Speaking Logic

N. Shankar

Computer Science Laboratory SRI International Menlo Park, CA

May 21, 2017

Proofs and Things

Perhaps I can best describe my experience of doing mathematics in terms of a journey through a dark unexplored mansion. You enter the first room of the mansion and it's completely dark. You stumble around bumping into the furniture, but gradually you learn where each piece of furniture is. Finally, after six months or so, you find the light switch, you turn it on, and suddenly it's all illuminated. You can see exactly where you were. Then you move into the next room and spend another six months in the dark. So each of these breakthroughs, while sometimes they're momentary, sometimes over a period of a day or two, they are the culmination of and couldn't exist without the many months of stumbling Andrew Wiles¹ around in the dark that precede them.



¹http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/nova/physics/andrew-wiles-fermat.html

Why Logic?

- Computing, like mathematics, is the study of reusable abstractions.
- Abstractions in computing include numbers, lists, channels, processes, protocols, and programming languages.
- These abstractions have algorithmic value in designing, representing, and reasoning about computational processes.
- Properties of abstractions are captured by precisely stated laws through formalization using axioms, definitions, theorems, and proofs.
- Logic is the medium for expressing these abstract laws and the method for deriving consequences of these laws using sound reasoning principles.
- Computing is abstraction engineering.
- Logic is the calculus of computing.



The Unreasonable Effectiveness of Logic in Computing

- The world is increasingly an interplay of abstractions.
- Caches, files, IP addresses, avatars, friends, likes, hyperlinks, packets, network protocols, and cyber-physical systems are all examples of abstractions in daily use.
- Such abstract entities and the relationships can be expresses clearly and precisely in logic.
- In computing, and elsewhere, we are becoming increasingly dependent on formalization as a way of managing the abstract universe.



Where Logic has Been Effective

Logic has been $\ensuremath{\textit{unreasonably}}$ effective in computing, with an impact that spans

- Theoretical computer science: Algorithms, Complexity, Descriptive Complexity
- Hardware design and verification: Logic design, minimization, synthesis, model checking
- Software verification: Specification languages, Assertional verification, Verification tools
- Computer security: Information flow, Cryptographic protocols
- Programming languages: Logic/functional programming, Type systems, Semantics
- Artificial intelligence: Knowledge representation, Planning
- Databases: Data models, Query languages
- Systems biology: Process models

Our course is about the effective use of logic in computing.



Speaking Logic

- In mathematics, logic is studied as a source of interesting (meta-)theorems, but the reasoning is typically informal.
- In philosophy, logic is studied as a minimal set of foundational principles from which knowledge can be derived.
- In computing, the challenge is to solve large and complex problems through abstraction and decomposition.
- Formal, logical reasoning is needed to achieve scale and correctness.
- We will examine how logic is used to formulate problems, find solutions, and build proofs.
- We will also examine useful metalogical properties of logics, as well as algorithmic methods for effective inference.



Course Schedule

- The course is spread over Four lectures:
 - Lecture 1: Proofs and Things
 - Lecture 2: Propositional Logics
 - Lecture 3: First-Order and Higher-Order Logic
 - Lecture 4: Advanced topics
- The goal is to learn how to speak logic fluently through the use of propositional, modal, equational, first-order, and higher-order logic.
- This will serve as a background for the more sophisticated ideas in the main lectures in the school.
- To get the most out of the course, please do the exercises.



A Small Puzzle [Wason]

- Given four cards laid out on a table as: D, 3, F, 7, where each card has a letter on one side and a number on the other.
- Which cards should you flip over to determine if every card with a D on one side has a 7 on the other side?

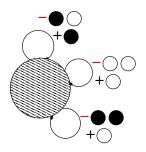


A Small Problem

Given a bag containing some black balls and white balls, and a stash of black/white balls. Repeatedly

- Remove a random pair of balls from the bag
- 2 If they are the same color, insert a white ball into the bag
- If they are of different colors, insert a black ball into the bag

What is the color of the last ball?





Truthtellers and Liars [Smullyan]

- You are confronted with two gates.
- One gate leads to the castle, and the other leads to a trap
- There are two guards, one at each gate: one always tells the truth, and the other always lies, but you can't tell which is which.
- You are allowed to ask one of the guards one question with a yes/no answer.
- What question should you ask in order to find out which gate leads to the castle?



When is Cheryl's Birthday?

 Albert and Bernard have just become friends with Cheryl, and they want to know her date of birth. Cheryl gives them 10 possible dates:

```
May 15 May 16 May 19
June 17 June 18
July 14 July 16
August 14 August 15 August 17
```

- Cheryl then tells Albert and Bernard separately the month and the day of her birthday, respectively.
- Albert: I don't know when Cheryl's birthday is, but I know that Bernhard does not know too.

Bernard: At first I didn't know Cheryl's birthday, but now I do.

Albert: Then I also know Cheryl's birthday.

• When is Cheryl's birthday?



Mr. S and Mr. P

- Two integers m and n are picked from the interval [2,99].
- Mr. S is given the sum m + n. and Mr. P is given the product mn.
- They then have the following dialogue:

S: I don't know m and n.

P: *Me neither.*

S: I know that you don't.

P: In that case, I do know m and n.

S: Then, I do too.

How would you determine the numbers m and n?



Pigeonhole Principle & Cantor's Theorem

- Why can't you park n + 1 cars in n parking spaces, if each car needs its own space?
- Let *m..n* represent the subrange of integers from *m* to, but not including, *n*.
- An injection from set A to set B is a map f such that f(x) = f(y) implies x = y, for any x, y in A.
- The Pigeonole principle can be restated as asserting that there is no injection from 0..n + 1 to 0..n. Prove it.
- Let $\mathbb N$ be the set of natural numbers $0,1,2,\ldots$, and let $\wp(\mathbb N)$ be the set of subsets of $\mathbb N$.
- Show that there is no injection from $\wp(\mathbb{N})$ to \mathbb{N} .



Hard Sudoku [Wikipedia/Algorithmics_of_Sudoku]

| | | | | | 3 | | 8 | 5 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1 | | 2 | | | | |
| | | | 5 | | 7 | | | |
| | | 4 | | | | 1 | | |
| | 9 | | | | | | | |
| 5 | | | | | | | 7 | 3 |
| | | 2 | | 1 | | | | |
| | | | | 4 | | | | 9 |



Gilbreath's Card Trick

 Start with a deck consisting of a stack of quartets, where the cards in each quartet appear in suit order ♠, ♡, ♣, ♦:

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle 5 \spadesuit \rangle, \langle 3 \heartsuit \rangle, \langle Q \clubsuit \rangle, \langle 8 \diamondsuit \rangle, \\ \langle K \spadesuit \rangle, \langle 2 \heartsuit \rangle, \langle 7 \clubsuit \rangle, \langle 4 \diamondsuit \rangle, \\ \langle 8 \spadesuit \rangle, \langle J \heartsuit \rangle, \langle 9 \clubsuit \rangle, \langle A \diamondsuit \rangle \end{array}$$

- Cut the deck, say as $\langle 5 \spadesuit \rangle$, $\langle 3 \heartsuit \rangle$, $\langle Q \clubsuit \rangle$, $\langle 8 \diamondsuit \rangle$, $\langle K \spadesuit \rangle$ and $\langle 2 \heartsuit \rangle$, $\langle 7 \clubsuit \rangle$, $\langle 4 \diamondsuit \rangle$, $\langle 8 \spadesuit \rangle$, $\langle J \heartsuit \rangle$, $\langle 9 \clubsuit \rangle$, $\langle A \diamondsuit \rangle$.
- Reverse one of the decks as $\langle K \spadesuit \rangle$, $\langle 8 \diamondsuit \rangle$, $\langle Q \clubsuit \rangle$, $\langle 3 \heartsuit \rangle$, $\langle 5 \spadesuit \rangle$.
- Now shuffling, for example, as

$$\begin{array}{l} \langle 2 { \circlearrowleft } \rangle, \langle 7 \clubsuit \rangle, \underline{\langle K \spadesuit \rangle}, \underline{\langle 8 \diamondsuit \rangle}, \\ \langle 4 \diamondsuit \rangle, \langle 8 \spadesuit \rangle, \underline{\langle Q \clubsuit \rangle}, \overline{\langle J { \circlearrowleft } \rangle}, \\ \langle 3 { \circlearrowleft } \rangle, \langle 9 \clubsuit \rangle, \overline{\langle 5 \spadesuit \rangle}, \overline{\langle A \diamondsuit \rangle} \end{array}$$

Each quartet contains a card from each suit. Why?



A Sorting Card Trick

- Arrange 25 cards from a deck of cards in a 5x5 grid.
- First, sort each of the rows individually.
- Then, sort each of the columns individually.
- Now both the rows and columns are sorted. How come?



Length of the Longest Increasing Subsequence

- You have a sequence of numbers, e.g.,9, 7, 10, 9, 5, 4, 10.
- The task is to find the length of the longest increasing subsequence.
- Here the longest subsequence is 7, 9, 10, and its length is 3.
- Patience solitaire is a card game where cards are placed, one by one, into a sequence of columns.
- Each card is placed at the bottom of the leftmost column where it is no bigger than the current bottom card in the column.
- If there is no such column, we start a new column at the right.
- Show that the number of columns left at the end yields the length of the longest increasing subsequence.



Computing Majority

- An election has five candidates: Alice, Bob, Cathy, Don, and Ella.
- The votes have come in as:
 E, D, C, B, C, C, A, C, E, C, A, C, C.
- You are told that some candidate has won the majority (over half) of the votes.
- You successively remove pairs of dissimilar votes, until there are no more such pairs.
- That is, the remaining votes, if any, are all for the same candidate.
- Show that this candidate has the majority.



Proofs, informally

- For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, prove that $\sum_{i=0}^{n} = n(n+1)/2$. Why is the right-hand side always a natural number.
- With $n, k \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \ge k > 0$, $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}$, show that $\binom{n}{k}$ is a natural number.
- Define $\mathbb N$ as the smallest set containing 0 and closed under the successor operation S, where $S(x) \neq x$.
- Define addition recursively as

$$0 + y = y$$

$$S(x) + y = x + S(y)$$

Prove that + is associative.



What is Logic?

- Logic is the art and science of effective reasoning.
- How can we draw general and reliable conclusions from a collection of facts?
- Formal logic: Precise, syntactic characterizations of well-formed expressions and valid deductions.
- Formal logic makes it possible to *calculate* consequences so that each step is verifiable by means of proof.
- Computers can be used to automate such symbolic calculations.



Naïve Set Theory

- We will be using sets informally in talking about logic.
- Sets have members $x \in X$, and can be related through equality X = Y and subset $X \subset Y$ or $X \subseteq Y$.
- Sets include the emptyset \emptyset , the singleton set $\{a\}$ containing just a as an element, the two-element set $\mathbf{2} = \{0,1\}$, the set \mathbb{N} of natural numbers $\{0,1,2,\ldots\}$.
- Other examples include the set of integers, odd integers, even integers, prime numbers, rational numbers, algebraic numbers, real numbers, etc.
- The set of elements satisfying a property P is represented as $\{x|P(x)\}$, e.g., $\{i|0 \le i \le 5\}$.
- The $\{F(x)|P(x)\}$ contains all and only the elements F(a) for each element a satisfying P(a), e.g., $\{x^2|0 \le x \le 5\}$.
- Let X^Y represent the set of functions with Y as domain and X as range.
- 2^X is the power set of X: $\{Y|Y\subseteq X\}$.



Naïve Set Theory

- The set {a, b} represents the set that is the pair of elements a
 and b, which can themselves be sets.
- Ordered pairing $\langle x, y \rangle$ can be represented as $\{\{x, y\}, \{y\}\}.$
- The union $\bigcup X$ is the set $\{x | x \in y, y \in X\}$. $X \cup Y$ is just $\bigcup \{X, Y\}$.
- The intersection $\bigcap X$ is the set $\{x|x\in y, \text{ for each }y\in X\}$. $X\cap Y$ is just $\bigcap \{X,Y\}$.
- Define projections π_1 and π_2 such that $\pi_1(\langle x, y \rangle) = x$ and $\pi_2(\langle x, y \rangle) = y$.
- The relative complement X Y of two sets is the set $\{x | x \in X, x \notin Y\}$.
- The Cartesian product $X \times Y$ is the set of ordered pairs $\langle x, y \rangle$ for $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$.
- Two sets are equal if they have exactly the same elements. Prove $(X \cup Y) \cup Z = X \cup (Y \cup Z), \ X \cup Y = Y \cup X, \ X \cup X = X$, and similarly for intersection.



Naïve Set Theory

- The set of integers \mathbb{Z} is $\{\ldots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots\}$.
- A map F between X and Y is injective if whenever F(x) = F(x') for x, x' in X, we have x = x'.
- A map F between X and Y is surjective if for each $y \in Y$, there is an $x \in X$, such that F(x) = y.
- A map F between X and Y is a bijection if F is both injective and surjective.
- The *graph* of a map F between X and Y can be represented as a subset of $X \times Y$ as $\{\langle y, x \rangle | F(x) = y\}$.
- A subset G of $X \times Y$ is a graph if for any $x \in X$, there is exactly one y such that $\langle y, x \rangle \in G$.
- Show that there is a bijection between $X \times (Y \times Z)$ and $(X \times Y) \times Z$.
- Define the operation of applying a graph G to an argument x.



Exercises

- One set is equinumerous with another if there is a bijection between them.
- Is the set \mathbb{Z} equinumerous with \mathbb{N} .
- Can a set X be equinumerous with its powerset 2^X ?
- Is the set of ordered pairs of natural numbers $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ equinumerous with \mathbb{N} .
- Is the set of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} equinumerous with \mathbb{N} ?
- Is the set of real numbers in the interval [0,1] equinumerous with \mathbb{N} ?



Orderings

- ullet A binary relation < on a set U is a partial ordering if it is
 - Reflexive: x < x for all $x \in U$
 - Transitive: x < z if x < y and y < x, for all $x, yz \in U$
 - Anti-Symmetric: x = y if x < y and y < x.
- A partial ordering is *total* (or *linear*) if for all $x, y \in U$: x < y or y < x.
- For a subset X of U, element $x \in X$ is
 - Minimal, if for $y \in X$, y = x or $y \neg < x$.
 - Least, if x < y for $y \in X$.
 - Maximal, if for $y \in X$, y = x or $x \neg < y$.
 - Greatest, if y < x for $y \in X$.



Orderings

- A strict partial ordering is irreflexive, transitive, and anti-symmetric.
- An antichain is a subset X of U such that $x \neg < y$, for $x, y \in X$.
- A partial order is well-founded if every nonempty subset X of U has a minimal element.
- A linear order is well-ordered if every nonempty subset X of U
 has a least element.
- Every well-ordering is well-founded.



Ordinal Numbers

- The ordinal numbers can be constructed as: 0 is an ordinal number, and the next ordinal number is the set of all preceding ordinal numbers.
- The ordinals are well-ordered, and any well-ordered set is order-isomorphic, i.e., has an order-preserving bijection, to some ordinal.
- Is the set N under the usual < ordering of natural numbers well ordered?
- Is the set Z under the usual < ordering of integers well ordered? Is there a well-ordering for Z?
- Is the set Q under the usual < ordering of rationals well ordered? Is there a well-ordering for Q?



Ordinal Numbers

- Let ω represent the ordinal number for $\mathbb N$ with $0 < 1 < 2 \ldots$
- \mathbb{N} can be ordered so that i < j for any even number i and odd number j to get $0 < 2 < 4 \dots 1 < 3 < 5 \dots$
- This has the order type $\omega + \omega$.
- A lexicographic ordering on $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ has $\langle x, y \rangle < \langle x', y' \rangle$ if x < x', or x = x' and y < y', e.g., $\langle 5, 3 \rangle < \langle 5, 4 \rangle$.
- What is the ordinal corresponding to the above lexicographic ordering?
- Can you define an ordering on $\mathbb N$ that is order isomorphic to the lexicographic ordering on $\mathbb N \times \mathbb N$?



Paradoxes

- The Liar paradox has Epimenides, a Cretan, asserting that All Cretans are liars.? Is Epimenides telling the truth?
- Berry's paradox: What is "the smallest natural number not definable in fewer than twelve words"?
- Richards paradox: Let p_0, p_1, \ldots , be an enumeration of the properties of natural numbers. We say that i is *Richardian* if $\neg p_i(i)$. Is there a property p_r in the enumeration that captures the property of being Richardian?
- Let R be the set $\{x | x \notin x\}$. Is $R \in R$?
- Is there a universal set V given by $\{x|x=x\}$?
- The set of ordinals ON is itself well-ordered. Is $ON \in ON$?



Logic Basics

- Logic studies the *trinity* between *language*, *interpretation*, and *proof*.
- Language: What are you allowed to say?
- Interpretation: What is the intended meaning?
 - Meaning is usually *compositional*: Follows the syntax
 - Some symbols have fixed meaning: connectives, equality, quantifiers
 - Other symbols are allowed to vary variables, functions, and predicates
 - Assertions either hold or fail to hold in a given interpretation
 - A valid assertion holds in every interpretation
- Proofs are used to demonstrate validity



Propositional Logic

- Propositional logic can be more accurately described as a logic of conditions – propositions are always true or always false. [Couturat, Algebra of Logic]
- A condition can be represented by a propositional variable, e.g., p, q, etc., so that distinct propositional variables can range over possibly different conditions.
- The conjunction, disjunction, and negation of conditions are also conditions.
- The syntactic representation of conditions is using propositional formulas:

$$\phi := P \mid \neg \phi \mid \phi_1 \lor \phi_2 \mid \phi_1 \land \phi_2$$

- P is a class of propositional variables: p_0, p_1, \ldots
- Examples of formulas are p, $p \land \neg p$, $p \lor \neg p$, $(p \land \neg q) \lor \neg p$.



Meaning

- In logic, the meaning of an expression is constructed compositionally from the meanings of its subexpressions.
- The meanings of the symbols are either fixed, as with ¬, ∧, and ∨, or allowed to vary, as with the propositional variables.
- An interpretation (truth assignment) M assigns truth values $\{\top, \bot\}$ to propositional variables: $M(p) = \top \iff M \models p$.
- M[A] is the meaning of A in M and is computed using truth tables:

| φ | р | q | $\neg p$ | $p \lor q$ | $p \wedge q$ |
|-------------|---------|---|----------|------------|--------------|
| $M_1(\phi)$ | \perp | 1 | Т | Т | 工 |
| $M_2(\phi)$ | 1 | Т | Т | Т | |
| $M_3(\phi)$ | Т | 1 | 1 | Т | |
| $M_4(\phi)$ | Т | Т | | Т | Т |



Truth Tables

We can use truth tables to evaluate formulas for validity/satisfiability.

| р | q | $(\neg p \lor q)$ | $(\neg(\neg p \lor q) \lor p)$ | $\neg(\neg(\neg p \lor q) \lor p) \lor p$ |
|---------|---|-------------------|--------------------------------|---|
| \perp | | Т | Τ | Т |
| 上 | Т | Т | Τ | Т |
| Т | T | | Т | Т |
| Т | Т | Т | Т | Т |

How many rows are there in the truth table for a formula with n distinct propositional variables?

How many distinct truth tables are there in n distinct propositional variables?



Problems

- Define the operation of substituting a formula A for a variable p in a formula B, i.e., $B[p \mapsto A]$.
- Is the result always a well-formed formula?
- Can the variable p occur in $B[p \mapsto A]$?
- What is the truth-table meaning of $B[p \mapsto A]$ in terms of the meaning of B and A?



Defining New Connectives

- How do you define ∧ in terms of ¬ and ∨?
- Give the truth table for A ⇒ B and define it in terms of ¬
 and ∨.
- Define bi-implication A
 ⇔ B in terms of ⇒ and ∧ and show its truth table.
- An *n*-ary Boolean function maps $\{\top, \bot\}^n$ to $\{\top, \bot\}$
- Show that every *n*-ary Boolean function can be defined using
 ¬ and ∨.
- Using ¬ and ∨ define an n-ary parity function which evaluates to ⊤ iff the parity is odd.
- Define an *n*-ary function which determines that the unsigned value of the little-endian input p_0, \ldots, p_{n-1} is even?
- Define the *NAND* operation, where NAND(p,q) is $\neg(p \land q)$ using \neg and \lor . Conversely, define \neg and \lor using NAND.



Satisfiability and Validity

- An interpretation M is a model of a formula ϕ if $M \models \phi$.
- If $M \models \neg \phi$, then M is a *countermodel* for ϕ .
- When ϕ has a model, it is said to be satisfiable.
- If it has no model, then it is unsatisfiable.
- If $\neg \phi$ is unsatisfiable, then ϕ is valid, i.e., alway evaluates to \top .
- We write $\phi \models \psi$ if every model of ϕ is a model of ψ .
- If $\phi \land \neg \psi$ is unsatisfiable, then $\phi \models \psi$.



Satisfiable, Unsatisfiable, or Valid?

- Classify these formulas as satisfiable, unsatisfiable, or valid?
 - p ∨ ¬p
 - p ∧ ¬p
 - $\neg p \Rightarrow p$
 - $((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p$
- Make up some examples of formulas that are satisfiable (unsatisfiable, valid)?
- If A and B are satisfiable, is A ∧ B satisfiable? What about A ∨ B.
- Can A and $\neg A$ both be satisfiable (unsatisfiable, valid)?



Some Valid Laws

- Check that following formulas are valid for any assignment to A and B?

$$\bigcirc \neg \neg A \iff A$$



What Can Propositional Logic Express?

- Constraints over bounded domains can be expressed as satisfiability problems in propositional logic (SAT).
- Define a 1-bit full adder in propositional logic.
- The Pigeonhole Principle states that if n+1 pigeons are assigned to n holes, then some hole must contain more than one pigeon. Formalize the pigeonhole principle for four pigeons and three holes.
- Formalize the statement that a graph of n elements is k-colorable for given k and n such that k < n.
- Formalize and prove the statement that given a symmetric and transitive graph over 3 elements, either the graph is complete or contains an isolated point.
- Formalize Sudoku and Latin Squares in propositional logic.



Using Propositional Logic

- Write a propositional formula for checking that a given finite automaton $\langle Q, \Sigma, q, F, \delta \rangle$ with
 - Alphabet Σ,
 - Set of states S
 - Initial state q,
 - Set of final states F, and
 - Transition function δ from $\langle Q, \Sigma \rangle$ to Q

accepts some string of length 5.

 Describe an N-bit ripple carry adder with a carry-in and carry-out bits as a formula.



Cook's Theorem

- A Turing machine consists of a finite automaton reading (and writing) symbols from a finite set Σ (including a blank symbol '_') from a tape ..., T(-1), T(0), T(1),
- Initially, the tape is blank except at the input $T(0), \ldots, T(n-1)$.
- The finite automaton has a finite set of states Q, a subset F of which are accepting states.
- In each step, if the automaton is at a non-accepting state, the machine reads the symbol at the current position of the head, and nondeterministically executes a step consisting of
 - A new symbol to write at the head position
 - 2 A move (left or right) of the head from the current position
 - A next automaton state



Cook's Theorem

- For some bound N on the number of machine steps, show that the it is possible to represent the following using a polynomial number (in n) of Boolean variables
 - The *k*'th symbol is on the *i*'th cell in the *j*'th state of the computation.
 - 2 The head is at the i'th cell in the j'th state of the computation.
 - 3 The automaton is in the m'th state in the j'th state of the computation.
- Show that SAT is solvable in polynomial time (in the size n of the input) by a nondeterministic Turing machine.
- Show that for any nondeterministic Turing machine and polynomial bound p(n) for input of size n, one can (in polynomial time) construct a propositional formula which is satisfiable iff there is the Turing machine accepts the input in at most p(n).



Reductions to SAT

- Encode the following problems as SAT problems
 - **1** 3-colorability of an undirected graph.
 - ② The k-colorability for a given k.
 - The existence of a Hamiltonian path in a graph, one that visits each vertex exactly once.
 - 4 The existence of a *k*-clique in a graph: a set of *k* vertices that are pairwise connected by edges.
- What is the size of your encoding?
- A problem is NP-hard if there is a polynomial-time (many-to-one, Turing, truth-table) reduction from SAT (or another NP-hard) problem to it.



Proof Systems

- There are three basic styles of proof systems.
- These are distinguished by their basic judgement.
 - **1** Hilbert systems: $\vdash A$ means the formula A is provable.
 - **2** Natural deduction: $\Gamma \vdash A$ means the formula A is provable from a set of assumption formulas Γ .
 - § Sequent Calculus: $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ means the consequence of $\bigvee \Delta$ from $\bigwedge \Gamma$ is derivable.



Hilbert System (H) for Propositional Logic

- The basic judgement here is ⊢ A asserting that a formula is provable.
- We can pick ⇒ as the basic connectives
- The axioms are
 - \bullet $\overline{\vdash A \Rightarrow A}$
 - $\overrightarrow{\vdash A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow A)}$
 - $\vdash (A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)) \Rightarrow ((A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow C))$
- A single rule of inference (Modus Ponens) is given

$$\frac{\vdash A \qquad \vdash A \Rightarrow B}{\vdash B}$$

• Can you prove $((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p$ using the above system?



Hilbert System (H)

- Add a propositional constant \bot to the formula syntax, where $[\![\bot]\!] = \bot$.
- Define negation $\neg A$ as $A \Rightarrow \bot$.
- Can you prove
- Are any of the axioms redundant? [Hint: See if you can prove the first axiom from the other two.]
- Write Hilbert-style axioms for \land and \lor .



Deduction Theorem

- We write Γ ⊢ A for a set of formulas Γ, if ⊢ A can be proved given ⊢ B for each B ∈ Γ.
- Deduction theorem: Show that if $\Gamma, A \vdash B$, then $\Gamma \vdash A \Rightarrow B$, where Γ, A is $\Gamma \cup \{A\}$. [Hint: Use induction on proofs.]
- A derived rule of inference has the form

$$\frac{P_1,\ldots,P_n}{C}$$

where there is a derivation in the base logic from the premises P_1, \ldots, P_n to the conclusion C.

- An *admissible* rule of inference is one where the conclusion C is provable if the premises P_1, \ldots, P_n are provable.
- Every derived rule is admissible, but what is an example of an admissible rule that is not a derived one?



Natural Deduction for Propositional Logic

- In natural deduction (ND), the basic judgement is $\Gamma \vdash A$.
- The rules are classified according to the introduction or elimination of connectives from A in $\Gamma \vdash A$.
- The axiom, introduction, and elimination rules of natural deduction are

•
$$\overline{\Gamma,A \vdash A}$$

• $\overline{\Gamma_1 \vdash A}$ $\Gamma_2 \vdash A \Rightarrow B$
• $\overline{\Gamma_1 \cup \Gamma_2 \vdash B}$
• $\overline{\Gamma,A \vdash B}$
• $\overline{\Gamma \vdash A \Rightarrow B}$

- Use ND to prove the axioms of the Hilbert system.
- A proof is in normal form if no introduction rule appears above an elimination rule. Can you ensure that your proofs are always in normal form? Can you write an algorithm to convert non-normal proofs to normal ones?



Sequent Calculus (LK) for Propositional Logic

The basic judgement is $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ asserting that $\bigwedge \Gamma \Rightarrow \bigvee \Delta$, where Γ and Δ are sets (or bags) of formulas.

| | Left | Right |
|---------------|--|--|
| Ax | | - A, Δ |
| Г | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash A, \Delta}{\Gamma, \neg A \vdash \Delta}$ | $\frac{\Gamma,A\vdash\Delta}{\Gamma\vdash\neg A,\Delta}$ |
| V | $\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta \Gamma, B \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, A \lor B \vdash \Delta}$ | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash A, B, \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B, \Delta}$ |
| ^ | $\frac{\Gamma, A, B \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, A \land B \vdash \Delta}$ | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash A, \Delta \Gamma \vdash B, \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash A \land B, \Delta}$ |
| \Rightarrow | $\frac{\Gamma, B \vdash \Delta \Gamma \vdash A, \Delta}{\Gamma, A \Rightarrow B \vdash \Delta}$ | $\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B, \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash A \Rightarrow B, \Delta}$ |
| Cut | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash A, \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash}$ | $\Gamma, A \vdash \Delta$ |





Peirce's Formula

• A sequent calculus proof of Peirce's formula $((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p$ is given by

$$\frac{ \frac{\overline{p \vdash p, q}^{Ax}}{\vdash p, p \Rightarrow q} \vdash \Rightarrow \frac{}{p \vdash p}^{Ax}}{(p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p \vdash p} \Rightarrow \vdash \\
 \vdash ((p \Rightarrow q) \Rightarrow p) \Rightarrow p \vdash \Rightarrow$$

 The sequent formula that is introduced in the conclusion is the principal formula, and its components in the premise(s) are side formulas.



Metatheory

- Metatheorems about proof systems are useful in providing reasoning short-cuts.
- The deduction theorem for H and the normalization theorem for ND are examples.
- Prove that the Cut rule is admissible for the LK. (Difficult!)

$$\frac{A \iff B}{C[p \mapsto A] \iff C[p \mapsto B]}$$

State a similar rule for implication where

$$\frac{A \Rightarrow B}{C[p \mapsto A] \Rightarrow C[p \mapsto B]}$$



Normal Forms for Formulas

- A formula where negation is applied only to propositional atoms is said to be in negation normal form (NNF).
- For example, $\neg(p \lor \neg q)$ can be represented as $\neg p \land q$.
- Show that every propositional formula built using ¬, ∨, and ∧ is equivalent to one in NNF.
- A *literal I* is either a propositional atom p or its negation $\neg p$.
- A *clause* is a multiary disjunction of a set of literals $l_1 \vee \ldots \vee l_n$.
- A multiary conjunction of *n* formulas A_1, \ldots, A_n is $\bigwedge_{i=1}^n A_i$.



Conjunctive and Disjunctive Normal Forms

- A formula that is a multiary conjunction of multiary disjunctions of literals is in conjunctive normal form (CNF).
- CNF Example: $(\neg p \lor q \lor \neg r)$ $\land (p \lor r)$ $\land (\neg p \lor \neg q \lor r)$
- Define an algorithm for converting any propositional formula to CNF.
- A formula is in k-CNF if it uses at most k literals per clause.
 Define an algorithm for converting any formula to 3-CNF.
- A formula that is a multiary disjunction of multiary conjunctions of literals is in disjunctive normal form (DNF).
- Define an algorithm for converting any formula to DNF.



Soundness

- A proof system is *sound* if all provable formulas are valid, i.e., $\vdash A$ implies $\models A$, i.e., $M \models A$ for all M.
- To prove soundness, show that for any inference rule of the form

$$\frac{\vdash P_1, \ldots, \vdash P_n}{\vdash C}$$

any model of all of the premises is also a model of the conclusion.

- Since the axioms are valid, and each step preserves validity, we have that the conclusion of a proof is also valid.
- Demonstrate the soundness of the proof systems shown so far, i.e.,
 - Hilbert system H
 - Natural deduction ND
 - Sequent Calculus LK



Completeness

- A proof system is *complete* if all valid formulas are provable, i.e., $\models A$ implies $\vdash A$.
- A countermodel M of $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ is one where either $M \models A$ for all A in Γ , and $M \models \neg B$ for all $B \in \Delta$.
- In LK, any countermodel of some premise of a rule is also a countermodel for the conclusion. What is the countermodel for $p \lor q \vdash p \land q$?.
- We can then show that a non-provable sequent $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ has a countermodel.
- Each non-Cut rule has premises that are simpler than its conclusion.
- By applying the rules starting from $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ to completion, you end up with a set of premise sequents $\{\Gamma_1 \vdash \Delta_1, \dots, \Gamma_n \vdash \Delta_n\}$ that are *atomic*, i.e., that contain no connectives.
- If an atomic sequent $\Gamma_i \vdash \Delta_i$ is unprovable, then it has a countermodel, i.e., one in which each formula in Γ_i holds but no formula in Δ_i holds.



Completeness, More Generally

- A set of formulas Γ is *consistent*, i.e., $Con(\Gamma)$ iff there is no formula A in Γ such that $\Gamma \vdash \neg A$ is provable.
- If Γ is consistent, then $\Gamma \cup \{A\}$ is consistent iff $\Gamma \vdash \neg A$ is not provable.
- If Γ is consistent, then at least one of $\Gamma \cup \{A\}$ or $\Gamma \cup \{\neg A\}$ must be consistent.
- A set of formulas Γ is complete if for each formula A, it contains A or ¬A.



Completeness

- Any consistent set of formulas Γ can be made complete as $\hat{\Gamma}$.
- Let A_i be the i'th formula in some enumeration of PL formulas. Define

$$\Gamma_{0} = \Gamma$$

$$\Gamma_{i+1} = \Gamma_{i} \cup \{A_{i}\}, \text{ if } Con(\Gamma_{i} \cup \{A_{i}\})$$

$$= \Gamma_{i} \cup \{\neg A_{i}\}, \text{ otherwise.}$$

$$\hat{\Gamma} = \Gamma_{\omega} = \bigcup_{i} \Gamma_{i}$$

- Ex: Check that $\hat{\Gamma}$ yields an interpretation $\mathcal{M}_{\hat{\Gamma}}$ satisfying Γ .
- If $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$ is unprovable, then $\Gamma \cup \overline{\Delta}$ is consistent, and has a model.



Compactness

- A logic is *compact* if any set of sentences Γ is satisfiable iff all finite subsets of it are, i.e., if it is *finitely satisfiable*.
- Propositional logic is compact hard direction is showing that every finitely satisfiable set is satisfiable.
- Zorn's lemma states that if in a partially ordered set A, every chain L has an upper bound \widehat{L} in A, then A has a maximal element.
- Given a finitely satisfiable set Γ , the set A_{Γ} of finitely satisfiable supersets of Γ satisfies the conditions of Zorn's lemma.
- Hence there is a maximal extension $\widehat{\Gamma}$ that is finitely satisfiable.
- For any atom p, either $p \in \widehat{\Gamma}$ or $\neg p \in \widehat{\Gamma}$, but not both. Why?
- We can similarly define the model $M_{\widehat{\Gamma}}$ to show that $\widehat{\Gamma}$ is satisfiable.



Interpolation

Craig's interpolation property for one-sided sequents: If $\vdash \Gamma$; Δ , then there is an I in the variables common to Γ and Δ such that $\vdash \Gamma$, I and $\vdash \neg I$, Δ .

| Ax_1 | $\overline{[\bot]} \vdash \Gamma, P, \overline{P}; \Delta$ |
|---------------|---|
| Ax_2 | $\overline{[\top]} \vdash \Gamma; P, \overline{P}, \Delta$ |
| Ax_3 | $\overline{[P] \vdash \Gamma, \overline{P}; P, \Delta}$ |
| 77 | $\frac{[I] \vdash \Gamma, P, \Delta}{[I] \vdash \Gamma, \neg \neg P, \Delta}$ |
| V | $\frac{[I] \vdash \Gamma, A, B, \Delta}{[I] \vdash \Gamma, A \lor B, \Delta}$ |
| $\neg \lor_1$ | $\frac{[I_1] \vdash \Gamma, \neg A; \Delta [I_2] \vdash \Gamma, \neg B; \Delta}{[[I_1 \lor I_2] \vdash \Gamma, \neg (A \lor B); \Delta}$ |
| $\neg \lor_2$ | $\frac{[I_1] \vdash \Gamma; \neg A, \Delta [I_2] \vdash \Gamma; \neg B, \Delta}{[I_1 \land I_2] \vdash \Gamma; \neg (A \lor B), \Delta}$ |



Resolution

- We have already seen that any propositional formula can be written in CNF as a conjunction of clauses.
- Input K is a set of clauses.
- Tautologies, i.e., clauses containing both I and \bar{I} , are deleted from initial input.

| Res | | $\Gamma_1 \vee \Gamma_2 \not\in K$ $\Gamma_1 \vee \Gamma_2 \text{ is not tautological}$ |
|---------|----------|--|
| Contrad | <u> </u> | $\frac{\overline{I},\overline{I},\overline{I}}{\perp}$ |



Resolution: Example

$$\frac{(K_0 =) \neg p \lor \neg q \lor r, \quad \neg p \lor q, \quad p \lor r, \quad \neg r}{(K_1 =) \neg q \lor r, \quad K_0} \quad \text{Res}$$

$$\frac{(K_2 =) \ q \lor r, \quad K_1}{(K_3 =) \ r, \quad K_2} \quad \text{Res}$$

$$\perp \quad \text{Contrad}$$

Show that resolution is a sound and complete procedure for checking satisfiability.



CDCL Informally

- Goal: Does a given set of clauses K have a satisfying assignment?
- If M is a total assignment such that $M \models \Gamma$ for each $\Gamma \in K$, then $M \models K$.
- If M is a partial assignment at level h, then propagation extends M at level h with the implied literals I such that $I \vee \Gamma \in K \cup C$ and $M \models \neg \Gamma$.
- If M detects a conflict, i.e., a clause $\Gamma \in K \cup C$ such that $M \models \neg \Gamma$, then the conflict is *analyzed* to construct a conflict clause that allows the search to be continued from a prior level.
- If M cannot be extended at level h and no conflict is detected, then an unassigned literal l is selected and assigned at level h+1 where the search is continued.



Conflict-Driven Clause Learning (CDCL) SAT

| Name | Rule | Condition | | |
|-----------|--|--|--|--|
| Propagate | $\frac{h, \langle M \rangle, K, C}{h, \langle M, I[\Gamma] \rangle, K, C}$ | $\Gamma \equiv I \lor \Gamma' \in K \cup C$ $M \models \neg \Gamma'$ | | |
| 6.1. | $h, \langle M \rangle, K, C$ | M ⊭ I | | |
| Select | $h+1,\langle M;I[]\rangle,K,C$ | <i>M</i> ⊭ ¬ <i>I</i> | | |
| Conflict | $0, \langle M \rangle, K, C$ | $M \models \neg \Gamma$ | | |
| Commer | | for some $\Gamma \in K \cup C$ | | |
| Backjump | $\frac{h+1,\langle M\rangle,K,C}{h',\langle M_{\leq h'},I[\Gamma']\rangle,K,C\cup\{\Gamma'\}}$ | $M \models \neg \Gamma$ for some $\Gamma \in K \cup C$ $\langle h', \Gamma' \rangle$ $= analyze(\psi)(\Gamma)$ for $\psi = h, \langle M \rangle, K, C$ | | |



CDCL Example

• Let K be $\{p \lor q, \neg p \lor q, p \lor \neg q, s \lor \neg p \lor q, \neg s \lor p \lor \neg q, \neg p \lor r, \neg q \lor \neg r\}.$

0

| step | h | М | K | С | Γ |
|-----------|---|--|---|---|-----------------|
| select s | 1 | ; <i>s</i> | K | Ø | - |
| select r | 2 | ; s; r | K | Ø | - |
| propagate | 2 | ; s; $r, \neg q[\neg q \lor \neg r]$ | K | Ø | - |
| propagate | 2 | ; s ; r , $\neg q$, $p[p \lor q]$ | K | Ø | - |
| conflict | 2 | ; s ; r , $\neg q$, p | K | Ø | $\neg p \lor q$ |



CDCL Example (contd.)

| step | h | М | K | С | Γ |
|-----------|---|------------------------------|---|---|----------------------|
| conflict | 2 | ; s ; r , $\neg q$, p | K | Ø | $\neg p \lor q$ |
| backjump | 0 | Ø | K | q | _ |
| propagate | 0 | q[q] | K | q | - |
| propagate | 0 | $q,p[p\vee \neg q]$ | K | q | - |
| propagate | 0 | $q, p, r[\neg p \lor r]$ | K | q | - |
| conflict | 0 | q, p, r | K | q | $\neg q \lor \neg r$ |

Show that CDCL is sound and complete.



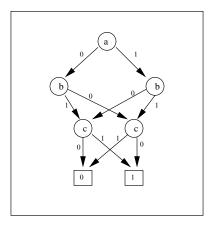
ROBDD

- Boolean functions map $\{0,1\}^n$ to $\{0,1\}$.
- We have already seen how n-ary Boolean functions can be represented by propositional formulas of n variables.
- ROBDDs are a canonical representation of boolean functions as a decision diagram where
 - **1** Literals are uniformly ordered along every branch: $f(x_1, ..., x_n) = \text{IF}(x_1, f(\top, x_2, ..., x_n), f(\bot, x_2, ..., x_n))$
 - 2 Common subterms are identified
 - **3** Redundant branches are removed: $IF(x_i, A, A) = A$
- Efficient implementation of boolean operations: $f_1.f_2$, $f_1 + f_2$, -f, including quantification.
- Canonical form yields free equivalence checks (for convergence of fixed points).



ROBDD for Even Parity

ROBDD for even parity boolean function of a, b, c.



Construct an algorithm to compute $f_1 \odot f_2$, where \odot is \land or \lor . Construct an algorithm to compute $\exists \overline{x}.f$.



First and Higher-Order Logic



Equality Logic (EL)

In the process of creeping toward first-order logic, we introduce a modest but interesting extension of propositional logic. In addition to propositional atoms, we add a set of constants τ given by c_0, c_1, \ldots and equalities c = d for constants c and d.

$$\phi := P \mid \neg \phi \mid \phi_1 \lor \phi_2 \mid \phi_1 \land \phi_2 \mid \tau_1 = \tau_2$$

The structure M now has a domain |M| and maps propositional variables to $\{\top, \bot\}$ and constants to |M|.

$$M\llbracket c = d \rrbracket = \begin{cases} \top, & \text{if } M\llbracket c \rrbracket = M\llbracket d \rrbracket \\ \bot, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Proof Rules for Equality Logic

•

| Reflexivity | $\Gamma \vdash a = a, \Delta$ |
|--------------|--|
| Symmetry | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash a = b, \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash b = a, \Delta}$ |
| Transitivity | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash a = b, \Delta \qquad \Gamma \vdash b = c, \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash a = c, \Delta}$ |

- Show that the above proof rules (on top of propositional logic) are sound and complete.
- Show that Equality Logic is decidable.
- Adapt the above logic to reason about a partial ordering relation \leq , i.e., one that is reflexive, transitive, and anti-symmetric $(x \leq y \land y \leq x \Rightarrow x = y)$.



Term Equality Logic (TEL)

- ullet One further extension is to add function symbols from a signature Σ that assigns an arity to each symbol.
- Function symbols are used to form terms τ , so that constants are just 0-ary function symbols.

$$\tau := f(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n), \text{ for } n \ge 0
\phi := P | \neg \phi | \phi_1 \lor \phi_2 | \phi_1 \land \phi_2 | \tau_1 = \tau_2$$

• For an *n*-ary function f, M(f) maps $|M|^n$ to |M|.

$$M[a = b] = M[a] = M[b]$$

 $M[f(a_1, ..., a_n)] = (M[f])(M[a_1], ..., M[a_n])$

• We need one additional proof rule.

Congruence
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash a_1 = b_1, \Delta \dots \Gamma \vdash a_n = b_n, \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash f(a_1, \dots, a_n) = f(b_1, \dots, b_n), \Delta}$$



Term Equality Proof Examples

Let
$$f^n(a)$$
 represent $\underbrace{f(\ldots f(a)\ldots)}_n$.

$$\frac{f^{3}(a) = f(a) \vdash f^{3}(a) = f(a)}{\frac{f^{3}(a) = f(a) \vdash f^{4}(a) = f^{2}(a)}{f^{3}(a) = f(a) \vdash f^{5}(a) = f^{3}(a)}} C \frac{f^{3}(a) = f(a) \vdash f^{3}(a) = f(a)}{f^{3}(a) = f(a) \vdash f^{5}(a) = f(a)} Ax$$

Show soundness and completeness of TEL.

Show that TEL is decidable.



Equational Logic

- Equational Logic is a heavily used fragment of first-order logic.
- It consists of term equalities s = t, with proof rules

 - 1 Reflexivity: $\frac{s=s}{s=t}$ 2 Symmetry: $\frac{s=s}{t=s}$

 - Transitivity: $\frac{r=s}{r=t} \frac{s=t}{r=t}$ Congruence: $\frac{s_1=t_1,...,s_n=t_n}{f(s_1,...,s_n)=f(t_1,...,t_n)}$
 - **3** Instantiation: $\frac{s=t}{\sigma(s)=\sigma(t)}$, for substitution σ .
- We say $\Gamma \vdash s = t$ when the equality s = t can be derived from the equalities in Γ .
- Show that equational logic is sound and complete.



Equational Logic

Use equational logic to formalize

- lacktriangle Semigroups: A set G with an associative binary operator .
- f Q Monoids: A set M with associative binary operator . and unit 1
- **3** Groups: A monoid with a right-inverse operator x^{-1}
- Commutative groups and semigroups
- **3** Rings: A set R with commutative group $\langle R, +, ^-, 0 \rangle$, semigroup $\langle R, . \rangle$, and distributive laws x.(y+z) = x.y + x.z and (y+z).x = y.x + z.x
- **3** Semilattice: A commutative semigroup $\langle S, \wedge \rangle$ with idempotence $x \wedge x = x$
- ② Lattice: $\langle L, \wedge, \vee \rangle$ where $\langle L, \wedge \rangle$ and $\langle L, \vee \rangle$ are semilattices, and $x \vee (x \wedge y) = x$ and $x \wedge (x \vee y) = x$.
- **3** Distributive lattice: A lattice with $x \wedge (y \vee z) = (x \wedge y) \vee (x \wedge z)$.
- **9** Boolean algebra: Distributive lattice with constants 0 and 1 and unary operation such that $x \land 0 = 0$, $x \lor 1 = 1$, $x \land -x = 0$, and $x \lor -x = 1$.



Equational Logic

- Prove that every group element has a left inverse.
- For a lattice, define $x \le y$ as $x \land y = x$. Show that \le is a partial order (reflexive, transitive, and antisymmetric).
- Show that a distributive lattice satisfies $x \lor (y \land z) = (x \lor y) \land (x \lor z)$.
- Prove the de Morgan laws, $-(x \lor y) = -x \land -y$ and $-(x \land y) = -x \lor -y$ for Boolean algebras.



First-Order Logic

We can now complete the transition to first-order logic by adding

$$\tau := X$$

$$\mid f(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n), \text{ for } n \ge 0$$

$$\phi := \neg \phi \mid \phi_1 \lor \phi_2 \mid \phi_1 \land \phi_2 \mid \tau_1 = \tau_2$$

$$\mid \forall x. \phi \mid \exists x. \phi \mid q(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n), \text{ for } n \ge 0$$

Terms contain variables, and formulas contain atomic and quantified formulas.



Semantics for Variables and Quantifiers

 $M[\![q]\!]$ is a map from D^n to $\{\top, \bot\}$, where n is the arity of predicate q.

$$M[\![x]\!]\rho = \rho(x)$$

$$M[\![q(a_1,\ldots,a_n)]\!]\rho = M[\![q]\!](M[\![a_1]\!]\rho,\ldots,M[\![a_n]\!]\rho)$$

$$M[\![\forall x.A]\!]\rho = \begin{cases} \top, & \text{if } M[\![A]\!]\rho[x:=d] \text{ for all } d \in D \\ \bot, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$M[\![\exists x.A]\!]\rho = \begin{cases} \top, & \text{if } M[\![A]\!]\rho[x:=d] \text{ for some } d \in D \\ \bot, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Atomic formulas are either equalities or of the form $q(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$.



First-Order Logic

| | | Left | Right |
|---|-----------|---|--|
| • | \forall | $\frac{\Gamma, A[t/x] \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, \forall x. A \vdash \Delta}$ | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash A[c/x], \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \forall x.A, \Delta}$ |
| | \exists | $\frac{\Gamma, A[c/x] \vdash \Delta}{\Gamma, \exists x. A \vdash \Delta}$ | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash A[t/x], \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash \exists x.A, \Delta}$ |

- Constant c must be chosen to be new so that it does not appear in the conclusion sequent.
- Demonstrate the soundness of first-order logic.
- A theory consists of a signature Σ for the function and predicate symbols and non-logical axioms.
- If a T is obtained from S by extending the signature and adding axioms, then T is conservative with respect to S, if all the formulas in S provable in T are also provable in S.



Using First-Order Logic

- Prove $\exists x.(p(x) \Rightarrow \forall y.p(y))$.
- Give at least two satisfying interpretations for the statement $(\exists x.p(x)) \implies (\forall x.p(x))$.
- A sentence is a formula with no free variables. Find a sentence A such that both A and ¬A are satisfiable.
- Write a formula asserting the unique existence of an x such that p(x).
- Define operations for collecting the free variables vars(A) in a given formula A, and substituting a term a for a free variable x in a formula A to get A{x → a}.
- Is $M[A\{x\mapsto a\}]\rho = M[A]\rho[x:=M[a]\rho]$? If not, show an example where it fails. Under what condition does the equality hold?
- Show that any quantified formula is equivalent to one in prenex normal form, i.e., where the only quantifiers appear at the head of the formula and the body is purely a propositional combination of atomic formulas.



More Exercises

- Prove
- Write the axioms for a partially ordered relation \leq .
- Write the axioms for a bijective (1-to-1, onto) function f.
- Write a formula asserting that for any x, there is a unique y such that p(x, y).
- Can you write first-order formulas whose models
 - Have exactly (at most, at least) three elements?
 - Are infinite
 - Are finite but unbounded
- Can you write a first-order formula asserting that
 - A relation is transitively closed
 - 2 A relation is the transitive closure of another relation.



Higher-Order Logic

- Thus far, variables ranged over ordinary datatypes such as numbers, and the functions and predicates were fixed (constants).
- Second-order logic allows free and bound variables to range over the functions and predicates of first-order logic.
- In n'th-order logic, the arguments (and results) of functions and predicates are the functions and predicates of m'th-order logic for m < n.
- This kind of strong typing is required for consistency, otherwise, we could define $R(x) = \neg x(x)$, and derive $R(R) = \neg R(R)$.
- Higher-order logic, which includes n'th-order logic for any n > 0, can express a number of interesting concepts and datatypes that are not expressible within first-order logic: transitive closure, fixpoints, finiteness, etc.



Types in Higher-Order Logic

- Base types: e.g., bool, nat, real
- Tuple types: $[T_1, \ldots, T_n]$ for types T_1, \ldots, T_n .
- Tuple terms: (a_1, \ldots, a_n)
- Projections: $\pi_i(a)$
- Function types: $[T_1 \rightarrow T_2]$ for domain type T_1 and range type T_2 .
- Lambda abstraction: $\lambda(x:T_1):a$
- Function application: f a.



Semantics of Higher Order Types



Higher-Order Proof Rules

| β -reduction | $\overline{\Gamma \vdash (\lambda(x : T) : a)(b) = a[b/x], \Delta}$ |
|--------------------|---|
| Extensionality | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash (\forall (x:T): f(x) = g(x)), \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash f = g, \Delta}$ |
| Projection | $\Gamma \vdash \pi_i(a_1,\ldots,a_n) = a_i,\Delta$ |
| Tuple Ext. | $\frac{\Gamma \vdash \pi_1(a) = \pi_1(b), \Delta, \dots, \Gamma \vdash \pi_n(a) = \pi_i(b), \Delta}{\Gamma \vdash a = b, \Delta}$ |



Sets in Higher-Order Logic

- For a type T, the type of predicates over T is $[T \rightarrow bool]$.
- Predicates can be viewed as sets of elements from T.
- Define the empty set, the full set, the complement of a set, the union, intersection, and difference of two sets, the subset relation between two sets.
- Define a type that is a set of sets over T, and define the operation of taking the union and intersection over these set of sets.



Sequences in Higher-Order Logic

- Given the type $\mathbb N$ of natural numbers, a sequence σ over type $\mathcal T$ can be represented as $[\mathbb N{\to}\,\mathcal T]$.
- If T is the type of $\mathbb R$ of real numbers, define the concept of a convergent series, i.e., there is some limit x such that for any $\epsilon > 0$, there is an N such that for any n > N, $|\sigma_n x| \le \epsilon$.
- Write a formal definition for the convergence of a series.
- Write a formal definition that x is the limit of a series σ .
- A Cauchy sequence σ is one where for any $\epsilon > 0$, there is an N such that for all i, j > N, $|\sigma_m \sigma_n| < \epsilon$.
- Write a formal definition of a Cauchy sequence.
- Define a predicate that checks if one sequence σ is a subsequence of another sequence ρ .
- Show that every bounded sequence of reals has a convergent subsequence.



Functions in Higher-Order Logic

- Let f be a function from domain D to range R, i.e., in type $[D \rightarrow R]$.
- If D is some subtype of $\mathbb R$ and R is $\mathbb R$, then f is monotonically nondecreasing if $f(x) \leq f(y)$ whenever $x \leq y$.
- Define a predicate that checks that *f* is monotonically nondecreasing.
- A function is *continuous* in an interval I if for any $x \in I$ and $\epsilon > 0$, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that for any y if $|x y| < \delta$, then $|f(x) f(y)| < \epsilon$. Formalize.
- A function is *uniformly continuous* in I if for any $\epsilon > 0$ there is a $\delta > 0$ such that for any $x,y \in I$, if $|x-y| < \delta$, then $|f(x) f(y)| < \epsilon$. Formalize.
- Formalize Lipschitz continuity: for any x in I, $|f(x) f(y)| \le K|x_1 x_2|$.



Using Higher-Order Logic

- Define universal quantification using equality in higher-order logic.
- Express and prove Cantor's theorem (there is no injection from a type T to a $[T \rightarrow bool]$) in higher-order logic.
- Write the induction principle for Peano arithmetic in higher-order logic.
- Write a definition for the transitive closure of a relation in higher-order logic.
- Describe the modal logic CTL in higher-order logic.
- State and prove the Knaster-Tarski theorem.



Advanced Topics



Completeness of First-Order Logic

- The quantifier rules for sequent calculus require copying.
- Proof branches can be extended without bound.
- Ex: Show that LK is sound: $\vdash A$ implies $\models A$.
- The Henkin closure H(Γ) is the smallest extension of a set of sentences Γ that is Henkin-closed, i.e., contains B ⇒ A(c_B) for every B ∈ H(Γ) of the form ∃x : A. (c_B is a fresh constant.)
- Any consistent set of formulas Γ has a *consistent* Henkin closure $H(\Gamma)$.
- As before, any consistent, Henkin closed set of formulas Γ has a complete, Henkin-closed extension $\hat{\Gamma}$.
- Ex: Construct an interpretation $M_{\widehat{H(\Gamma)}}$ from $\widehat{H(\Gamma)}$ and show that it is a model for Γ .



Herbrand's Theorem

- For any sentence A there is a quantifier-free sentence A_H (the Herbrand form of A) such that $\vdash A$ in LK iff $\vdash A_H$ in TEL_0 .
- The Herbrand form is a *dual* of Skolemization where each universal quantifier is replaced by a term $f(\overline{y})$, where \overline{y} is the set of governing existentially quantified variables.
- Then, $\exists x : (p(x) \Rightarrow \forall y : p(y))$ has the Herbrand form $\exists x.p(x) \Rightarrow p(f(x))$, and the two formulas are equi-valid.
- How do you prove the latter formula?



Herbrand's Theorem

- Herbrand terms are those built from function symbols in A_H (adding a constant, if needed).
- Show that if A_H is of the form $\exists \overline{x}.B$, then $\vdash A_H$ iff $\bigvee_{i=0}^n \sigma_i(B)$, for some Herbrand term substitutions $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n$.
- [Hint: In a cut-free sequent proof of a prenex formula, the quantifier rules can be made to appear below all the other rules. Such proofs must have a quantifier-free mid-sequent above which the proof is entirely equational/propositional.]
- Show that if a formula has a counter-model, then it has one built from Herbrand terms (with an added constant if there isn't one).



Skolemization

- Consider a formula of the form $\forall x. \exists y. q(x, y)$.
- It is equisatisfiable with the formula $\forall x.q(x,f(x))$ for a new function symbol f.
- If $M \models \forall x.\exists y.q(x,y)$, then for any $c \in |M|$, there is $d_c \in |M|$ such that $M[[q(x,y)]]\{x \mapsto c, y \mapsto d_c\}$. let M' extend M so that $M(f)(c) = d_c$, for each $c \in |M|$: $M' \models \forall x.q(x,f(y))$.
- Conversely, if $M \models \forall x.q(x, f(y))$, then for every $c \in |M|$, $M[q(x, y)] \{x \mapsto c, y \mapsto M(f)(c)\}$.
- Prove the general case that any prenex formula can be Skolemized by replacing each existentially quantified variable y by a term $f(\overline{x})$, where f is a distinct, new function symbol for each y, and \overline{x} are the universally quantified variables governing y.



Unification

- A substitution is a map $\{x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n\}$ from a finite set of variables $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ to a set of terms.
- Define the operation $\sigma(a)$ of applying a substitution (such as the one above) to a term a to replace any free variables x_i in t with a_i .
- Define the operation of composing two substitutions $\sigma_1 \circ \sigma_2$ as $\{x_1 \mapsto \sigma_1(a_1), \dots, x_n \mapsto \sigma_1(a_n)\}$, if σ_2 is of the form $\{x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n\}$.
- Given two terms f(x, g(y, y)) and f(g(y, y), x) (possibly containing free variables), find a substitution σ such that $\sigma(a) \equiv \sigma(b)$.
- Such a σ is called a unifier.
- Not all terms have such unifiers, e.g., f(g(x)) and f(x).
- A substitution σ_1 is more general than σ_2 if the latter can be obtained as $\sigma \circ \sigma_1$, for some σ .
- Define the operation of computing the most general unifier, if there is one, and reporting failure, otherwise.



Resolution Example

- To prove $(\exists y. \forall x. p(x, y)) \Rightarrow (\forall x. \exists y. p(x, y))$
- Negate: $(\exists y. \forall x. p(x, y)) \land (\exists x. \forall y. \neg p(x, y))$
- Prenexify: $\exists y_1. \forall x_1. \exists x_2. \forall y_2. p(x_1, y_1) \land \neg p(x_2, y_2)$
- Skolemize: $\forall x_1, y_2.p(x_1, c) \land \neg p(f(x_1), y_2)$
- Distribute and clausify: $\{p(x_1, c), \neg p(f(x_3), y_2)\}$
- Unify and resolve with unifier $\{x_1 \mapsto f(x_3), y_2 \mapsto c\}$
- Yields an empty clause
- Now try to show $(\forall x.\exists y.p(x,y)) \Rightarrow (\exists y.\forall x.p(x,y))$.



Dedekind-Peano Arithmetic

- The natural numbers consist of 0, s(0), s(s(0)), etc.
- Clearly, $0 \neq s(x)$, for any x.
- Also, $s(x) = s(y) \Rightarrow x = y$, for any x and y.
- Next, we would like to say that this is all there is, i.e., every domain element is reachable from 0 through applications of s.
- This requires induction:
 - $P(0) \wedge (\forall n. P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)) \Rightarrow (\forall n. P(n))$, for every property P.
- But there is no way to write this there are uncountably many properties (subset of natural numbers) but only finitely many formulas.
- Induction is therefore given as a scheme, an infinite set of axioms, with the template

$$A\{x\mapsto 0\} \land (\forall x.A \Rightarrow A\{x\mapsto s(x)\}) \Rightarrow (\forall x.A).$$

- We still need to define + and \times . How?
- How do you define the relations x < y and x < y?



Using Dedekind-Peano Arithmetic

- Prove that

 - ② $\forall x, y, z.(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$



Set Theory

Set theory can be axiomatized using axiom schemes, using a membership relation \in :

- Extensionality: $x = y \iff (\forall z.z \in x \iff z \in y)$
- The existence of the empty set $\forall x. \neg x \in \emptyset$
- Pairs: $\forall x, y. \exists z. \forall u. u \in z. \iff u = x \lor u = y$ (Define the singleton set containing the empty set. Construct a representation for the ordered pair of two sets.)
- Union: How? (Define a representation for the finite ordinals using singleton, or using singleton and union.)
- Separation: $\{x \in y | A\}$, for any formula A, $y \notin vars(A)$. (Define the intersection and disjointness of two sets.)
- Infinity: There is a set containing all the finite ordinals.
- Power set: For any set, there is a set of all its subsets.
- Regularity: Every set has an element that is disjoint from it.
- Replacement: There is a set that is the image Y of a set X with respect to a functional $(\forall x \in X.\exists! y.A(x,y))$ rule A(x,y).



Using Set Theory

- Can two different sets be empty?
- For your definition of ordered pairing, define the first and second projection operations.
- Define the Cartesian product x × y of two sets, as the set of ordered pairs ⟨u, v⟩ such that u ∈ x and v ∈ y.
- Define a subset of $x \times y$ to be functional if it does not contain any ordered pairs $\langle u, v \rangle$ and $\langle u', v \rangle$ such that $u \neq u'$.
- Define the function space y^x of the functions that map elements of x to elements of y.
- Define the join of two relations, where the first is a subset of $x \times y$ and the second is a subset of $y \times z$.



Incompleteness

- Can all mathematical truths (valid sentences) be formally proved?
- No. There are valid statements about numbers that have no proof. (Gödel's first incompleteness theorem)
- Suppose Z is some formal theory claiming to be a sound and complete formalization of arithmetic, i.e., it proves all and only valid statements about numbers.
- Gödel showed that there is a valid but unprovable statement.



The First Incompleteness Theorem

- The expressions of Z can be represented as numbers as can the proofs.
- The statement "p is a proof of A" can then be represented by a formula Pf(x, y) about numbers x and y.
- If p is represented by the number \underline{p} and A by \underline{A} , then $Pf(p,\underline{A})$ is provable iff p is a proof of A.
- Numbers such as <u>A</u> are representable as numerals in Z and these numerals can also be represented by numbers, <u>A</u>.
- Then $\exists x. Pf(x, y)$ says that the statement represented by y is *provable*. Call this Pr(y).



The Undecidable Sentence

- Let S(x) represent the numeric encoding of the operation such that for any number k, S(k) is the encoding of the expression obtained by substituting the numeral for k for the variable 'x' in the expression represented by the number k.
- Let the formula $\neg Pr(S(x))$ be represented by the number k, and the undecidable sentence U is $\neg Pr(S(k))$.
- \underline{U} is S(k), i.e., the sentence obtained by substituting the numeral for k for 'x' in $\neg Pr(S(x))$ which is represented by k.
- Since *U* is $\neg Pr(\underline{U})$, we have a situation where either
 - U, i.e., $\neg Pr(\underline{U})$, is provable, but from the numbering of the proof of U, we can also prove $Pr(\underline{U})$.
 - **2** $\neg U$, i.e., $Pr(\underline{U})$ is provable, but clearly none of $Pf(0,\underline{U})$ $Pf(1,\underline{U})$, ..., is provable (since otherwise U would be provable), an ω -inconsistency, or
 - **3** Neither U nor $\neg U$ is provable: an incompleteness.



Second Incompleteness Theorem

- The negation of the sentence U is Σ_1 , and Z can verify Σ_1 -completeness (every valid Σ_1 -sentence is provable).
- Then

$$\vdash Pr(\underline{U}) \Rightarrow Pr(\underline{Pr(\underline{U})}).$$

- But this says $\vdash Pr(\underline{U}) \Rightarrow Pr(\underline{\neg U})$.
- Therefore $\vdash Con(Z) \Rightarrow \neg Pr(\underline{U})$.
- Hence \forall Con(Z), by the first incompleteness theorem.
- Exercise: The theory Z is consistent if $A \land \neg A$ is not provable for any A. Show that ω -consistency is stronger than consistency. Show that the consistency of Z is adequate for proving the first incompleteness theorem.



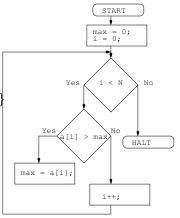
Floyd's method for Flowchart programs

- A flowchart has a start vertex with a single outgoing edge, a halt vertex with a single incoming edge.
- Each vertex corresponds to a program block or a decision conditions.
- Each edge corresponds to an assertion; the start edge is the flowchart precondition, and the halt edge is the flowchart postcondition.
- Verification conditions check that for each vertex, each incoming edge assertion through the block implies the outgoing edge assertion.
- Partial correctness: If each verification condition has been discharged, then every halting computation starting in a state satisfying the precondition terminates in a state satisfying the postcondition.
- Total correctness: If there is a ranking function mapping states to ordinals that strictly decreases for any cycle in the flowchart, then every computation terminates in the halt



Floyd's Method

```
\begin{array}{l} \max \ = \ 0 \ ; \\ i \ = \ 0 \ ; \\ \left\{ i \ \leq \ N \ \land \ \forall (j \ < \ i) : \ a[j] \ \leq \ \max \right\} \\ \text{while } (i \ < \ N) \left\{ \\ \text{if } (a[i] \ > \ \max) \left\{ \\ \text{max = a[i]} \ ; \\ \\ i \ + \ ; \\ \right\} \\ \left\{ \forall (j \ < \ N) : \ a[j] \ \leq \ \max \right\} \end{array}
```



Precondition is true, and postcondition is $\forall (j < N) : a[j] \le max$. The *loop invariant* is $i \le N \land \forall (j < i) : a[j] \le max$.



Hoare Logic

- A Hoare triple has the form $\{P\}S\{Q\}$, where S is a program statement in terms of the program variables drawn from the set Y and P and Q are assertions containing logical variables from X and program variables.
- A program statement is one of
 - A skip statement skip.
 - **2** A simultaneous assignment $\overline{y} := \overline{e}$ where \overline{y} is a sequence of n distinct program variables, e is a sequence of $n \Sigma[Y]$ -terms.
 - **3** A conditional statement e ? S_1 : S_2 , where C is a $\Sigma[Y]$ -formula.
 - 4 A loop while e do S.
 - **5** A sequential composition S_1 ; S_2 .
- Express the max program using the language constructs above.



Hoare Logic

| Skip | $\{P\}$ skip $\{P\}$ |
|-------------|--|
| Assignment | $\{P[\overline{e}/\overline{y}]\}\overline{y} := \overline{e}\{P\}$ |
| Conditional | $\frac{\{C \land P\}S_1\{Q\} \ \{\neg C \land P\}S_2\{Q\}}{\{P\}C ? S_1 : S_2\{Q\}}$ |
| Loop | $\frac{\{P \land C\}S\{P\}}{\{P\}\text{while } C \text{ do } S\{P \land \neg C\}}$ |
| Composition | $\frac{\{P\}S_1\{R\} \ \{R\}S_2\{Q\}}{\{P\}S_1; S_2\{Q\}}$ |
| Consequence | $\frac{P \Rightarrow P' \{P'\}S\{Q'\} Q' \Rightarrow Q}{\{P\}S\{Q\}}$ |

Prove the partial correctness of the max program using the rules above.



Hoare Logic Semantics

- ullet Both assertions and statements contain operations from a first-order signature Σ .
- An assignment σ maps program variables in Y to values in dom(M).
- A program expression e has value $M[e]\sigma$.
- The meaning of a statement M[S] is given by a sequence of states (of length at least 2).
 - **1** $\sigma \circ \sigma \in M[skip]$, for any state σ .

 - Φ ∈ $M[C ? S_1 : S_2]$ if either $M[C] \psi[0] = T$ and $\psi \in M[S_1]$, or $M[C] \psi[0] = L$ and $\psi \in M[S_2]$
 - **5** $\sigma \circ \sigma \in M[[while C do S]]$ if $M[[C]]\sigma = \bot$



Soundness of Hoare Logic

- $\{P\}S\{Q\}$ is valid in a Σ -structure M if for every sequence $\sigma \circ \psi \circ \sigma' \in M[\![S]\!]$ and any assignment ρ of values in dom(M) to logical variables in X, either
 - **1** $M[\![Q]\!]_{\sigma'}^{\rho} = \top$, or
 - **2** $M[P]_{\sigma}^{\rho} = \bot$.
- Informally, every computation sequence for S either ends in a state satisfying Q or starts in a state falsifying P.
- Demonstrate the soundness of the Hoare calculus.



Completeness of Hoare Logic

- The proof of a valid triple $\{P\}S\{Q\}$ can be decomposed into
 - The valid triple $\{wlp(S)(Q)\}S\{Q\}$, and
 - 2 The valid assertion $P \Rightarrow wlp(S)(Q)$
- wlp(S)(Q) (the weakest liberal precondition) is an assertion such that for any $\psi \in M[S]$ with $|\psi| = n+1$ and ρ , either $M[Q]_{\psi_n}^{\rho} = \bot$ or $M[wlp(S)(Q)]_{\psi_0}^{\rho} = \top$.
- Show that for any S and Q, the valid triple $\{wlp(S)(Q)\}S\{Q\}$ can be proved in the Hoare calculus. (Hint: Use induction on S.)
- First-order arithmetic over $\langle +,.,0,1 \rangle$ is sufficient to express wlp(S)(Q) since it can code up sequences of states representing computations.



Transition Systems: Mutual Exclusion

```
initially
try[1] = critical[1] = turn = false
transition
          \neg \text{try}[1] \rightarrow \text{try}[1] := \text{true};
                            turn := false:
 \neg \text{try}[2] \lor \text{turn} \rightarrow \text{critical}[1] := \text{true};
     critical[1] \rightarrow critical[1] := false;
                              try[1] := false;
initially
try[2] = critical[2] = false
transition
            \neg \text{try}[2] \rightarrow \text{try}[2] := \text{true};
                           turn := true:
 \neg try[1] \lor \neg turn \rightarrow critical[2] := true;
       critical[2] \rightarrow critical[2] := false;
                                try[2] := false;
```



Model Checking Transition Systems

- A transition system is given as a triple $\langle W, I, N \rangle$ of states W, an initialization predicate I, and a transition relation N.
- Symbolic Model Checking: Fixpoints such as $\mu X.I \sqcup post(N)(X)$ which is the set of reachable states can be constructed as an ROBDD.
- Bounded Model Checking: $I(s_0) \wedge \bigwedge_{i=0}^k N(s_i, s_{i+1})$ represents the set of possible (k+1)-step computations and $\neg P(s_{k+1})$ represents the possible violations of state predicate P at the state s_{k+1} .
- *k*-Induction: A variant of bounded model checking can be used to prove properties:
 - Base: Check that P holds in the first k states of the computation
 - Induction: If P holds for any sequence of k steps in a computation, it holds in the k + 1-th state.
- Prove the mutual exclusion property by *k*-induction.



Interpolation-Based Model Checking

- Interpolation: The unsatisfiability of the BMC query yields an interpolant Q such that $I(s_0) \wedge N(s_0, s_1)$ and $\bigwedge_{i=1}^k N(s_i, s_{i+1}) \wedge \neg P(s_{k+1})$ are jointly unsatisfiable.
- The proof yields an interpolant $Q(s_1)$.
- Let $I'(s_0)$ be $I(s_0) \vee Q(s_0)$.
- If $I(s_0) = I'(s_0)$ then this is an invariant. Otherwise, repeat the process with I replaced by I'.
- Prove the mutual exclusion property using interpolation-based model checking.



Conclusions: Speak Logic!

- Logic is a powerful tool for
 - Formalizing concepts
 - ② Defining abstractions
 - Opening Proving Validaties
 - Solving constraints
 - 6 Reasoning by calculation
 - Mechanized inference
- The power of logic is when it is used as an aid to effective reasoning.
- Logic can become enormously difficult, and it would undoubtedly be well to produce more assurance in its use. . . . We may some day click off arguments on a machine with the same assurance that we now enter sales on a cash register.

Vannevar Bush, As We May Think

 The machinery of logic has made it possible to solve large and complex problems; formal verification is now a practical technology.

References

- Barwise, Handbook of Mathematical Logic
- Johnstone, Notes on logic and set theory
- Ebbinghaus, Flum, and Thomas, Mathematical Logic
- Kees Doets, Basic Model Theory
- Huth and Ryan, Logic in Computer Science: Modelling and Reasoning about Systems
- Girard, Lafont, and Taylor, *Proofs and Types*
- Shankar, Automated Reasoning for Verification, ACM Computing Surveys, 2009
- Shankar, Model Checking and Deduction, Handbook of Model Checking (To appear), 2015.

