## Non-classical logics

# Lecture 3: Classical logic, Part 3 <br> 6.11.2013 

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## Until Now

- Propositional logic (Syntax, Semantics)
- Problems: Checking unsatisfiability
- Normal forms (CNF/DNF); Translations to CNF/DNF
- Methods for checking satisfiability

The Resolution Procedure
Semantic Tableaux

- First-order logic (Syntax)


## First-Order Logic

## Syntax

- A signature $\Sigma=(\Omega, \Pi)$, fixes an alphabet of non-logical symbols, where
- $\Omega$ is a set of function symbols $f$ with arity $n \geq 0$, written $f / n$,
- $\Pi$ is a set of predicate symbols $p$ with arity $m \geq 0$, written $p / m$.
If $n=0$ then $f$ is also called a constant (symbol).
If $m=0$ then $p$ is also called a propositional variable.
We use letters $P, Q, R, S$, to denote propositional variables.
- A (countably infinite) set of variables $X$.
$\mapsto$ Terms $\mathrm{T}_{\Sigma}(X)$; Atoms (Atomic formulae); Formulae $\mathrm{F}_{\Sigma}(X)$


## Bound and Free Variables

In $Q \times F, Q \in\{\exists, \forall\}$, we call $F$ the scope of the quantifier $Q \times$. An occurrence of a variable $x$ is called bound, if it is inside the scope of a quantifier $Q x$.
Any other occurrence of a variable is called free.
Formulas without free variables are also called closed formulas or sentential forms.

Formulas without variables are called ground.

## Bound and Free Variables

## Example:



The occurrence of $y$ is bound, as is the first occurrence of $x$. The second occurrence of $x$ is a free occurrence.

## Substitutions

Substitution is a fundamental operation on terms and formulas that occurs in all inference systems for first-order logic.

In general, substitutions are mappings

$$
\sigma: X \rightarrow \mathrm{~T}_{\Sigma}(X)
$$

such that the domain of $\sigma$, that is, the set

$$
\operatorname{dom}(\sigma)=\{x \in X \mid \sigma(x) \neq x\}
$$

is finite. The set of variables introduced by $\sigma$, that is, the set of variables occurring in one of the terms $\sigma(x)$, with $x \in \operatorname{dom}(\sigma)$, is denoted by $\operatorname{codom}(\sigma)$.

## Substitutions

Substitutions are often written as $\left[s_{1} / x_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} / x_{n}\right]$, with $x_{i}$ pairwise distinct, and then denote the mapping

$$
\left[s_{1} / x_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} / x_{n}\right](y)= \begin{cases}s_{i}, & \text { if } y=x_{i} \\ y, & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

We also write $x \sigma$ for $\sigma(x)$.
The modification of a substitution $\sigma$ at $x$ is defined as follows:

$$
\sigma[x \mapsto t](y)= \begin{cases}t, & \text { if } y=x \\ \sigma(y), & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Application of a Substitution

"Homomorphic" extension of $\sigma$ to terms and formulas:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) \sigma & =f\left(s_{1} \sigma, \ldots, s_{n} \sigma\right) \\
\perp \sigma & =\perp \\
\top \sigma & =\top \\
p\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) \sigma & =p\left(s_{1} \sigma, \ldots, s_{n} \sigma\right) \\
(u \approx v) \sigma & =(u \sigma \approx v \sigma) \\
\neg F \sigma & =\neg(F \sigma)
\end{aligned}
$$

$(F \rho G) \sigma=(F \sigma \rho G \sigma) ;$ for each binary connective $\rho$
$(Q x F) \sigma=Q z(F \sigma[x \mapsto z])$; with $z$ a fresh variable

### 2.2 Semantics

To give semantics to a logical system means to define a notion of truth for the formulas. The concept of truth that we will now define for first-order logic goes back to Tarski.

As in the propositional case, we use a two-valued logic with truth values "true" and "false" denoted by 1 and 0 , respectively.

## Structures

A $\Sigma$-structure (also called $\Sigma$-interpretation or sometimes $\Sigma$-algebra) is a triple

$$
\mathcal{A}=\left(U,\left(f_{\mathcal{A}}: U^{n} \rightarrow U\right)_{f / n \in \Omega},\left(p_{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq U^{m}\right)_{p / m \in \Pi}\right)
$$

where $U \neq \emptyset$ is a set, called the universe of $\mathcal{A}$.
Remark: Instead of writing $p_{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq U^{m}$ we can also us the characteristic function and write:

$$
p_{\mathcal{A}}: U^{m} \rightarrow\{0,1\} .
$$

Normally, by abuse of notation, we will have $\mathcal{A}$ denote both the structure and its universe.

By $\Sigma$-Str we denote the class of all $\Sigma$-structures.

## Assignments

A variable has no intrinsic meaning. The meaning of a variable has to be defined externally (explicitly or implicitly in a given context) by an assignment.

A (variable) assignment, also called a valuation (over a given
$\sum$-structure $\mathcal{A}$ ), is a map $\beta: X \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$.
Variable assignments are the semantic counterparts of substitutions.

## Value of a Term in $\mathcal{A}$ with Respect to $\beta$

By structural induction we define

$$
\mathcal{A}(\beta): \mathrm{T}_{\Sigma}(X) \rightarrow \mathcal{A}
$$

as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{A}(\beta)(x) & =\beta(x), \quad x \in X \\
\mathcal{A}(\beta)\left(f\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)\right) & =f_{\mathcal{A}}\left(\mathcal{A}(\beta)\left(s_{1}\right), \ldots, \mathcal{A}(\beta)\left(s_{n}\right)\right), \quad f / n \in \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

## Value of a Term in $\mathcal{A}$ with Respect to $\beta$

In the scope of a quantifier we need to evaluate terms with respect to modified assignments. To that end, let $\beta[x \mapsto a]: X \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$, for $x \in X$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}$, denote the assignment

$$
\beta[x \mapsto a](y):= \begin{cases}a & \text { if } x=y \\ \beta(y) & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

## Truth Value of a Formula in $\mathcal{A}$ with Respect to $\beta$

$\mathcal{A}(\beta): \mathrm{F}_{\Sigma}(X) \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ is defined inductively as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{A}(\beta)(\perp) & =0 \\
\mathcal{A}(\beta)(\top) & =1 \\
\mathcal{A}(\beta)\left(p\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)\right) & =1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad\left(\mathcal{A}(\beta)\left(s_{1}\right), \ldots, \mathcal{A}(\beta)\left(s_{n}\right)\right) \in p_{\mathcal{A}} \\
\mathcal{A}(\beta)(s \approx t) & =1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}(\beta)(s)=\mathcal{A}(\beta)(t) \\
\mathcal{A}(\beta)(\neg F) & =1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F)=0 \\
\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F \rho G) & =\mathrm{B}_{\rho}(\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F), \mathcal{A}(\beta)(G))
\end{aligned}
$$

with $\mathrm{B}_{\rho}$ the Boolean function associated with $\rho$

$$
\mathcal{A}(\beta)(\forall x F)=\min _{a \in U}\{\mathcal{A}(\beta[x \mapsto a])(F)\}
$$

$$
\mathcal{A}(\beta)(\exists x F)=\max _{a \in U}\{\mathcal{A}(\beta[x \mapsto a])(F)\}
$$

## Example

The "Standard" Interpretation for Peano Arithmetic:

$$
\begin{aligned}
U_{\mathbb{N}} & =\{0,1,2, \ldots\} \\
0_{\mathbb{N}} & =0 \\
s_{\mathbb{N}} & : n \mapsto n+1 \\
+_{\mathbb{N}} & :(n, m) \mapsto n+m \\
*_{\mathbb{N}} & :(n, m) \mapsto n * m \\
\leq_{\mathbb{N}} & =\{(n, m) \mid n \text { less than or equal to } m\} \\
<_{\mathbb{N}} & =\{(n, m) \mid n \text { less than } m\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\mathbb{N}$ is just one out of many possible $\Sigma_{P A}$-interpretations.

## Example

Values over $\mathbb{N}$ for Sample Terms and Formulas:
Under the assignment $\beta: x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 3$ we obtain

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathbb{N}(\beta)(s(x)+s(0)) & =3 \\
\mathbb{N}(\beta)(x+y \approx s(y)) & =1 \\
\mathbb{N}(\beta)(\forall x, y(x+y \approx y+x)) & =1 \\
\mathbb{N}(\beta)(\forall z z \leq y) & =0 \\
\mathbb{N}(\beta)(\forall x \exists y x<y) & =1
\end{array}
$$

### 2.3 Models, Validity, and Satisfiability

$F$ is valid in $\mathcal{A}$ under assignment $\beta$ :

$$
\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F \quad: \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F)=1
$$

$F$ is valid in $\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{A}$ is a model of $F)$ :

$$
\mathcal{A} \models F \quad: \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}, \beta \models F, \text { for all } \beta \in X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}
$$

$F$ is valid (or is a tautology):

$$
\models F \quad: \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{A} \models F, \text { for all } \mathcal{A} \in \Sigma \text {-Str }
$$

$F$ is called satisfiable iff there exist $\mathcal{A}$ and $\beta$ such that $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$. Otherwise $F$ is called unsatisfiable.

## Entailment and Equivalence

$F$ entails (implies) $G$ (or $G$ is a consequence of $F$ ), written $F \models G$
$: \Leftrightarrow$ for all $\mathcal{A} \in \Sigma$-Str and $\beta \in X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$, whenever $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$ then $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$.
$F$ and $G$ are called equivalent
$: \Leftrightarrow$ for all $\mathcal{A} \in \Sigma$-Str und $\beta \in X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$ we have $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$.

## Entailment and Equivalence

## Proposition 2.6:

$F$ entails $G$ iff $(F \rightarrow G)$ is valid
Proposition 2.7:
$F$ and $G$ are equivalent iff $(F \leftrightarrow G)$ is valid.

Extension to sets of formulas $N$ in the "natural way", e.g., $N \models F$
$: \Leftrightarrow$ for all $\mathcal{A} \in \Sigma$-Str and $\beta \in X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$ : if $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$, for all $G \in N$, then $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$.

## Validity vs. Unsatisfiability

Validity and unsatisfiability are just two sides of the same medal as explained by the following proposition.

## Proposition 2.8:

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
F \text { valid } & \Leftrightarrow & \neg F \text { unsatisfiable } \\
N \models F & \Leftrightarrow & N \cup\{\neg F\} \text { unsatisfiable }
\end{array}
$$

Hence in order to design a theorem prover (validity checker) it is sufficient to design a checker for unsatisfiability.

### 2.4 Algorithmic Problems

Validity $(F): \vDash F$ ?
Satisfiability $(F)$ : $F$ satisfiable?
Entailment $(F, G)$ : does $F$ entail $G$ ?
$\operatorname{Model}(\mathcal{A}, F): \quad \mathcal{A} \models F$ ?
Solve $(\mathcal{A}, F)$ : find an assignment $\beta$ such that $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$
Solve( $F$ ): find a substitution $\sigma$ such that $\models F \sigma$
Abduce $(F)$ : find $G$ with "certain properties" such that $G$ entails $F$

## Gödel's Famous Theorems

1. For most signatures $\Sigma$, validity is undecidable for $\sum$-formulas. (One can easily encode Turing machines in most signatures.)
2. For each signature $\Sigma$, the set of valid $\Sigma$-formulas is recursively enumerable. (We will prove this by giving complete deduction systems.)
3. For $\Sigma=\Sigma_{P A}$ and $\mathbb{N}_{*}=(\mathbb{N}, 0, s,+, *)$, the theory $\operatorname{Th}\left(\mathbb{N}_{*}\right)$ is not recursively enumerable.

### 2.5 Normal Forms and Skolemization

Study of normal forms motivated by

- reduction of logical concepts,
- efficient data structures for theorem proving.

The main problem in first-order logic is the treatment of quantifiers. The subsequent normal form transformations are intended to eliminate many of them.

## Prenex Normal Form

Prenex formulas have the form

$$
Q_{1} x_{1} \ldots Q_{n} x_{n} F
$$

where $F$ is quantifier-free and $Q_{i} \in\{\forall, \exists\}$;
we call $Q_{1} x_{1} \ldots Q_{n} x_{n}$ the quantifier prefix and $F$ the matrix of the formula.

## Prenex Normal Form

Computing prenex normal form by the rewrite relation $\Rightarrow_{p}$ :

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
(F \leftrightarrow G) & \Rightarrow_{P} \quad(F \rightarrow G) \wedge(G \rightarrow F) \\
\neg Q \times F & \Rightarrow_{P} \quad \bar{Q} x \neg F \\
(Q \times F \rho G) & \Rightarrow_{P} \quad Q y(F[y / x] \rho G), y \text { fresh, } \rho \in\{\wedge, \vee\} \\
(Q \times F \rightarrow G) & \Rightarrow_{P} \quad \bar{Q} y(F[y / x] \rightarrow G), y \text { fresh } \\
(F \rho Q \times G) & \Rightarrow_{P}
\end{array} \quad Q y(F \rho G[y / x]), y \text { fresh, } \rho \in\{\wedge, \vee, \rightarrow\}\right)
$$

Here $\bar{Q}$ denotes the quantifier dual to $Q$, i.e., $\bar{\forall}=\exists$ and $\bar{\exists}=\forall$.

## Example

$$
F:=(\forall x((p(x) \vee q(x, y)) \wedge \exists z r(x, y, z))) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))
$$

## Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
F & :=(\forall x((p(x) \vee q(x, y)) \wedge \exists z r(x, y, z))) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y)) \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime}\left[\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge \exists z r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
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& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime}\left[\left(\exists z^{\prime}\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z^{\prime}\right)\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example

$$
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& \left.\Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime}\left[\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge \exists z r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z\right)\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right] \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime}\left[\left(\exists z^{\prime}\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z^{\prime}\right)\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right] \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime} \forall z^{\prime}\left[\left(\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z^{\prime}\right)\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
F & :=(\forall x((p(x) \vee q(x, y)) \wedge \exists z r(x, y, z))) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y)) \\
& \left.\Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime}\left[\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge \exists z r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z\right)\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right] \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime}\left[\left(\exists z^{\prime}\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z^{\prime}\right)\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right] \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime} \forall z^{\prime}\left[\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right] \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime} \forall z^{\prime}\left[( ( p ( x ^ { \prime } ) \vee q ( x ^ { \prime } , y ) ) \wedge r ( x ^ { \prime } , y , z ^ { \prime } ) ) \rightarrow \forall z ^ { \prime \prime } \left((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge r\left(z^{\prime \prime}, x, y\right)\right.\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
F & :=(\forall x((p(x) \vee q(x, y)) \wedge \exists z r(x, y, z))) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y)) \\
& \left.\Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime}\left[\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge \exists z r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z\right)\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right] \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime}\left[\left(\exists z^{\prime}\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z^{\prime}\right)\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right] \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime} \forall z^{\prime}\left[\left(\left(p\left(x^{\prime}\right) \vee q\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \wedge r\left(x^{\prime}, y, z^{\prime}\right)\right) \rightarrow((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge \forall z r(z, x, y))\right] \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime} \forall z^{\prime}\left[( ( p ( x ^ { \prime } ) \vee q ( x ^ { \prime } , y ) ) \wedge r ( x ^ { \prime } , y , z ^ { \prime } ) ) \rightarrow \forall z ^ { \prime \prime } \left((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge r\left(z^{\prime \prime}, x, y\right)\right.\right. \\
& \Rightarrow_{P} \exists x^{\prime} \forall z^{\prime} \forall z^{\prime \prime}\left[\left(( ( p ( x ^ { \prime } ) \vee q ( x ^ { \prime } , y ) ) \wedge r ( x ^ { \prime } , y , z ^ { \prime } ) ) \rightarrow \left((p(z) \wedge q(x, z)) \wedge r\left(z^{\prime \prime}, x, y\right)\right.\right.\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

## Skolemization

Intuition: replacement of $\exists y$ by a concrete choice function computing $y$ from all the arguments $y$ depends on.

Transformation $\Rightarrow_{s}$ (to be applied outermost, not in subformulas):

$$
\forall x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \exists y F \quad \Rightarrow_{S} \quad \forall x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} F\left[f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) / y\right]
$$

where $f / n$ is a new function symbol (Skolem function).

Goal: check satisfiability
All free variables in $F$ are replaced by new Skolem constants.

## Skolemization

Together: $F \stackrel{*}{\Rightarrow} P \underbrace{G}_{\text {prenex }}{ }^{*} S \underbrace{H}_{\text {prenex, no } \exists}$

Theorem 2.9:
Let $F, G$, and $H$ as defined above and closed. Then
(i) $F$ and $G$ are equivalent.
(ii) $H \models G$ but the converse is not true in general.
(iii) $G$ satisfiable (wrt. $\Sigma$-Str) $\Leftrightarrow H$ satisfiable (wrt. $\Sigma^{\prime}$-Str) where $\Sigma^{\prime}=(\Omega \cup S K F, \Pi)$, if $\Sigma=(\Omega, \Pi)$.

## Example

Formula in Prenex form:
$F: \exists z \exists x \forall y \exists x^{\prime}\left(\neg p(z, x) \vee\left(q(z, y) \wedge r\left(y, x^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)$

Skolemization: $z \mapsto s k_{1} ; x \mapsto s k_{2} ; x^{\prime} \mapsto s k_{3}(y)$

$$
\Rightarrow{ }_{S}^{*} \forall y\left(\neg p\left(s k_{1}, s k_{2}\right) \vee\left(q\left(s k_{1}, y\right) \wedge r\left(y, s k_{3}(y)\right)\right)\right)
$$

## Clausal Normal Form (Conjunctive Normal Form)

$$
\begin{array}{rlll}
(F \leftrightarrow G) & \Rightarrow_{k} & (F \rightarrow G) \wedge(G \rightarrow F) \\
(F \rightarrow G) & \Rightarrow_{k} & & (\neg F \vee G) \\
\neg(F \vee G) & \Rightarrow_{k} & (\neg F \wedge \neg G) \\
\neg(F \wedge G) & \Rightarrow_{K} & (\neg F \vee \neg G) \\
\neg \neg F & \Rightarrow_{k} & F \\
(F \wedge G) \vee H & \Rightarrow_{k} & (F \vee H) \wedge(G \vee H) \\
(F \wedge T) & \Rightarrow_{K} & F \\
(F \wedge \perp) & \Rightarrow_{K} & \perp \\
(F \vee \top) & \Rightarrow_{k} & \top \\
(F \vee \perp) & \Rightarrow_{k} & F
\end{array}
$$

These rules are to be applied modulo associativity and commutativity of $\wedge$ and $\vee$. The first five rules, plus the rule $(\neg Q)$, compute the negation normal form (NNF) of a formula.

## Example

Formula in Prenex form:
$F: \exists z \exists x \forall y \exists x^{\prime}\left(\neg p(z, x) \vee\left(q(z, y) \wedge r\left(y, x^{\prime}\right)\right)\right)$

Skolemization: $z \mapsto s k_{1} ; x \mapsto s k_{2} ; x^{\prime} \mapsto s k_{3}(y)$

$$
\Rightarrow{ }_{S}^{*} \forall y\left(\neg p\left(s k_{1}, s k_{2}\right) \vee\left(q\left(s k_{1}, y\right) \wedge r\left(y, s k_{3}(y)\right)\right)\right)
$$

Clause normal form:

$$
\Rightarrow{ }_{k}^{*} \forall y\left(\left(\neg p\left(s k_{1}, s k_{2}\right) \vee q\left(s k_{1}, y\right)\right) \wedge\left(\neg p\left(s k_{1}, s k_{2}\right) \vee r\left(y, s k_{3}(y)\right)\right)\right)
$$

## The Complete Picture

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
F & \Rightarrow{ }^{*} P & Q_{1} y_{1} \ldots Q_{n} y_{n} G \\
& \Rightarrow{ }^{*} s & \quad \text { ( } G \text { quantifier-free) } \\
& \Rightarrow x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m} H & (m \leq n, H \text { quantifier-free) } \\
\underbrace{\forall x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m}}_{\text {leave out }} \bigwedge_{i=1}^{k} \underbrace{\bigvee_{j=1}^{n_{i}} L_{i j}}_{\text {clauses } C_{i}}
\end{array}
$$

$N=\left\{C_{1}, \ldots, C_{k}\right\}$ is called the clausal (normal) form (CNF) of $F$. Note: the variables in the clauses are implicitly universally quantified.

## The Complete Picture

Theorem 2.10:
Let $F$ be closed. Then $F^{\prime} \models F$.
(The converse is not true in general.)

## Theorem 2.11:

Let $F$ be closed. Then $F$ is satisfiable iff $F^{\prime}$ is satisfiable iff
$N$ is satisfiable

## Optimization

Here is lots of room for optimization since we only can preserve satisfiability anyway:

- size of the CNF exponential when done naively;
- want to preserve the original formula structure;
- want small arity of Skolem functions.


## Part 3: Automated reasoning

3.1: Resolution<br>3.2: Tableaux

### 3.1 Resolution

Propositional resolution:
Resolution inference rule:

$$
\frac{C \vee A \quad \neg A \vee D}{C \vee D}
$$

Terminology: $C \vee D$ : resolvent; $A$ : resolved atom
(Positive) factorisation inference rule:

$$
\frac{C \vee A \vee A}{C \vee A}
$$

## Refinements of resolution

1. We assume that $\succ$ is any fixed ordering on propositional variables that is total and well-founded.
2. Extend $\succ$ to an ordering $\succ_{L}$ on literals:

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
{[\neg] P} & \succ_{L} & {[\neg] Q} & , \text { if } P \succ Q \\
\neg P & \succ_{L} & P &
\end{array}
$$

3. Extend $\succ_{L}$ to an ordering $\succ_{C}$ on clauses: $\succ_{C}=\left(\succ_{L}\right)_{\text {mul }}$, the multi-set extension of $\succ_{L}$.

Notation: $\succ$ also for $\succ_{L}$ and $\succ_{C}$.
(well-founded)

## Selection Functions

A selection function is a mapping

$$
S: C \mapsto \text { set of occurrences of negative literals in } C
$$

Example of selection with selected literals indicated as $X$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
\neg A \vee \neg A \vee B \\
\neg B_{0} \vee \neg B_{1} \vee A
\end{gathered}
$$

## Resolution Calculus $\operatorname{Res}_{S}^{\succ}$

$\frac{C \vee A \quad D \vee \neg A}{C \vee D} \quad$ [ordered resolution with selection]
if
(i) $A \succ C$;
(ii) nothing is selected in $C$ by $S$;
(iii) $\neg A$ is selected in $D \vee \neg A$, or else nothing is selected in $D \vee \neg A$ and $\neg A \succeq \max (D)$.

Note: For positive literals, $A \succ C$ is the same as $A \succ \max (C)$.

## Resolution Calculus Ress $_{\zeta}^{\succ}$

$$
\frac{C \vee A \vee A}{(C \vee A)} \quad \text { [ordered factoring] }
$$

if $A$ is maximal in $C$ and nothing is selected in $C$.

## Resolution for ground clauses

- Exactly the same as for propositional clauses

Ground atoms $\mapsto$ propositional variables

## Theorem

- Res is sound and refutationally complete (for all sets of ground clauses)
- Res ${ }_{s}^{\succ}$ is sound and refutationally complete (for all sets of ground clauses)


## Sample Refutation

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
\text { 1. } & \neg P(f(a)) \vee \neg P(f(a)) \vee Q(b) & \text { (given) } \\
\text { 2. } & P(f(a)) \vee Q(b) & \text { (given) } \\
\text { 3. } & \neg P(g(b, a)) \vee \neg Q(b) & \text { (given) } \\
\text { 4. } & P(g(b, a)) & \text { (given) } \\
\text { 5. } & \neg P(f(a)) \vee Q(b) \vee Q(b) & \text { (Res. 2. into 1.) } \\
\text { 6. } & \neg P(f(a)) \vee Q(b) & \text { (Fact. 5.) } \\
\text { 7. } & Q(b) \vee Q(b) & \text { (Res. 2. into 6.) } \\
\text { 8. } & Q(b) & \text { (Fact. 7.) } \\
\text { 9. } & \neg P(g(b, a)) & \text { (Res. 8. into 3.) } \\
10 . & \perp & \text { (Res. 4. into 9.) }
\end{array}
$$

## General Resolution through Instantiation

Idea: instantiate clauses appropriately:


## General Resolution through Instantiation

Problems:
More than one instance of a clause can participate in a proof.
Even worse: There are infinitely many possible instances.

Observation:
Instantiation must produce complementary literals (so that inferences become possible).

Idea:
Do not instantiate more than necessary to get complementary literals.

## General Resolution through Instantiation

Idea: do not instantiate more than necessary:


## Lifting Principle

Problem: Make saturation of infinite sets of clauses as they arise from taking the (ground) instances of finitely many general clauses (with variables) effective and efficient.

Idea (Robinson 65):

- Resolution for general clauses:
- Equality of ground atoms is generalized to unifiability of general atoms;
- Only compute most general (minimal) unifiers.


## Lifting Principle

Significance: The advantage of the method in (Robinson 65) compared with (Gilmore 60) is that unification enumerates only those instances of clauses that participate in an inference. Moreover, clauses are not right away instantiated into ground clauses. Rather they are instantiated only as far as required for an inference. Inferences with non-ground clauses in general represent infinite sets of ground inferences which are computed simultaneously in a single step.

## Resolution for General Clauses

General binary resolution Res:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{C \vee A \quad D \vee \neg B}{(C \vee D) \sigma} & \text { if } \sigma=\operatorname{mgu}(A, B) \quad \text { [resolution] } \\
\frac{C \vee A \vee B}{(C \vee A) \sigma} & \text { if } \sigma=\operatorname{mgu}(A, B) \quad \text { [factorization] }
\end{array}
$$

General resolution RIF with implicit factorization:

$$
\frac{C \vee A_{1} \vee \ldots \vee A_{n} \quad D \vee \neg B}{(C \vee D) \sigma} \quad \text { if } \sigma=\operatorname{mgu}\left(A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}, B\right)
$$

[RIF]

## Resolution for General Clauses

For inferences with more than one premise, we assume that the variables in the premises are (bijectively) renamed such that they become different to any variable in the other premises. We do not formalize this. Which names one uses for variables is otherwise irrelevant.

## Refutational Completeness of General Resolution

## Theorem:

Let $N$ be a set of general clauses where $\operatorname{Res}(N) \subseteq N$. Then

$$
N \models \perp \Leftrightarrow \perp \in N .
$$

## Unification

Let $E=\left\{s_{1} \doteq t_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} \doteq t_{n}\right\}\left(s_{i}, t_{i}\right.$ terms or atoms $)$ a multi-set of equality problems. A substitution $\sigma$ is called a unifier of $E$ if $s_{i} \sigma=t_{i} \sigma$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$.

If a unifier of $E$ exists, then $E$ is called unifiable.

## Unification

A substitution $\sigma$ is called more general than a substitution $\tau$, denoted by $\sigma \leq \tau$, if there exists a substitution $\rho$ such that $\rho \circ \sigma=\tau$, where $(\rho \circ \sigma)(x):=(x \sigma) \rho$ is the composition of $\sigma$ and $\rho$ as mappings.
(Note that $\rho \circ \sigma$ has a finite domain as required for a substitution.)

If a unifier of $E$ is more general than any other unifier of $E$, then we speak of a most general unifier of $E$, denoted by $\operatorname{mgu}(E)$.

## Unification after Martelli/Montanari

$$
\begin{aligned}
t \doteq t, E & \Rightarrow_{M M} \quad E \\
f\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) \doteq f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right), E & \Rightarrow_{M M} \quad s_{1} \doteq t_{1}, \ldots, s_{n} \doteq t_{n}, E \\
f(\ldots) \doteq g(\ldots), E & \Rightarrow_{M M} \quad \perp \\
x \doteq t, E & \Rightarrow_{M M} \quad x \doteq t, E[t / x] \\
& \text { if } x \in \operatorname{var}(E), x \notin \operatorname{var}(t) \\
x \doteq t, E & \Rightarrow_{M M} \perp \\
& \text { if } x \neq t, x \in \operatorname{var}(t) \\
t \doteq x, E & \Rightarrow_{M M} x \doteq t, E \\
& \text { if } t \notin X
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 1

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{f(g(a, x), g(y, b)) \doteq f(x, g(v, w)), f(x, g(v, w)) \doteq f(g(x, a), g(v, b))\} \\
& \quad \Rightarrow{ }_{M M}^{(2)} \quad\{g(a, x) \doteq x, g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), x \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \quad \Rightarrow{ }^{(5)} \quad \perp M
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 2

$\{f(g(a, x), g(y, b)) \doteq g(x, g(v, w)), f(x, g(v, w)) \doteq f(g(x, a), g(v, b)\}$
$\stackrel{(3)}{\Rightarrow}_{M M} \perp$

## Example 3

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\{f(g(a, x), g(y, b)) \doteq f(z, g(v, w)), f(z, g(v, w)) \doteq f(g(x, a), g(v, b)\} \\
& \quad \stackrel{(2)}{\Rightarrow} M M \quad\{g(a, x) \doteq z, g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), z \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \quad \stackrel{(4)}{\Rightarrow} M M^{M} \quad\{z \doteq g(a, x), g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), g(a, x) \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 3

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{f(g(a, x), g(y, b)) \doteq f(z, g(v, w)), f(z, g(v, w)) \doteq f(g(x, a), g(v, b)\} \\
& \stackrel{(2)}{\Rightarrow}_{M M} \quad\{g(a, x) \doteq z, g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), z \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \stackrel{(4)}{\Rightarrow} M \\
& \{z \doteq g(a, x), g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), g(a, x) \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \Rightarrow{ }_{M M}^{*} \quad\{z \doteq g(a, x), y \doteq v, b \doteq w, a \doteq x, x \doteq a, v \doteq v, w \doteq b\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 3

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\{f(g(a, x), g(y, b)) \doteq f(z, g(v, w)), f(z, g(v, w)) \doteq f(g(x, a), g(v, b)\} \\
& \quad \stackrel{(2)}{\Rightarrow}_{M M} \quad\{g(a, x) \doteq z, g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), z \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \quad^{(4)} M M \\
& \quad\{z \doteq g(a, x), g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), g(a, x) \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
&\{z \doteq g(a, x), y \doteq v, b \doteq w, a \doteq x, x \doteq a, v \doteq v, w \doteq b\} \\
& \Rightarrow_{M M}\{z \doteq g(a, x), y \doteq v, b \doteq w, a \doteq x, x \doteq a, w \doteq b\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 3

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{f(g(a, x), g(y, b)) \doteq f(z, g(v, w)), f(z, g(v, w)) \doteq f(g(x, a), g(v, b)\} \\
& \stackrel{(2)}{\Rightarrow} \\
& \stackrel{2}{\Longrightarrow}_{M M} \quad\{g(a, x) \doteq z, g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), z \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \stackrel{(4)}{=} \\
& \stackrel{ }{\Rightarrow} \text { MM } \\
& \{z \doteq g(a, x), g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), g(a, x) \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \Rightarrow{ }_{M M}^{*} \quad\{z \doteq g(a, x), y \doteq v, b \doteq w, a \doteq x, x \doteq a, v \doteq v, w \doteq b\} \\
& \Rightarrow{ }_{M M}^{*} \quad\{z \doteq g(a, x), y \doteq v, b \doteq w, a \doteq x, x \doteq a, w \doteq b\} \\
& \Rightarrow_{M M}^{*} \quad\{z \doteq g(a, a), y \doteq v, b \doteq b, a \doteq a, x \doteq a, w \doteq b\} \\
& \Rightarrow{ }_{M M}^{*} \quad\{z \doteq g(a, a), y \doteq v, x \doteq a, w \doteq b\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 3

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\{f(g(a, x), g(y, b)) \doteq f(z, g(v, w)), f(z, g(v, w)) \doteq f(g(x, a), g(v, b)\} \\
& \quad \stackrel{(2)}{\Rightarrow}_{M M} \quad\{g(a, x) \doteq z, g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), z \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \quad{ }^{(4)} M M \\
& \quad\{z \doteq g(a, x), g(y, b) \doteq g(v, w), g(a, x) \doteq g(x, a), g(v, w) \doteq g(v, b)\} \\
& \quad\{z \doteq g(a, x), y \doteq v, b \doteq w, a \doteq x, x \doteq a, v \doteq v, w \doteq b\} \\
& \quad\{z \doteq g(a, x), y \doteq v, b \doteq w, a \doteq x, x \doteq a, w \doteq b\} \\
& \quad\{z \doteq g(a, a), y \doteq v, b \doteq b, a \doteq a, x \doteq a, w \doteq b\} \\
& * \\
& M M\{z \doteq g(a, a), y \doteq v, x \doteq a, w \doteq b\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Most general unifier (m.g.u):

$$
[g(a, a) / z, v / y, a / x, w / b]
$$

## MM: Main Properties

If $E=x_{1} \doteq u_{1}, \ldots, x_{k} \doteq u_{k}$, with $x_{i}$ pairwise distinct, $x_{i} \notin \operatorname{var}\left(u_{j}\right)$, then $E$ is called an (equational problem in) solved form representing the solution $\sigma_{E}=\left[u_{1} / x_{1}, \ldots, u_{k} / x_{k}\right]$.

Proposition 2.28:
If $E$ is a solved form then $\sigma_{E}$ is am mgu of $E$.

## MM: Main Properties

## Theorem 2.29:

1. If $E \Rightarrow_{M M} E^{\prime}$ then $\sigma$ is a unifier of $E$ iff $\sigma$ is a unifier of $E^{\prime}$
2. If $E \Rightarrow{ }_{M M}^{*} \perp$ then $E$ is not unifiable.
3. If $E \Rightarrow{ }_{M M}^{*} E^{\prime}$ with $E^{\prime}$ in solved form, then $\sigma_{E^{\prime}}$ is an mgu of $E$.

Theorem 2.30:
$E$ is unifiable if and only if there is a most general unifier $\sigma$ of $E$, such that $\sigma$ is idempotent and $\operatorname{dom}(\sigma) \cup \operatorname{codom}(\sigma) \subseteq \operatorname{var}(E)$.

Problem: exponential growth of terms possible

## Example of resolution step

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C_{1} \vee L=p(x, x) \vee \underbrace{p(a, x)}_{L} \\
& D_{1} \vee \neg L^{\prime}=\underbrace{\neg p(y, y)}_{\neg L^{\prime}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Most general unifier of $L, L^{\prime}$ :

$$
\begin{array}{rlr}
\{p(a, x) \doteq p(y, y)\} & \Rightarrow_{M M} & \{a \doteq y, x \doteq y\} \\
& \Rightarrow_{M M} & \{y \doteq a, x \doteq a\}
\end{array}
$$

$\sigma=m g u\left(L, L^{\prime}\right)=[a / y, a / x]$

$$
\frac{C_{1} \vee L \quad C_{2} \vee \neg L^{\prime}}{C_{1} \sigma \cup C_{2} \sigma}
$$

Resolvent: $p(x, x) \sigma=p(a, a)$

## Example

1. $\quad P(x) \vee P(f(x)) \vee \neg Q(x)$
2. $\neg P(y)$
3. $P\left(g\left(x^{\prime}, x\right)\right) \vee Q(x)$

## Example

1. $P(x) \vee P(f(x)) \vee \neg Q(x) \quad$ [Given]
2. $\neg P(y)$
3. $P\left(g\left(x^{\prime}, x^{\prime \prime}\right)\right) \vee Q\left(x^{\prime \prime}\right)$
4. $P(f(x)) \vee \neg Q(x)$
5. $\neg Q(x)$
6. $Q\left(x^{\prime \prime}\right)$
7. $\perp$
[Given]
[Given; Rename variables]
[Res. 1, 2]; $\sigma_{1}=[x / y]$
$\left[\right.$ Res. 4, 2]; $\sigma_{2}=[f(x) / y]$
[Res. 3, 2]; $\sigma_{3}=\left[g\left(x^{\prime}, x^{\prime \prime}\right) / y\right]$
[res. 5, 6]; $\sigma_{4}=\left[x / x^{\prime \prime}\right]$

## Ordered Resolution with Selection

Motivation: Search space for Res very large.

- Ordering on literals
- Selection function


## Resolution Calculus Ress $_{\zeta}^{\succ}$

In the completeness proof, we talk about (strictly) maximal literals of ground clauses.

In the non-ground calculus, we have to consider those literals that correspond to (strictly) maximal literals of ground instances:

Let $\succ$ be a total and well-founded ordering on ground atoms. A literal $L$ is called [strictly] maximal in a clause $C$ if and only if there exists a ground substitution $\sigma$ such that for all $L^{\prime}$ in $C$ : $L \sigma \succeq L^{\prime} \sigma\left[L \sigma \succ L^{\prime} \sigma\right]$.

## Resolution Calculus $\operatorname{Res}_{S}^{\succ}$

Let $\succ$ be an atom ordering and $S$ a selection function.

$$
\frac{C \vee A \quad \neg B \vee D}{(C \vee D) \sigma}
$$

## [ordered resolution with selection]

if $\sigma=\mathrm{mgu}(A, B)$ and
(i) $A \sigma$ strictly maximal wrt. $C \sigma$;
(ii) nothing is selected in $C$ by $S$;
(iii) either $\neg B$ is selected, or else nothing is selected in $\neg B \vee D$ and $\neg B \sigma$ is maximal in $D \sigma$.

## Resolution Calculus $\operatorname{Res}_{S}^{\succ}$

$$
\frac{C \vee A \vee B}{(C \vee A) \sigma} \quad \text { [ordered factoring] }
$$

if $\sigma=\operatorname{mgu}(A, B)$ and $A \sigma$ is maximal in $C \sigma$ and nothing is selected in $C$.

### 2.3 Semantic Tableaux

Properties of tableau calculi:
analytic: inferences according to the logical content of the symbols.
goal oriented: inferences operate directly on the goal to be proved (unlike, e.g., ordered resolution).
global: some inferences affect the entire proof state (set of formulas), as we will see later.

## Propositional Expansion Rules

Expansion rules are applied to the formulas in a tableau and expand the tableau at a leaf. We append the conclusions of a rule (horizontally or vertically) at a leaf, whenever the premise of the expansion rule matches a formula appearing anywhere on the path from the root to that leaf.

Negation Elimination

$$
\frac{\neg \neg F}{F} \quad \frac{\neg T}{\perp} \quad \frac{\neg \perp}{\top}
$$

## Propositional Expansion Rules

## $\alpha$-Expansion

(for formulas that are essentially conjunctions: append subformulas $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ one on top of the other)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\alpha}{\alpha_{1}} \\
& \alpha_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## $\beta$-Expansion

(for formulas that are essentially disjunctions: append $\beta_{1}$ and $\beta_{2}$ horizontally, i. e., branch into $\beta_{1}$ and $\beta_{2}$ )

$$
\frac{\beta}{\beta_{1} \mid \beta_{2}}
$$

## Classification of Formulas

| conjunctive |  |  | disjunctive |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\alpha$ | $\alpha_{1}$ | $\alpha_{2}$ | $\beta$ | $\beta_{1}$ | $\beta_{2}$ |
| $X \wedge Y$ | $X$ | $Y$ | $\neg(X \wedge Y)$ | $\neg X$ | $\neg Y$ |
| $\neg(X \vee Y)$ | $\neg X$ | $\neg Y$ | $X \vee Y$ | $X$ | $Y$ |
| $\neg(X \rightarrow Y)$ | $X$ | $\neg Y$ | $X \rightarrow Y$ | $\neg X$ | $Y$ |

We assume that the binary connective $\leftrightarrow$ has been eliminated in advance.

## Tableaux: Notions

A semantic tableau is a marked (by formulas), finite, unordered tree and inductively defined as follows: Let $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ be a set of formulas.
(i) The tree consisting of a single path

$$
\begin{gathered}
F_{1} \\
\vdots \\
F_{n}
\end{gathered}
$$

is a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$.
(We do not draw edges if nodes have only one successor.)
(ii) If $T$ is a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ and if $T^{\prime}$ results from $T$ by applying an expansion rule then $T^{\prime}$ is also a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$.

## A Sample Proof

One starts out from the negation of the formula to be proved.


There are three paths, each of them closed.

## Properties of Propositional Tableaux

We assume that $T$ is a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$.

Theorem. $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ satisfiable $\Leftrightarrow$ some path (i.e., the set of its formulas) in $T$ is satisfiable.

Corollary. $T$ closed $\Rightarrow\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ unsatisfiable
Theorem. Let $T$ be a strict propositional tableau. Then $T$ is finite.
Conclusion: Strict and maximal tableaux can be effectively constructed.

## Refutational Completeness

Theorem $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ satisfiable $\Leftrightarrow$ there exists no closed strict tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$.

Consequences The validity of a propositional formula $F$ can be established by constructing a strict, maximal tableau for $\{\neg F\}$ :

- $T$ closed $\Leftrightarrow F$ valid.
- It suffices to test complementarity of paths wrt. atomic formulas.
- Which of the potentially many strict, maximal tableaux one computes does not matter. In other words, tableau expansion rules can be applied don't-care non-deterministically ("proof confluence").
- The expansion strategy can have a dramatic impact on tableau size.
- Since it is sufficient to saturate paths wrt. ordered resolution (up to redundancy), tableau expansion rules can be even more restricted, in particular by certain ordering constraints.


## Semantic Tableaux for First-Order Logic

Additional classification of quantified formulas:

| universal |  | existential |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\gamma$ | $\gamma(t)$ | $\delta$ | $\delta(t)$ |
| $\forall x F$ | $F[t / x]$ | $\exists x F$ | $F[t / x]$ |
| $\neg \exists x F$ | $\neg F[t / x]$ | $\neg \forall x F$ | $\neg F[t / x]$ |

Moreover we assume that the set of variables $X$ is partitioned into 2 disjoint infinite subsets $X_{g}$ and $X_{f}$, so that bound [free] variables variables can be chosen from $X_{g}\left[X_{f}\right]$. (This avoids the variable capturing problem.)

## Additional Expansion Rules

$\gamma$-expansion

$$
\frac{\gamma}{\gamma(x)} \quad \text { where } x \text { is a variable in } X_{f}
$$

$\delta$-expansion

$$
\frac{\delta}{\delta\left(f\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)\right)}
$$

where $f$ is a new Skolem function, and the $x_{i}$ are the free variables in $\delta$

## Additional Expansion Rules

Skolemization becomes part of the calculus and needs not necessarily be applied in a preprocessing step. Of course, one could do Skolemization beforehand, and then the $\delta$-rule would not be needed.

Note that the rules are parametric, instantiated by the choices for $x$ and $f$, respectively. Strictness here means that only one instance of the rule is applied on each path to any formula on the path.

In this form the rules go back to Hähnle and Schmitt: The liberalized $\delta$-rule in free variable semantic tableaux, J. Automated Reasoning 13,2, 1994, 211-221.

## Definition: Free-Variable Tableau

Let $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ be a set of closed formulas.
$F_{1}$
(i) The tree consisting of a single path: : is a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$.

$$
F_{n}
$$

(ii) If $T$ is a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ and if $T^{\prime}$ results by applying an expansion rule to $T$, then $T^{\prime}$ is also a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$.
(iii) If $T$ is a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ and if $\sigma$ is a substitution, then $T \sigma$ is also a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$.

The substitution rule (iii) may, potentially, modify all the formulas of a tableau. This feature makes the tableau method a global proof method. (Resolution, by comparison, is a local method.) If one took (iii) literally, by repeated application of $\gamma$-rule one could enumerate all substitution instances of the universally quantified formulas (major drawback compared with resolution). Fortunately, we can improve on this.

## Example

| 1. | $\neg[\exists w \forall x p(x, w, f(x, w)) \rightarrow \exists w \forall x \exists y p(x, w, y)]$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | ---: |
| 2. | $\exists w \forall x p(x, w, f(x, w))$ | $1_{1}[\alpha]$ |
| 3. | $\neg \exists w \forall x \exists y p(x, w, y)$ | $1_{2}[\alpha]$ |
| 4. | $\forall x p(x, a, f(x, a))$ | $2(a)[\delta]$ |
| 5. | $\neg \forall x \exists y p\left(x, v_{1}, y\right)$ | $3\left(v_{1}\right)[\gamma]$ |
| 6. | $\neg \exists y p\left(b\left(v_{1}\right), v_{1}, y\right)$ | $5\left(b\left(v_{1}\right)\right)[\delta]$ |
| 7. | $p\left(v_{2}, a, f\left(v_{2}, a\right)\right)$ | $4\left(v_{2}\right)[\gamma]$ |
| 8. | $\neg p\left(b\left(v_{1}\right), v_{1}, v_{3}\right)$ | $6\left(v_{3}\right)[\gamma]$ |

7. and 8. are complementary (modulo unification):

$$
v_{2} \doteq b\left(v_{1}\right), a \doteq v_{1}, \quad f\left(v_{2}, a\right) \doteq v_{3}
$$

is solvable with an mgu $\sigma=\left[a / v_{1}, b(a) / v_{2}, f(b(a), a) / v_{3}\right]$, and hence, $T \sigma$ is a closed (linear) tableau for the formula in 1.

## AMGU-Tableaux

Idea: Restrict the substitution rule to unifiers of complementary formulas.

We speak of an AMGU-Tableau, whenever the substitution rule is only applied for substitutions $\sigma$ for which there is a path in $T$ containing two literals $\neg A$ and $B$ such that $\sigma=\operatorname{mgu}(A, B)$.

## Correctness

Given an signature $\Sigma$, by $\Sigma^{\text {sko }}$ we denote the result of adding infinitely many new Skolem function symbols which we may use in the $\delta$-rule.

Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a $\Sigma^{\text {sko }}$-interpretation, $T$ a tableau, and $\beta$ a variable assignment over $\mathcal{A}$.
$T$ is called $(\mathcal{A}, \beta)$-valid, if there is a path $P_{\beta}$ in $T$ such that $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$, for each formula $F$ on $P_{\beta}$.
$T$ is called satisfiable if there exists a structure $\mathcal{A}$ such that for each assignment $\beta$ the tableau $T$ is $(\mathcal{A}, \beta)$-valid.
(This implies that we may choose $P_{\beta}$ depending on $\beta$.)

## Correctness

## Theorem 2.52:

Let $T$ be a tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$, where the $F_{i}$ are closed $\Sigma$-formulas. Then $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ is satisfiable $\Leftrightarrow T$ is satisfiable.
(Proof of " $\Rightarrow$ " by induction over the depth of $T$. For $\delta$ one needs to reuse the ideas for proving that Skolemization preserves [un-]satisfiability.)

## Incompleteness of Strictness

Strictness for $\gamma$ is incomplete:


If we placed a strictness requirement also on applications of $\gamma$, the tableau would only be expandable by the substitution rule. However, there is no substitution (for $v_{1}$ ) that can close both paths simultaneously.

## Multiple Application of $\gamma$ Solves the Problem

$$
\left.\begin{array}{lcc}
\text { 1. } & \neg[\forall x p(x) \rightarrow(p(a) \wedge p(b))] & \\
\text { 2. } & \forall x p(x) & 1_{1} \\
\text { 3. } & \neg(p(a) \wedge p(b)) & 1_{2} \\
\text { 4. } & p\left(v_{1}\right) & 2_{v_{1}} \\
\text { 5. } & \neg p(a) & 3_{1}
\end{array} \begin{array}{lll}
\text { 6. } & \neg p(b) & 3_{2} \\
& & 7 .
\end{array}\right) p\left(v_{2}\right) \quad 2_{v_{2}}
$$

The point is that different applications of $\gamma$ to $\forall x p(x)$ may employ different free variables for $x$.

Now, by two applications of the AMGU-rule, we obtain the substitution $\left[a / v_{1}, b / v_{2}\right]$ closing the tableau.

## Multiple Application of $\gamma$ Solves the Problem

Therefore strictness for $\gamma$ should from now on mean that each instance of $\gamma$ (depending on the choice of the free variable) is applied at most once to each $\gamma$-formula on any path.

## Refutational Completeness

## Theorem 2.53:

$\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$ satisfiable $\Leftrightarrow$ there exists no closed, strict AMGU-Tableau for $\left\{F_{1}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}$.

For the proof one defines a fair tableau expansion process converging against an infinite tableau where on each path each $\gamma$-formula is expanded into all its variants (modulo the choice of the free variable).

One may then again show that each path in that tableau is saturated (up to redundancy) by resolution. This requires to apply the lifting lemma for resolution in order to show completeness of the AMGU-restriction.

## How Often Do we Have to Apply $\gamma$ ?

## Theorem 2.54:

There is no recursive function $f: F_{\Sigma} \times F_{\Sigma} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ such that, if the closed formula $F$ is unsatisfiable, then there exists a closed tableau for $F$ where to all formulas $\forall x G$ appearing in $T$ the $\gamma$-rule is applied at most $f(F, \forall x G)$ times on each path containing $\forall x G$.

Otherwise unsatisfiability or, respectively, validity for first-order logic would be decidable. In fact, one would be able to enumerate in finite time all tableaux bounded in depth as indicated by $f$. In other words, free-variable tableaux are not recursively bounded in their depth.

Again $\forall$ is treated like an infinite conjunction. By repeatedly applying $\gamma$, together with the substitution rule, one can enumerate all instances $F[t / x]$ vertically, that is, conjunctively, in each path containing $\forall x F$.

## Semantic Tableaux vs. Resolution

- Both methods are machine methods on which today's provers are based upon.
- Tableaux: global, goal-oriented, "backward".
- Resolution: local, "forward".
- Goal-orientation is a clear advantage if only a small subset of a large set of formulas is necessary for a proof. (Note that resolution provers saturate also those parts of the clause set that are irrelevant for proving the goal.)


## Semantic Tableaux vs. Resolution

- Like resolution, the tableau method, in order to be useful in practice, must be accompanied by refinements: lemma generation, ordering restrictions, efficient term and proof data structures.
- Resolution can be combined with more powerful redundancy elimination methods.
- Because of its global nature redundancy elimination is more difficult for the tableau method.
- Resolution can be refined to work well with equality and algebraic structures; for tableaux this is more problematic.

