

Propositional Logic

Bow-Yaw Wang

Institute of Information Science
Academia Sinica, Taiwan

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- 3 Propositional logic as a formal language
- 4 Semantics of propositional logic
 - The meaning of logical connectives
 - Soundness of Propositional Logic
 - Completeness of Propositional Logic
- 5 Normal Forms
 - Semantic equivalence, satisfiability, and validity
 - Conjunctive normal forms and validity
 - Horn clauses and satisfiability
- 6 SAT Solvers

Logic and Reasoning

- Consider the following arguments:

Example

若火車誤點且車站沒有計程車，則小明開會就遲到。小明開會並沒有遲到，而火車誤點。那麼車站就有計程車。

Example

如果下雨而且小華沒帶雨傘，則小華會淋溼。小華並沒有淋溼，而外面正在下雨。那麼小華一定帶了雨傘。

- Both examples have the same structure:

p	火車誤點	下雨
q	車站有計程車	小華帶雨傘
r	小明開會遲到	小華淋溼

If p and not q , then r . Not r . p . Hence q .

(若 p 且非 q ，則 r 。非 r ， p 。則 q)

Propositions

- We will develop a language to reason such arguments.
- Our language is based on propositions (or declarative sentences).
- Examples:
 - The sum of 3 and 5 equals 8.
 - Every even natural number is the sum of two prime numbers (Goldbach's conjecture).
 - All hobbits like mushrooms in their soup.
- A proposition can either be “true” or “false.”
- Non-examples:
 - When will we have lunch?
 - Run!

Atomic Sentences

- Certain sentences are the basic blocks of our language.
 - They are called atomic (or indecomposable) sentences.
- We will use p, q, r, \dots (possibly with sub- or super-scripts) to denote sentences.
- Examples:
 - Let p denote “I won the lottery last week.”
 - Let q denote “I bought a lottery ticket.”
 - Let r denote “I won last week’s grand prize.”
- In fact, p , q , and r are all atomic sentences.

- Let p, q, r, \dots be sentences.
 - ▶ p : “I won the lottery last week.”
 - ▶ q : “I bought a lottery ticket.”
 - ▶ r : “I won last week’s grand prize.”
- We construct new sentences by the following connectives:
 - ▶ The negation of p (denoted by $\neg p$).
 - ★ It is **not** true that “I won the lottery last week.”
 - ▶ The disjunction of p and q (denoted by $p \vee q$).
 - ★ “I won the lottery last week” **or** “I won last week’s grand prize.”
 - ▶ The conjunction of p and q (denoted by $p \wedge q$).
 - ★ “I won the lottery last week” **and** “I bought a lottery ticket.”
 - ▶ The implication of r and p (denoted by $r \implies p$).
 - ★ “I won last week’s grand prize” **implies** “I won the lottery last week.”

Binding Priorities

- If p, q, r are sentences, $p \wedge q$ and $(\neg r) \vee q$ are sentences.
- $(p \wedge q) \implies ((\neg r) \vee q)$ is also a sentence.
- To reduce the number of parentheses, we adopt the following conventions:

Convention.

strong		weak
\neg	$\{\vee, \wedge\}$	\implies

- Hence $p \wedge q \implies \neg r \vee q$ is indeed $(p \wedge q) \implies ((\neg r) \vee q)$.

Examples, Examples, Examples

- Let us rewrite our examples:

Example

若火車誤點且車站沒有計程車，則小明開會就遲到。小明開會並沒有遲到，而火車誤點。那麼車站就有計程車。

- We have the following atomic sentences:

p : 火車誤點 | q : 車站有計程車 | r : 小明開會遲到

- In our language, we write:

- ▶ $p \wedge \neg q \implies r$ (若火車誤點且車站沒有計程車，則小明開會就遲到)
- ▶ $\neg r$ (小明開會並沒有遲到)
- ▶ p (火車誤點)
- ▶ Hence q (車站就有計程車)

Examples, Examples, Examples

- Let us rewrite our examples:

Example

如果下雨而且小華沒帶雨傘，則小華會淋溼。小華並沒有淋溼，而外面正在下雨。那麼小華一定帶了雨傘。

- We have the following atomic sentences:

p : 下雨 | q : 小華帶雨傘 | r : 小華淋溼

- In our language, we write:

- ▶ $p \wedge \neg q \implies r$ (如果下雨而且小華沒帶雨傘，則小華會淋溼)
- ▶ $\neg r$ (小華並沒有淋溼)
- ▶ p (外面正在下雨)
- ▶ Hence q (小華一定帶了雨傘)

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Natural Deduction

- In our examples, we (informally) infer new sentences.
- In natural deduction, we have a collection of proof rules.
 - These proof rules allow us to infer new sentences logically followed from existing ones.
- Suppose we have a set of sentences: $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ (called premises), and another sentence ψ (called a conclusion).
- The notation

$$\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$$

is called a sequent.

- A sequent is valid if a proof (built by the proof rules) can be found.
- We will try to build a proof for our examples. Namely,

$$p \wedge \neg q \implies r, \neg r, p \vdash q.$$

Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Conjunction

- Suppose we want to prove a conclusion $\phi \wedge \psi$. What do we do?
 - Of course, we need to prove both ϕ and ψ so that we can conclude $\phi \wedge \psi$.
- Hence the proof rule for **conjunction** is

$$\frac{\phi \quad \psi}{\phi \wedge \psi} \wedge i$$

- Note that premises are shown above the line and the conclusion is below. Also, $\wedge i$ is the name of the proof rule.
- This proof rule is called “**conjunction-introduction**” since we introduce a conjunction (\wedge) in the conclusion.

Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Conjunction

- For each connective, we have introduction proof rule(s) and also elimination proof rule(s).
- Suppose we want to prove a conclusion ϕ from the premise $\phi \wedge \psi$. What do we do?
 - We don't do any thing since we know ϕ already!
- Here are the **elimination** proof rules:

$$\frac{\phi \wedge \psi}{\phi} \wedge e_1$$

$$\frac{\phi \wedge \psi}{\psi} \wedge e_2$$

- The rule $\wedge e_1$ says: if you have a proof for $\phi \wedge \psi$, then you have a proof for ϕ by applying this proof rule.
- Why do we need two rules?
 - Because we want to manipulate syntax only.

Examples

Example

Prove $p \wedge q, r \vdash q \wedge r$.

Proof.

We are looking for a proof of the form:

$$\begin{array}{c} p \wedge q \quad r \\ \vdots \\ q \wedge r \end{array}$$



Examples

Example

Prove $p \wedge q, r \vdash q \wedge r$.

Proof.

We are looking for a proof of the form:

$$\frac{\frac{p \wedge q}{q} \wedge e_2 \quad r}{q \wedge r} \wedge i$$

We will write proofs in lines:

1	$p \wedge q$	premise
2	r	premise
3	q	$\wedge e_2$ 1
4	$q \wedge r$	$\wedge i$ 3, 2



Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Double Negation

- Suppose we want to prove ϕ from a proof for $\neg\neg\phi$. What do we do?
 - There is no difference between ϕ and $\neg\neg\phi$. The same proof suffices!
- Hence we have the following proof rules:

$$\frac{\phi}{\neg\neg\phi} \neg\neg i$$

$$\frac{\neg\neg\phi}{\phi} \neg\neg e$$

Examples

Example

Prove $p, \neg\neg(q \wedge r) \vdash \neg\neg p \wedge r$.

Proof.

We are looking for a proof like:

$$\begin{array}{c} p \quad \neg\neg(q \wedge r) \\ \vdots \\ \neg\neg p \wedge r \end{array}$$



Examples

Example

Prove $p, \neg\neg(q \wedge r) \vdash \neg\neg p \wedge r$.

Proof.

We are looking for a proof like:

$$\frac{\frac{p}{\neg\neg p} \neg\neg i \quad \frac{\frac{\neg\neg(q \wedge r)}{q \wedge r} \neg\neg e \quad \frac{q \wedge r}{r} \wedge e_2}{\neg\neg p \wedge r} \wedge i$$



Examples

Example

Prove $p, \neg\neg(q \wedge r) \vdash \neg\neg p \wedge r$.

Proof.

We are looking for a proof like:

1	p	premise
2	$\neg\neg(q \wedge r)$	premise
3	$\neg\neg p$	$\neg\neg i$ 1
4	$q \wedge r$	$\neg\neg e$ 2
5	r	$\wedge e_2$ 4
6	$\neg\neg p \wedge r$	$\wedge i$ 3, 5



Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Implication

- Suppose we want to prove ψ from proofs for ϕ and $\phi \implies \psi$. What do we do?
 - We just put the two proofs for ϕ and $\phi \implies \psi$ together.
- Here is the proof rule:

$$\frac{\phi \quad \phi \implies \psi}{\psi} \implies e$$

- This proof rule is also called *modus ponens*.
- Here is another proof rule related to implication:

$$\frac{\phi \implies \psi \quad \neg\psi}{\neg\phi} MT$$

- This proof rule is called *modus tollens*.

Example

Example

Prove $p \implies (q \implies r), p, \neg r \vdash \neg q$.

Proof.

1	$p \implies (q \implies r)$	premise
2	p	premise
3	$\neg r$	premise
4	$q \implies r$	\implies e 2, 1
5	$\neg q$	MT 4, 3



Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Implication

- Suppose we want to prove $\phi \implies \psi$. What do we do?
 - ▶ We assume ϕ to prove ψ . If succeed, we conclude $\phi \implies \psi$ without any assumption.
 - ▶ Note that ϕ is added as an assumption and then removed so that $\phi \implies \psi$ does not depend on ϕ .
- We use “box” to simulate this strategy.
- Here is the proof rule:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{|c|} \phi \\ \vdots \\ \psi \end{array}}{\phi \implies \psi} \implies i$$

- At any point in a box, you can only use a sentence ϕ before that point. Moreover, no box enclosing the occurrence of ϕ has been closed.

Example

Example

Prove $\neg q \implies \neg p \vdash p \implies \neg\neg q$.

Proof.

$$\frac{\neg q \implies \neg p \quad \frac{p}{\neg\neg p} \quad \neg\neg i}{\neg\neg q} MT$$
$$\frac{p \implies \neg\neg q}{p \implies \neg\neg q \implies i}$$

- | | | |
|---|------------------------------------|----------------|
| 1 | $\neg q \implies \neg p$ | premise |
| 2 | p | assumption |
| 3 | $\neg\neg p$ | $\neg\neg i$ 2 |
| 4 | $\neg\neg q$ | MT 1, 3 |
| 5 | $p \implies \neg\neg q \implies i$ | 2-4 |



Theorems

Example

Prove $\vdash p \implies p$.

Proof.

1	<table border="1"><tr><td>p</td><td>assumption</td></tr></table>	p	assumption
p	assumption		
2	$p \implies p \implies i\ 1 - 1$		



In the box, we have $\phi \equiv \psi \equiv p$.

Definition

A sentence ϕ such that $\vdash \phi$ is called a theorem.

Examples

Example

Prove $p \wedge q \implies r \vdash p \implies (q \implies r)$.

Proof.

1	$p \wedge q \implies r$	premise	
2	p	assumption]
3	q	assumption	
4	$p \wedge q$	$\wedge i$ 2, 3	
5	r	$\implies e$ 4, 1]
6	$q \implies r$	$\implies i$ 3-5	
7	$p \implies (q \implies r)$	$\implies i$ 2-6	



Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Disjunction

- Suppose we want to prove $\phi \vee \psi$. What do we do?
 - We can either prove ϕ or ψ .
- Here are the proof rules:

$$\frac{\phi}{\phi \vee \psi} \vee i_1$$

$$\frac{\psi}{\phi \vee \psi} \vee i_2$$

- Note the symmetry with $\wedge e_1$ and $\wedge e_2$.

$$\frac{\phi \wedge \psi}{\phi} \wedge e_1$$

$$\frac{\phi \wedge \psi}{\psi} \wedge e_2$$

- Can we have a corresponding symmetric elimination rule for disjunction? Recall

$$\frac{\phi \quad \psi}{\phi \wedge \psi} \wedge i$$

Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Disjunction

- Suppose we want to prove χ from $\phi \vee \psi$. What do we do?
 - We assume ϕ to prove χ and then assume ψ to prove χ .
 - If both succeed, χ is proved from $\phi \vee \psi$ without assuming ϕ and ψ .
- Here is the proof rule:

$$\frac{\phi \vee \psi \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{c} \phi \\ \vdots \\ \chi \end{array}} \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{c} \psi \\ \vdots \\ \chi \end{array}}}{\chi} \text{ve}$$

- In addition to nested boxes, we may have parallel boxes in our proofs.

Example

Recall that our syntax does not admit commutativity.

Example

Prove $p \vee q \vdash q \vee p$.

Proof.

$$\frac{p \vee q \quad \boxed{\frac{p}{q \vee p} \vee i_2} \quad \boxed{\frac{q}{q \vee p} \vee i_1}}{q \vee p} \vee e$$

1	$p \vee q$	premise	
2	p	assumption]
3	$q \vee p$	$\vee i_2$ 2	
4	q	assumption]
5	$q \vee p$	$\vee i_1$ 4	
6	$q \vee p$	$\vee e$ 1, 2-3, 4-5	



Example

Example

Prove $q \implies r \vdash p \vee q \implies p \vee r$.

Proof.

1	$q \implies r$	premise		
2	$p \vee q$	assumption]	
3	p	assumption]	
4	$p \vee r$	$\vee i_1$ 3]	
5	q	assumption]	
6	r	\implies e 5, 1		
7	$p \vee r$	$\vee i_2$ 6]	
8	$p \vee r$	\vee e 2, 3-4, 5-7]	
9	$p \vee q \implies p \vee r$	\implies i 2-8		



Example

Example

Prove $p \wedge (q \vee r) \vdash (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$.

Proof.

1	$p \wedge (q \vee r)$	premise	
2	p	$\wedge e_1$ 1	
3	$q \vee r$	$\wedge e_2$ 1	
4	q	assumption]
5	$p \wedge q$	$\wedge i$ 2, 4	
6	$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	$\vee i_1$ 5]
7	r	assumption]
8	$p \wedge r$	$\wedge i$ 2, 7	
9	$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	$\vee i_2$ 8]
10	$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	$\vee e$ 3, 4-6, 7-9	



Example

Example

Prove $(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r) \vdash p \wedge (q \vee r)$.

Proof.

1	$(p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$	premise	
2	$p \wedge q$	assumption]
3	p	$\wedge e_1$ 2	
4	q	$\wedge e_2$ 2	
5	$q \vee r$	$\vee i_1$ 4]
6	$p \wedge (q \vee r)$	$\wedge i$ 3, 5	
7	$p \wedge r$	assumption	
8	p	$\wedge e_1$ 7]
9	r	$\wedge e_2$ 7	
10	$q \vee r$	$\vee i_2$ 9	
11	$p \wedge (q \vee r)$	$\wedge i$ 8, 10]
12	$p \wedge (q \vee r)$	$\vee e$ 1, 2-6, 7-11	

Contradiction

Definition

Contradictions are sentences of the form $\phi \wedge \neg\phi$ or $\neg\phi \wedge \phi$.

- Examples:
 - $p \wedge \neg p, \neg(p \vee q \implies r) \wedge (p \vee q \implies r)$.
- Logically, any sentence can be proved from a contradiction.
 - If $0 = 1$, then $100 \neq 100$.
- Particularly, if ϕ and ψ are contradictions, we have $\phi \dashv\vdash \psi$.
 - $\phi \dashv\vdash \psi$ means $\phi \vdash \psi$ and $\psi \vdash \phi$ (called provably equivalent).
- Since all contradictions are equivalent, we will use the symbol \perp (called “bottom”) for them.
- We are now ready to discuss proof rules for negation.

Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Negation

- Since any sentence can be proved from a contradiction, we have

$$\frac{\perp}{\phi} \perp e$$

- When both ϕ and $\neg\phi$ are proved, we have a contradiction.

$$\frac{\phi \quad \neg\phi}{\perp} \neg e$$

- ▶ The proof rule could be called $\perp i$. We use $\neg e$ because it eliminates a negation.

Example

Example

Prove $\neg p \vee q \vdash p \implies q$.

Proof.

1	$\neg p \vee q$	premise		
2	$\neg p$	assumption]
3	p	assumption]	
4	\perp	$\neg e$ 3, 2		
5	q	$\perp e$ 4]	
6	$p \implies q$	$\implies i$ 3-5]	
7	q	assumption]
8	p	assumption]	
9	q	copy 7]	
10	$p \implies q$	$\implies i$ 8-9]	
11	$p \implies q$	$\vee e$ 1, 2-6, 7-10		

Proof Rules for Natural Deduction – Negation

- Suppose we want to prove $\neg\phi$. What do we do?
 - ▶ We assume ϕ and try to prove a contradiction. If succeed, we prove $\neg\phi$.
- Here is the proof rule:

$$\frac{\boxed{\begin{array}{c} \phi \\ \vdots \\ \perp \end{array}}}{\neg\phi} \neg i$$

Example

Example

Prove $p \implies q, p \implies \neg q \vdash \neg p$.

Proof.

1	$p \implies q$	premise	
2	$p \implies \neg q$	premise	
3	p	assumption]
4	q	\implies e 3, 1	
5	$\neg q$	\implies e 3, 2	
6	\perp	\neg e 4, 5	
7	$\neg p$	\neg i 3-6	



Example

Example

Prove $p \wedge \neg q \implies r, \neg r, p \vdash q$.

Proof.

1	$p \wedge \neg q \implies r$	premise	
2	$\neg r$	premise	
3	p	premise	
4	$\neg q$	assumption]
5	$p \wedge \neg q$	$\wedge i$ 3, 4	
6	r	$\implies e$ 5, 1	
7	\perp	$\neg e$ 6, 2]
8	$\neg\neg q$	$\neg i$ 4-7	
9	q	$\neg\neg e$ 8	



Derived Rules

- Some rules can actually be derived from others.

Examples

Prove $p \implies q, \neg q \vdash \neg p$ (modus tollens).

Proof.

1	$p \implies q$	premise	
2	$\neg q$	premise	
3	p	assumption	
4	q	$\implies e$ 3, 1	
5	\perp	$\neg e$ 4, 2	
6	$\neg p$	$\neg i$ 3-5	



Derived Rules

Examples

Prove $p \vdash \neg\neg p$ ($\neg\neg i$)

Proof.

1	p	premise	
2	$\neg p$	assumption]
3	\perp	$\neg e$ 1, 2	
4	$\neg\neg p$	$\neg i$ 2-3	



- These rules can be replaced by their proofs and are not necessary.
 - They are just macros to help us write shorter proofs.

Reductio ad absurdum (RAA)

Example

Prove $\neg p \implies \perp \vdash p$ (RAA).

Proof.

1	$\neg p \implies \perp$	premise	
2	$\neg p$	assumption]
3	\perp	$\implies e$ 2, 1	
4	$\neg\neg p$	$\neg i$ 2-3	
5	p	$\neg\neg e$ 4	



Tertium non datur, Law of the Excluded Middle (LEM)

Example

Prove $\vdash p \vee \neg p$.

Proof.

1	$\neg(p \vee \neg p)$	assumption]
2	p	assumption]
3	$p \vee \neg p$	$\vee i_1$ 2	
4	\perp	$\neg e$ 3, 1]
5	$\neg p$	$\neg i$ 2-4	
6	$p \vee \neg p$	$\vee i_2$ 5	
7	\perp	$\neg e$ 6, 1]
8	$\neg\neg(p \vee \neg p)$	$\neg i$ 1-7	
9	$p \vee \neg p$	$\neg\neg e$ 8	



Proof Rules for Natural Deduction (Summary)

Conjunction (\wedge)

$$\frac{\phi \quad \psi}{\phi \wedge \psi} \wedge i$$

$$\frac{\phi \wedge \psi}{\phi} \wedge e_1 \quad \frac{\phi \wedge \psi}{\psi} \wedge e_2$$

Disjunction (\vee)

$$\frac{\phi}{\phi \vee \psi} \vee i_1 \quad \frac{\psi}{\phi \vee \psi} \vee i_2$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{|c|} \phi \\ \vdots \\ \chi \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{|c|} \psi \\ \vdots \\ \chi \end{array}}{\chi} \vee e$$

Implication (\implies)

$$\frac{\begin{array}{|c|} \phi \\ \vdots \\ \psi \end{array}}{\phi \implies \psi} \implies i$$

$$\frac{\phi \quad \phi \implies \psi}{\psi} \implies e$$

Proof Rules for Natural Deduction (Summary)

Negation (\neg)

$$\frac{\boxed{\begin{array}{c} \phi \\ \vdots \\ \perp \end{array}}}{\neg\phi} \neg i$$

$$\frac{\phi \quad \neg\phi}{\perp} \neg e$$

Contradiction (\perp)

(no introduction rule)

$$\frac{\perp}{\phi} \perp e$$

Double negation ($\neg\neg$)

(no introduction rule)

$$\frac{\neg\neg\phi}{\phi} \neg\neg e$$

Useful Derived Proof Rules

$$\frac{\phi \implies \psi \quad \neg \psi}{\neg \phi} \text{ MT}$$
$$\boxed{\begin{array}{c} \neg \phi \\ \vdots \\ \bot \end{array}} \quad \text{RAA}$$
$$\frac{}{\phi}$$

$$\frac{\phi}{\neg \neg \phi} \neg \neg i$$

$$\boxed{\frac{}{\phi \vee \neg \phi} \text{ LEM}}$$

Provable Equivalence

- Recall $p \dashv\vdash q$ means $p \vdash q$ and $q \vdash p$.
- Here are some provably equivalent sentences:

$$\neg(p \wedge q) \dashv\vdash \neg q \vee \neg p$$

$$\neg(p \vee q) \dashv\vdash \neg p \wedge \neg q$$

$$p \implies q \dashv\vdash \neg q \implies \neg p$$

$$p \implies q \dashv\vdash \neg p \vee q$$

$$p \wedge q \implies p \dashv\vdash r \vee \neg r$$

$$p \wedge q \implies r \dashv\vdash p \implies (q \implies r)$$

- Try to prove them.

Proof by Contradiction

- Although it is very useful, the proof rule RAA is a bit puzzling.

$$\frac{\boxed{\begin{array}{c} \neg\phi \\ \vdots \\ \bot \end{array}}}{\phi} \text{RAA}$$

- Instead of proving ϕ directly, the proof rule allows indirect proofs.
 - If $\neg\phi$ leads to a contradiction, then ϕ must hold.
- Note that indirect proofs are not “constructive.”
 - We do not show why ϕ holds; we only know $\neg\phi$ is impossible.
- In early 20th century, some logicians and mathematicians chose not to prove indirectly. They are intuitionistic logicians or mathematicians.
- For the same reason, intuitionists also reject

$$\frac{}{\phi \vee \neg\phi} \text{LEM}$$

$$\frac{\neg\neg\phi}{\phi} \neg\neg e$$

Proof by Contradiction

Theorem

There are $a, b \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ such that $a^b \in \mathbb{Q}$.

Proof.

Let $b = \sqrt{2}$. There are two cases:

- If $b^b \in \mathbb{Q}$, we are done since $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$.
- If $b^b \notin \mathbb{Q}$, choose $a = b^b = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$. Then $a^b = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2}^2 = 2$.
Since $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}, \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, we are done.



- An intuitionist would criticize the proof since it does not tell us what a, b give $a^b \in \mathbb{Q}$.
 - We know (a, b) is either $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$ or $(\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}, \sqrt{2})$.

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Well-Formedness

Definition

A well-formed formula is constructed by applying the following rules finitely many times:

- atom: Every propositional atom p, q, r, \dots is a well-formed formula;
 - \neg : If ϕ is a well-formed formula, so is $(\neg\phi)$;
 - \wedge : If ϕ and ψ are well-formed formulae, so is $(\phi \wedge \psi)$;
 - \vee : If ϕ and ψ are well-formed formulae, so is $(\phi \vee \psi)$;
 - \implies : If ϕ and ψ are well-formed formulae, so is $(\phi \implies \psi)$.
-
- More compactly, well-formed formulae are defined by the following grammar in Backus Naur form (BNF):

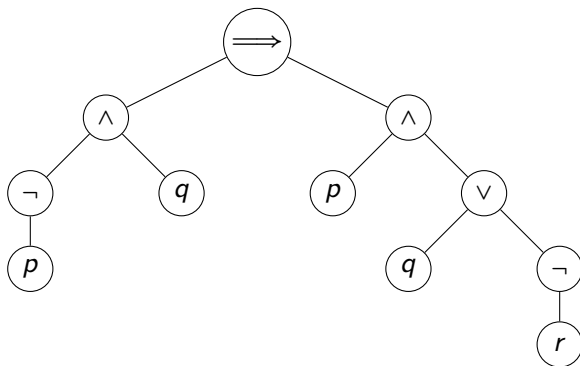
$$\phi ::= p \mid (\neg\phi) \mid (\phi \wedge \phi) \mid (\phi \vee \phi) \mid (\phi \implies \phi)$$

Inversion Principle

- How do we check if $((\neg p) \wedge q) \implies (p \wedge (q \vee (\neg r)))$ is well-formed?
- Although a well-formed formula needs five grammar rules to construct, the construction process can always be inverted.
 - This is called inversion principle.
- To show $((\neg p) \wedge q) \implies (p \wedge (q \vee (\neg r)))$ is well-formed, we need to show both $((\neg p) \wedge q)$ and $(p \wedge (q \vee (\neg r)))$ are well-formed.
- To show $((\neg p) \wedge q)$ is well-formed, we need to show both $(\neg p)$ and q are well-formed.
 - q is well-formed since it is an atom.
- To show $(\neg p)$ is well-formed, we need to show p is well-formed.
 - p is well-formed since it is an atom.
- Similarly, we can show $(p \wedge (q \vee (\neg r)))$ is well-formed.

Parse Tree

- The easiest way to decide whether a formula is well-formed is perhaps by drawing its parse tree.



Subformulae

- Given a well-formed formula, its subformulae are the well-formed formulae corresponding to its parse tree.
- For instance, the subformulae of the well-formed formulae $((\neg p) \wedge q) \implies (p \wedge (q \vee (\neg r)))$ are

p

q

r

$(\neg p)$

$(\neg r)$

$((\neg p) \wedge q)$

$(q \vee (\neg r))$

$(p \wedge (q \vee (\neg r)))$

$((\neg p) \wedge q) \implies (p \wedge (q \vee (\neg r)))$

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- We have developed a calculus to determine whether $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid.
 - ▶ That is, from the premises $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$, we can conclude ψ .
 - ▶ Our calculus is syntactic. It depends on the syntactic structures of $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$, and ψ .
- We will introduce another relation between premises $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ and a conclusion ψ .

$$\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi.$$

- ▶ The new relation is defined by 'truth values' of atomic formulae and the semantics of logical connectives.

Truth Values and Models

Definition

The set of truth values is $\{F, T\}$ where F represents 'false' and T represents 'true.'

Definition

A valuation or model of a formula ϕ is an assignment from each proposition atom in ϕ to a truth value.

Truth Values of Formulae

Definition

Given a valuation of a formula ϕ , the truth value of ϕ is defined inductively by the following truth tables:

ϕ	ψ	$\phi \wedge \psi$	ϕ	ψ	$\phi \vee \psi$
F	F	F	F	F	F
F	T	F	F	T	T
T	F	F	T	F	T
T	T	T	T	T	T

ϕ	ψ	$\phi \implies \psi$	ϕ	$\neg \phi$	\top	\perp
F	F	T	F	T	T	F
F	T	T	T	F		
T	F	F				
T	T	T				

Example

- $\phi \wedge \psi$ is T when ϕ and ψ are T.
- $\phi \vee \psi$ is F when ϕ or ψ is T. wrong
- \perp is always F; \top is always T.
- $\phi \implies \psi$ is T when ϕ “implies” ψ .

Example

Consider the valuation $\{q \mapsto \text{T}, p \mapsto \text{F}, r \mapsto \text{F}\}$ of $(q \wedge p) \implies r$. What is the truth value of $(q \wedge p) \implies r$?

Proof.

Since the truth values of q and p are T and F respectively, the truth value of $q \wedge p$ is F. Moreover, the truth value of r is F. The truth value of $(q \wedge p) \implies r$ is T. □

Truth Tables for Formulae

- Given a formula ϕ with propositional atoms p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n , we can construct a truth table for ϕ by listing 2^n valuations of ϕ .

Example

Find the truth table for $(p \implies \neg q) \implies (q \vee \neg p)$.

Proof.

p	q	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$p \implies \neg q$	$q \vee \neg p$	$(p \implies \neg q) \implies (q \vee \neg p)$
F	F	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	T	F	T	T	T
T	F	F	T	T	F	F
T	T	F	F	F	T	T



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Validity of Sequent Revisited

- Informally $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid if we can derive ψ with assumptions $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$.
 - We have formalized “deriving ψ with assumptions $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ ” by “constructing a proof in a formal calculus.”
- We can give another interpretation by valuations and truth values.
- Consider a valuation ν over all propositional atoms in $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n, \psi$.
 - By “assumptions $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$,” we mean “ $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ are T under the valuation ν .”
 - By “deriving ψ ,” we mean ψ is also T under the valuation ν .
- Hence, “we can derive ψ with assumptions $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ ” actually means “if $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ are T under a valuation, then ψ must be T under the same valuation.”

Semantic Entailment

Definition

We say

$$\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$$

holds if for every valuations where $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ are T, ψ is also T. In this case, we also say $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ semantically entail ψ .

• Examples

- ▶ $p \wedge q \models p$. For every valuation where $p \wedge q$ is T, p must be T. Hence $p \wedge q \models p$.
- ▶ $p \vee q \not\models q$. Consider the valuation $\{p \mapsto T, q \mapsto F\}$. We have $p \vee q$ is T but q is F. Hence $p \vee q \not\models q$.
- ▶ $\neg p, p \vee q \models q$. Consider any valuation where $\neg p$ and $p \vee q$ are T. Since $\neg p$ is T, p must be F under the valuation. Since p is F and $p \vee q$ is T, q must be T under the valuation. Hence $\neg p, p \vee q \models q$.

- The validity of $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ is defined by **syntactic calculus**.
 $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ is defined by **truth tables**. Do these two relations coincide?

Soundness Theorem for Propositional Logic

Theorem (Soundness)

Let $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ and ψ be propositional logic formulae. If $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid, then $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ holds.

Proof.

Consider the assertion $M(k)$:

“For all sequents $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ ($n \geq 0$) that have a proof of length k , then $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ holds.”

$k = 1$. The only possible proof is of the form

1 ϕ premise

This is the proof of $\phi \vdash \phi$. For every valuation such that ϕ is T, ϕ must be T. That is, $\phi \models \phi$.

Soundness Theorem for Propositional Logic

Proof (cont'd).

Assume $M(i)$ for $i < k$. Consider a proof of the form

1	ϕ_1	premise
2	ϕ_2	premise
	\vdots	
n	ϕ_n	premise
	\vdots	
k	ψ	justification

We have the following possible cases for justification:

- i $\wedge i$. Then ψ is $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$. In order to apply $\wedge i$, ψ_1 and ψ_2 must appear in the proof. That is, we have $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi_1$ and $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi_2$. By inductive hypothesis, $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi_1$ and $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi_2$. Hence $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$ (Why?).

Soundness Theorem for Propositional Logic

Proof (cont'd).

ii \vee e. Recall the proof rule for \vee e:

$$\frac{\eta_1 \vee \eta_2 \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{c} \eta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \psi \end{array}} \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{c} \eta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \psi \end{array}}}{\psi} \vee e$$

In order to apply \vee e, $\eta_1 \vee \eta_2$ must appear in the proof. We have $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \eta_1 \vee \eta_2$. By turning “assumptions” η_1 and η_2 to “premises,” we obtain proofs for $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n, \eta_1 \vdash \psi$ and $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n, \eta_2 \vdash \psi$. By inductive hypothesis, $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \eta_1 \vee \eta_2$, $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n, \eta_1 \models \psi$, and $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n, \eta_2 \models \psi$. Consider any valuation such that $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ evaluates to T. $\eta_1 \vee \eta_2$ must be T. If η_1 is T under the valuation, ψ is also T (Why?). Similarly for η_2 is T. Thus $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$.

Soundness Theorem for Propositional Logic

Proof (cont'd).

- iii Other cases are similar. Prove the case of \implies e to see if you understand the proof.



- The soundness theorem shows that our calculus does not go wrong.
- If there is a proof of a sequent, then the conclusion must be true for all valuations where all premises are true.
- The theorem also allows us to show the non-existence of proofs.
- Given a sequent $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$, how do we prove there is no proof for the sequent?
 - Try to find a valuation where $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ are T but ψ is F.

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Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic

- “ $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid” and “ $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ holds” are very different.
 - ▶ “ $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid” requires **proof search** (syntax);
 - ▶ “ $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ holds” requires a **truth table** (semantics).
- If “ $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ holds” implies “ $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid,” then our natural deduction proof system is **complete**.
- The natural deduction proof system is both sound and complete.
That is
 $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid iff $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ holds.

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic

- We will show the natural deduction proof system is complete.
- That is, if $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ holds, then there is a natural deduction proof for the sequent $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$.
- Assume $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$. We proceed in three steps:
 - ① $\models \phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies (\dots (\phi_n \implies \psi)))$ holds;
 - ② $\vdash \phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies (\dots (\phi_n \implies \psi)))$ is valid;
 - ③ $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid.

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 1)

Lemma

If $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ holds, then $\models \phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies (\dots (\phi_n \implies \psi)))$ holds.

Proof.

Suppose $\models \phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies (\dots (\phi_n \implies \psi)))$ does not hold. Then there is valuation where $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ is T but ψ is F. A contradiction to $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$. □

Definition

Let ϕ be a propositional logic formula. We say ϕ is a tautology if $\models \phi$.

- A tautology is a propositional logic formula that evaluates to T for all of its valuations.

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 2)

- Our goal is to show the following theorem:

Theorem

If $\models \eta$ holds, then $\vdash \eta$ is valid.

- Similar to tautologies, we introduce the following definition:

Definition

Let ϕ be a propositional logic formula. We say ϕ is a **theorem** if $\vdash \phi$.

- Two types of theorems:
 - ▶ If $\vdash \phi$, ϕ is a theorem proved by the natural deduction proof system.
 - ▶ The soundness theorem for propositional logic is another type of theorem proved by mathematical reasoning (less formally).

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 2)

Proposition

Let ϕ be a formula with propositional atoms p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n . Let I be a line in ϕ 's truth table. For all $1 \leq i \leq n$, let \hat{p}_i be p_i if p_i is T in I ; otherwise \hat{p}_i is $\neg p_i$. Then

- ① $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \phi$ is valid if the entry for ϕ at I is T;
- ② $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \neg\phi$ is valid if the entry for ϕ at I is F.

Proof.

We prove by induction on the height of the parse tree of ϕ .

- ϕ is a propositional atom p . Then $p \vdash p$ or $\neg p \vdash \neg p$ have one-line proof.
- ϕ is $\neg\phi_1$.
 - ▶ If ϕ is T at I . Then ϕ_1 is F. By IH, $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \neg\phi_1 (\equiv \phi)$.
 - ▶ If ϕ is F at I . Then ϕ_1 is T. By IH, $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \phi_1$. Using $\neg\neg i$, we have $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \neg\neg\phi_1 (\equiv \neg\phi)$.

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 2)

Proof (cont'd).

- ϕ is $\phi_1 \implies \phi_2$.
 - ▶ If ϕ is F at I , then ϕ_1 is T and ϕ_2 is F at I . By IH, $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \phi_1$ and $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \neg\phi_2$. Consider

1	$\phi_1 \implies \phi_2$	assumption]
	\vdots		
i	ϕ_1	IH	
i + 1	ϕ_2	\implies e i, 1	
	\vdots		
j	$\neg\phi_2$	IH	
j + 1	\perp	\neg e i+1, j	
j + 2	$\neg(\phi_1 \implies \phi_2)$	\neg i 1-(j+1)	

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 2)

Proof (cont'd).

- ϕ is $\phi_1 \implies \phi_2$.
 - ▶ If ϕ is T at I , we have three subcases. Consider the case where ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are F at I . Then

1	ϕ_1	assumption]
	\vdots		
i	$\neg\phi_1$	IH	
$i + 1$	\perp	\neg e 1, i	
$i + 2$	ϕ_2	\perp e ($i+1$)	
$i + 3$	$\phi_1 \implies \phi_2$	\implies i 1-($i+2$)	

The other two subcases are simple exercises.

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 2)

Proof (cont'd).

- ϕ is $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$.
 - ▶ If ϕ is T at I , then ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are T at I . By IH, we have $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \phi_1$ and $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \phi_2$. Using \wedge i, we have $\hat{p}_1, \hat{p}_2, \dots, \hat{p}_n \vdash \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$.
 - ▶ If ϕ is F at I , there are three subcases. Consider the subcase where ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are F at I . Then

1	$\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$	assumption]
2	ϕ_1	\wedge e 1	
	\vdots		
i	$\neg\phi_1$	IH	
i + 1	\perp	\neg e 2, i	
i + 2	$\neg(\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2)$	\neg i 1-(i+1)	

The other two subcases are simple exercises.

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 2)

Proof.

- ϕ is $\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$.

- ▶ If ϕ is F at I , then ϕ_1 and ϕ_2 are F at I . Then

1	$\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$	assumption		
2	ϕ_1	assumption		
	\vdots			
i	$\neg\phi_1$	IH		
i + 1	\perp	\neg e 2, i		
i + 2	ϕ_2	assumption		
	\vdots			
j	$\neg\phi_2$	IH		
j + 1	\perp	\neg e i+2, j		
j + 2	\perp	\vee e 2-(i+1), (i+2)-(j+1)		
j + 3	$\neg(\phi_1 \vee \phi_2)$	\neg i 1-(j+2)		

- ▶ If ϕ is T at I , there are three subcases. All of them are simple exercises.



Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 2)

Theorem

If ϕ is a tautology, then ϕ is a theorem.

Proof.

Let ϕ have propositional atoms p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n . Since ϕ is a tautology, each line in ϕ 's truth table is T. By the above proposition, we have the following 2^n proofs for ϕ :

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \neg p_1, \neg p_2, \dots, \neg p_n & \vdash & \phi \\ p_1, \neg p_2, \dots, \neg p_n & \vdash & \phi \\ \neg p_1, p_2, \dots, \neg p_n & \vdash & \phi \\ & \vdots & \\ p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n & \vdash & \phi \end{array}$$

We apply the rule LEM and the \vee rule to obtain a proof for $\vdash \phi$. (See the following example.) □

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 2)

Example

Observe that $\models p \implies (q \implies p)$. Prove $\vdash p \implies (q \implies p)$.

Proof.

1	$p \vee \neg p$	LEM
2	p	assumption
3	$q \vee \neg q$	LEM
4	q	assumption
\vdots		
i	$p \implies (q \implies p)$	$p, q \vdash p \implies (q \implies p)$
i + 1	$\neg q$	assumption
\vdots		
j	$p \implies (q \implies p)$	$p, \neg q \vdash p \implies (q \implies p)$
j + 1	$p \implies (q \implies p)$	\vee 3, 4-i, (i+1)-j
j + 2	$\neg p$	assumption
j + 3	$q \vee \neg q$	LEM
j + 4	q	assumption
\vdots		
k	$p \implies (q \implies p)$	$\neg p, q \vdash p \implies (q \implies p)$
k + 1	$\neg q$	assumption
\vdots		
l	$p \implies (q \implies p)$	$\neg p, \neg q \vdash p \implies (q \implies p)$
l + 1	$p \implies (q \implies p)$	\vee (j+3), (j+4)-k, (k+1)-l
l + 2	$p \implies (q \implies p)$	\vee 1, 2-(j+1), (j+2)-(l+1)

□

Completeness Theorem for Propositional Logic (Step 3)

Lemma

If $\phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies (\dots(\phi_n \implies \psi)))$ is a theorem, then $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$ is valid.

Proof.

Consider

1	ϕ_1	premise
2	ϕ_2	premise
	\vdots	
n	ϕ_n	premise
	\vdots	
i	$\phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies (\dots(\phi_n \implies \psi)))$	theorem
i + 1	$\phi_2 \implies (\dots(\phi_n \implies \psi))$	\implies e 1, i
i + 2	$\phi_3 \implies (\dots(\phi_n \implies \psi))$	\implies e 2, (i+1)
	\vdots	
i + n - 1	$\phi_n \implies \psi$	\implies e (n-1), (i+n-2)
i + n	ψ	\implies e n, (i+n-1)



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Semantically Equivalence and Validity

- Consider two formulae $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$ and $\phi_2 \wedge \phi_1$.
- Intuitively, $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$ and $\phi_2 \wedge \phi_1$ should have the same “meaning.”
- More formally, two formulae ϕ and ψ have the same meaning if their truth tables coincide.

Definition

Let ϕ and ψ be propositional logic formulae. ϕ and ψ are **semantically equivalent** (written $\phi \equiv \psi$) if both $\phi \models \psi$ and $\psi \models \phi$ hold.

- Examples

$$\begin{array}{lll} p \implies q & \equiv & \neg q \implies \neg p \\ p \wedge q \implies p & \equiv & r \vee \neg r \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{lll} p \implies q & \equiv & \neg p \vee q \\ p \wedge q \implies r & \equiv & p \implies (q \implies r) \end{array}$$

- A formula ϕ is valid if it is a tautology.

Definition

Let ϕ be a propositional logic formula. ϕ is **valid** if $\models \phi$.

Semantic Entailment and Validity

Lemma

Let $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n, \psi$ be propositional logic formulae. $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ iff $\models \phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies \dots \implies (\phi_n \implies \psi))$.

Proof.

Suppose $\models \phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies \dots \implies (\phi_n \implies \psi))$. Consider any valuation. If $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$ evaluate to T under the valuation, ψ must evaluate to T since $\models \phi_1 \implies (\phi_2 \implies \dots \implies (\phi_n \implies \psi))$. Hence $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$.

The other direction is proved in Step 1 of the completeness theorem. □

Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

Definition

A literal L is either an atom p or its negation $\neg p$. A clause D is a disjunction of literals. A formula C is in conjunctive normal form (CNF) if it is a conjunction of clauses.

$$\begin{aligned} L &::= p \mid \neg p \\ D &::= L \mid L \vee D \\ C &::= D \mid D \wedge C \end{aligned}$$

- Examples: $(\neg q \vee p \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee r) \wedge q$, $(p \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee r) \wedge (p \vee \neg r)$

Validity of CNF Formulae

Lemma

A clause $L_1 \vee L_2 \vee \cdots \vee L_m$ is valid iff there is a propositional atom p such that L_i is p and L_j is $\neg p$ for some $1 \leq i, j \leq m$.

Proof.

Without loss of generality, assume $L_1 = p$ and $L_2 = \neg p$. Then $p \vee \neg p \vee L_3 \vee \cdots \vee L_m$ evaluates to T for any valuation. The clause is valid. Conversely, consider the valuation where all literals evaluate to F. This is possible since every literal L_i has no negation in the clause. The clause evaluates to F under the valuation. □

- Examples:
 - $p \vee q \vee q \vee \neg p \vee r$ is valid;
 - $p \vee \neg q \vee r \vee \neg q$ is not valid (consider $\{p \mapsto F, q \mapsto T, r \mapsto F\}$).
- For any propositional logic formula ϕ in CNF, the validity of ϕ can be checked in linear time.

Satisfiability of CNF Formulae

Definition

Let ϕ be a propositional logic formula. ϕ is satisfiable if it evaluates to T under some valuation.

- Example: $p \vee q \implies p$ is satisfiable (consider $\{p \mapsto T, q \mapsto T\}$); it is not valid (consider $\{p \mapsto F, q \mapsto T\}$).

Proposition

Let ϕ be a propositional logic formula. ϕ is satisfiable iff $\neg\phi$ is not valid.

Proof.

Suppose ϕ evaluates to T under a valuation. Then $\neg\phi$ evaluates to F under the valuation. $\neg\phi$ is not valid.

Conversely, suppose $\neg\phi$ is not valid. Hence $\neg\phi$ evaluates to F under a valuation. Thus ϕ evaluates to T under the valuation. ϕ is satisfiable. \square

From Truth Tables to Conjunctive Normal Form

- Suppose we have the truth table for a formula ϕ with propositional atoms p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .
- For each line l where ϕ evaluates to F, construct a clause ψ_l as follows.
 - $\psi_l = L_{l,1} \vee L_{l,2} \vee \dots \vee L_{l,n}$ where $L_{l,j} = \neg p_j$ if p_j is T at line l ; otherwise $L_{l,j} = p_j$.
- Then $\phi \equiv \psi_1 \wedge \psi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \psi_m$ where ψ_l 's are constructed for every line evaluating ϕ to F.
- Observe that $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \psi_m$ is F iff ψ_l is F for some $1 \leq l \leq m$.
 $\psi_l = L_{l,1} \vee L_{l,2} \vee \dots \vee L_{l,n}$ is F iff $L_{l,j}$ is F for every $1 \leq j \leq n$. $L_{l,j}$ is F iff p_j has its truth value at line l .
- In other words, $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \psi_m$ is F under a valuation iff the valuation evaluates ϕ to F in ϕ 's truth table.

From Truth Tables to Conjunctive Normal Form

Example

Translate $p \vee q \implies q \wedge \neg r$ into CNF.

Proof.

p	q	r	$p \vee q \implies q \wedge \neg r$	p	q	r	$p \vee q \implies q \wedge \neg r$
F	F	F	T	T	F	F	F
F	F	T	T	T	F	T	F
F	T	F	T	T	T	F	T
F	T	T	F	T	T	T	F

p	q	r	ψ_1	p	q	r	ψ_1
F	T	T	$p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r$	T	F	F	$\neg p \vee q \vee r$
T	F	T	$\neg p \vee q \vee \neg r$	T	T	T	$\neg p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r$

$$p \vee q \implies q \wedge \neg r \equiv (p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r) \wedge (\neg p \vee q \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee q \vee \neg r) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r).$$



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Validity Checking

- Given a propositional logic formula in conjunctive normal form, we can check the validity of the formula in linear time.
- Recall that a formula is valid iff it is a theorem.
- If we can translate any propositional logic formula into conjunctive normal form, we can check the validity of the formula!
- We know how to translate any logic formula to conjunctive normal form by its truth table.
 - This is not satisfactory. If we have to construct its truth table, we can check validity already.
- We will give an algorithm $CNF(\phi)$ to convert any propositional logic formula into conjunctive normal form without building its truth table.

From Formula to Conjunctive Normal Form

- Any propositional logic formula can be transformed to conjunctive normal form by the following equivalences:

$$\begin{aligned}\phi \implies \psi &\equiv \neg\phi \vee \psi \\ \neg(\phi \wedge \psi) &\equiv \neg\phi \vee \neg\psi & \neg(\phi \vee \psi) &\equiv \neg\phi \wedge \neg\psi \\ \phi \wedge (\psi_1 \vee \psi_2) &\equiv (\phi \wedge \psi_1) \vee (\phi \wedge \psi_2) \\ \phi \vee (\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2) &\equiv (\phi \vee \psi_1) \wedge (\phi \vee \psi_2)\end{aligned}$$

- The algorithm $\text{CNF}(\phi)$ hence consists of three steps:
 - Remove every implication (\implies) from ϕ (Algorithm $\text{IMPL_FREE}(\phi)$);
 - Push every negation (\neg) to literals (Algorithm $\text{NNF}(\phi)$);
 - Apply law of distribution (Algorithm $\text{CNF}(\phi)$).

Algorithm IMPL_FREE(ϕ)

Input: ϕ : a logic formula

Output: ϕ' : all implications (\implies) in ϕ' are removed and $\phi' \equiv \phi$
switch ϕ **do**

case ϕ is a literal: **do return** ϕ ;

case ϕ is $\neg\phi_1$: **do return** $\neg\text{IMPL_FREE}(\phi_1)$;

case ϕ is $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$: **do return** $\text{IMPL_FREE}(\phi_1) \wedge \text{IMPL_FREE}(\phi_2)$;

case ϕ is $\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$: **do return** $\text{IMPL_FREE}(\phi_1) \vee \text{IMPL_FREE}(\phi_2)$;

case ϕ is $\phi_1 \implies \phi_2$: **do return** $\text{IMPL_FREE}(\neg\phi_1 \vee \phi_2)$;

otherwise do assert(0);

Algorithm 1: IMPL_FREE(ϕ)

Algorithm $\text{NNF}(\phi)$

Input: ϕ : a logic formula without implication (\implies)

Output: ϕ' : only propositional atoms in ϕ' are negated and $\phi' \equiv \phi$

switch ϕ **do**

case ϕ is a literal: **do return** ϕ ;

case ϕ is $\neg\neg\phi_1$: **do return** $\text{NNF}(\phi_1)$;

case ϕ is $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$: **do return** $\text{NNF}(\phi_1) \wedge \text{NNF}(\phi_2)$;

case ϕ is $\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$: **do return** $\text{NNF}(\phi_1) \vee \text{NNF}(\phi_2)$;

case ϕ is $\neg(\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2)$: **do return** $\text{NNF}(\neg\phi_1 \vee \neg\phi_2)$;

case ϕ is $\neg(\phi_1 \vee \phi_2)$: **do return** $\text{NNF}(\neg\phi_1 \wedge \neg\phi_2)$;

otherwise do assert(0);

Algorithm 2: $\text{NNF}(\phi)$

Definition

Let ϕ be a propositional logic formula. If only propositional atoms in ϕ are negated, ϕ is in negation normal form.

Algorithm CNF(ϕ)

Input: ϕ : an NNF formula without implication (\implies)

Output: ϕ' : ϕ' is in CNF and $\phi' \equiv \phi$

switch ϕ **do**

case ϕ is a literal: **do return** ϕ ;

case ϕ is $\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$: **do return** $\text{CNF}(\phi_1) \wedge \text{CNF}(\phi_2)$;

case ϕ is $\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$: **do return** $\text{DISTR}(\text{CNF}(\phi_1), \text{CNF}(\phi_2))$;

Algorithm 3: CNF(ϕ)

Input: η_1, η_2 : η_1, η_2 are in CNF

Output: ϕ' : ϕ' is in CNF and $\phi' \equiv \eta_1 \vee \eta_2$

if η_1 is $\eta_{11} \wedge \eta_{12}$ **then return** $\text{DISTR}(\eta_{11}, \eta_2) \wedge \text{DISTR}(\eta_{12}, \eta_2)$;

else if η_2 is $\eta_{21} \wedge \eta_{22}$ **then return** $\text{DISTR}(\eta_1, \eta_{21}) \wedge \text{DISTR}(\eta_1, \eta_{22})$;

else return $\eta_1 \vee \eta_2$;

Algorithm 4: DISTR(η_1, η_2)

Satisfiability of Propositional Logic Formulae

- Let ϕ be a propositional logic formula. Consider the following algorithm for checking its satisfiability.
 - 1 Compute a CNF formula ψ such that $\psi \equiv \neg\phi$.
 - 2 Check the validity of ψ .
 - 3 Return “ ϕ is satisfiable” if ψ is not valid; Return “ ϕ is not satisfiable” if ψ is valid.
- Recall that satisfiability of propositional logic formulae is an NP-complete problem.
- Is the above algorithm in polynomial time? Why?

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Horn Clauses

- Given a propositional logic formula in CNF, it is easy to check its validity; it is “hard” to check its satisfiability.
- We will consider a subclass of CNF formulae whose satisfiability can be checked efficiently.

Definition

A Horn formula is a propositional logic formula ϕ of the following form:

$$\begin{aligned}P &::= \perp \mid \top \mid p \\A &::= P \mid P \wedge A \\C &::= A \implies P \\H &::= C \mid C \wedge H.\end{aligned}$$

A clause of the form C is called a Horn clause.

- Example: $(p \wedge q \wedge s \implies \perp) \wedge (q \wedge r \implies p) \wedge (\top \implies s)$
- Nonexample: $(p \wedge \neg q \wedge s \implies \perp) \wedge (q \wedge r \implies p \wedge s) \wedge (p \vee r \implies s)$

Satisfiability of Horn Formulae

- Consider a Horn clause $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge P_n \implies Q$.
- If P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n are assigned to T, then Q must be T; otherwise, Q can be an arbitrary truth value.
- We hence have the following (informal) algorithm:
 - 1 Mark \top if it occurs in the Horn formula ϕ ;
 - 2 If there is a Horn clause $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge P_n \implies Q$ in ϕ such that all P_j for $1 \leq j \leq n$ are marked, mark Q ;
 - 3 If \perp is marked, print “The Horn formula ϕ is unsatisfiable.”
 - 4 Print “The Horn formula ϕ is satisfiable.”

Algorithm Horn(ϕ)

Input: ϕ : ϕ is a Horn formula

Output: “unsatisfiable” if ϕ is unsatisfiable; otherwise “satisfiable.”

mark all occurrences of \top in ϕ ;

while there is a Horn clause $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \dots \wedge P_n \implies Q$ in ϕ such that P_i are all marked but Q is not **do**

 mark Q ;

if \perp is marked **then return** “unsatisfiable” ;

else return “satisfiable” ;

Algorithm 5: Horn(ϕ)

Satisfiability of Horn Formulae

Theorem

Let ϕ be a Horn formula with n propositional atoms. $\text{Horn}(\phi)$ runs at most $n + 1$ iterations and decides the satisfiability of ϕ correctly.

Proof.

At each iteration, an unmarked atom will be marked. Since there are n atoms, there are at most $n + 1$ iterations.

By induction on the number of iterations, we show that “all marked P are true for all valuations where ϕ evaluates to \top .” At iteration 0 (before entering the loop), only \top are marked. Clearly, \top must be true for any valuation. At iteration $k + 1$, consider a Horn clause $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \dots \wedge P_n \implies Q$ where P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n are marked but not Q . For a valuation ν where ϕ evaluates to \top , $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \dots \wedge P_n \implies Q$ must evaluate to \top . Since P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n are true in ν (by IH), Q must be true in ν .

Satisfiability of Horn Formulae

Proof (cont'd).

We now prove $\text{Horn}(\phi)$ answers correctly. When $\text{Horn}(\phi)$ returns “unsatisfiable,” there is a Horn clause $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge P_n \implies \perp$ where P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n are all marked. Suppose ν is a valuation where ϕ evaluates to T. Then P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n must be true in ν . Hence $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge P_n \implies \perp$ evaluates to F. ϕ cannot evaluate to T under ν . A contradiction.

When $\text{Horn}(\phi)$ returns “satisfiable,” define a valuation ν where all marked propositional atoms are assigned to T and all unmarked atoms are F. We claim ϕ evaluates to T in ν . Suppose not. There is a Horn clause $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge P_n \implies Q$ in ϕ which evaluates to F under ν . That is, P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n are T but Q is F under ν . By the definition of ν , P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n are marked by the algorithm. Hence Q must also be marked by the algorithm. Q cannot be F in ν . A contradiction. □

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- The satisfiability problem for propositional logic is to decide whether a propositional logic formula ϕ is satisfiable.
 - The satisfiability problem for propositional logic is an NP-complete problem (Cook's Theorem).
- Many SAT solvers are available for the problem.
- We will discuss algorithms for the satisfiability problem.
- For this topic, most materials are copied or modified from Prof. Sharad Malik's and Prof. Chung-Yang Huang's lecture notes.

Equisatisfiable Propositional Logic Formulae

- Let ϕ and ψ be propositional logic formulae.
- ϕ and ψ are equisatisfiable if

ϕ is satisfiable if and only if ψ is satisfiable.

- What is the difference between semantic equivalence and equisatisfiability?

Tseitin Transformation

Theorem

For every propositional logic formula ϕ , there is a propositional logic formula ψ in CNF such that ϕ and ψ are equisatisfiable.

Proof.

For every subformula α of ϕ , x_α is p if α is the atomic proposition p ; x_α is P_α otherwise. For every non-atomic subformula α , define C_α as follows.

α	C_α	Remark
$\neg\beta$	$(x_\alpha \vee x_\beta) \wedge (\neg x_\alpha \vee \neg x_\beta)$	$x_\alpha \Leftrightarrow \neg x_\beta$
$\beta_0 \vee \beta_1$	$(x_\alpha \vee \neg x_{\beta_0}) \wedge (x_\alpha \vee \neg x_{\beta_1}) \wedge (\neg x_\alpha \vee x_{\beta_0} \vee x_{\beta_1})$	$x_\alpha \Leftrightarrow x_{\beta_0} \vee x_{\beta_1}$
$\beta_0 \wedge \beta_1$	$(\neg x_\alpha \vee x_{\beta_0}) \wedge (\neg x_\alpha \vee x_{\beta_1}) \wedge (x_\alpha \vee \neg x_{\beta_0} \vee \neg x_{\beta_1})$	$x_\alpha \Leftrightarrow x_{\beta_0} \wedge x_{\beta_1}$

Let $\psi = x_\phi \wedge \bigwedge \{C_\alpha : \alpha \text{ is a non-atomic subformula of } \phi\}$. Then ϕ and ψ are equisatisfiable. □

Example

Example

Transform $\phi = \neg(p \wedge \neg q)$ into an equisatisfiable propositional logic formula in CNF.

Proof.

$\neg q, p \wedge \neg q, \phi$ are non-atomic subformulae of ϕ .

$$\begin{aligned} C_{\neg q} &\triangleq (P_{\neg q} \vee q) \wedge (\neg P_{\neg q} \vee \neg q) \\ C_{p \wedge \neg q} &\triangleq (\neg P_{p \wedge \neg q} \vee p) \wedge (\neg P_{p \wedge \neg q} \vee P_{\neg q}) \wedge (P_{p \wedge \neg q} \vee \neg p \vee \neg P_{\neg q}) \\ C_{\phi} &\triangleq (P_{\phi} \vee P_{p \wedge \neg q}) \wedge (\neg P_{\phi} \vee \neg P_{p \wedge \neg q}) \end{aligned}$$

ϕ and $P_{\phi} \wedge C_{\phi} \wedge C_{p \wedge \neg q} \wedge C_{\neg q} =$
 $P_{\phi} \wedge (P_{\phi} \vee P_{p \wedge \neg q}) \wedge (\neg P_{\phi} \vee \neg P_{p \wedge \neg q}) \wedge (\neg P_{p \wedge \neg q} \vee p) \wedge (\neg P_{p \wedge \neg q} \vee P_{\neg q}) \wedge$
 $(P_{p \wedge \neg q} \vee \neg p \vee \neg P_{\neg q}) \wedge (P_{\neg q} \vee q) \wedge (\neg P_{\neg q} \vee \neg q)$ are equisatisfiable. \square

Example

Example

Transform $\phi = p \vee \neg(q \wedge (r \vee \neg s))$ into an equisatisfiable propositional logic formula in CNF.

Proof.

$\neg s, r \vee \neg s, q \wedge (r \vee \neg s), \neg(q \wedge (r \vee \neg s)), \phi$ are non-atomic subformulae of ϕ .

$$\begin{aligned}C_{\neg s} &\triangleq (P_{\neg s} \vee s) \wedge (\neg P_{\neg s} \vee \neg s) \\C_{r \vee \neg s} &\triangleq (P_{r \vee \neg s} \vee \neg r) \wedge (P_{r \vee \neg s} \vee \neg P_{\neg s}) \wedge (\neg P_{r \vee \neg s} \vee r \vee P_{\neg s}) \\C_{q \wedge (r \vee \neg s)} &\triangleq (\neg P_{q \wedge (r \vee \neg s)} \vee q) \wedge (\neg P_{q \wedge (r \vee \neg s)} \vee P_{r \vee \neg s}) \wedge \\&\quad (P_{q \wedge (r \vee \neg s)} \vee \neg q \vee \neg P_{r \vee \neg s}) \\C_{\neg(q \wedge (r \vee \neg s))} &\triangleq (P_{\neg(q \wedge (r \vee \neg s))} \vee P_{q \wedge (r \vee \neg s)}) \wedge (\neg P_{\neg(q \wedge (r \vee \neg s))} \vee \neg P_{q \wedge (r \vee \neg s)}) \\C_{\phi} &\triangleq (P_{\phi} \vee \neg p) \wedge (P_{\phi} \vee \neg P_{\neg(q \wedge (r \vee \neg s))}) \wedge (\neg P_{\phi} \vee p \vee P_{\neg(q \wedge (r \vee \neg s))})\end{aligned}$$

Then ϕ and $P_{\phi} \wedge C_{\phi} \wedge C_{\neg(q \wedge (r \vee \neg s))} \wedge C_{q \wedge (r \vee \neg s)} \wedge C_{r \vee \neg s} \wedge C_{\neg s}$ is equisatisfiable. □

Properties of Tseitin Transformation

- Let ϕ be a propositional logic formula.
- The size $|\phi|$ of ϕ is the number of symbols (atomic propositions, \wedge , \vee , \neg) in ϕ .
 - Parentheses (“(” and “)”) do not count.
 - $|\phi|$ is the number of nodes in the parsing tree of ϕ .
- Tseitin Transformation of ϕ has
 - $|\phi|$ atomic propositions;
 - Each C_α has at most 3 clauses;
 - Each clause of C_α has at most 3 literals.
- Let
$$\phi = (p_{11} \wedge p_{12} \wedge \cdots p_{1m_1}) \vee (p_{21} \wedge p_{22} \wedge \cdots p_{2m_2}) \vee \cdots \vee (p_{n1} \wedge p_{n2} \wedge \cdots p_{nm_n}).$$
We obtain a semantic equivalent propositional logic formula ψ by distributive law. What is the size of ψ ?

DIMACS SAT Format I

- DIMACS SAT format is a standard text format for CNF formulae.
- Most SAT solvers accept a simplified version of DIMACS SAT format.
- Here is the example from the SAT Competition home page.

```
c
c start with comments
c
c
p cnf 5 3
1 -5 4 0
-1 5 3 4 0
-3 -4 0
```

DIMACS SAT Format II

- From the SAT Competition home page:
 - ▶ The file can start with comments, that is lines beginning with the character `c`.
 - ▶ Right after the comments, there is the line `p cnf nbvar nbclauses` indicating that the instance is in CNF format; *nbvar* is the exact number of variables appearing in the file; *nbclauses* is the exact number of clauses contained in the file.
 - ▶ Then the clauses follow. Each clause is a sequence of distinct non-null numbers between $-nbvar$ and $nbvar$ ending with 0 on the same line; it cannot contain the opposite literals i and $-i$ simultaneously. Positive numbers denote the corresponding variables. Negative numbers denote the negations of the corresponding variables.
- Following DIMACS SAT format, we will represent a propositional logic formula in CNF by a set of clauses.
 - ▶ $(\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) \wedge (\neg b \vee d) \wedge (a \vee c \vee \neg d)$ is represented as

$$(\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) \quad (\neg b \vee d) \quad (a \vee c \vee \neg d)$$

- Davis, Putnam, 1960
 - Explicit resolution based.
 - May explode in memory.
- Davis, Logemann, Loveland, (DLL) 1962
 - Search based.
 - Most successful, basis for almost all modern SAT solvers.
 - Learning and non-chronological backtracking, 1996.
- Stålmarcks algorithm, 1980s
 - Proprietary algorithm. Patented.
 - Commercial versions available
- Stochastic Methods, 1992
 - Unable to prove unsatisfiability, but may find solutions for a satisfying problem quickly.
 - Local search and hill climbing

- Consider the proof rule:

$$\frac{l_0 \vee l_1 \vee \cdots \vee l_m \vee k \quad \bar{k} \vee l'_0 \vee l'_1 \vee \cdots \vee l'_n}{l_0 \vee l_1 \vee \cdots \vee l_m \vee l'_0 \vee l'_1 \vee \cdots \vee l'_n} \text{ resolution}$$

- k and \bar{k} are complementary literals.
 - We assume \vee is commutative.
- For instance, we obtain $(a \vee \neg b \vee \neg d \vee f)$ from $(a \vee \neg b \vee \neg c)$ and $(\neg d \vee c \vee f)$ by resolution.

Davis Putnam Algorithm

- Select a variable for resolution iteratively.
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{c} (a \vee b \vee c) \quad (b \vee \neg c \vee f) \quad (\neg b \vee e) \\ \hline (a \vee c \vee e) \quad (\neg c \vee e \vee f) \\ \hline (a \vee e \vee f) \end{array}$$

SAT!

- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{c} (a \vee b) \quad (a \vee \neg b) \quad (\neg a \vee c) \quad (\neg a \vee \neg c) \\ \hline (a) \quad (\neg a \vee c) \quad (\neg a \vee \neg c) \\ \hline (c) \quad (\neg c) \\ \hline () \end{array}$$

UNSAT!

Basic DLL I

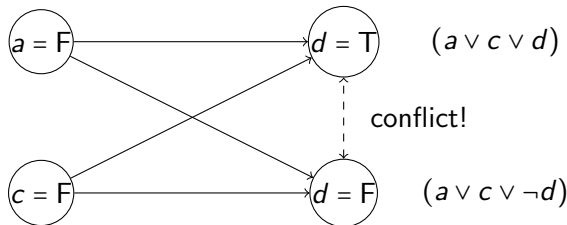
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\ (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \end{array}$$

- We perform depth first search:

$$a = F \quad b = F \quad c = F$$

and obtain a conflict:



- ▶ This is an implication graph.

Basic DLL II

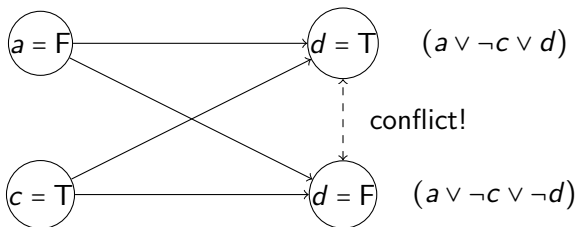
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\ (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \end{array}$$

- Backtrack!

$$a = F \quad b = F \quad \cancel{c = F} \\ c = T(\text{forced})$$

and obtain a conflict:



Basic DLL III

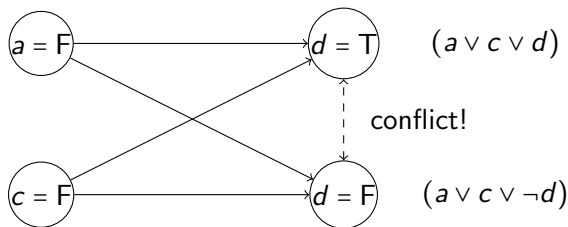
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\ (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \end{array}$$

- Backtrack!

$$\begin{array}{l} a = F \quad \cancel{b = F} \\ b = T(\text{forced}) \quad c = F \end{array}$$

and obtain a conflict:



Basic DLL IV

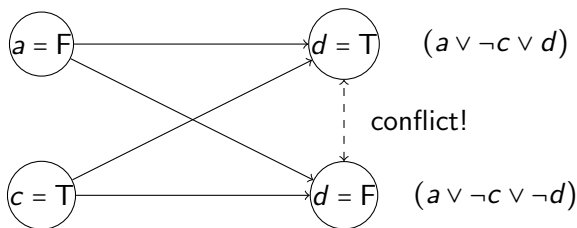
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\ (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \end{array}$$

- Backtrack!

$$\begin{array}{l} a = F \quad \cancel{b = F} \\ b = T(\text{forced}) \quad \cancel{c = F} \\ c = T(\text{forced}) \end{array}$$

and obtain a conflict:



Basic DLL V

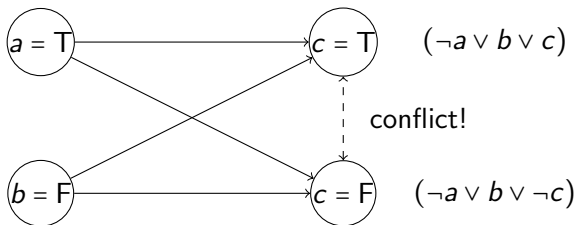
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\ (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \end{array}$$

- Backtrack!

$$\begin{array}{l} \cancel{a = F} \\ a = T(\text{forced}) \quad b = F \end{array}$$

and obtain a conflict:



Basic DLL VI

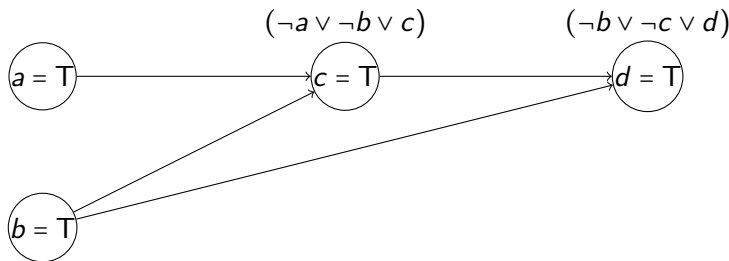
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\ (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \end{array}$$

- Backtrack!

$$\begin{array}{l} \cancel{a = F} \\ a = T(\text{forced}) \quad \cancel{b = F} \\ \phantom{a = T(\text{forced})} \quad b = T(\text{forced}) \end{array}$$

and SAT!



Conflict Driven Learning

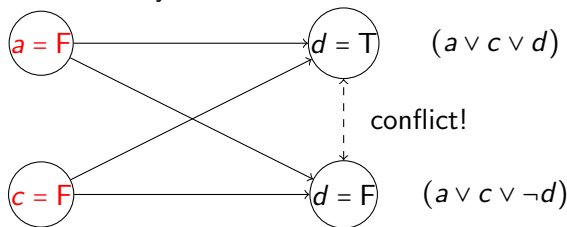
- When a conflict is encountered, add its cause to prevent it.
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\ (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \end{array}$$

and the following valuation:

$$a = F \quad b = F \quad c = F$$

- The conflict is caused by $a = F$ and $c = F$:



- Hence we add a learned clause: $(a \vee c)$.

Non-Chronological Backtracking

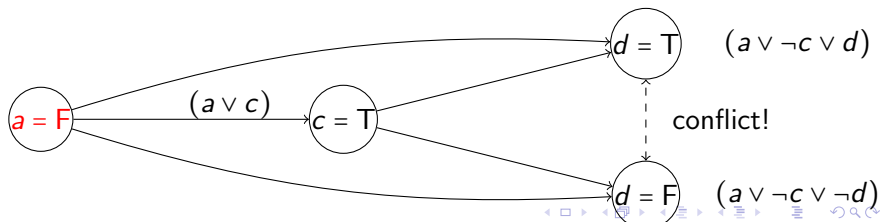
- When a learned clause is generated, backtrack to the next-to-the-last variable in the clause.
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}(\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\(a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \\(a \vee c)\end{array}$$

backtrack to a :

$$a = F$$

obtain a conflict, and add a learned clause (a) :



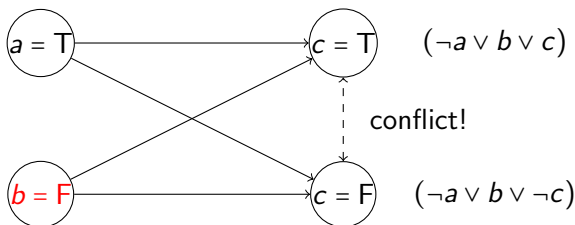
- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\
 (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \\
 (a \vee c) & (a) & &
 \end{array}$$

- backtrack all variables:

$$b = F$$

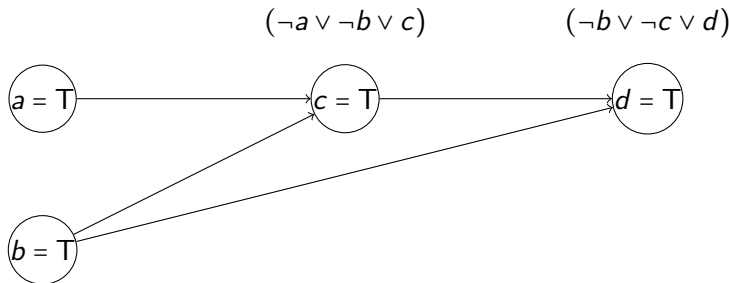
obtain a conflict, and add a learned clause (b) :



- Consider the following set of clauses:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 (\neg a \vee b \vee c) & (a \vee c \vee d) & (a \vee c \vee \neg d) & (a \vee \neg c \vee d) \\
 (a \vee \neg c \vee \neg d) & (\neg b \vee \neg c \vee d) & (\neg a \vee b \vee \neg c) & (\neg a \vee \neg b \vee c) \\
 (a \vee c) & (a) & (b) &
 \end{array}$$

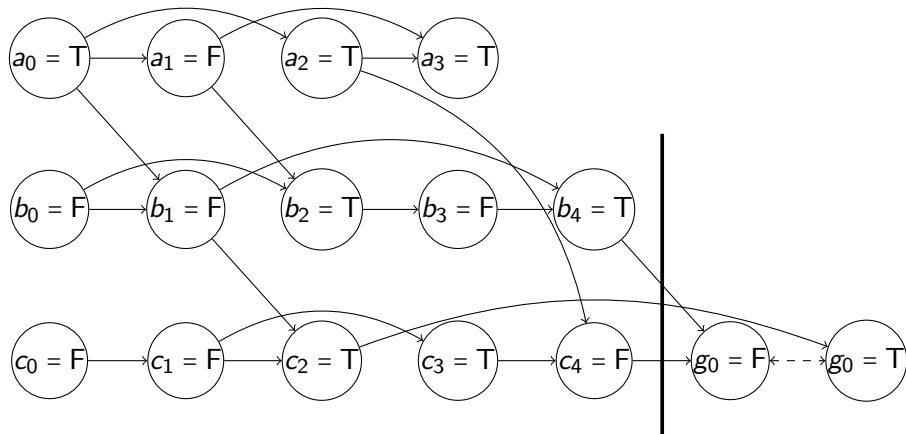
- and SAT!



Conflict Analysis I

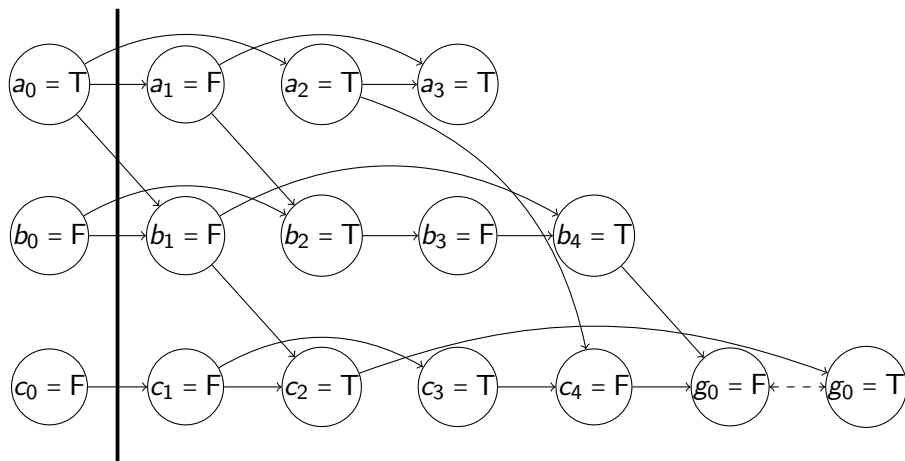
- When a conflict occurs, we would like to “learn” a clause to prevent the conflict from reoccurring.
- We hence would like to know what valuations cause the conflict.
- In an implication graph, any cut from root assignments to conflicting assignments is such a cause.

Conflict Analysis II



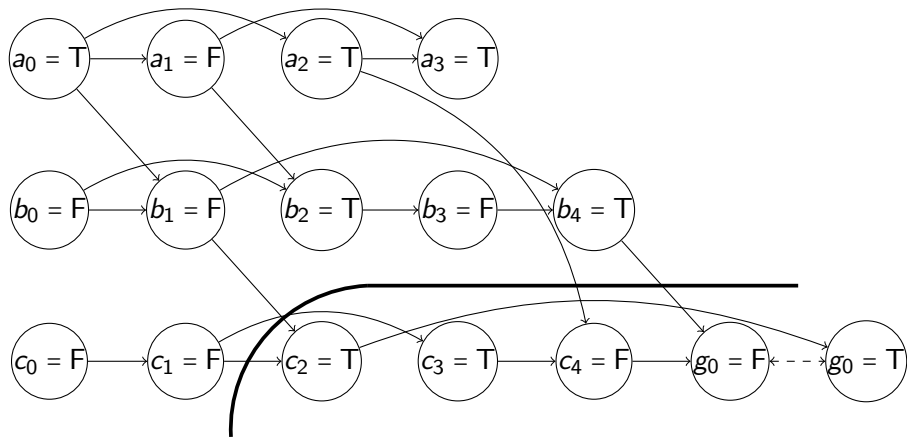
- $b_4 = T$, $c_2 = T$, and $c_4 = F$ cause the conflict.
- Hence we can learn $(\neg b_4 \vee \neg c_2 \vee c_4)$.

Conflict Analysis III



- $a_0 = T$, $b_0 = F$, and $c_0 = F$ cause the conflict.
- Hence we can learn $(\neg a_0 \vee b_0 \vee c_0)$.

Conflict Analysis IV

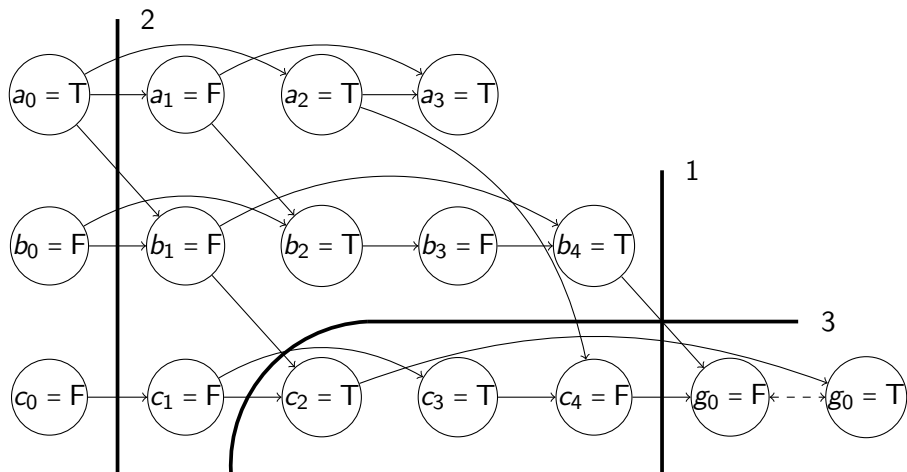


- $a_2 = T$, $b_1 = F$, $b_4 = T$, and $c_1 = F$ cause the conflict.
- Hence we can learn $(\neg a_2 \vee b_1 \vee \neg b_4 \vee c_1)$.

Conflict Analysis V

- Clearly, there are several cuts in an implication graph.
- Each cut corresponds to a learned clause.
- Which one is the best?
- Idea: reverse exactly one truth value.
- Consider only cuts that has only one node in the same level as the conflict.
 - This is called a unique implication point (UIP).

Conflict Analysis VI



- Cut 1 is not UIP. Cut 2 is the last UIP. Cut 3 is the first UIP.
 - Emperically, the first UIP is the best.

Where to go?

- Contrary to general belief, SAT solvers are not impractical.
- Engineering ideas are essential to the real world.
 - When cleverly applied, they can even tackle hard theoretical problems such as satisfiability.
- We only discuss a clever idea in SAT solvers very briefly.
- There are certainly many more.
 - There are many interesting ideas for propagation, memory management, etc.
- MINISAT is an open-sourced fast SAT solver.
- Read its code. You will learn a lot more!