

Logic in Computer Science

For a given language \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P} , a *first-order theory* is a set T of sentences (closed formulae) in this given language. The elements of T are also called *axioms* of T .

A model of T is a model \mathcal{M} of the given language such that $\mathcal{M} \models \psi$ for all sentences ψ in T .

$T \vdash \varphi$ means that we can find ψ_1, \dots, ψ_n in T such that $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n \vdash \varphi$.

$T \models \varphi$ means that $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi$ for all models \mathcal{M} of T .

The generalized form of *soundness* is that $T \vdash \varphi$ implies $T \models \varphi$ and *completeness* is that $T \models \varphi$ implies $T \vdash \varphi$.

If T is a finite set ψ_1, \dots, ψ_n this follows from the usual statement of soundness ($\vdash \delta$ implies $\models \delta$) and completeness ($\models \delta$ implies $\vdash \delta$). Indeed, in this case, we have $T \vdash \varphi$ iff $\vdash (\psi_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \psi_n) \rightarrow \varphi$ and $T \models \varphi$ iff $\models (\psi_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \psi_n) \rightarrow \varphi$.

Theory of equivalence relations

The language is $\mathcal{P} = \{E\}$, binary relation, and $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$. The axioms are

$$\forall x. E(x, x) \quad \forall x y z. (E(x, z) \wedge E(y, z)) \rightarrow E(x, y)$$

We can then show $T \vdash \forall x y. E(x, y) \rightarrow E(y, x)$ and $T \vdash \forall x y z. (E(x, y) \wedge E(y, z)) \rightarrow E(x, z)$.

Theory about orders

The theory of *strict order*. The language is $\mathcal{P} = \{R\}$, binary relation, and $\mathcal{F} = \emptyset$. The axioms are

$$\forall x. \neg R(x, x) \quad \forall x y z. (R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z)) \rightarrow R(x, z)$$

We can add equality and get the theory T_{lin} of *linear orders*

$$\forall x y. (x \neq y) \rightarrow (R(x, y) \vee R(y, x))$$

Models are given by the usual order on $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$. The model of rationals $(\mathbb{Q}, <)$ also satisfies

$$\psi_1 = \forall x. \exists y. R(x, y) \quad \psi_2 = \forall x. \exists y. R(y, x) \quad \psi_3 = \forall x y. R(x, y) \rightarrow \exists z. R(x, z) \wedge R(z, y)$$

It can be shown that we have $(\mathbb{Q}, <) \models \varphi$ iff $(\mathbb{R}, <) \models \varphi$ iff $T_{lin}, \psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3 \vdash \varphi$ and furthermore, there is an algorithm to decide whether $(\mathbb{Q}, <) \models \varphi$ holds or not.

The theory of *preorder* has for axioms

$$\forall x. R(x, x) \quad \forall x y z. (R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z)) \rightarrow R(x, z)$$

and for the theory of *poset* is this theory together with the antisymmetry

$$\forall x y. (R(x, y) \wedge R(y, x)) \rightarrow x = y$$

A poset is *linear* if it also satisfies the axiom

$$\forall x y. R(x, y) \vee R(y, x)$$

(\mathbb{Q}, \leq) and (\mathbb{R}, \leq) are two linear posets that are not isomorphic but they satisfy the same first-order formula. Furthermore we can decide whether $(\mathbb{Q}, \leq) \vdash \varphi$ holds or not.

Theory about arithmetic

The language is $\mathcal{F} = \{\text{zero}, S\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \emptyset$, but we have equality.

The first theory T_0 is

$$\forall x. \text{zero} \neq S(x) \quad \forall x y. S(x) = S(y) \rightarrow x = y$$

A model of this theory is a set A with a constant $a \in A$ and a function $f \in A \rightarrow A$ such that f is injective and a is not in the image of f .

A particular model \mathbb{N} is given by the set of natural numbers and $0 \in \mathbb{N}$ and the successor function s on \mathbb{N} .

The formulae $\delta_1 = \forall x. x \neq S(x)$, $\delta_2 = \forall x. x \neq S(S(x))$, ... are not provable in T_0 but are valid in the model $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s)$. The formula $\psi = \forall x. x = 0 \vee \exists y. (x = S(y))$ is not provable in $T_0, \delta_1, \delta_2, \dots$ but is also valid in the model $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s)$. We can look at the possible shape of the models of $T_0, \delta_1, \delta_2, \dots$. Such a model is a disjoint union of copies of \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Z} and if there are several copies of \mathbb{N} the formula ψ will not be satisfied.

It can be shown that we have $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s) \models \varphi$ iff $T_0, \delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \psi \vdash \varphi$ and furthermore, there is an algorithm to decide $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s) \models \varphi$. The models of $T_0, \delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \psi$ consist of *one* copy of \mathbb{N} and zero or several copies of \mathbb{Z}

Presburger arithmetic

We add the binary function symbol $(+)$ and add to T_0 the axioms

$$\forall x. x + \text{zero} = x \quad \forall x y. x + S(y) = S(x + y)$$

and the induction schema

$$\forall y_1 \dots y_m. \varphi(y_1, \dots, y_m, \text{zero}) \wedge \forall x. (\varphi(y_1, \dots, y_m, x) \rightarrow \varphi(y_1, \dots, y_m, S(x))) \rightarrow \forall z. \varphi(y_1, \dots, y_m, z)$$

The resulting theory PrA is called *Presburger arithmetic*. It can be shown that $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s, +) \models \varphi$ iff $PrA \vdash \varphi$ and there is an algorithm to decide $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s, +) \models \varphi$.

Complete theory

A theory T is called *complete* iff for any closed formulae ψ we have $T \vdash \psi$ or $T \vdash \neg\psi$.

Presburger arithmetic is complete.

Proposition 0.1 *If M is a model of T and T is complete then we have $T \vdash \psi$ iff $M \models \psi$.*

So a complete theory describes *completely* validity in any of its model. In particular, Presburger arithmetic describes completely the behavior of addition for its model \mathbb{N} .

Peano arithmetic

We add the binary function symbol (\cdot) and add to PrA the axioms for multiplication

$$\forall x. x \cdot \text{zero} = \text{zero} \quad \forall x y. x \cdot S(y) = x \cdot y + x$$

with the induction schema, where the formula $\varphi(y_1, \dots, y_m, x)$ can also use multiplication. The resulting theory PA is called *Peano arithmetic*. It has been shown by Gödel that PA is *incomplete*: there is a formula φ such that $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s, +, \cdot) \models \varphi$ but we don't have $PA \vdash \varphi$.

Furthermore $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s, +, \cdot) \models \varphi$ is undecidable (there is no algorithm to decide $\mathbb{N} \models \varphi$) and there is *no* effective way to enumerate all sentences φ valid in the model $(\mathbb{N}, 0, s, +, \cdot)$.

Undecidability

We consider the theory with language \mathbf{zero} and the addition and multiplication functions symbols and the theory T

$$\begin{array}{ll} \forall x. x + \mathbf{zero} = x & \forall x y. x + S(y) = S(x + y) \\ \forall x. x \cdot \mathbf{zero} = \mathbf{zero} & \forall x y. x \cdot S(y) = x \cdot y + x \end{array}$$

and no other axioms. We have $T \vdash \exists x (x + x = S^{100} \mathbf{zero})$ iff we have $\mathbb{N} \models \exists x (100 - 2x = 0)$. In this way, we can prove that $T \vdash \psi$ is not decidable, even for ψ purely existential formula.

This follows from the fact that we can encode that the existence of a natural solution of a polynomial equation $P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$ for P in $\mathbb{Z}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ (non decidability for Hilbert Xth problem).

The decision problem

The *decision problem* (Hilbert-Ackermann 1928) is the problem of deciding if a sentence in a given language is provable or not.

More generally the problem is to decide if we have $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n \vdash \varphi$ or not.

There are special cases where this problem has a positive answer.

A general method is to apply the following Lemma, which follows from soundness and completeness.

Lemma 0.2 *We have $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n \vdash \varphi$ iff the following theory $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n, \neg\varphi$ has no models.*

We say that a formula is (purely) *universal* if it is of the form $\forall y_1 \dots y_m. \delta$ where δ is quantifier-free and it is (purely) *existential* if it is of the form $\exists y_1 \dots y_m. \delta$ where δ is quantifier-free

Bernays-Schönfinkel decidable case

This is the particular case where \mathcal{F} has only *constant* symbols (there can be relations of arbitrary arities) and all formulae $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n, \varphi$ are universal or existential.

In this case the following algorithm, that I illustrate on some examples, gives a way to decide whether $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n, \neg\varphi$ has a model or not. (If it has a model, it always has a *finite* model.) In this way, we decide whether $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n \vdash \varphi$ holds or not.

The reason why this method works is the following Lemma. If \mathcal{M} is a model of universe A with no function symbols of arity > 0 (there can be constants) and all interpretation of constants are in a subset $B \subseteq A$ we can consider the restriction $\mathcal{M}|B$ of the model to B where the universe A is replaced to B .

Lemma 0.3 *If ψ is universal and l is a lookup table with values in B then $\mathcal{M} \models_l \psi$ implies $\mathcal{M}|B \models \psi$*

This is *not* valid if ψ is not universal. For instance $\forall x \exists y x \neq y$ is valid in a domain with > 1 elements but is not valid in a domain with only 1 element.

Using this Lemma, we see that we can bound a priori the size of a model which satisfies ψ_1, \dots, ψ_n .

We take the example

$$T_1 = \exists x.(P(x) \wedge \neg M(x)), \exists y.(M(y) \wedge \neg S(y)), \forall z.(\neg P(z) \vee S(z))$$

The first step is to eliminate the existential quantifiers by introducing constants

$$T_2 = P(a) \wedge \neg M(a), M(b) \wedge \neg S(b), \forall z.(\neg P(z) \vee S(z))$$

It should be clear that T_1 has a model iff T_2 has a model.

The second step is to eliminate the universal quantifiers by instantiating on all constants

$$T_3 = P(a) \wedge \neg M(a), M(b) \wedge \neg S(b), \neg P(a) \vee S(a), \neg P(b) \vee S(b)$$

In this way we find a model with two elements $P(a), \neg M(a), S(a), M(b), \neg S(b), \neg P(b)$.

This implies that $\exists x.(P(x) \wedge \neg M(x)), \exists y.(M(y) \wedge \neg S(y)) \vdash \exists z.(P(z) \wedge \neg S(z))$ is *not* valid.

Other examples

$\forall x \neg R(x, x) \vdash \forall x y (R(x, y) \rightarrow \neg R(y, x))$ is not valid since we find a model of

$$T_1 = \forall x \neg R(x, x), \exists x y R(x, y) \wedge R(y, x)$$

by eliminating existentials

$$T_2 = \forall x \neg R(x, x), R(a, b) \wedge R(b, a)$$

and then universals

$$T_3 = \neg R(a, a), \neg R(b, b), R(a, b) \wedge R(b, a)$$

and we get a counter-model with two elements.

On the other hand $\forall x y (R(x, y) \rightarrow \neg R(y, x)) \vdash \neg R(x, x)$ is valid, since if we try to find a model of

$$T_1 = \forall x y (R(x, y) \rightarrow \neg R(y, x)), \exists x R(x, x)$$

by eliminating existentials

$$T_2 = \forall x y (R(x, y) \rightarrow \neg R(y, x)), R(a, a)$$

and then universals

$$T_3 = R(a, a) \rightarrow \neg R(a, a), R(a, a)$$

we should have $R(a, a)$ and $\neg R(a, a)$ and we cannot find a counter-model.

The same method show that if T is the theory of linear orders we don't have

$$T \vdash \forall x \exists y x < y$$

by finding the following counter-model: we take the model with only *one* element a with $a < a$ false. This defines a linear order, and in this model we don't have $\exists y a < y$.

Universal theories

It is possible to extend Bernays-Schönfinkel algorithm to theories with equality by axiomatising directly the equality relation as a new binary relation. This was first done by Ramsey, 1928 (by another method however).

Ramsey's goal was to analyse sequents of the form $\psi_1, \dots, \psi_n \vdash \psi$ where all formulae are purely universal, i.e. of the form $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_m \varphi$ where φ is a quantifier-free formula.

Here is a typical example. The theory of linear orders, where the axioms are

$$\psi_1 = \forall x x < y \rightarrow \neg(y < x) \quad \psi_2 = \forall x y z (x < y \wedge y < z \rightarrow x < z)$$

and

$$\psi_3 = \forall x y (x \neq y \rightarrow (x < y \vee y < x))$$

We can prove $\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3 \vdash \psi$ where $\psi = \forall x y z (x < y \rightarrow (x < z \vee z < y))$.

For eliminating equality, one adds a new relation $E(x, y)$ with axioms

$$\delta_1 = \forall x E(x, x) \quad \delta_2 = \forall x y z (E(x, z) \wedge E(y, z) \rightarrow E(x, y))$$

and

$$\delta_3 = \forall x x_1 y y_1 (E(x, x_1) \wedge E(y, y_1) \wedge R(x, y) \rightarrow R(x_1, y_1))$$

$$\delta_4 = \forall x y (E(x, y) \vee R(x, y) \vee R(y, x))$$

It is then possible to see in a purely automatic way that

$$\psi_1, \psi_2, \psi_3, \delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3, \delta_4 \vdash a < b, \neg(a < c), \neg(c < b)$$

is contradictory. This is by looking at all 4 cases

$$E(a, c), E(c, b) \quad E(a, c), b < c \quad c < a, E(c, b) \quad c < a, b < c$$

and proving a contradiction in all cases.

Theory of cyclic order

(Not covered in the lecture, but a nice example of a theory and of the use of the Bernays-Schönfinkel algorithm.)

A *cyclic order* is a way to arrange a set of objects in a circle (examples: seven days in a week, twelve notes in the chromatic scale, ...). The language is $\mathcal{P} = \{S\}$ which is a *ternary* predicate symbol and the first 3 axioms are

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_1 &= \forall x y z. S(x, y, z) \rightarrow S(y, z, x) & \psi_2 &= \forall x y z. S(x, y, z) \rightarrow \neg S(x, z, y) \\ \psi_3 &= \forall x y z t. (S(x, y, z) \wedge S(x, z, t)) \rightarrow S(x, y, t)\end{aligned}$$

One can then use the Bernays-Schönfinkel algorithm to show automatically that these axioms are *independent*: we don't have $\psi_1, \psi_2 \vdash \psi_3$ or $\psi_2, \psi_3 \vdash \psi_1$ or $\psi_3, \psi_1 \vdash \psi_2$.

As an exercise, we can show

$$\psi_1, \psi_2 \vdash \forall x y z. S(x, y, z) \rightarrow (x \neq y \wedge y \neq z \wedge x \neq z)$$

since if we have $S(a, b, c)$ we get $S(b, c, a)$, $S(c, a, b)$ and $\neg S(b, a, c)$, $\neg S(a, c, b)$, $\neq S(c, b, a)$. If we also have $a = b$ we get $S(b, a, c) = S(a, b, c)$ and $\neg S(b, a, c)$ hence a contradiction. We see in a similar way that we cannot have $b = c$ and we cannot have $a = c$.

The last axiom of the theory of cyclic order uses equality

$$\psi_4 = \forall x y z. (x \neq y \wedge y \neq z \wedge z \neq x) \rightarrow S(x, y, z) \vee S(x, z, y)$$

There is a closely related theory, which expresses that a, b, c is a clockwise oriented triangle in the plane. This theory has been used by Knuth for expressing convex hull algorithms.