Logic and Proof

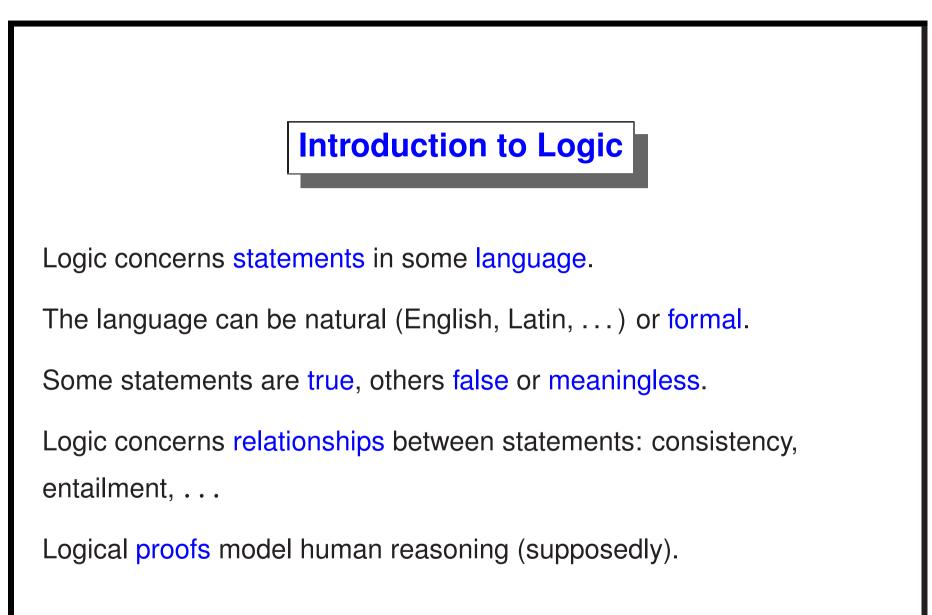
Computer Science Tripos Part IB Michaelmas Term

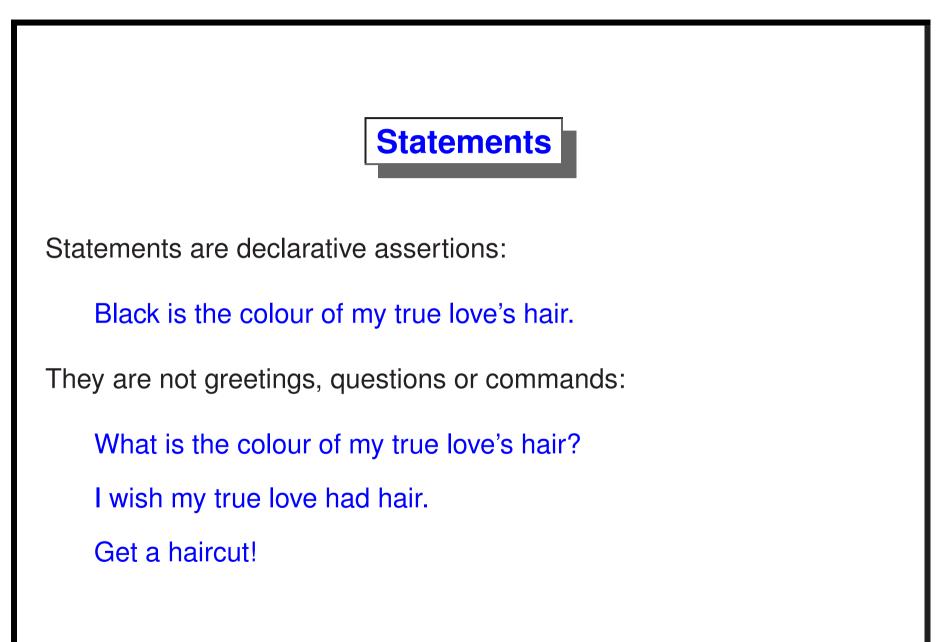
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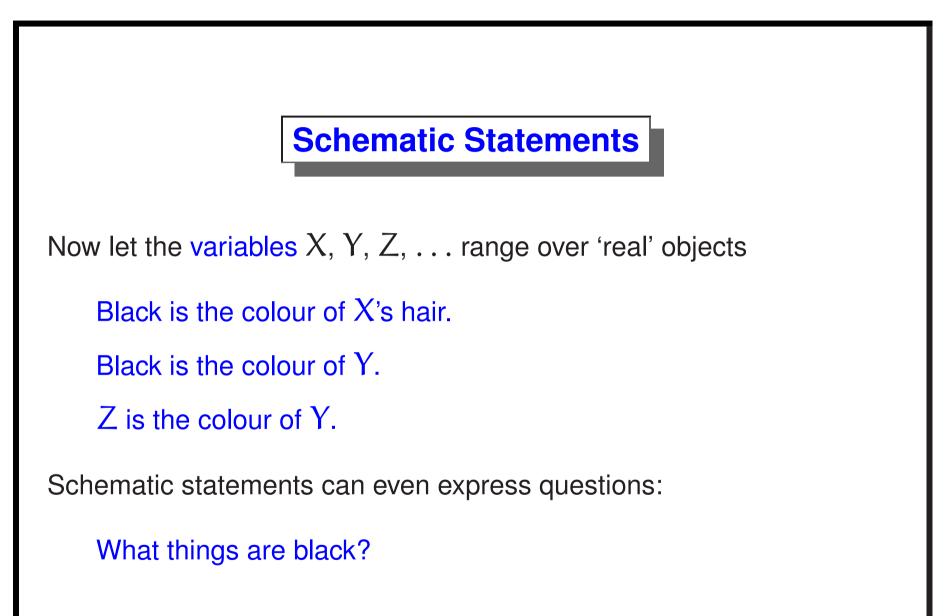
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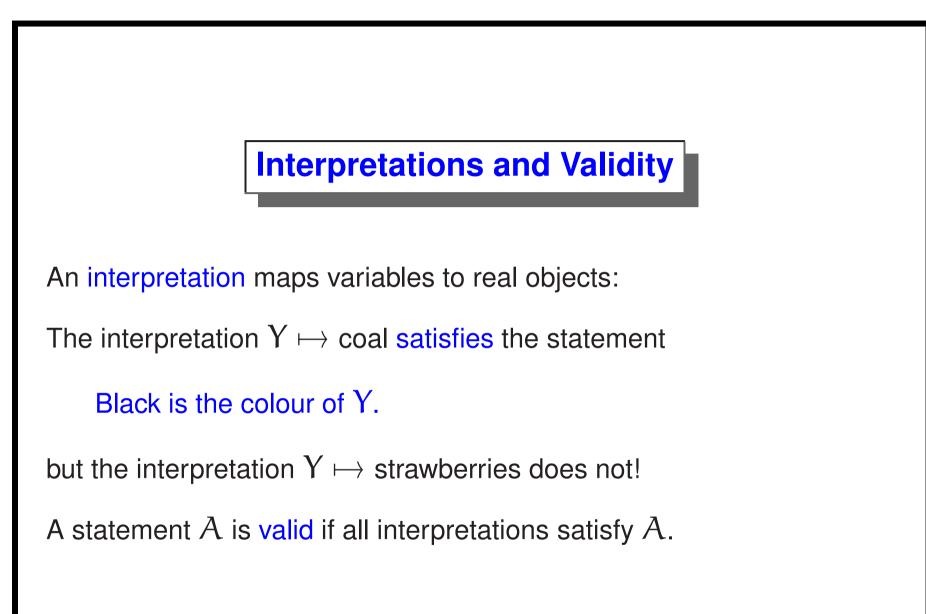
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Consistency, or Satisfiability

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:

{n 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 part of Y, Y part of Z} \models X part of Z

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

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

If S is inconsistent, then $S \models A$ for any A.

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



Inference: Proving a Statement

We want to show that A is valid. We can't test infinitely many cases.

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

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

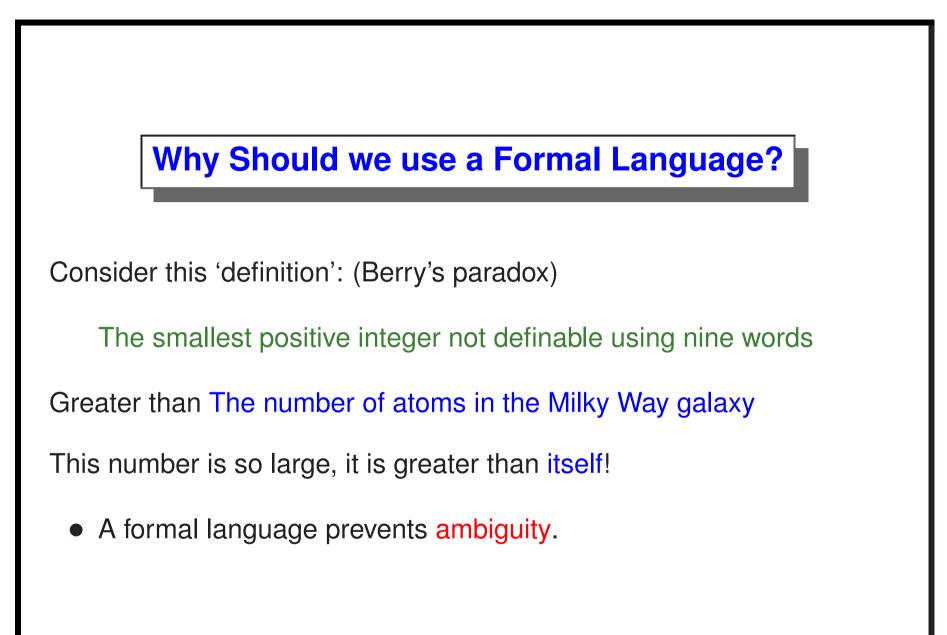
We can use inference rules to construct finite proofs!



Schematic Inference Rules

- A proof is correct if it has the right syntactic form, regardless of
- Whether the conclusion is desirable
- Whether the premises or conclusion are true
- Who (or what) created the proof







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.



Syntax of Propositional Logic

- P, Q, R, ... propositional letter
 - t true
 - f false
 - $\neg A$ not A
 - $A \wedge B \quad \ \ A \text{ and } B$
 - $A \lor B \quad \ \ A \text{ or } B$
 - $A \to B \quad \text{ if } A \text{ then } B$
 - $A \leftrightarrow B \quad \ \ A \text{ if and only if } B$

Semantics of Propositional Logic

 \neg , \land , \lor , \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow are truth-functional: functions of their operands.

						$A \to B$	
·	1	1	0	1	1	1 0 1 1	1
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
	0	0	1	0	0	1	1

Interpretations of Propositional Logic

An interpretation is a function from the propositional letters to $\{1, 0\}$.

Interpretation I satisfies a formula A if it evaluates to 1 (true).

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.

Implication, Entailment, Equivalence

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

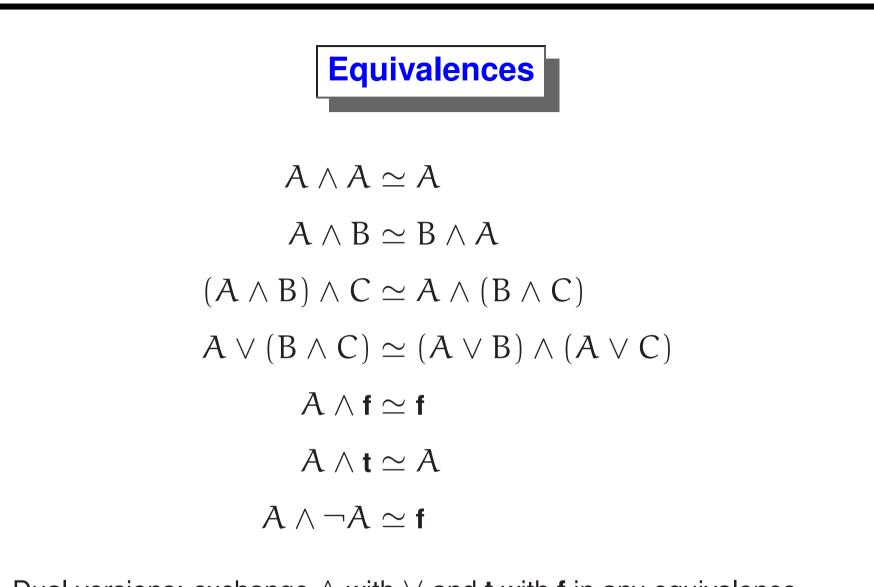
 $A \models B$ means if $\models_I A$ then $\models_I B$ for every interpretation I.

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

Equivalence

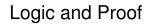
$$\mathsf{A}\simeq\mathsf{B}$$
 means $\mathsf{A}\models\mathsf{B}$ and $\mathsf{B}\models\mathsf{A}.$

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



Dual versions: exchange \land with \lor and **t** with **f** in any equivalence





Negation Normal Form

1. Get rid of \leftrightarrow and \rightarrow , leaving just \wedge, \vee, \neg :

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

$$A \to B \simeq \neg A \lor B$$

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

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





3. Push disjunctions in, using distributive laws:

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

4. Simplify:

- Delete any disjunction containing P and $\neg P$
- 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



 $\mathsf{P} \lor Q \to Q \lor \mathsf{R}$

- 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 \lor in: $(\neg P \lor Q \lor R) \land (\neg Q \lor Q \lor R)$

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

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



Tautology checking using CNF

$$\begin{array}{ll} ((P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow P) \rightarrow P \\ 1. \ \mathsf{Elim} \rightarrow : & \neg [\neg (\neg P \lor Q) \lor P] \lor P \\ 2. \ \mathsf{Push} \neg \ \mathsf{in}: & [\neg \neg (\neg P \lor Q) \land \neg P] \lor P \\ & [(\neg P \lor Q) \land \neg P] \lor P \\ 3. \ \mathsf{Push} \lor \ \mathsf{in}: & (\neg P \lor Q \lor P) \land (\neg P \lor P) \\ 4. \ \mathsf{Simplify:} & \mathsf{t} \land \mathsf{t} \end{array}$$

t It's a tautology!



A Simple Proof System

Axiom Schemes

$$\mathsf{K} \qquad \mathsf{A} \to (\mathsf{B} \to \mathsf{A})$$

$$\mathsf{S} \qquad (\mathsf{A} \to (\mathsf{B} \to \mathsf{C})) \to ((\mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{B}) \to (\mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{C}))$$

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

Inference Rule: Modus Ponens

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





$$(A \to ((D \to A) \to A)) \to ((A \to A)) \to ((A \to A)) \to (A \to A))$$
 by S

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

$$(A \rightarrow (D \rightarrow A)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A)$$
 by MP, (1), (2) (3)

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

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



Some Facts about Deducibility

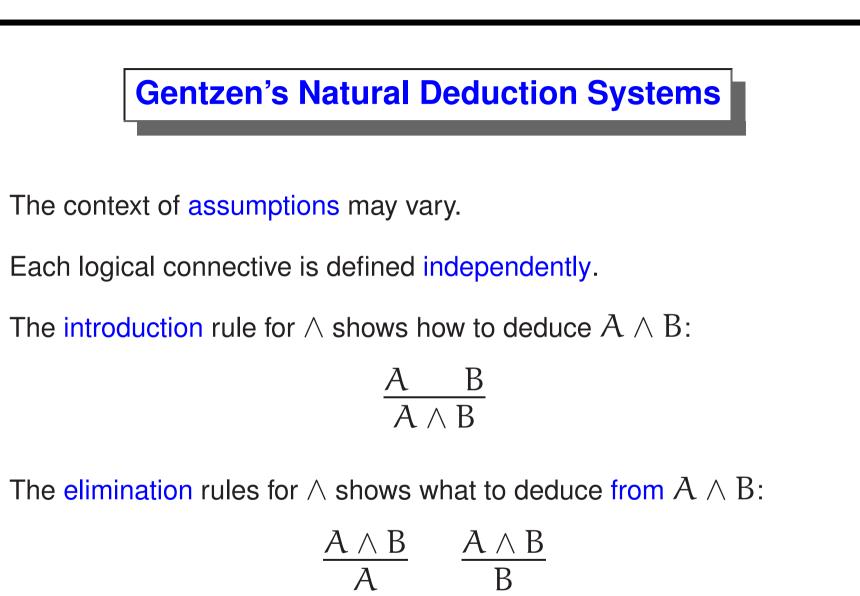
A is deducible from the set S if there is a finite proof of A starting from elements of S. Write $S \vdash A$.

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

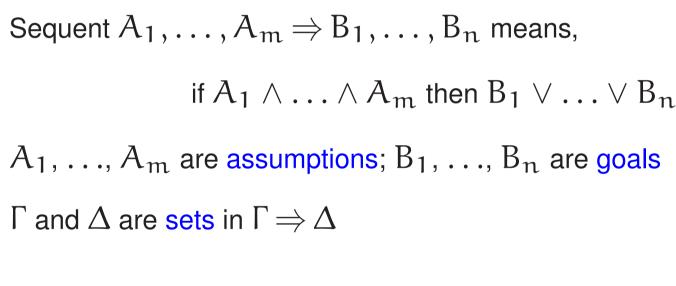
Completeness Theorem. If $S \models A$ then $S \vdash A$.

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





The Sequent Calculus



 $A, \Gamma \Rightarrow A, \Delta$ is trivially true (and is called a basic sequent).



Sequent Calculus Rules

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

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

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



More Sequent Calculus Rules

$$\frac{A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta \qquad B, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{A \lor B, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} (\lor \iota) \qquad \frac{\Gamma}{\Gamma} = \frac{1}{\Gamma}$$

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

D

$$\frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A \qquad B, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{A \to B, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} \xrightarrow{(\to 1)} \frac{A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, B}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A \to B} \xrightarrow{(\to r)}$$



Easy Sequent Calculus Proofs

$$\frac{A, B \Rightarrow A}{A \land B \Rightarrow A} (\land \iota)$$
$$\Rightarrow (A \land B) \rightarrow A (\rightarrow r)$$

$$\frac{A, B \Rightarrow B, A}{A \Rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} \xrightarrow[(\rightarrow r)]{(\rightarrow r)}
\Rightarrow A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A} \xrightarrow[(\rightarrow r)]{(\rightarrow r)}
\Rightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \lor (B \rightarrow A) (\lor r)$$

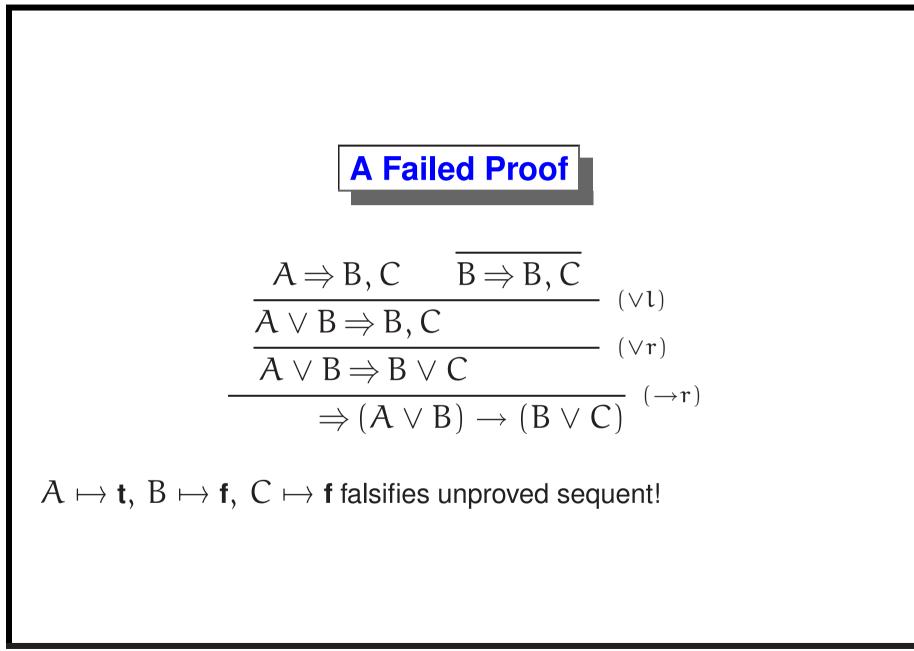


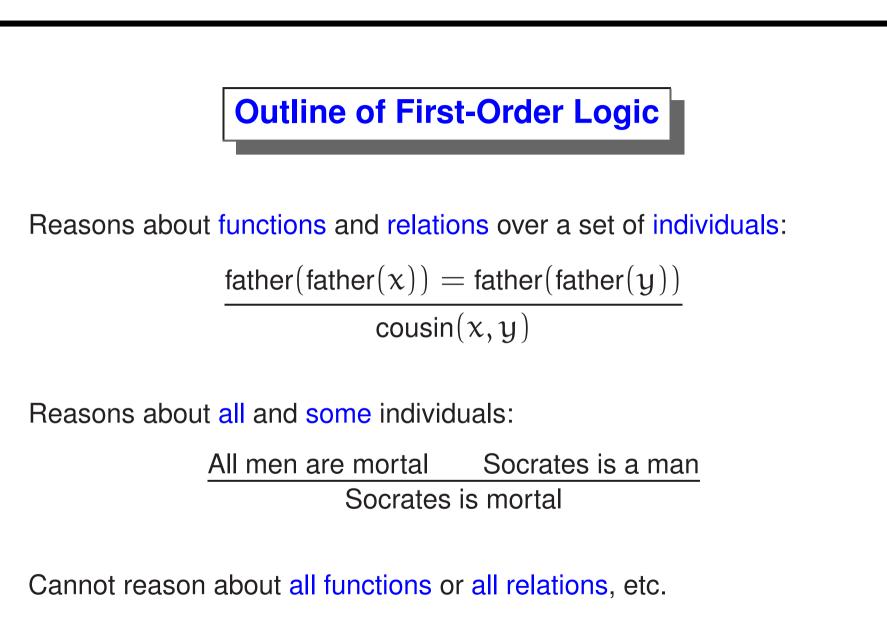
Part of a Distributive Law

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

Second subtree proves $A \vee (B \wedge C) \,{\Rightarrow}\, A \vee C$ similarly









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.

IV



Relation Symbols; Formulae

Each relation symbol stands for an n-place relation.

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.

IV

The Power of Quantifier-Free FOL

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

We can easily prove the equivalence of mathematical functions:

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

$$q(z,1) = z$$

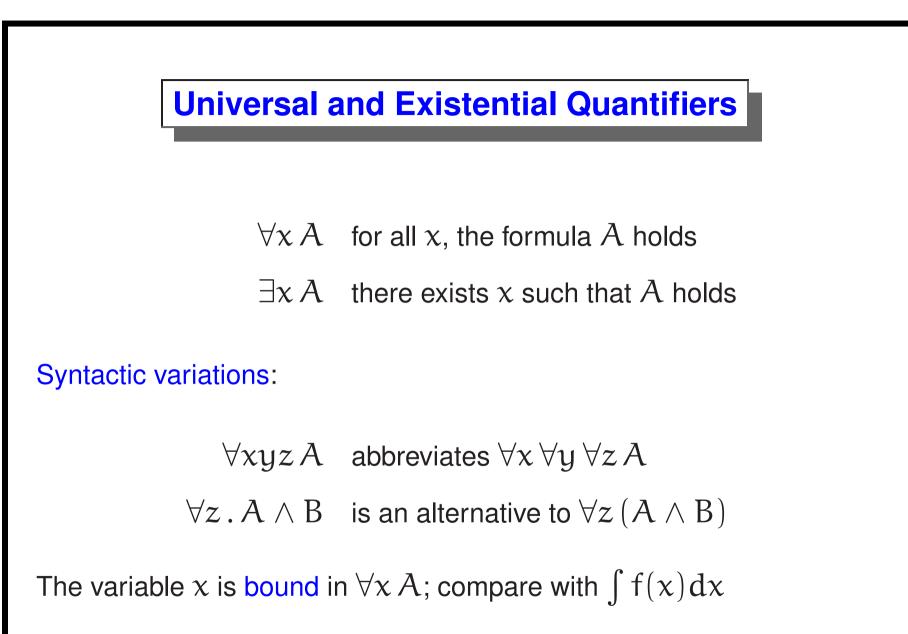
$$q(z,n+1) = p(z,n) \times z$$

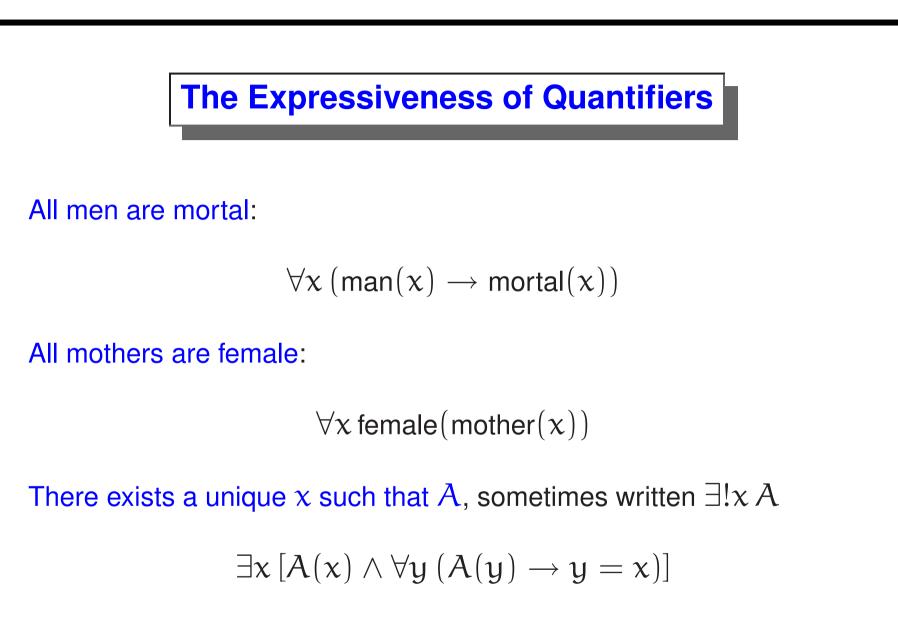
$$q(z,2 \times n) = q(z \times z,n)$$

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

The prover ACL2 uses this logic to do major hardware proofs.







The Point of Semantics

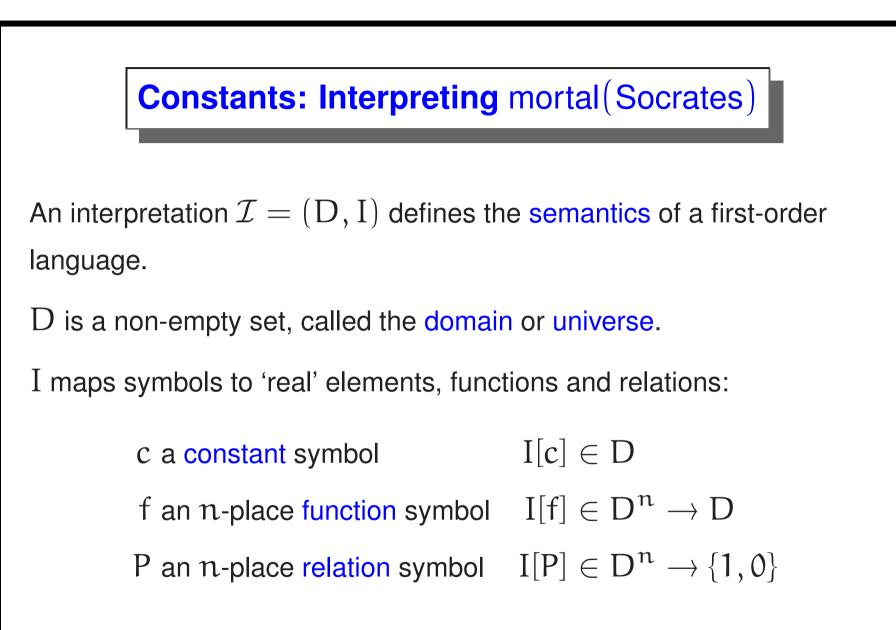
We have to attach meanings to symbols like 1, +, <, etc.

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

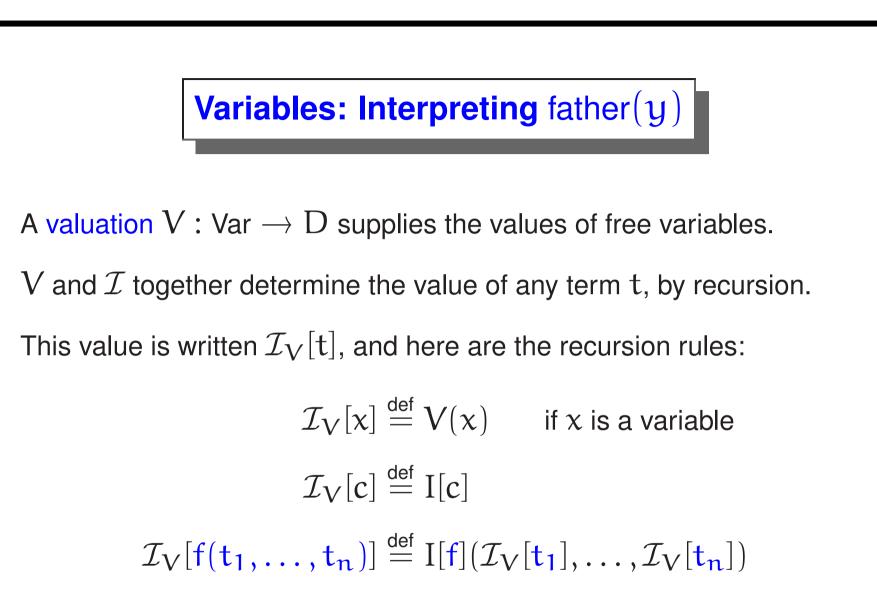
The point is that mathematics derives its flexibility from allowing different interpretations of symbols.

- 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.





IV



Tarski's Truth-Definition

An interpretation \mathcal{I} and valuation function V similarly specify the truth value (1 or 0) of any formula A.

Quantifiers are the only problem, as they bind variables.

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

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



The Meaning of Truth—In FOL!

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

- $\models_{\mathcal{I}, \mathbf{V}} P(t) \qquad \quad \text{if } I[P](\mathcal{I}_{\mathbf{V}}[t]) \text{ equals 1 (is true)}$
- $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} t = \mathfrak{u} \qquad \text{ if } \mathcal{I}_V[t] \text{ equals } \mathcal{I}_V[\mathfrak{u}]$
- $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} A \land B \qquad \text{ if } \models_{\mathcal{I},V} A \text{ and } \models_{\mathcal{I},V} B$
- $\models_{\mathcal{I},V} \exists x \, A \qquad \quad \text{if} \models_{\mathcal{I},V\{m/x\}} A \text{ holds for some } m \in D$

Finally, we define

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

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



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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:

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

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

We may rename bound variables without affecting the meaning:

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

Substitution for Free Variables

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

 $(B \land C)[t/x] \text{ is } B[t/x] \land C[t/x]$ $(\forall x B)[t/x] \text{ is } \forall x B$ $(\forall y B)[t/x] \text{ is } \forall y B[t/x] \quad (x \neq y)$ (P(u))[t/x] is P(u[t/x])

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

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



Some Equivalences for Quantifiers

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

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





These hold only if x is not free in B.

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

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



Reasoning by Equivalences

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

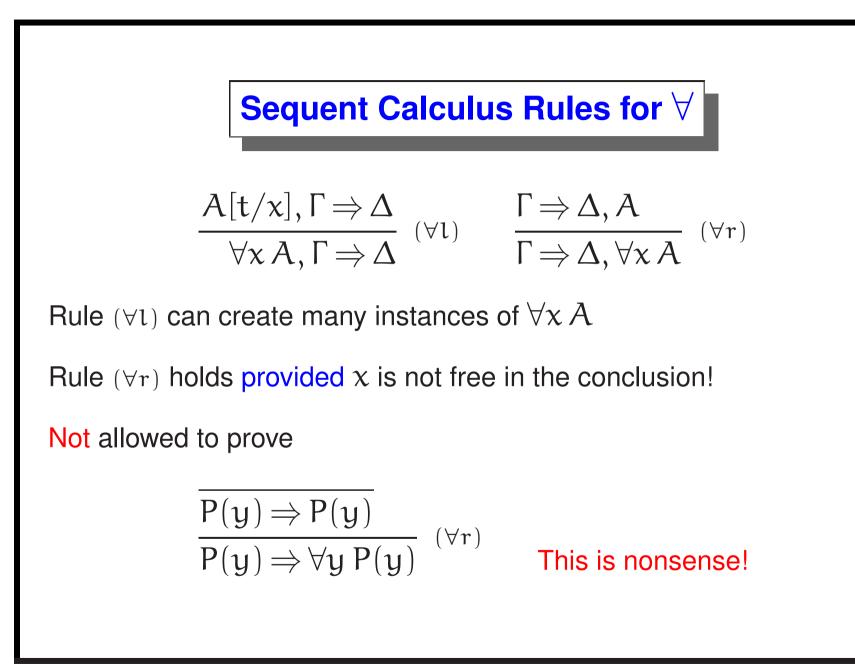
$$\exists z (P(z) \to P(a) \land P(b))$$

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

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

$$\simeq t$$





V



$$\frac{\overline{P(f(y)) \Rightarrow P(f(y))}}{\forall x P(x) \Rightarrow P(f(y))} (\forall \iota)
\overline{\forall x P(x) \Rightarrow \forall y P(f(y))} (\forall r)$$



V

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

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

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



Sequent Calculus Rules for \exists

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

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:

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



V



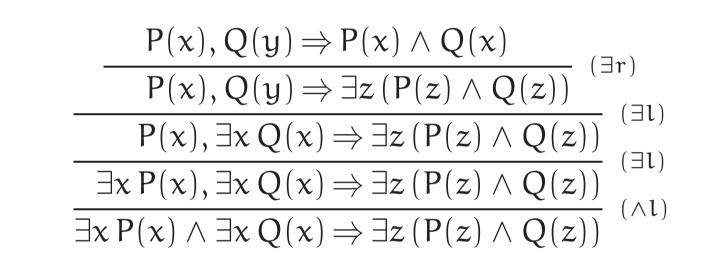
$$\frac{\overline{P(x) \Rightarrow P(x), Q(x)}}{P(x) \Rightarrow P(x) \lor Q(x)} \stackrel{(\lor r)}{(\lor r)} \\
\frac{\overline{P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y (P(y) \lor Q(y))}}{\exists x P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y (P(y) \lor Q(y))} \stackrel{(\exists r)}{(\exists l)} \frac{similar}{\exists x Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \dots} \stackrel{(\exists l)}{(\lor l)} \\
\frac{\exists x P(x) \lor \exists x Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists y (P(y) \lor Q(y))}{\exists x P(x) \lor \exists x Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists y (P(y) \lor Q(y))} \stackrel{(\exists l)}{(\lor l)}$$

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.







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



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

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

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

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

Empty clause:

Empty clause is equivalent to **f**, meaning contradiction!

Outline of Clause Form Methods

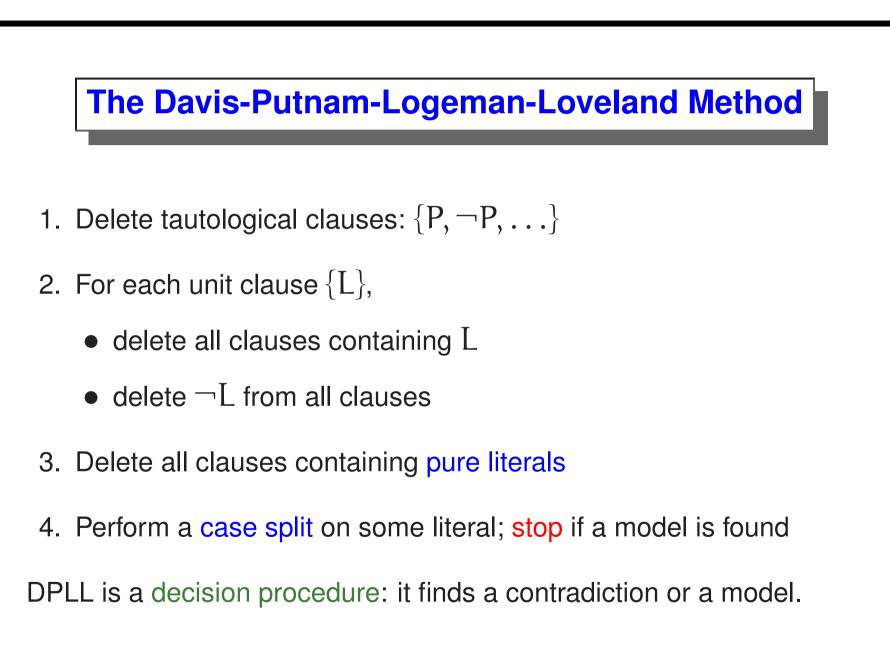
To prove A, obtain a contradiction from $\neg A$:

- 1. Translate $\neg A$ into CNF as $A_1 \land \dots \land A_m$
- 2. This is the set of clauses A_1, \ldots, A_m
- 3. Transform the clause set, preserving consistency

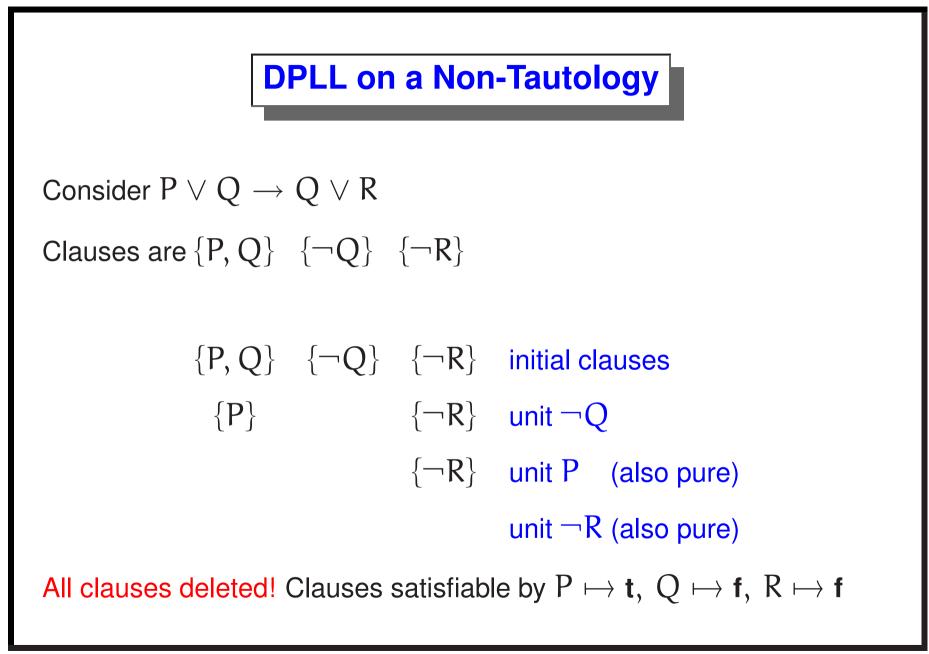
Deducing the empty clause refutes $\neg A$.

An empty clause set (all clauses deleted) means $\neg A$ is satisfiable.

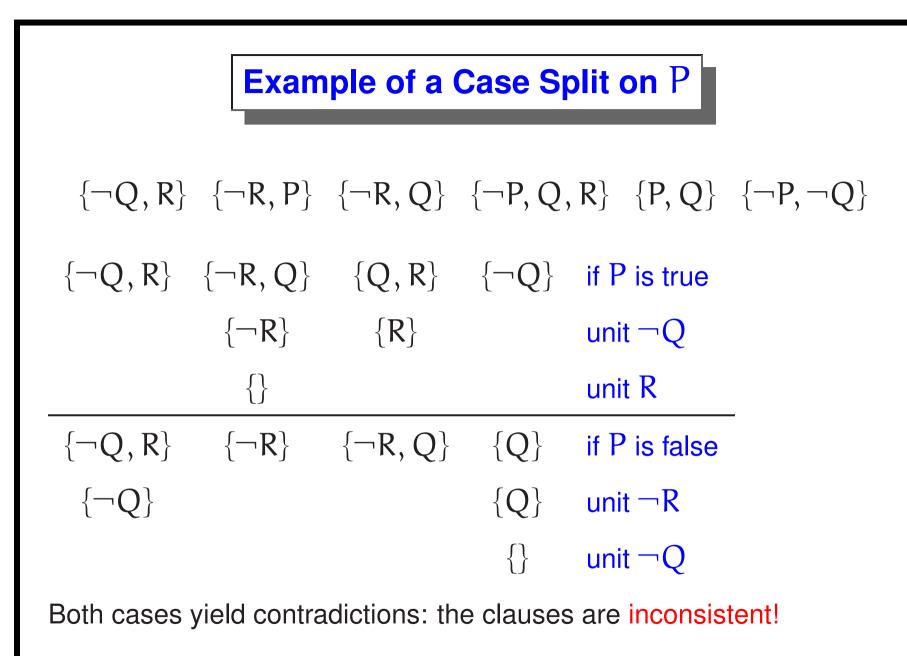
The basis for SAT solvers and resolution provers.



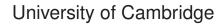








VI



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).
- SMT solvers (satisfiability modulo theories) extend SAT solving to handle arithmetic, arrays and bit vectors.

The Resolution Rule

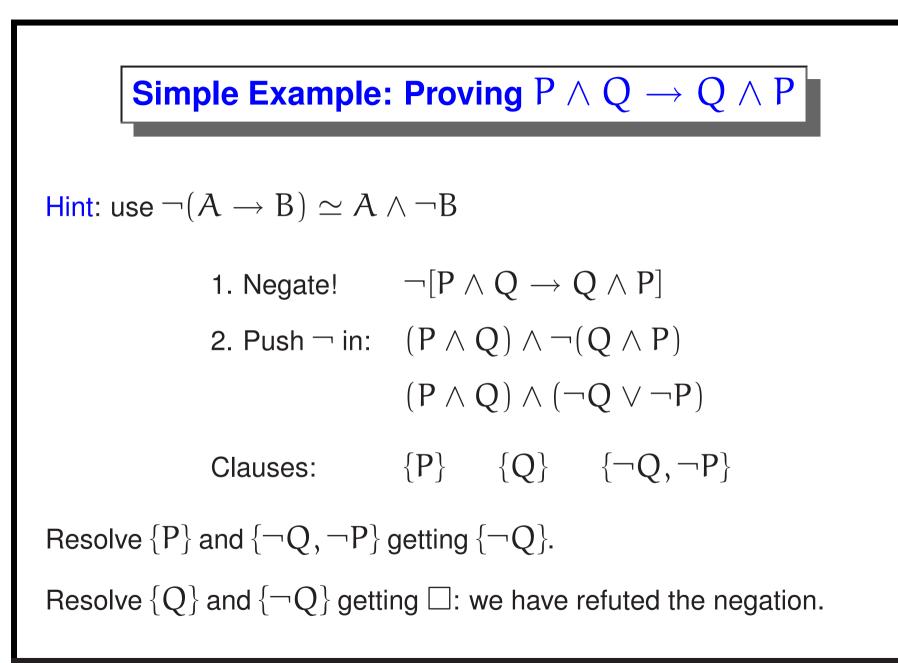
From $B \lor A$ and $\neg B \lor C$ infer $A \lor C$

In set notation,

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

Some special cases: (remember that \Box is just {})

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





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 \Box, 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.

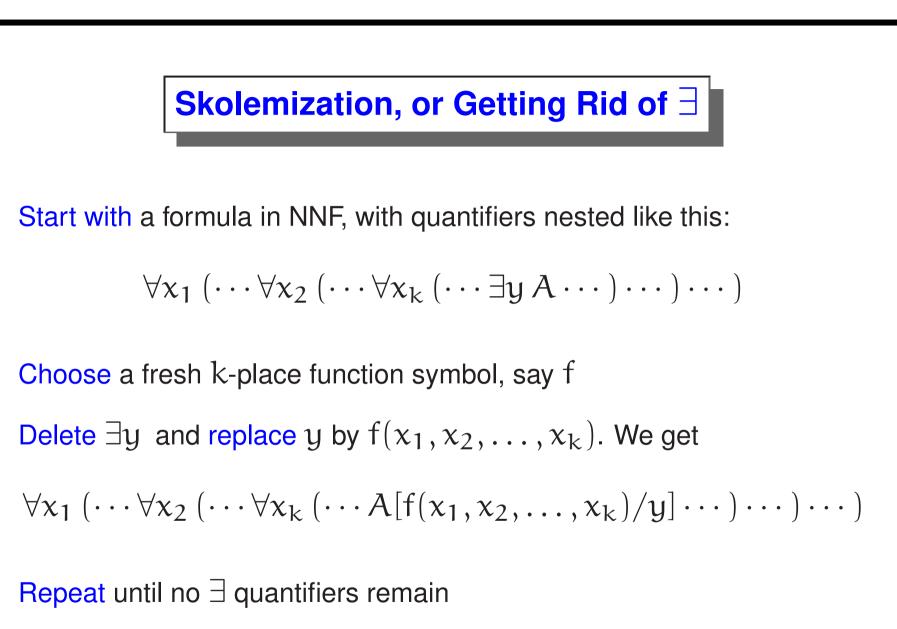
Repeat until contradiction found or passive becomes empty.

Preprocessing: removing tautologies, symmetries ...

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



Reducing FOL to Propositional Logic Eliminate all connectives except \vee, \wedge and \neg NNF: 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







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

$$\neg [\exists x [P(x) \rightarrow \forall y P(y)]] \text{ negated goal}$$

 $\forall x \left[P(x) \land \exists y \neg P(y) \right] \quad \text{ conversion to NNF}$

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

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

Correctness of Skolemization

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

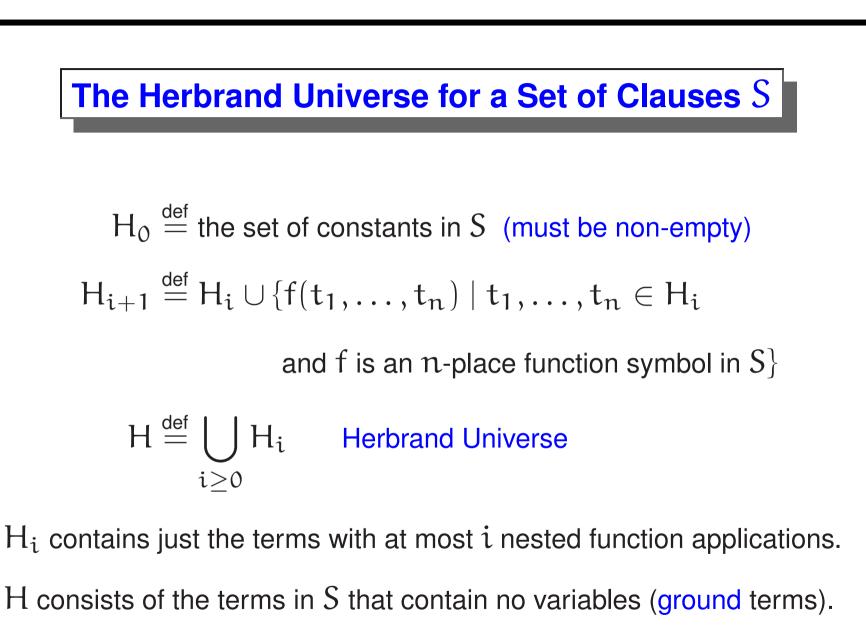
 \iff it holds in some interpretation $\mathcal{I} = (D, I)$

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

$$\iff$$
 some function \widehat{f} in $D \rightarrow D$ yields suitable values of y

- $\iff A[f(x)/y] \text{ holds in some } \mathcal{I}' \text{ extending } \mathcal{I} \text{ so that } f \text{ denotes } \widehat{f}$
- \iff the formula $\forall x A[f(x)/y]$ is consistent.







The Herbrand Semantics of Predicates

An Herbrand interpretation defines an n-place predicate P to denote a truth-valued function in $H^n \to \{1,0\}$, making $P(t_1,\ldots,t_n)$ true \ldots

- if and only if the formula $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ holds in our desired "real" interpretation $\mathcal I$ of the clauses.
- Thus, an Herbrand interpretation can imitate any other interpretation.



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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.

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



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 or satisfying constraints
- Polymorphic type-checking (ML and other functional languages)

It is an intuitive generalization of pattern-matching.



Four Unification Examples

f(x, b)	f(x, x)	f(x, x)	$\mathfrak{j}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x},z)$
f(a, y)	f(a, b)	f(y, g(y))	$\mathfrak{j}(w, \mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{h}(w))$
f(a, b)	None	None	j(a, a, h(a))
[a/x, b/y]	Fail	Fail	[a/w, a/x, h(a)/z]

The output is a substitution, mapping variables to terms.

Other occurrences of those variables also must be updated.

Unification yields a most general substitution (in a technical sense).



Theorem-Proving Example 1

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

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

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

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!



The Binary Resolution Rule

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

provided
$$B\sigma = D\sigma$$

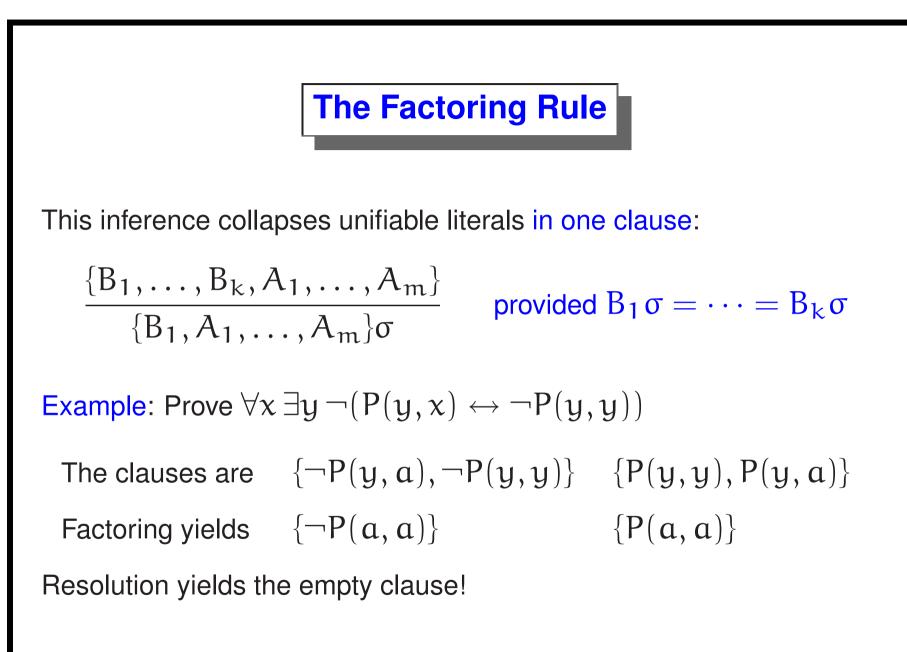
(σ is a most general unifier of B and D.)

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

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

we must rename x in one of the clauses. (Otherwise, unification fails.)





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 $\{P, \neg Q(b)\}$ $\{P, Q(x)\}$ $\{\neg P, \neg Q(x)\}$ $\{\neg P, Q(a)\}$ Resolve $\{P, \neg Q(b)\}$ with $\{P, Q(x)\}$ getting $\{P, P\}$ Factor $\{P, P\}$ getting {P} Resolve $\{\neg P, \neg Q(x)\}$ with $\{\neg P, Q(a)\}$ getting $\{\neg P, \neg P\}$ getting $\{\neg P\}$ Factor $\{\neg P, \neg P\}$ Resolve $\{P\}$ with $\{\neg P\}$ getting \Box



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

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



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 \mathfrak{m} tasks left to be done.

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



Linear resolution:

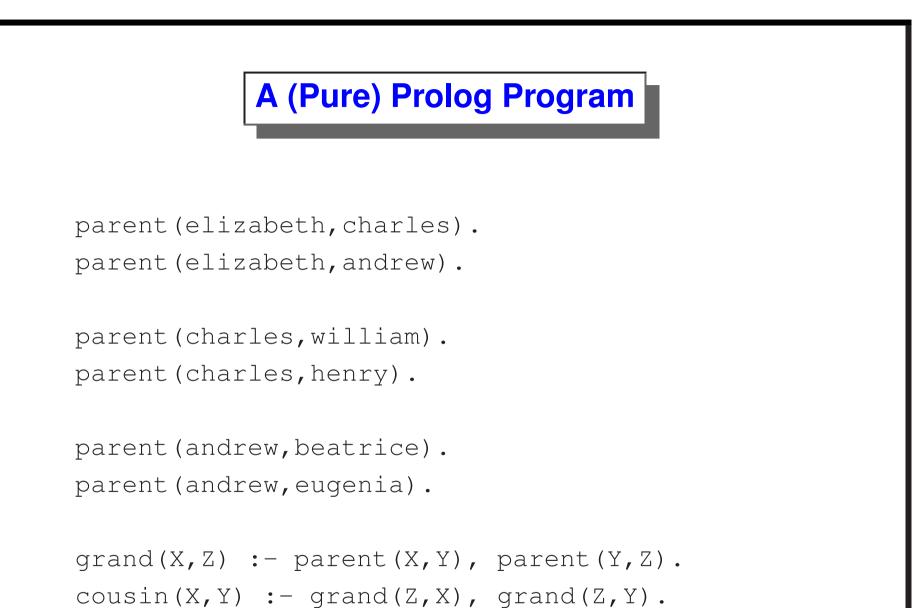
- Always resolve some program clause with the goal clause.
- The result becomes the new goal clause.

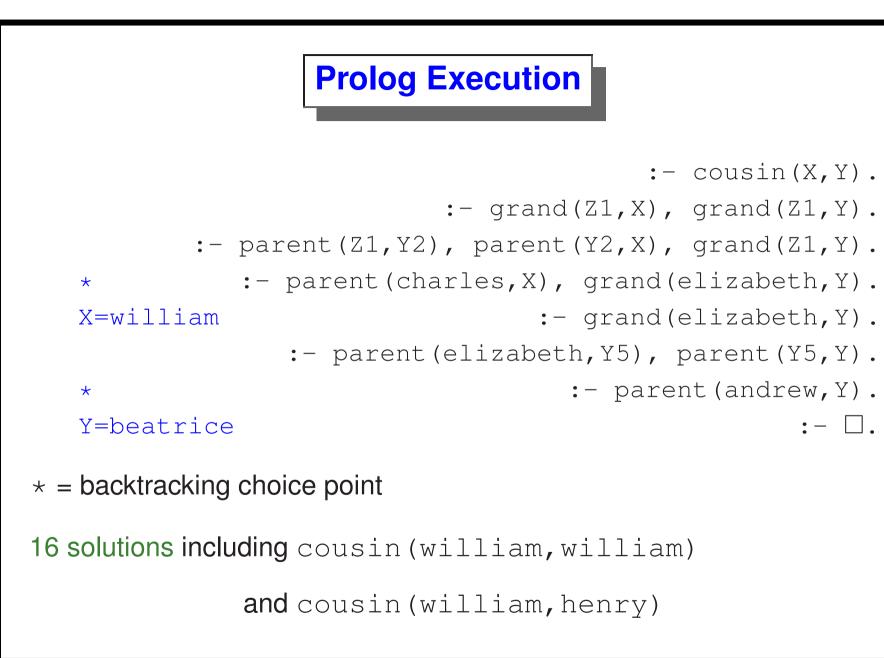
Try the program clauses in left-to-right order.

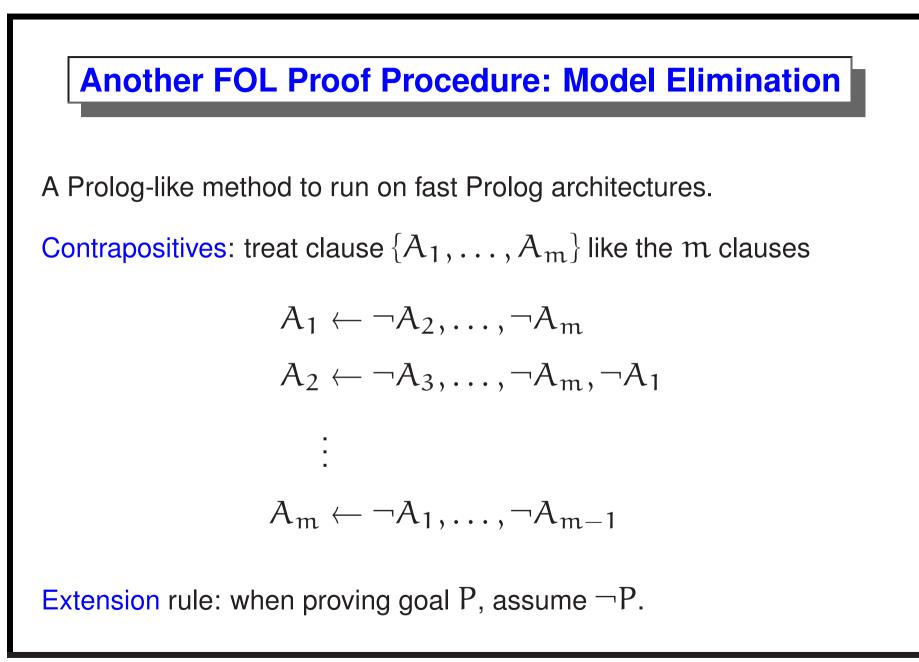
Solve the goal clause's literals in left-to-right order.

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

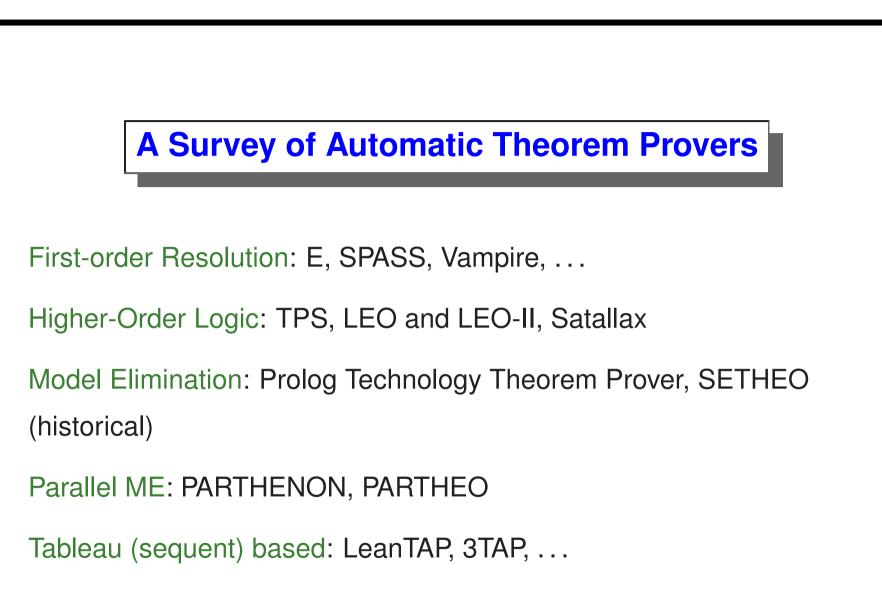
Do unification without occurs check. (Unsound, but needed for speed)











Decision Problems

Any formally-stated question: is n prime or not? Is the string s accepted by a given context-free grammar?

Unfortunately, most decision problems for logic are difficult:

- Propositional satisfiability NP-complete.
- The halting problem is undecidable. Therefore there is no decision procedure to identify first-order theorems.
- The theory of integer arithmetic is undecidable (Gödel).

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Solvable Decision Problems

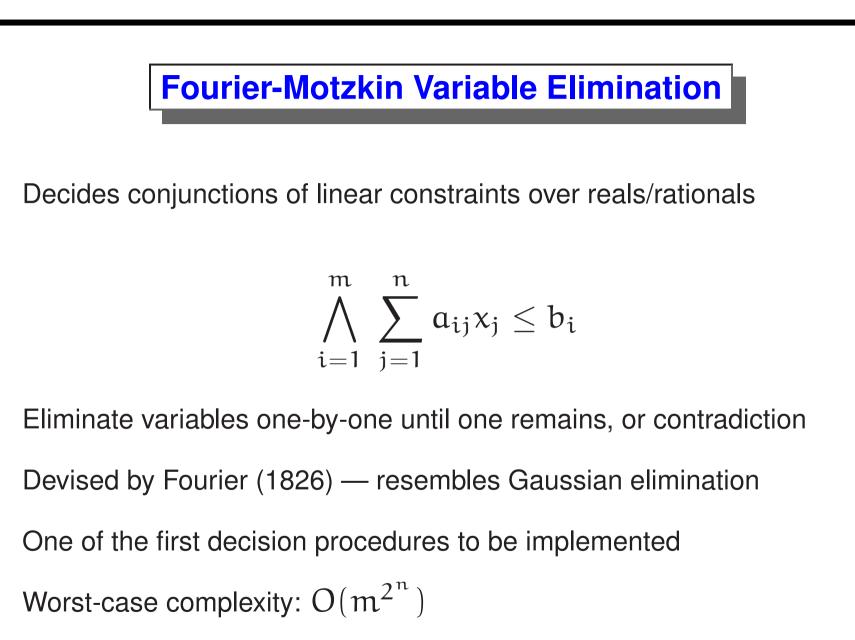
Propositional formulas are decidable: use the DPLL algorithm.

Linear arithmetic formulas are decidable:

- comparisons using + and but \times only with constants, e.g.
- $2x < y \land y < x$ (satisfiable by y = -3, x = -2) or $2x < y \land y < x \land 3x > 2$ (unsatisfiable)
- the integer and real (or rational) cases require different algorithms

Polynomial arithmetic is decidable, and so is Euclidean geometry.





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Basic Idea: Upper and Lower Bounds

To eliminate variable x_n , consider constraint i, for i = 1, ..., m: Define $\beta_i = b_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_{ij} x_j$. Rewrite constraint i: If $a_{in} > 0$ then $x_n \leq \frac{\beta_i}{\alpha_i}$ if $a_{in} < 0$ then $-x_n \leq -\frac{\beta_i}{\alpha_i}$ Adding two such constraints yields $0 \leq \frac{\beta_i}{\alpha_{in}} - \frac{\beta_{i'}}{\alpha_{i'}}$ Do this for all combinations with opposite signs Then delete original constraints (except where $a_{in} = 0$)

Fourier-Motzkin Elimination Example			
initial problem	eliminate x	eliminate z	result
$x \leq y$	$z \leq 0$	$0 \leq -1$	UNSAT
$\mathbf{x} \leq z$	$y + z \leq 0$	$y \leq -1$	
$-x + y + 2z \le 0$			
$-z \leq -1$	$-z \leq -1$		



Quantifier Elimination (QE)

Skolemization eliminates quantifiers but only preserves consistency.

QE transforms a formula to a quantifier-free but equivalent formula.

The idea of Fourier-Motzkin is that (e.g.)

$$\exists x y \ (2x < y \land y < x) \iff \exists x \ 2x < x \iff t$$

In general, the quantifier-free formula is **enormous**.

- With no free variables, the end result must be **t** or **f**.
- But even then, the time complexity tends to be hyper-exponential!

Lawrence C. Paulson



Other Decidable Theories

Linear integer arithmetic: use Omega test or Cooper's algorithm, but any decision algorithm has a worst-case runtime of at least $2^{2^{cn}}$

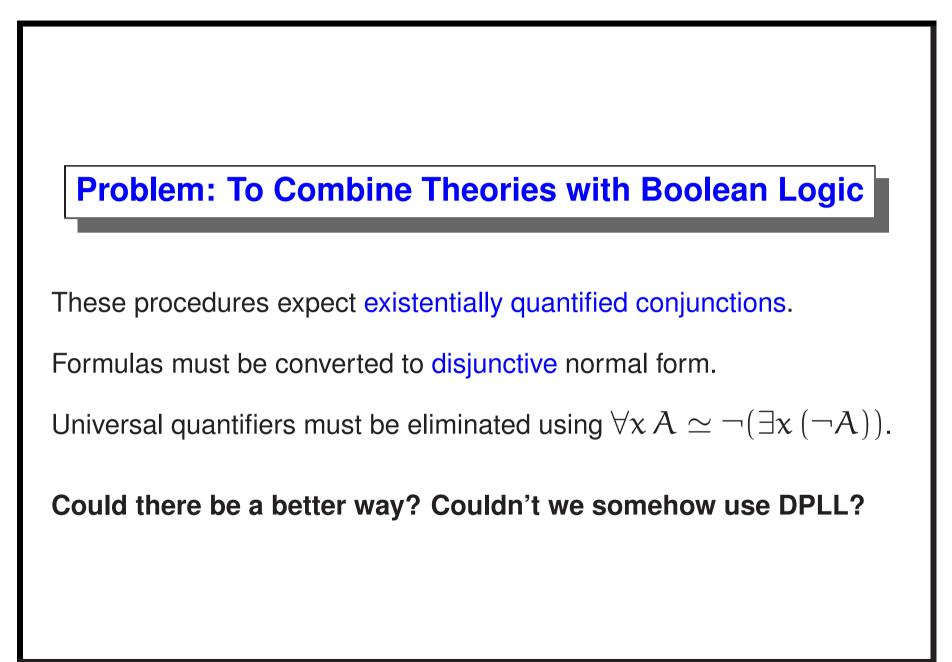
QE for real polynomial arithmetic:

$$\exists x [ax^{2} + bx + c = 0] \iff b^{2} \ge 4ac \land (c = 0 \lor a \neq 0 \lor b^{2} > 4ac)$$

There exist decision procedures for arrays, lists, bit vectors, ...

Sometimes, they can cooperate to decide combinations of theories.





Satisfiability Modulo Theories

Idea: use DPLL for logical reasoning, decision procedures for theories

Clauses can have literals like 2x < y, which are used as names.

If DPLL finds a contradiction, then the clauses are unsatisfiable.

Asserted literals are checked by the decision procedure:

- Unsatisfiable conjunctions of literals are noted as new clauses.
- Case splitting is interleaved with decision procedure calls.

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SMT Example

$$\begin{split} & \{c=0,2a < b\} \ \{b < a\} \ \{3a > 2, a < 0\} \ \{c \neq 0, \neg(b < a)\} \\ & \{c=0,2a < b\} \ \ \{3a > 2, a < 0\} \ \ \{c \neq 0\} \ \ \text{unit } b < a \\ & \{2a < b\} \ \ \ \{3a > 2, a < 0\} \ \ \ \text{unit } c \neq 0 \\ & \{3a > 2, a < 0\} \ \ \ \text{unit } 2a < b \end{split} \\ & \text{Now a case split returns a "model": } b < a, c \neq 0, 2a < b, 3a > 2 \end{split} \\ & \text{But the dec. proc. finds these contradictory and returns a new clause:} \\ & \{\neg(b < a), \neg(2a < b), \neg(3a > 2)\} \end{aligned}$$

SMT Solvers and Their Applications

Popular ones include Z3, Yices, CVC4, but there are many others.

Representative applications:

- Hardware and software verification
- Program analysis and symbolic software execution
- Planning and constraint solving
- Hybrid systems and control engineering





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

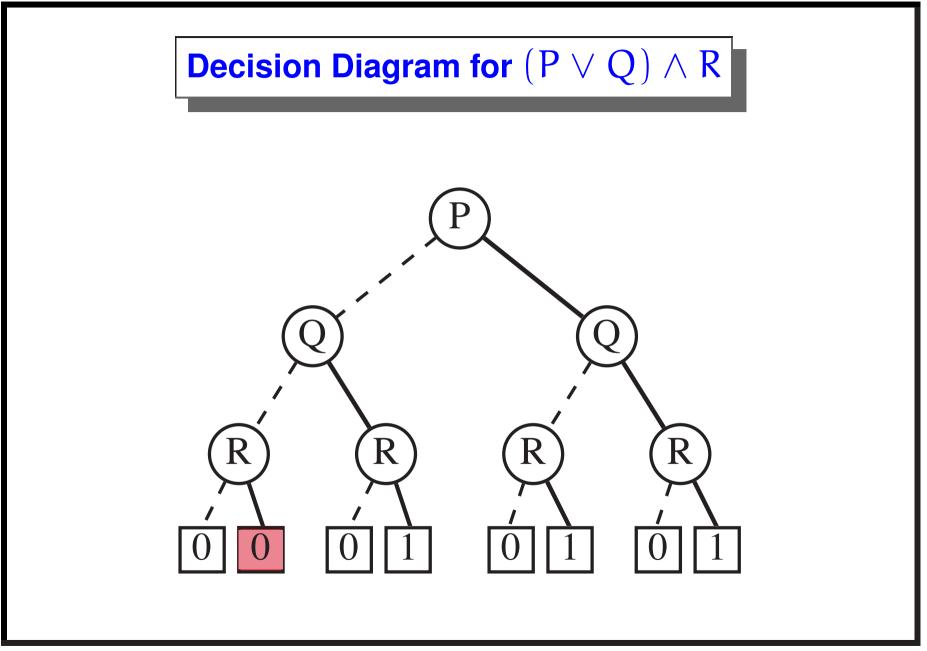
- ordered propositional symbols (the variables)
- sharing of identical subtrees
- hashing and other optimisations

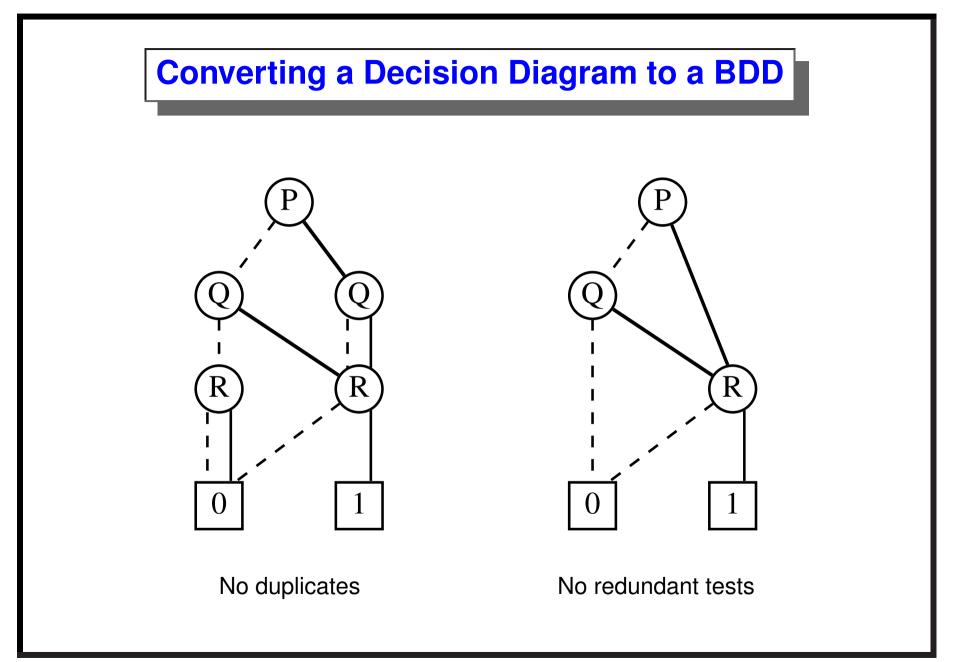
Detects if a formula is tautologous (=1) or inconsistent (=0).

Exhibits models (paths to 1) if the formula is satisfiable.

Excellent for verifying digital circuits, with many other applications.









• Delete redundant variable tests.





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

Trivial if either operand is 1 or 0.

Let
$$Z = if(P, X, Y)$$
 and $Z' = if(P', X', Y')$

- If P = P' then recursively convert if $(P, X \land X', Y \land Y')$.
- If P < P' then recursively convert if $(P, X \land Z', Y \land Z')$.

• If
$$P > P'$$
 then recursively convert if $(P', Z \land X', Z \land Y')$.



Canonical Forms of Other Connectives

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

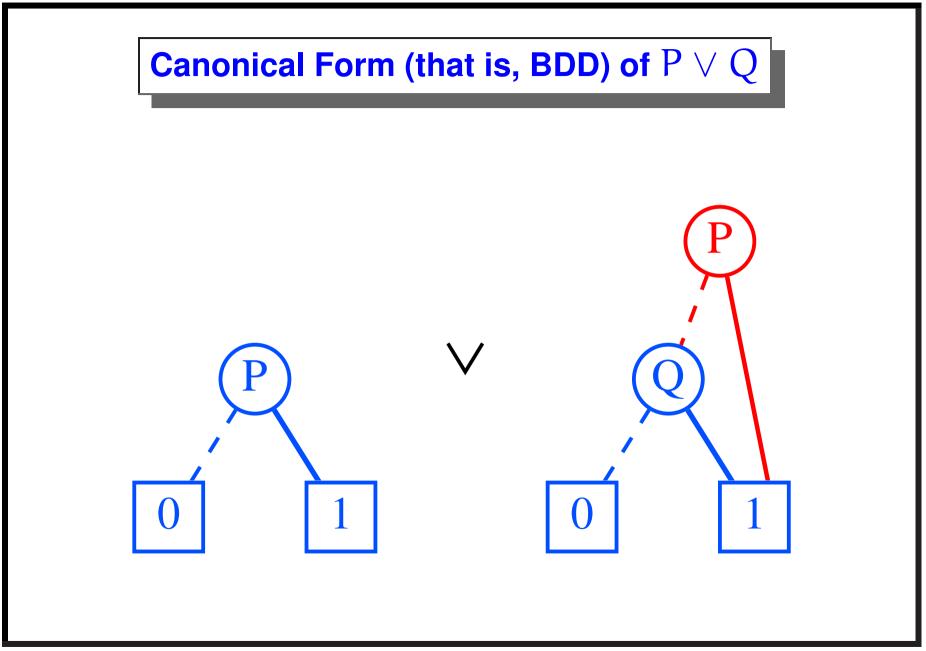
Some cases, like $Z \rightarrow 0$ and $Z \leftrightarrow 0$, reduce to negation.

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

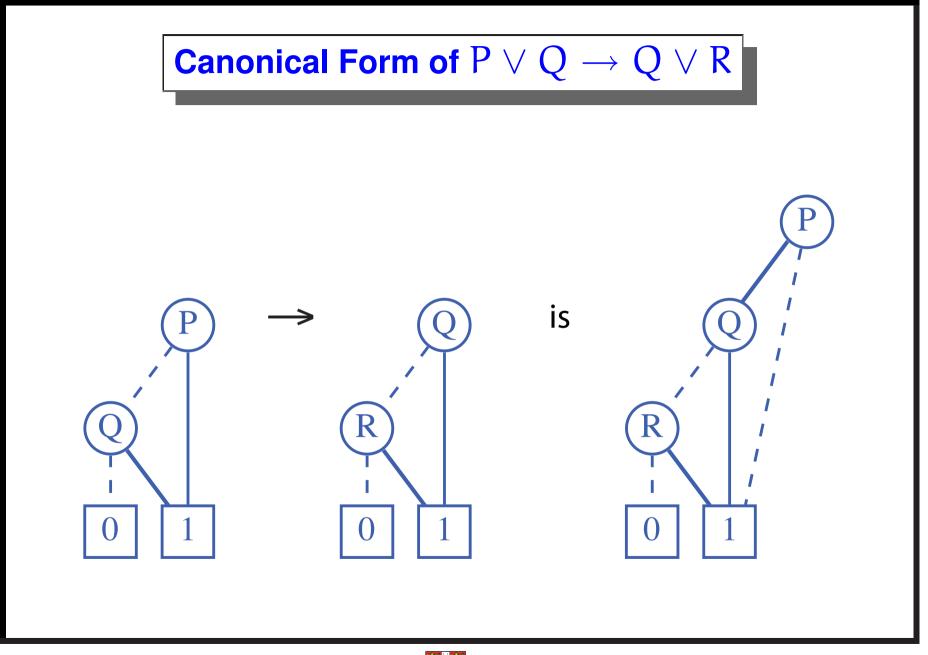
- If Z = if(P, X, Y) then recursively convert $if(P, \neg X, \neg Y)$.
- if Z = 1 then return 0, and if Z = 0 then return 1.

(In effect we copy the BDD but exchange the 1 and 0 at the bottom.)

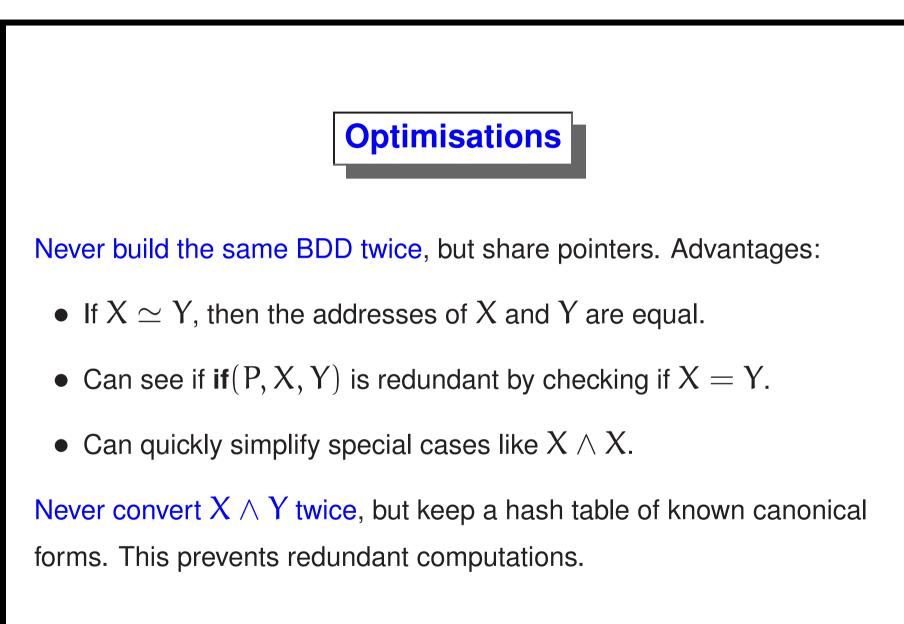
Х











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Final Observations

The variable ordering is crucial. Consider this formula:

 $(\mathsf{P}_1 \land Q_1) \lor \cdots \lor (\mathsf{P}_n \land Q_n)$

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

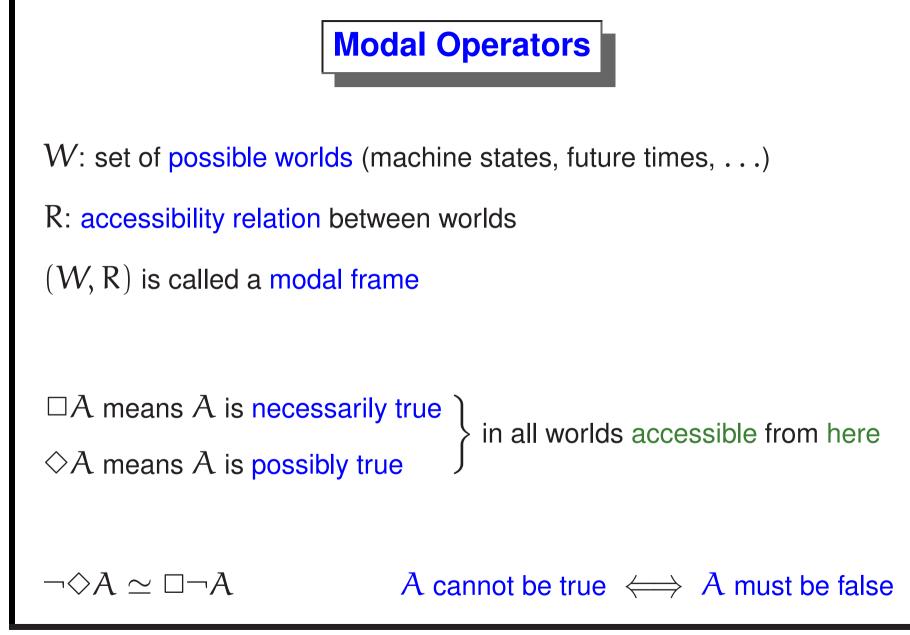
With $P_1 < \cdots < P_n < Q_1 < \cdots < Q_n$, the BDD is exponential.

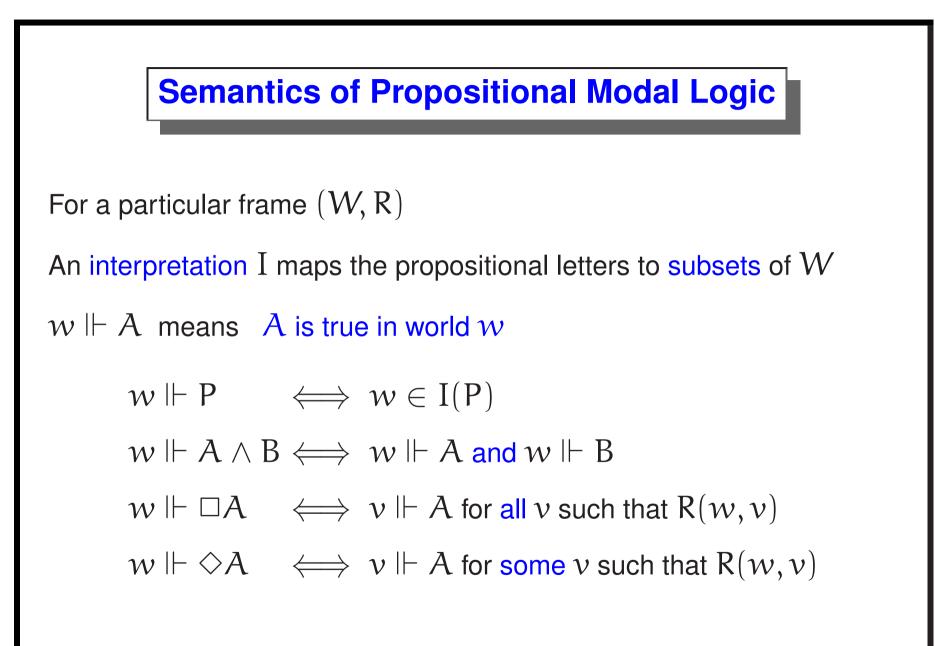
Many digital circuits have small BDDs: adders, but not multipliers.

BDDs can solve problems in hundreds of variables.

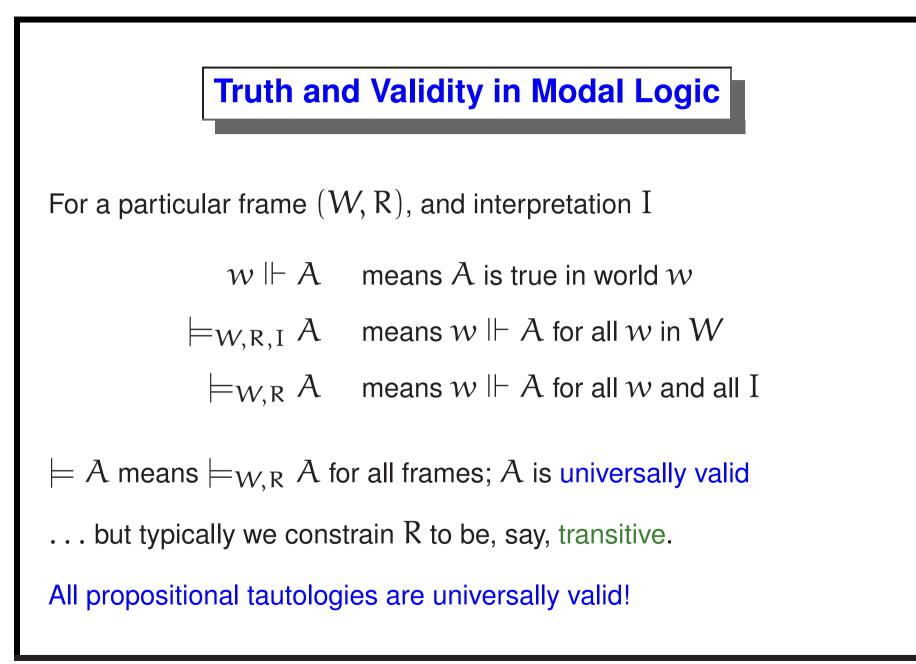
The general case remains hard (it is NP-complete).

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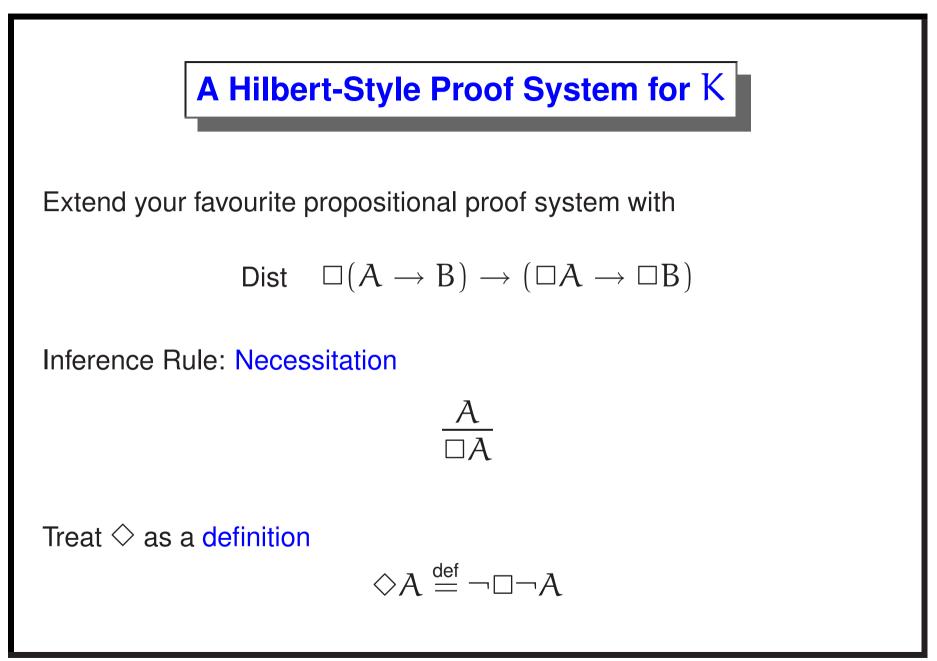


XI

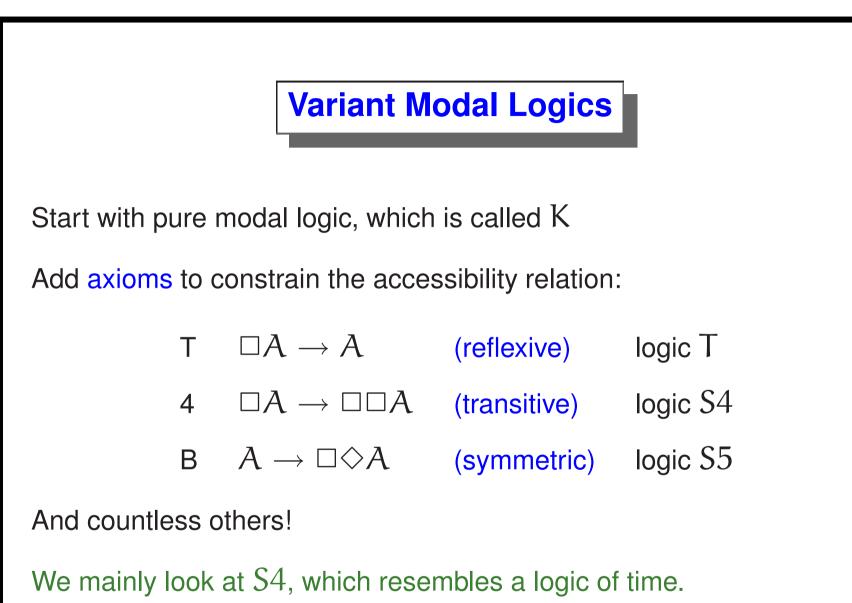




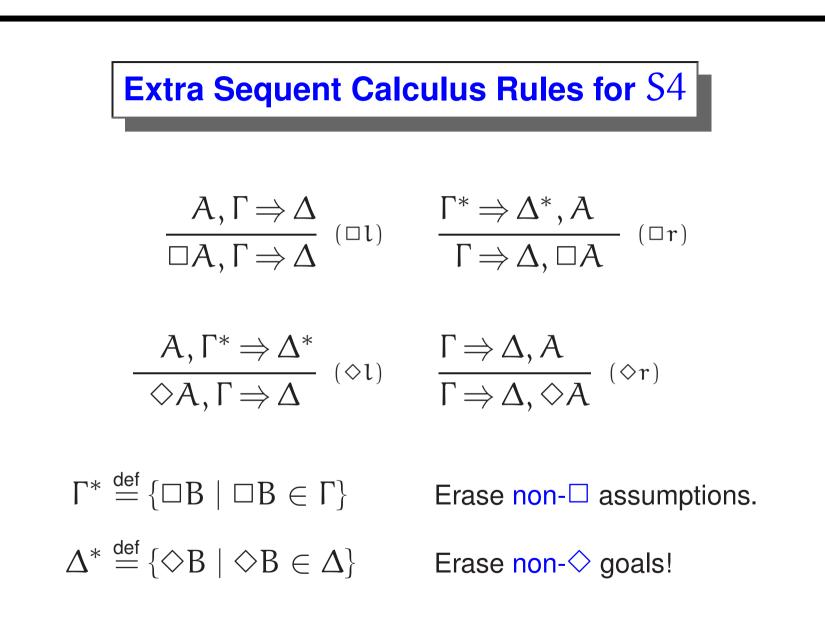
XI











A Proof of the Distribution Axiom

$$\frac{\overline{A \Rightarrow B, A} \quad \overline{B, A \Rightarrow B}}{A \rightarrow B, A \Rightarrow B} (\rightarrow 1)$$

$$\frac{\overline{A \rightarrow B, A \Rightarrow B}}{(-1)}$$

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

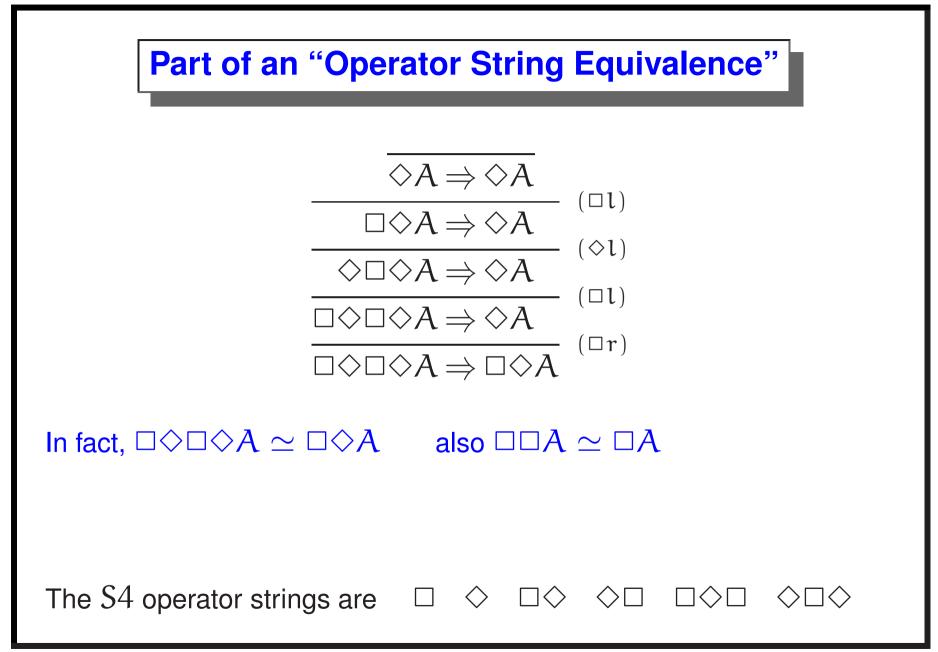
$$\frac{(-1)}{(-1)}$$

$$\frac{(-$$

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

Must apply $(\Box r)$ first!







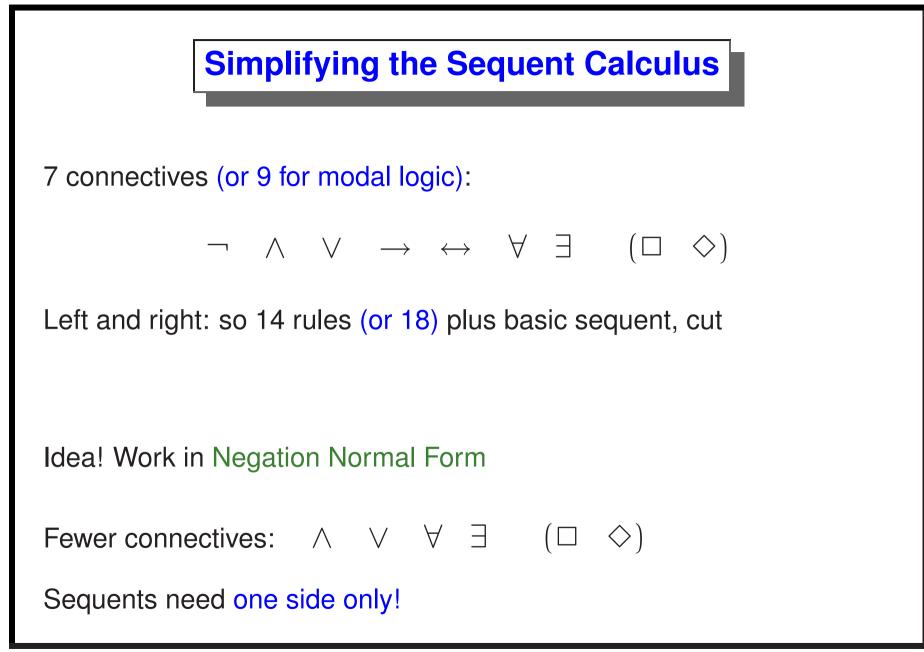
Two Failed Proofs

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

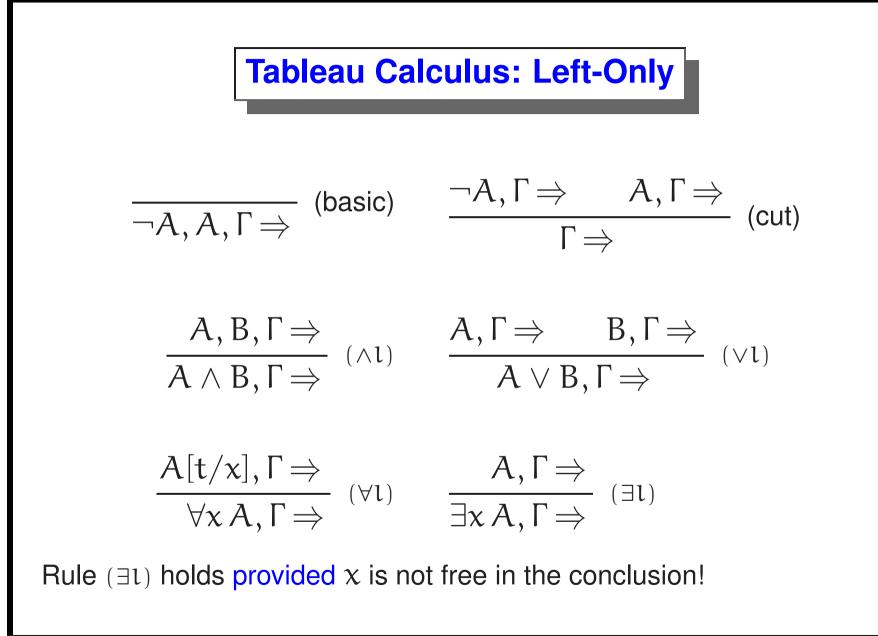
$$\frac{B \Rightarrow A \land B}{B \Rightarrow \Diamond (A \land B)} \stackrel{(\diamond r)}{\Rightarrow} \frac{(\diamond r)}{(\diamond 1)}$$

Can extract a countermodel from the proof attempt













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

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

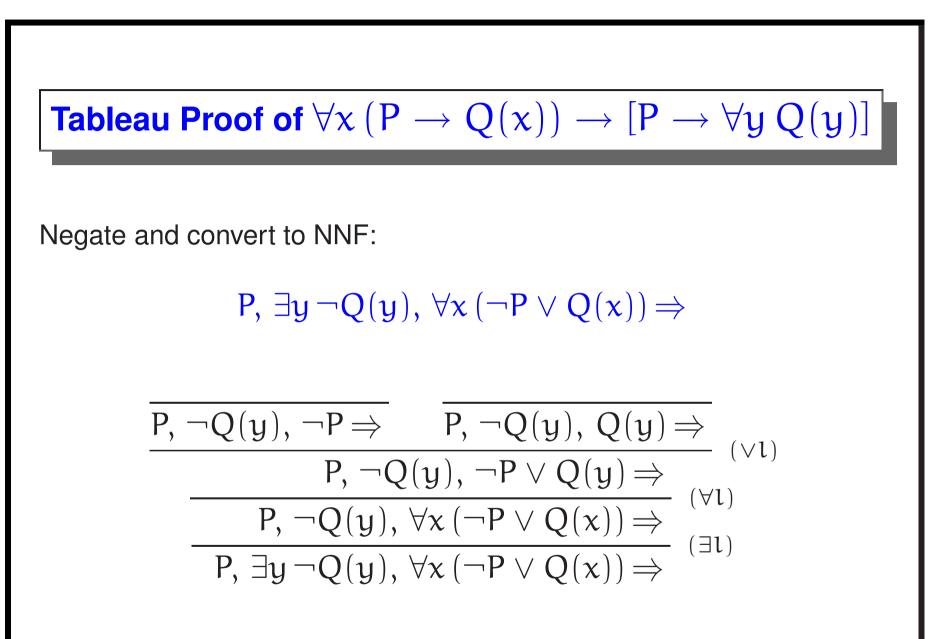
From 14 (or 18) rules to 4 (or 6)

Left-side only system uses proof by contradiction

Right-side only system is an exact dual



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The Free-Variable Tableau Calculus

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

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

Let unification instantiate any free variable

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

Updating a variable affects entire proof tree

What about rule (*∃*1)? Do not use it! Instead, Skolemize!



Skolemization from NNF

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Recall e.g. that we Skolemize
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[\forall y \exists z Q(y,z)] \land \exists x P(x) \text{ to } [\forall y Q(y,f(y))] \land P(a)
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Remark: pushing quantifiers in (miniscoping) gives better results.

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

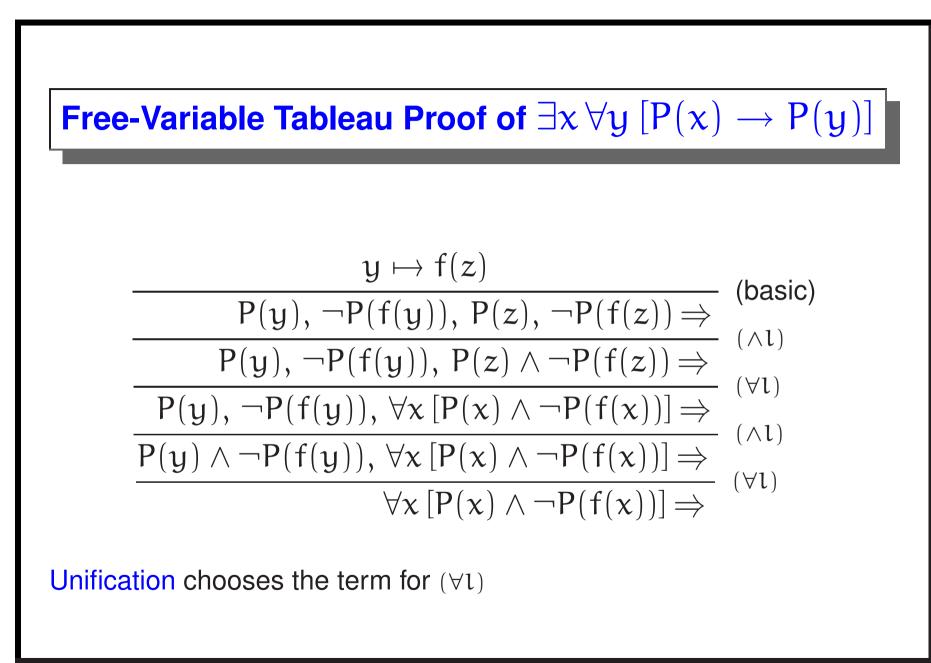
Negate; convert to NNF: $\forall x \exists y [P(x) \land \neg P(y)]$

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





A Failed Proof

Try to prove $\forall x [P(x) \lor Q(x)] \rightarrow [\forall x P(x) \lor \forall x Q(x)]$ NNF: $\exists x \neg P(x) \land \exists x \neg Q(x) \land \forall x [P(x) \lor Q(x)] \Rightarrow$ Skolemize: $\neg P(a), \neg Q(b), \forall x [P(x) \lor Q(x)] \Rightarrow$ $y \mapsto b$??? $y \mapsto a$ $\neg P(a), \neg Q(b), P(y) \Rightarrow \neg P(a), \neg Q(b), Q(y) \Rightarrow$ $(\sqrt{1})$ $\neg P(a), \neg Q(b), P(y) \lor Q(y) \Rightarrow$ $\neg P(a), \neg Q(b), \forall x [P(x) \lor Q(x)] \Rightarrow$ $(\forall l)$



XII

