# Logic

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# Logic

Lecture:

Mi 11.45 - 13.15 Uhr 52-207

- Informations http://concurrency.informatik.uni-kl.de/teaching.html
- The lecture is based on the German script Einführung in die Logik
- Links to English lecture notes can be found on the lecture website

## Organizational Matters

Exercise sheets:

- One sheet every two weeks
- Sheets are handed out on Wednesday, and are to be handed in on Friday (one week later) in the box near room 401 and the SoftTech workgroup
- Groups of three people, first sheet is handed out today

Exercises:

- Alternating sheet exercises and presence exercises
- First exercise: next week (presence exercise)
- Registration starting 14:00 today, via the STATS system
- Tutors: Martin Köhler, Jonathan Kolberg, Elisabeth Neumann, Albert Schimpf

Requirements for admission to the final exam:

- Participation in the exercises (mandatory)
- At least 60% of the exercises on the sheets solved with +
- Presentation of one solution at the blackboard
- Passed the midterm exam (in the 1st or 2nd try)

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## Introduction

Methods for solving problems with the help of computers Formalization

• Logic: Science of sound reasoning or Science of the formal relations between thought contents.

**Central questions:** <u>Truth</u> and <u>provability</u> of statements  $\rightsquigarrow$  **mathemathical logic**.

- Logic in computer science:
  - Propositional logic: Boolean algebra. Logical circuits (control systems), optimization. SAT can be found everywhere.
  - **Predicate logic**: Reasoning about data (AI, IS, SE).
  - Modal and temporal logic: Specification and verification (hardware, since 2000 software).

# Logic in Computer Science

- Semantics of programming languages (Hoare logic).
- Specification of functional properties.
- Verification process in software development.
   Proofs of program properties.
- Representation of data (Predicate Abstraction).
- Dedicated programming languages (PROLOG)

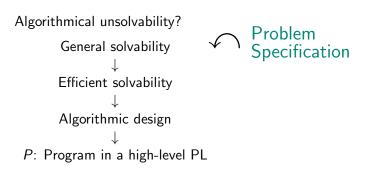
#### Automation of logical reasoning

- Mechanized proofs (Methods,...)
- Foundations of information systems (Processing of knowledge, reasoning,...)

### Requirements

- Mathematical foundations. Sets, relations, functions. Formalizations: Mathematical proofs, mathematical language, i.e. usage and meaning of the common operators of naïve logic. Also the meaning of not, and, or, if ... then, if and only if, exists, for all
- Foundations for the description of formal languages. Grammars or more generally calculi (set of objects and rules for the generation of new objects from existing objects), generation of sets, relations and functions, closure operators (closure of sets with respect to relations).
- Concepts of calculability, i.e. decidable, and recursively enumerable sets, existence of undecidable sets and uncalculable functions.

Computation Models / Programming Languages



# Syntactic and Semantic Verification

#### • Syntactic analysis

Chomsky hierarchy of languages Context-free languages Grammars / production process

#### • Program verification

Does *P* work as expected? (Requirements) specification and (program) verification.

# Typical Expressions

- (x+1)(y-2)/5 Terms as identifiers of objects.
- 3 + 2 = 5 Equations as special formulae
- "'29 is (not) a prime"' Statement.
- "'3 + 2 = 5 and 29 is not a prime"' Statement.
- "'if 29 is not a prime, then 0 = 1 is true"' Statement.
- "'every even number larger than two is the sum of two primes"' Statement.
- $2 \le x$  and  $(\forall y \in \mathbb{N})$  $((2 \le y \text{ and } y + 1 \le x) \rightarrow \operatorname{not}(\exists z \in \mathbb{N})y * z = x)$  Statement.

# Typical Expressions (Cont.)

- $(\forall X \subseteq \mathbb{N})(0 \in X \land (\forall x \in \mathbb{N})(x \in X \to x + 1 \in X) \to X = \mathbb{N})$ Principle of mathemathical induction.
- (∀X ⊆ ℕ)(X ≠ Ø → X has a minimal element)
   Every nonempty set of natural numbers contains a minimal element.

#### Binary logic Every statement is either true or false.

- There are also other options (many-valued logic).
- First-order predicate logic (PL1): Only properties of elements and quantification of element variables are allowed.

# Chapter I

# **Propositional Logic**

# **Propositional Logic**

### • Structure of propositions $\rightsquigarrow$ Syntax

### • Meaning of propositions $\rightsquigarrow$ **Semantics** true (1), false (0)

# Syntax of Propositional Logic

### Definition 1.1 (Syntax)

Consider the alphabet  $\Sigma = V \cup O \cup K$  with

 $V = \{p_1, p_2, ...\}$  a countable set of propositional variables,  $O = \{\neg/_1, \wedge/_2, \vee/_2, \rightarrow /_2, \leftrightarrow /_2\}$  operators with arities (connectives),

 $K = \{(,)\}$  brackets (auxiliary symbols).

The set of statement forms (formulae of propositional logic)  $F \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is inductively defined by:

•  $V \subseteq F$  set of **atomic propositions** 

② If  $A, B \in F$  then  $(\neg A), (A \land B), (A \lor B), (A \to B), (A \leftrightarrow B) \in F$ .

Inductive definitions implicitly use the hull operator: F is the smallest set that contains V and satisfies 2. This addendum is often omitted.

## Structural Induction

Properties of elements in F are proven by **structural induction**, i.e. induction over the structure of formulae.

Let for example  $f : F \times \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  be defined by

f(A, i) := Number of opening (minus number of closing brackets) in the first *i* letters of *A*.

The following statement can be proven via structural induction:

Lemma 1.2

For every formula  $A \in F$  and for all  $1 \le i < |A|$  it is f(A, i) > 0. Moreover, f(A, |A|) = 0.

Corollary 1.3

Let  $A \in F$  and  $B \in \Sigma^*$  a true prefix of A. Then  $B \notin F$ .

#### Theorem 1.4 (Uniqueness Theorem)

Every formula  $A \in F$  is either atomic or can be uniquely represented as  $A \equiv (\neg A_1)$  or  $A \equiv (A_1 * A_2)$  with  $* \in \{\land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$  and  $A_1, A_2 \in F$ .

Here  $\equiv \subseteq \Sigma^* \times \Sigma^*$  is the syntactical equality of words, so the formulae are identical letter for letter.

### Conventions: Abbreviations and Priorities

Examples for formulae in proposition logic are

$$p_1, p_{101}, (((p_1 \rightarrow p_2) \land (\neg p_2)) \rightarrow (\neg p_1)), (p_1 \lor (\neg p_1))$$

- Omit outer brackets
- For improved readability: Priorities:  $\neg, \land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$

$$\begin{array}{ll} A \wedge B \to C & \text{stands for} & ((A \wedge B) \to C) \\ A \vee B \wedge C & \text{stands for} & (A \vee (B \wedge C)) \\ \neg A \vee B \wedge C & \text{stands for} & ((\neg A) \vee (B \wedge C)) \\ A \vee B \vee C & \text{stands for} & ((A \vee B) \vee C) & (\text{left-first bracketing}). \end{array}$$

## Semantics

### Definition 1.5 (Valuation)

A valuation of propositional formulae is a function  $\varphi : F \to \mathbb{B} := \{0, 1\}$ , so that:

$$\varphi(\neg A) = 1 - \varphi(A)$$
  

$$\varphi(A \lor B) = max(\varphi(A), \varphi(B))$$
  

$$\varphi(A \land B) = min(\varphi(A), \varphi(B))$$
  

$$\varphi(A \rightarrow B) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \varphi(A) = 1 \text{ and } \varphi(B) = 0 \\ 1 & \text{else} \end{cases}$$
  

$$\varphi(A \leftrightarrow B) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \varphi(A) \neq \varphi(B) \\ 1 & \text{if } \varphi(A) = \varphi(B) \end{cases}$$

- We say: A is false under φ, if φ(A) = 0
   A is true under φ or φ satisfies A, if φ(A) = 1.
- Notation of valuations using truth tables:

		Α	В	$A \lor B$	$A \wedge B$	$A \rightarrow B$	$A \leftrightarrow B$
Α	$\neg A$	0	0	0	0	1	1
1	0 1	0	1	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1	0	0	0
	•	1	1	1	1	1	1

- An assignment of the variables V is a function  $\psi: V \to \mathbb{B}$ .
- Every valuation induces a unique assignment:  $\psi(p_i) := \varphi(p_i)$ .

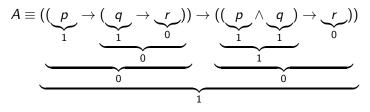
#### Lemma 1.6

Every assignment  $\psi : V \to \mathbb{B}$  can be extended to a valuation  $\varphi : F \to \mathbb{B}$  in exactly one way. In particular, every valuation is uniquely determined by the values of V.

#### Consequence 1.7

The valuation of a statement form  $A \in F$  depends only on the values of the propositional variables from V that occur in it. I.e. if one wants to compute  $\varphi(A)$ , it suffices to know the values  $\varphi(p)$  for all propositional variables p occurring in A.

Example: Let φ(p) = 1, φ(q) = 1, φ(r) = 0. φ(A) can be computed iteratively:



So 
$$\varphi(A) = 1$$
.

Which values does  $\varphi(A)$  attain, when  $\varphi$  runs through all assignments? *A* defines a boolean function  $f_A : \mathbb{B}^n \to \mathbb{B}$ .

- Is  $\varphi(A) = 1$  for all assignments  $\varphi$ ?
- It suffices to check the **finitely** many assignments of the variables occurring in *A*.
- If n variables occur in A, there are  $2^n$  different assignments.
- Example: For the three variables *p*, *q* and *r* from the example above, there are 8 assignments that must be considered.

р	q	r	q  ightarrow r	$p \wedge q$	p  ightarrow (q  ightarrow r)	$(p \wedge q)  ightarrow r$	Α
0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1
1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

A is true independently of the values of p, q, r, i.e. for every valuation  $\varphi$ . Other such formulae are:

 $(A \to (B \to A)), (A \to (B \to C)) \to ((A \to B) \to (A \to C)) \text{ or } ((\neg A \to \neg B) \to (B \to A)).$ 

## Important Terms

#### Definition 1.8

Let  $A \in F$ ,  $\Sigma \subseteq F$ .

- 1.(a) A is called **tautology** (valid), if  $\varphi(A) = 1$  for every valuation  $\varphi$ . (Notation  $\models A$ )
  - (b) A is satisfiable, if there is a valuation  $\varphi$  so that  $\varphi(A) = 1$ .
  - (c) A is contradictory, if  $\varphi(A) = 0$  for every valuation  $\varphi$ .
  - (d) TAUT :=  $\{A \in F \mid A \text{ is tautology}\}$  the set of tautologies.
  - (e) SAT :=  $\{A \in F \mid A \text{ is satisfiable}\}$  the set of satisfiable formulae. Note that TAUT  $\subseteq$  SAT.

# Definition (Cont.)

- 2.(a)  $\Sigma$  is satisfiable, if there is a valuation  $\varphi$  with  $\varphi(A) = 1$  for all  $A \in \Sigma$ . ( $\varphi$  satisfies  $\Sigma$ )
  - (b) Semantic notion of inference: A is logical consequence of Σ, if φ(A) = 1 for every valuation φ that satisfies Σ.

We write  $\Sigma \models A$ . Also  $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models A$ , if  $\Sigma = \{A_1, \ldots, A_n\}$ .

(c) The set  $Cons(\Sigma)$  of consequences of  $\Sigma$  is defined by:

$$\mathsf{Cons}(\Sigma) := \{A \in F \mid \Sigma \models A\}.$$

## Examples

### Example 1.9

- $(p \lor (\neg p))$ ,  $((p \to q) \lor (q \to r))$ ,  $p \to (q \to p)$ ,  $(p \to p)$ ,  $(p \to \neg \neg p)$ and A from consequence 1.7 are tautologies.
- **2**  $(p \land (\neg p))$  is contradictory.
- **(** $p \land q$ **)** is satisfiable, but neither a tautology nor a contradiction.
- Let Σ = {p} and A = p ∨ q. Then Σ ⊨ A, because if φ(p) = 1, then also φ(p ∨ q) = 1. Every valuation that satisfies Σ, also satisfies A.

## Consequences

#### Lemma 1.10

- (a) A valid iff  $\neg A$  contradictory.
- (b)  $\emptyset \models A$  iff A is a tautology:  $Cons(\emptyset) = TAUT$ .
- (c) If  $\Sigma$  is not satisfiable, then  $\Sigma \models A$  for all  $A \in F$ : Cons $(\Sigma) = F$ . In particular,  $\Sigma \models A$  and  $\Sigma \models \neg A$  for  $A \in F$ .
- (d) Let  $\Sigma \subseteq \Sigma'$ . If  $\Sigma'$  is satisfiable, then  $\Sigma$  is also satisfiable.
- (e)  $\Sigma \subseteq Cons(\Sigma)$  and  $Cons(Cons(\Sigma)) = Cons(\Sigma)$ .
- (f) If  $\Sigma \subseteq \Sigma'$ , then  $Cons(\Sigma) \subseteq Cons(\Sigma')$ .
- (g)  $\Sigma \models A$  iff  $\Sigma \cup \{\neg A\}$  unsatisfiable.
- (h) If Σ is finite, then it is decidable whether Σ is satisfiable, and the set Cons(Σ) ist decidable.
- (i) The sets TAUT, SAT are decidable.

Deduction Theorem and Modus Ponens

Lemma 1.11

a) **Deduction theorem** (semantic version):

 $\Sigma, A \models B$  iff  $\Sigma \models (A \rightarrow B)$ .

 $(\Sigma, A \text{ is shorthand for } \Sigma \cup \{A\})$ 

b) Modus ponens:

$$\{A, A \to B\} \models B.$$

In particular, B is a tautology if A and  $(A \rightarrow B)$  are tautologies.

Compactness Theorem of Propositional Logic

### Theorem 1.12 (Compactness Theorem)

 $\Sigma \subseteq F$  is satisfiable iff every finite subset of  $\Sigma$  is satisfiable.  $\Sigma \subseteq F$  is unsatisfiable iff there is an unsatisfiable finite subset of  $\Sigma$ .

## Corollary 1.13 $\Sigma \models A$ iff there is a finite subset $\Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma$ with $\Sigma_0 \models A$ .

- The second part of the theorem is the basis for proof methods for  $\Sigma \models A$ . This is the case, if  $\Sigma \cup \{\neg A\}$  is unsatisfiable.
- Proofs by contradiction try to systematically find a finite set  $\Sigma_0 \subseteq \Sigma$  so that  $\Sigma_0 \cup \{\neg A\}$  is unsatisfiable.

## Applications for the Compactness Theorem

#### Example 1.14

Let  $\Sigma \subseteq F$ . If for every valuation  $\varphi$  there is a  $A \in \Sigma$  with  $\varphi(A) = 1$ , then there are  $A_1, ..., A_n \in \Sigma$  (n > 0) with  $\models A_1 \lor ... \lor A_n$ .

• Consider the set  $\Sigma' = \{\neg A \in F \mid A \in \Sigma\}$ , which is unsatisfiable. Hence there is a finite nonempty subset  $\{\neg A_1, ..., \neg A_n\}$  of  $\Sigma'$  that is unsatisfiable.

Thus, for every valuation  $\varphi$  there is an *i* with  $\varphi(\neg A_i) = 0$ . So we have  $\varphi(A_i) = 1$  and thus  $\varphi(A_1 \lor ... \lor A_n) = 1$ .

# Logical Equivalence

### Definition 1.15 (Logical Equivalence)

Formulae  $A, B \in F$  are called **logically equivalent**,  $A \models B$ , if for every valuation  $\varphi$  we have  $\varphi(A) = \varphi(B)$ .

Examples of logically equivalent formulae:

(Involution)	$A \models \neg (\neg A)$	
(Idempotence)	$A\models\!\!\!=\!\!\! A\wedge A$	$A \models A \lor A$
(Commutativity)	$A \wedge B \models B \wedge A$	$A \lor B \models B \lor A$
(Associativity)	$A \wedge (B \wedge C) \models (A \wedge B) \wedge C$	
	$A \lor (B \lor C) \models (A \lor B) \lor C$	
(Distributivity)	$A \land (B \lor C) \models (A \land B) \lor (A \land C)$	
	$A \lor (B \land C) \models (A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$	

# Logical Equivalence (Cont.)

$$(De Morgan) \neg (A \land B) \models \neg A \lor \neg B \qquad \neg (A \lor B) \models \neg A \land \neg B$$
$$A \rightarrow B \models \neg A \lor B \qquad A \leftrightarrow B \models (A \rightarrow B) \land (B \rightarrow A)$$
$$A \land B \models \neg (A \rightarrow \neg B) \qquad A \lor B \models \neg A \rightarrow B$$

#### Lemma 1.16

Logical equivalence  $\models G \times F$  is an equivalence relation, that means it is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

It is even a congruence: if one replaces a subformula B in formula A by  $C \models B$ , the result is  $A' \models A$ .

Logical Equivalence (Cont.)

#### Lemma 1.17

The following statements are equivalent:

$$\models A \leftrightarrow B \qquad A \models B$$
$$A \models B \text{ and } B \models A \qquad Cons(A) = Cons(B)$$

#### Lemma 1.18

For every formula  $A \in F$  there are  $B, C, D \in F$  with

**1** 
$$A \models B$$
, B contains only  $\rightarrow$  and  $\neg$  as connectives

② 
$$A \models= C, C$$
 contains only ∧ and ¬ as connectives

**③**  $A \models D$ , *D* contains only ∨ and ¬ as connectives

Results from the equivalences above.

# Logical Equivalence (Cont.)

### Definition 1.19 (Complete Sets of Operators)

A set  $OP \subseteq \{\neg, \lor, \land, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$  is called **complete**, if for every  $A \in F$  there is a logically equivalent formula  $B \in F(OP)$ . Here F(OP) is the set of formulae with connectives from OP.

• Complete sets of operators for propositional logic are f.ex.:  $\{\neg, \rightarrow\}, \{\neg, \lor\}, \{\neg, \land\}, \{\neg, \lor, \land\}, \{\mathsf{false}, \rightarrow\}.$ 

Here false is a constant with  $\varphi(\text{false}) = 0$  for every valuation  $\varphi$ . Obviously  $\neg A \models (A \rightarrow \text{false})$ .

• Normal forms: DNF (Disjunctive normal form), CNF (Conjunctive normal form), CDNF, CCNF (Canonical forms).

## **Boolean Functions**

Every formula  $A(p_1,...,p_n)$  can be considered a boolean function  $f_A : \mathbb{B}^n \to \mathbb{B}$ , defined as  $f_A(b_1,...,b_n) := \varphi_{\overline{b}}(A)$  where  $\varphi_{\overline{b}}(p_i) := b_i$ .

- It can be shown that every boolean function  $f : \mathbb{B}^n \to \mathbb{B}$  (n > 0) in the above form can be represented by a formula  $A(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ , provided that the set of operators is complete.
- Boolean algebra has as its usual set of operators true, false, not, or, and.
- For other sets of operators, containing f.ex. **nand**, **nor**, see the digital logic. It favors nand and nor gates, as they require only two transistors.

## Boolean Functions: Example

A patient monitoring system gets certain data about a patient's condition: temperature, blood pressure, pulse rate. The threshold values for the data are as follows:

Conditions	
In/Outputs	Meaning
A	Temperature outside 36-39 degrees C.
В	Blood pressure outside 80-160 mm.
С	Pulse rate outside 60-120 beats per minute.
0	Alarm activation is necessary

## Boolean Functions: Example (Cont.)

The requirements, i.e. which combinations of values necessitate alarm activation, are determined by the medical expert. They are given in the l/Q table

	I/O	tab	le	
	Α	В	С	0
	0	0	0	0
	0	0	1	0
a tabla:	0	1	0	0
g table:	0	1	1	1
	1	0	0	0
	1	0	1	1
	1	1	0	1
	1	1	1	1

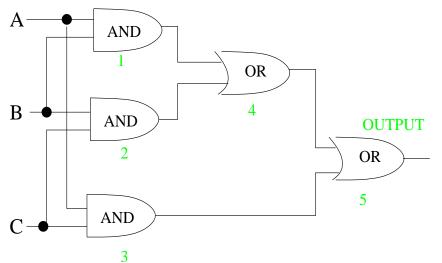
Logical Design: Consider the columns in which *O* has the value 1 and construct the CDNF:

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

followin

## Boolean Functions: Example (Cont.)

As a realization one could take the following combinatorial circuit: **INPUTS** 



## Deductive Perspective on Propositional Logic

This section deals with an axiomatic construction of propositional logic by means of a **deductive system** or **proof calculus**.

A syntactically correct formula in a deductive system is called theorem, if it can be derived by purely mechanical applications of the system's rules to its axioms.

There are deductive systems in which propositional formulae are theorems if and only if they are also tautologies.

## **Deductive Systems**

Definition 2.1 (Deductive System)

A deductive system  $\mathcal{F}(Ax, R)$  consists of

- an alphabet Δ,
- a set of formulae  $F \subseteq \Delta^*$ ,
- a set of axioms  $Ax \subseteq F$  and
- a set *R* of rules of the form  $\frac{A_1, \ldots, A_n}{A}$  with n > 0 and  $A_1, \ldots, A_n, A \in F$ .

The sets F, Ax and R are typically **decidable**.

# Deductive Systems (Cont.)

**Definition 2.2** The set  $T = T(\mathcal{F})$  of **theorems** is inductively defined by: **a**  $Ax \subseteq T$  all axioms are theorems **a** If  $A_1, \ldots, A_n \in T$  and  $\frac{A_1, \ldots, A_n}{A}$  in R, then  $A \in T$ . Write  $A \in T(\mathcal{F})$  as  $\vdash_{\mathcal{F}} A$  or  $\vdash A$  and say A is derivable in  $\mathcal{F}$ .

**Deductive notion of inference:** Let  $\Sigma \subseteq F$ ,  $A \in F$ . Then A in  $\mathcal{F}$  is derivable from  $\Sigma$ , short  $\Sigma \vdash_{\mathcal{F}(A_X,R)} A$ , if  $\vdash_{\mathcal{F}(A_X \cup \Sigma,R)} A$ . Also:

$$Cons_{\mathcal{F}}(\Sigma) := \{A \in F \mid \Sigma \vdash_{\mathcal{F}(A \times, R)} A\}.$$

 $\Sigma$  is called **consistent**, if there is no formula  $A \in F$  so that  $\Sigma \vdash A$  and  $\Sigma \vdash \neg A$ .

If such a formula exists, then  $\Sigma$  is called **inconsistent**.

### Proofs

Note 2.3

Formula A is derivable in  $\mathcal{F}$  if there is a finite sequence of formulae  $B_1, \ldots, B_n$  with  $A \equiv B_n$  and for  $1 \le i \le n$  we have:

$$B_i \in Ax$$
 or there are  $i_1, \ldots, i_l < i$  and  $\frac{B_{i_1} \ldots B_{i_l}}{B_i} \in R$ .

The sequence  $B_1, \ldots, B_n$  is also called **proof** for A in  $\mathcal{F}$ .

A finite sequence  $B_1, \ldots, B_n$  is called **abbreviated proof** for  $\Sigma \vdash B_n$ , if for  $1 \le j \le n$  we have:

 $\Sigma \vdash B_j$  or there are  $j_1, \ldots, j_r < j$  with  $B_{j_1}, \ldots, B_{j_r} \vdash B_j$ .

#### Lemma 2.4

 $\mathbf{O} \vdash A \text{ iff there is a proof for } A.$ 

**2** There is a proof for  $\Sigma \vdash A$  iff there is an abbreviated proof for  $\Sigma \vdash A$ .

## Note

### Note 2.5

- Properties of elements of T are proven by structural induction.
- The set T of theorems is recursively enumerable, since Ax and R are decidable and therefore enumerable.
- The set of proofs

$$\mathsf{Proof} := \{B_1, \dots, B_n \in F^+ \mid B_1, \dots, B_n \text{ is a proof}\}$$

is decidable.

If Σ is decidable, the statements are correspondingly true. In particular, Cons<sub>F</sub>(Σ) is enumerable.

# Note (Cont.)

### Lemma 2.6

If Σ ⊢ A, the definition of derivation implies that there is a finite subset Σ<sub>0</sub> ⊆ Σ with Σ<sub>0</sub> ⊢ A.

(This corresponds to the compactness theorem for  $\models$  .)

- If Σ is inconsistent, there is a finite subset Σ<sub>0</sub> ⊆ Σ which is inconsistent.
- If  $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ , then  $Cons_{\mathcal{F}}(\Sigma) \subseteq Cons_{\mathcal{F}}(\Gamma)$ .
- $\Sigma \vdash A$  and  $\Gamma \vdash B$  for all  $B \in \Sigma$  implies that  $\Gamma \vdash A$ . If  $\Sigma \subseteq Cons_{\mathcal{F}}(\Gamma)$ , then  $Cons_{\mathcal{F}}(\Sigma) \subseteq Cons_{\mathcal{F}}(\Gamma)$ . (Proofs can be composed.)
- If Σ ⊢ A, then {Σ, ¬A} is inconsistent. (Is the inverse true as well?)
- $T(\mathcal{F}) \subseteq Cons_{\mathcal{F}}(\Sigma)$  for every set  $\Sigma$ .

### Schemata

Is there a deductive system  $\mathcal{F}_0$  so that

 $\vdash_{\mathcal{F}_0} A$  iff  $\models A$ ?

For this purpose, Ax and R are often finitely described by means of schemata.

For example, the schema  $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$  describes the set

$$\{A_0 \to (B_0 \to A_0) \mid A_0, B_0 \in F\}$$
  
The schema  $\frac{A, A \to B}{B}$  describes the set of rules  
 $\{\frac{A_0, A_0 \to B_0}{B_0} \mid A_0, B_0 \in F\}.$ 

### The Deductive System $\mathcal{F}_0$

Introduced by Stephen Cole Kleene (1909 — 1994).

### Definition 2.7 (The deductive system $\mathcal{F}_0$ )

The deductive system  $\mathcal{F}_0$  for propositional logic consists of the set  $\mathcal{F}_0$  of formulae in  $V, \neg, \rightarrow, (\text{ and })$ . The set of axioms Ax is described by the following axiom schemata:

Ax1: 
$$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$$
  
Ax2:  $(A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)) \rightarrow ((A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C))$   
Ax3:  $(\neg A \rightarrow \neg B) \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$ 

The set of rules R is described by the rule schema

MP: 
$$\frac{A, (A \rightarrow B)}{B}$$
 (modus ponens).

### Notes on the Deductive System $\mathcal{F}_0$

- Ax1, Ax2 and Ax3 describe disjoint sets of formulae.
- Ax and *R* are decidable.
- All axioms are tautologies. Since those are closed under modus ponens, all theorems are tautologies: T(F<sub>0</sub>) ⊆ Taut(F<sub>0</sub>).
- The modus ponens rule is not unambiguous: A, A→B/B and A', A'→B/B derive the same formula. Makes it harder to find proofs.
  It suffices to consider only axioms for formulae in → and ¬. Other formulae are logically equivalent to these.

For proofs in the entire F, additional axioms are required, such as:

$$\mathsf{Ax1} \land :(A \land B) \to \neg(A \to \neg B) \quad \mathsf{Ax2} \land :\neg(A \to \neg B) \to (A \land B)$$

## Example

### Example 2.8

For all  $A \in F_0$  we have  $\vdash (A \rightarrow A)$ , so  $(A \rightarrow A) \in T(\mathcal{F}_0)$ 

### Proof:

$$\begin{array}{ll} B_0 \equiv (A \rightarrow ((A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A)) \rightarrow \\ & ((A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A)) & Ax2 \\ B_1 \equiv A \rightarrow ((A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A) & Ax1 \\ B_2 \equiv (A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A) & MP(B_0, B_1) \\ B_3 \equiv A \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A) & Ax1 \\ B_4 \equiv A \rightarrow A & MP(B_2, B_3) \end{array}$$

### Deduction Theorem

How to find proofs in the system  $\mathcal{F}_0$ ?

Only clue: if target formula B is not an axiom, it must occur in the form  $(A_1 \rightarrow \ldots (A_n \rightarrow B) \ldots)$ . Choose fitting A.

**Helpful:** 

Theorem 2.9 (Deduction Theorem (syntactic version))

Let  $\Sigma \subseteq F_0$  and  $A, B \in F_0$ . Then

 $\Sigma, A \vdash B$  iff  $\Sigma \vdash (A \rightarrow B)$ .

### Applications of the Deduction Theorem

Example 2.10 To show  $\vdash \neg \neg A \rightarrow A$ , it suffices to show  $\neg \neg A \vdash A$ .

#### Proof: $B_1 \equiv \neg \neg A$ $B_2 \equiv \neg \neg A \rightarrow (\neg \neg \neg \neg A \rightarrow \neg \neg A)$ Ax1 $B_3 \equiv \neg \neg \neg \neg A \rightarrow \neg \neg A$ MP $B_4 \equiv (\neg \neg \neg \neg A \rightarrow \neg \neg A) \rightarrow (\neg A \rightarrow \neg \neg \neg A)$ Ax3 MP $B_5 \equiv \neg A \rightarrow \neg \neg \neg A$ $B_6 \equiv (\neg A \rightarrow \neg \neg \neg A) \rightarrow (\neg \neg A \rightarrow A)$ Ax3 $B_7 \equiv \neg \neg A \rightarrow A$ MP $B_8 \equiv A$ MP

## Applications of the Deduction Theorem (Cont.)

### Lemma 2.11

• The following formulae are theorems in  $\mathcal{F}_0$ :

(Transitivity of implication)	$\vdash (A \to B) \to ((B \to C) \to (A \to C))$	(1)
(Implication from inconsistency)	$\vdash \neg B \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A)$	(2)
(Double negation)	$\vdash B \rightarrow \neg \neg B$	(3)
(Contraposition)	$\vdash (A \to B) \to (\neg B \to \neg A)$	(4)
(Implication)	$\vdash B \to (\neg C \to \neg (B \to C))$	(5)
(Auxiliary lemma 1)	$\vdash (A \to B) \to ((A \to \neg B) \to (A \to \neg Ax))$	(E1)
(Auxiliary lemma 2)	$\vdash (A \to \neg A x) \to \neg A$	(E2)
(Negation from inconsistency)	$\vdash (A \to B) \to ((A \to \neg B) \to \neg A)$	(6)
(Elimination of assumptions)	$\vdash (B \to A) \to ((\neg B \to A) \to A)$	(7)

### • $\Sigma \vdash A$ iff $\Sigma \cup \{\neg A\}$ is inconsistent.

### Soundness and Completeness of $\mathcal{F}_0$

**Question:** Can all tautologies be derived as theorems in the system  $\mathcal{F}_0$ ?

Theorem 2.12 (Soundness and Completeness of  $\mathcal{F}_0$ )

Let  $A \in F_0$  a formula of propositional logic.

a) Soundness:  $\vdash_{\mathcal{F}_0} A$  implies  $\models A$ , only tautologies can be derived as theorems in  $\mathcal{F}_0$ .

b) Completeness:  $\models A \text{ implies } \vdash_{\mathcal{F}_0} A$ , all tautologies can be derived in  $\mathcal{F}_0$ .

## Soundness and Completeness of $\mathcal{F}_0$ (Cont.)

As a tool we use:

Lemma 2.13

Consider  $A(p_1, \ldots, p_n) \in F_0$  with n > 0. Let  $\varphi$  be a valuation. With

$$P_i := \begin{cases} p_i, & \text{if } \varphi(p_i) = 1 \\ \neg p_i, & \text{if } \varphi(p_i) = 0 \end{cases} \quad A' := \begin{cases} A, & \text{if } \varphi(A) = 1 \\ \neg A, & \text{if } \varphi(A) = 0 \end{cases}$$

we have  $P_1, \ldots, P_n \vdash A'$ .

### Consequence

Consequence 2.14

Let  $\Sigma \subseteq F_0, A \in F_0$ .

- $\Sigma \vdash_{\mathcal{F}_0} A$  iff  $\Sigma \models A$ .
- $\Sigma$  is consistent iff  $\Sigma$  is satisfiable.
- If  $\Sigma$  is finite and  $A \in F_0$ , then  $\Sigma \vdash_{\mathcal{F}_0} A$  is decidable.

# Proof

Proof:

$$\begin{split} \Sigma \vdash_{\mathcal{F}_0} A \\ &\stackrel{2.6}{\longleftrightarrow} \text{ There are } A_1, \dots, A_n \in \Sigma \text{ with } A_1, \dots, A_n \vdash_{\mathcal{F}_0} A \\ &\stackrel{\text{D.T.}}{\longleftrightarrow} \text{ There are } A_1, \dots, A_n \in \Sigma \text{ with} \\ &\vdash_{\mathcal{F}_0} (A_1 \to (A_2 \to \dots (A_n \to A) \dots)) \\ &\stackrel{2.12}{\longleftrightarrow} \text{ There are } A_1, \dots, A_n \in \Sigma \text{ with} \\ &\models (A_1 \to (A_2 \to \dots (A_n \to A) \dots)) \\ &\stackrel{\text{D.T.}}{\longleftrightarrow} \text{ There are } A_1, \dots, A_n \in \Sigma \text{ with } A_1, \dots, A_n \models A \\ &\stackrel{\text{C.T.}}{\longleftrightarrow} \Sigma \models A \end{split}$$

# Proof (Cont.)

### Proof:

 $\Sigma$  is consistent

$$\iff \mathsf{There is no } A \mathsf{ with } \Sigma \vdash A \mathsf{ and } \Sigma \vdash \neg A$$

$$\iff \mathsf{There is no } A \mathsf{ with } \Sigma \models A \mathsf{ and } \Sigma \models \neg A$$

 $\iff \Sigma$  is satisfiable. (Lemma 1.10(c)).

## Sequent Calculus

There are other sound and complete deductive systems. The following system is due to Gerhard Gentzen (1909 — 1945). It is especially suited for automating proofs.

### Definition 2.15 (Gentzen Sequent Calculus)

Let  $\Gamma, \Delta \subseteq F$  finite sets of formulae. A sequent is a character sequence of the form  $\Gamma \vdash_G \Delta$ .

Semantic interpretation of sequents: For every valuation  $\varphi$  there is a formula  $A \in \Gamma$  with  $\varphi(A) = 0$  or there are  $B \in \Delta$  with  $\varphi(B) = 1$ .

If  $\Gamma = \{A_1, \dots, A_n\}$  and  $\Delta = \{B_1, \dots, B_m\}$ , then the sequent  $\Gamma \vdash_G \Delta$  corresponds to the formula

$$(A_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge A_n) \rightarrow (B_1 \vee \cdots \vee B_m).$$

## Sequent Calculus (Cont.)

### Definition 2.15 (Gentzen Sequent Calculus (Cont.))

The calculus for objects of the form  $\Gamma \vdash_G \Delta$  is defined by the axioms:

 $(\mathsf{Ax1}) \ \mathsf{\Gamma}, A \vdash_{\mathcal{G}} A, \Delta \qquad (\mathsf{Ax2}) \ \mathsf{\Gamma}, A, \neg A \vdash_{\mathcal{G}} \Delta \qquad (\mathsf{Ax3}) \ \mathsf{\Gamma} \vdash_{\mathcal{G}} A, \neg A, \Delta$ 

The rules of the sequent calculus are as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{R}_{\Lambda,\vee}: \ \frac{\Gamma,A,B\vdash_{G}\Delta}{\Gamma,A\wedge B\vdash_{G}\Delta} & \frac{\Gamma\vdash_{G}A,B,\Delta}{\Gamma\vdash_{G}A\vee B,\Delta} \\ \mathbf{R}_{\rightarrow}: \ \frac{\Gamma,A\vdash_{G}\Delta,B}{\Gamma\vdash_{G}A\rightarrow B,\Delta} & \frac{\Gamma\vdash_{G}A,\Delta; \ \Gamma,B\vdash_{G}\Delta}{\Gamma,A\rightarrow B\vdash_{G}\Delta} \\ \mathbf{R}_{\neg}: \ \frac{\Gamma,A\vdash_{G}\Delta}{\Gamma\vdash_{G}\neg A,\Delta} & \frac{\Gamma\vdash_{G}A,\Delta}{\Gamma,\neg A\vdash_{G}\Delta} \\ \mathbf{R}_{\Lambda'}: \ \frac{\Gamma\vdash_{G}A,\Delta; \ \Gamma\vdash_{G}B,\Delta}{\Gamma\vdash_{G}A\wedge B,\Delta} \\ \mathbf{R}_{\wedge'}: \ \frac{\Gamma,A\vdash_{G}\Delta; \ \Gamma\vdash_{G}B,\Delta}{\Gamma\vdash_{G}A\wedge B,\Delta} \\ \end{array}$$

# Sequent Calculus (Fort.)

A sequent  $\Gamma \vdash_G \Delta$  is called derivable, if there is a finite sequence of sequents  $\Gamma_1 \vdash_G \Delta_1, \ldots, \Gamma_r \vdash_G \Delta_r$  with  $\Gamma_r \equiv \Gamma$ ,  $\Delta_r \equiv \Delta$  and Every  $\Gamma_j \vdash_G \Delta_j$  with  $1 \leq j \leq r$  is an axiom or follows from previous sequence elements due to a rule.

# Theorem 2.16 The sequent calculus is sound: $\Gamma \vdash_G \Delta$ implies $\Gamma \models \Delta$ complete: $\Gamma \models \Delta$ implies $\Gamma \vdash_G \Delta$ . Here $\Gamma \models \Delta$ with $\Delta \subseteq F$ is finitely defined as $\Gamma \models \bigvee_{B \in \Delta} B$ .

## Example

Proofs in sequent calculus are constructed bottom-up and tree-like:

Example 2.17  $p \lor q, \neg p \lor r \vdash_G q \lor r$ Proof:  $q, \neg p \lor r \vdash q, r$ Ax1  $p, r \vdash q, r$ Ax1 Ax2  $p, \neg p \vdash q, r$  $p, \neg p \lor r \vdash q, r$  $R_{\vee}$  $p \lor q, \neg p \lor r \vdash q, r \qquad R_{\lor r'}$  $p \lor q, \neg p \lor r \vdash q \lor r$  $R_{\rm M}$ 

We consider methods to decide whether  $\Sigma \models A$  is true for a given finite set  $\Sigma \subseteq F$  and  $A \in F$ .

The previously considered methods check all assignments of the variables occurring in the formulae, or enumerate the theorems of a suitable deductive system. This is very expensive.

Use satisfiability checker:

 $\Sigma \models A$  iff  $\Sigma \cup \{\neg A\}$  unsatisfiable.

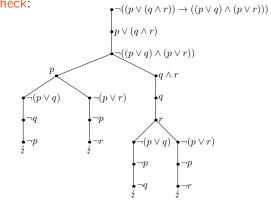
The complexity of satisfiability stays large: SAT is NP-complete.

Look for methods, which are faster than the brute force method when provided with usual input.

Semantic Tableaux Davis-Putnam Resolution.

### Semantic Tableaux: Example

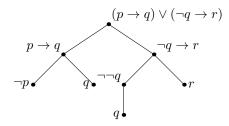
Show that  $\neg((p \lor (q \land r)) \rightarrow ((p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)))$  is unsatisfiable. Satisfiability check:  $\neg((p \lor (q \land r)) \rightarrow ((p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)))$ 



Since all branches lead to contradictions, the formula is unsatisfiable.

## Semantic Tableaux: Example (Cont.)

Find all valuations that fulfill  $A \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \lor (\neg q \rightarrow r)$ :



Thus,  $\{\varphi : F \to \mathbb{B} \mid \varphi(p) = 0 \text{ oder } \varphi(q) = 1 \text{ oder } \varphi(r) = 1\}$  is the set of all valuations that satisfy A

At the leaves, a logically equivalent DNF can be read:  $\neg p \lor q \lor r$ 

### Intuition for Tableaux

The satisfying validations of the root formula are the union of the satisfying valuations of all branches.

- For every satisfying valuation of the root formula, there is a branch in the tableau so that all its formulae are satisfied by that valuation.
- Conversely, every satisfiable branch defines satisfying validations of the root formula.

Trick: If the formulae are maximally unfolded (the tableau is complete), satisfying valuations or contradictions are immediately visible.

### Definition of Tableaux

Two kinds of formulae:  $\beta$ -formulae cause branching,  $\alpha$ -formulae do not cause branching:

 α-formulae with components α<sub>1</sub> and α<sub>2</sub> lead to child nodes with markings α<sub>1</sub> and α<sub>2</sub>:

 β-formulae with components β<sub>1</sub> and β<sub>2</sub> lead to branches with node markings β<sub>1</sub> and β<sub>2</sub>:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \beta & \neg (A_1 \wedge A_2) \\ \hline \beta_1 & \beta_2 & \neg A_1 & \neg A_2 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c|c} A_1 \vee A_2 & A_1 \rightarrow A_2 \\ \hline A_1 & A_2 & \neg A_1 & A_2 \end{array}$$

Note: Every formula is a literal (p or  $\neg p$  with  $p \in V$ ), an  $\alpha$ - or a  $\beta$ -formula, and exactly one of these three types.

Definition of Tableaux (Cont.)

### Definition 3.1 (Tableau)

**Tableaux** are binary trees whose nodes are marked with formulae in *F*. The set of tableaux  $T_A$  for  $A \in F$  is inductively defined by:

(a)  $\tau_A \in T_A$ , where  $\tau_A$  has one node labeled with A:

#### $\bullet A$

- (b) If  $\tau \in T_A$  and  $\delta$  the marking of a leaf of  $\tau$ , then  $\tau$  can be extended to a tableau  $\tau' \in T_A$  as follows:
  - ( $\alpha$ ) Add two subsequent nodes to  $\delta$  that are marked with  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  if the  $\alpha$ -formula  $\alpha$  occurs on the branch to  $\delta$ :



# Definition of Tableaux (Cont.)

### Definition 3.1 (Tableau (Cont.))

( $\beta$ ) Add in  $\tau'$  as successors of  $\delta$  two nodes that are marked with the components  $\beta_1$  and  $\beta_2$  of a  $\beta$ -formula  $\beta$  if  $\beta$  occurs on the branch to  $\delta$ :



In the following, branches in  $\tau \in T_A$  are identified with their formula set  $\Theta \subseteq F$ .

### Properties of Tableaux I: Semantics

### Lemma 3.2

Let  $A \in F$  a formula and  $\tau \in T_A$  a tableau for A. Then

A is satisfiable iff  $\exists$  branch  $\Theta \in \tau : \Theta$  is satisfiable.

The lemma follows from a stronger statement. For every valuation  $\varphi$ :

 $\varphi$  satisfies A iff  $\exists$  branch  $\Theta \in \tau : \varphi$  satisfies  $\Theta$ .

The satisfying valuations of the branches are exactly the satisfying valuations of the root formula.

Tableaux are not unique, but Lemma 6.2 has the following consequence: Either every tableau  $\tau \in T_A$  has a satisfiable branch or none of them.

### Complete and Closed Sets and Tableaux

The notion of branch satisfiability is of semantical nature. The goal of tableaux is to ccemphautomatically check the satisfiability of formulae. For this purpose, satisfiability must be characterized synctactically.

### Definition 3.3

- A set of formulae Θ ⊆ F is called complete if for α ∈ Θ we also have {α<sub>1</sub>, α<sub>2</sub>} ⊆ Θ and for β ∈ Θ also β<sub>1</sub> ∈ Θ or β<sub>2</sub> ∈ Θ.
   A tableau τ is called complete if every branch Θ ∈ τ is complete.
- A set of formulae Θ is called closed if there is a formula B ∈ F so that {B, ¬B} ⊆ Θ. Otherwise the set is called open.

A tableau  $\tau$  is called **closed** if every branch  $\Theta \in \tau$  is closed.

Every tableau can be extended to a complete tableau.

### Properties of Tableaux II: Syntax

### Lemma 3.4 (Hintikka)

Let  $\Theta \subseteq F$  complete. Then  $\Theta$  is satisfiable iff  $\Theta$  is open.

Closed sets are per definition unsatisfiable.

For the converse direction let  $\Theta$  be a complete and open set. Define

$$arphi(p):=egin{cases} 0 & 
egin{array}{cc} 
egin{array}{cc} 0 & 
egin{array}{cc} 
egin{array}{cc} 
egin{array}{cc} 0 & 
egin{array}{cc} 
e$$

Valuation  $\varphi$  is well-defined.

Show via induction over the size of  $\Theta$  that  $\varphi(A) = 1$  for all  $A \in \Theta$ .

## Soundness and Completeness of Tableaux

Theorem 3.5

A formula  $A \in F$  is unsatisfiable iff there is a closed tableau  $\tau \in T_A$ .

There is a closed tableau for A iff all complete tableaux for A are closed.

The tableau method is due to Evert Willem Beth (1908 — 1964).

Complete and open formula sets are Hintikka sets, due to Jaakko Hintikka (\*1929). Hintikka's lemma shows that they are satisfiable.

# Soundness and Completeness of Tableaux (Cont.)

## Proof (of Theorem 3.5)

Let A be unsatisfiable. Every tableau can be extended to a complete tableau. Hence, for A there is a complete tableau  $\tau \in T_A$ . By lemma 6.2, all branches  $\Theta \in \tau$  are unsatisfiable. By lemma 6.4, all branches  $\Theta \in \tau$  are closed. Hence, there is a closed tableau  $\tau \in T_A$ . For the converse direction let  $\tau \in T_A$  be closed.

Closed branches are unsatisfiable.

With lemma 6.2, formula A is unsatisfiable.

Let  $\Sigma \subseteq F$  a possibly infinite set of formulae.

The set  $T_{\Sigma}$  of the **tableaux for**  $\Sigma$  is defined as before, with the difference that

- the construction begins with a formula  $A\in\Sigma$  and
- in every step,  $\sigma \in \Sigma$  may be appended to a leaf  $\delta$ .

The tableau  $\tau \in T_{\Sigma}$  is called complete if in addition to the previous requirements every branch  $\Theta \in \tau$  contains the set  $\Sigma$ , so  $\Sigma \subseteq \Theta$ .

Tableaux for Sets of Formulae (Cont.)

Lemma 3.6

Let  $\Sigma \subseteq F$  and  $\tau \in T_{\Sigma}$  with  $\Sigma \subseteq \Theta$  for every branch  $\Theta \in \tau$ . Then:

 $\Sigma$  is satisfiable iff  $\exists$  branch  $\Theta \in \tau : \Theta$  is satisfiable.

Theorem 3.7

A set of formulae  $\Sigma \subseteq F$  is unsatisfiable iff  $T_{\Sigma}$  contains a closed tableau.

The old proof still works, minding the following changes: Lemma 6.2 is to be replaced by lemma 3.6. For the completeness, the following lemma is required.

Lemma 3.8

For every set of formulae  $\Sigma \subseteq F$  there is a complete tableau  $\tau \in T_{\Sigma}$ .

## Systematic Construction of Tableaux

**Proof of lemma 3.8** Let  $\Sigma$  be infinite. Given here is a non-terminating method that constructs a sequence of tableaux

$$au_0 \subseteq au_1 \subseteq \dots$$
 with  $au := \bigcup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} au_i$  complete.

Since  $\Sigma \subseteq F$ ,  $\Sigma$  is countable, hence  $\Sigma = \{A_0, A_1, \ldots\}$ .

Use a FIFO worklist  $WL := \emptyset$  to store nodes. Use a counter j := 0, to iterate through  $\Sigma$ .

- $\tau_0 := \tau_{A_0}$ . If  $A_0$  is not a literal, push the node of  $A_0$  into WL.
- $\tau_{n+1}$  is generated from  $\tau_n$  as follows.

If  $WL \neq \emptyset$ , pop WL. Let the node be labeled with  $Y \in F$ .

## Systematic Construction of Tableaux (Cont.)

 If Y is an α-formula, extend every branch that passes the node of Y by the subformulae α<sub>1</sub> and α<sub>2</sub>:



If  $\alpha_1$  or  $\alpha_2$  aren't literals, add all new nodes labeled with  $\alpha_1$  bzw.  $\alpha_2$  to the worklist.

• If Y is a  $\beta$ -formula, extend every branch that passes Y by



If the subformulae  $\beta_1,\,\beta_2$  aren't literals, add the corresponding nodes to the worklist.

# Systematic Construction of Tableaux (Cont.)

- If  $WL = \emptyset$ , increment *j* and select  $Y := A_j$ .
  - Add nodes labeled with Y to all branches.
     If Y isn't a literal, add the nodes to the worklist.

# Systematic Construction of Tableaux (Cont.)

**Claim**:  $\tau$  is complete.

To be more precise: Every branch  $\Theta \in \tau$  is complete and contains  $\Sigma$ .

Proof (Sketch):

Let  $\alpha \in \Theta$  be an  $\alpha$ -formula.

Then it was added to the worklist when generated.

Due to the FIFO order it was processed at some point.

Hence,  $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2\} \subseteq \Theta$ .

Consider  $A_i \in \Sigma$ .

At some point j = i.

Assume that this is not the case.

Then there is an index for which the worklist was never emptied.

This has to be false.

With the removal of a formula  $A \in F$  finitely many formulae were added to the worklist, but they were all smaller.

Exercise: Why does termination follow?

# Decidability and Semi-Decidability

To derive the semi-decidability of unsatisfiability from the systematic construction of tableaux, adapt the method as follows:

Do not add nodes to closed branches.

Lemma 3.9

(1) The systematic construction of tableaux terminates for finite  $\Sigma \subseteq F$ .

(2) Let  $\Sigma \subseteq F$  be infinite and unsatisfiable. The the modified tableau construction algorithm terminates with a closed tableau.

Note: The compactness theorem follows from the second statement. If  $\Sigma$  is unsatisfiable, then  $T_{\Sigma}$  contains a finite closed tableau. Hence, a finite subset of  $\Sigma$  is unsatisfiable. Decidability and Semi-Decidability (Cont.)

### Lemma 3.10 (König)

Let T be an infinite tree with finite outdegree. Then there is an infinite path in T.

### Show lemma 3.9(2):

In the case of termination, the resulting tableau is closed, since closedness is the only termination condition.

#### It remains to show termination.

Assume the modified method doesn't terminate.

Then it constructs an infinite tableau  $\tau$ . Since the tableau has a finite outdegree, with König's lemma there is an infinite path  $\Theta \in \tau$ .

As in lemma 3.8 the path contains  $\Sigma$ , is complete and open.

With Hintikka's lemma,  $\Theta$  is satisfiable.

So  $\Sigma$  is also satisfiable. Contradiction.

# Decidability and Semi-Decidability (Cont.)

### Note 3.11

- The tableau method is a semi-decision procedure for the unsatisfiability of enumerable sets of formulae Σ ⊆ F.
- The tableau method is a decision procedure for the satisfiability of finite sets of formulae Σ ⊆ F.

For the decidability, it should be noted that for an enumerable set the addition of a formula  $A_i \in \Sigma$  to a tableau is effective. Moreover, the test for closedness is decidable.

## Normal Forms

#### Advantages:

The simpler structure of a normal form allows the use of special algorithms for the solution of certain problems.

The transformation should not be too expensive, otherwise the effort would not be worthwhile.

Examples:

- From a DNF, all satisfying assignments can be read immediately.
- From a minimal DNF one can easily derive combinatorial circuits (with AND, OR, NOT gates).
- The systematic construction of tableaux allows reading these normal forms immediately from a complete tableau.

# Normal Forms (Cont.)

One can transform a formula into a

- logically equivalent formula:  $A \models T(A)$
- equisatisfiable formula: A satisfiable iff. T(A) satisfiable

We cover three of these normal forms:

- Negation normal form (NNF) Form in  $\neg, \lor, \land$
- Conjunctive normal form (CNF) Form in  $\neg, \lor, \land$
- Disjunctive normal form (DNF) Form in  $\neg, \lor, \land$

## Negation Normal Form

A formula  $A \in F$  is in Negation normal form (NNF) if every negation is placed directly before a variable and there are no two directly subsequent negations.

### Definition 3.12 (NNF)

The set of formulae in NNF is inductively defined by

- For  $p \in V$ , p and  $\neg p$  are in NNF.
- If A, B are in NNF, then  $(A \lor B)$  and  $(A \land B)$  are also in NNF.

#### Lemma 3.13

For every formula  $A \in F(\{\neg, \land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\})$  there is a  $B \in F(\neg, \lor, \land)$  in NNF with  $A \models B$  and  $|B| \in O(|A|)$ .

## Conjunctive Normal Form

## Definition 3.14 (Clause)

A formula  $A \equiv (L_1 \lor ... \lor L_n)$  with literals  $L_1, ..., L_n$  is called clause.

• If all literals are negative, it is a negative clause.

If all literals are positive, it is a **positive** clause.

Clauses containing at most one positive literal are called Horn clauses.

• A is called k-clause if A contains at most  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  literals.

1-clauses are also called unit clauses.

A formula  $A \equiv (A_1 \land ... \land A_m)$  is in **CNF** if A is a conjunction of clauses  $A_1, ..., A_m$ .

• If all of them are k-clauses, A is in k-CNF.

# Conjunctive Normal Form (Cont.)

### Example 3.15

$$A \equiv (p \lor q) \land (p \lor \neg q) \land (\neg p \lor q) \land (\neg p \lor \neg q) \text{ is in 2-CNF.}$$

If one considers clauses as sets of literals, then formulae in CNF can be represented as sets of sets of literals. For example *A*:

$$\{\{p,q\},\{p,\neg q\},\{\neg p,q\},\{\neg p,\neg q\}\}.$$

#### Lemma 3.16

For every formula  $A \in F$  there is a formula B in CNF with  $A \models B$  and  $|B| \in O(2^{|A|})$ .

#### The bound is strict:

There is a sequence of formulae  $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $|A_n| = 2n$ , so that every logically equivalent formula  $B_n$  in CNF is at least of length  $2^n$ .

**Disjunctive Normal Form** 

Definition 3.17 (DNF)

A formula  $A \in F$  is in **DNF** if A is a disjunction of conjunctions of literals:

$$A \equiv (A_1 \lor \ldots \lor A_m) \quad \text{mit} \quad A_i \equiv (L_1^i \land \ldots \land L_{n_i}^i).$$

Definition 3.18 (Dual Formula)

The **dual formula** d(A) of a formula  $A \in F$  is defined as:

$$d(p) \equiv p \quad \text{für } p \in V$$
  
 $d(\neg A) \equiv \neg d(A)$   
 $d(B \lor C) \equiv d(B) \land d(C)$   
 $d(B \land C) \equiv d(B) \lor d(C).$ 

## Relationships between the Normal Forms

#### Lemma 3.19

For every formula  $A \in F$ :

- (1) If A is in CNF, then  $NNF(\neg A)$  is in DNF.
- (2) If A is in CNF, then d(A) is in DNF and vice versa.

#### Lemma 3.20

For every formula  $A \in F$ :

- (1) If one sets  $\psi(p) := 1 \varphi(p)$ , then  $\psi(d(A)) = 1 \varphi(A)$ .
- (2) A is a tautology iff d(A) is a contradiction.
- (3) A is satisfiable iff d(A) is not a tautology.

## Davis-Putnam Algorithms

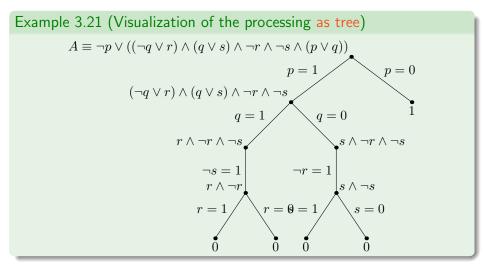
Idea: Reduce satisfiability for a formula with  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  variables to the satisfiability problem for formulae with at most n-1 variables.

**Approach**: Search for a satisfying valuation by iterative choice of the values of single variables — **Bottom-Up Method**.

Algorithms using this idea, heuristics and other refinements are referred to as Davis-Putnam algorithms, due to Martin Davis (\*1928) and Hilary Putnam (\*1926).

**Requirement**: Formula in NNF over  $\neg$ ,  $\land$ ,  $\lor$ .

## Davis-Putnam Algorithms (Cont.)



# Substitution

### Definition 3.22 (Substitution)

Let Formula  $A \in F$  in NNF and  $p \in V$ .

Define A[p/1] as the result of the following substitution process:

(1) Replace every occurrence of p in A by 1.

(2) Execute the following rules as long as possible:

- If a subformula  $\neg 1$  occurs, replace it by 0.
- Replace  $\neg 0$  by 1.
- Subformulae  $B \wedge 1$  and  $B \vee 0$  are replaced by B.
- Subformulae  $B \vee 1$  are replaced by 1.
- Subformulae  $B \wedge 0$  are replaced by 0.

A[p/0] is defined analogously, with p being replaced by 0.

In general, use A[I/1] or A[I/0] for literals I.

# Substitution (Cont.)

#### Lemma 3.23

A[p/1] and A[p/0] are well-defined.

The formula A[p/i] with  $i \in \mathbb{B}$  is:

• a formula in NNF or CNF if A had this form,

- the empty formula, which is interpreted as true, notation A[p/i] = 1,
- the empty clause, which is interpreted as false, notation A[p/i] = 0.

The variable  $p \in V$  does not occur in A[p/i] any more.

#### Example 3.24

For A in CNF and literal I:

A[I/1] is created by removing all clauses in A that contain literal I, and removing all occurrences of  $\neg I$  in the other clauses.

## Soundness of Davis-Putnam Algorithms

#### Lemma 3.25

A formula A in NNF is satisfiable iff A[p/1] = 1 or A[p/0] = 1 or one of the formulae A[p/1], A[p/0] is satisfiable.

The lemma follows from the fact that for every valuation  $\varphi$ 

 $\varphi(A) = \varphi(A[p/i]), \text{ where } i = \varphi(p).$ 

By testing the formulae A[p/1] and A[p/0], which no longer contain  $p \in V$ , the satisfiability of A can be decided recursively.

## Rule-based Definition of Davis-Putnam

### Definition 3.26 (Rules for Formulae in NNF)

**Pure-Literal rule** If a variable  $p \in V$  occurs only positive or only negative in a formula A, assign 1 to p or 0 to p, respectively, and reduce the formula.

A is equisatisfiable to A[p/1] or A[p/0], respectively.

**Splitting rule** If a variable  $p \in V$  occurs positive as well as negative in A, create the two reduced formulae A[p/1] und A[p/0].

A is satisfiable iff one of the reduced formulae is 1 or satisfiable.

# Rule-based Definition of Davis-Putnam (Cont.)

## Definition 3.27 (Rules for Formulae in CNF)

Unit rule

```
Let A be in CNF and it contains a
unit clause A_i \equiv I.
Create A[I/1]:
A satisfiable iff A[I/1] satisfiable.
```

$$\begin{array}{l} \bullet(\neg q \lor r) \land (q \lor s) \land \neg r \land \neg s \\ \neg r = 1 \\ \bullet \neg q \land (q \lor s) \land \neg s \\ \neg q = 1 \\ \bullet s \land \neg s \\ s = 1 \\ 0 \end{array}$$

## Rule-based Definition of Davis-Putnam (Cont.)

Clause  $A_1$  subsumes clause  $A_2$ , notation  $A_1 \subseteq A_2$  if every literal in  $A_1$  also occurs in  $A_2$ .

From the satisfiability of a clause  $A_1$ , the satisfiability of all the clauses  $A_2$  it subsumes follows directly:  $A_1 \subseteq A_2$ 

Definition 3.27 (Rules for formulae in **CNF** (Cont.))

**Subsumption rule** Let A in CNF. Remove all clauses from A that are subsumed by others: function Subsumption\_Reduce(A).

Also remove tautological clauses that contain p and  $\neg p$  for a  $p \in V$ .

Since clauses are connected conjunctively, only those have to be considered that are not subsumed by others.

### procedure DPA — Davis-Putnam Algorithm

Input: A in CNF

Output: Boolean Value for satisfiability  $\{0,1\}$ 

## begin

if  $\overline{A} \in \{0, 1\}$  then <u>return(A)</u>;

 $p:=\underline{pure}(A,s);$ 

//returns variable and assignment if only positive

//or negative occurrences, otherwise null

if  $p \neq \underline{\text{null}}$  then  $\underline{\text{return}}(\text{DPA}(A[p/s]));$  $p:=\underline{\text{unit}}(A,s);$ 

//Unit clause with assignment, otherwise null

```
if p \neq \underline{\textbf{null}} then \underline{\textbf{return}}(DPA(A[p/s]));
```

```
A:=Subsumption_Reduce(A); // removes subsumed clauses
p:=split(A); // returns variable in A
```

```
if DPA(A[p/1]) = 1 then <u>return(1);</u>
return(DPA(A[p/0]));
```

# end

## Selection Criteria for the Splitting Rule

- Choose the first variable that occurs in the formula.
- Choose the variable that occurs the most often in the formula.
- Choose the variable with  $\sum_{p \text{ in } A_i} |A_i|$  minimal.
- Choose the variable that occurs the most often in the shortest clauses.
- Comoute the number of positive and negative occurrences in the shortest clauses and select the variable with the largest difference.
- Other heuristics can be found in implementations.

## Resolution

Idea: From clauses  $(A \lor I)$  and  $(B \lor \neg I)$  the new clause  $(A \lor B)$  is generated, since

$$(A \lor I) \land (B \lor \neg I) \models (A \lor I) \land (B \lor \neg I) \land (A \lor B).$$

Here let  $\neg I \equiv \neg p$  if  $I \equiv p$  with  $p \in V$ . If  $I \equiv \neg p$  then  $\neg I \equiv p$ .

**Goal**: Generating the empty clause  $\Box$  to show **unsatisfiability**.

Resolution works on formulae in CNF. Here it is practical to consider clauses as sets:

$$(p \lor \neg q \lor p)$$
 considered as  $\{p, \neg q\}$ .

Resolution is due to John Alan Robinson (\*1928).

Resolution (Cont.)

### Definition 3.28 (Resolvent)

Let  $K_1$ ,  $K_2$  be clauses and I a literal with  $I \in K_1$  and  $\neg I \in K_2$ . Then

$$R \equiv (K_1 \setminus \{I\}) \cup (K_2 \setminus \{\neg I\})$$

is the resolvent of  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  on I.

**Note**: The resolvent can be the empty clause  $\sqcup$ .

Adding resolvents leads to equivalent formulae.

Lemma 3.29

Let A be in CNF and R a resolvent of two clauses from A. Then

$$A \models A \cup \{R\}.$$

# Resolution (Cont.)

### Definition 3.30 (Derivations)

Let A be in CNF and K a clause. A sequence  $K_1, \ldots, K_n$  of clauses with  $K_n \equiv K$  is a **derivation of** K from A,  $A \vdash_{Res} K$  if for  $1 \le k \le n$ :

 $K_k \in A$  or  $K_k$  is a resolvent of two  $K_i$ ,  $K_j$  with i, j < k.

#### Lemma 3.31

As a calculus, resolution is sound but **not complete**:

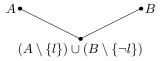
 $A \vdash_{Res} K$  implies  $A \models K$ . The converse is not true.

Theorem 3.32 (Soundness and Refutation Completeness, Robinson)

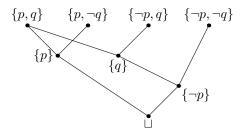
A formula A in CNF is unsatisfiable iff  $A \vdash_{Res} \sqcup$ .

## Visualization

Visualization of the resolvent of two clauses A, B on I:



Visualization of derivations as directed acyclic graph (DAG):



## Resolution Method: Heuristics

Strong derivations: Let A be in CNF and unsatisfiable. Then there is a derivation  $K_1, \ldots, K_n \equiv \sqcup$  so that

- In o clause occurs more than once in the derivation,
- no tautology occurs in the derivation,
- no already subsumed clause occurs in the derivation: There are no  $K_i, K_j$  with i < j and  $K_i \subseteq K_j$ .

# Resolution Method: Heuristics (Cont.)

- Stepwise strategy (resolution closure) (all satisfying valuations)
- Set-of-support restriction (prefer unit clauses)
- P-(N-)resolution
- Linear resolution (SL resolution, PROLOG inference machine).

# Resolution Method: Heuristics (Cont.)

Example:  $A \equiv \{\{\neg p, \neg q, \neg r\}, \{p, \neg s\}, \{q, \neg r\}, \{r, \neg t\}, \{t\}\}$ Steps:

0	1	2	3
1. $\{\neg p, \neg q, \neg r\}$ 2. $\{p, \neg s\}$	6. $\{\neg q, \neg r, \neg s\}(1,2)$ 7. $\{\neg p, \neg r\}$ (1,3)		21. $\{\neg s, \neg t\}$ (11,4) 22. $\{\neg s\}$ (11,10)
3. $\{q, \neg r\}$ 4. $\{r, \neg t\}$ 5. $\{t\}$	8. $\{\neg p, \neg q, \neg t\}(1,4)$ 9. $\{q, \neg t\}$ (3,4) 10. $\{r\}$ (4,5)		

Get the satisfying valuation

$$arphi(q)=1, arphi(p)=0, arphi(s)=0, arphi(r)=1, arphi(t)=1.$$

# Chapter II

## First-Order Predicate Logic (with Equality)

# Foundations of Predicate Logic

**Goal**: Formulation and inference of relations between elements of a data domain.

### Applications:

- Solution of queries on datasets in AI or information systems.
- Formulation of integrity constraints on data: loop invariants of a program, constraints on XML files or data base entries.
- Solution of constraint systems in testing or planning.
- Logical programming.

Syntax of the predicate logic 1879 in the article "Begriffsschrift" (concept notation) by Gottlob Frege (1848 — 1925).

Semantics 1934 by Alfred Tarski (1901 – 1983).

# Foundations of Predicate Logic (Cont.)

**Semantically**: Elements of a data domain, functions on these elements and relations between these elements.

#### Syntactically:

- Terms describe elements of the data domain.
   For describing elements: constants and variables.
   For calculating further elements: function symbols.
- Formulae make statements about the elements: true or false.
   For describing relations between elements: predicate symbols.
   Operations on the resulting truth values via logical connectives and quantifiers.

Function and predicate symbols **depend on the application**, so they are parameters of the syntax definition.

Logical symbols are **fixed**.

## Foundations of Predicate Logic (Cont.)

### Example 4.1 (Description of Mathematical Relations)

Syntax: Constants 1, 2, 3, function symbols +, /, variables x, y, z, predicate <, connectives  $\rightarrow$ ,  $\land$ , quantifiers  $\forall$ ,  $\exists$ 

Terms: 1, 
$$1 + \frac{2}{3}$$
,  $x + \frac{3}{2}$   
Formulae:  $x < 3$ ,  $\forall x \forall y (x < y \rightarrow \exists z (x < z \land z < y))$ 

Semantics: Data domain  $\mathbb{Q}$ , constants 1 to predicate < have the usual meaning.

# Foundations of Predicate Logic (Cont.)

### Example 4.2 (Description of Relations between Data)

Syntax: Variables x, y, function travelDistance(-), predicates isDog(-), isFish(-), <, quantifier  $\forall$ .

Formula:

 $\forall x \forall y ((isDog(x) \land isFish(y)) \rightarrow travelDistance(x) < travelDistance(y))$ 

Semantics: Data domain {*Lassie*, *Nemo*}  $\cup \mathbb{N} \cup \{\bot\}$ .

The function *travelDistance*(x) returns the travel distance of an animal from the data domain and  $\perp$  if no animal is entered.

The predicate isFish(x) returns true if x is a fish.

# Syntax of First-Order Logic

## Definition 4.3 (Signature)

- A signature is a pair S = (Func, Pred) with
  - Func a set of function symbols  $f, g, \ldots \in$  Func and
  - Pred a set of predicate symbols  $p, q, \ldots \in Pred$ .

Every function and predicate symbol has an arity  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Notation as  $f/_k \in Func$  or  $p/_k \in Pred$  if f resp. p has an arity of k. Functions and predicates of arity 0 are called constants.

### Assumptions:

- Func and Pred are decidable, not necessarily finite.
- Apart from the signature there is a countable set V of variables. V, Func, Pred are pairwise disjoint and do not contain

$$eg , \land, \lor, 
ightarrow, 
ightarrow, \exists, orall, \ , \ , = , (,).$$

Syntax of First-Order Logic (Cont.)

#### Definition 4.4 (Syntax of First-Order Logic)

Let S = (Func, Pred) be a signature. The set Term(S) of all terms over S is inductively defined as

 $t ::= x + f(t_1, \ldots, t_k)$ , where  $x \in V$  and  $f/_k \in Func$ .

The set FO(S) of the first-order formulae over S is inductively defined as

$$\begin{array}{l} A ::= t_1 = t_2 + p(t_1, \dots, t_k) + \\ (\neg A) + (A_1 \land A_2) + (A_1 \lor A_2) + (A_1 \to A_2) + (A_1 \leftrightarrow A_2) + \\ (\exists x A) + (\forall x A) \end{array}$$

with  $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k \in Term(S)$ ,  $p/_k \in Pred$  and  $x \in V$ .  $t_1 = t_2$  and  $p(t_1, \ldots, t_k)$  are also referred to as atomic formulae.

# Syntax of First-Order Logic (Cont.)

For increased readability:

- Omit outer braces.
- **Priorities**:  $\neg, \land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$
- $\forall x_1, \ldots, x_n A$  stands for  $\forall x_1(\ldots(\forall x_n A) \ldots)$  $\exists x_1, \ldots, x_n A$  stands for  $\exists x_1(\ldots(\exists x_n A) \ldots)$
- For binary predicate and function symbols, one can also use infix notation. For example, write  $t_1 < t_2$  instead of  $< (t_1, t_2)$ .

# Syntax of First-Order Logic (Cont.)

## Definition 4.5 (Free and Bound Variables)

In a formula (QxA) with  $Q \in \{\exists, \forall\}$ , A is referred to as the scope of Qx.

An occurrence of a variable  $x \in V$  in a formula is called bound if it occurs in the scope of a quantifier Qx.

Other occurrences of a variable are called free.

Formulae without free occurrences are called closed.

The set V(A) contains the variables in  $A \in FO(S)$ . Similarly, FV(A) and GV(A) contain the variables that occur bound and freely, respectively, in A.

#### Lemma 4.6

- (a) If S is decidable, then Term(S) and FO(S) are also decidable.
- (b) Compound terms and formulae can be uniquely decomposed.
- (c) Free and bound occurrences can be effectively determined.

## Semantics of First-Order Logic

Terms and formulae are syntactic objects without meaning.

What does a term mean? What does a formula mean?

### Definition 4.7 (Structure)

Let S = (Func, Pred) be a signature. A structure of the signature S, also referred to as S-structure, is a pair  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$  consisting of

a non-empty set D, the domain,

and an interpretation I of the function and predicate symbols in S. Here I maps every  $f/_k \in Func$  to a k-ary function

$$I(f): D^k \to D$$
 (Notation also  $f^{\mathcal{M}}$  instead of  $I(f)$ )

and every  $p/_k \in Pred$  to a k-ary predicate:

$$I(p): D^k \to \mathbb{B}$$
 (Notation also  $p^{\mathcal{M}}$  instead of  $I(p)$ ).

Assumption: Structures are chosen to fit the signatures.

**Note**: Equality is a logical symbol, not part of the signature. Is not interpreted by the structure.

Definition 4.8 (Assignment) An assignment of the variables in  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$  is a mapping

 $\sigma: V \to D.$ 

The modification  $\sigma\{x/d\}$  of  $\sigma$  is the assignment with

$$\sigma\{x/d\}(y):=egin{cases} d, & ext{if }y=x\ \sigma(y), & ext{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

The set of all assignments is denoted by  $D^V$ .

Definition 4.9 (Semantics of Terms)

The semantics of a term  $t \in Term(S)$  in  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$  is a function

 $\mathcal{M}\llbracket t \rrbracket : D^V \to D,$ 

that is defined inductively as follows:

$$\mathcal{M}\llbracket x \rrbracket(\sigma) := \sigma(x)$$
$$\mathcal{M}\llbracket f(t_1, \dots, t_k) \rrbracket(\sigma) := f^{\mathcal{M}}(\mathcal{M}\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket(\sigma), \dots, \mathcal{M}\llbracket t_k \rrbracket(\sigma)).$$

Here  $\mathcal{M}[t](\sigma)$  is the value of t in  $\mathcal{M}$  under the assignment  $\sigma$ .

Definition 4.10 (Semantics of Formulae)

The semantics of a formula  $A \in FO(S)$  in  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$  is a function

$$\mathcal{M}\llbracket A \rrbracket : D^V \to \mathbb{B},$$

that is defined inductively as follows:

$$\mathcal{M}\llbracket t_1 = t_2 \rrbracket(\sigma) := 1 \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathcal{M}\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket(\sigma) = \mathcal{M}\llbracket t_2 \rrbracket(\sigma)$$
$$\mathcal{M}\llbracket p(t_1, \dots, t_k) \rrbracket(\sigma) := p^{\mathcal{M}}(\mathcal{M}\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket(\sigma), \dots, \mathcal{M}\llbracket t_k \rrbracket(\sigma))$$

 $\neg, \land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow \text{ as in propositional logic: } \mathcal{M}\llbracket \neg A \rrbracket(\sigma) := 1 - \mathcal{M}\llbracket A \rrbracket(\sigma) \text{ etc.}$ 

 $\mathcal{M}\llbracket\exists xA\rrbracket(\sigma) := 1 \quad \text{iff exists } d \in D \text{ with } \mathcal{M}\llbracketA\rrbracket(\sigma\{x/d\}) = 1$  $\mathcal{M}\llbracket\forall xA\rrbracket(\sigma) := 1 \quad \text{iff for all } d \in D \text{ we have } \mathcal{M}\llbracketA\rrbracket(\sigma\{x/d\}) = 1.$ 

Here  $\mathcal{M}[\![A]\!](\sigma)$  is the truth value of A in  $\mathcal{M}$  under assignment  $\sigma$ .

Lemma 4.11 (Coincidence Theorem)

Consider  $A \in FO(S)$ ,  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$  and  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2 \in D^V$ . If  $\sigma_1(x) = \sigma_2(x)$  for all  $x \in FV(A)$ , then

 $\mathcal{M}\llbracket A \rrbracket (\sigma_1) = \mathcal{M}\llbracket A \rrbracket (\sigma_2).$ 

In particular, the semantics  $\mathcal{M}\llbracket A \rrbracket(\sigma)$  of closed formulae  $A \in FO(S)$  is independent of the assignment  $\sigma \in D^V$ :

either A is satisfied under all assigments or under none.

Definition 4.12 (Satisfiability, Tautology)

Let  $A \in FO(S)$ ,  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$  and  $\sigma \in D^V$ .

• A is satisfied in  $\mathcal{M}$  under  $\sigma$ , notation  $\mathcal{M}, \sigma \models A$  if  $\mathcal{M}\llbracket A \rrbracket(\sigma) = 1$ .

- If A is closed, the assignment is irrelevant due to theorem 4.11.
   Write M ⊨ A and say M is a model of A.
- A is a tautology or valid, notation ⊨ A, if for all S-structures and all assignments σ ∈ D<sup>V</sup>: M, σ ⊨ A.
- A is satisfiable if there is a S-structure M and an assignment σ ∈ D<sup>V</sup> with M, σ ⊨ A.

#### Lemma 4.13

The formula  $A \in FO(S)$  is valid iff  $\neg A$  is unsatisfiable.

## Definition 4.14 (Logical Equivalence)

The formulae  $A, B \in FO(S)$  are called logically equivalent, notation  $A \models B$ , if for all structures  $\mathcal{M}$  and all assignments  $\sigma$ 

 $\mathcal{M}\llbracket A \rrbracket (\sigma) = \mathcal{M}\llbracket B \rrbracket (\sigma).$ 

#### Lemma 4.15

Logical equivalence is a congruence: if a subformula B of a formula  $A \in FO(S)$  is replaced by  $C \models B$ , the result is  $A' \models A$ .

Lemma 4.16 (Logical Equivalences)

Let  $A, B \in FO(S)$ . Then

 $\neg \forall x A \models \exists x \neg A$  $\forall x A \land \forall x B \models \forall x (A \land B)$  $\forall x \forall y A \models \forall y \forall x A$ 

$$\neg \exists x A \models \forall x \neg A \tag{8}$$

$$\exists x A \lor \exists x B \models \exists x (A \lor B) \quad (9)$$
$$\exists x \exists y A \models \exists y \exists x A. \quad (10)$$

If additionally  $x \notin FV(B)$ , then

 $Q \times A \text{ op } B \models Q \times (A \text{ op } B) \text{ with } Q \in \{\forall, \exists\} \text{ and } op \in \{\land, \lor\}.$ (11)

Note: The equivalences (8), (9) and (11) move quantifiers outwards. Take care when using logical equivalences:

 $\forall x A \lor \forall x B \not\models \forall x (A \lor B) \qquad \exists x A \land \exists x B \not\models \exists x (A \land B).$ 

## Substitution

Susbtitutions replace variables with terms.

They are the syntactic counterpart of the semantic notion of assignments, more precisely: their modification.

```
Definition 4.17 (Substitution)
```

A substitution of the signature S is a finite mapping

 $\theta: V \to Term(S).$ 

Substitutions are often directly denoted as  $\theta = \{x_1/t_1, \dots, x_n/t_n\}$ .

# Substitution (Cont.)

Using substitutions on terms and formulae avoids introducing new bindings.

## Definition 4.18 (Application of Substitutions)

The application of  $\theta$  on  $t \in Term(S)$  yields a new term  $t\theta \in Term(S)$ , which is inductively defined as follows:

$$x\theta := \theta(x)$$
  $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)\theta := f(t_1\theta, \ldots, t_n\theta).$ 

For  $A \in FO(S)$  the application of  $\theta$  yields the formula  $A\theta \in FO(S)$  with

$$(t_1 = t_2)\theta := t_1\theta = t_2\theta \qquad (\neg A)\theta := \neg (A\theta)$$
$$p(t_1, \dots, t_n)\theta := p(t_1\theta, \dots, t_n\theta) \qquad (A \text{ op } B)\theta := A\theta \text{ op } B\theta$$
$$(Qx.A)\theta := Qy(A\{x/y\}\theta),$$

where  $y \notin V(A) \cup Dom(\theta) \cup Ran(\theta)$ .

# Substitution (Cont.)

The relation between substitutions and the modification of assignments is the following:

Lemma 4.19 (Substitution Lemma)  $\mathcal{M}\llbracket A\{x/t\}\rrbracket(\sigma) = \mathcal{M}\llbracket A\rrbracket(\sigma\{x/\mathcal{M}\llbracket t\rrbracket(\sigma)\}).$ 

Proof via induction over the structure of terms and formulae.

### Corollary 4.20

- i) If  $A \in FO(S)$  is valid, then so is  $A\{x/t\}$ .
- ii) The formula  $\forall x.A \rightarrow A\{x/t\}$  is valid.

Similar to the substitution lemma one gets:

Lemma 4.21 (Bound Renaming preserves Logical Equivalence)

 $QxA \models Qy(A\{x/y\}).$ 

Note: Bound renaming can make the occurrences of bound variables in a formula unique.

## Normal Forms

Generate formulae of simpler structure, for which statements are easier to prove and more efficient algorithms can be designed.

Prenex normal form: All quantifiers are at the front of the formula (up to logical equivalence).

Skolem normal form: Prenex normal form and uses only universal quantifiers

```
(up to equisatisfiability).
```

Lemma 4.22 (Existential and Universal Closure) Consider  $A \in FO(S)$  with  $FV(A) = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Then

> A is valid iff  $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n A$  is valid A is satisfiable iff  $\exists x_1 \dots \exists x_n A$  is satisfiable.

The formula  $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n A$  is the universal closure of A. The formula  $\exists x_1 \dots \exists x_n A$  is the existential closure of A.

A formula  $A \in FO(S)$  is called cleansed if

- i) no variable occurs freely and bound and
- ii) every variable is bound at most once.

By repeated application of bound renaming in Lemma 4.21 every formula can be turned into a cleansed formula.

#### Lemma 4.23

For every formula  $A \in FO(S)$  there is a cleansed formula  $B \in FO(S)$  with  $A \models B$ .

Next goal: Move quantifiers outwards. Trick: Use the equivalences from Lemma 4.16.

### Definition 4.24

A formula of the shape  $A \equiv Q_1y_1 \dots Q_ny_n B$  is in prenex normal form, where  $Q_1, \dots, Q_n \in \{\forall, \exists\}$  and B quantifier-free.

We say  $A \in FO(S)$  is in CPF if A is cleansed and in prenex normal form.

#### Theorem 4.25

For every formula  $A \in FO(S)$  there is a formula  $B \in FO(S)$  in CPF with  $A \models B$ .

The proof (see blackboard) is based on a recursive algorithm. Try to work out this algorithm on your own as an exercise.

Final step: Eliminate existential quantifiers.

Trick: Turn the nesting of the quantifiers for all  $y_1 \dots y_n$  exists a z into a function  $z = f(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ :

 $\forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n \exists z.A \text{ yields } \forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n. (A\{z/f(y_1, \dots, y_n)\}).$ 

Here  $f/_n$  is a fresh function symbol from the set *Sko* of Skolem functions. Fresh means *Sko* is disjoint from *S*.

The introduction of skolem functions for existentially quantified variables is called skolemization.

Skolemization preserves only equisatisfiability, logical equivalence is lost.

Skolemization is due to Thoralf Albert Skolem (1887 – 1963).

## Definition 4.26 (Skolem Formula)

For a formula  $A \in FO(S)$  in CPF, the Skolem formula  $B \in FO(S \uplus Sko)$  (again in CPF) is defined by the following method:

while A has existential quantifiers do Let  $A \equiv \forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n \exists z.B$  with B in CPF Let  $f/n \in Sko$  be a Skolem symbol not in B Set  $A \equiv \forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n (B\{z/f(y_1, \dots, y_n)\})$ end while

Note: Skolem functions are introduced from outside to inside.

Theorem 4.27 (Skolem)

For every formula  $A \in FO(S)$  in CPF and the corresponding Skolem formula  $B \in FO(S \uplus Sko)$ :

A is satisfiable iff B is satisfiable.

## The Problem of Validity

Consider computability of the problem of validity:

```
Given: A formula A \in FO(S).
Question: Is A valid?
```

Goal: Validity is complete in the class of semi-decidable problems. More precisely:

**Upper bound**: Validity is semi-decidable.

Lower bound:

The problem of validity is hard in the class of semi-decidable problems.

In particular, validity is **undecidable**.

## Herbrand Theory

To show semi-decidability of validity, use

 $A \in FO(S)$  is valid iff  $\neg A$  is unsatisfiable.

Goal: Unsatisfiability is semi-decidable.

**Problem**: When choosing  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$ , the domain is arbitrary.

- No statement about the cardinality of *D*.
- No information about the structure of *I*.

How to enumerate structures and check for model property?

**Core idea**: The search for models can be restricted to **canonical structures**.

To find a model for A, it suffices to search in the following domain:

 $D_{\mathcal{H}} = AII$  variable-free terms over signature S.

# Herbrand Theory (Cont.)

Assumption:  $FO^{\neq}(S)$  with S = (Func, Pred), where Func contains a constant.

### Definition 4.28 (Herbrand Structure)

A structure  $\mathcal{H}$  of S is called Herbrand structure if  $\mathcal{H} = (D_{\mathcal{H}}, I_{\mathcal{H}})$ . Here  $D_{\mathcal{H}}$  is the smallest set that satisfies:

i) If 
$$a/_0 \in Func$$
, then  $a \in D_{\mathcal{H}}$ 

ii) If  $f/_n \in Func$  and  $t_1, \ldots, t_n \in D_H$ , then  $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \in D_H$ .

The interpretation  $I_{\mathcal{H}}(f): D_{\mathcal{H}}^n \to D_{\mathcal{H}}$  of the function symbols  $f/_n \in Func$  is defined as

$$I_{\mathcal{H}}(f)(t_1,\ldots,t_n):=f(t_1,\ldots,t_n).$$

The interpretation of the predicate symbols is still open, a Herbrand structure only needs to satisfy these two restrictions.

## Herbrand Theory (Cont.)

Consider a closed formula  $A \in FO^{\neq}(S)$ . A Herbrand structure  $\mathcal{H}$  with  $\mathcal{H} \models A$  is also called **Herbrand model** of A.

Theorem 4.29 (Herbrand)

Let  $A \in FO^{\neq}(S)$  be a closed formula in Skolem normal form. Then

A is satisfiable iff A has a Herbrand model.

Corollary 4.30 (Löwenheim-Skolem Theorem)

Let  $A \in FO(S)$  be satisfiable. Then A has a model  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$  with a countable domain D.

## Semi-Decidability of Validity

### Definition 4.31 (Herbrand Expansion)

Let  $A \equiv \forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n B \in FO^{\neq}(S)$  be closed and in Skolem normal form. Then the Herbrand expansion E(A) of A is defined as

 $E(A) := \{B\{y_1/t_1\} \dots \{y_n/t_n\} \mid t_1, \dots, t_n \in D_{\mathcal{H}}\}.$ 

So, all variables in B are replaced by terms in  $D_{\mathcal{H}}$ 

#### **Observation**:

- The formulae in E(A) can be treated like propositional formulae, as they do not contain variables.
- Consider Herbrand structure for interpreting the formulae in E(A).
- It gives truth values for the propositional variables in E(A).

Theorem 4.32 (Gödel-Herbrand-Skolem)

For a closed formula  $A \in FO^{\neq}(S)$  in Skolem normal form:

A is satisfiable iff E(A) is satisfiable in propositional logic.

**Intuition**: The predicate formula A is approximated by the propositional formulae in E(A).

Combine Theorem 4.32 with the compactness theorem of propositional logic.

#### Corollary 4.33

A closed formula  $A \in FO^{\neq}(S)$  in Skolem normal form is unsatisfiable iff there is a finite subset of E(A) which is unsatisfiable.

From this follows the semi-decidability of validity:

 $A \in FO(S)$  is valid iff  $\neg A$  is unsatisfiable.

Transform  $\neg A$  into a closed formula  $B \in FO^{\neq}(S \uplus Sko)$  in Skolem normal fom.

Above argumentation yields **Gilmore's algorithm**, which semi-decides the unsatisfiability of B.

## Gilmore's Algorithm:

**Input**:  $A \in FO^{\neq}(S \uplus Sko)$  closed and in Skolem normal form. Let  $E(A) = \{A_1, A_2, \ldots\}$  be an enumeration of E(A).

 $\begin{array}{l} {n:=1} \\ {\textbf{while}} \ A_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge A_n \text{ is propositionally satisfiable } {\textbf{do}} \\ {n:=n+1} \\ {\textbf{end while}} \\ {\textbf{return unsatisfiable}} \end{array}$ 

With corollary 4.33:

Terminates and returns correct result on unsatisfiable formulae.

Does not terminate on satisfiable formulae.

Theorem 4.34

The problem of validity is semi-decidable.

Note that the semi-decidability of validity does **not** imply the decidability via negation of the formula.

 $\not\models A$  is **not** equivalent to  $\models \neg A$ .

Only the latter can be checked via Herbrand expansion.

Now, show undecidability of validity.

## Lower Bound for Validity

**Goal**: The problem of validity is **hard** in the class of semi-decidable problems.

I.e. every semi-decidable problem has a many-one reduction to validity.

**Consequence**: Validity is **undecidable** (halting problem).

#### Definition 4.35 (Many-one Reduction)

A many-one reduction of a problem  $P_1$  to a problem  $P_2$  is a total and computable function  $f: P_1 \rightarrow P_2$ , which maps instances of  $P_1$  to instances of  $P_2$  so that

Instance K of  $P_1$  has a solution iff instance f(K) of  $P_2$  has a solution.

## Lower Bound for Validity (Cont.)

How to prove Hardness of validity? It is a universally quantified statement.

Consider a problem that is already known to be hard. Here we choose the **Post correspondence problem (PCP)**.

Give a many-one reduction of PCP to validity.

Why does this reduction show hardness of validity?

Let P be a semi-decidable problem and  $f_P$  its reduction to PCP. The reduction  $f_P$  exists, since PCP is hard.

Let f be the reduction of PCP to validity that is yet to be found. Then:

$$\mathsf{P} \xrightarrow{f_{\mathsf{P}}} \mathsf{PCP} \xrightarrow{f} \mathsf{Validity} \quad \mathsf{implies} \quad \mathsf{P} \xrightarrow{f \circ f_{\mathsf{P}}} \mathsf{Validity}.$$

## Post Correspondence Problem

Given: A finite sequence of word pairs

$$((x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n))$$
 mit  $x_i, y_i \in \{0, 1\}^+$ .

**Question**: Is there a non-empty sequence  $i_1, \ldots, i_k \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$  with

$$x_{i_1}\ldots x_{i_k}=y_{i_1}\ldots y_{i_k}.$$

A given sequence of word pairs is a **PCP instance** K. A sequence of indices  $i_1, \ldots, i_k$  that satisfies the equality above is called **solution of the instance** K.

Theorem 4.36 (Post 1946)

PCP is complete in the class of semi-decidable problems, so

- (a) PCP is semi-decidable and
- (b) every semi-decidable problem has a many-one reduction to PCP. In particular, PCP is undecidable.

# Lower Bound for Validity (Cont.)

### Theorem 4.37 (Church)

The problem of validity is hard — and with theorem 4.34 complete — in the class of semi-decidable problems.

Corollary 4.38

The problem of validity is undecidable.

## Compactness Theorem of First-Order Logic

### Definition 4.39 (Semantics of Sets of Formulae)

Let S be a signature,  $\Sigma \subseteq FO(S)$ ,  $\mathcal{M} = (D, I)$  and  $\sigma \in D^V$ .

- (i)  $\Sigma$  is satisfied in  $\mathcal{M}$  under  $\sigma$ , notation  $\mathcal{M}, \sigma \models \Sigma$  if for all  $A \in \Sigma$  we have  $\mathcal{M}\llbracket A \rrbracket(\sigma) = 1$ .
- (ii)  $\Sigma$  is satisfiable if there are  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\sigma$  with  $\mathcal{M}, \sigma \models \Sigma$ .

#### Theorem 4.40 (Compactness Theorem)

A set of formulae  $\Sigma \subseteq FO(S)$  is satisfiable iff every finite subset of  $\Sigma$  is satisfiable.

## Logical Consequence

Definition 5.1 (Logical Consequence)

The formula  $A \in FO(S)$  is a logical consequence of  $\Sigma \subseteq FO(S)$ , notation  $\Sigma \models A$ , if for all  $\mathcal{M}$  and  $\sigma$ :

 $\mathcal{M}, \sigma \models \Sigma$  implies  $\mathcal{M}, \sigma \models A$ .

The set of consequences of  $\Sigma$  is

$$Cons(\Sigma) := \{A \in FO(S) \mid \Sigma \models A\}.$$

Sets of formulae  $\Sigma \subseteq FO(S)$  and  $\Gamma \subseteq FO(S)$  are equivalent, notation  $\Sigma \models \Gamma$ , if

$$\Sigma \models A$$
 for all  $A \in \Gamma$  and  $\Gamma \models B$  for all  $B \in \Sigma$ .

# Logical Consequence (Cont.)

### Note 5.2

(a) 
$$\Sigma \models A$$
 iff  $\Sigma \cup \{\neg A\}$  not satisfiable.

(b) 
$$\emptyset \models A$$
 iff  $\models A$ , so A is valid.

(c) 
$$\Sigma$$
 not satisfiable iff  $\Sigma \models A$  for all  $A \in FO(S)$ .

(d) If 
$$\Gamma \subseteq \Sigma$$
 and  $\Gamma \models A$ , then  $\Sigma \models A$ 

(e) If 
$$\Gamma \models= \Sigma$$
, then  $\Gamma$  is satisfiable iff  $\Sigma$  is satisfiable.

(f) If 
$$\Gamma \models \Sigma$$
, then  $Cons(\Gamma) = Cons(\Sigma)$ .

(g) 
$$A \models B$$
 iff  $A \models B$  and  $B \models A$  iff  $\models A \leftrightarrow B$  iff  $\mathcal{M}[\![A]\!](\sigma) = \mathcal{M}[\![B]\!](\sigma)$  for all  $\mathcal{M}, \sigma$ .

(h) If  $A \models B$ , then  $\Sigma \models A$  iff  $\Sigma \models B$ .

# Examples

### Example 5.3

iv) 
$$\forall x(A \rightarrow B) \models \forall xA \rightarrow \forall xB$$

# Logical Consequence (Cont.)

Theorem 5.4 (Important Theorems) Let  $\Gamma \subseteq FO(S)$  and  $A, B \in FO(S)$ . **Deduction theorem**  $\Gamma, A \models B$  *iff*  $\Gamma \models A \rightarrow B$ **Modus Ponens rule**  $\Gamma \models A$  and  $\Gamma \models A \rightarrow B$ , then  $\Gamma \models B$ **Contraposition rule**  $\Gamma, A \models \neg B$  *iff*  $\Gamma, B \models \neg A$ Generalization theorem If  $x \in V$  does not occur freely in any formula of  $\Gamma$ , then  $\Gamma \models A$  iff  $\Gamma \models \forall x A$ In particular:  $A \models \forall x \ A \ or \models A \rightarrow \forall x \ A$ , if x does not occur freely in A.

# Logical Consequence (Cont.)

### Example 5.5 (Application of Theorems)

a) 
$$\models \exists x \forall y A \rightarrow \forall y \exists x A$$
  
iff 
$$\exists x \forall y A \models \forall y \exists x A$$
  
iff 
$$\exists x \forall y A \models \exists x A$$
  
iff 
$$\neg \forall x \neg \forall y A \models \neg \forall x \neg A$$
  
iff 
$$\forall x \neg A \models \forall x \neg \forall y A$$
  
iff 
$$\forall x \neg A \models \neg \forall y A$$
  
iff 
$$\{\forall x \neg A, \forall y A\}$$

Deduction theorem Generalization theorem Note 5.2 (logical equivalence) Contraposition rule Generalization theorem not satisfiable

#### b) Variant of congruence

A' is created from A via permitted (consider quantifiers) replacement of some occurrences of x with y. Then

$$\models \forall x \forall y (x = y \rightarrow (A \leftrightarrow A')).$$

Example:  $\forall x \forall y (x = y \rightarrow (f(x, y) = g(x) \leftrightarrow f(y, y) = g(x))$ 

### The Deductive System $\mathcal{F}$

**Goal:** Construct a suitable deductive system  $\mathcal{F}(Ax, R)$  for first order logic. **Suitable:** Soundness ( $\Rightarrow$ ) and **completeness (** $\Leftarrow$ **)** 

$$\begin{array}{c} \vdash \\ \mathcal{F} \\ \mathcal{F} \\ \Sigma \\ \vdash \\ \mathcal{F} \\ \mathcal{F} \\ \mathcal{F} \end{array} \quad \text{iff} \quad \Sigma \models A$$

The definition of system  $\mathcal{F}$  together with the proof of completeness is a great contribution by Kurt Gödel (1906 — 1978).

# The Deductive System $\mathcal{F}$ (Cont.)

Let  $FO_0(S)$  the subset of formulae from FO(S) over  $\neg, \rightarrow, \forall, =$ .

Definition 5.6 (Deductive Systems)

The **deductive system**  $\mathcal{F}(Ax, R)$  for  $FO_0(S)$  consists of the axioms that can be generated as generalizations of the formulae which are described by the following schemata:

- **Ax1:** Propositional tautologies
- **Ax2:**  $\forall x \ A \rightarrow A\{x/t\}$
- **Ax3:**  $\forall x (A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (\forall x A \rightarrow \forall x B)$
- **Ax4:**  $A \rightarrow \forall x A \text{ if } x \notin FV(A)$
- **Ax5:** x = x
- **Ax6:**  $x = y \rightarrow (A \rightarrow A')$ , where A' is created from A via replacement of some free occurrences of x with y (if permitted).

The only rule schema is Modus Ponens:

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

# The Deductive System $\mathcal{F}$ (Cont.)

### Definition 5.7 (and Note)

Let  $A \in FO(S)$  and  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \subseteq FV(A)$ . The formula

 $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n . A$ 

### is a generalization of A.

With theorem 2.12 all propositional tautologies can be derived from three axiom schemata via Modus Ponens.

## Deduction Theorem and Generalization Theorem

Theorem 5.8 Let  $\Gamma \subseteq FO(S)$  and  $A, B \in FO(S)$ . a) Deduction theorem  $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{F}} A \to B$  iff  $\Gamma, A \vdash_{\mathcal{F}} B$ b) Generalization theorem: If  $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{T}} A$  and x does not occur freely in  $\Gamma$ , then  $\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{T}} \forall x A$ c) Contraposition theorem:  $\Gamma, A \vdash \neg B$  iff  $\Gamma, B \vdash \neg A$ .

Hence, the theorems known from the deductive system  $\mathcal{F}_0$  of propositional logic are valid for system  $\mathcal{F}$ .

## Consistency

#### Definition 5.9

A set of formulae  $\Gamma \subseteq FO(S)$  is called **consistent** if there is no  $A \in FO(S)$ with  $\Gamma \underset{\mathcal{F}}{\vdash} A$  and  $\Gamma \underset{\mathcal{F}}{\vdash} \neg A$ .

#### Note 5.10

- Γ is consistent iff every finite subset of Γ is consistent.
- If  $\Gamma$  is inconsistent, then  $\Gamma \vdash_{T} A$  for every formula A.

• If 
$$\Gamma \vdash_{_{\mathcal{T}}} A$$
, then  $\Gamma \cup \{\neg A\}$  is inconsistent.

- If  $\Gamma$  is inconsistent, then  $\Gamma$  is not satisfiable.
- The set of valid formulae is consistent.
- The set of theorems of  $\mathcal F$  is consistent.

# The Deductive System $\mathcal{F}$ (Cont.)

Theorem 5.11 (Soundness and Completeness of  $\mathcal{F}$ , Gödel) Let  $A \in FO(S)$  and  $\Sigma \subseteq FO(S)$ , then:

a) 
$$\vdash_{\mathcal{F}} A$$
 iff  $\models A$ .  
b)  $\Sigma \vdash_{\mathcal{F}} A$  iff  $\Sigma \models A$ .  
c)  $\Sigma$  consistent iff  $\Sigma$  satisfiable.

### The Theorem of Predicate Logic!

Proof:

Soundness: Ax contains only valid formulae and (MP) does not lead out of the set of valid formulae.

```
Completeness: See Enderton. ■
```

## First Order Theories

Consider closed formulae from  $FO_{closed}(S)$ .

Definition 5.12

Let S be a signature. A set of formulae  $\Gamma \subseteq FO_{closed}(S)$  is called a first order theory if  $\Gamma$  is closed under logical consequence:

 $A \in FO_{closed}(S)$  and  $\Gamma \models A$  implies  $A \in \Gamma$ .

Use T as identifier for theories.

Alternative definitions in literature:

- Γ set of formulae from FO(S) instead of FO<sub>closed</sub>(S), closed under logical consequence.
- $\Gamma$  theory if  $\Gamma$  closed under MP and generalization.

#### Note 5.13

Let S be a signature.

- a)  $T_S = \{A \in FO_{closed}(S) \mid A \text{ valid}\}$  is a theory.
- b) Let  $\Sigma \subseteq FO_{closed}(S)$ . Then  $T_{\Sigma} = \{A \in FO_{closed}(S) \mid \Sigma \models A\}$  is the theory generated by  $\Sigma$  oder theory defined by the axioms  $\Sigma$ .
- c) Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be a structure of the signature S. Then

$$T_{\mathcal{M}} = \{A \in FO_{closed}(S) \mid \mathcal{M} \models A\}$$

is the **theory of**  $\mathcal{M}$ .  $Th(\mathcal{M})$  is also commonly used as symbol.

### Lemma 5.14 (and Definition)

(i) If T is a theory and  $A \in FO_{closed}(S)$ , then

 $T \vdash_{\mathcal{F}} A$  iff  $A \in T$ .

- (ii) A theory T is called **inconsistent** if there is a formula  $A \in FO_{closed}(S)$  with  $T \vdash_{\mathcal{F}} A$  and  $T \vdash_{\mathcal{F}} \neg A$ . In this case  $T = FO_{closed}(S)$ .
- (iii)  $T_{\mathcal{M}}$  is consistent for every structure  $\mathcal{M}$ .
- (iv)  $T_S$  ist contained in each theory over S.

#### Definition 5.15

Let T be a first order theory over signature S.

- a) T is called **complete** if for every formula  $A \in FO_{closed}(S)$  we have:  $A \in T$  oder  $\neg A \in T$ .
- b) T is called (finitely, enumerably) axiomatizable if there is a (finite, enumerable) subset  $\Sigma \subseteq FO_{closed}(S)$  with

$$T_{\Sigma} = T.$$

c) T is called **decidable** if T is a decidable subset of  $FO_{closed}(S)$ .

#### Note 5.16

- (a)  $T_{\mathcal{M}}$  is complete for every structure  $\mathcal{M}$ . With lemma 5.14  $T_{\mathcal{M}}$  is also consistent and complete.
- (b) T is satisfiable iff T is consistent.
- (c) If T is enumerably axiomatizable, then T is enumerable.
- (d) If T is complete and enumerably axiomatizable, then T is decidable.
- (e) If T is complete and consistent, then  $T = T_{\mathcal{M}}$  for a structure  $\mathcal{M}$ .

**Goal**: Find Axiomatizations of important theories. In particular: When is  $T_{\mathcal{M}} = T_{\Sigma}$  for **enumerable**  $\Sigma$ . **Motivation**: Decidability! **Problem**: When is  $T_{\Sigma}$  complete for enumerable  $\Sigma$ ?

# Axiomatization (Presburger)

Consider the signature of the arithmetic **without multiplication**:

$$S_{PA} = (\{0/_0, 1/_0, +/_2\}, \{=/_2\}).$$

The corresponding structure  $\mathcal{M}_{PA} = (\mathbb{N}, I_{PA})$  with the usual interpretation is called **Presburger arithmetic**.

Let  $\Sigma_{PA}$  the set of the following axioms, with (induction) a schema:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x : \neg (x+1=0) & (\text{zero}) \\ \forall x : x+0=x & (\text{plus zero}) \\ \forall x \forall y : x+1=y+1 \rightarrow x=y & (\text{successor}) \\ \forall x \forall y : x+(y+1)=(x+y)+1 & (\text{plus successor}) \\ A(0) \land (\forall x : A(x) \rightarrow A(x+1)) \rightarrow \forall x : A(x), & (\text{induction}) \end{aligned}$$

where  $A \in FO(S_{PA})$  is a formula with a free variable.

# Axiomatization (Presburger)

Theorem 5.17 (Complete Axiomatization of Presburger Arithmetic)

It is  $T_{\mathcal{M}_{PA}} = T_{\Sigma_{PA}}$ . Since  $\Sigma_{PA}$  is enumerable,  $T_{\mathcal{M}_{PA}}$  is decidable.

Completeness of the axiomatization is involved. Decidability follows with note 5.16(d).

Hence, closed formulae from  $FO(S_{PA})$  can be checked **automatically** for satisfaction in Presburger arithmetic.

For example:

$$\forall w \forall x \exists y \exists z : x + 2y + 3w = z + 13$$
?

Consider the quantifiers and compare with Gauss elimination.

## Axiomatization (Gödel and Peano)

Consider the signature of the full arithmetic:

$$S_{Arith} = (\{0/_0, 1/_0, +/_2, ./_2\}, \{=/_2\}).$$

The corresponding structure  $\mathcal{M}_{Arith} = (\mathbb{N}, I_{Arith})$  with the usual interpretation is called (first order) arithmetic.

### Theorem 5.18 (Gödel)

 $T_{\mathcal{M}_{Arith}}$  is not decidable.

Consequence 1:  $T_{\mathcal{M}_{Arith}}$  is not enumerably axiomatizable

Consequence 2: Every enumerable system of axioms for  $T_{\mathcal{M}_{Arith}}$  is incomplete.

The consequences follow from note 5.16(a) und (d).

# Axiomatization (Gödel and Peano)

In particular the Peano axioms  $\Sigma_{Peano}$  are **not** a complete axiomatization of  $T_{\mathcal{M}_{Arith}}$ :

$$\begin{array}{ll} \forall x: \neg(x+1=0) & (\text{zero}) \\ \forall x: x+0=x & (\text{plus zero}) \\ \forall x \forall y: x+1=y+1 \rightarrow x=y & (\text{successor}) \\ \forall x \forall y: x+(y+1)=(x+y)+1 & (\text{plus successor}) \\ A(0) \wedge (\forall x: A(x) \rightarrow A(x+1)) \rightarrow \forall x: A(x) & (\text{induction}) \\ \forall x: x \cdot 0=0 & (\text{times zero}) \\ \forall x \forall y: x \cdot (y+1)=x \cdot y+x & (\text{times successor}) \end{array}$$

So there are closed formulae  $A \in FO(S_{Arith})$  with  $\mathcal{M}_{Arith} \models A$ , for which  $\Sigma_{Peano} \models A$  is **not** true.

How can this be?  $T_{\Sigma_{Peano}}$  has non-standard models!

## Axiomatization (Arrays)

Given are functions for read and write accesses on arrays:

$$S_{McC} = (\{\text{read}/_2, \text{write}/_3\}, \{=/_2\}).$$

Consider McCarthy's array axioms  $\Sigma_{McC}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x : x = x & (\text{Reflexivity}) \\ \forall x \forall y : x = y \rightarrow y = x & (\text{Symmetry}) \\ \forall x \forall y \forall z : x = y \land y = z \rightarrow x = z & (\text{Transitivity}) \\ \forall a \forall i \forall j : i = j \rightarrow \text{read}(a, i) = \text{read}(a, j) & (\text{Array congruence}) \\ \forall a \forall v \forall i \forall j : i = j \rightarrow \text{read}(\text{write}(a, i, v), j) = v & (\text{Read-Write 1}) \\ \forall a \forall v \forall i \forall j : i \neq j \rightarrow \text{read}(\text{write}(a, i, v), j) = \text{read}(a, j). & (\text{Read-Write 2}) \end{aligned}$$

#### Theorem 5.19

 $T_{\Sigma_{McC}}$  is **not decidable**, in particular **not complete**. Decidable fragments are an active area of research, Aaron Bradley'06.

Roland Meyer (TU Kaiserslautern)

**Goal: Practical** semi-decision procedures for unsatisfiability. Applications:

**Validity**:  $\models A$  iff  $\neg A$  unsatisfiable.

**Logical Consequence**:  $\Sigma \models A$  iff  $\Sigma \cup \{\neg A\}$  unsatisfiable.

Idea: Systematic version of Gilmore's algorithm.

Specifically generate ground formulae to derive contradictions.

## Semantic Tableaux

Consider closed formulae in  $FO^{\neq}(S)$ , i.e. formulae without =.

### Definition 6.1

Formulae from  $FO^{\neq}(S)$  can be divided into classes:

- (Negated) atomic formulae:  $p(t_1, \ldots, t_n), \neg p(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ .
- $\alpha$ -formulae:  $A \wedge B$ ,  $\neg (A \vee B)$ ,  $\neg (A \rightarrow B)$ ,  $\neg \neg A$ .
- $\beta$ -formulae:  $\neg (A \land B), (A \lor B), (A \to B).$
- $\gamma$ -formulae:  $\forall xA, \neg \exists xA$ .
- $\delta$ -formulae:  $\exists xA, \neg \forall xA$ .

#### Tableau Construction:

 $\alpha, \beta$ -formulae: as usual.  $\gamma$ -formulae:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \gamma & \forall x \ A & \neg \exists x \ A \\ \hline \gamma[t] & A\{x/t\} & \neg A\{x/t\}, \end{array}$$

where *t* is a ground term, so it contains no variables.  $\delta$ -formulae:

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta[c]} \frac{\exists x A}{A\{x/c\}} \neg \forall x A}{\neg \forall x/c\}},$$

where c is a function constant and fresh for that branch.

#### Notes regarding the construction:

 $\delta$ -formulae Must be "satisfied" only once.

Solutions of  $\delta$ -formulae must not be restricted: an x with property A does not have to function as y with property B.

 $\gamma$ -formulae Must be satisfied for all objects that are introduced. They have to be considered always.

Intuition: Systematic construction of a Herbrand model:

- δ-Formeln are skolemized.
   Introduce as many constants as necessary.
- Choose the terms over constants as domain.
- If the signature contains no function symbols, those are just the constants.

The proofs of **soundness** and **completeness** are analog to those of propositional logic.

Lemma 6.2

Let  $A \in FO^{\neq}(S)$  be closed and  $\tau$  a tableau for A. Then

A is satisfiable iff  $\exists$  branch  $\Gamma \in \tau : \Gamma$  is satisfiable.

### Definition 6.3

A set of closed formulae  $\Gamma \subseteq FO(S)$  is called **complete** if

- **1** for every  $\alpha$ -formula in  $\Gamma$  we have  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \Gamma$
- **2** for every  $\beta$ -formula in  $\Gamma$  we have  $\beta_1 \in \Gamma$  or  $\beta_2 \in \Gamma$
- **③** for every *γ*-formula in Γ we have  $\gamma[t] \in Γ$  for all  $t \in D_{\mathcal{H}(S)}$
- for every  $\delta$ -formula in  $\Gamma$  there is a  $t \in D_{\mathcal{H}(S)}$  with  $\delta[t] \in \Gamma$ .

The set is called **closed** if there is a  $B \in FO(S)$  with  $B, \neg B \in \Gamma$ . Otherwise  $\Gamma$  is called **open**.

Note: Introduced constants are contained in the signature S and thus also in the terms  $D_{\mathcal{H}(S)}$ .

#### Lemma 6.4 (Hintikka)

Let  $\Gamma \subseteq FO^{\neq}(S)$  be complete. Then  $\Gamma$  is satisfiable iff  $\Gamma$  is open.

Theorem 6.5 Let  $A \in FO(S)$  and  $\Sigma \subseteq FO(S)$ . a)  $\models A$  iff there is a closed tableau for  $\neg A$ . b)  $\Sigma \models A$  iff there is a closed tableau for  $\Sigma \cup \{\neg A\}$ .

A systematic tableau construction guarantees that all branches are complete (possibly infinite).

Idea of a systematic tableau construction:  $\Sigma, \quad \alpha, \quad \delta, \quad \gamma, \quad \beta$ 

Assuming such a systematic tableau construction, we get a **semi-decision procedure** for validity.

Theorem 6.6 If  $A \in FO(S)$  is valid, the systematic tableau construction generates a closed tableau for  $\neg A$ .

Tableaux are not a decision procedure for validity.

See **undecidability** in theorem 4.37.

Since the procedure is sound and complete, it possibly will not terminate.

 $D_{\mathcal{H}(S)}$  can be infinite: Function symbols.

Heuristic for the construction of finite models:

Weaken the requirement fresh for the  $\delta$ -formulae.

- Use existing constants first.
- If this choice leads to contradictions, introduce new constants.
- Otherwise model has been found.

### Examples for Reuse of Constants

Are there models for  $\{\exists x \neg p(x,x), \forall x \exists y \ p(x,y)\}$ ?

$$\begin{array}{l} \bullet \exists x \neg p(x, x) \\ \bullet \forall x \exists y \ p(x, y) \\ \bullet \neg p(a, a) \\ \bullet \exists y \ p(a, y) \\ \bullet p(a, b) \\ \bullet \exists y \ p(b, y) \\ \bullet p(b, c) \end{array}$$

## Examples for Reuse of Constants (Cont.)

Reuse constant *a*:

$$\exists x \neg p(x, x) \forall x \exists y p(x, y) \neg p(a, a) \exists y p(a, y) \bullet p(a, b) \exists y p(b, y) \bullet p(b, a)$$

So there is a structure with two elements  $\{a, b\}$  that is a model. Interpretation of the predicate:

p(x,y)	а	b
а	0	1
b	1	*

Examples for Reuse of Constants (Cont.)  $\mathsf{Is} \models \forall x (p(x) \lor q(x)) \to (\forall x p(x) \lor \forall x q(x)) ?$  $\begin{tabular}{l} \begin{tabular}{ll} & & \\ \end{tabular} \end{tabular} \end{tabular} \end{tabular} \begin{tabular}{ll} & & \\ \end{tabular} \end{tabular$  $\oint \forall x \ (p(x) \lor q(x))$  $\neg \forall x \ p(x)$  $\neg \forall x \ q(x)$ -q(b) $\bullet p(a) \lor q(a)$  $p(b) \lor q(b)$ q(a)p(a)p(b) $\mathbf{y}_{l}q(b)$ 

 $\mathcal{M} = (\{a, b\}, I(p)(a) = I(q)(b) = 0, I(p)(b) = I(q)(a) = 1)$ 

## Idea of Predicate Logical Resolution

**Goal: Practical** semi-decision procedure for unsatisfiability based on Gilmore's algorithm:

To show unsatisfiability of  $A \equiv \forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n B \in FO(S)$  in Skolem normal form, show unsatisfiability of the Herbrand expansion E(A).

**Example**: Let  $A \equiv \forall x.p(x) \land \neg p(f(x))$  over  $S = (\{a/_0, f/_1\}, \{p/_1\})$ . Then

$$E(A) = \{p(a) \land \neg p(f(a)), p(f(a)) \land \neg p(f(f(a))), \ldots\}.$$

**Observation**: Since  $A \equiv \forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n B$  with *B* in **CNF**, unsatisfiability of E(A) can be checked via **propositional resolution**:

$$\{p(a)\} \qquad \{\neg p(f(a))\} \qquad \{p(f(a))\} \qquad \{\neg p(f(f(a)))\}$$

# Idea of Predicate Logical Resolution (Cont.)

**Observation**: The substitutions  $\{x/a\}$  and  $\{x/f(a)\}$  already yield an unsatisfiable set of formulae.

But here two clauses are being generated which aren't needed for deriving the empty clause  $\sqcup$ .

**Idea**: Generate fitting substitution for every clause in B — individually. Apply the substitution only to this clause, not the entire B.

Example:

Clauses in B
$$\{p(x)\}$$
 $\{\neg p(f(x))\}$ Ground substitutions $\downarrow \{x/f(a)\}$  $\downarrow \{x/a\}$ Corresponding ground instances $\{p(f(a))\}$  $\{\neg p(f(a))\}$ of the clauses in B $\checkmark$  $\checkmark$ 

# Idea of Predicate Logical Resolution (Cont.)

**Problem**: Algorithmic search for ground instances for the derivation of the empty clause  $\sqcup$ .

- Systematic testing of ground substitutions expensive.
- Predictive decision for ground substitutions to enable resolutions that are needed later hard.

**Approach**: Apply substitutions reluctantly — only if they are needed for the next resolution step.

Example:

 $\{p(x), \neg q(g(x))\}$   $\{\neg p(f(y))\}$   $\langle \neg q(g(f(y)))\}$   $\{\neg q(g(f(y)))\}$ 

Idea of Predicate Logical Resolution (Cont.)

Example:

$$\{p(x), \neg q(g(x))\}$$
 
$$\{\neg p(f(y))\}$$
 
$$\langle \neg q(g(f(y)))\}$$
 
$$\{\neg q(g(f(y)))\}$$

What happens?

Generate predicate logical resolvent from predicate logical clauses.

Resolution step comes with substitution, which makes literals in initial clauses complementary.

Apply substitutions reluctantly, no need for ground substitutions.

## Unification

**Goal**: Compute unifier — a substitution that makes a set of literals identical.

**Example**: For  $\{p(x), p(f(y))\}$  are

$$\Theta_1 = \{x/f(y)\}$$
 and  $\Theta_2 = \{x/f(a), y/a\}$ 

unifiers. But  $\Theta_2$  substitutes more than necessary.

### Definition 6.7 (Unifier)

A substitution  $\Theta : \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \rightarrow \{t_1, \dots, t_n\}$  is unifier of a set of literals  $\{L_1, \dots, L_n\}$  if

$$L_1\Theta\equiv\ldots\equiv L_n\Theta.$$

If  $\Theta$  exists, the set of literals is called **unifiable**.

# Unification (Cont.)

### Definition 6.7 (Unifier (Cont.))

A unifier  $\Theta$  of  $\{L_1, \ldots, L_n\}$  is called **most general unifier** if for every unifier  $\Theta'$  of  $\{L_1, \ldots, L_n\}$  there is a substitution  $\tilde{\Theta}$  so that

$$\Theta'=\Theta\tilde\Theta.$$

Visually, the following is true for a most general unifier:

$$egin{array}{ccc} A & \stackrel{\Theta}{ o} & A\Theta \ & & & \downarrow ilde{\Theta} & & & ext{for every formula } A \in FO(S). \ & & & A\Theta' \equiv A\Theta ilde{\Theta} & & & \end{array}$$

### Theorem 6.8 (Unification, Robinson)

Every unifiable set of literals has a most general unifier.

# Unification Algorithm

```
Input: \{L_1, ..., L_n\}.
  \Theta := \{\}
  while \exists i, j : L_i \Theta \not\equiv L_i \Theta do
     go through literals L_1\Theta, \ldots, L_n\Theta from left to right,
     until first position is found where L_k \Theta \not\equiv L_m \Theta.
     if none of the symbols is a variable then
        return not unifiable
     end if
     let x = the variable
     let t = the term in the other literal
     if x \in V(t) then
                                                               //Occur Check
        return not unifiable
     end if
     \Theta := \Theta\{x/t\}
  end while
  return \Theta
```

When the algorithm terminates positively,  $\Theta$  is a most general unifier.

### Resolution

### Definition 6.9 (Resolvent)

Let  $K_1, K_2$  be predicate logical clauses with disjoint variables. If there are literals  $L_1, \ldots, L_m \in K_1$  and  $L'_1, \ldots, L'_n \in K_2$ , so that

$$\{\overline{L_1},\ldots,\overline{L_m},L'_1,\ldots,L'_n\}$$

is unifiable with the most general unifier  $\Theta,$  then

$$R := \big((K_1 \setminus \{L_1, \ldots, L_m\}) \cup (K_2 \setminus \{L'_1, \ldots, L'_n\})\big)\Theta$$

is called the predicate logical resolvent of  $K_1$  and  $K_2$ .

Notation: $K_1, K_2 \vdash_{Res} R$ or	Note: Propositional resolu- tion is a special case with
<i>K</i> <sub>1</sub> <i>K</i> <sub>2</sub>	$m=n=1$ and $\Theta=\{\}.$
$\searrow$ $\swarrow$ $\Theta$	
R	

Resolution (Cont.)

**Example**:

$$\{p(f(x)), \neg q(z), p(z)\}$$

$$\{\neg p(y), r(g(y), a)\}$$

$$\langle \Theta = \{z/f(x), y/f(x)\}$$

$$\{\neg q(f(x)), r(g(f(x)), a)\}$$

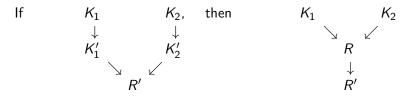
Theorem 6.10 (Soundness and Refutation Completeness, Robinson) Let  $A \equiv \forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n . B \in FO(S)$  be in Skolem normal form with B in CNF. Then A is unsatisfiable iff  $B \vdash_{Res} \sqcup$ .

**Note**: The procedure does not necessarily terminate. Unsatisfiability is <u>undecidable</u>.

## Regarding the Proof of Refutation Completeness

**Proof approach**: Reduce predicate logical resolution to propositional ground resolution (as introduced above).

**Technique**: Propositional resolutions of ground instances can be lifted in predicate logical resolutions:



### Lemma 6.11 (Lifting Lemma)

Let  $K_1, K_2$  predicate logical clauses and  $K'_1, K'_2$  ground instances with propositional resolvent R'. Then there is a predicate logical resolvent R from  $K_1, K_2$  so that R' is a ground instance of R.