Lecture 3 Equivalences and normal forms Equational reasoning, Boolean algebras, normal forms

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Recap

Syntax of formulas of propositional logic:

true and false are formulas.

2 Every propositional variable x_i is a formula.

If *F* is a formula, then $\neg F$ is a formula.

• If F and G are formulas, then $(F \land G)$ and $(F \lor G)$ are formulas.

- Semantics of formulas via assignments, which are functions $\mathcal{A} \colon X \to \{0, 1\}$ that inductively extend to formulas
- Four notions: satisfiability, validity, entailment, equivalence.

Agenda







Decision problems

A decision problem is a computational problem whose output is either "yes" or "no".

- Satisfiability: Given a formula *F*, is *F* satisfiable?
- Validity: Given a formula F, is F valid?
- Entailment: Given formulas F and G, does $F \models G$ hold?
- Equivalence: Given formulas F and G, does $F \equiv G$ hold?





- Can show logical equivalence with brute force via truth tables
- Equational reasoning is more practical in many cases:
 - Establish basic equivalences
 - Derive new equivalences using the closure of logical equivalence under substitution



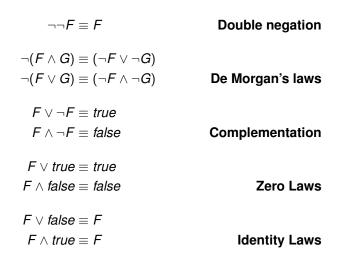
George Boole

Basic equivalences

The following is a list of basic equivalences:

$F \land F \equiv F$ $F \lor F \equiv F$	Idempotence
$egin{array}{ll} F \wedge G \equiv G \wedge F \ F \lor G \equiv G \lor F \end{array}$	Commutativity
$(F \land G) \land H \equiv F \land (G \land H)$ $(F \lor G) \lor H \equiv F \lor (G \lor H)$	Associativity
$egin{aligned} \mathcal{F} \wedge (\mathcal{F} ee \mathcal{G}) &\equiv \mathcal{F} \ \mathcal{F} ee (\mathcal{F} \wedge \mathcal{G}) &\equiv \mathcal{F} \end{aligned}$	Absorption
$F \land (G \lor H) \equiv (F \land G) \lor (F \land H)$ $F \lor (G \land H) \equiv (F \lor G) \land (F \lor H)$	Distributivity

Basic equivalences



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$$(p_1 \land (p_2 \lor p_1))[\neg q_1/p_1] = \neg q_1 \land (p_2 \lor \neg q_1)$$

 Formally, G[F/H] := F if G = H. Whenever G ≠ H, we proceed by induction:

Base cases:

$$x[F/H] := x$$
 for all $x \in X$

Induction steps:

$$(\neg G)[F/H] := \neg (G[F/H])$$

 $(G_1 \land G_2)[F/H] := G_1[F/H] \land G_2[F/H]$
 $(G_1 \lor G_2)[F/H] := G_1[F/H] \lor G_2[F/H]$

Theorem (Substitution Theorem)

If $F_1 \equiv F_2$ and $G_1 \equiv G_2$ then for every formula H

 $G_1[F_1/H] \equiv G_2[F_2/H].$

Corollary

If $F_1 \equiv F_2$ then for every formula G

 $G \equiv G[F_2/F_1]$

Proof.

Special case of the theorem with $G_1 := G$, $G_2 := G$, $H := F_1$.

We prove the Substitution Theorem for the special case H = x. We need a semantic counterpart of substitution:

Given an assignment A, a propositional variable x, and a truth value $b \in \{0, 1\}$, define the assignment $A_{[x \mapsto b]}$ by

$$\mathcal{A}_{[x\mapsto b]}(y) := \left\{ egin{array}{cc} b & ext{if } y = x \\ \mathcal{A}(y) & ext{if } y \neq x \end{array}
ight.$$

for each propositional variable $y \in X$.

Lemma (Translation Lemma)

Given formulas F, G and a propositional variable x, we have

 $\mathcal{A}(G[F/x]) = \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F)]}(G).$

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Proof.

By structural induction on *G*. If G = x then $\mathcal{A}(x[F/x]) = \mathcal{A}(F) = \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F)]}(x)$. If G = y for $y \neq x$ then $\mathcal{A}(y[F/x]) = \mathcal{A}(y) = \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F)]}(y)$. If $G = G_1 \land G_2$ then

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{A} &\models (G_1 \wedge G_2)[F/x] \ \text{iff} \ \mathcal{A} &\models G_1[F/x] \wedge G_2[F/x] \\ & \text{iff} \ \mathcal{A} \models G_1[F/x] \ \text{and} \ \mathcal{A} \models G_2[F/x] \\ & \text{iff} \ \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F)]} \models G_1 \ \text{and} \ \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F)]} \models G_2 \quad \text{(i.h.)} \\ & \text{iff} \ \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F)]} \models G_1 \wedge G_2 \end{split}$$

The induction cases for disjunction and negation are similar and are omitted.

Theorem (Substitution Theorem for H = x) If $F_1 \equiv F_2$ and $G_1 \equiv G_2$ then $G_1[F_1/x] \equiv G_2[F_2/x].$

Proof.

The proof is a direct application of Lemma 3.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{A}(G_1[F_1/x]) &= \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F_1)]}(G_1) & \text{by Lemma 3} \\ &= \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F_1)]}(G_2) & \text{since } G_1 \equiv G_2 \\ &= \mathcal{A}_{[x \mapsto \mathcal{A}(F_2)]}(G_2) & \text{since } F_1 \equiv F_2 \\ &= \mathcal{A}(G_2[F_2/x]) & \text{by Lemma 3} \end{array}$$

The equivalence

$$(P \lor (Q \lor R) \land (R \lor \neg P)) \equiv R \lor (\neg P \land Q).$$

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Here are two other examples of Boolean algebras:

• $A = \{0, 1\}, true = 1, false = 0, \land = \min, \lor = \max, \neg x = 1 - x.$

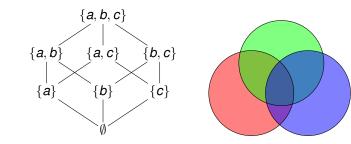
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, *true* = 1, *false* = 0, $\land = \min, \lor = \max, \neg x = 1 - x$.

• For any set X, take $A = 2^X$ with true = X, $false = \emptyset$, $\land = \cap$, $\lor = \cup, \neg S = X \setminus S$.

In fact, any finite Boolean algebra is of the form 2^{χ} .



Boolean algebras and Boolean rings

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$$ab := a \wedge b$$

 $a + b := (a \wedge \neg b) \lor (\neg a \wedge b)$

So Boolean algebras = Boolean rings







Normal forms

• A **literal** is a propositional variable or the negation of a propositional variable:

x or
$$\neg x$$

• A formula *F* is in **conjunctive normal form** (**CNF**) if it is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals *L*_{*i*,*j*}:

$$F = \bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} (\bigvee_{j=1}^{m_i} L_{i,j})$$

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• A formula *F* is in **disjunctive normal form** (**DNF**) if it is a disjunction of conjunctions of literals *L*_{*i*,*j*} :

$$\mathbf{F} = \bigvee_{i=1}^{n} (\bigwedge_{j=1}^{m_i} L_{i,j})$$

Each conjunct is called a minterm.

• Convention: *true* is CNF with no clauses, *false* is CNF with a single clause without literals

Theorem (Normalisation Theorem)

For every formula there is an equivalent formula in CNF and an equivalent formula in DNF.

х	y	Ζ	F
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1

- Each row with value 1 gives a clause in the DNF formula
- For each propositional variable x, the clause contains the literal x if 1 appears in column x, and ¬x otherwise



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- Each row with value 0 gives a clause in the CNF formula
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Is this efficient?

Is this efficient? No! Better way:

1. Use **double negation** and **De Morgan's laws** to substitute in *F* every occurrence of a subformula of the form

$\neg \neg G$	by	G
$\neg(G \land H)$	by	$(\neg G \lor \neg H)$
$\neg(G \lor H)$	by	$(\neg G \land \neg H)$
<i>¬true</i>	by	false
<i>¬false</i>	by	true

until no such formulas occur (i.e., push all negations inward until negation is only applied to propositional variables), yielding the **negation normal form**

2. Use **distributivity** to substitute in *F* every occurrence of a subformula of the form

$G \lor (H \land R)$	by	$(G \lor H) \land (G \lor R)$
$(H \wedge R) \lor G$	by	$(H \lor G) \land (H \lor R)$
G ∨ true	by	true
<i>true</i> ∨ <i>G</i>	by	true

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3. Use the **identity** and **zero laws** to remove *false* from any clause and to delete all clauses containing *true*.

Tseytin's transformation

We give an algorithm, known as Tseytin's transformation, that

- takes as input a formula F of length n, and
- outputs a formula G in CNF of length O(n) such that F is satisfiable iff G is satisfiable.

Observe that *G* cannot be the result of putting *F* in CNF, because in the worst case *G* can have length $\Theta(2^n)$.

Trade-off:

- G is only a small constant factor larger than F.
- *F* and *G* will **not** be equivalent in general. In fact, *G* will even contain auxiliary variables that do not apear in *F*.

Application: SAT-solving algorithms can assume that the input formula is in CNF.

There is **not** a similar algorithm for DNF.

Tseytin's transformation

- For every subformula G of F, let q_G be a fresh auxiliary variable. (Unless G is an atom, then we define q_G := G.)
- For every subformula G, define the formula C_G as follows:

• If
$$G = x$$
 then $C_G := x$.

- If $G = \neg H$, then let C_G be a formula in CNF equivalent to $(q_G \leftrightarrow \neg q_H)$.
- if G = (H op H') for $\text{ op } \in \{\land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow, \ldots\}$, then let C_G be a formula in CNF equivalent to $C_G \equiv (q_G \leftrightarrow (q_H \text{ op } q_{H'})).$

Define

$$E_F := q_F \wedge \bigwedge_{G \in \mathit{sub}(F)} C_G$$

Observe that E_F is in CNF.

Tseytin's transformation

Theorem

For every formula $F: E_F$ is satisfiable iff F is satisfiable.

Proof Sketch.

For every assignment A, let A' be an assignment satisfying $A'(q_G) = A(G)$ for every subformula G of F.

We have:

•
$$\mathcal{A}(F) = \mathcal{A}'(F) = \mathcal{A}'(q_F).$$

• $\mathcal{A}'(C_G) = 1$ for every subformula *G*.

It follows $\mathcal{A}'(E_F) = 1$ iff $\mathcal{A}(F) = 1$, and we are done.

Tseytin's transformation: Example

• Let
$$F = (p_1 \land p_2) \lor (p_3 \land p_4)$$
.

- Introducing auxiliary variables yields: $q_0 \land (q_0 \leftrightarrow (q_1 \lor q_2)) \land (q_1 \leftrightarrow (p_1 \land p_2)) \land (q_2 \leftrightarrow (p_3 \land p_4))$
- For CNF we put each of the formulas $(q_0 \leftrightarrow (q_1 \lor q_2))$, $(q_1 \leftrightarrow (p_1 \land p_2))$ und $(q_2 \leftrightarrow (p_3 \land p_4))$ in CNF.
- Each formula has 3 variables, and so the CNF can always be chosen with at most 4 clauses.
- We obtain:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} E_F := q_0 & \wedge & (\neg q_0 \lor q_1 \lor q_2) \land (q_0 \lor \neg q_1) \land (q_0 \lor \neg q_2) \\ & \wedge & (q_1 \lor \neg p_1 \lor \neg p_2) \land (\neg q_1 \lor p_1) \land (\neg q_1 \lor p_2) \\ & \wedge & (q_2 \lor \neg p_3 \lor \neg p_4) \land (\neg q_2 \lor p_3) \land (\neg q_2 \lor p_4) \end{array}$$

Summary

- Equational reasoning is often more practical than using truth tables
- It allows reduction to normal forms
- CNF and DNF formulas are equally expressive as the class of all formulas

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Note:

- CNF can be exponentially shorter than DNF, see Sheet 1
- SAT is trivial for DNF formulas
- Later: SAT for CNF formulas = SAT for any formula