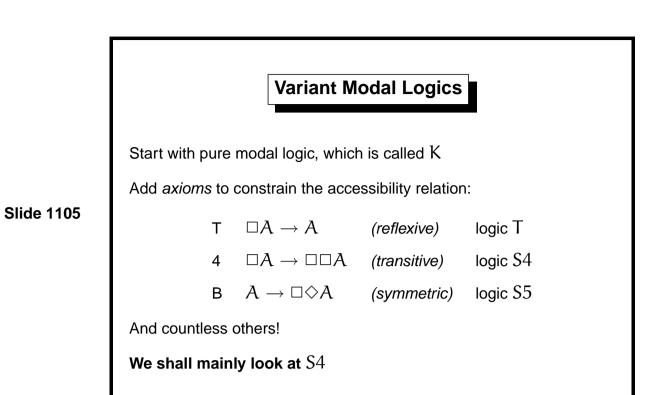
XI

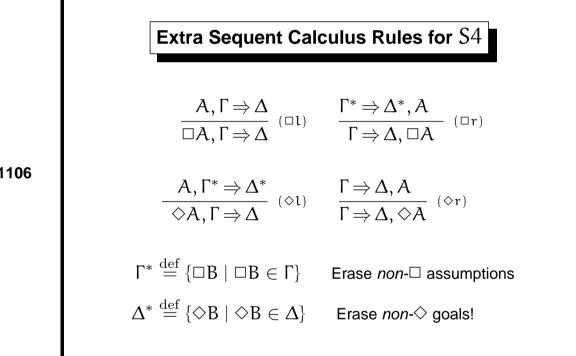




Truth and Validity in Modal LogicFor a particular frame (W, R), and interpretation I $w \Vdash A$  means A is true in world w $\models W, R, I A$  means  $w \Vdash A$  for all w in W $\models W, R A$  means  $w \Vdash A$  for all w and all I $\models A$  means  $\models_{W,R} A$  for all frames; A is universally valid... but typically we constrain R to be, say, transitiveAll tautologies are universally valid







XI

A Proof of the Distribution Axiom

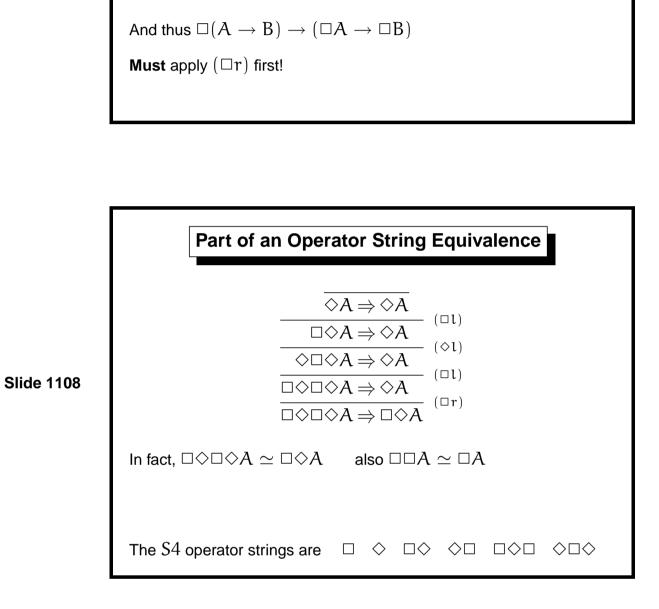
 $(\rightarrow l)$ 

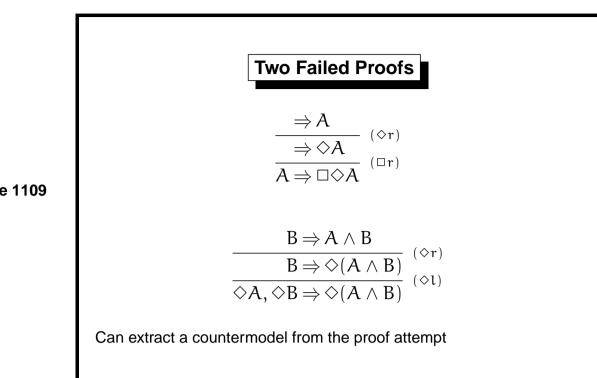
(□l) (□l)

 $(\Box \mathbf{r})$ 

 $\frac{\overline{A \Rightarrow B, A} \quad \overline{B, A \Rightarrow B}}{A \rightarrow B, A \Rightarrow B}$  $\frac{\overline{A \rightarrow B, A \Rightarrow B}}{\overline{A \rightarrow B, \Box A \Rightarrow B}}$  $\overline{\Box (A \rightarrow B), \Box A \Rightarrow B}$ 

 $\overline{\Box(A \to B), \Box A \Rightarrow \Box B}$ 





XI

 $\neg \quad \land \quad \lor \quad \rightarrow \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \forall \quad \exists \quad (\Box \quad \diamondsuit)$ 

Simplifying the Sequent Calculus	

7 connectives (or 9 for modal logic):

Slide 1201

XII

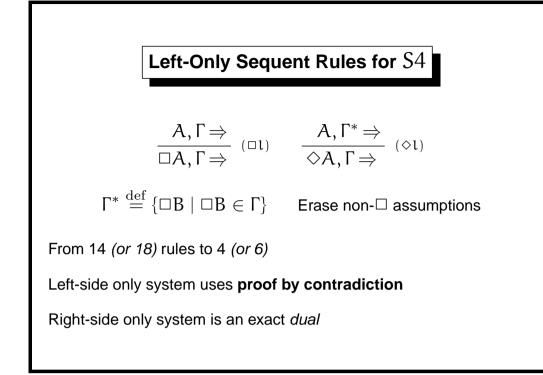
Left and right: so 14 rules (or	r 18) plus basic sequent, cut

Idea! Work in Negati	on N	lorm	al F	orm		
Fewer connectives:	$\wedge$	$\vee$	$\forall$	Ξ	( 🗆	◊)

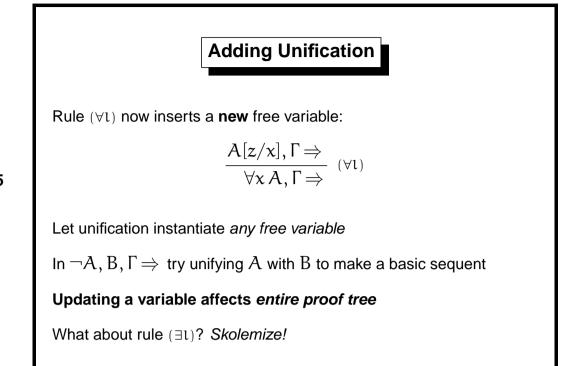
Sequents need one side only!

Simplified Calculus: Left-Only
$$\neg A, \Lambda, \Gamma \Rightarrow$$
(basic) $\neg A, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $A, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $(cut)$  $\overline{A}, A, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $(\wedge I)$  $\overline{A}, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $B, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $(v1)$  $\overline{A}, A, B, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $(\wedge I)$  $\overline{A}, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $B, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $(v1)$  $\overline{A}, A, B, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $(\wedge I)$  $\overline{A}, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $(\neg I)$  $\overline{A}, X, T \Rightarrow$  $(\forall I)$  $\overline{A}, \Gamma \Rightarrow$  $(\exists I)$ Rule (\exists I) holds provided x is not free in the conclusion!

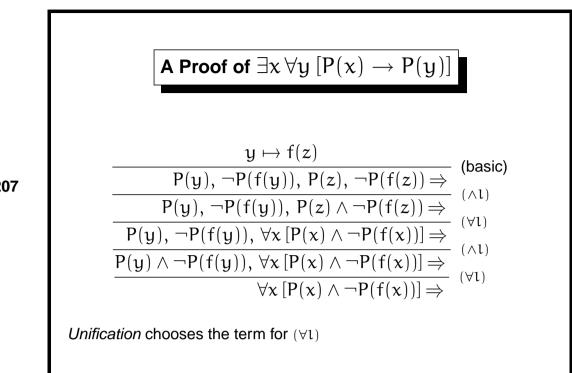
Slide 1204

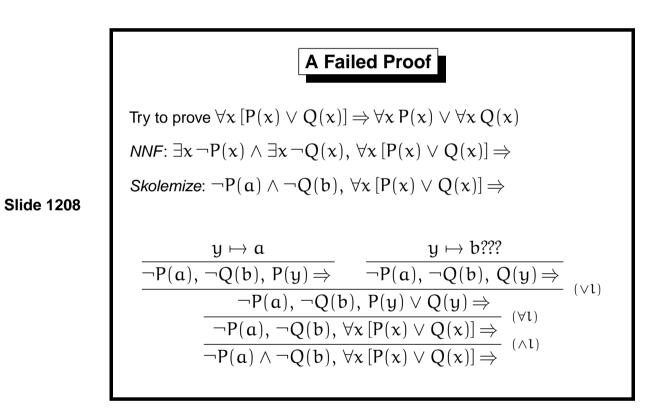


$$\begin{split} \textbf{Proving } \forall x \ (P \to Q(x)) \Rightarrow P \to \forall y \ Q(y) \end{split}$$
 Move the right-side formula to the left and convert to NNF:  
 
$$P \land \exists y \neg Q(y), \forall x \ (\neg P \lor Q(x)) \Rightarrow$$
$$\\ \hline \hline P, \neg Q(y), \neg P \Rightarrow \hline P, \neg Q(y), Q(y) \Rightarrow (\lor t) \\ \hline P, \neg Q(y), \forall x \ (\neg P \lor Q(y)) \Rightarrow (\lor t) \\ \hline P, \neg Q(y), \forall x \ (\neg P \lor Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\lor t) \\ \hline P, \exists y \neg Q(y), \forall x \ (\neg P \lor Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\land t) \\ \hline P \land \exists y \neg Q(y), \forall x \ (\neg P \lor Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\land t) \end{split}$$



Skolemization from NNFDon't pull quantifiers out! Skolemize $[\forall y \exists z Q(y,z)] \land \exists x P(x) \text{ to } [\forall y Q(y,f(y))] \land P(a)]$ Slide 1206It's better to push quantifiers in (called miniscoping)Example: proving  $\exists x \forall y [P(x) \rightarrow P(y)]$ :Negate; convert to NNF:  $\forall x \exists y [P(x) \land \neg P(y)]$ Push in the  $\exists y : \forall x [P(x) \land \exists y \neg P(y)]$ Push in the  $\forall x : (\forall x P(x)) \land (\exists y \neg P(y))$ Skolemize:  $\forall x P(x) \land \neg P(a)$ 





The World's Smallest Theorem Prover?
<pre>prove((A,B),UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim) :- !, and</pre>
prove(A,[B UnExp],Lits,FreeV,VarLim).
<pre>prove((A;B),UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim) :- !, or</pre>
<pre>prove(A,UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim),</pre>
<pre>prove(B,UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim).</pre>
<pre>prove(all(X,Fml),UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim) :- !, forall</pre>
<pre>\+ length(FreeV,VarLim),</pre>
copy_term((X,Fml,FreeV),(X1,Fml1,FreeV)),
<pre>append(UnExp,[all(X,Fml)],UnExpl),</pre>
<pre>prove(Fml1,UnExp1,Lits,[X1 FreeV],VarLim).</pre>
prove(Lit,_,[L Lits],_,_) :- literals; negation
(Lit = -Neg; -Lit = Neg) ->
<pre>(unify(Neg,L); prove(Lit,[],Lits,_,_)).</pre>
prove(Lit,[Next UnExp],Lits,FreeV,VarLim) :- nextformula
prove(Next, UnExp,[Lit Lits], FreeV, VarLim).

XII