

# PROPOSITIONAL LOGIC (2)

based on

Huth & Ruan

Logic in Computer Science:  
Modelling and Reasoning about Systems  
Cambridge University Press, 2004

Russell & Norvig

Artificial Intelligence:  
A Modern Approach  
Prentice Hall, 2010

# Natural deduction: Or-elimination

- If all of these conditions are true:
  - under the assumption that  $\varphi$  is true,  $\chi$  is true
  - under the assumption that  $\psi$  is true,  $\chi$  is true
  - formula  $\phi \vee \psi$  is truethen  $\chi$  is true

# Natural deduction: Or-elimination

1.	$\phi \rightarrow \chi$	premise
2.	$\psi \rightarrow \chi$	premise
3.	$\phi \vee \psi$	premise
4.	$\phi$	assumption
5.	$\chi$	$\rightarrow e$ 1,4
6.	$\psi$	assumption
7.	$\chi$	$\rightarrow e$ 2,6
8.	$\chi$	$\vee e$ 3,4-5, 6-7

assumptions  
for both cases  
in the or

Now prove that  $q \rightarrow r \vdash p \vee q \rightarrow p \vee r$   
 $p \wedge (q \vee r) \vdash (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$

# Natural deduction: Not-elimination

- If  $\phi$  and  $\neg\phi$  are true, then the formula is a contradiction / in conflict
- One can conclude anything from a contradiction

1.	$\phi \rightarrow \neg\phi$	premise	
2.	$\phi$	premise	
3.	$\neg\phi$	$\rightarrow e$ 1,2	
4.	$\perp$	$\neg e$ 2,3	← contradiction found
5.	$\chi$	$\perp e$ 4	← anything can be concluded from a contradiction

Now prove that  $\neg p \vee q \vdash p \rightarrow q$

anything can be concluded from a contradiction

# Natural deduction: Not-introduction

- If the assumption that  $\phi$  is true leads to a contradiction, then  $\neg\phi$  is true

1.	$\phi \rightarrow \neg\phi$	premise
2.	$\phi$	assumption
3.	$\neg\phi$	$\rightarrow e$ 1,2
4.	$\perp$	$\neg e$ 2,3
5.	$\neg\phi$	$\neg i$ 2-4

Now prove that  $p \rightarrow q, p \rightarrow \neg q \vdash \neg p$

# Natural deduction: Overview

- We saw rules for
  - And-introduction, and-elimination
  - Or-introduction, or-elimination
  - Not-introduction, not-elimination
  - Implication-introduction, implication-elimination
  - Double negation

the two latter rules are actually redundant

# Natural deduction: “Emulating” modus tollens

1.	$\phi \rightarrow \psi$	premise
2.	$\neg\psi$	premise
3.	$\phi$	assumption
4.	$\psi$	$\rightarrow e$ 1,3
5.	$\perp$	$\neg e$ 2,4
6.	$\neg\phi$	$\neg i$ 3-5

# Natural deduction: “Emulating” double negation

1.	$\phi$	premise
2.	$\neg\phi$	assumption
3.	$\perp$	$\neg e$ 1,2
4.	$\neg\neg\phi$	$\neg i$ 2-3



# Natural deduction & Semantic entailment

- Reminder: it can be shown that the rules of natural deduction are
  - sound
  - complete

Natural deduction is mostly used by humans to prove entailment, but its use in computer programs is rare.

# Normal Forms

- To efficiently process formulas in computer programs, these programs often only accept restricted types of formulas.
  - Clauses
  - Formulas in conjunctive normal form (CNF)
  - Formulas in disjunctive normal form (DNF)
  - Horn clauses

# Clauses

- Clauses are formulas consisting only of  $\vee$  and  $\neg$

$$p \vee q \vee \neg r$$
$$\neg p \vee \neg q$$

(brackets within a clause are not allowed!)

they can also be written using  $\rightarrow$ ,  $\vee$  (after  $\rightarrow$ ) and  $\wedge$  (before  $\rightarrow$ )

$$r \rightarrow p \vee q$$
$$p \wedge q \rightarrow \perp$$
$$\top \rightarrow p \vee q$$
$$\top \rightarrow \perp$$

Clause without positive literal

Clause without negative literal

Empty clause is considered *false*

an atom or its negation is called a *literal*

# Conjunctive & Disjunctive Normal Form

- A formula is in **conjunctive normal form** if it consists of a conjunction of clauses

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

- “conjunction of disjunctions”
- A formula is in **disjunctive normal form** if it consists of a disjunction of conjunctions

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

# Conjunctive & Disjunctive Normal Form

- The transformation from CNF to DNF is exponential

$$(p_1 \vee q_1) \wedge (p_2 \vee q_2) \wedge (p_3 \vee q_3) = \begin{aligned} & (p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge p_3) \vee \\ & (p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge q_3) \vee \\ & (p_1 \wedge q_2 \wedge p_3) \vee \\ & (p_1 \wedge q_2 \wedge q_3) \vee \\ & (q_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge p_3) \vee \\ & (q_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge q_3) \vee \\ & (q_1 \wedge q_2 \wedge p_3) \vee \\ & (q_1 \wedge q_2 \wedge q_3) \end{aligned}$$

# Conjunctive Normal Form

- Any formula can be written in CNF

$$\begin{aligned}(p \vee q \rightarrow r) \vee (q \rightarrow p) &= \neg(p \vee q) \vee r \vee \neg q \vee p \\ &= (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \vee r \vee \neg q \vee p \\ &= (\neg p \vee r \vee \neg q \vee p) \\ &\quad \wedge (\neg q \vee r \vee \neg q \vee p) \\ &= (\neg q \vee r \vee p)\end{aligned}$$

(consequently, any formula can also be written in DNF, but the DNF formula may be exponentially larger)

# Checking Satisfiability of Formulas in DNF

- Checking DNF satisfiability is easy: process one conjunction at a time; if at least one conjunction is not a contradiction, the formula is satisfiable
  - DNF satisfiability can be decided in polynomial time

$$(p_1 \wedge p_3 \wedge \neg p_3) \vee$$

$$(p_1 \wedge \neg p_2 \wedge \neg p_3) \vee$$

$$(p_1 \wedge \neg p_2 \wedge p_3) \vee$$

$$(\neg p_1 \wedge p_3 \wedge \neg p_3) \vee$$

Conversion to DNF is not feasible in most cases  
(exponential blowup)

# Checking Satisfiability of Formulas in CNF

- No polynomial algorithm is known for checking the satisfiability of arbitrary CNF formulas

Example: we could use such an algorithm to solve graph coloring with  $k$  colors

- for each node  $i$ , create a formula

$$\phi_i = p_{i1} \vee p_{i2} \vee \cdots \vee p_{ik}$$

indicating that each node  $i$  must have a color

- for each node  $i$  and different pair of colors  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ , create a formula

$$\phi_{ic_1c_2} = \neg(p_{ic_1} \wedge p_{ic_2}) = \neg p_{ic_1} \vee \neg p_{ic_2}$$

indicating a node may not have more than 1 color

- for each edge, create  $k$  formulas

$$\phi_{ijc} = \neg(p_{ic} \wedge p_{jc}) = \neg p_{ic} \vee \neg p_{jc}$$

indicating that a pair connected nodes  $i$  and  $j$  may not both have color  $c$  at the same time



# Resolution Rule

Essential in most satisfiability solvers for CNF formulas is the **resolution rule** for clauses:

Given two clauses  $l_1 \vee \dots \vee l_k$  and  $m_1 \vee \dots \vee m_n$ , where  $l_1, \dots, l_k, m_1, \dots, m_n$  represent literals and it holds that  $l_i = \neg m_j$ , then it holds that

$$l_1 \vee \dots \vee l_k, m_1 \vee \dots \vee \dots \vee m_n \vdash_R \\ l_1 \vee \dots \vee l_{i-1} \vee l_{i+1} \vee \dots \vee l_k \vee m_1 \vee \dots \vee m_{j-1} \vee m_{j+1} \vee \dots \vee m_n$$

Example:  $p \vee q \vee \neg r, r \vee s \vdash_R p \vee q \vee s$   
 $r \rightarrow p \vee q, r \vee s \vdash_R p \vee q \vee s$

# Proof for Resolution

on an example

1.	$p \vee q$	premise
2.	$q \rightarrow r$	premise
3.	$p$	assumption
4.	$p \vee r$	$\vee i$ 3
5.	$q$	assumption
6.	$r$	$\rightarrow e$ 2,5
7.	$p \vee r$	$\vee i$ 6
8.	$p \vee r$	$\vee e$ 1,3-4, 5-7

$\neg q \vee r$



# Definite clauses & Horn clauses

- A **definite clause** is a clause with exactly one positive literal

$$p, q, p \wedge q \rightarrow t$$

- A **horn clause** is a clause with at most one positive literal

$$p, q, p \wedge q \rightarrow t, p \wedge q \rightarrow \perp$$

A clause with one positive literal is called a **fact**

# Forward chaining for Definite clauses

- The forward chaining algorithm calculates facts that can be entailed from a set of definite clauses

$C$  = initial set of definite clauses

repeat

if there is a clause  $p_1, \dots, p_n \rightarrow q$  in  $C$  where  $p_1, \dots, p_n$  are facts in  $C$  then

add fact  $q$  to  $C$

end if

until no fact could be added

return all facts in  $C$



Resolution

This algorithm is complete for facts: any fact that is entailed, will be derived.

# Forward chaining for Horn clauses

- We now also allow to add  $\perp$  and other clauses without positive literals to  $\mathcal{C}$
- We stop immediately  $\perp$  when is found, and return that the set of formulas is contradictory.

$$\mathbf{C}_1 = \{p, p \rightarrow q, p \wedge q \rightarrow r, r \rightarrow \perp\}$$

$$\mathbf{C}_2 = \{p, q, p \rightarrow q, p \wedge q \rightarrow r, r \rightarrow \perp\}$$

$$\mathbf{C}_3 = \{p, q, r, p \rightarrow q, p \wedge q \rightarrow r, r \rightarrow \perp\}$$

$$\mathbf{C}_4 = \{p, q, r, \perp, p \rightarrow q, p \wedge q \rightarrow r, r \rightarrow \perp\}$$

Note:

- 1) a set of definite clauses is always satisfiable.
- 2) we can decide in linear time whether a set of Horn clauses is satisfiable.

# Deciding entailment for Horn clauses

- Suppose we would like to know whether

$$C_1, \dots, C_n \models p_1, \dots, p_n \rightarrow q$$

where  $C_1, \dots, C_n$  are Horn clauses; then it suffices to determine whether

$$C_1, \dots, C_n, p_1, \dots, p_n \vdash_R q$$

(we can show this by means of  $\rightarrow$  introduction)

- As entailment of facts can be decided in linear time, Horn clause entailment can be determined in linear time as well

# Deciding satisfiability of CNF formulas: DPLL

- The DPLL algorithm for deciding satisfiability was proposed by Davis, Putman, Logeman and Loveland (1960, 1962)
- General ideas:
  - we perform **depth-first** over the space of all possible valuations
  - based on a partial valuation, we **simplify** the formula to remove redundant literals
  - based on the formula, we **fix** the valuation of as many atoms as possible



# DPLL: Simplification

- If the valuation of atom  $p$  is “true”
  - every clause in which literal  $p$  occurs, is removed
  - from every clause in which  $p$  is negated,  $\neg p$  is removed

$$\{p = true\}, (p \vee q) \wedge (q \vee \neg r) \Rightarrow \{p = true\}, (q \vee \neg r)$$
$$\{p = true\}, (\neg p \vee q) \wedge (q \vee \neg r) \Rightarrow \{p = true\}, (q \wedge (q \vee \neg r))$$



similar to resolution

- Similarly, if the valuation of atom  $p$  is “false”
  - every clause in which literal  $\neg p$  occurs, is removed
  - from every clause in which  $p$  occurs, literal  $p$  is removed

# DPLL: Simplification

- Special case 1 of simplification is when an empty clause is obtained, i.e. the clause  $\perp$

$$\begin{aligned} \{p = true\}, \neg p \wedge (q \vee r) &\Rightarrow \{p = true\}, \perp \wedge (q \vee r) \\ &\Rightarrow \{p = true\}, \perp \end{aligned}$$

- in this case the current valuation can never be extended to a valuation that satisfies the formula
- Special case 2 of simplification is when the empty CNF formula is obtained, i.e. the formula  $\top$

$$\{p=false\}, \neg p \Rightarrow \{p = false\}, \top$$

- in this case we have found a satisfying valuation

# DPLL: Pure symbols

- If an atom always has the same sign in a formula (i.e., the literals  $p$  and  $\neg p$  do not occur at the same time), the atom is called *pure*. We fix the valuation of a pure atom to the value indicated by this sign

$$\emptyset, (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee \neg r) \Rightarrow \{p = \text{true}\}, (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee \neg r)$$

$$\emptyset, (\neg p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg r) \Rightarrow \{p = \text{false}\}, (\neg p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg r)$$

- Note: we can apply simplification afterwards and remove redundant clauses

# DPLL: Unit clauses

- If a clause consists of only one literal (positive or negative), this clause is called a *unit clause*. We fix the valuation of an atom occurring in a unit clause to the value indicated by the sign of the literal.

$$\emptyset, p \wedge (q \vee r) \Rightarrow \{p = \text{true}\}, p \wedge (q \vee r)$$

- Also here, we apply simplification afterwards; after simplification, we may have new unit clauses, which we can use again; this process is called *unit propagation*

$$\emptyset, p \wedge (\neg p \vee r)$$

$$\Rightarrow \{p = \text{true}\}, p \wedge (\neg p \vee r)$$

$$\Rightarrow \{p = \text{true}\}, r \qquad \Rightarrow \{p = \text{true}, r = \text{true}\}, r$$

# DPLL Algorithm

**DPLL** ( valuations  $V$ , formula  $\varphi$  )

$\varphi'$  = simplification of  $\varphi$  based on  $V$

**if**  $\varphi'$  is an empty formula **then return true**

**if**  $\varphi'$  contains the empty clause **then return false**

**if**  $\varphi'$  contains a pure atom  $p$  with sign  $v$  **then**

**return DPLL**( $V \cup \{p=v\}$ ,  $\varphi'$ )

**if**  $\varphi'$  contains a unit clause for atom  $p$  with sign  $v$  **then**

**return DPLL**( $V \cup \{p=v\}$ ,  $\varphi'$ )

let  $p$  be an arbitrary atom occurring in  $\varphi'$

**if** **DPLL**( $V \cup \{p=true\}$ ,  $\varphi'$ ) **then return true**

**else return DPLL**( $V \cup \{p=false\}$ ,  $\varphi'$ )

# Optimizations of DPLL

- **Component analysis**: if the clauses can be partitioned such that variables are not shared between clauses in different partitions, we solve the partitions independently

$$\underbrace{(p \vee q) \wedge (\neg p)}_{\text{component 1}} \wedge \underbrace{(r \vee s) \wedge r}_{\text{component 2}}$$

- **Value and variable ordering**: when choosing the next atom to fix, try to be clever (i.e. pick one that occurs in many clauses)

# Optimizations of DPLL

- **Clause learning**: if a contradiction is found, try to find out which assignments caused this contradiction, and add a clause (entailed by the original CNF formula) to avoid this combination of assignments in the future

## **Example**

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

Note: no unit propagation or pure literals present, branching necessary.

# Optimizations for DPLL

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

No propagation possible, branch with  $p=true$

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

No propagation possible, branch with  $q=true$

$$(r \vee t) \wedge (\neg r \vee t) \wedge (r \vee \neg t) \wedge (\neg r \vee \neg t)$$

No propagation possible, branch with  $r=true$

$$t \wedge \neg t$$

Conflict found in  $t \rightarrow$  apply resolution on  $t$  for the original versions of conflicting clauses  $(\neg r \vee t) \wedge (\neg r \vee \neg t)$

$\rightarrow$  clause  $\neg r$  is entailed by the original formula, add  $\neg r$  as learned clause to original formula  $\rightarrow$  apply propagation on this formula new  $\rightarrow p=true, q=true, r=false \rightarrow$  search stops



# Optimizations for DPLL

- **Random restarts**: if the search is unsuccessful too long, stop the search, and start from scratch with learned clauses (and possibly a different variable/value ordering)
- **Clever indexing**: use heavily optimized data structures for storing clauses, atoms, and lists of clauses in which atoms occur
- **Portfolios**: run several different solvers for a short time; use data gathered from these runs to select the final solver to execute

# Applications of SAT solvers

- Model checking
- Planning
- Scheduling
- Experiment design
- Protocol design (networks)
- Multi-agent systems
- E-commerce
- Software package management
- Learning automata
- ...

# First order logic

- Essentially, first order logic adds variables in logic formulas

Assume we have three cats (Anna, Bella, Cat), and cats have tails.

In **propositional logic**, we could write:

$\text{iscatAnna}, \text{iscatBella}, \text{iscatCat}, \text{iscatAnna} \rightarrow \text{hastailAnna},$   
 $\text{iscatBella} \rightarrow \text{hastailBella}, \text{iscatCat} \rightarrow \text{hastailCat}.$

In **first order logic**, we would write:

$\text{iscat}(\text{anna}), \text{iscat}(\text{bella}), \text{iscat}(\text{anna}), \quad \forall X \text{iscat}(X) \rightarrow \text{hastail}(X)$