

DECISION PROBLEMS IN PROPOSITIONAL/PREDICATE LOGIC

1. Is a propositional/predicate formula a *tautology/theorem*?

$$\overset{?}{\models} V \quad \text{or} \quad \overset{?}{\vdash} V$$

2. Is a propositional/ predicate formula a *logical/syntactic consequence* of a set of hypotheses?

$$U_1, \dots, U_n \overset{?}{\models} V \quad \text{or} \quad U_1, \dots, U_n \overset{?}{\vdash} V$$

In order to solve these two decision problems, *theorem proving methods* are applied.

Classification:

semantic *versus* syntactic proof methods

<i>semantic proof methods</i>	<i>syntactic proof methods</i>
propositional logic <ul style="list-style-type: none">• the truth table method• CNF- conjunctive normal form propositional/predicate logic <ul style="list-style-type: none">• the semantic tableaux method	propositional/predicate logic <ul style="list-style-type: none">• the definition of deduction• the theorem of deduction and its reverse• the resolution method• the sequent calculus method

Classification:

direct *versus* refutation proof methods

<u>direct</u> <i>proof methods</i>	<u>refutation</u> <i>proof methods</i>
-they use directly the formula to be proved	- they model “ reductio ad absurdum ” principle (proof by contradiction) using the negation of the formula to be proved
propositional logic <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the truth table method CNF- conjunctive normal form propositional/predicate logic <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the sequent calculus method the definition of deduction the theorem of deduction and its reverse 	propositional/predicate logic <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the semantic tableaux method; the resolution method.

Semantic Tableaux Method

- It was proposed as a proof method for classical logics by R. Smullyan in 1968.
- Dedicated theorem provers: 3TAP, pTAP, leanTAP, Cassandra.
- It was easily adapted to *nonstandard logics* (modal, temporal, many-valued, non-monotonic).
- It is based on semantic considerations => ***semantic method***.
- Its basic aim is to decide ***consistency*** and to find all the models of a formula by decomposing the formula in subformulas.
- The ***validity*** of a formula is proved by contradiction=>
=> ***refutation method***.

Decomposition rules for *propositional formulas*

- **conjunctive formulas**, which are consistent only if both of its component sub-formulas are satisfied, are decomposed using α - **rules**

$$\begin{array}{c} A \wedge B \\ | \\ A \\ | \\ B \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \neg (A \vee B) \equiv \neg A \wedge \neg B \\ | \\ \neg A \\ | \\ \neg B \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \neg (A \rightarrow B) \equiv A \wedge \neg B \\ | \\ A \\ | \\ \neg B \end{array}$$

- **disjunctive formulas**, which are satisfied if one of its component sub-formulas is satisfiable(consistent) are decomposed using β - **rules**

$$\begin{array}{cc} A \vee B & \\ / \quad \backslash & \\ A & B \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{cc} \neg (A \wedge B) \equiv \neg A \vee \neg B & \\ / \quad \backslash & \\ \neg A & \neg B \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{cc} A \rightarrow B \equiv \neg A \vee B & \\ / \quad \backslash & \\ \neg A & B \end{array}$$

Recommendation:

- apply α - rules which keep one branch before β - rules which make a branching.

Decomposition rules for *predicate formulas*

<p style="text-align: center;">γ - rules</p> <table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="text-align: center; width: 50%;">$(\forall x)A(x)$</td> <td style="text-align: center; width: 50%;">$\neg(\exists x)A(x)$</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">$A(c_1)$</td> <td style="text-align: center;">$\neg A(c_1)$</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">$A(c_2)$</td> <td style="text-align: center;">$\neg A(c_2)$</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">...</td> <td style="text-align: center;">...</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">$A(c_n)$</td> <td style="text-align: center;">$\neg A(c_n)$</td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> <td style="text-align: center;"> </td> </tr> <tr> <td style="text-align: center;">$(\forall x)A(x)$</td> <td style="text-align: center;">$\neg(\exists x)A(x)$</td> </tr> </table>	$(\forall x)A(x)$	$\neg(\exists x)A(x)$			$A(c_1)$	$\neg A(c_1)$			$A(c_2)$	$\neg A(c_2)$					$A(c_n)$	$\neg A(c_n)$			$(\forall x)A(x)$	$\neg(\exists x)A(x)$	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • used to decompose universally quantified formulas • c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n are all the parameters (constants) on that branch and they are used for the instantiation of A. • if there is no constant on that branch, a new constant is introduced and used for instantiation.
$(\forall x)A(x)$	$\neg(\exists x)A(x)$																						
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$(\exists x)A(x)$	$\neg(\forall x)A(x)$																						
$A(c)$	$\neg A(c)$																						
<p><u>Recommendation:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • apply δ-rules (introduction of new constants) before γ-rules which use all the constants on that branch. 																							

Construction of a semantic tableau

To a propositional/predicate formula U we can associate a semantic tableau, which is a binary tree having formulas in its nodes and it is built as follows:

1. the root of the tree is labeled with the initial formula;
2. every branch of the tree which contains a formula will be extended with a subtree according to the decomposition rule specific to its class;
3. the extension of a branch stops in the following cases:
 - a) if that branch contains a formula and its negation, the branch is marked as closed using the symbol \otimes ;
 - b) if all the formulas on that branch are already decomposed or if by decomposing the formulas which are not decomposed yet, no new formulas are obtained.

Definitions

1. A **branch** of a semantic tableau is called **closed** (marked by \otimes) if it contains a formula and its negation, otherwise the **branch** is called **open** (marked by the symbol \odot).
2. A **branch** is called **complete** if it is closed or all the formulas on that branch are already decomposed.
3. A **semantic tableau** is called **closed** if all its branches are closed.
4. If a semantic tableau has at least one open branch, the **tableau** is called **open**.
5. A **semantic tableau** is called **complete** if all its branches are complete.

Remarks:

- A **closed branch** symbolizes **inconsistency** among the formulas on that branch.
- An **inconsistent formula** has associated a **closed semantic tableau**.
- The **set of formulas belonging to a complete and open branch is consistent**, meaning that it has a model.
- A **consistent formula** has associated a **complete and open semantic tableau**.

Models of a formula

➤ *propositional formula* U :

- by assigning the truth value T to all the literals belonging to a complete and open branch of the semantic tableau of U , a partial/complete model of U is obtained.
- if a propositional variable is not on that branch, we can assign to it either T or F , obtaining complete models.

➤ *predicate formula* U :

- an open branch of the semantic tableau associated to *formula* U provides a partial/complete model of U with the minimum number of elements in the domain of interpretation. Such a model $I = \langle D, m \rangle$ is a 'generic' one and it is built as follows:
 - the domain of interpretation D contains all the constants on that branch;
 - the value T is assigned to all the literals on that branch:
 - if $c_1, \dots, c_n \in D$, $P \in P_n$ (P is an n -ary predicate symbol) and
 - a) $P(c_1, \dots, c_n)$ belongs to the branch then $m(P)(c_1, \dots, c_n) = T$
 - b) $\neg P(c_1, \dots, c_n)$ belongs to the branch then $m(P)(c_1, \dots, c_n) = F$
- based on this generic model, more concrete models can be obtained.

Theorems

Semantic tableaux method – a *refutation* proof method

Theorem 1: Soundness and completeness of the semantic tableaux method

A propositional/predicate formula U is a tautology if and only if $\neg U$ has a closed semantic tableau.

Theorem 2:

Let U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n, V be propositional/predicate formulas.

$U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n \models V$ if and only if there is a closed semantic tableau associated to the formula $U_1 \wedge U_2 \wedge \dots \wedge U_n \wedge \neg V$.

Propositional logic is decidable:

- the *semantic tableau* associated to a propositional formula *is always finite* therefore, we can always decide whether the formula is a tautology or not.

Predicate logic - undecidable

Theorem (Church 1936):

The problem of validity of a first-order formula is *undecidable*, but is *semi-decidable*. If a procedure *Proc* is used to check the validity of a first-order formula *U* we have the following cases:

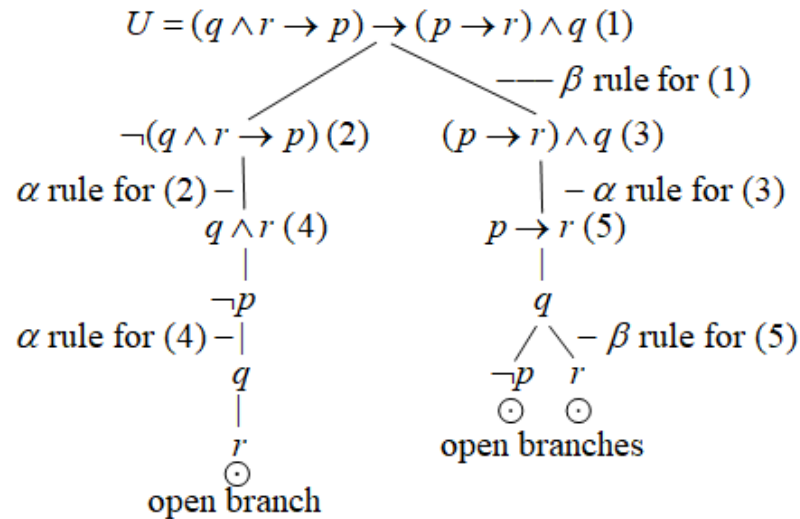
- if *U* is a valid formula, **then** *Proc* ends with the corresponding answer.
- if the formula *U* is not valid, **then** *Proc* ends with the corresponding answer **or** *Proc* may never stop.

Predicate logic is not decidable, it is only semi-decidable:

- if the *semantic tableau* associated to the predicate formula $\neg U$ is *finite* then we can decide whether the formula *U* is a *tautology* (closed tableau for $\neg U$) or not (complete and open tableau for $\neg U$);
- if the *semantic tableau* of the predicate formula $\neg U$ is *infinite* then we cannot decide upon the validity of *U*.

Example 1

Build a semantic tableau for $U = (q \wedge r \rightarrow p) \rightarrow (p \rightarrow r) \wedge q$ and decide the type of U . In case of consistency find all its models.



The semantic tableau is complete and open, having three open branches and thus U is consistent. $\text{DNF}(U) = (\neg p \wedge q \wedge r) \vee (q \wedge \neg p) \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (q \wedge \neg p) \vee (q \wedge r)$

The simplified form of DNF was obtained by applying the absorption law. The left-most branch, corresponding to the first cube, is covered by the other two branches.

<p>The branch represented by the cube $q \wedge \neg p$ provides the models:</p> $i_1, i_2 : \{p, q, r\} \rightarrow \{T, F\}$ $i_1(p) = F, i_1(q) = T, i_1(r) = T$ $i_2(p) = F, i_2(q) = T, i_2(r) = F$	<p>The branch represented by the cube $q \wedge r$ provides the models:</p> $i_3, i_4 : \{p, q, r\} \rightarrow \{T, F\}$ $i_3(p) = T, i_3(q) = T, i_3(r) = T$ $i_4(p) = F, i_4(q) = T, i_4(r) = T$
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Because $i_1 = i_4$, U has three models: i_1 , i_2 and i_3 , $i_1(U) = i_2(U) = i_3(U) = T$

Having at least one model, U is a consistent formula, but it is not a tautology (does not have 8 models), therefore U is a contingent formula.

Example 2

Using the semantic tableaux method check whether the conclusion C is a logical consequence of the set of hypotheses: $\{H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4\}$.

Consider the following *hypotheses*:

H_1 . Mary will go to London this summer if both her friends Kate and Susan go.

H_2 . If Kate passes the English exam in May then she will go to London.

H_3 . Kate was in hospital from April until July and she didn't take the English exam.

H_4 . This summer Susan will go to London on a business trip.

and the *conclusion*:

C . Will Mary go to London this summer?

Notations for the propositional variables:

M – Mary will go to London

S – Susan will go to London

K – Kate will go to London

KE – Kate passed the English exam

$H_1 : K \wedge S \rightarrow M$

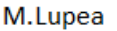
$H_2 : KE \rightarrow K$

$H_3 : \neg KE$

$H_4 : S$

$C : M$

Therefore $H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4 \not\models C$ and based on the hypotheses we can't conclude that 'Mary will go to London this summer'.



$$\begin{array}{c} A \rightarrow B \\ / \quad \backslash \\ \neg A \quad B \end{array}$$

Example 4. Build two different semantic tableaux for the formula:

$$U = (p \vee q) \wedge \neg(q \rightarrow r) \wedge (p \rightarrow q \wedge r).$$

Tableau 1

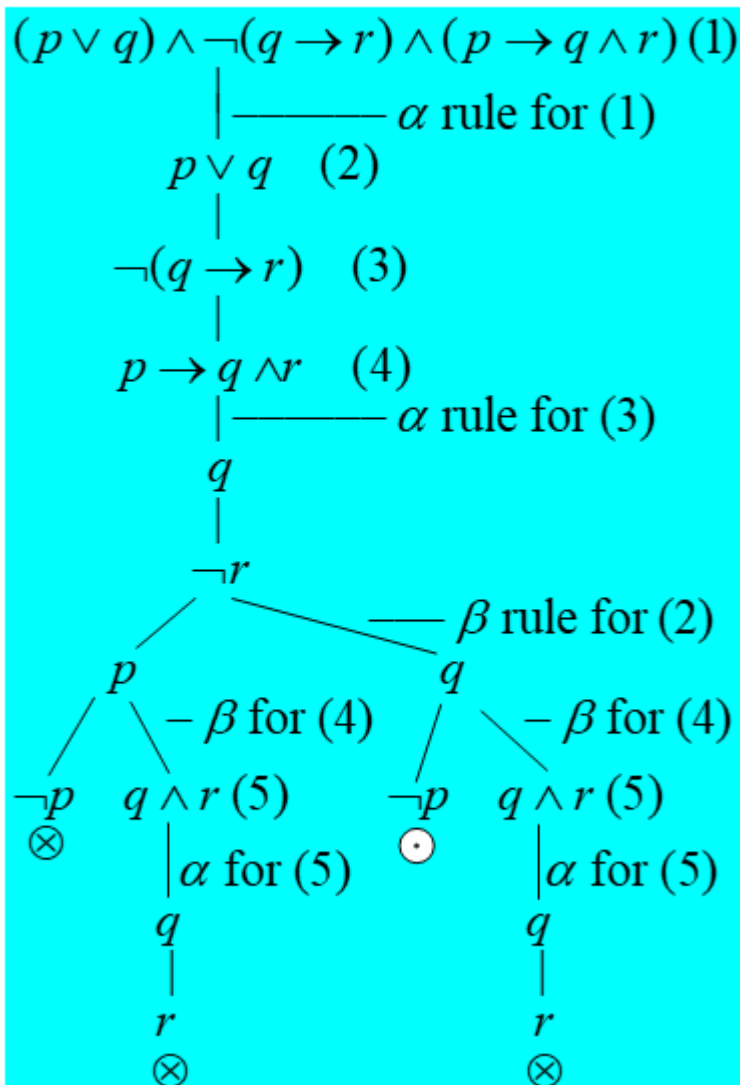
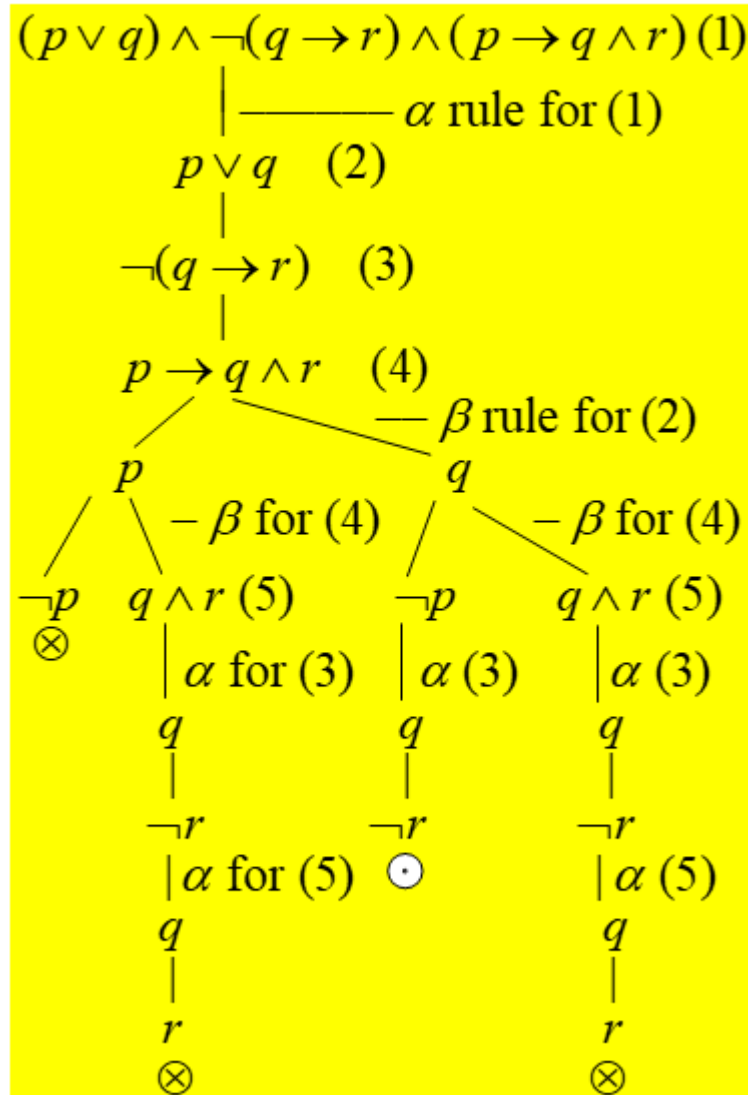


Tableau 2



Example 5:

Check the **distributivity property of the *universal quantifier* over *implication***:

$$(\forall x)(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \equiv (\forall x)P(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)Q(x)$$

We have that:

$$(\forall x)(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \equiv (\forall x)P(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)Q(x) \text{ if and only if}$$

$$\models (\forall x)(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \leftrightarrow ((\forall x)P(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)Q(x)) \text{ if and only if}$$

$$\models U_1 \text{ and } \models U_2 \text{ where:}$$

$$U_1 = (\forall x)(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)P(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)Q(x)) \text{ and}$$

$$U_2 = ((\forall x)P(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)Q(x)) \rightarrow (\forall x)(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)).$$

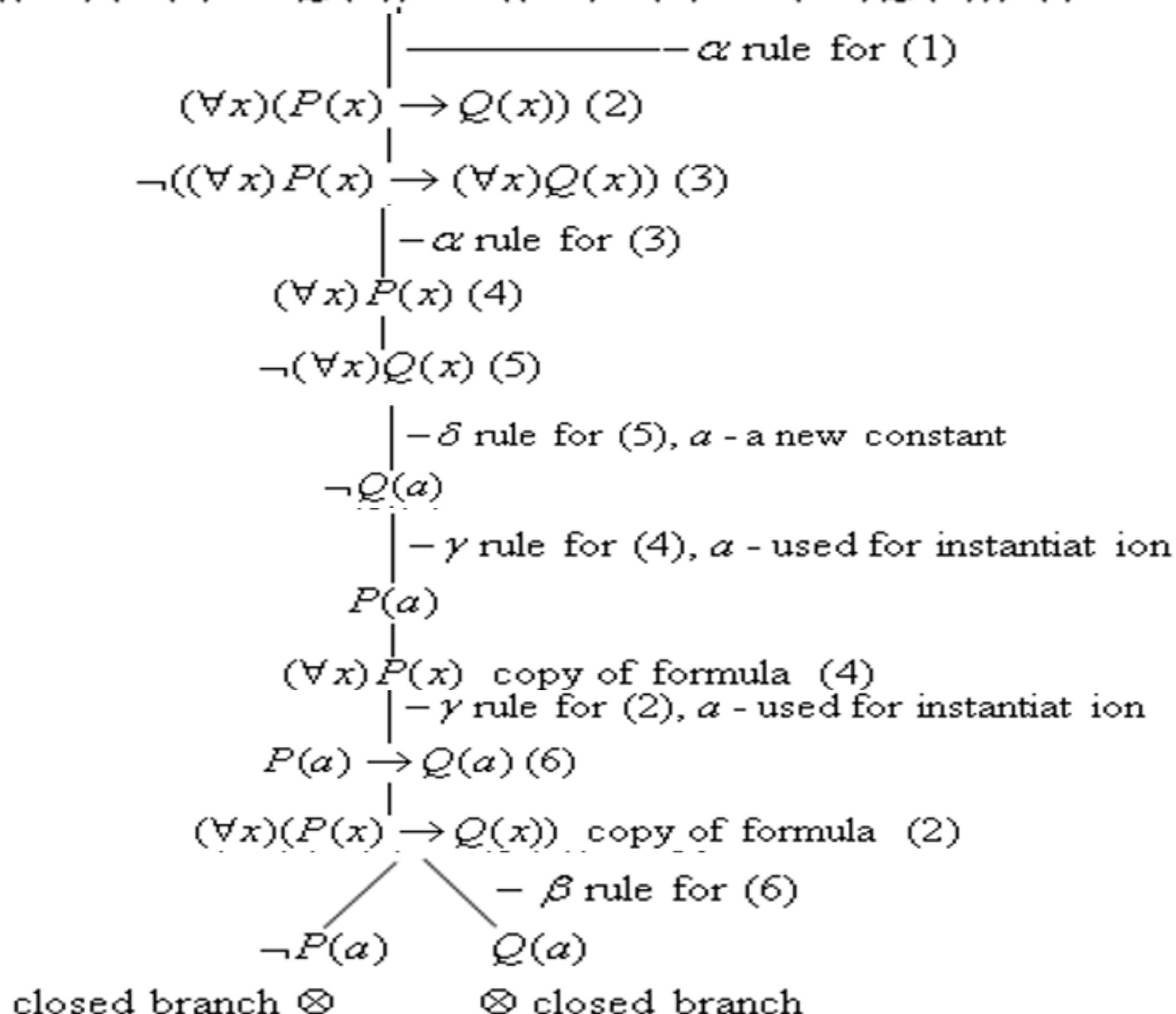
We shall prove that U_1 is a tautology and U_2 is not valid building the semantic tableaux of $\neg U_1$ and $\neg U_2$.

The following **theoretic result** is used:

$$\models U \text{ if and only if } \neg U \text{ has a closed semantic tableau.}$$

$$\neg U_1 = \neg((\forall x)(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)P(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)Q(x))) \quad (1)$$

γ - rules	
$(\forall x)A(x)$	$\neg(\exists x)A(x)$
$A(c_1)$	$\neg A(c_1)$
$A(c_2)$	$\neg A(c_2)$
\dots	\dots
$A(c_n)$	$\neg A(c_n)$
$(\forall x)A(x)$	$\neg(\exists x)A(x)$
δ - rules	
$(\exists x)A(x)$	$\neg(\forall x)A(x)$
$A(c)$	$\neg A(c)$



The semantic tableau of $\neg U_1$ is closed, with two closed branches containing pairs of opposite literals: $(P(a), \neg P(a))$ and $(Q(a), \neg Q(a))$, therefore $\neg U_1$ is inconsistent and U_1 is valid.

Conclusion: We proved that $\models U_1$ and $\not\models U_2$ so,
*the universal quantifier is not distributive over implication,
 it is only semi-distributive.*

Find anti-models of the non-valid formula U_2 .

The open branch provides a partial model that covers two complete models of $\neg U_2$: I_1 and I_2 , which are anti-models of U_2 .

$I_1 = \langle D, m_1 \rangle$, where $D = \{a, b\}$ – the domain of interpretation

$$m_1(P) : D \rightarrow \{T, F\}, m_1(P)(a) = T, m_1(P)(b) = F,$$

$$m_1(Q) : D \rightarrow \{T, F\}, m_1(Q)(a) = F, m_1(Q)(b) = T$$

$$v^{I_1}(\neg U_2) = T \text{ and } v^{I_1}(U_2) = F.$$

$I_2 = \langle D, m_2 \rangle$, where $D = \{a, b\}$ – the domain of interpretation

$$m_2(P) : D \rightarrow \{T, F\}, m_2(P)(a) = T, m_2(P)(b) = F,$$

$$m_2(Q) : D \rightarrow \{T, F\}, m_2(Q)(a) = F, m_2(Q)(b) = F$$

$$v^{I_2}(\neg U_2) = T \text{ and } v^{I_2}(U_2) = F.$$

Example 6: Prove the non-validity of

$$U = (\exists y)(\forall x)P(x,y)$$

$$\neg ((\exists y)(\forall x)P(x,y)) \equiv (\forall y)(\exists x) \neg P(x,y) \quad (1)$$

| - γ rule for (1), c_0 - new constant

$$(\exists x) \neg P(x, c_0) \quad (2)$$

|

$$(\forall y)(\exists x) \neg P(x,y) \quad (3) \text{ copy of formula (1)}$$

| - δ rule for (2), c_1 - new constant

$$\neg P(c_1, c_0)$$

| - γ rule for (3), c_1 is used for instantiation

$$(\exists x) \neg P(x, c_1) \quad (4)$$

|

$$(\forall y)(\exists x) \neg P(x,y) \quad (5) \text{ copy of formula (1)}$$

| - δ rule for (4), c_2 - new constant

$$\neg P(c_2, c_1)$$

| - γ rule for (5), c_2 is used for instantiation

$$(\exists x) \neg P(x, c_2) \quad (6)$$

....

The semantic tableau of $\neg U$ is *infinite so*,
we cannot decide upon the validity of U .

A well known interpretation which falsifies U is
 $I = \langle D, m \rangle$, where the domain $D = \mathbb{N}$,
the set of all natural numbers and
 $m(P): \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{T, F\}$, $m(P)(x, y): "x < y"$.

The formula $(\exists y)(\forall x)P(x,y)$ is evaluated under
the interpretation I as:

$$v^I(U) = (\exists y)_{y \in \mathbb{N}} (\forall x)_{x \in \mathbb{N}} "x < y"$$

and can be translated as:

"The biggest natural number exists",
which is obvious false, and thus U is not a tautology.