

Logic in Computer Science (ECS666U/7018P/U)

Nikos Tzevelekos

Lecture 9 Predicate Logic II

Recap: Syntax of Predicate Logic

- ▶ Vocabulary V is a set of function and relation symbols
- ▶ Terms t and formulas φ

$$t = x \mid f(t, \dots, t)$$

$$\varphi = P(t, \dots, t) \mid \neg\varphi \mid \varphi \wedge \varphi \mid \varphi \vee \varphi \mid \varphi \rightarrow \varphi \mid \forall x.\varphi \mid \exists x.\varphi$$

where

- ▶ x ranges over variables
- ▶ f ranges over function symbols in V (nullary functions are also called constants)
- ▶ P ranges over relation symbols in V

Notes on quantification:

- ▶ “for all x satisfying $P(x)$, φ holds” translates to: $\forall x.P(x) \rightarrow \varphi$
- ▶ “there is x satisfying $P(x)$ such that φ holds” to: $\exists x.P(x) \wedge \varphi$
- ▶ “ $\forall x, y.$ ” stands for “ $\forall x.\forall y.$ ”, and “ $\exists x, y.$ ” stands for “ $\exists x.\exists y.$ ”

Notations and Terminology for Syntax

Free and bound variables:

- ▶ Occurrences of variables in formulas are **free**; unless in the scope of a \forall or \exists quantifier, in which case they are **bound**
- ▶ We can rename all occurrences of a bound variable without changing the meaning of the formula
- ▶ A closed formula (i.e. without free variables) is also called a **sentence**

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Examples ($V = \{c, P, Q\}$ where c is a constant, P and Q are relations):

- ▶ $P(x) \rightarrow \forall y.Q(y)$ variable x is free and y is bound
- ▶ $P(x) \rightarrow \forall y.Q(y)$ is a formula not a sentence
- ▶ $\exists x.P(x) \rightarrow \forall y.Q(y)$ is a sentence
- ▶ $P(c) \rightarrow \forall y.Q(y)$ is a sentence because c is not a variable

Recap: Models

To give a semantics to a predicate logic formula, we need a **model** M :

1. a **universe** U , i.e. a set where terms take values
2. an **interpretation** of every symbol in V to its meaning:
 - ▶ the meaning of a function symbol f of arity k is a function $f_M: U^k \rightarrow U$
 - ▶ the meaning of a relation symbol P of arity k is a relation $P_M \subseteq U^k$
 - ▶ so, $P_M(u_1, \dots, u_k)$ holds just if the k -tuple (u_1, \dots, u_k) is in P_M
3. an **Evaluation** E , i.e. a map from variables to U :
 - ▶ $E(x)$ denotes the individual in U that x is mapped to by E
 - ▶ $E[x \mapsto u]$ denotes a new evaluation that maps
 - ▶ variable x to individual u , and
 - ▶ any other variable y in the same way as E

Recap: Semantics

Given model M and evaluation E , we define $M, E \models \varphi$ (read “ M, E satisfy φ ”):

- ▶ if $\varphi = P(t_1, \dots, t_k)$ then $M, E \models \varphi$ holds if $(u_1, \dots, u_k) \in P_M$
where each u_i is the interpretation of t_i using M, E

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- ▶ if φ is a boolean combination of formulas:
 - ▶ $M, E \models \neg\varphi$ holds if $M, E \models \varphi$ does not hold
 - ▶ $M, E \models \varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2$ holds if $M, E \models \varphi_1$ and $M, E \models \varphi_2$ hold
 - ▶ $M, E \models \varphi_1 \vee \varphi_2$ holds if $M, E \models \varphi_1$ or $M, E \models \varphi_2$ holds
 - ▶ $M, E \models \varphi_1 \rightarrow \varphi_2$ holds if $M, E \models \varphi_1$ doesn't hold or $M, E \models \varphi_2$ holds

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 - ▶ $M, E \models \varphi_1 \rightarrow \varphi_2$ holds if $M, E \models \varphi_1$ doesn't hold or $M, E \models \varphi_2$ holds
- ▶ if φ starts with a quantifier:
 - ▶ $M, E \models \forall x. \varphi_1$ holds if, for all $u \in U$: $M, E[x \mapsto u] \models \varphi_1$ holds
 - ▶ $M, E \models \exists x. \varphi_1$ holds if, for some $u \in U$: $M, E[x \mapsto u] \models \varphi_1$ holds

Example (Binary Search Trees)

Vocabulary $V = \{root, key, R, B, N, <, =, Left, Right\}$ where:

- ▶ $root$ is a constant symbol (i.e. nullary function)
- ▶ key is a unary function
- ▶ R , B and N are unary relation symbols
- ▶ $<$, $=$, $Left$ and $Right$ are binary relation symbols

The intended meaning of these symbols is:

- ▶ $root$ is the root node of a binary search tree
- ▶ $key(x)$ is the key associated with x (e.g. a number)
- ▶ $R(x)$: x is marked Red
- ▶ $B(x)$: x is marked Black
- ▶ $N(x)$: x is a node of a binary search tree
- ▶ $x < y$: x is less than y
- ▶ $Left(x, y)$: the left child of x is y
- ▶ $Right(x, y)$: the right child of x is y

Example sentences

Encode the following sentences in predicate logic:

1. If a node is not red, then it is black.
2. Each node's key is greater than that of its left child.
3. If a node is the root node then it has a left child.
4. The parent of each black node is red.
5. There is exactly one black node.

Example sentences

Encode the following sentences in predicate logic:

1. If a node is not red, then it is black.

$$\forall x.(N(x) \wedge \neg R(x)) \rightarrow B(x)$$

2. Each node's key is greater than that of its left child.

$$\forall x, y. Left(x, y) \rightarrow key(y) < key(x)$$

3. If a node is the root node then it has a left child.

$$\forall x. x = root \rightarrow \exists y. Left(x, y)$$

4. The parent of each black node is red.

$$\forall x, y. B(x) \wedge (Left(y, x) \vee Right(y, x)) \rightarrow R(y)$$

5. There is exactly one black node.

$$\exists x. B(x) \wedge \forall y. B(y) \rightarrow x = y$$

Semantics

We now consider the model M with:

- ▶ Universe $U = \{u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4, u_5, u_6, u_7\} \cup \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
- ▶ Interpretation of constant symbol is $root_M = u_1$.
- ▶ Interpretation of relation symbols:

$$N_M = \{u_1, \dots, u_7\}$$

$$R_M = \{u_2, u_3\}$$

$$B_M = \{u_1, u_4, u_5, u_6, u_7\}$$

$$Left_M = \{(u_1, u_2), (u_2, u_4), (u_3, u_6)\}$$

$$Right_M = \{(u_1, u_3), (u_2, u_5), (u_3, u_7)\}$$

$<_M$ is the less-than relation

- ▶ Interpretation of function symbol key is:

$$key_M(u_1) = 4 \quad key_M(u_2) = 2 \quad key_M(u_3) = 6 \quad key_M(u_4) = 1$$

$$key_M(u_5) = 3 \quad key_M(u_6) = 5 \quad key_M(u_7) = 7 \quad key_M(u) = 0 \text{ for other } u$$

Question: which of the previous formulas are satisfied by M ?

De Morgan Laws — Duality Principle

Duality between logic operators

- De Morgan Law: for any predicate logic formulas φ_1 and φ_2

$\neg(\varphi_1 \wedge \varphi_2)$ is equivalent to $\neg\varphi_1 \vee \neg\varphi_2$

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$\neg\exists x.\varphi$ is equivalent to $\forall x.\neg\varphi$

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- Corollary: for any relation symbol P and formula φ ,

$\neg\exists x.P(x) \wedge \varphi$ is equivalent to $\forall x.P(x) \rightarrow \neg\varphi$

$\neg\forall x.P(x) \rightarrow \varphi$ is equivalent to $\exists x.P(x) \wedge \neg\varphi$

Examples

- ▶ (φ_1) There is no largest integer: $\neg(\exists y.\forall x.x \leq y)$
- ▶ (φ_2) For every integer one can find a larger integer: $\forall y.\exists x.x > y$
- ▶ Prove that φ_1 and φ_2 are equivalent

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 - $\forall y.\neg\forall x.x \leq y$ is equivalent to
 - $\forall y.\exists x.\neg x \leq y$

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 - $\forall y.\exists x.x > y$

Satisfiability, Validity and Equivalence

The Main Questions

- ▶ φ is **satisfiable** if there **exist** M and E that $M, E \models \varphi$
- ▶ φ is **valid** if **for all** M and E , $M, E \models \varphi$
- ▶ φ_1 is **equivalent** to φ_2 if, for all M and E :

if $M, E \models \varphi_1$ then $M, E \models \varphi_2$, and viceversa

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Example: $\forall x. student(x) \rightarrow \exists y. instructor(y) \wedge younger(x, y)$

- ▶ is it satisfiable?
- ▶ is it valid?
- ▶ it is equivalent to:

$$\forall x. (\forall y. instructor(y) \rightarrow \neg younger(x, y)) \rightarrow \neg student(x)$$

How are these related?

- ▶ φ is **satisfiable** if there **exist** M and E that $M, E \models \varphi$
i.e. it is not the case that: for all M and E , $M, E \models \neg\varphi$
i.e. $\neg\varphi$ is **not** valid
- ▶ φ is **valid** if **for all** M and E , $M, E \models \varphi$
i.e. $\neg\varphi$ is **not** satisfiable
- ▶ φ_1 is **equivalent** to φ_2 if, for all M and E :
$$M, E \models \varphi_1 \text{ if, and only if, } M, E \models \varphi_2$$

i.e. for all M and E : $M, E \models \varphi_1 \leftrightarrow \varphi_2$
i.e. $\varphi_1 \leftrightarrow \varphi_2$ is valid

Using Satisfiability Checker to Answer Other Questions

- If we have an algorithm for checking satisfiability, then we can also check validity of formulas, and vice versa

```
bool VALID(formula F)
{ return (SAT( $\neg$ F) == false) }
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bool VALID(formula F)
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- ▶ If we have an algorithm for checking validity, then we can also check equivalence of formulas

```
bool EQUIV(formula F1, formula F2)
{ return VALID( $F1 \leftrightarrow F2$ ) }
```

- ▶ Works for propositional logic as well as predicate logic

Complexity of Reasoning about Predicate Logic Formulas

- ▶ The problem of checking validity of predicate logic formulas is **undecidable**

There is no algorithm that

- ▶ for **all** predicate logic formulas
 - ▶ is guaranteed to **terminate** and
 - ▶ return the **correct** answer to the question of validity of its input formula
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Satisfiability is also undecidable (why?)
-
- ▶ Modern solvers are very effective in practice for checking validity and satisfiability of predicate logic formulas that we care about

Special Cases: Validity and Satisfiability of Predicate Logic

- ▶ Some restricted fragments of predicate logic are decidable
- ▶ Restrict the syntax
 - ▶ restrict quantification: for example, quantifier-free, $\exists^*\forall^*$, $\exists^*\forall\exists^*$
 - ▶ restrict the vocabulary: for example, monadic predicates
- ▶ Restrict the semantics

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 - ▶ restrict the vocabulary: for example, monadic predicates
- ▶ Restrict the semantics
 - ▶ Satisfiability Modulo Theories (SMT)
 - ▶ Only care about models that satisfy the **axioms** of some **theory**
 - ▶ Examples of theories: equality and uninterpreted functions, linear arithmetic over integers or rationals, arrays, bitvectors, etc.

Theory of Equality and Uninterpreted Functions (EUF)

- ▶ Vocabulary and intended interpretation
 - ▶ equality relation: designated binary relation symbol $=$ with intended meaning of equality, stipulated by *equality axioms*
 - ▶ any other constant, function, and relation symbols are uninterpreted (their meaning is not restricted by the axioms)

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- ▶ Example:

- ▶ $\forall x. f(x) = x$ is satisfiable in EUF but not valid in EUF
- ▶ $\forall x. \forall y. P(x) \wedge (f(y) = x) \rightarrow P(f(y))$ is valid in EUF

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► Satisfiability in EUF

- means there is a model and evaluation that satisfy both the formula and the axioms
- is decidable for quantifier-free formulas
- is undecidable in general

Axioms of EUF (for reference)

1. Reflexivity: $\forall x. x = x$
2. Symmetry: $\forall x, y. x = y \rightarrow y = x$
3. Transitivity: $\forall x, y, z. x = y \wedge y = z \rightarrow x = z$
4. Congruence: for every function symbol f of arity k ,
$$\forall x_1, \dots, x_k, y_1, \dots, y_k. x_1 = y_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_k = y_k \rightarrow f(x_1, \dots, x_k) = f(y_1, \dots, y_k)$$
5. Equivalence: for every relation symbol P of arity k ,
$$\forall x_1, \dots, x_k, y_1, \dots, y_k. x_1 = y_1 \wedge \dots \wedge x_k = y_k \rightarrow P(x_1, \dots, x_k) \leftrightarrow P(y_1, \dots, y_k)$$

► Congruence and equivalence are axiom **schemas**

i.e. they are a family of axioms containing one axiom for every function and relation symbol respectively

► For example, congruence for binary function f :

$$\forall x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2. x_1 = y_1 \wedge x_2 = y_2 \rightarrow f(x_1, x_2) = f(y_1, y_2)$$

Arithmetics in Predicate Logic

Arithmetics in Predicate Logic

- ▶ Formalize the semantics of natural numbers in predicate logic
- ▶ Peano Arithmetic
 - ▶ addition and multiplication
 - ▶ undecidable
- ▶ Presburger Arithmetic
 - ▶ no multiplication
 - ▶ decidable
- ▶ Modular arithmetic
 - ▶ bounded numbers
 - ▶ addition and multiplication
 - ▶ decidable
 - ▶ bitvector theory

Peano Arithmetic: Vocabulary and Intended Interpretation

- ▶ Vocabulary V consists of:
 - ▶ constant (i.e. nullary function) symbol *zero*
 - ▶ unary function symbol *succ*
 - ▶ binary function symbols *plus* and *mult*
 - ▶ binary relation symbol $=$
- ▶ The **intended meaning** of the symbols is:
 - ▶ *zero* represents the number 0
 - ▶ *succ* represents the successor function ($n \mapsto n + 1$)
 - ▶ *plus* and *mult* represent the usual addition and multiplication functions on natural numbers
 - ▶ equality represents natural number equality

Peano Arithmetic: Standard Model

- ▶ Universe U is the (infinite) set of natural numbers:

$$U = \mathbb{N} = \{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{2}, \dots\}$$

- ▶ Interpretation maps symbols to their intended meaning:

- ▶ $zero_M = \mathbf{0}$

- ▶ $succ_M(n) = n + \mathbf{1}$, for every natural number n

example: $succ_M(\mathbf{0}) = \mathbf{1}$, $succ_M(\mathbf{1}) = \mathbf{2}, \dots$

- ▶ $plus_M(n, m) = n + m$

- ▶ $mult_M(n, m) = n * m$

example: $plus_M(\mathbf{2}, \mathbf{3}) = \mathbf{5}$, $mult_M(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}) = \mathbf{0}$

Peano Arithmetic: Shorthands

Intuitive notations for terms and formulas:

- ▶ Write the number k instead of k applications of *succ* to *zero*
 - ▶ 0 instead of the term *zero*, 1 instead of the term *succ(zero)*, 2 instead of *succ(succ(zero))*, etc.
- ▶ Write the number kx instead of summing k times x
 - ▶ $2x$ instead of the term $x + x$, $3x$ instead of the term $x + x + x$, etc.
- ▶ Write $+$ and $*$ instead of *plus* and *mult* and use infix notation
 - ▶ $x + y$ denotes the term *plus*(x, y)
 - ▶ $x * y$ denotes the term *mult*(x, y)

For example: $2 = 1 + 1$ is a shorthand for:

$$\textit{succ}(\textit{succ}(\textit{zero})) = \textit{plus}(\textit{succ}(\textit{zero}), \textit{succ}(\textit{zero}))$$

- ▶ Relations such as $<$ and \geq are definable in predicate logic:

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- ▶ Relations such as $<$ and \geq are definable in predicate logic:
 - ▶ $x < y$ can be expressed as $\exists z. \neg(z = 0) \wedge x + z = y$

Peano Arithmetic: Examples

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- ▶ How can we express the primality relation $prime(x)$?

$$\forall y. (\exists z. x = y * z) \rightarrow y = 1 \vee y = x$$

- ▶ How about the theorem: “there are infinitely many prime numbers”?

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- ▶ How about the theorem: “there are infinitely many prime numbers”?

$$\forall x. \exists y. y > x \wedge \text{prime}(y)$$

- ▶ Fermat's last theorem for $n = 3$:

$$\forall x, y, z. \neg(x * x * x + y * y * y = z * z * z)$$

- ▶ So, x^3 can be expressed by $x * x * x$. What about x^y ?

Peano Arithmetic: Axioms

0. Axioms for equality

1. $\forall x. \neg(x + 1 = 0)$
(zero is the first natural number, it has no predecessor)
2. $\forall x. \forall y. x + 1 = y + 1 \rightarrow x = y$
(every number has at most one predecessor)
3. $\forall x. x + 0 = x$ (addition of 0)
4. $\forall x. \forall y. x + (y + 1) = (x + y) + 1$ (addition and successor)
5. $\forall x. x * 0 = 0$ (multiplication by 0)
6. $\forall x. \forall y. x * (y + 1) = x * y + x$ (multiplication and successor)
7. $(\varphi(0) \wedge (\forall x. \varphi(x) \rightarrow \varphi(x + 1))) \rightarrow \forall x. \varphi(x)$ (induction axiom [schema](#))

Modular Arithmetic: Motivation

- ▶ Peano Arithmetic is not well defined for finite structures
- ▶ Consider a finite universe $U_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$
- ▶ Arithmetic functions result is outside of U_n for some inputs in U_n
 - ▶ $U_8 = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 7\}$
 - ▶ successor of **7** is **8** which is not in U_8
 - ▶ result of **4 + 5** is not in U_8
- ▶ So, we need to tweak the interpretation of arithmetic functions

Modular Arithmetic

► Successor, addition, and multiplication is computed **modulo n** :

1. compute the interpretation as in (ordinary) arithmetic
2. divide it by n
3. return the remainder of the division by n

► For example:

► the semantics of the term $4 + 5$ in U_8 is:

$$(4 + 5) \bmod 8 = 9 \bmod 8 = 1$$

► the semantics of the term $7 + 1$ in U_8 is **0**

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- ▶ The axioms of modular arithmetic are the same as PA apart from 1 (modified to the finite universe used) and 7 (not needed).

Arithmetic in Predicate Logic: Summary

- ▶ Peano Arithmetic is undecidable
- ▶ Presburger Arithmetic is decidable (i.e. Peano minus multiplication)
- ▶ Modular arithmetic is decidable

Predicate Logic vs Propositional Logic

Predicate Logic vs Propositional Logic: Satisfiability Checking

- ▶ Undecidable in predicate logic
- ▶ NP-Complete in propositional logic

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- ▶ P-Complete in a special case of propositional logic called Horn Clauses

Special Case: Satisfiability of Horn Clauses

Syntax and semantics of Horn clauses:

- ▶ restricted propositional formulas
- ▶ clause is a disjunction of literals with only one positive literal
- ▶ example Horn clause: $v_1 \wedge v_2 \wedge v_3 \rightarrow v_4$

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- ▶ HORN-SAT is P-complete
- ▶ linear time algorithm – a single call to unit propagation

Applications: relational databases, functional dependencies, SQL, transition systems, reachability, the shortest paths, XML, foreign keys

Tools for Automated Reasoning about Logical Formulas

- ▶ **SAT solvers:** tools for automating **satisfiability** checking in **propositional** logic
- ▶ **SMT Solvers:** tools for automating **satisfiability** checking in certain fragments and **theories of predicate logic**.
 - ▶ Modern SMT solvers support undecidable theories and quantifiers: effective at checking satisfiability of some formulas, but cannot in general provide guarantees on termination or completeness
- ▶ **Theorem provers:** tools for automating **validity** checking of predicate logic
- ▶ **Proof assistant:** tools for automating **validity** checking of higher-order logic
- ▶ Other tools for constraint solving and optimization

Competitions between Tools

- ▶ Competitions between different tools that support the same logic
 - ▶ SAT Solvers: Minisat, zChaff, Lingeling, glucose, HaifaSAT, ...
 - ▶ SMT Solvers: Z3, MathSat, veriT, CVC4, Yices, ...
 - ▶ Theorem provers: Vampire, SPASS, Paradox, iProver, ...
 - ▶ Proof Assistant: Isabelle, HOL, Coq, Satallax, ...
- ▶ Categories of problems within each logic
- ▶ Strong drive for performance improvement
- ▶ Community can submit benchmarks for competitions

Summary: How Hard is Satisfiability Checking?

- ▶ Horn Clauses: P-Complete
- ▶ Propositional Logic: NP-Complete
- ▶ Predicate Logic: undecidable
- ▶ Peano arithmetic: undecidable
- ▶ Presburger arithmetic: decidable
- ▶ Theory of equality and uninterpreted functions: undecidable
- ▶ Quantifier-free fragment of theory of equality and uninterpreted functions: decidable