Logic and Proof

Computer Science Tripos Part IB Michaelmas Term

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Introduction to Logic

Logic concerns statements in some language.

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).

Statements

Statements are declarative assertions:

Black is the colour of my true love's hair.

They are not greetings, questions or commands:

What is the colour of my true love's hair?

I wish my true love had hair.

Get a haircut!

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Schematic Statements

The *meta-variables* X, Y, Z, . . . 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?

Interpretations and Validity

An interpretation maps meta-variables to real objects:

The interpretation $Y \mapsto coal$ 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.

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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*.

Examples of inconsistent sets: Slide 105

 $\{X \text{ part of } Y, Y \text{ part of } Z, X \text{ NOT part of } Z\}$

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

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.

Inference

We want to check A is valid.

Checking all interpretations can be effective — but what if there are infinitely many?

Let $\{A_1,\ldots,A_n\}\models B.$ If A_1,\ldots,A_n are true then B must be true. Write this as the *inference rule*

$$\frac{A_1 \quad \dots \quad A_n}{B}$$

We can use inference rules to construct finite proofs!

Schematic Inference Rules

$$\frac{X \text{ part of } Y \qquad Y \text{ part of } Z}{X \text{ part of } Z}$$

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A valid inference:

spoke part of wheel wheel part of bike spoke part of bike

An inference may be valid even if the premises are false!

cow part of chair chair part of ant cow part of ant

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':

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.

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Syntax of Propositional Logic

P, Q, R, ... propositional letter

 \mathbf{t} true

f false

 $\neg A$ not A

 $A \wedge B$ A and B

 $A \vee B$ A or B

 $A \to B \quad \text{ if } A \text{ then } B$

 $A \leftrightarrow B \hspace{0.5cm} A \text{ if and only if } B$

Semantics of Propositional Logic

 \neg , \wedge , \vee , \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow are *truth-functional*: functions of their operands.

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Interpretations of Propositional Logic

An *interpretation* is a function from the propositional letters to $\{t, f\}$.

Interpretation I satisfies a formula A if the formula evaluates to t.

Write $\models_{\mathrm{I}} A$

A is *valid* (a *tautology*) if every interpretation satisfies A.

Write $\models A$

S is satisfiable if some interpretation satisfies every formula in S.

Implication, Entailment, Equivalence

 $A \rightarrow B$ means simply $\neg A \lor B$.

 $A \models B$ means if $\models_I A$ then $\models_I B$ for every interpretation I.

 $A \models B$ if and only if $\models A \rightarrow B$.

Equivalence

 $A \simeq B$ means $A \models B$ and $B \models A$.

 $A \simeq B$ if and only if $\models A \leftrightarrow B$.

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Equivalences

 $A \wedge B \simeq B \wedge A$

 $A \wedge A \simeq A$

 $(A \wedge B) \wedge C \simeq A \wedge (B \wedge C)$

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

 $A \wedge f \simeq f$

 $A \wedge \mathbf{t} \simeq A$

 $A \wedge \neg A \simeq \mathbf{f}$

Dual versions: exchange \wedge with \vee and $\mathbf t$ with $\mathbf f$ in any equivalence

Negation Normal Form

1. Get rid of \leftrightarrow and \rightarrow , leaving just $\land, \, \lor, \, \lnot$:

 $A \leftrightarrow B \simeq (A \to B) \land (B \to A)$

 $A \to B \simeq \neg A \vee B$

2. Push negations in, using de Morgan's laws:

$$\neg \neg A \simeq A$$

 $\neg(A \land B) \simeq \neg A \lor \neg B$

 $\neg(A \lor B) \simeq \neg A \land \neg B$

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4. Simplify:

From NNF to Conjunctive Normal Form

3. Push disjunctions in, using distributive laws:

$$A \lor (B \land C) \simeq (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$$
$$(B \land C) \lor A \simeq (B \lor A) \land (C \lor A)$$

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- Delete any disjunction containing P and ¬P
 - Delete any disjunction that includes another: for example, in $(P \lor Q) \land P$, delete $P \lor Q$.
- Replace $(P \lor A) \land (\neg P \lor A)$ by A

Converting a Non-Tautology to CNF

$$P \vee Q \to Q \vee R$$

1. Elim \rightarrow : $\neg(P \lor Q) \lor (Q \lor R)$

2. Push \neg in: $(\neg P \land \neg Q) \lor (Q \lor R)$

3. Push \vee in: $(\neg P \vee Q \vee R) \wedge (\neg Q \vee Q \vee R)$

4. Simplify: $\neg P \lor Q \lor R$

Not a tautology: try P \mapsto $\mathbf{t},\ Q \mapsto \mathbf{f},\ R \mapsto \mathbf{f}$

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Tautology checking using CNF

$$((P \to Q) \to P) \to P$$

1. Elim \rightarrow : $\neg [\neg (\neg P \lor Q) \lor P] \lor P$

2. Push \neg in: $[\neg \neg (\neg P \lor Q) \land \neg P] \lor P$

 $[(\neg P \lor Q) \land \neg P] \lor P$

3. Push \vee in: $(\neg P \vee Q \vee P) \wedge (\neg P \vee P)$

4. Simplify: $\mathbf{t} \wedge \mathbf{t}$

t It's a tautology!

A Simple Proof System

Axiom Schemes

$$K A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$$

$$(A \to (B \to C)) \to ((A \to B) \to (A \to C))$$

$$\mathsf{DN} \quad \neg \neg A \to A$$

Inference Rule: Modus Ponens

$$\frac{A \to B \qquad A}{B}$$

A Simple (?) Proof of $A \rightarrow A$

$$(\mathsf{A} \to ((\mathsf{D} \to \mathsf{A}) \to \mathsf{A})) \to \tag{1}$$

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

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

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

$$A \to (D \to A)$$
 by K (4)

$$A \rightarrow A$$
 by MP, (3), (4) (5)

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Some Facts about Deducibility

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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 $S \vdash A \rightarrow B$.

Gentzen's Natural Deduction Systems

The context of assumptions may vary.

Each logical connective is defined independently.

The *introduction* rule for \land shows how to deduce $A \land B$:

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

The *elimination* rules for \land shows what to deduce *from* $A \land B$:

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

The Sequent Calculus

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Sequent $A_1,\dots,A_m \mathop{\Rightarrow} B_1,\dots,B_n$ means,

if
$$A_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge A_m$$
 then $B_1 \vee \ldots \vee B_n$

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

 Γ and Δ are $\mathit{set} \mathit{s}$ in $\Gamma \mathop{\Rightarrow} \Delta$

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

Sequent Calculus Rules

$$\frac{\Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta, A \quad A, \Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta}{\Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta} \ (cut)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta, A}{\neg A, \Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta} \,\, {}_{(\neg \iota)} \qquad \frac{A, \Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta}{\Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta, \neg A} \,\, {}_{(\neg r)}$$

$$\frac{A,B,\Gamma\!\Rightarrow\!\Delta}{A\wedge B,\Gamma\!\Rightarrow\!\Delta}_{}^{}(\wedge l)\qquad \frac{\Gamma\!\Rightarrow\!\Delta,A}{\Gamma\!\Rightarrow\!\Delta,A\wedge B}_{}^{}(\wedge r)$$

More Sequent Calculus Rules

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$$\frac{A,\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta \qquad B,\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{A \vee B,\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} \ (\vee l) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta,A,B}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta,A \vee B} \ (\vee r)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta, A \quad B, \Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta}{A \to B, \Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta} \stackrel{(\to 1)}{\longrightarrow} \frac{A, \Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta, B}{\Gamma \!\Rightarrow\! \Delta, A \to B} \stackrel{(\to r)}{\longrightarrow}$$

Easy Sequent Calculus Proofs

$$\frac{\overline{A,B \Rightarrow A}}{A \land B \Rightarrow A} \xrightarrow{(\land l)}$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \land B) \rightarrow A \xrightarrow{(\rightarrow r)}$$

$$\frac{\overline{A, B \Rightarrow B, A}}{A \Rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} \xrightarrow{(\rightarrow r)}$$

$$\Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \lor (B \rightarrow A)$$

$$(\lor r)$$

Part of a Distributive Law

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$$\frac{\overline{B,C \Rightarrow A,B}}{\overline{A \Rightarrow A,B}} \frac{\overline{B,C \Rightarrow A,B}}{\overline{B \land C \Rightarrow A,B}} \stackrel{(\land l)}{}_{(\lor l)}$$

$$\frac{\overline{A \lor (B \land C) \Rightarrow A,B}}{\overline{A \lor (B \land C) \Rightarrow A \lor B}} \stackrel{(\lor r)}{}_{(\lor r)}$$

$$\frac{\overline{A \lor (B \land C) \Rightarrow A \lor B}}{\overline{A \lor (B \land C) \Rightarrow (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)}} \stackrel{(\land r)}{}_{(\land r)}$$

Second subtree proves $A \lor (B \land C) \Rightarrow A \lor C$ similarly

A Failed Proof

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$$\frac{A \Rightarrow B, C \qquad \overline{B \Rightarrow B, C}}{A \lor B \Rightarrow B, C} \qquad (\lor \iota)$$

$$A \lor B \Rightarrow B, C \qquad (\lor r)$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \lor B) \rightarrow (B \lor C) \qquad (\to r)$$

 $A \mapsto \mathbf{t}, \ B \mapsto \mathbf{f}, \ C \mapsto \mathbf{f}$ falsifies unproved sequent!

Outline of First-Order Logic

Reasons about functions and relations over a set of individuals:

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

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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; Terms

Each *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.

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Equality is the 2-place relation symbol =

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 , \land , \lor , 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:

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$$p(z,0) = 1$$

$$p(z,n+1) = p(z,n) \times z$$

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

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

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 $\forall x \forall y \forall z A$

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

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

The Expressiveness of Quantifiers

All men are mortal:

 $\forall x \, (\mathsf{man}(x) \to \mathsf{mortal}(x))$

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All mothers are female:

 $\forall x \text{ female}(\text{mother}(x))$

There exists a unique x such that A, sometimes written $\exists ! x A$

 $\exists x \left[A(x) \land \forall y \left(A(y) \rightarrow y = x \right) \right]$

The Point of Semantics

We have to attach meanings to symbols like 1, +, <, etc.

Why is this necessary? Why can't 1 just mean 1??

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The point is that mathematics derives its flexibility from allowing different interpretations of symbols.

- A *group* has a unit 1, a product $x \cdot y$ and inverse x^{-1} .
- In the most important uses of groups, 1 isn't a number but a 'unit permutation', 'unit rotation', etc.

Constants: Interpreting mortal(Socrates)

An interpretation $\mathcal{I} = (D,I)$ defines the semantics of a first-order language.

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D is a non-empty set, called the *domain* or *universe*.

I maps symbols to 'real' elements, functions and relations:

c a constant symbol $I[c] \in D$

 $f \text{ an } n\text{-place } \textit{function} \text{ symbol } \quad I[f] \in D^n \to D$

P an n-place *relation* symbol $I[P] \in D^n \rightarrow \{t, f\}$

Variables: Interpreting cousin(Charles, y)

A valuation $V : variables \rightarrow D$ supplies the values of free variables.

An interpretation ${\mathcal I}$ and valuation function V jointly specify the value of any term t by the obvious recursion.

This value is written $\mathcal{I}_V[t]$, and here are the recursion rules:

$$\mathcal{I}_V[x] \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} V(x)$$
 if x is a variable

$$\mathcal{I}_V[c] \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} I[c]$$

$$\mathcal{I}_V[f(t_1,\ldots,t_n)] \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} I[f](\mathcal{I}_V[t_1],\ldots,\mathcal{I}_V[t_n])$$

Tarski's Truth-Definition

An interpretation $\mathcal I$ and valuation function V similarly specify the truth value $(\mathbf t \text{ or } \mathbf f)$ of any formula A.

Quantifiers are the only problem, as they bind variables.

 $V\{\alpha/x\}$ is the valuation that maps x to α and is otherwise like V.

With the help of $V\{\alpha/x\}$, we now formally define $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A$, the truth value of A.

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The Meaning of Truth—In FOL!

For interpretation ${\mathcal I}$ and valuation V , define $\models_{{\mathcal I},V}$ by recursion.

$$\models_{\mathcal{I},V} P(t) \qquad \quad \text{if } \mathcal{I}_V[t] \in I[P] \text{ holds}$$

$$\models_{\mathcal{I},V} t = \mathfrak{u} \qquad \text{ if } \mathcal{I}_V[t] \text{ equals } \mathcal{I}_V[\mathfrak{u}]$$

$$\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A \wedge B$$
 if $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A$ and $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} B$

$$\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A \wedge B \qquad \text{if } \models_{\mathcal{I},V} A \text{ and } \models_{\mathcal{I},V} B \\ \models_{\mathcal{I},V} \exists x \, A \qquad \text{if } \models_{\mathcal{I},V\{m/x\}} A \text{ holds for some } m \in D$$

Finally, we define

$$\models_{\mathcal{I}} A$$
 if $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A$ holds for all V .

A *closed* formula A is *satisfiable* if $\models_{\mathcal{I}} A$ for some \mathcal{I} .

Free vs Bound Variables

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:

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

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

May rename bound variables:

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

Substitution for Free Variables

A[t/x] means substitute t for x in A:

$$(B \wedge C)[t/x]$$
 is $B[t/x] \wedge C[t/x]$

$$(\forall x B)[t/x]$$
 is $\forall x B$

$$(\forall y B)[t/x]$$
 is $\forall y B[t/x]$ $(x \neq y)$

$$(P(u))[t/x]$$
 is $P(u[t/x])$

With A[t/x], no variable of t may be bound in A!

$$(\forall y\ (x=y))\,[y/x]$$
 is not equivalent to $\,\forall y\ (y=y)\,$

Some Equivalences for Quantifiers

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$$\neg(\forall x A) \simeq \exists x \neg A$$

$$\forall x A \simeq \forall x A \land A[t/x]$$

$$(\forall x A) \land (\forall x B) \simeq \forall x (A \land B)$$

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

Further Quantifier Equivalences

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$$(\forall x A) \land B \simeq \forall x (A \land B)$$

$$(\forall x A) \lor B \simeq \forall x (A \lor B)$$

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

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

These hold only if x is not free in B.

Reasoning by Equivalences

$$\exists x (x = a \land P(x)) \simeq \exists x (x = a \land P(a))$$
$$\simeq \exists x (x = a) \land P(a)$$
$$\simeq P(a)$$

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$$\exists z (P(z) \to P(a) \land P(b))$$

$$\simeq \forall z P(z) \to P(a) \land P(b)$$

$$\simeq \forall z P(z) \land P(a) \land P(b) \to P(a) \land P(b)$$

$$\simeq \mathbf{t}$$

Sequent Calculus Rules for \forall

$$\frac{A[t/x], \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{\forall x \, A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} \, \, (\forall \iota) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, \forall x \, A} \, \, (\forall r)$$

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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

$$\frac{\overline{P(y) \Rightarrow P(y)}}{P(y) \Rightarrow \forall y \; P(y)} \; \;^{(\forall r)} \qquad \text{This is nonsense!}$$

A Simple Example of the \forall Rules

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$$\frac{ \frac{\overline{P(f(y))} \Rightarrow P(f(y))}{\forall x \, P(x) \Rightarrow P(f(y))}}{\forall x \, P(x) \Rightarrow \forall y \, P(f(y))} \stackrel{(\forall 1)}{\forall r}$$

A Not-So-Simple Example of the \forall Rules

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$$\begin{array}{c|c} \overline{P \Rightarrow Q(y), P} & \overline{P, Q(y) \Rightarrow Q(y)} \\ \hline P, P \rightarrow Q(y) \Rightarrow Q(y) \\ \hline P, \forall x (P \rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow Q(y) \\ \hline P, \forall x (P \rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow \forall y Q(y) \\ \hline \forall x (P \rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow P \rightarrow \forall y Q(y) \\ \hline \end{array} ((\forall r) \\ (\rightarrow r) \end{array}$$

In $(\forall \iota)$, we must replace x by y.

Sequent Calculus Rules for ∃

$$\frac{A,\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{\exists x\,A,\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} \; (\exists \iota) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A[t/x]}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, \exists x\,A} \; (\exists r)$$

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Rule $(\exists 1)$ 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:

$$\exists z (P(z) \rightarrow P(a) \land P(b))$$

Part of the \exists Distributive Law

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$$\begin{array}{c} \overline{\frac{P(x) \Rightarrow P(x), Q(x)}{P(x) \Rightarrow P(x) \vee Q(x)}} \\ \overline{\frac{P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ (P(y) \vee Q(y))}{P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ (P(y) \vee Q(y))}} \xrightarrow{(\exists r)} \\ \overline{\frac{\exists x \ P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ (P(y) \vee Q(y))}{\exists x \ Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ \dots}} \xrightarrow{(\exists l)} \\ \overline{\frac{\exists x \ P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ (P(y) \vee Q(y))}{\exists x \ Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ (P(y) \vee Q(y))}} \end{array}$$

Second subtree proves $\exists x\ Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists y\ (P(y) \lor Q(y))$ similarly In $(\exists r)$, we must replace y by x.

A Failed Proof

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$$\frac{P(x), Q(y) \Rightarrow P(x) \land Q(x)}{P(x), Q(y) \Rightarrow \exists z (P(z) \land Q(z))} \xrightarrow{(\exists r)} \frac{P(x), \exists x Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists z (P(z) \land Q(z))}{\exists x P(x), \exists x Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists z (P(z) \land Q(z))} \xrightarrow{(\exists t) \exists x P(x) \land \exists x Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists z (P(z) \land Q(z))} \xrightarrow{(\land t) \exists x P(x) \land \exists x Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists z (P(z) \land Q(z))}$$

We cannot use $(\exists \iota)$ twice with the same variable

This attempt renames the x in $\exists x\ Q(x),$ to get $\exists y\ Q(y)$

Clause Form

Clause: a disjunction of literals

$$\neg K_1 \lor \dots \lor \neg K_m \lor L_1 \lor \dots \lor L_n$$

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Set notation: $\{\neg K_1, \dots, \neg K_m, L_1, \dots, L_n\}$

Kowalski notation: $K_1, \cdots, K_m \rightarrow L_1, \cdots, L_n$

 $L_1, \cdots, L_n \leftarrow K_1, \cdots, K_m$

Empty clause:

Empty clause is equivalent to f, meaning CONTRADICTION!

Outline of Clause Form Methods

To prove A, obtain a contradiction from $\neg A$:

- 1. Translate $\neg A$ into CNF as $A_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge A_m$
- 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 $\it clause set$ (all clauses deleted) means $\neg A$ is satisfiable.

The basis for SAT SOLVERS and RESOLUTION PROVERS.

The Davis-Putnam-Logeman-Loveland Method

- 1. Delete tautological clauses: $\{P, \neg P, \ldots\}$
- 2. For each unit clause $\{L\}$,
 - delete all clauses containing L
 - delete ¬L from all clauses
- 3. Delete all clauses containing pure literals
- 4. Perform a case split on some literal

DPLL is a **decision procedure**: it finds a contradiction or a model.

Davis-Putnam on a Non-Tautology

Consider $P \vee Q \to Q \vee R$

Clauses are $\{P,Q\}$ $\{\neg Q\}$ $\{\neg R\}$

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$$\{P,Q\} \quad \{\neg Q\} \quad \{\neg R\} \quad \text{initial clauses}$$

$$\{P\} \qquad \qquad \{\neg R\} \quad \text{unit } \neg Q$$

$$\{\neg R\} \quad \text{unit } P \quad \text{(also pure)}$$

$$\text{unit } \neg R \text{ (also pure)}$$

Clauses satisfiable by $P\mapsto \mathbf{t},\ Q\mapsto \mathbf{f},\ R\mapsto \mathbf{f}$

Example of a Case Split on P

$$\{\neg Q, R\}$$
 $\{\neg R, P\}$ $\{\neg R, Q\}$ $\{\neg P, Q, R\}$ $\{P, Q\}$ $\{\neg P, \neg Q\}$

 $\{\neg Q,R\}$ $\{\neg R,Q\}$ $\{Q,R\}$ $\{\neg Q\}$ if P is true $\{\neg R\}$ $\{R\}$ unit $\neg Q$

unit R

 $\{\neg Q,R\} \qquad \{\neg R\} \qquad \{\neg R,Q\} \qquad \{Q\} \qquad \text{if P is false}$ $\{\neg Q\}$ $\{Q\}$ unit $\neg R$ unit $\neg Q$

SAT solvers in the Real World

- Progressed from joke to killer technology in 10 years.
- Princeton's zChaff has solved problems with more than one million variables and 10 million clauses.
- Applications include finding bugs in device drivers (Microsoft's SLAM project).
- Typical approach: approximate the problem with a finite model; encode it using Boolean logic; supply to a SAT solver.

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The Resolution Rule

From $B \vee A$ and $\neg B \vee C$ infer $A \vee C$

In set notation,

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$$\frac{\{B, A_1, \dots, A_m\} \quad \{\neg B, C_1, \dots, C_n\}}{\{A_1, \dots, A_m, C_1, \dots, C_n\}}$$

Some special cases:

$$\frac{\{B\} \quad \{\neg B, C_1, \dots, C_n\}}{\{C_1, \dots, C_n\}} \qquad \frac{\{B\} \quad \{\neg B\}}{\Box}$$

Simple Example: Proving $P \wedge Q o Q \wedge P$

 $\textit{Hint} \colon \mathsf{use} \, \neg (A \to B) \simeq A \wedge \neg B$

1. Negate! $\neg [P \land Q \rightarrow Q \land P]$

2. Push \neg in: $(P \land Q) \land \neg (Q \land P)$ $(P \land Q) \land (\neg Q \lor \neg P)$

Clauses: $\{P\}$ $\{Q\}$ $\{\neg Q, \neg P\}$

Resolve $\{P\}$ and $\{\neg Q, \neg P\}$ getting $\{\neg Q\}.$

Resolve $\{Q\}$ and $\{\neg Q\}$ getting $\square :$ we have refuted the negation.

Another Example

Refute $\neg[(P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R) \rightarrow P \lor (Q \land R)]$

From $(P \lor Q) \land (P \lor R)$, get clauses $\{P, Q\}$ and $\{P, R\}$.

From $\neg [P \lor (Q \land R)]$ get clauses $\{\neg P\}$ and $\{\neg Q, \neg R\}$.

Resolve $\{\neg P\}$ and $\{P, Q\}$ getting $\{Q\}$.

Resolve $\{\neg P\}$ and $\{P, R\}$ getting $\{R\}$.

Resolve $\{Q\}$ and $\{\neg Q, \neg R\}$ getting $\{\neg R\}$.

Resolve $\{R\}$ and $\{\neg R\}$ getting \square , contradiction.

The Saturation Algorithm

At start, all clauses are passive. None are active.

- 1. Transfer a clause (current) from passive to active.
- 2. Form all resolvents between *current* and an *active* clause.
- 3. Use new clauses to simplify both passive and active.
- 4. Put the new clauses into passive.

Repeat until CONTRADICTION found or passive becomes empty.

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Heuristics and Hacks for Resolution

Slide 611

Orderings to focus the search on specific literals

Subsumption, or deleting redundant clauses

Indexing: elaborate data structures for speed

Preprocessing: removing tautologies, symmetries . . .

Weighting: giving priority to "good" clauses over those containing

unwanted constants

Reducing FOL to Propositional Logic

Prenex: Move quantifiers to the front

Skolemize: Remove quantifiers, preserving consistency

Herbrand models: Reduce the class of interpretations

Herbrand's Thm: Contradictions have finite, ground proofs

Unification: Automatically find the right instantiations

Finally, combine unification with resolution

Prenex Normal Form

Convert to Negation Normal Form using additionally

$$\neg(\forall x\,A)\simeq\exists x\,\neg A$$

$$\neg(\exists x A) \simeq \forall x \neg A$$

Move quantifiers to the front using (provided x is not free in B)

$$(\forall x A) \land B \simeq \forall x (A \land B)$$

$$(\forall x \, A) \vee B \simeq \forall x \, (A \vee B)$$

and the similar rules for \exists

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Skolemization, or Getting Rid of \exists

Start with a formula of the form

(Can have k = 0).

$$\forall x_1 \, \forall x_2 \, \cdots \, \forall x_k \, \exists y \, A$$

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Choose a fresh k-place function symbol, say f

Delete $\exists y$ and replace y by $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$. We get

$$\forall x_1 \forall x_2 \cdots \forall x_k A[f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)/y]$$

Repeat until no ∃ quantifiers remain

Example of Conversion to Clauses

For proving $\exists x [P(x) \rightarrow \forall y P(y)]$

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 $\neg \left[\exists x \left[P(x) \to \forall y \ P(y) \right] \right] \quad \text{negated goal}$

 $\forall x [P(x) \land \exists y \neg P(y)]$ conversion to NNF

 $\forall x \exists y [P(x) \land \neg P(y)]$ pulling \exists out

 $\forall x \left[P(x) \land \neg P(f(x)) \right] \qquad \text{Skolem term } f(x)$

 $\{P(x)\}$ $\{\neg P(f(x))\}$ Final clauses

Correctness of Skolemization

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

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

 \iff for all $x \in D$ there is some $y \in D$ such that A holds

 \iff some function \hat{f} in $D\to D$ yields suitable values of y

 \iff A[f(x)/y] holds in some \mathcal{I}' extending \mathcal{I} so that f denotes \hat{f}

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

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

Simplifying the Search for Models

S is satisfiable if even *one* model makes all of its clauses true.

There are *infinitely many* models to consider!

Also many *duplicates*: "states of the USA" and "the integers 1 to 50"

Fortunately, nice models exist.

- They have a *uniform structure* based on the language's *syntax*.
- They satisfy the clauses if any model does.

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The Herbrand Universe for a Set of Clauses S

 $H_0 \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=}$ the set of constants in S (must be non-empty)

$$H_{i+1} \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} H_i \cup \{f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \mid t_1, \ldots, t_n \in H_i$$

and f is an n-place function symbol in S}

$$H \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \bigcup_{i>0} H_i$$
 Herbrand Universe

 $H_{\mbox{\scriptsize i}}$ contains just the terms with at most $\mbox{\scriptsize i}$ nested function applications.

H consists of the terms in S that contain no variables (*ground* terms).

The Herbrand Semantics of Terms

In a Herbrand model, every constant stands for itself.

Every function symbol stands for a term-forming operation:

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

In a Herbrand model, X + 0 can never equal X.

Every ground term denotes itself.

This is the promised uniform structure!

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The Herbrand Semantics of Predicates

$$\mathsf{HB} \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \{ P(t_1, \dots, t_n) \mid t_1, \dots, t_n \in \mathsf{H}$$

and P is an n-place predicate symbol in S

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HB contains all *ground atoms*: predicates applied to ground terms.

We view a ground atom as stating that the formula is true.

In a Herbrand model, each predicate P stands for

the set of ground atoms P(x) that we want to be true.

We can make whatever we want true!

Example of an Herbrand Model

$$\neg even(1)$$

$$even(2)$$

$$even(X \cdot Y) \leftarrow even(X), even(Y)$$

$$clauses$$

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$$H = \{1, 2, 1 \cdot 1, 1 \cdot 2, 2 \cdot 1, 2 \cdot 2, 1 \cdot (1 \cdot 1), \ldots\}$$

$$HB = \{even(1), even(2), even(1 \cdot 1), even(1 \cdot 2), \ldots\}$$

$$I[even] = \{even(2), even(1 \cdot 2), even(2 \cdot 1), even(2 \cdot 2), \ldots\}$$

(for model where · means product; could instead use sum!)

A Key Fact about Herbrand Interpretations

Let S be a set of clauses.

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S is unsatisfiable \iff no Herbrand interpretation satisfies S

- Holds because some Herbrand model mimicks every 'real' model
- We must consider only a small class of models
- Herbrand models are syntactic, easily processed by computer

Herbrand's Theorem

Let S be a set of clauses.

S is unsatisfiable \iff there is a finite unsatisfiable set S' of ground instances of clauses of S.

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- Finite: we can compute it
- Instance: result of substituting for variables
- **Ground**: no variables remain—it's propositional!

Example: S could be $\{P(x)\}$ $\{\neg P(f(y))\}$, and S' could be $\{P(f(\alpha))\}$ $\{\neg P(f(\alpha))\}$.

Unification

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

- Prolog and other logic programming languages
- 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.

Substitutions: A Mathematical Treatment

A substitution is a finite set of replacements

$$\theta = [t_1/x_1, \dots, t_k/x_k]$$

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where $x_1, ..., x_k$ are distinct variables and $t_i \neq x_i$.

$$f(t,u)\theta = f(t\theta,u\theta)$$
 (substitution in *terms*)

$$P(t,u)\theta = P(t\theta,u\theta) \qquad \qquad \text{(in \textit{literals})}$$

$$\{L_1,\dots,L_m\}\theta=\{L_1\theta,\dots,L_m\theta\} \qquad \text{(in \it clauses)}$$

Composing Substitutions

Composition of ϕ and θ , written $\phi \circ \theta$, satisfies for all terms t

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

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Slide 804

It is defined by (for all relevant x)

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

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

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

Most General Unifiers

 θ is a *unifier* of terms t and u if $t\theta = u\theta$.

 θ is *more general* than ϕ if $\phi = \theta \circ \sigma$ for some substitution σ .

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ is most general if it is more general than every other unifier.

If θ unifies t and u then so does $\theta \circ \sigma$:

$$t(\theta\circ\sigma)=t\theta\sigma=u\theta\sigma=u(\theta\circ\sigma)$$

A most general unifier of f(a, x) and f(y, g(z)) is [a/y, g(z)/x].

The common instance is f(a, g(z)).

The Unification Algorithm

Represent terms by binary trees.

Each term is a *Variable* $x, y \dots$, *Constant* $a, b \dots$, or *Pair* (t, t')

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SKETCH OF THE ALGORITHM.

Constants do not unify with different Constants.

Constants do not unify with Pairs.

Variable x and term t: unifier is [t/x], unless x occurs in t

Cannot unify f(x) with x!

The Unification Algorithm: The Case of Two Pairs

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

if θ unifies t with u and θ' 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'):

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$$\begin{split} (t,t')(\theta \circ \theta') &= (t,t')\theta \theta' \\ &= (t\theta \theta',t'\theta \theta') \\ &= (u\theta \theta',u'\theta \theta') \\ &= (u,u')\theta \theta' \\ &= (u,u')(\theta \circ \theta') \end{split}$$

 $\theta \circ \theta'$ is even a most general unifier, if θ and θ' are!

Four Unification Examples

f(x, x)f(x, b)f(x, x)j(x, x, z) $f(\alpha,y)$ f(y, g(y))f(a, b)j(w, a, h(w))f(a, b)j(a, a, h(a))None None [a/x, b/y][a/w, a/x, h(a)/z]Fail **Fail**

Remember, the output is a *substitution*.

The algorithm yields a most general unifier.

Theorem-Proving Example 1

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$$(\exists y \, \forall x \, R(x,y)) \to (\forall x \, \exists y \, R(x,y))$$

After negation, the clauses are $\{R(x, a)\}$ and $\{\neg R(b, y)\}$.

The literals R(x, a) and R(b, y) have unifier [b/x, a/y].

We have the contradiction R(b, a) and $\neg R(b, a)$.

THE THEOREM IS PROVED BY CONTRADICTION!

Theorem-Proving Example 2

 $(\forall x\,\exists y\,R(x,y))\to (\exists y\,\forall x\,R(x,y))$

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!

Variations on Unification

Efficient unification algorithms: near-linear time

Indexing & Discrimination networks: fast retrieval of a unifiable term

Slide 811 Associative/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 exponential

Unification in many other theories (often undecidable!)

The Binary Resolution Rule

$$\frac{\{B,A_1,\ldots,A_m\} \quad \{\neg D,C_1,\ldots,C_n\}}{\{A_1,\ldots,A_m,C_1,\ldots,C_n\}\sigma} \quad \textit{provided } B\sigma = D\sigma$$

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First, rename variables apart in the clauses! For example, given

$$\{P(x)\}\$$
and $\{\neg P(g(x))\}\$

rename x in one of the clauses before attempting unification.

Always use a most general unifier (MGU).

The Factoring Rule

This inference collapses unifiable literals in one clause:

$$\frac{\{B_1,\ldots,B_k,A_1,\ldots,A_m\}}{\{B_1,A_1,\ldots,A_m\}\sigma} \quad \text{ provided } B_1\sigma=\cdots=B_k\sigma$$

Slide 902

 $\textit{Example} : \mathsf{Prove} \ \forall x \ \exists y \ \neg (P(y,x) \leftrightarrow \neg P(y,y))$

The clauses are $\{\neg P(y,\alpha), \neg P(y,y)\}$ $\{P(y,y), P(y,\alpha)\}$

Factoring yields $\{\neg P(\alpha, \alpha)\}\$ $\{P(\alpha, \alpha)\}$

Resolution yields the empty clause!

A Non-Trivial Proof

$$\exists x [P \to Q(x)] \land \exists x [Q(x) \to P] \to \exists x [P \leftrightarrow Q(x)]$$

Clauses are $\{P, \neg Q(b)\} \quad \{P, Q(x)\} \quad \{\neg P, \neg Q(x)\} \quad \{\neg P, Q(\alpha)\}$

Resolve $\{P, \underline{\neg Q(b)}\}$ with $\{P, \underline{Q(x)}\}$ getting $\{P, P\}$

Factor $\{P,P\}$ getting $\{P\}$

Resolve $\{\neg P, \underline{\neg Q(x)}\}$ with $\{\neg P, \underline{Q(\alpha)}\}$ getting $\{\neg P, \neg P\}$

Factor $\{\neg P, \neg P\}$ getting $\{\neg P\}$

Resolve $\{P\}$ with $\{\neg P\}$ getting \square

What About Equality?

In theory, it's enough to add the equality axioms:

- The reflexive, symmetric and transitive laws.
- Substitution laws like $\{x \neq y, f(x) = f(y)\}$ for each f.
- Substitution laws like $\{x \neq y, \neg P(x), P(y)\}$ for each P.

In practice, we need something special: the paramodulation rule

$$\frac{\{B[t'],A_1,\ldots,A_m\}\quad \{t=u,C_1,\ldots,C_n\}}{\{B[u],A_1,\ldots,A_m,C_1,\ldots,C_n\}\sigma} \qquad \textit{(if } t\sigma=t'\sigma\textit{)}$$

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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

$$B \leftarrow A_1, \dots, A_m$$

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

$$\leftarrow A_1, \dots, A_m$$

Prolog Execution

Linear resolution:

- Always resolve some program clause with the goal clause.
- The result becomes the new goal clause.

Try the program clauses in *left-to-right* order.

Solve the goal clause's literals in *left-to-right* order.

Use depth-first search. (Performs backtracking, using little space.)

Do unification without *occurs check*. (UNSOUND, but needed for speed)

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A (Pure) Prolog Program

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

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

parent(andrew,beatrice).
parent(andrew,eugenia).

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

Prolog Execution

```
:- cousin(X,Y).
:- grand(Z1,X), grand(Z1,Y).
:- parent(Z1,Y2), parent(Y2,X), grand(Z1,Y).

* :- parent(charles,X), grand(elizabeth,Y).

X=william :- grand(elizabeth,Y).

:- parent(elizabeth,Y5), parent(Y5,Y).

* :- parent(andrew,Y).

Y=beatrice :- □.

* = backtracking choice point

16 solutions including cousin(william, william)

and cousin(william, henry)
```

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

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$$A_1 \leftarrow \neg A_2, \dots, \neg A_m$$

$$A_2 \leftarrow \neg A_3, \dots, \neg A_m, \neg A_1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$A_m \leftarrow \neg A_1, \dots, \neg A_{m-1}$$

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

A Survey of Automatic Theorem Provers

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

Higher-Order Logic: TPS, LEO

Model Elimination: Prolog Technology Theorem Prover, SETHEO

Parallel ME: PARTHENON, PARTHEO

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

BDDs: Binary Decision Diagrams

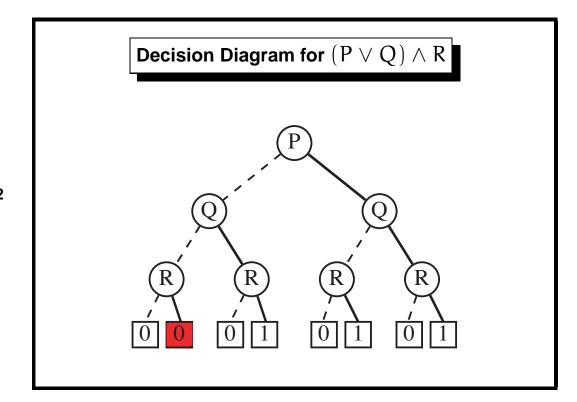
A canonical form for boolean expressions: decision trees with sharing.

- ordered propositional symbols ('variables')
- sharing of identical subtrees
- hashing and other optimisations

Detects if a formula is tautologous (t) or inconsistent (f).

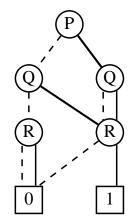
Exhibits models if the formula is satisfiable.

Excellent for verifying digital circuits, with many other applications.

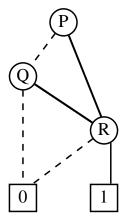


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Converting a Decision Diagram to a BDD







No redundant tests

Building BDDs Efficiently

Do not construct full tree!

Do not expand \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow , \oplus (exclusive OR) to other connectives.

Treat $\neg Z$ as $Z \to \mathbf{f}$ or $Z \oplus \mathbf{t}$.

Recursively convert operands to BDDs.

Combine operand BDDs, respecting the ordering and sharing.

Delete redundant variable tests.

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Canonical Form Algorithm

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

Trivial if either operand is ${f t}$ or ${f f}$.

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Let
$$Z = \mathbf{if}(P, X, Y)$$
 and $Z' = \mathbf{if}(P', X', Y')$

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

Canonical Forms of Other Connectives

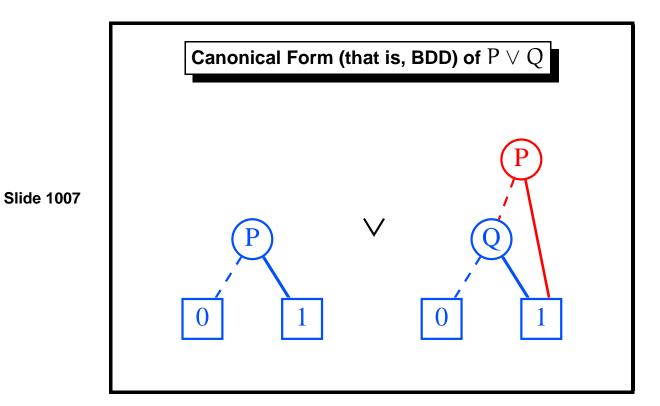
 $Z \vee Z'$, $Z \to Z'$ and $Z \leftrightarrow Z'$ are converted to BDDs similarly.

Some cases, like $Z \to t$, reduce to negation.

Here is how to convert $\neg Z$, where Z is a BDD:

- If $Z = \mathbf{if}(P, X, Y)$ then recursively convert $\mathbf{if}(P, \neg X, \neg Y)$.
- if Z = t then return f, and if Z = f then return t.

In effect we copy the BDD but swap \boldsymbol{t} and \boldsymbol{f} at the leaves.



Slide 1008 $\begin{array}{c} \textbf{Canonical Form of } P \lor Q \to Q \lor R \\ \hline P \\ \hline Q \\ \hline R \\ \hline \end{array}$

Optimisations Based On Hash Tables

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

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- $\bullet \ \ \text{If} \ X \simeq Y \text{, then the addresses of} \ X \ \text{and} \ Y \ \text{are equal}.$
- 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.

Final Observations

The variable ordering is crucial. Consider this formula:

$$(P_1 \wedge Q_1) \vee \cdots \vee (P_n \wedge Q_n)$$

Slide 1010

A good ordering is $P_1 < Q_1 < \cdots < P_n < Q_n$: the BDD is linear.

With $P_1 < \dots < P_n < Q_1 < \dots < Q_n$, the BDD is EXPONENTIAL.

Many digital circuits have small BDDs: adders, but not multipliers.

BDDs can solve problems in hundreds of variables.

The general case remains hard (it is NP-complete).

Modal Operators

W: set of possible worlds (machine states, future times, ...)

R: accessibility relation between worlds

(W, R) is called a *modal frame*

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- $\Box A$ means A is *necessarily true*)
- $\Diamond A$ means A is possibly true

— in all ${\it accessible}$ worlds

 $\neg \Diamond A \simeq \Box \neg A$

A cannot be true \iff A must be false

Semantics of Propositional Modal Logic

For a particular frame (W, R)

An interpretation I maps the propositional letters to subsets of W

 $w \Vdash A$ means A is true in world w

$$w \Vdash P \iff w \in I(P)$$

$$w \Vdash A \land B \iff w \Vdash A \text{ and } w \Vdash B$$

$$w \Vdash \Box A \iff v \Vdash A \text{ for all } v \text{ such that } R(w, v)$$

$$w \Vdash \Diamond A \iff v \Vdash A \text{ for some } v \text{ such that } R(w,v)$$

Truth and Validity in Modal Logic

For 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

 $\models A \text{ means } \models_{W,R} A \text{ for all frames; } A \text{ is } \textit{universally valid}$

... but typically we constrain R to be, say, transitive

All tautologies are universally valid

A Hilbert-Style Proof System for ${\mathsf K}$

Extend your favourite propositional proof system with

$$\mathsf{Dist} \quad \Box(A \to B) \to (\Box A \to \Box B)$$

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Slide 1103

Inference Rule: Necessitation

$$\frac{A}{\Box A}$$

Treat ♦ as a definition

$$\Diamond A \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \neg \Box \neg A$$

Variant Modal Logics

Start with pure modal logic, which is called K

Add axioms to constrain the accessibility relation:

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T
$$\Box A \rightarrow A$$
 (reflexive) logic T

4
$$\Box A \rightarrow \Box \Box A$$
 (transitive) logic S4

$$B \quad A \to \Box \diamondsuit A \qquad \textit{(symmetric)} \quad \mathsf{logic} \ S5$$

And countless others!

We shall mainly look at S4

Extra Sequent Calculus Rules for S4

$$\frac{A,\Gamma\!\Rightarrow\!\Delta}{\Box A,\Gamma\!\Rightarrow\!\Delta} \ ^{(\Box l)} \qquad \frac{\Gamma^*\!\Rightarrow\!\Delta^*,A}{\Gamma\!\Rightarrow\!\Delta,\Box A} \ ^{(\Box r)}$$

$$\frac{A, \Gamma^* \Rightarrow \Delta^*}{\Diamond A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} (\Diamond \iota) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, \Diamond A} (\Diamond r)$$

$$\Gamma^* \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \{ \Box B \mid \Box B \in \Gamma \} \qquad \text{Erase $\textit{non-}$$$\square$ assumptions}$$

$$\Delta^* \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \{ \Diamond B \mid \Diamond B \in \Delta \}$$
 Erase *non-* \Diamond goals!

A Proof of the Distribution Axiom

 $\frac{\overline{A \Rightarrow B, A}}{A \Rightarrow B, A \Rightarrow B} \xrightarrow{(\rightarrow 1)}$ $\frac{A \rightarrow B, A \Rightarrow B}{A \rightarrow B, \Box A \Rightarrow B} \xrightarrow{(\Box 1)}$ $\frac{(\Box A \rightarrow B), \Box A \Rightarrow B}{\Box (A \rightarrow B), \Box A \Rightarrow \Box B} \xrightarrow{(\Box r)}$

And thus $\Box(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (\Box A \rightarrow \Box B)$

Must apply $(\Box r)$ first!

Part of an Operator String Equivalence

In fact, $\Box\Diamond\Box\Diamond A\simeq\Box\Diamond A$ also $\Box\Box A\simeq\Box A$

The S4 operator strings are $\ \square \ \diamondsuit \ \square\diamondsuit \ \diamondsuit\square \ \square\diamondsuit\square \ \diamondsuit\square\diamondsuit$

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Two Failed Proofs

$$\frac{\Rightarrow A}{\Rightarrow \Diamond A} \stackrel{(\diamond r)}{\Rightarrow (\neg r)}$$

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$$\frac{B \Rightarrow A \wedge B}{B \Rightarrow \diamondsuit(A \wedge B)} \stackrel{(\lozenge r)}{\diamondsuit A, \diamondsuit B \Rightarrow \diamondsuit(A \wedge B)}$$

Can extract a countermodel from the proof attempt

Simplifying the Sequent Calculus

7 connectives (or 9 for modal logic):

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

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

Idea! Work in **Negation Normal Form**

Fewer connectives: $\land \lor \forall \exists (\Box \diamondsuit)$

Sequents need one side only!

Simplified Calculus: Left-Only

$$\frac{}{\neg A,A,\Gamma \Rightarrow} \text{ (basic)} \qquad \frac{\neg A,\Gamma \Rightarrow}{\Gamma \Rightarrow} \text{ (cut)}$$

Slide 1202

$$\frac{A,B,\Gamma \Rightarrow}{A \wedge B,\Gamma \Rightarrow} \text{ (Al) } \qquad \frac{A,\Gamma \Rightarrow}{A \vee B,\Gamma \Rightarrow} \text{ (Vl)}$$

$$\frac{A[t/x], \Gamma \Rightarrow}{\forall x \, A, \Gamma \Rightarrow} \, (\forall \iota) \qquad \frac{A, \Gamma \Rightarrow}{\exists x \, A, \Gamma \Rightarrow} \, (\exists \iota)$$

Rule $(\exists l)$ holds *provided* x is not free in the conclusion!

Left-Only Sequent Rules for S4

$$\frac{A,\Gamma \Rightarrow}{\Box A,\Gamma \Rightarrow} (\Box \iota) \qquad \frac{A,\Gamma^* \Rightarrow}{\Diamond A,\Gamma \Rightarrow} (\Diamond \iota)$$

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 $\Gamma^* \stackrel{\mathrm{def}}{=} \{ \Box B \mid \Box B \in \Gamma \} \qquad \text{Erase non-} \Box \text{ assumptions}$

From 14 (or 18) rules to 4 (or 6)

Left-side only system uses proof by contradiction

Right-side only system is an exact dual

Proving $\forall x (P \to Q(x)) \Rightarrow P \to \forall y Q(y)$

Move the right-side formula to the left and convert to NNF:

$$P \wedge \exists y \, \neg Q(y), \, \forall x \, (\neg P \vee Q(x)) \Rightarrow$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \hline P, \neg Q(y), \neg P \Rightarrow & \overline{P}, \neg Q(y), \ Q(y) \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline P, \neg Q(y), \neg P \lor Q(y) \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline P, \neg Q(y), \forall x \left(\neg P \lor Q(x) \right) \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline P, \exists y \neg Q(y), \forall x \left(\neg P \lor Q(x) \right) \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline P \land \exists y \neg Q(y), \forall x \left(\neg P \lor Q(x) \right) \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline (\land l) \end{array}$$

Adding Unification

Rule $(\forall l)$ now inserts a **new** free variable:

$$\frac{A[z/x], \Gamma \Rightarrow}{\forall x A, \Gamma \Rightarrow} (\forall l)$$

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Let unification instantiate any free variable

In $\neg A,B,\Gamma \! \Rightarrow \! \text{ try unifying } A \text{ with } B \text{ to make a basic sequent}$

Updating a variable affects entire proof tree

What about rule (∃1)? Skolemize!

Skolemization from NNF

Don't pull quantifiers out! Skolemize

$$[\forall y \exists z \, Q(y,z)] \land \exists x \, P(x)$$
 to $[\forall y \, Q(y,f(y))] \land P(a)$

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It'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 $\exists y: \quad \forall x \left[P(x) \land \exists y \, \neg P(y) \right]$

Push in the $\forall x : (\forall x P(x)) \land (\exists y \neg P(y))$

Skolemize: $\forall x P(x) \land \neg P(a)$

$\overline{\textbf{A Proof of }} \overline{\exists} x \, \forall y \, [P(x) \to P(y)]$

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$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} y \mapsto f(z) \\ \hline P(y), \neg P(f(y)), P(z), \neg P(f(z)) \Rightarrow \\ \hline P(y), \neg P(f(y)), P(z) \land \neg P(f(z)) \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline P(y), \neg P(f(y)), \forall x \left[P(x) \land \neg P(f(x))\right] \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline P(y), \neg P(f(y)), \forall x \left[P(x) \land \neg P(f(x))\right] \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline \hline P(y) \land \neg P(f(y)), \forall x \left[P(x) \land \neg P(f(x))\right] \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline \forall x \left[P(x) \land \neg P(f(x))\right] \Rightarrow \\ \hline \end{array} (\forall t)$$

Unification chooses the term for $(\forall 1)$

A Failed Proof

Try to prove $\forall x [P(x) \lor Q(x)] \Rightarrow \forall x P(x) \lor \forall x Q(x)$

NNF: $\exists x \neg P(x) \land \exists x \neg Q(x), \forall x [P(x) \lor Q(x)] \Rightarrow$

Skolemize: $\neg P(a) \land \neg Q(b), \forall x [P(x) \lor Q(x)] \Rightarrow$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} y \mapsto \alpha & y \mapsto b??? \\ \hline \neg P(\alpha), \neg Q(b), P(y) \Rightarrow & \neg P(\alpha), \neg Q(b), Q(y) \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline \neg P(\alpha), \neg Q(b), P(y) \lor Q(y) \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline \neg P(\alpha), \neg Q(b), \forall x \left[P(x) \lor Q(x) \right] \Rightarrow \\ \hline \neg P(\alpha) \land \neg Q(b), \forall x \left[P(x) \lor Q(x) \right] \Rightarrow \\ \hline \hline \neg P(\alpha) \land \neg Q(b), \forall x \left[P(x) \lor Q(x) \right] \Rightarrow \\ \hline \end{array}_{(\land l)}$$

The World's Smallest Theorem Prover?

```
prove((A,B),UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim) :- !,
                                                         and
        prove(A,[B|UnExp],Lits,FreeV,VarLim).
prove((A;B),UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim) :- !,
                                                          or
        prove(A,UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim),
        prove(B,UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim).
prove(all(X,Fml),UnExp,Lits,FreeV,VarLim) :- !,
                                                        forall
        \+ length(FreeV, VarLim),
        copy_term((X,Fml,FreeV),(X1,Fml1,FreeV)),
        append(UnExp,[all(X,Fml)],UnExp1),
        prove(Fml1,UnExp1,Lits,[X1|FreeV],VarLim).
prove(Lit,_,[L|Lits],_,_) :-
                                                 literals; negation
        (Lit = -Neg; -Lit = Neg) ->
        (unify(Neg,L); prove(Lit,[],Lits,_,_)).
prove(Lit,[Next|UnExp],Lits,FreeV,VarLim) :-
                                                   next formula
        prove(Next,UnExp,[Lit|Lits],FreeV,VarLim).
```