

Tableau method for FOL

Logical rules for quantifiers

- We saw in the sequent calculus that logical rules for quantifiers depend upon instantiating the quantified variable with terms.
- The rules allow us to use new variables provided they don't appear elsewhere in the proof
 - Sometimes elsewhere is implicit

Quantifiers

- The bound variables in quantifiers are meant to range over the complete domain D
- The resulting terms for `forall` are meant to be “and”ed together
- The resulting terms for `exists` are meant to be “or”ed together
- In a symbolic system, if we treat a single variable with the right rules we can get both kinds of effects.

forall

- Consider the term $(\forall x . F)$
- Lets invent a new variable “y” which is fresh to the program.
- If we can prove $F \gg (x \mid \rightarrow y)$ without any assumptions about y, then we have proven it for $(\forall x . F)$

Exists

- Existentials ($\exists x . F$) are more subtle.
- In an existential we don't need to prove it for all occurrences of x , but for some unknown x which makes F true, but x must be in the domain.
- Skolem functions provide the solutions

Skolem functions

- Consider the formula
- $(\exists x . \text{Odd}(x) \wedge x=y+1 \wedge \text{Even}(y))$
- We don't know what the x is, but it probably depends upon y , so let's invent a function F such that $x=F(y)$. Then we have
- $\text{Odd}(F(y)) \wedge F(y)=y+1 \wedge \text{Even}(y)$
- Note that the variable x has disappeared!

Rules for skolem functions

- Consider $(\exists x . F)$
- Let the free variables of F be (a,b,c,x)
- Then we may invent a skolem function, g , whose arguments are all the variables, except for x , which is (a,b,c) .
- So we get $F \gg (x \mapsto g(a,b,c))$ provided g is a new function symbol.
- What can we assume about $g(a,b,c)$, nothing except that it is equal to $g(a,b,c)$!

Parameters

- Let $L(c,f,p)$ be a logic.
- Invent a new set of constant symbols (disjoint from c and f) called parameters
- Let L^{par} be the logic $L(c \cup par, f, p)$
- Let C be a collection of sentences (closed formula) of L^{par}
- We'd like C to have some properties along the lines of the Hintikka sets of propositional logic

Herbrand Models

- Parameters are constants.
- Since they are not part of any original model of L , we don't know how to model L^{par}
- Luckily we can invent a model, called a Herbrand model, which has all the properties we need a model to have
- The Herbrand model is often called a string (or term) model.

- In a Herbrand model substitutions and assignments coincide
- A substitution maps variables to terms
- An assignment maps variables to the Model set D
- In a Herbrand model D is the set of terms.
- We won't do it here, but we can prove that the Herbrand model has an interesting property called first order consistency.

First order consistency

\mathcal{C} is a first-order consistency property if, for each $S \in \mathcal{C}$:

1. For every atomic proposition ϕ at most one of ϕ or $\neg\phi$ is in S .
2. $\perp \notin S$, $\neg\top \notin S$.
3. If $\neg\neg\phi \in S$ then $S \cup \{\phi\} \in \mathcal{C}$.
4. If $\alpha \in S$ then $S \cup \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2\} \in \mathcal{C}$.
5. If $\beta \in S$ then $S \cup \{\beta_1\} \in \mathcal{C}$ or $S \cup \{\beta_2\} \in \mathcal{C}$.
6. If $\gamma \in S$ then $S \cup \{\gamma(t)\} \in \mathcal{C}$ for every closed term t of L^{par} .
7. If $\delta \in S$ then $S \cup \{\delta(p)\} \in \mathcal{C}$ for some parameter p of L^{par} .

Discriminating formulas in FO logic

- As in predicate logic we can discriminate formulas into certain sets (e.g. Alpha, Beta, Lit)
- We need two new categories
 - Gamma for $(\forall x . F)$ and $\sim(\exists x . F)$
 - Delta for $(\exists x . F)$ and $\sim(\forall x . F)$

What does this look like over Formula?

- In the propositional calculus we needed to deal only with variables and the connectives.
- In the predicate calculus we have predicates, connectives, and the quantifiers.

```
data Discrim v a
  = Alpha a a
  | Beta a a
  | Lit a
  | Gamma v a
  | Delta v a
deriving Show
```

```
notP (Conn Not [x]) = x
notP x = Conn Not [x]
```

```

discrim :: Formula p f v -> Discrim v (Formula p f v)
discrim (p@(Rel r ts)) = Lit p
discrim (Conn T []) = Lit (Conn T [])
discrim (Conn F []) = Lit (Conn F [])
discrim (Conn And [x,y]) = Alpha x y
discrim (Conn Or [x,y]) = Beta x y
discrim (Conn Imp [x,y]) = Beta (notP x) y
discrim (Conn Not [x]) =
  case x of
    (Rel r ts) -> Lit(notP x)
    (Conn T []) -> Lit(Conn F [])
    (Conn F []) -> Lit(Conn T [])
    (Conn And [x,y]) -> Beta (notP x) (notP y)
    (Conn Or [x,y]) -> Alpha (notP x) (notP y)
    (Conn Imp [x,y]) -> Alpha x (notP y)
    (Conn Not [x]) -> discrim x
    (Quant All v f) -> Delta v (notP f)
    (Quant Exist v f) -> Gamma v (notP f)
discrim (Quant All v f) = Gamma v f
discrim (Quant Exist v f) = Delta v f

```

Tableau Method

- The tableau method exploits this by building a branching tree, such that every path maintains this property.
- Differences from tableau for propositional logic.
 1. We no longer have propositional variables, but now have predicates over terms.
 2. We have to deal with quantifiers
 3. To close a path, we need conflicting predicates.

Properties of discrimination

- Discrimination splits all sentences into one of 5 sets.
- All sentences in each set have the same properties
- The splitting is arranged so each set has exactly one of the first order consistency properties

Tableau Trees

data Tree

= Direct (FormulaS) Tree

| Branch Tree Tree

| Leaf

| Closed FormulaS FormulaS

A Leaf marks the end of a path that can be extended

A (Closed x y) marks the end of a closed path where x and y are conjugates (appearing n the path ended by (Closed x y))

Extending a tree

```
extendTree p Leaf = p
extendTree p (Direct q t) =
    Direct q (extendTree p t)
extendTree p (Branch x y) =
    Branch (extendTree p x) (extendTree p y)
extendTree p (Closed x y) =
    Closed x y

-- make 1 and 2 elements trees
single p = Direct (p) Leaf
double p q = Direct (p) (single q)
```

The algorithm

- We start with the negation of the formula to be proved.
- We have a list of pending nodes (not yet visited) and a current tree.
- Pick an unvisited node, discriminate on it, and extend the tree according to the rules
- We need to do this in a state monad as we must be able to invent new variables and skolem functions not in the term.

```
tabTree :: [FormulaS] -> Tree -> State Int Tree
```

```
tabTree [] tree = return tree
```

```
tabTree (x:xs) tree =
```

```
  case discrim x of
```

```
    Lit p -> tabTree xs tree
```

```
    Alpha a b -> tabTree (a:b:xs) (extendTree (double a b) tree)
```

```
    Beta a b ->
```

```
      do { x <- tabTree (a:xs) (single a)
          ; y <- tabTree (b:xs) (single b)
          ; return(extendTree (Branch x y) tree) }
```

```
    Gamma s f ->
```

```
      do { t <- freshTerm
          ; let form = (subst (s |-> t) f)
          ; tabTree (form:xs) (extendTree (single form) tree) }
```

```
    Delta s f ->
```

```
      do { t <- freshSkolem s f
          ; tabTree (t:xs) (extendTree (single t) tree)}
```

Example

- $((\text{ALL } x. O(x, x)) \rightarrow (\text{ALL } x. (\text{EX } y. O(x, y))))$

$\sim((\text{ALL } x. O(x, x)) \rightarrow (\text{ALL } x. (\text{EX } y. O(x, y))))$

$(\text{ALL } x. O(x, x))$

$\sim(\text{ALL } x. (\text{EX } y. O(x, y)))$

$O(n1, n1)$

$\sim(\text{EX } y. O(f2(), y))$

$\sim O(f2(), n3)$

How do we know if this tree can be closed?

$\sim ((\text{ALL } x. O(x, x)) \rightarrow (\text{ALL } x. (\text{EX } y. O(x, y))))$

$(\text{ALL } x. O(x, x))$

$\sim (\text{ALL } x. (\text{EX } y. O(x, y)))$

$O(n1, n1)$

$\sim (\text{EX } y. O(f2(), y))$

$\sim O(f2(), n3)$

$\sim((\text{ALL } x. O(x, x)) \rightarrow (\text{ALL } x. (\text{EX } y. O(x, y))))$

$(\text{ALL } x. O(x, x))$

$\sim(\text{ALL } x. (\text{EX } y. O(x, y)))$

$O(f2(), f2())$

$\sim(\text{EX } y. O(f2(), y))$

$\sim O(f2(), f2())$

$X(\sim O(f2(), f2()), O(f2(), f2()))$

Unification

- unification tries to see if two terms can be made identical by applying the same substitution.
- It works by finding two terms that differ only by a variable in one and a term in the other.

unify

```
unify (Var v) (Var u)
  | u==v = return emptySubst
unify (Var v) y =
  do { occurs v y
      ; return(v |-> y) }
unify y (Var v) =
  do { occurs v y
      ; return (v |-> y) }
unify (Fun _ f ts) (Fun _ g ss)
  | f==g = unifyLists ts ss
unify x y = Nothing
```

UnifyLists

```
unifyLists [] [] = Just emptySubst
unifyLists [] (x:xs) = Nothing
unifyLists (x:xs) [] = Nothing
unifyLists (x:xs) (y:ys) =
  do { s1 <- unify x y
      ; s2 <- unifyLists
                (map (subTerm s1) xs)
                (map (subTerm s1) ys)
      ; return(s2 | => s1) }
```



```
unifyForm (Rel x ts) (Rel y ss)
  | x==y = unifyLists ts ss
unifyForm (Conn c1 ts) (Conn c2 ss)
  | c1==c2 = unifyForms ts ss
unifyForm x y = Nothing
```

```
unifyForms [] [] = Just emptySubst
unifyForms [] (x:xs) = Nothing
unifyForms (x:xs) [] = Nothing
unifyForms (x:xs) (y:ys) =
  do { s1 <- unifyForm x y
      ; s2 <- unifyForms (map (subst s1) xs)
                          (map (subst s1) ys)
      ; return(s2 | => s1) }
```

Subtle

- Consider
- $((\text{ALL } x. O(x, x)) \rightarrow (\text{ALL } x. (\text{ALL } y. (O(x, x) \mid O(y, y))))))$
- What is the tableau?
- Does it close

Problem

- What about this example

$((\text{ALL } x. O(x, x)) \rightarrow (\text{ALL } x. (\text{ALL } y. (O(x, x) \ \& \ O(y, y))))))$

The tableau

$\sim((\text{ALL } x. O(x, x)) \rightarrow (\text{ALL } x. (\text{ALL } y. (O(x, x) \& O(y, y))))))$
 $(\text{ALL } x. O(x, x))$

$\sim(\text{ALL } x. (\text{ALL } y. (O(x, x) \& O(y, y))))$
 $O(n1, n1)$

$\sim(\text{ALL } y. (O(f2(), f2()) \& O(y, y)))$

$\sim(O(f2(), f2()) \& O(f3(), f3()))$

+-----+ +-----+

| $\sim O(f2(), f2())$ | | $\sim O(f3(), f3())$ |

+-----+ +-----+

- The problem with the last example is that a forall term is instantiated at one variable
- But as we saw in the sequent calculus we can instantiate it several times.
- But if we're not careful we may go into an infinite loop. Why?

Paths

- We don't need to actually compute the tree
- Only the paths of literal terms are necessary
- As we saw in the propositional case, the order we visit the nodes also matters.

```

tab3:: [FormulaS] -> [[FormulaS]] -> State Int
[[FormulaS]]
tab3 [] paths = return paths
tab3 (x:xs) paths =
  case discrim x of
    Lit p -> tab3 xs (map (cons3 p) paths)
    Alpha a b -> tab3 (insert3 a (insert3 b xs))
                    (map (cons3 a . cons3 b)
paths)
    Beta a b ->
      do { ms <- tab3 (insert3 a xs)
          (map (cons3 a) paths)
          ; ns <- tab3 (insert3 b xs)
          (map (cons3 b) paths)
          ; return (ms++ns)}
    Gamma v f ->
      do { t <- freshTerm
          ; let form = (subst (v |-> t) f)
          ; tab3 (form:xs) paths }
    Delta s f ->
      do { t <- freshSkolem s f
          ; tab3 (t:xs) paths }

```