# **Logic and Proof**

# Computer Science Tripos Part IB Lent Term

Mateja Jamnik & Victor Gomes
Computer Laboratory
University of Cambridge

mateja.jamnik@cl.cam.ac.uk

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#### **Introduction to Logic**

Logic concerns statements in some language.

The language can be natural (English, Latin, ...) 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!



#### **Schematic Statements**

Now let the variables  $X, Y, Z, \ldots$  range over 'real' objects

Black is the colour of X's hair.

Black is the colour of Y.

Z is the colour of Y.

Schematic statements can even express questions:

What things are black?



#### Interpretations and Validity

An interpretation maps variables to real objects:

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

Black is the colour of Y.

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

A statement A is valid if all interpretations satisfy A.



## Consistency, or Satisfiability

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

Examples of inconsistent sets:

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

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

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  $S \models A$ .

 $\{X \text{ part of } Y, Y \text{ part of } Z\} \models X \text{ part of } Z$  $\{n \neq 1, n \neq 2, \ldots\} \models n \text{ is NOT a positive integer}$ 

 $S \models A$  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

$$\frac{A_1}{B}$$
 ...  $A_n$ 

We can use inference rules to construct finite proofs!



#### **Schematic Inference Rules**

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

- 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



## Why Should we use a Formal Language?

Consider this 'definition': (Berry's paradox)

The smallest positive integer not definable using nine words

Greater than The number of atoms in the Milky Way galaxy

This number is so large, it is greater than itself!

A formal language prevents ambiguity.



# **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.



# **Syntax of Propositional Logic**

P, Q, R, ... propositional letter

t true

**f** false

 $\neg A$  not A

 $A \wedge B$  A and B

 $A \vee B$  A or B

 $A \rightarrow B$  if A then B

 $A \leftrightarrow B$  A if and only if B



## **Semantics of Propositional Logic**

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

					$A \rightarrow B$	
1	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	1	0
0	0	1	0	0	1 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**

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

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



#### **Equivalences**

$$A \wedge A \simeq A$$
 $A \wedge B \simeq B \wedge A$ 
 $(A \wedge B) \wedge C \simeq A \wedge (B \wedge C)$ 
 $A \vee (B \wedge C) \simeq (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$ 
 $A \wedge f \simeq f$ 
 $A \wedge t \simeq A$ 
 $A \wedge \neg A \simeq f$ 

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  $\land$ ,  $\lor$ ,  $\neg$ :

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

$$A \rightarrow B \simeq \neg A \vee B$$

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

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

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

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



#### From NNF to Conjunctive Normal Form

3. Push disjunctions in, using distributive laws:

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

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

- 4. Simplify:
  - Delete any disjunction containing P and ¬P
  - Delete any disjunction that includes another: for example, in (P \( \times Q \)) \( \times P, \text{ delete P \( \times Q \).
  - 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  $P \mapsto t$ ,  $Q \mapsto f$ ,  $R \mapsto f$ 



## 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: 
$$\mathbf{t} \wedge \mathbf{t}$$



## A Simple Proof System

Axiom Schemes

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

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

DN 
$$\neg \neg A \rightarrow A$$

Inference Rule: Modus Ponens

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



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

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

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

$$A \to ((D \to A) \to A)$$
 by K (2)

$$(A \rightarrow (D \rightarrow A)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A) \text{ by MP, (1), (2)}$$

$$A \to (D \to A)$$
 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  $S \vdash A \rightarrow B$ .



## **Gentzen's Natural Deduction Systems**

The context of assumptions may vary.

Each logical connective is defined independently.

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

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

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

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



## **The Sequent Calculus**

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

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

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



#### **Sequent Calculus Rules**

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

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

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



#### **More Sequent Calculus Rules**

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

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



#### **Easy Sequent Calculus Proofs**

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

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



#### Part of a Distributive Law

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

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

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

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



#### A Failed Proof

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

$$\frac{A \Rightarrow B, C}{A \lor B \Rightarrow B, C} \xrightarrow{(\lor r)}$$

$$\Rightarrow (A \lor B) \rightarrow (B \lor C) \xrightarrow{(\to r)}$$

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



## **Outline of First-Order Logic**

Reasons about functions and relations over a set of individuals:

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

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.

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.

We can easily prove the equivalence of mathematical functions:

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

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

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

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

The prover ACL2 uses this logic to do 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

#### Syntactic variations:

 $\forall xyzA$  abbreviates  $\forall x \forall y \forall zA$ 

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

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



#### The Expressiveness of Quantifiers

All men are mortal:

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

All mothers are female:

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

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

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



### 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.



# Constants: Interpreting mortal(Socrates)

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

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

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

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

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

P an n-place relation symbol  $I[P] \in D^n \rightarrow \{1,0\}$ 

# **Variables: Interpreting** father(y)

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

V and  $\mathcal I$  together determine the value of any term t, by recursion.

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

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

$$\mathcal{I}_{V}[c] \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} I[c]$$

$$\mathcal{I}_{V}[f(t_{1},\ldots,t_{n})]\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} I[f](\mathcal{I}_{V}[t_{1}],\ldots,\mathcal{I}_{V}[t_{n}])$$



#### **Tarski's Truth-Definition**

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

Quantifiers are the only problem, as they bind variables.

 $V\{\alpha/x\}$  is the valuation that maps x to  $\alpha$  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.



## The Meaning of Truth—In FOL!

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

$$\models_{\mathcal{I},V} P(t)$$
 if  $I[P](\mathcal{I}_V[t])$  equals 1 (is true)

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

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

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

Finally, we define

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

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:

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

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

We may rename bound variables without affecting the meaning:

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



#### **Substitution for Free Variables**

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

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

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  $\lor$ 



## **Further Quantifier Equivalences**

These hold only if x is not free in B.

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

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

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

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



## **Reasoning by Equivalences**

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

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

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

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

$$\simeq \mathbf{t}$$



# Sequent Calculus Rules for $\forall$

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

Rule  $(\forall \iota)$  can create many instances of  $\forall x A$ 

Rule  $(\forall r)$  holds provided x is not free in the conclusion!

Not allowed to prove

$$\frac{P(y) \Rightarrow P(y)}{P(y) \Rightarrow \forall y \ P(y)} \ \ \text{This is nonsense!}$$



## A Simple Example of the $\forall$ Rules

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



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

$$\frac{\overline{P \Rightarrow Q(y), P} \quad \overline{P, Q(y) \Rightarrow Q(y)}}{P, P \rightarrow Q(y) \Rightarrow Q(y)} \xrightarrow{(\rightarrow l)} \\ \frac{P, \forall x (P \rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow Q(y)}{P, \forall x (P \rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow \forall y Q(y)} \xrightarrow{(\forall r)} \\ \frac{P, \forall x (P \rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow \forall y Q(y)}{\forall x (P \rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow P \rightarrow \forall y Q(y)} \xrightarrow{(\rightarrow r)}$$

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



## **Sequent Calculus Rules for** $\exists$

$$\frac{A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{\exists x \, A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} \quad (\exists 1) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A[t/x]}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, \exists x \, A} \quad (\exists r)$$

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** ∃ **Distributive Law**

$$\frac{\frac{P(x) \Rightarrow P(x), Q(x)}{P(x) \Rightarrow P(x) \vee Q(x)}}{\frac{P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ (P(y) \vee Q(y))}{P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ (P(y) \vee Q(y))}} \xrightarrow{(\exists r)} \frac{\text{similar}}{\exists x \ Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ \dots} \xrightarrow{(\forall l)} \frac{\exists x \ P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y \ (P(y) \vee Q(y))}$$

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

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

We cannot use (∃1) 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

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

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

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

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

Empty clause:  $\{\}$  or  $\square$ 

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  $A_1 \land \cdots \land A_m$
- 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.



## 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; stop if a model is found

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



## **DPLL** on a Non-Tautology

Consider  $P \lor Q \to Q \lor R$ 

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

$$\{P,Q\}$$
  $\{\neg Q\}$   $\{\neg R\}$  initial clauses  $\{P\}$   $\{\neg R\}$  unit  $\neg Q$   $\{\neg R\}$  unit  $P$  (also pure) unit  $\neg R$  (also pure)

All clauses deleted! Clauses satisfiable by  $P \mapsto t$ ,  $Q \mapsto f$ ,  $R \mapsto f$ 



# **Example of a Case Split on P**

Both cases yield contradictions: the clauses are inconsistent!



#### **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  $\vee$  A and  $\neg$ B  $\vee$  C infer A  $\vee$  C

In set notation,

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

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

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

$$\frac{\{B\} \qquad \{\neg B\}}{\Box}$$



# Simple Example: Proving $P \land Q \rightarrow Q \land P$

Hint: use  $\neg(A \rightarrow B) \simeq A \land \neg B$ 

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

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

$$(P \wedge Q) \wedge (\neg Q \vee \neg P)$$

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.



#### **Heuristics and Hacks for Resolution**

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**

NNF: Eliminate all connectives except  $\vee$ ,  $\wedge$  and  $\neg$ 

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



# Skolemization, or Getting Rid of $\exists$

Start with a formula in NNF, with quantifiers nested like this:

$$\forall x_1 (\cdots \forall x_2 (\cdots \forall x_k (\cdots \exists y A \cdots) \cdots) \cdots)$$

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

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

Repeat until no ∃ quantifiers remain



## **Example of Conversion to Clauses**

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

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

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

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

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



#### **Correctness of Skolemization**

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

 $\iff$  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  $D \to D$  yields suitable values of y

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

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



## The Herbrand Universe for a Set of Clauses S

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

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

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

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

 $H_i$  contains just the terms with at most i nested function applications.

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



#### 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.



## The Inspiration for Clause Methods

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!

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 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)	j(x, x, z)
f(a, y)	f(a,b)	f(y,g(y))	j(w, a, 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**

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

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**

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

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**

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

( $\sigma$  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.)



## **The Factoring Rule**

This inference collapses unifiable literals in one clause:

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

Example: 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  $\{P, \neg Q(b)\}\ \{P, Q(x)\}\ \{\neg P, \neg Q(x)\}\ \{\neg P, Q(\alpha)\}$ 

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

Factor  $\{P, P\}$ 

getting {P}

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

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

getting {¬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

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



## **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

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

The single goal clause is like the "execution stack", with say  $\mathfrak{m}$  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)



# 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

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

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

•

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

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



## **A Survey of Automatic Theorem Provers**

First-order Resolution: E, SPASS, Vampire, ...

Higher-Order Logic: TPS, LEO and LEO-II, Satallax

Model Elimination: Prolog Technology Theorem Prover, SETHEO

(historical)

Parallel ME: PARTHENON, PARTHEO

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



#### **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).



## **Solvable Decision Problems**

Propositional formulas are decidable: use the DPLL algorithm.

Linear arithmetic formulas are decidable:

- ullet comparisons using + and but imes 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.



#### **Fourier-Motzkin Variable Elimination**

Decides conjunctions of linear constraints over reals/rationals

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j} \leq b_{i}$$

Eliminate variables one-by-one until one remains, or contradiction

Devised by Fourier (1826) — resembles Gaussian elimination

One of the first decision procedures to be implemented

Worst-case complexity:  $O(m^{2^n})$ 



## **Basic Idea: Upper and Lower Bounds**

To eliminate variable  $x_n$ , consider constraint i, for i = 1, ..., m:

Define  $\beta_i = b_i - \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} \alpha_{ij} x_j$ . Rewrite constraint i:

If 
$$a_{in} > 0$$
 then  $x_n \le \frac{\beta_i}{a_{in}}$ 

if 
$$a_{in} < 0$$
 then  $-x_n \le -\frac{\beta_i}{a_{in}}$ 

Adding two such constraints yields  $0 \le \frac{\beta_i}{a_{in}} - \frac{\beta_{i'}}{a_{i'n}}$ 

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 
$$x \le y \qquad z \le 0 \qquad 0 \le -1 \qquad \text{UNSAT}$$
 
$$x \le z \qquad y + z \le 0 \qquad y \le -1$$
 
$$-x + y + 2z \le 0$$
 
$$-z \le -1 \qquad -z \le -1$$



## **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.)

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

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!



#### **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:

$$\exists x [ax^2 + bx + c = 0] \iff$$

$$b^2 \ge 4ac \land (c = 0 \lor a \ne 0 \lor b^2 > 4ac)$$

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

Sometimes, they can cooperate to decide combinations of theories.



## **Problem: To Combine Theories with Boolean Logic**

These procedures expect existentially quantified conjunctions.

Formulas must be converted to disjunctive normal form.

Universal quantifiers must be eliminated using  $\forall x A \simeq \neg(\exists x (\neg A))$ .

Could there be a better way? Couldn't we somehow use DPLL?



## **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.



## **SMT Example**

$$\{c = 0, 2a < b\} \ \{b < a\} \ \{3a > 2, a < 0\} \ \{c \neq 0, \neg(b < a)\}$$

$$\{c=0,2a< b\}$$
  $\{3a>2,a< 0\}$   $\{c\neq 0\}$  unit  $b< a$   $\{2a< b\}$   $\{3a>2,a< 0\}$  unit  $c\neq 0$   $\{3a>2,a< 0\}$  unit  $a>0$  unit  $a>0$ 

Now a case split returns a "model":  $b < a, c \neq 0, 2a < b, 3a > 2$ 

But the dec. proc. finds these contradictory and returns a new clause:

$$\{\neg(b < a), \neg(2a < b), \neg(3a > 2)\}\$$

Finally, we get a true model:  $b < a \land c \neq 0 \land 2a < b \land a < 0$ 



## **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



## **BDDs: Binary Decision Diagrams**

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

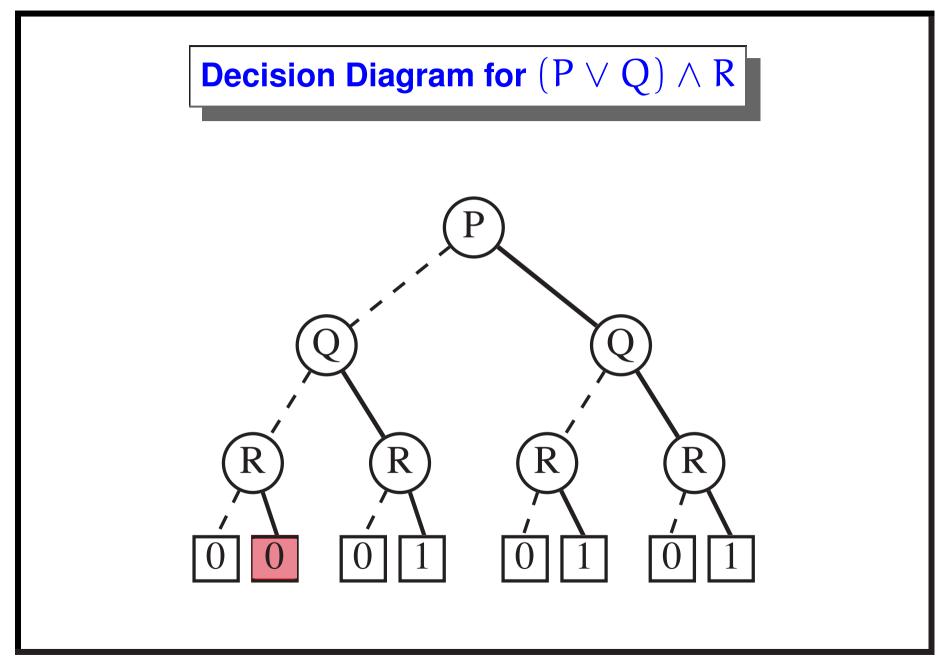
- ordered propositional symbols (the variables)
- sharing of identical subtrees
- hashing and other optimisations

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

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

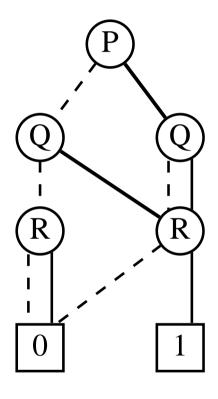
Excellent for verifying digital circuits, with many other applications.



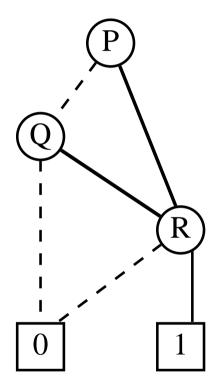




# **Converting a Decision Diagram to a BDD**



No duplicates



No redundant tests



## **Building BDDs Efficiently**

Do not construct the full binary tree!

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

- Recursively convert operands to BDDs.
- Combine operand BDDs, respecting the ordering and sharing.
- Delete redundant variable tests.



## **Canonical Form Algorithm**

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** $(P, X \wedge X', Y \wedge Y')$ .
- If P < P' then recursively convert **if** $(P, X \wedge Z', Y \wedge Z')$ .
- If P > P' then recursively convert **if** $(P', Z \wedge X', Z \wedge Y')$ .



#### **Canonical Forms of Other Connectives**

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

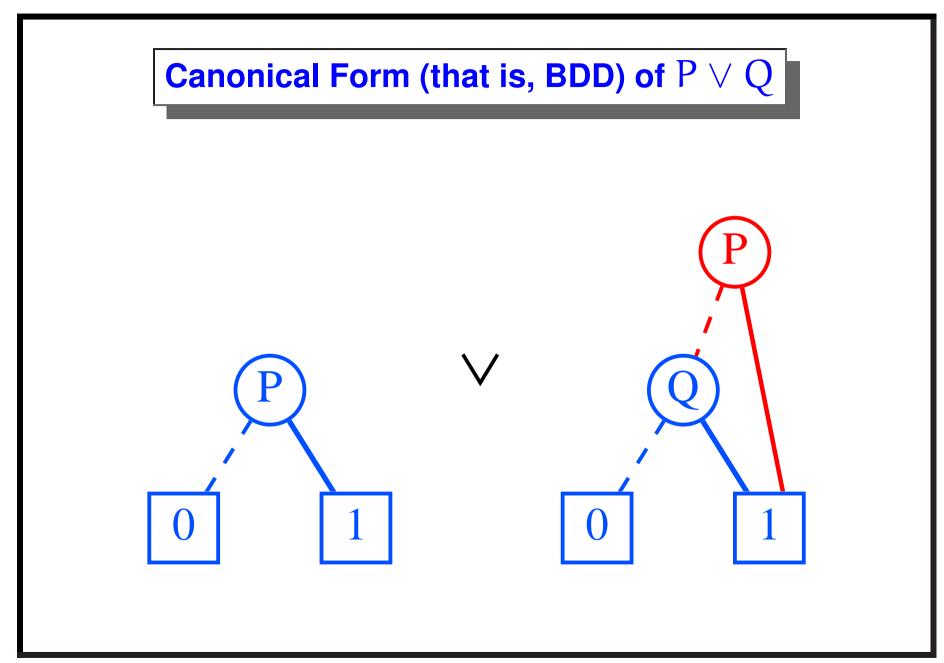
Some cases, like  $Z \rightarrow 0$  and  $Z \leftrightarrow 0$ , reduce to negation.

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

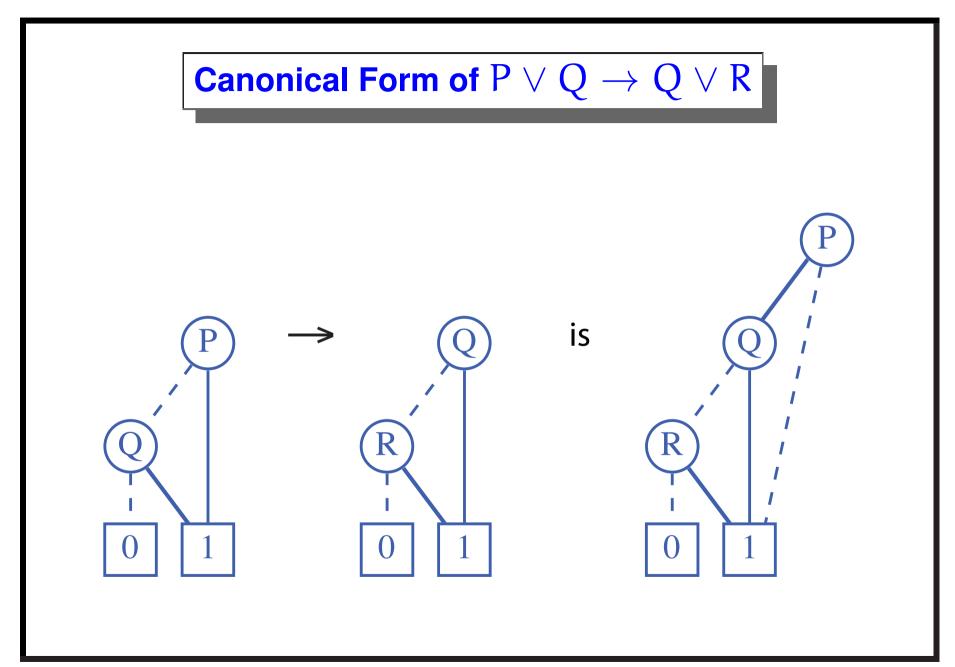
- If Z = if(P, X, Y) then recursively convert  $if(P, \neg X, \neg Y)$ .
- if Z = 1 then return 0, and if Z = 0 then return 1.

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











# **Optimisations**

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

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

Never convert  $X \wedge Y$  twice, but keep a hash table of known canonical forms. This prevents redundant computations.



#### **Final Observations**

The variable ordering is crucial. Consider this formula:

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

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).



## **Modal Operators**

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

R: accessibility relation between worlds

(W, R) is called a modal frame

 $\Box A$  means A is necessarily true

 $\Diamond A$  means A is possibly true

in all worlds accessible from here

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

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

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

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

All propositional tautologies are universally valid!



# A Hilbert-Style Proof System for K

Extend your favourite propositional proof system with

Dist 
$$\Box(A \to B) \to (\Box A \to \Box B)$$

Inference Rule: Necessitation

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

Treat ♦ as a definition

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



### **Variant Modal Logics**

Start with pure modal logic, which is called K

Add axioms to constrain the accessibility relation:

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

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

B  $A \rightarrow \Box \Diamond A$  (symmetric) logic S5

And countless others!

We mainly look at S4, which resembles a logic of time.



## **Extra Sequent Calculus Rules for** S4

$$\frac{A,\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta}{\Box A,\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} \ (\Box 1) \qquad \frac{\Gamma^* \Rightarrow \Delta^*,A}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta,\Box A} \ (\Box r)$$

$$\frac{A, \Gamma^* \Rightarrow \Delta^*}{\Diamond A, \Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta} \stackrel{(\lozenge 1)}{\longrightarrow} \frac{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, A}{\Gamma \Rightarrow \Delta, \Diamond A} \stackrel{(\lozenge r)}{\longrightarrow}$$

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

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



#### **A Proof of the Distribution Axiom**

$$\frac{A \Rightarrow B, A \qquad B, A \Rightarrow B}{A \rightarrow B, A \Rightarrow B} \xrightarrow{(\neg l)}$$

$$\frac{A \rightarrow B, A \Rightarrow B}{A \rightarrow B, \Box A \Rightarrow B} \xrightarrow{(\Box l)}$$

$$\Box (A \rightarrow B), \Box A \Rightarrow B$$

$$\Box (A \rightarrow B), \Box A \Rightarrow \Box B$$

$$\Box (\Box r)$$

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  $\Box$   $\Diamond$   $\Box$   $\Diamond$   $\Box$   $\Diamond$   $\Box$   $\Diamond$   $\Box$   $\Diamond$ 



#### **Two Failed Proofs**

$$\frac{\Rightarrow A}{\Rightarrow \Diamond A} \xrightarrow{(\Diamond r)} A \Rightarrow \Box \Diamond A$$

$$\frac{B \Rightarrow A \land B}{B \Rightarrow \Diamond(A \land B)} \stackrel{(\diamondsuitr)}{\Leftrightarrow A, \diamondsuit B \Rightarrow \Diamond(A \land B)} \stackrel{(\diamondsuitl)}{\Leftrightarrow l}$$

Can extract a countermodel from the proof attempt



## **Simplifying the Sequent Calculus**

7 connectives (or 9 for modal logic):

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

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

Idea! Work in Negation Normal Form

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

Sequents need one side only!



### **Tableau Calculus: Left-Only**

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

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

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

Rule  $(\exists \iota)$  holds provided  $\chi$  is not free in the conclusion!



### **Tableau Rules for S4**

$$\frac{A,\Gamma\Rightarrow}{\Box A,\Gamma\Rightarrow} \ (\Box 1) \qquad \frac{A,\Gamma^*\Rightarrow}{\Diamond A,\Gamma\Rightarrow} \ (\Diamond 1)$$

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



Tableau Proof of 
$$\forall x (P \rightarrow Q(x)) \rightarrow [P \rightarrow \forall y \ Q(y)]$$

Negate and convert to NNF:

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

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



#### The Free-Variable Tableau Calculus

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

$$\frac{A[z/x], \Gamma \Rightarrow}{\forall x A, \Gamma \Rightarrow} (\forall 1)$$

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

Recall e.g. that we Skolemize

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

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



# Free-Variable Tableau Proof of $\exists x \forall y [P(x) \rightarrow P(y)]$

$$\frac{P(y), \neg P(f(y)), P(z), \neg P(f(z)) \Rightarrow}{P(y), \neg P(f(y)), P(z) \land \neg P(f(z)) \Rightarrow} (\land l)$$

$$\frac{P(y), \neg P(f(y)), P(z) \land \neg P(f(z)) \Rightarrow}{P(y), \neg P(f(y)), \forall x [P(x) \land \neg P(f(x))] \Rightarrow} (\land l)$$

$$\frac{P(y) \land \neg P(f(y)), \forall x [P(x) \land \neg P(f(x))] \Rightarrow}{\forall x [P(x) \land \neg P(f(x))] \Rightarrow} (\forall l)$$

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



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

$$\frac{y \mapsto a}{\neg P(a), \neg Q(b), P(y) \Rightarrow} \frac{y \mapsto b???}{\neg P(a), \neg Q(b), Q(y) \Rightarrow} \frac{\neg P(a), \neg Q(b), P(y) \vee Q(y) \Rightarrow}{\neg P(a), \neg Q(b), \forall x [P(x) \vee Q(x)] \Rightarrow} (\forall l)$$



#### 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)], UnExpl),
         prove (Fml1, UnExp1, Lits, [X1|FreeV], VarLim).
prove(Lit, , [L|Lits], , ) :-
                                                       literals; negation
         (Lit = -\text{Neg}; -\text{Lit} = \text{Neg}) ->
         (unify(Neg,L); prove(Lit,[],Lits,_,_)).
prove(Lit, [Next|UnExp], Lits, FreeV, VarLim) :- next formula
         prove (Next, UnExp, [Lit|Lits], FreeV, VarLim).
```

