

Towards proof automation: Herbrand's Theorem and Skolemization

Frédéric Prost

Université Grenoble Alpes

March 2023

Reminder about expansion

Every man is mortal.

Socrates is a man.

Hence Socrates is mortal.

- ▶ Look for a counter-model using a 1-expansion then a 2-exp.

- ▶ What can you conclude ?

Reminder about expansion

<i>Every man is mortal.</i>	$\forall x(\text{man}(x) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(x))$
<i>Socrates is a man.</i>	$\wedge \text{man}(\text{Socrates})$
<i>Hence Socrates is mortal.</i>	$\Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$

- ▶ Look for a counter-model using a 1-expansion then a 2-exp.

- ▶ What can you conclude ?

Reminder about expansion

<i>Every man is mortal.</i>	$\forall x(\text{man}(x) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(x))$
<i>Socrates is a man.</i>	$\wedge \text{man}(\text{Socrates})$
<i>Hence Socrates is mortal.</i>	$\Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$

- ▶ Look for a counter-model using a 1-expansion then a 2-exp.
 - ▶ 1-expansion :
 - $(\text{man}(0) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(0)).\text{man}(\text{Socrates}) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$
 - We can only interpret *Socrates* as 0 : no counter-model.

- ▶ What can you conclude ?

Reminder about expansion

<i>Every man is mortal.</i>	$\forall x(\text{man}(x) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(x))$
<i>Socrates is a man.</i>	$\wedge \text{man}(\text{Socrates})$
<i>Hence Socrates is mortal.</i>	$\Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$

- ▶ Look for a counter-model using a 1-expansion then a 2-exp.
 - ▶ 1-expansion :
 $(\text{man}(0) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(0)).\text{man}(\text{Socrates}) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$
 We can only interpret *Socrates* as 0 : no counter-model.
 - ▶ 2-expansion : $(\text{man}(0) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(0)).$
 $(\text{man}(1) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(1)).\text{man}(\text{Socrates}) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$
 We may interpret *Socrates* as 0 or 1, but neither yields a counter-model.
- ▶ What can you conclude ?

Reminder about expansion

<i>Every man is mortal.</i>	$\forall x(\text{man}(x) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(x))$
<i>Socrates is a man.</i>	$\wedge \text{man}(\text{Socrates})$
<i>Hence Socrates is mortal.</i>	$\Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$

- ▶ Look for a counter-model using a 1-expansion then a 2-exp.
 - ▶ 1-expansion :
 - $(\text{man}(0) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(0)).\text{man}(\text{Socrates}) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$
 - We can only interpret *Socrates* as 0 : no counter-model.
 - ▶ 2-expansion : $(\text{man}(0) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(0)).$
 - $(\text{man}(1) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(1)).\text{man}(\text{Socrates}) \Rightarrow \text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$
 - We may interpret *Socrates* as 0 or 1, but neither yields a counter-model.

- ▶ What can you conclude ?
 - Nothing! Except that this formula is satisfiable.

Overview

Introduction

Herbrand Universe (domain) and Herbrand Base

Herbrand Interpretation

Herbrand's Theorem

Skolemization

- Motivation, properties and examples

- Definitions and procedure

Conclusion

Plan

Introduction

Herbrand Universe (domain) and Herbrand Base

Herbrand Interpretation

Herbrand's Theorem

Skolemization

Motivation, properties and examples

Definitions and procedure

Conclusion

Introduction

In first-order logic, there is **no** algorithm for **deciding** whether a formula is valid or not.

Introduction

In first-order logic, there is **no** algorithm for **deciding** whether a formula is valid or not.

Semi-decision algorithm:

1. If it terminates then it **correctly decides** whether the formula is valid or not.
When the formula is valid, the decision generally comes with a proof.
2. If the formula is valid, then the program terminates. However, the execution can be long!

Introduction

In first-order logic, there is **no** algorithm for **deciding** whether a formula is valid or not.

Semi-decision algorithm:

1. If it terminates then it **correctly decides** whether the formula is valid or not.
When the formula is valid, the decision generally comes with a proof.
2. If the formula is valid, then the program terminates. However, the execution can be long!

Note that **if the formula is not valid, termination is not guaranteed.**

Plan

Introduction

Herbrand Universe (domain) and Herbrand Base

Herbrand Interpretation

Herbrand's Theorem

Skolemization

Motivation, properties and examples

Definitions and procedure

Conclusion

Jacques Herbrand (1908-1931)

- ▶ Works in number fields
- ▶ 1930 : reduces the validity of a first-order formula to a set of propositional formulas
- ▶ Correspondence with Gödel about the consistency of arithmetic



Universal closure

Definition 5.1.1

Let C be a formula with free variables x_1, \dots, x_n .

The **universal closure** of C , denoted by $\forall(C)$, is the formula $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n C$.

Example 5.1.2

$\forall(P(x) \wedge R(x, y)) =$

Universal closure

Definition 5.1.1

Let C be a formula with free variables x_1, \dots, x_n .

The **universal closure** of C , denoted by $\forall(C)$, is the formula $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n C$.

Example 5.1.2

$\forall(P(x) \wedge R(x, y)) =$

$$\forall x \forall y (P(x) \wedge R(x, y)) \quad \text{or} \quad \forall y \forall x (P(x) \wedge R(x, y))$$

Universal closure

Definition 5.1.1

Let C be a formula with free variables x_1, \dots, x_n .

The **universal closure** of C , denoted by $\forall(C)$, is the formula $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n C$.

Example 5.1.2

$\forall(P(x) \wedge R(x, y)) =$

$$\forall x \forall y (P(x) \wedge R(x, y)) \quad \text{or} \quad \forall y \forall x (P(x) \wedge R(x, y))$$

Let Γ be a set of formulae: $\forall(\Gamma) = \{ \forall(A) \mid A \in \Gamma \}$.

For example: $\forall(\{P(x), Q(x)\}) = \{ \forall x P(x), \forall x Q(x) \}$

Assumptions

We consider that

- ▶ the formulae do not contain **neither $=$, nor \top or \perp** (since their truth value is fixed)
- ▶ every signature contains **at least one constant** (add an arbitrary **constant a** if need be.)

Herbrand universe (domain) and Herbrand base

Definition 5.1.4

1. The Herbrand universe D_Σ is the set of closed terms (i.e., without variable) over Σ .

Remark: this set is never empty, since $a \in D_\Sigma$.

Herbrand universe (domain) and Herbrand base

Definition 5.1.4

1. The Herbrand universe D_Σ is the set of closed terms (*i.e.*, without variable) over Σ .

Remark: this set is never empty, since $a \in D_\Sigma$.

2. The Herbrand base B_Σ is the set of closed atomic formulae over Σ .

Herbrand universe (domain) and Herbrand base

Definition 5.1.4

1. The Herbrand universe D_Σ is the set of closed terms (i.e., without variable) over Σ .

Remark: this set is never empty, since $a \in D_\Sigma$.

2. The Herbrand base B_Σ is the set of closed atomic formulae over Σ .

Example 5.1.5

1. Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f0}, b^{f0}, P^{r1}, Q^{r1}\}$: $D_\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ and

Herbrand universe (domain) and Herbrand base

Definition 5.1.4

1. The Herbrand universe D_Σ is the set of closed terms (i.e., without variable) over Σ .

Remark: this set is never empty, since $a \in D_\Sigma$.

2. The Herbrand base B_Σ is the set of closed atomic formulae over Σ .

Example 5.1.5

1. Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, b^{f^0}, P^{r^1}, Q^{r^1}\}$: $D_\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ and

$$B_\Sigma = \{P(a), P(b), Q(a), Q(b)\}.$$

2. Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, f^{f^1}, P^{r^1}\}$: $D_\Sigma = \{f^n(a) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and

Herbrand universe (domain) and Herbrand base

Definition 5.1.4

1. The Herbrand universe D_Σ is the set of closed terms (i.e., without variable) over Σ .

Remark: this set is never empty, since $a \in D_\Sigma$.

2. The Herbrand base B_Σ is the set of closed atomic formulae over Σ .

Example 5.1.5

1. Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, b^{f^0}, P^{r^1}, Q^{r^1}\}$: $D_\Sigma = \{a, b\}$ and

$$B_\Sigma = \{P(a), P(b), Q(a), Q(b)\}.$$

2. Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, f^{f^1}, P^{r^1}\}$: $D_\Sigma = \{f^n(a) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and

$$B_\Sigma = \{P(f^n(a)) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

Plan

Introduction

Herbrand Universe (domain) and Herbrand Base

Herbrand Interpretation

Herbrand's Theorem

Skolemization

Motivation, properties and examples

Definitions and procedure

Conclusion

Herbrand Interpretation

Definition 5.1.6

Let $E \subseteq B_\Sigma$.

The **Herbrand interpretation** $H_{\Sigma,E}$ consists of the domain D_Σ and:

Herbrand Interpretation

Definition 5.1.6

Let $E \subseteq B_\Sigma$.

The **Herbrand interpretation** $H_{\Sigma,E}$ consists of the domain D_Σ and:

1. Constants symbols s are mapped to themselves.

Herbrand Interpretation

Definition 5.1.6

Let $E \subseteq B_\Sigma$.

The **Herbrand interpretation** $H_{\Sigma,E}$ consists of the domain D_Σ and:

1. Constants symbols s are mapped to themselves.
2. If s is a function symbol and if $t_1, \dots, t_n \in D_\Sigma$ then
$$s_{H_{\Sigma,E}}(t_1, \dots, t_n) = s(t_1, \dots, t_n).$$

Herbrand Interpretation

Definition 5.1.6

Let $E \subseteq B_\Sigma$.

The **Herbrand interpretation** $H_{\Sigma,E}$ consists of the domain D_Σ and:

1. Constants symbols s are mapped to themselves.
2. If s is a function symbol and if $t_1, \dots, t_n \in D_\Sigma$ then
$$s_{H_{\Sigma,E}}(t_1, \dots, t_n) = s(t_1, \dots, t_n).$$
3. If s is a propositional variable, $s_{H_{\Sigma,E}} = 1$ (true) iff $s \in E$.

Herbrand Interpretation

Definition 5.1.6

Let $E \subseteq B_\Sigma$.

The **Herbrand interpretation** $H_{\Sigma,E}$ consists of the domain D_Σ and:

1. Constants symbols s are mapped to themselves.
2. If s is a function symbol and if $t_1, \dots, t_n \in D_\Sigma$ then
$$s_{H_{\Sigma,E}}(t_1, \dots, t_n) = s(t_1, \dots, t_n).$$
3. If s is a propositional variable, $s_{H_{\Sigma,E}} = 1$ (true) iff $s \in E$.
4. If s is a relation symbol then
$$s_{H_{\Sigma,E}} = \{(t_1, \dots, t_n) \mid s(t_1, \dots, t_n) \in E\}.$$

Herbrand Interpretation

Definition 5.1.6

Let $E \subseteq B_\Sigma$.

The **Herbrand interpretation** $H_{\Sigma,E}$ consists of the domain D_Σ and:

1. Constants symbols s are mapped to themselves.
2. If s is a function symbol and if $t_1, \dots, t_n \in D_\Sigma$ then
$$s_{H_{\Sigma,E}}(t_1, \dots, t_n) = s(t_1, \dots, t_n).$$
3. If s is a propositional variable, $s_{H_{\Sigma,E}} = 1$ (true) iff $s \in E$.
4. If s is a relation symbol then
$$s_{H_{\Sigma,E}} = \{(t_1, \dots, t_n) \mid s(t_1, \dots, t_n) \in E\}.$$

Another way to put it:

- ▶ Terms are interpreted as themselves.
- ▶ E is the set of true atomic formulae.

Example 5.1.8

Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f0}, b^{f0}, P^{r1}, Q^{r1}\}$

The Herbrand universe is $D_\Sigma = \{a, b\}$.

The set $E = \{P(b), Q(a)\}$ defines the Herbrand interpretation H where:

Example 5.1.8

Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f0}, b^{f0}, P^{r1}, Q^{r1}\}$

The Herbrand universe is $D_\Sigma = \{a, b\}$.

The set $E = \{P(b), Q(a)\}$ defines the Herbrand interpretation H where:

- ▶ constants a and b are mapped to themselves and
- ▶ $P_H = \{b\}$ and $Q_H = \{a\}$.

Universal closure and Herbrand model

Theorem 5.1.16

Let Γ be a set of formulae with no quantifier over the signature Σ .

$\forall(\Gamma)$ has a model
if and only if

$\forall(\Gamma)$ has a model which is a Herbrand interpretation.

- ▶ Proof: Cf. handout course notes (just choose the “right” E)
- ▶ Consequence: no need to look for another model!

Example

Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f0}, b^{f0}, P^{r1}, Q^{r1}\}$

Let I be the interpretation of domain $\{0, 1\}$ where:

- ▶ $a_I = 0, b_I = 1,$
- ▶ $P_I = \{1\}$ and $Q_I = \{0\}.$

Example

Let $\Sigma = \{a^{f0}, b^{f0}, P^{r1}, Q^{r1}\}$

Let I be the interpretation of domain $\{0, 1\}$ where:

- ▶ $a_I = 0, b_I = 1,$
- ▶ $P_I = \{1\}$ and $Q_I = \{0\}$.

The Herbrand universe is still $D_\Sigma = \{a, b\}$.

The set $E = \{P(b), Q(a)\}$ defines the Herbrand interpretation H where:

- ▶ Constants a and b are mapped to themselves
- ▶ $P_H = \{b\}$ and $Q_H = \{a\}$.

I is a model of a set $\forall(\Gamma)$ of formulae iff H is a Herbrand model of $\forall(\Gamma)$.

Plan

Introduction

Herbrand Universe (domain) and Herbrand Base

Herbrand Interpretation

Herbrand's Theorem

Skolemization

Motivation, properties and examples

Definitions and procedure

Conclusion

Herbrand's Theorem

Theorem 5.1.17

Let Γ be a set of formulae with no quantifiers over signature Σ .

$\forall(\Gamma)$ has a model

if and only if

Every **finite** set of closed instances of formulae of Γ
has a propositional model $B_\Sigma \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$.

Reminders:

- ▶ Σ contains at least one constant a and no $=$ sign
- ▶ Instantiate = substitute each variable by a term

Other version of Herbrand's Theorem

Corollary 5.1.18

Let Γ be a set of formulae without quantifier over signature Σ .

$\forall(\Gamma)$ is unsatisfiable

if and only if

There is a **finite** unsatisfiable set of closed instances
of formulae taken from Γ

Proof.

Negate each side of the equivalence of the previous statement of Herbrand's theorem. □

Semi-decision procedure: unsatisfiability of $\forall(\Gamma)$

Let Γ be a **finite** set of formulae with no quantifier.

We enumerate the set of closed instances of the formulae of Γ and:

Semi-decision procedure: unsatisfiability of $\forall(\Gamma)$

Let Γ be a **finite** set of formulae with no quantifier.

We enumerate the set of closed instances of the formulae of Γ and:

1. if we find an unsatisfiable set, then $\forall(\Gamma)$ is unsatisfiable.

Semi-decision procedure: unsatisfiability of $\forall(\Gamma)$

Let Γ be a **finite** set of formulae with no quantifier.

We enumerate the set of closed instances of the formulae of Γ and:

1. if we find an unsatisfiable set, then $\forall(\Gamma)$ is unsatisfiable.
2. if we have enumerated all of them without contradiction (for a Σ *without functions*), then $\forall(\Gamma)$ is satisfiable.

Semi-decision procedure: unsatisfiability of $\forall(\Gamma)$

Let Γ be a **finite** set of formulae with no quantifier.

We enumerate the set of closed instances of the formulae of Γ and:

1. if we find an unsatisfiable set, then $\forall(\Gamma)$ is unsatisfiable.
2. if we have enumerated all of them without contradiction (for a Σ *without functions*), then $\forall(\Gamma)$ is satisfiable.
3. in the meantime, we cannot conclude:
 - ▶ either $\forall(\Gamma)$ is satisfiable (and we will never stop);
 - ▶ or $\forall(\Gamma)$ is unsatisfiable but we haven't enumerated enough instances to reach a contradiction.

Example 5.1.19 (1/5)

Let $\Gamma = \{P(x), Q(x), \neg P(a) \vee \neg Q(b)\}$ and $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, b^{f^0}, P^{r^1}, Q^{r^1}\}$.

Example 5.1.19 (1/5)

Let $\Gamma = \{P(x), Q(x), \neg P(a) \vee \neg Q(b)\}$ and $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, b^{f^0}, P^{r^1}, Q^{r^1}\}$.

$$D_\Sigma = \{a, b\}.$$

The set $\{P(a), Q(b), \neg P(a) \vee \neg Q(b)\}$ of instances over the D_Σ is unsatisfiable, hence $\forall(\Gamma)$ is unsatisfiable.

Example 5.1.19 (2/5)

Let $\Gamma = \{P(x) \vee Q(x), \neg P(a), \neg Q(b)\}$

Example 5.1.19 (2/5)

Let $\Gamma = \{P(x) \vee Q(x), \neg P(a), \neg Q(b)\}$

The set of **all** the instances over D_Σ is :

$\{P(a) \vee Q(a), P(b) \vee Q(b), \neg P(a), \neg Q(b)\}$

It has a propositional model characterised by $E = \{P(b), Q(a)\}$.

Hence the Herbrand interpretation associated to E is a model of $\forall(\Gamma)$.

Example 5.1.19 (3/5)

Let $\Gamma = \{P(x), \neg P(f(x))\}$ and $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, f^{f^1}, P^{r^1}\}$.

Example 5.1.19 (3/5)

Let $\Gamma = \{P(x), \neg P(f(x))\}$ and $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, f^{f^1}, P^{r^1}\}$.

$$D_\Sigma = \{f^n(a) | n \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

The set $\{P(f(a)), \neg P(f(a))\}$ is unsatisfiable,
hence $\forall(\Gamma)$ is unsatisfiable.

Example 5.1.19 (4/5)

$$\text{Let } \Gamma = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \neg P(a), \\ P(x) \vee \neg P(f(x)), \\ P(f(f(a))) \end{array} \right\}$$

Example 5.1.19 (4/5)

$$\text{Let } \Gamma = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \neg P(a), \\ P(x) \vee \neg P(f(x)), \\ P(f(f(a))) \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \neg P(a), \\ P(a) \vee \neg P(f(a)), \\ P(f(a)) \vee \neg P(f(f(a))), \\ P(f(f(a))) \end{array} \right\} \text{ is unsatisfiable, hence } \forall(\Gamma) \text{ too.}$$

Example 5.1.19 (4/5)

$$\text{Let } \Gamma = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \neg P(a), \\ P(x) \vee \neg P(f(x)), \\ P(f(f(a))) \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \neg P(a), \\ P(a) \vee \neg P(f(a)), \\ P(f(a)) \vee \neg P(f(f(a))), \\ P(f(f(a))) \end{array} \right\} \text{ is unsatisfiable, hence } \forall(\Gamma) \text{ too.}$$

Remark: note that we had to consider **2** instances ($x := a$ then $x := f(a)$) of the second formula of Γ to obtain a contradiction.

Example 5.1.19 (5/5)

$$\text{Let } \Gamma = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} R(x, s(x)), \\ R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z) \Rightarrow R(x, z), \\ \neg R(x, x) \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{and } \Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, s^{f^1}, R^{r^2}\}.$$

Example 5.1.19 (5/5)

$$\text{Let } \Gamma = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} R(x, s(x)), \\ R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z) \Rightarrow R(x, z), \\ \neg R(x, x) \end{array} \right\}$$

and $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, s^{f^1}, R^{r^2}\}$.

$D_\Sigma = \{s^n(a) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. This is an infinite domain.

Every finite set of instances of formulae of Γ has a model: the enumeration will never stop.

Example 5.1.19 (5/5)

$$\text{Let } \Gamma = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} R(x, s(x)), \\ R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z) \Rightarrow R(x, z), \\ \neg R(x, x) \end{array} \right\} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} n < n+1 \\ x < y < z \Rightarrow x < z \\ \neg(x < x) \end{array} \right\}$$

and $\Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, s^{f^1}, R^{r^2}\}$.

$D_\Sigma = \{s^n(a) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. This is an infinite domain.

Every finite set of instances of formulae of Γ has a model: the enumeration will never stop.

Indeed, $\forall(\Gamma)$ has an infinite model: the interpretation I of domain \mathbb{N} with $a_I = 0$, $s_I(n) = n+1$ and $R_I(x, y) = x < y$.

Example 5.1.19 (5/5)

$$\text{Let } \Gamma = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} R(x, s(x)), \\ R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z) \Rightarrow R(x, z), \\ \neg R(x, x) \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\text{and } \Sigma = \{a^{f^0}, s^{f^1}, R^{r^2}\}.$$

$D_\Sigma = \{s^n(a) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$. This is an infinite domain.

Every finite set of instances of formulae of Γ has a model: the enumeration will never stop.

Indeed, $\forall(\Gamma)$ has an infinite model: the interpretation I of domain \mathbb{N} with $a_I = 0$, $s_I(n) = n + 1$ and $R_I(x, y) = x < y$.

Remark: $\forall(\Gamma)$ has no finite model, i.e., it is useless to look for one by n -expansions.

Plan

Introduction

Herbrand Universe (domain) and Herbrand Base

Herbrand Interpretation

Herbrand's Theorem

Skolemization

Motivation, properties and examples

Definitions and procedure

Conclusion

Introduction

Herbrand's theorem applies to the universal closure of a set of formulae **with no quantifier**.

Introduction

Herbrand's theorem applies to the universal closure of a set of formulae **with no quantifier**.

For formulae with existential quantification, we use **skolemization** (Thoralf Albert Skolem).

Introduction

Herbrand's theorem applies to the universal closure of a set of formulae **with no quantifier**.

For formulae with existential quantification, we use **skolemization** (Thoralf Albert Skolem).

Skolemization

- ▶ transforms a set of closed formulae to the universal closure of a set of formulae with no quantifier.
- ▶ preserves the **existence** of a model (satisfiability).

Example 5.2.1

The formula $\exists xP(x)$ is **skolemized** as $P(a)$.

We note the following relations between the two formulae:

Example 5.2.1

The formula $\exists xP(x)$ is **skolemized** as $P(a)$.

We note the following relations between the two formulae:

1. $\exists xP(x)$ **is a consequence** of $P(a)$

Example 5.2.1

The formula $\exists xP(x)$ is **skolemized** as $P(a)$.

We note the following relations between the two formulae:

1. $\exists xP(x)$ is a **consequence** of $P(a)$
2. $P(a)$ is **not** a consequence of $\exists xP(x)$, but a model of $\exists x P(x)$ **“provides”** a model of $P(a)$.

(Just choose to interpret a as an element of P_I .)

Definitions

A first-order formula is in **normal form** if it does not contain \Leftrightarrow nor \Rightarrow and if its negations only apply to **atomic formulae**.

Definitions

A first-order formula is in **normal form** if it does not contain \Leftrightarrow nor \Rightarrow and if its negations only apply to **atomic formulae**.

Definition 5.2.3

A closed formula is said to be **proper**, if no variable is bound by two distinct quantifiers.

Definitions

A first-order formula is in **normal form** if it does not contain \Leftrightarrow nor \Rightarrow and if its negations only apply to **atomic formulae**.

Definition 5.2.3

A closed formula is said to be **proper**, if no variable is bound by two distinct quantifiers.

Example 5.2.4

► The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ is

Definitions

A first-order formula is in **normal form** if it does not contain \Leftrightarrow nor \Rightarrow and if its negations only apply to **atomic formulae**.

Definition 5.2.3

A closed formula is said to be **proper**, if no variable is bound by two distinct quantifiers.

Example 5.2.4

- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ is **not proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall yQ(y)$ is

Definitions

A first-order formula is in **normal form** if it does not contain \Leftrightarrow nor \Rightarrow and if its negations only apply to **atomic formulae**.

Definition 5.2.3

A closed formula is said to be **proper**, if no variable is bound by two distinct quantifiers.

Example 5.2.4

- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ is **not proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall yQ(y)$ is **proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow \exists xQ(x) \wedge \exists yR(x, y))$ is

Definitions

A first-order formula is in **normal form** if it does not contain \Leftrightarrow nor \Rightarrow and if its negations only apply to **atomic formulae**.

Definition 5.2.3

A closed formula is said to be **proper**, if no variable is bound by two distinct quantifiers.

Example 5.2.4

- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ is **not proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall yQ(y)$ is **proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow \exists xQ(x) \wedge \exists yR(x, y))$ is **not proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow \exists yR(x, y))$ is

Definitions

A first-order formula is in **normal form** if it does not contain \Leftrightarrow nor \Rightarrow and if its negations only apply to **atomic formulae**.

Definition 5.2.3

A closed formula is said to be **proper**, if no variable is bound by two distinct quantifiers.

Example 5.2.4

- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ is **not proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall yQ(y)$ is **proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow \exists xQ(x) \wedge \exists yR(x, y))$ is **not proper**.
- ▶ The formula $\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow \exists yR(x, y))$ is **proper**.

How to skolemize a closed formula A ?

Definition 5.2.5 (skolemization)

Let A be a closed formula:

How to skolemize a closed formula A ?

Definition 5.2.5 (skolemization)

Let A be a closed formula:

1. $B = \text{Normalize } A$

How to skolemize a closed formula A ?

Definition 5.2.5 (skolemization)

Let A be a closed formula:

1. B = Normalize A
2. C = Make B proper

How to skolemize a closed formula A ?

Definition 5.2.5 (skolemization)

Let A be a closed formula:

1. B = Normalize A
2. C = Make B proper
3. D = **Eliminate existential quantifiers from C .**

This transformation only preserves the existence of a model.

How to skolemize a closed formula A ?

Definition 5.2.5 (skolemization)

Let A be a closed formula:

1. B = Normalize A
2. C = Make B proper
3. D = **Eliminate existential quantifiers from C .**

This transformation only preserves the existence of a model.

4. E = Remove the universal quantifiers from D .

E is the **Skolem form** of A .

(E is a normal formula with no quantifier.)

1. Normalization

1. Eliminate the equivalences
2. Eliminate the implications
3. Move the negations towards the atomic formulae

Rules

$$1. \text{ et } 2. \text{ As in propositional logic: } \begin{cases} A \Leftrightarrow B \equiv (A \Rightarrow B) \wedge (B \Rightarrow A) \\ A \Rightarrow B \equiv \neg A \vee B \end{cases}$$

$$3. \text{ As in propositional logic: } \begin{cases} \neg\neg A \equiv A \\ \neg(A \wedge B) \equiv \neg A \vee \neg B \\ \neg(A \vee B) \equiv \neg A \wedge \neg B \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Furthermore } \begin{cases} \neg\forall x A \equiv \exists x \neg A \\ \neg\exists x A \equiv \forall x \neg A \end{cases}$$

Example 5.2.7

The normal form of $\forall y(\forall xP(x, y) \Leftrightarrow Q(y))$ is:

Example 5.2.7

The normal form of $\forall y(\forall xP(x, y) \Leftrightarrow Q(y))$ is:

First, elimination of \Leftrightarrow :

$$\forall y((\neg\forall xP(x, y) \vee Q(y)) \wedge (\neg Q(y) \vee \forall xP(x, y)))$$

Example 5.2.7

The normal form of $\forall y(\forall xP(x, y) \Leftrightarrow Q(y))$ is:

First, elimination of \Leftrightarrow :

$$\forall y((\neg\forall xP(x, y) \vee Q(y)) \wedge (\neg Q(y) \vee \forall xP(x, y)))$$

then, move \neg :

$$\forall y((\exists x\neg P(x, y) \vee Q(y)) \wedge (\neg Q(y) \vee \forall xP(x, y)))$$

2. Transformation to a proper formula

Rename bound variables, e.g., by choosing new names.

Example 5.2.8

- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ is changed to

2. Transformation to a proper formula

Rename bound variables, e.g., by choosing new names.

Example 5.2.8

- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ is changed to

$$\forall xP(x) \vee \forall yQ(y)$$

- ▶ The formula $\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow \exists xQ(x) \wedge \exists yR(x, y))$ is changed to

2. Transformation to a proper formula

Rename bound variables, e.g., by choosing new names.

Example 5.2.8

- ▶ The formula $\forall xP(x) \vee \forall xQ(x)$ is changed to

$$\forall xP(x) \vee \forall yQ(y)$$

- ▶ The formula $\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow \exists xQ(x) \wedge \exists yR(x, y))$ is changed to

$$\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow \exists zQ(z) \wedge \exists yR(x, y))$$

Reminder: renaming of bound variables

Theorem 4.4.3

Let Q be a quantifier.

If y **does not appear** in $Qx A$ then : $Qx A \equiv Qy A \langle x := y \rangle$

Reminder: renaming of bound variables

Theorem 4.4.3

Let Q be a quantifier.

If y **does not appear** in $Qx A$ then : $Qx A \equiv Qy A < x := y >$

Example 4.4.4

- ▶ $\forall x p(x, z) \equiv \forall y p(y, z)$
- ▶ $\forall x p(x, z) \not\equiv \forall z p(z, z)$

3. Elimination of existential quantifiers

Let $\exists yB$ be a sub-formula of a closed normal and proper formula A .

Let x_1, \dots, x_n be the **free variables** of $\exists yB$.

Let f be a **new** symbol (if $n = 0$, then f is a constant)
and replace $\exists yB$ by $B < y := f(x_1, \dots, x_n) >$ in A .

3. Elimination of existential quantifiers

Let $\exists yB$ be a sub-formula of a closed normal and proper formula A .

Let x_1, \dots, x_n be the **free variables** of $\exists yB$.

Let f be a **new** symbol (if $n = 0$, then f is a constant)

and replace $\exists yB$ by $B < y := f(x_1, \dots, x_n) >$ in A .

Theorem 5.2.9

The resulting formula A' is a closed, normal and proper formula such that:

1. A is a consequence of A'
2. If A has a model then A' has an identical model (up to the truth value of f).

Remark 5.2.10

The resulting formula A' remains closed, normal and proper.

Hence, by repeatedly “applying” the theorem, choosing a **new symbol for each eliminated quantifier**, one can get:

- ▶ a closed, normal, proper formula B **without** \exists
- ▶ such that A has a model if and only if B has one.

Example 5.2.11

By eliminating existential quantifiers in the formula $\exists x \forall y P(x, y) \wedge \exists z \forall u \neg P(z, u)$ we obtain

Example 5.2.11

By eliminating existential quantifiers in the formula $\exists x \forall y P(x, y) \wedge \exists z \forall u \neg P(z, u)$ we obtain

$$\forall y P(a, y) \wedge \forall u \neg P(b, u).$$

It is easy to observe that this formula has a model.

Example 5.2.11

By eliminating existential quantifiers in the formula $\exists x \forall y P(x, y) \wedge \exists z \forall u \neg P(z, u)$ we obtain

$$\forall y P(a, y) \wedge \forall u \neg P(b, u).$$

It is easy to observe that this formula has a model.

But if we **mistakenly** eliminate both \exists using the same constant a , we obtain $\forall y P(a, y) \wedge \forall u \neg P(a, u)$

which is unsatisfiable (it entails $P(a, a)$ and $\neg P(a, a)$).

Exemple 5.2.12

By eliminating the existential quantifiers in the formula $\exists x \forall y \exists z P(x, y, z)$ we obtain

Exemple 5.2.12

By eliminating the existential quantifiers in the formula

$\exists x \forall y \exists z P(x, y, z)$ we obtain

two possible solutions:

- ▶ is we eliminate first $\exists x$:
 $\forall y \exists z P(a, y, z)$

Exemple 5.2.12

By eliminating the existential quantifiers in the formula $\exists x \forall y \exists z P(x, y, z)$ we obtain

two possible solutions:

- ▶ is we eliminate first $\exists x$:

$$\forall y \exists z P(a, y, z) \rightarrow \forall y P(a, y, f(y))$$

Exemple 5.2.12

By eliminating the existential quantifiers in the formula

$\exists x \forall y \exists z P(x, y, z)$ we obtain

two possible solutions:

- ▶ if we eliminate first $\exists x$:

$$\forall y \exists z P(a, y, z) \rightarrow \forall y P(a, y, f(y))$$

- ▶ if we eliminate first $\exists z$:

$$\exists x \forall y P(x, y, g(x, y))$$

Exemple 5.2.12

By eliminating the existential quantifiers in the formula $\exists x \forall y \exists z P(x, y, z)$ we obtain

two possible solutions:

- ▶ is we eliminate first $\exists x$:

$$\forall y \exists z P(a, y, z) \rightarrow \forall y P(a, y, f(y))$$

- ▶ if we eliminate first $\exists z$:

$$\exists x \forall y P(x, y, g(x, y)) \rightarrow \forall y P(b, y, g(b, y))$$

Exemple 5.2.12

By eliminating the existential quantifiers in the formula $\exists x \forall y \exists z P(x, y, z)$ we obtain

two possible solutions:

- ▶ if we eliminate first $\exists x$:

$$\forall y \exists z P(a, y, z) \rightarrow \forall y P(a, y, f(y))$$

- ▶ if we eliminate first $\exists z$:

$$\exists x \forall y P(x, y, g(x, y)) \rightarrow \forall y P(b, y, g(b, y))$$

The existence of a model is preserved in both cases.

4. Transformation into a universal closure

Theorem 5.2.13

Let A be a closed, normal, proper formula without existential quantifier.
Let B be the formula obtained by removing all the \forall from A .

A is equivalent to $\forall(B)$.

4. Transformation into a universal closure

Theorem 5.2.13

Let A be a closed, normal, proper formula without existential quantifier. Let B be the formula obtained by removing all the \forall from A .

A is equivalent to $\forall(B)$.

Proof.

What we are doing is actually applying repeatedly replacements such as

- ▶ $(\forall x C) \wedge D \equiv \forall x (C \wedge D)$
- ▶ $(\forall x C) \vee D \equiv \forall x (C \vee D)$

where x is not free in D

□

Property of skolemization

Property 5.2.14

Let A be a closed formula and E the Skolem form of A .
 A has a model if and only if $\forall(E)$ has a model.

Proof.

A a closed formula □

↓

Normalize *(equivalent)*

B

↓

Make proper *(equivalent)*

C

↓

Eliminate \exists *("preserves" the models)*

D

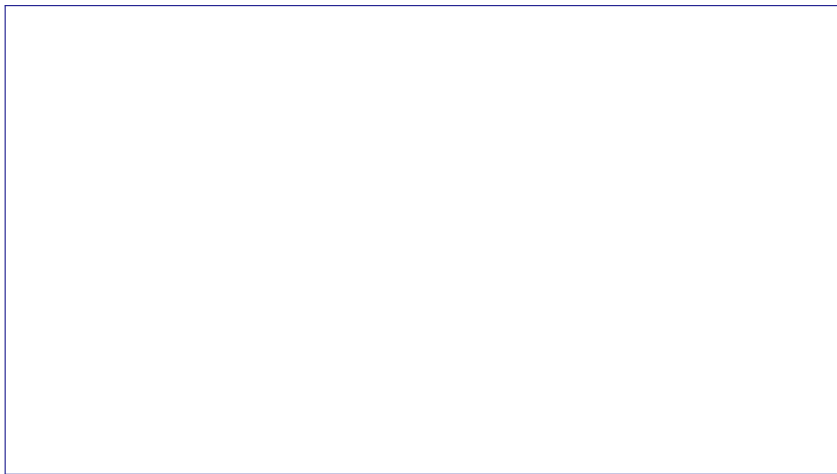
↓

Remove \forall *(equivalent to $\forall(E)$)*

E Skolem form

Example 5.2.15

Let $A = \forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\forall xP(x) \Rightarrow \forall xQ(x))$. We skolemize $\neg A$.



Example 5.2.15

Let $A = \forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\forall xP(x) \Rightarrow \forall xQ(x))$. We skolemize $\neg A$.

1. $\neg A$ is transformed into the normal formula:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall xP(x) \wedge \exists x\neg Q(x)$$

Example 5.2.15

Let $A = \forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\forall xP(x) \Rightarrow \forall xQ(x))$. We skolemize $\neg A$.

1. $\neg A$ is transformed into the normal formula:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall x P(x) \wedge \exists x \neg Q(x)$$

2. The normal formula is made proper:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall y P(y) \wedge \exists z \neg Q(z)$$

Example 5.2.15

Let $A = \forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\forall xP(x) \Rightarrow \forall xQ(x))$. We skolemize $\neg A$.

1. $\neg A$ is transformed into the normal formula:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall xP(x) \wedge \exists x\neg Q(x)$$

2. The normal formula is made proper:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall yP(y) \wedge \exists z\neg Q(z)$$

3. The existential quantifier is “replaced” by a constant:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall yP(y) \wedge \neg Q(a)$$

Example 5.2.15

Let $A = \forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\forall xP(x) \Rightarrow \forall xQ(x))$. We skolemize $\neg A$.

1. $\neg A$ is transformed into the normal formula:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall xP(x) \wedge \exists x\neg Q(x)$$

2. The normal formula is made proper:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall yP(y) \wedge \exists z\neg Q(z)$$

3. The existential quantifier is “replaced” by a constant:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall yP(y) \wedge \neg Q(a)$$

4. The universal quantifiers are removed:

$$(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge P(y) \wedge \neg Q(a).$$

Example 5.2.15

Let $A = \forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\forall xP(x) \Rightarrow \forall xQ(x))$. We skolemize $\neg A$.

1. $\neg A$ is transformed into the normal formula:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall xP(x) \wedge \exists x\neg Q(x)$$

2. The normal formula is made proper:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall yP(y) \wedge \exists z\neg Q(z)$$

3. The existential quantifier is “replaced” by a constant:

$$\forall x(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge \forall yP(y) \wedge \neg Q(a)$$

4. The universal quantifiers are removed:

$$(\neg P(x) \vee Q(x)) \wedge P(y) \wedge \neg Q(a).$$

The instantiation $x := a, y := a$ yields $(\neg P(a) \vee Q(a)) \wedge P(a) \wedge \neg Q(a)$.

Hence (Herbrand's theorem) the Skolem form of $\neg A$ is unsatisfiable.

Since skolemization preserves satisfiability, $\neg A$ is unsatisfiable.

Plan

Introduction

Herbrand Universe (domain) and Herbrand Base

Herbrand Interpretation

Herbrand's Theorem

Skolemization

- Motivation, properties and examples

- Definitions and procedure

Conclusion

Today

- ▶ To prove that A is **satisfiable** :
 - ▶ Look for a (finite) model by **n -expansions**
- ▶ To prove that A est **unsatisfiable** :
 - ▶ **Skolemisation**
 - ▶ Look for a **(finite) unsatisfiable set of instances** over D_{Σ}
 - ▶ Herbrand's theorem: then A is unsatisfiable too
- ▶ These methods are **non terminating** and **limited to finite interpretations**
- ▶ To find a counter-model or to prove the validity of A , we proceed as before with $\neg A$

Next course

First-order **deductive** method:

- ▶ Clausal form
- ▶ Unification
- ▶ First-order resolution
- ▶ Consistency
- ▶ Completeness