

Non-classical logics

Lecture 9: Applications of many-valued logics

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Applications of many-valued logic

- independence proofs
- modeling undefined function and predicate values (program verification)
- semantic of natural languages
- theory of logic programming: declarative description of operational semantics of negation
- modeling of electronic circuits
- modeling vagueness and uncertainty
- shape analysis (program verification)

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Independence proofs

Task: Check independence of axioms in axiom systems [Bernays 1926]

Here: Example: Axiom system for propositional logic K_1

$$\text{Ax1 } p_1 \Rightarrow (p_2 \Rightarrow p_1)$$

$$\text{Ax2 } ((p_1 \Rightarrow p_2) \Rightarrow p_1) \Rightarrow p_1$$

$$\text{Ax3 } (p_1 \Rightarrow p_2) \Rightarrow ((p_2 \Rightarrow p_3) \Rightarrow (p_1 \Rightarrow p_3))$$

$$\text{Ax4 } (p_1 \wedge p_2) \Rightarrow p_1$$

$$\text{Ax5 } (p_1 \wedge p_2) \Rightarrow p_2$$

$$\text{Ax6 } (p_1 \Rightarrow p_2) \Rightarrow ((p_1 \Rightarrow p_3) \Rightarrow p_1 \Rightarrow p_2 \wedge p_3))$$

$$\text{Ax7 } p_1 \Rightarrow (p_1 \vee p_2)$$

$$\text{Ax8 } p_2 \Rightarrow (p_1 \vee p_2)$$

Axiom system: K_1

$$\text{Ax9 } (p_1 \Rightarrow p_3) \Rightarrow ((p_2 \Rightarrow p_3) \Rightarrow p_1 \vee p_2 \Rightarrow p_3))$$

$$\text{Ax10 } (p_1 \approx p_2) \Rightarrow (p_1 \Rightarrow p_2)$$

$$\text{Ax11 } (p_1 \approx p_2) \Rightarrow (p_2 \Rightarrow p_1)$$

$$\text{Ax12 } (p_1 \Rightarrow p_2) \Rightarrow ((p_2 \Rightarrow p_1) \Rightarrow p_1 \approx p_2))$$

$$\text{Ax13 } (p_1 \Rightarrow p_2) \Rightarrow (\neg p_2 \Rightarrow \neg p_1)$$

$$\text{Ax14 } p_1 \Rightarrow \neg\neg p_1$$

$$\text{Ax15 } \neg\neg p_1 \Rightarrow p_1$$

Inference rule: Modus Ponens: $\frac{H \quad H \Rightarrow G}{G}$

Independence

Definition: An axiom system K is independent iff for every axiom $A \in K$, A is not provable from $K \setminus \{A\}$.

We will show that $Ax2$ is independent

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We will show that Ax2 is independent

Idea: We introduce a 3-valued logic L_{K_1} with truth values $\{0, u, 1\}$, $D = \{1\}$ and operations $\neg, \Rightarrow, \wedge, \vee, \approx$ as defined in the lecture.

To show:

1. Every axiom in K_1 except for Ax2 is a L_{K_1} -tautology.
2. Modus Ponens leads from L_{K_1} tautologies to a L_{K_1} -tautology.
3. Ax2 is not a L_{K_1} -tautology.

Independence

From 1,2,3 it follows that every formula which can be proved from $K_1 \setminus Ax_2$ is a tautology.

Hence – since Ax_2 is not a tautology – $K_1 \setminus \{Ax_2\} \not\models Ax_2$.

Proof

We introduce a 3-valued logic L_{K_1} with truth values $\{0, u, 1\}$, $D = \{1\}$ and operations $\neg, \Rightarrow, \wedge, \vee, \approx$ as defined in the lecture.

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-
1. Routine (check all axioms in $K_1 \setminus \{Ax2\}$).

Proof

We introduce a 3-valued logic L_{K_1} with truth values $\{0, u, 1\}$, $D = \{1\}$ and operations $\neg, \Rightarrow, \wedge, \vee, \approx$ as defined in the lecture.

To show:

1. Every axiom in K_1 except for $Ax2$ is a L_{K_1} -tautology.
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2. Analyze the truth table of \Rightarrow .

Assume H is a tautology and $H \Rightarrow G$ is a tautology.

Let $\mathcal{A} : \Pi \rightarrow \{0, u, 1\}$.

Then $\mathcal{A}(H) = 1$ and $\mathcal{A}(H \Rightarrow G) = 1$, so $\mathcal{A}(G) = 1$.

Proof

We introduce a 3-valued logic L_{K_1} with truth values $\{0, u, 1\}$, $D = \{1\}$ and operations $\neg, \Rightarrow, \wedge, \vee, \approx$ as defined in the lecture.

To show:

1. Every axiom in K_1 except for Ax2 is a L_{K_1} -tautology.
 2. Modus Ponens leads from L_{K_1} tautologies to a L_{K_1} -tautology.
 3. Ax2 is not a L_{K_1} -tautology.
3. Let $\mathcal{A} : \Pi \rightarrow \{0, u, 1\}$ with $\mathcal{A}(p_1) = u$ and $\mathcal{A}(p_2) = 0$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{A}(((p_1 \Rightarrow p_2) \Rightarrow p_1) \Rightarrow p_1) &= ((u \Rightarrow 0) \Rightarrow u) \Rightarrow u \\ &= (u \Rightarrow u) \Rightarrow u = u.\end{aligned}$$

Shape analysis

Shape Analysis is an important and well covered part of static program analysis.

The central role in shape analysis is played by the set U of abstract stores.

U is perceived as the abstraction of the locations program variables can point to.

In an object-oriented context U can be viewed as an abstraction of the set of all objects existing at a snapshot during program execution

Shape analysis

U set of abstract stores.

X set of program variables.

Abstract state of a program at a given snapshot:

- Structure $\mathcal{S} = (U, \{x : U \rightarrow \{0, 1\}\}_{x \in X} \cup \text{Additional predicates})$
 $x(v) = 1$ (also denoted $\mathcal{S} \models x[v]$) iff variable x points to store v .

For any abstract state \mathcal{S} and any program variable x we require that the unary predicate x holds true of at most one store, i.e. we require

$$\mathcal{S} \models \forall s_1 \forall s_2 ((x(s_1) \wedge x(s_2)) \rightarrow s_1 = s_2).$$

It is possible that x does not point to any store, i.e. $\mathcal{S} \models \forall s (\neg x(s))$.

Shape analysis

Additional predicates on \mathcal{S} depend on the specific program/task

Example: $\text{next} : U^2 \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$

Examples of properties:

$\exists s \ x(s)$ x does not point to null

$\forall s (\neg(x(s) \wedge t(s)))$ x and t do not point to the same store

$\exists s \ \text{is}(s)$ the list defined by next contains a shared node

We have used the abbreviation

$$\text{is}(s) = \exists s_1 \exists s_2 (\text{next}(s_1, s) \wedge \text{next}(s_2, s) \wedge s_1 \neq s_2)$$

Goal: prove for a given program, or a given program part, that a certain property holds at every program state, or every stable program state.

Example: List reversing

Goal: Cycle-freeness of a list pointer structure is preserved by the algorithm reversing the list.

Describing cycle-freeness

1. $\neg \exists v(\text{next}(v, n))$ n is the store representing the head of the list
2. $\forall v \forall w(\text{next}(m, v) \wedge \text{next}(m, w) \rightarrow v = w)$ for all stores m reachable from n ,
3. $\neg \text{is}(m)$ for all stores m reachable from n .

Remark:

If conditions 1.–3. hold then the list with entry point n cannot be cyclic.

We concentrate here on showing the preservation of the formula $\text{is}(s)$.

Example: List reversing

Algorithm for list reversing:

```
class ReverseList {
    int value;
    ReverseList next;

public ReverseList reverse() {
    ReverseList t, y= null, x = this;
    while (x != null) {
        st1: t=y;
        st2: y=x;
        st3: x=x.next;
        st4: y.next = t;}
    return y;}}
```


Example: List reversing

Task:

Assume that at the beginning of the while loop $\mathcal{S} \models \neg is(n)$ is true for all stores n in the list.

Show that in the state \mathcal{S}_e after execution of the while loop again $\mathcal{S}_e \models \neg is(n)$ holds true for all n .

Problem: Since we cannot make any assumptions on the set of stores U at the start of the while-loop we need to investigate infinitely many structures, which obviously is not possible.

Shape analysis

Idea [Mooly Sagiv, Thomas Reps and Reinhard Wilhelm]

Use of three-valued structures to approximate two-valued structures.

More precisely, we try to find finitely many three-valued structures $\mathcal{S}_1^3, \dots, \mathcal{S}_k^3$ such that for an arbitrary two-valued abstract state \mathcal{S} that may be possible before the while-loop starts there is a surjective mapping F from \mathcal{S} onto one of the \mathcal{S}_i^3 for $1 \leq i \leq k$ with $\mathcal{S} \sqsubseteq^F \mathcal{S}_i^3$, i.e.

- for all n -ary predicate symbols p and all $b_1, \dots, b_n \in U_{\mathcal{S}}$ we have:

$$p_{\mathcal{S}_i^3}(F(b_1), \dots, F(b_n)) \leq_i p_{\mathcal{S}}(b_1, \dots, b_n)$$

bb where $a \leq_i b$ iff $a = b$ or $a = \frac{1}{2}$

(every possible initial state has an abstraction among $\mathcal{S}_1^3, \dots, \mathcal{S}_k^3$)

Shape analysis

Plan:

Step 1:

For every three-valued structure \mathcal{S}_i^3 we will define an algorithm to compute a three-valued structure $\mathcal{S}_{i,e}^3$.

We think of $\mathcal{S}_{i,e}^3$ as the three-valued state reached after execution of α_r (the body of the while-loop) when started in \mathcal{S}_i^3 .

If \mathcal{S} is a two-valued state it is fairly straight forward to compute the two-valued state \mathcal{S}_e that is reached after executing α_r starting with \mathcal{S} , since the commands in α_r are so simple.

The construction of $\mathcal{S}_{i,e}^3$ will be done such that $\mathcal{S} \sqsubseteq^F \mathcal{S}_i^3$ implies $\mathcal{S}_e \sqsubseteq^F \mathcal{S}_{i,e}^3$.

Shape analysis

Plan:

Step 2:

Determine a set \mathcal{M}_0 of abstract three-valued states to start with.

Shape analysis

Plan:

Step 3:

At iteration $k (k \geq 1)$ we are dealing with a set \mathcal{M}_{k-1} of abstract three-valued states.

We try to prove for every $\mathcal{S}^3 \in \mathcal{M}_{k-1}$ that if $\mathcal{S}^3 \models \forall s(\neg is(s))$ then $\mathcal{S}_e^3 \models (\forall s(\neg is(s)))$.

It will then follow that for any two-valued state \mathcal{S} that is reachable with $k - 1$ iterations of α_r :

$$\mathcal{S} \models \forall \neg is(s) \Rightarrow \mathcal{S}_e \models \forall s \neg is(s)$$

If we succeed we set

$$\mathcal{M}_k = \{\mathcal{S}_e^3 \mid \mathcal{S}^3 \in \mathcal{M}_{k-1}\}$$

Shape analysis

Plan:

Step 3 (continued)

If $\mathcal{M}_k \subseteq \mathcal{M}_{k-1}$ we are finished and the claim is positively established.

Otherwise we repeat step 3 with \mathcal{M}_k .

If for one $\mathcal{S}^3 \in \mathcal{M}_{k-1}$, $\forall s(\neg \text{is}(s))$ evaluated to 0 then our conjecture was false.

If for one $\mathcal{S}^3 \in \mathcal{M}_{k-1}$, $\forall s(\neg \text{is}(s))$ evaluated to $\frac{1}{2}$ then this result is inconclusive. Should this happen we need to iterate the procedure with a larger set \mathcal{M}'_{k-1} .

There is, unfortunately, no guarantee that this iteration will come to a conclusive end in the general case.

Shape analysis

[Example on the blackboard]

cf. also P.H. Schmidt's lecture notes, Section 2.4.4 (pages 91-100).