# Classical Propositional Logic Software Formal Verification 

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## Introduction

- The language of propositional logic is based on propositions, or declarative sentences which one can, in principle, argue as being "true" or "false".
"The capital of Portugal is Braga."
"D. Afonso Herriques was the first king of Portugal."
- Propositional symbols are the atomic formulas of the language. More complex sentences are constructed using logical connectives.
- In classical propositional logic (PL) each sentence is either true or false.
- In fact, the content of the propositions is not relevant to PL. PL is not the study of truth, but of the relationship between the truth of one statement and that of another.


## Syntax

- Propositional variables: $P, Q, R, \ldots \in \mathcal{V}_{\text {Prop }}$ (a countably infinite set)
- Logical connectives: $\perp, \top, \neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow$

The set $\mathcal{S}$ of formulas of propositional logic is given by the abstract syntax

$$
\mathcal{S} \ni A, B::=P|\perp| \top|\neg A| A \wedge B|A \vee B| A \rightarrow B
$$

We let $A, B, C, F, G, H, \ldots$ range over $\mathcal{S}$.

In absence of parentheses, we adopt the following convention about precedence. Ranging from the highest precedence to the lowest, we have respectively: $\neg, \wedge, \vee$ and $\rightarrow$. Implication $\rightarrow$ is right-associative: expressions of the form $P \rightarrow Q \rightarrow R$ denote $P \rightarrow(Q \rightarrow R)$.

## Semantics

The semantics of a logic provides its meaning. What exactly is meaning? In propositional logic, meaning is given by the truth values true and false, where true $\neq$ false. We will represent true by 1 and false by 0 .

An assignment is a function $\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{V}_{\text {Prop }} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$, that assigns to every propositional variable a truth value.
An assignment $\mathcal{A}$ naturally extends to all formulas, $\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$. The truth value of a formula is computed using truth tables:

| $F$ | $A$ | $B$ | $\neg A$ | $A \wedge B$ | $A \vee B$ | $A \rightarrow B$ | $\perp$ | $\top$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathcal{A}_{1}(F)$ | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| $\mathcal{A}_{2}(F)$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| $\mathcal{A}_{3}(F)$ | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| $\mathcal{A}_{4}(F)$ | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

## Semantics

Let $\mathcal{A}$ be an assignment and let $F$ be a formula.
If $\mathcal{A}(F)=1$, then we say $F$ holds under assignment $\mathcal{A}$, or $\mathcal{A}$ models $F$. We write $\mathcal{A} \models F$ iff $\mathcal{A}(F)=1$, and $\mathcal{A} \not \models F$ iff $\mathcal{A}(F)=0$.

An alternative (inductive) definition of $\mathcal{A} \models F$ is

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\mathcal{A} \models T & \\
\mathcal{A} \not \models \perp & & \\
\mathcal{A} \models P & \text { iff } & \mathcal{A}(P)=1 \\
\mathcal{A} \models \neg A & \text { iff } & \mathcal{A} \not \models A \\
\mathcal{A} \models A \wedge B & \text { iff } & \mathcal{A} \models A \text { and } \mathcal{A} \models B \\
\mathcal{A} \models A \vee B & \text { iff } & \mathcal{A} \models A \text { or } \mathcal{A} \models B \\
\mathcal{A} \models A \rightarrow B & \text { iff } & \mathcal{A} \not \models A \text { or } \mathcal{A} \models B
\end{array}
$$

## Validity, satisfiability, and contradiction

A formula $F$ is
valid iff it holds under every assignment. We write $\models F$. A valid formula is called a tautology.
satisfiable iff it holds under some assignment.
unsatisfiable iff it holds under no assignment.
An unsatisfiable formula is called a contradiction.

## Proposition

$F$ is valid iff $\neg F$ is a contradiction

- $P \vee \neg P$ is a tautology.
- $A \rightarrow B$ is satisfiable.
- $A \wedge \neg A$ is a contradiction.
- $(A \wedge(A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow B$ is valid.


## Consequence and equivalence

- $F \models G$ iff for every assignment $\mathcal{A}$, if $\mathcal{A} \models F$ then $\mathcal{A} \models G$. We say $G$ is a consequence of $F$.
- $F \equiv G$ iff $F \models G$ and $F \models G$. We say $F$ and $G$ are equivalent.
- Let $\Gamma=\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, F_{3}, \ldots\right\}$ be a set of formulas.
$\mathcal{A} \models \Gamma$ iff $\mathcal{A} \models F_{i}$ for each formula $F_{i}$ in $\Gamma$. We say $\mathcal{A}$ models $\Gamma$.
$\Gamma \models G$ iff $\mathcal{A} \models \Gamma$ implies $\mathcal{A} \models G$ for every assignment $\mathcal{A}$. We say $G$ is a consequence of $\Gamma$.


## Proposition

- $F \models G$ iff $\models F \rightarrow G$
- $\Gamma \models G$ and $\Gamma$ finite iff $\models \bigwedge \Gamma \rightarrow G$


## Some basic equivalences

| $A \vee A$ | $\equiv A$ | $A \wedge \neg A$ | $\equiv \perp$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $A \wedge A$ | $\equiv A$ | $A \vee \neg A$ | $\equiv \top$ |
| $A \vee B$ | $\equiv B \vee A$ | $A \wedge \top$ | $\equiv A$ |
| $A \wedge B$ | $\equiv B \wedge A$ | $A \vee \top$ | $\equiv \top$ |
| $A \wedge(A \vee B)$ | $\equiv A$ | $A \wedge \perp$ | $\equiv \perp$ |
| $A \wedge(B \vee C)$ | $\equiv(A \wedge B) \vee(A \wedge C)$ | $A \vee \perp$ | $\equiv A$ |
| $A \vee(B \wedge C)$ | $\equiv(A \vee B) \wedge(A \vee C)$ | $\neg \neg A$ | $\equiv A$ |
| $\neg(A \vee B)$ | $\equiv \neg A \wedge \neg B$ | $A \rightarrow B$ | $\equiv \neg A \vee B$ |
| $\neg(A \wedge B)$ | $\equiv \neg A \vee \neg B$ |  |  |

## Consistency

Let $\Gamma=\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, F_{3}, \ldots\right\}$ be a set of formulas.

- $\Gamma$ is consistent or satisfiable iff there is an assignment that models $\Gamma$.
- We say that $\Gamma$ is inconsistent iff it is not consistent and denote this by $\Gamma \models \perp$.


## Proposition

- $\{F, \neg F\} \models \perp$
- If $\Gamma \models \perp$ and $\Gamma \subseteq \Delta$, then $\Delta \models \perp$.
- $\Gamma \models F$ iff $\Gamma, \neg F \models \perp$


## Theories

A set of formulas $\mathcal{T}$ is closed under logical consequence iff for all formulas $F$, if $\mathcal{T} \models F$ then $F \in \mathcal{T}$.
$\mathcal{T}$ is a theory iff it is closed under logical consequence. The elements of $\mathcal{T}$ are called theorems.

Let $\Gamma$ be a set of formulas.
$\mathcal{T}(\Gamma)=\{F \mid \Gamma \models F\}$ is called the theory of $\Gamma$.
The formulas of $\Gamma$ are called axioms and the theory $\mathcal{T}(\Gamma)$ is axiomatizable.

## Substitution

- Formula $G$ is a subformula of formula $F$ if it occurs syntactically within $F$.
- Formula $G$ is a strict subformula of $F$ if $G$ is a subformula of $F$ and $G \neq F$


## Substitution theorem

Suppose $F \equiv G$. Let $H$ be a formula that contains $F$ as a subformula.
Let $H^{\prime}$ be the formula obtained by replacing some occurrence of $F$ in $H$ with $G$. Then $H \equiv H^{\prime}$.

## Adquate sets of connectives for PL

There is some redundancy among the logical connectives.
Some smaller adquate sets of conectives for PL:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\{\wedge, \neg\} & \perp \equiv P \wedge \neg P, \quad \top \equiv \neg(P \wedge \neg P), \\
& A \vee B \equiv \neg(\neg A \wedge \neg B), \quad A \rightarrow B \equiv \neg(A \wedge \neg B) \\
\{\vee, \neg\} & \top \equiv A \vee \neg A, \quad \perp \equiv \neg(A \vee \neg A), \\
& A \wedge B \equiv \neg(\neg A \vee \neg B), \quad A \rightarrow B \equiv A \vee B \\
\{\rightarrow, \neg\} & \top \equiv A \rightarrow A, \quad \perp \equiv \neg(A \rightarrow A), \\
& A \vee B \equiv \neg A \rightarrow B, A \wedge B \equiv \neg(A \rightarrow \neg B) \\
& \\
\{\rightarrow, \perp\} & \neg A \equiv A \rightarrow \perp, \top \equiv A \rightarrow A, \\
& A \vee B \equiv(A \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow B), A \wedge B \equiv(A \rightarrow B \rightarrow \perp) \rightarrow \perp
\end{array}
$$

## Decidability

A decision problem is any problem that, given certain input, asks a question to be answered with a "yes" or a "no".

A solution to a decision problem is a program that takes problem instances as input and always terminates, producing a correct "yes" or "no" output. A decision problem is decidable if it has a solution.

Given formulas $F$ and $G$ as input, we may ask:
Decision problems

Validity problem: "Is $F$ valid?"
Satisfiability problem:
Consequence problem:
Equivalence problem:
"Is $F$ satisfiable ?"
"Is $G$ a consequence of $F$ ?"
"Are $F$ and $G$ equivalent ?"

All these problems are decidable!

## Decidability

Any algorithm that works for one of these problems also works for all of these problems!

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
F \text { is satisfiable } & \text { iff } & \neg F \text { is not valid } \\
F \models G & \text { iff } & \neg(F \rightarrow G) \text { is not satisfiable } \\
F \equiv G & \text { iff } & F \models G \text { and } G \models F \\
F \text { is valid } & \text { iff } & F \equiv T
\end{array}
$$

## Truth-table method

For the Satisfiability problem, we first compute a truth table for $F$ and then check to see if its truth value is ever one.

This algorithm certainly works, but is very inefficient.
Its exponential-time! $\mathcal{O}\left(2^{n}\right)$
If $F$ has $n$ atomic formulas, then the truth table for $F$ has $2^{n}$ rows.

## Complexity

An algorithm is polynomial-time if there exists a polynomial $p(x)$ such that given input of size $n$, the algorithm halts in fewer than $p(n)$ steps. The class of all decision problems that can be resolved by some polynomial-time algorithm is denoted by P (or PTIME).

It is not known whether the Satisfiability problem (and the other three decision problems) is in $\mathbf{P}$.

We do not know of a polynomial-time algorithm for satisfiability.

$$
\text { If it exists, then } \mathbf{P}=\mathbf{N P} \text { ! }
$$

The Satisfiability problem for PL (PSAT) is NP-complete.

## Complexity

- A deterministic algorithm is a step-by-step procedure. At any stage of the algorithm, the next step is completely determined.
- In contrast, a nondeterministic algorithm may have more than one possible "next step" at a given stage. That is, there may be more than one computation for a given input.


## NP (nondeterministic polynomial-time) decision problems

Let PROB be an arbitrary decision problem. Given certain input, PROB produces an output of either "yes" or "no". Let $Y$ be the set of all inputs for which PROB produces the output of "yes" and let $N$ be the analogous set of inputs that produce output "no".

- If there exists a nondeterministic algorithm which, given input $x$, can produce the output "yes" in polynomial-time if and only if $x \in Y$, then PROB is in NP.
- If there exists a nondeterministic algorithm which, given input $x$, can produce the output "no" in polynomial-time if and only if $x \in N$, then PROB is in coNP.


## Complexity

Essentially, a decision problem is in NP (coNP ) if a "yes" ("no") answer can be obtained in polynomial-time by guessing.

Satisfiability problem is NP. Given a formula $F$ compute an assignment $\mathcal{A}$ for $F$. If $\mathcal{A}(F)=1$, then $F$ is satisfiable.
Validity problem is co-NP.

## NP-complete

A decision problem $\Pi$ is NP-complete if it is in NP and for every problem $\Pi_{1}$ in NP, $\Pi_{1}$ is polynomially reducible to $\Pi\left(\Pi_{1} \propto \Pi\right)$.

Cook's theorem (1971)
PSAT is NP-complete.

## Decision Procedures for Satisfiability

We have seen the truth-table method for deciding satisfiability.
However this method is very inefficient (exponential on the number of atomic propositions).

The are more efficient algorithms (although not polynomial-time) for the decision problems presented above:

- Semantic Tableaux
- Resolution
- Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland algorithm (DPLL)


## Proof system

A logic, by definition, has rules for deducing the truth of one sentence from that of another. These rules yield a system of formal proof.

A proof system consists of a set of basic rules for derivations. These rules allow us to deduce formulas from sets of formulas.

- It may take several steps to derive a given formula $G$ from a set of formulas $\Gamma$, where each step is an application of one of the basic rules. The list of these steps forms a formal proof of $G$ from $\Gamma$.
- We write: $\Gamma \vdash G$ to abbreviate " $G$ can be derived from $\Gamma$ ".
- We want a proof system that is sound: if $\Gamma \vdash G$, then $\Gamma \models G$.


## Natural deduction in sequent style

- The proof system we introduce is called Natural Deduction, because the rules embody patterns familiar in ordinary reasoning, or at least in mathematical proof.
- The statement $\Gamma \vdash G$ is called a sequent. $\Gamma$ represent the set of hypothesis and current assumptions, and is called the context of the sequent.
- We will present Natural Deduction in sequent style.
- It gives a clear representation of the discharging of assumptions.
- It is closer to what one gets while developing a proof in a proof-assistant.


## Natural deduction

- The set of basic rules provided is intended to aid the translation of thought (mathematical reasoning) into formal proof.
- This system is intended for human use, in the sense that
- a person can guide the proof process;
- the proof produced is highly legible, and easy to understand.

This contrast with decision procedures that just produce a "yes/no" answer, and may not give insight into the relationship between the assumption and the conclusion.

Other proof systems for PL: Hilbert system and sequent calculus.

## Natural deduction

The veracity of the basic rules for the proof system is self-evident.

For example, if $F$ and $G$ can be derived from $\Gamma$, then $F \wedge G$ can also be derived from $\Gamma$.

This is the " $\wedge$-introduction" rule

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash F \quad \Gamma \vdash G}{\Gamma \vdash F \wedge G} \wedge_{I}
$$

There are two " $\wedge$-elimination" rules:

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash F \wedge G}{\Gamma \vdash F} \wedge_{E 1} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash F \wedge G}{\Gamma \vdash G} \wedge_{E 2}
$$

## Natural deduction rules for $\mathcal{S}$ (in sequent style)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{\Gamma \vdash \top} \text { true } \quad \frac{A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash A} \text { assumption } \\
& \begin{array}{cl}
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \Gamma \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \wedge B} \wedge_{I} & \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \wedge B}{\Gamma \vdash B} \wedge_{E 1} \\
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash A \vee B} \vee_{I 1} & \frac{\Gamma \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \vee B} \vee_{I 2}
\end{array} \\
& \frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B} \rightarrow_{I} \\
& \frac{\Gamma, A \vdash \perp}{\Gamma \vdash \neg A} \neg I \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash \perp}{\Gamma \vdash A} \perp_{E} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \subset \Gamma^{\prime}}{\Gamma^{\prime} \vdash A} \text { monotonicity } \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \wedge B}{\Gamma \vdash B} \wedge_{E 2} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \vee B \quad \Gamma, A \vdash C \quad \Gamma, B \vdash C}{\Gamma \vdash C} \vee_{E} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B}{\Gamma \vdash B} \rightarrow_{E} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash \neg A}{\Gamma \vdash \perp} \neg_{E} \\
& \frac{\Gamma \vdash \neg \neg A}{\Gamma \vdash A} \neg \neg_{E}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Formal proof

Deduction is purely syntactical.
A formal proof is a finite sequence of statements of the form " $\Gamma \vdash F$ " each of which follows from the previous statements by one of the basic rules. We say that $G$ can be derived from $\Gamma$ if there is a formal proof concluding with the statement $\Gamma \vdash G$.

Example: $\vdash A \wedge B \rightarrow A \vee B$

|  | Statements | Justification |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | $A \wedge B \vdash A \wedge B$ | assumption |
| 2. | $A \wedge B \vdash A$ | $\wedge_{E 1} 1$ |
| 3. | $A \wedge B \vdash A \vee B$ | $\vee_{I} 2$ |
| 4. | $\vdash A \wedge B \rightarrow A \vee B$ | $\rightarrow_{I} 3$ |

In a proof-assistant the proof is usually developed backwards.

## In a proof-assistant

In a proof-assistant, the usual approach develop the proof by a method that is known as goal directed proof:
(1) The user enters a statement that he wants to prove.
(2) The system displays the formula as a formula to be proved, possibly giving a context of local facts that can be used for this proof.
(3) The user enters a command (a basic rule or a tactic) to decompose the goal into simpler ones.
(4) The system displays a list of formulas that still need to be proved.

When there are no more goals the proof is complete!

## Formal proof

Note that rule $\neg \neg_{E}$ is ok because we are in a classical setting. Using this rule we can derive a proof of $A \vee \neg A$.

Example: $\vdash A \vee \neg A$

|  | Statements | Justification |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | $\neg(A \vee \neg A), A \vdash A$ | assumption |
| 2. | $\neg(A \vee \neg A), A \vdash A \vee \neg A$ | $\vee_{I 1} 1$ |
| 3. | $\neg(A \vee \neg A), A \vdash \neg(A \vee \neg A)$ | assumption |
| 4. | $\neg(A \vee \neg A), A \vdash \perp$ | $\neg E 2,3$ |
| 5. | $\neg(A \vee \neg A) \vdash \neg A$ | $\neg I 4$ |
| 6. | $\neg(A \vee \neg A) \vdash A \vee \neg A$ | $\vee_{I 2} 5$ |
| 7. | $\neg(A \vee \neg A) \vdash \neg(A \vee \neg A)$ | assumption |
| 8. | $\neg(A \vee \neg A) \vdash \perp$ | $\neg E 6,7$ |
| 9. | $\vdash \neg \neg(A \vee \neg A)$ | $\neg I 8$ |
| 10. | $\vdash A \vee \neg A$ | $\neg \neg_{E} 9$ |

## Formal proof

Example: $\vdash A \vee \neg A$ proved in backward direction
$\vdash A \vee \neg A$

刁-E

1. $\vdash \neg \neg(A \vee \neg A)$
2. $\neg(A \vee \neg A) \vdash \perp$
3. $\neg(A \vee \neg A) \vdash \neg(A \vee \neg A)$ assumption
4. $\neg(A \vee \neg A) \vdash A \vee \neg A$
5. $\neg(A \vee \neg A) \vdash \neg A$
6. $\neg(A \vee \neg A), A \vdash \perp$
7. $\neg(A \vee \neg A), A \vdash A \vee \neg A$
8. $\neg(A \vee \neg A), A \vdash A$
9. $\neg(A \vee \neg A), A \vdash \neg(A \vee \neg A)$
assumption assumption

## Formal proof

Note that from the basic deduction rules we can derive many other rules. We call these new rules derivable rules, and they can be used in other proofs.

Example of a derivable rule

|  | Statements | Justification |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | $\Gamma \vdash A \wedge B$ | premise |
| 2. | $\Gamma \vdash A$ | $\wedge_{E 1} 1$ |
| 3. | $\Gamma \vdash B$ | $\wedge_{E 2} 1$ |
| 4. | $\Gamma \vdash B \wedge A$ | $\wedge_{I} 3,2$ |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| derivable rule. |  |  |

## Formal proof

The following derivable rule is usually implemented in proof-assistants.

Example of a derivable rule

|  | Statements | Justification |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | $\Gamma \vdash A \wedge B$ | premise |
| 2. | $\Gamma, A, B \vdash C$ | premise |
| 3. | $\Gamma \vdash A$ | $\wedge_{E 1} 1$ |
| 4. | $\Gamma \vdash B$ | $\wedge_{E 2} 1$ |
| 5. | $\Gamma, A \vdash B \rightarrow C$ | $\rightarrow_{I} 2$ |
| 6. | $\Gamma \vdash A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$ | $\rightarrow_{I} 5$ |
| 7. | $\Gamma \vdash B \rightarrow C$ | $\rightarrow_{E} 3,6$ |
| 8. | $\Gamma \vdash C$ | $\rightarrow_{I} 4,7$ |

$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \wedge B \quad \Gamma, A, B \vdash C}{\Gamma \vdash C}$ is a derivable rule.

## Soundness, completeness and compacteness

## Soundness

If $\Gamma \vdash F$, then $\Gamma \vDash F$,
Therefore, if $\vdash A$, then $A$ is a tautology; and if $\vdash \neg A$, then $A$ is a contradiction.
Completeness
If $\Gamma \models F$, then $\Gamma \vdash F$,

## Compactness

A set of formulas is satisfiable if and only if every finite subset is satisfiable.
Hence,
If a formula $F$ is a consequence of a (possible infinite) set of formulas $\Gamma$ then it is a consequence of a finite subset of $\Gamma$.

## Exercises

- Prove that $P \rightarrow Q \vdash \neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$ holds.
- Prove that $\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P \vdash P \rightarrow Q$ holds.
- Prove that the folowing rule is derivable

$$
\frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash \neg \neg A} \neg \neg I
$$

- Prove the redutio ad absurdum law is derivable

$$
\frac{\Gamma, \neg A \vdash \perp}{\Gamma \vdash A} R A A
$$

