

Informatics 1 – Introduction to Computation

Computation and Logic

Julian Bradfield

based on materials by

Michael P. Fourman

Satisfying Assignments

Boolean Algebra, Tseytin, Counting



Henry Scheffer,
1882–1964



Gregory Tseytin,
1936–2022

Boolean operators – recap

2.1/17

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name	sym	t.t.	a.k.a.
true	\top	1	1, top
false	\perp	0	0, bottom
not	\neg	1 0	complement, $-$
and	\wedge	0 0 0 1	$\&$, $.$, \times
or	\vee	0 1 1 1	$ $, $+$
implies	\rightarrow	1 1 0 1	\leq

name	sym	t.t.	a.k.a.
implied by	\leftarrow	1 0 1 1	\geq
iff	\leftrightarrow	1 0 0 1	$=$
xor	\oplus	0 1 1 0	\neq , parity
nand	$\overline{\wedge}$	1 1 1 0	
nor	$\overline{\vee}$	1 0 0 0	

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$$\frac{\Gamma, b \models \Delta \quad \Gamma \models a, \Delta}{\Gamma, a \rightarrow b \models \Delta} (\rightarrow L) \quad \frac{\Gamma, a \models b, \Delta}{\Gamma \models a \rightarrow b, \Delta} (\rightarrow R)$$

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Boring exercise: take all the stuff you've done in Haskell on WFFs etc., and extend it for these operators, if you haven't already.

Note that $(\rightarrow R)$ has the special case

$$\frac{a \models b}{\models a \rightarrow b}$$

which ties down the precise similarity between \models and \rightarrow .

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This set of axioms is far from minimal.

Astonishingly, this single axiom suffices:

$$\neg(\neg(\neg(a \vee b) \vee c) \vee \neg(a \vee \neg(\neg c \vee \neg(c \vee d)))) = c$$

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Other convenient derived equations include:

- ▶ **Negation cancellation**: $\neg\neg a = a$
- ▶ **Zero/One**: $\neg 1 = 0$ and $\neg 0 = 1$
- ▶ **Simple absorption**: $a \vee a = a$ and sim. for \wedge
- ▶ **De Morgan**: $\neg(a \vee b) = \neg a \wedge \neg b$ and *vice versa*

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Proof $\neg y = 1 \wedge \neg y$ by identity

$= (x \vee y) \wedge \neg y$ by assumption

$= (x \wedge \neg y) \vee (y \wedge \neg y)$ by distributivity

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By the lemma, to prove $\neg(a \vee b) = \neg a \wedge \neg b$, it suffices to prove $(a \vee b) \vee (\neg a \wedge \neg b) = 1$ and $(a \vee b) \wedge (\neg a \wedge \neg b) = 0$. Both these follow easily by distributivity, complement, associativity and commutativity: e.g. the first is

$$(a \vee b) \vee (\neg a \wedge \neg b) = ((a \vee b) \vee \neg a) \wedge ((a \vee b) \vee \neg b) = \dots = 1 \wedge 1 = 1.$$

We can add derived rules, as we did in sequent calculus:

- ▶ **Bi-implication:** $a \leftrightarrow b = (a \rightarrow b) \wedge (b \rightarrow a)$
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Programming this was in FP tutorial 6! If you didn't try the optional and challenge parts, go back and try them now.

Doing this by hand tends to be boring: see textbook chapter 22 for worked examples.

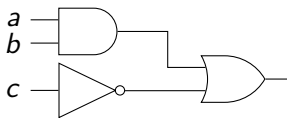
(Not a) Short Digression: Circuits

7.1/17

Ultimately, logic is implemented in silicon via transistors, referred to as **logic gates**. Circuit designers draw gates like this:



Gates (boolean operators) are connected by drawing wires:

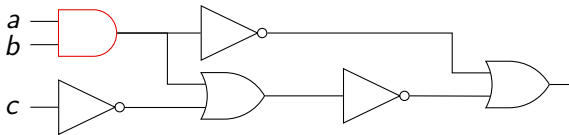


is the circuit for $(a \wedge b) \vee \neg c$.

Circuits can duplicate expressions

8.1/17

A circuit can use the same output more than once:



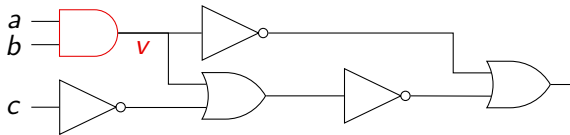
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8.2/17

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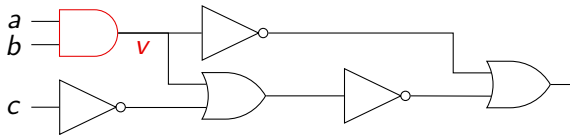
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$\psi = (\neg v \vee \neg(v \vee \neg c)) \wedge (v \leftrightarrow a \wedge b)$ (or think: $\neg v \vee \neg(v \vee \neg c)$ **where** $v = a \wedge b$)

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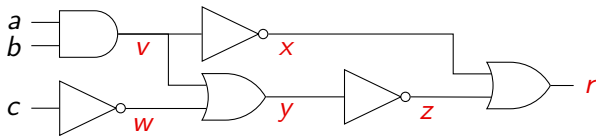
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We can do this for all the intermediate values, and forget the original formula.

Note that we include the variable for the whole formula: this variable needs to be true.

r
 $r \leftrightarrow x \vee z$
 $x \leftrightarrow \neg v$
 $v \leftrightarrow a \wedge b$
 $z \leftrightarrow \neg y$
 $y \leftrightarrow v \vee w$
 $w \leftrightarrow \neg c$

The Tseytin transformation

9.1/17

does with formulae what we've just done with gates.

Introduce a new variable x for every subformula ϕ , and add a clause saying $x \leftrightarrow \phi$. For example:

(see live demo)

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Having done that, we can convert all the Tseytin formulae to CNF and conjoin them into one big CNF:

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Tseytin is an $O(n)$ conversion to an equisatisfiable CNF formula.

Unfortunately CNF-SAT can still be exponential – no free lunch.

Final question for you: how long does it take to check satisfiability of a DNF formula?

2-CNF-SAT (or just **2-SAT**) is the special case where *every clause has at most two literals*, such as:

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They arise naturally in problems involving may/must/must not relations between things: e.g. which courses you are able to take. Sometimes unfortunate consequences arise from simple rules ...

Any two-variable clause can be written in terms of \vee and \neg , and vice versa.

Rewriting the previous out of CNF gives:

$$\neg(A \wedge C) \wedge (B \rightarrow C) \wedge (A \vee B) \wedge (C \rightarrow D) \wedge \neg(D \wedge B)$$

which might represent the following rules:

1. You may not take both Astrology and Chiromancy
2. If you take Belomancy, you must take Chiromancy
3. You must take Astrology or Belomancy
4. If you take Chiromancy, you must take Dream Interpretation
5. You may not take both Dream Interpretation and Belomancy

What can you take?

Implication clauses

12.1/17

Any two-variable clause can *also* be written in terms of \rightarrow and \neg :

$$(A \rightarrow \neg C) \wedge (B \rightarrow C) \wedge (\neg A \rightarrow B) \wedge (C \rightarrow D) \wedge (D \rightarrow \neg B)$$

$\neg A \vee \neg C$ is
symmetrical. Is
 $A \rightarrow \neg C$
symmetrical?
(Remember back to
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12.2/17

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This is useful because *implication is transitive*:

if $B \rightarrow C$ and $C \rightarrow D$, then $B \rightarrow D$

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$$0 \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow D \longrightarrow \neg B \longrightarrow 1$$

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$0 \rightarrow$ anything, and
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$$0 \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow D \longrightarrow \neg B \longrightarrow 1$$

This tells us a lot about satisfying assignments:

- If a literal is true, everything to the right must be true

$\neg A \vee \neg C$ is
symmetrical. Is

$$A \rightarrow \neg C$$

symmetrical?

(Remember back to
sequents and
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Remember barbara!

$0 \rightarrow$ anything, and
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Implication clauses

12.5/17

Any two-variable clause can *also* be written in terms of \rightarrow and \neg :

$$(A \rightarrow \neg C) \wedge (B \rightarrow C) \wedge (\neg A \rightarrow B) \wedge (C \rightarrow D) \wedge (D \rightarrow \neg B)$$

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12.7/17

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What should I do
with A , $\neg A$, and
 $\neg C$?

Implication clauses

12.8/17

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if $B \rightarrow C$ and $C \rightarrow D$, then $B \rightarrow D$

We can build a partial **graph** of implication between literals:

$$0 \longrightarrow B \longrightarrow C \longrightarrow D \longrightarrow \neg B \longrightarrow 1$$

This tells us a lot about satisfying assignments:

- ▶ If a literal is true, everything to the right must be true
- ▶ If it's false, everything to the left must be false
- ▶ B must be false
- ▶ if C is true, so is D

Satisfying assignments are got from cutting the line somewhere, which must be right of B . (And then dealing with the rest.)

$\neg A \vee \neg C$ is

symmetrical. Is

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symmetrical?

(Remember back to sequents and contraposition. . .)

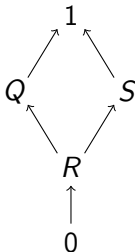
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$0 \rightarrow$ anything, and
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What should I do
with A , $\neg A$, and
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says that if we draw the full graph of implications, any valid cut through the graph gives a satisfying assignment: literals above the cut are true, those below are false. Another example:

$$(\neg R \vee Q) \wedge (\neg R \vee S) \quad \text{equiv} \quad (R \rightarrow Q) \wedge (R \rightarrow S)$$

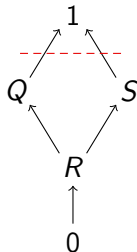


A **cut** is a set of edges which, when deleted, cut the graph in two.

A **valid** cut must separate 0 and 1.

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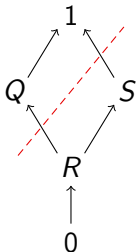


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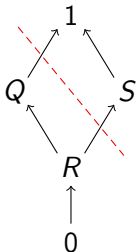


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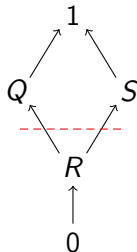
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The Arrow Rule

13.5/17

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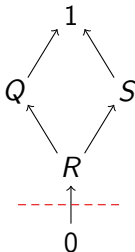
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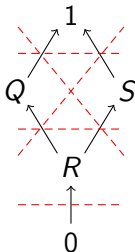
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13.7/17

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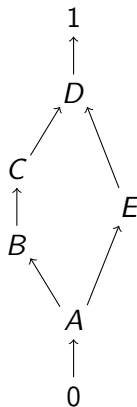
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A **valid** cut must separate 0 and 1.

There are five satisfying assignments, one for each valid cut.

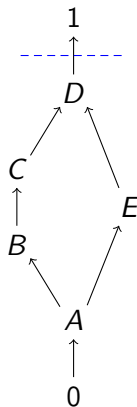
A more complex example:

$$(A \rightarrow B) \wedge (B \rightarrow C) \wedge (C \rightarrow D) \wedge (A \rightarrow E) \wedge (E \rightarrow D)$$



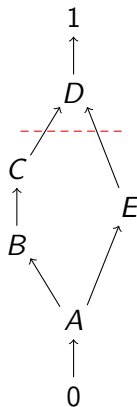
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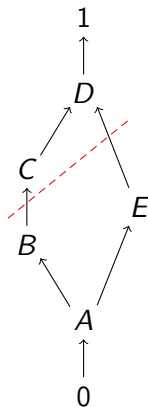
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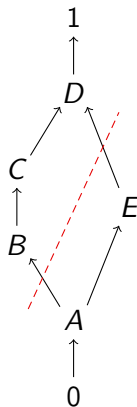
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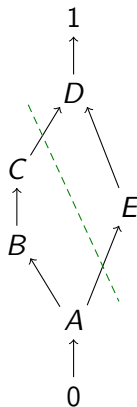
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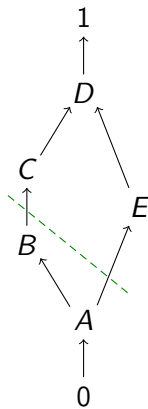
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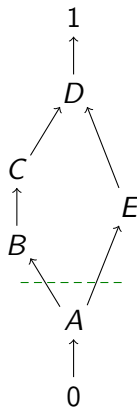
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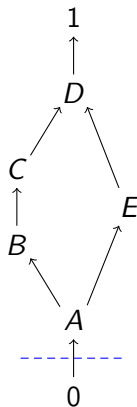
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$$(A \rightarrow B) \wedge (B \rightarrow C) \wedge (C \rightarrow D) \wedge (A \rightarrow E) \wedge (E \rightarrow D)$$

There are eight ways to cut this.



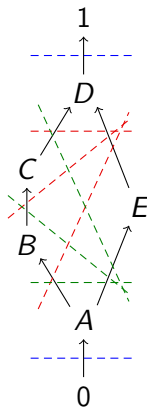
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We can count cuts thus:

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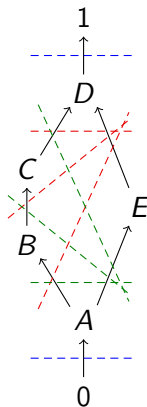
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There are eight ways to cut this.

We can count cuts thus:

- ▶ one cut above D
- ▶ cuts across the pentagon: 2 ways to cut the right side, 3 ways to cut the left, so 6



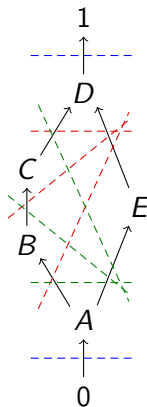
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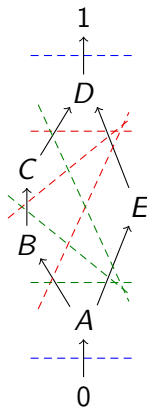
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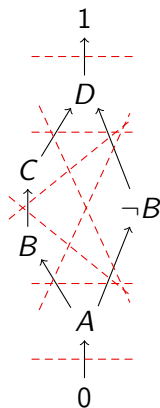
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For an even more complicated example, see the textbook (Chapter 23, p. 252).



What happens with formulae that have A and $\neg A$ (like the very first one)? Such as:

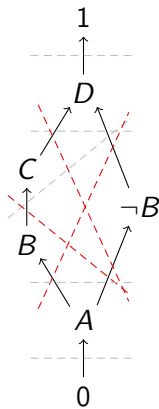
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A valid cut must *separate complementary literals*, so only 3 cuts survive.

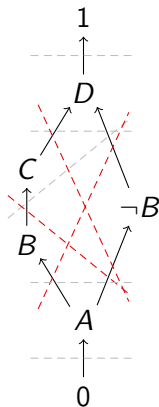


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Note $A \rightarrow \neg B$ is the same as $B \rightarrow \neg A$ (contraposition), so sometimes you can remove complementary literals. This makes thing easier!



It's quite possible for the implication graph to contain *cycles*. For example:

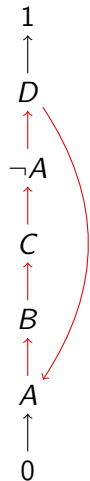
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Cycles in the graph

16.2/17

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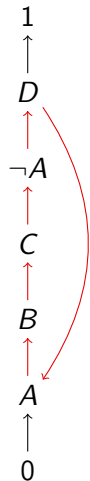
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Every literal in a cycle must take the same value, so:
A valid cut *must not cut a cycle*.



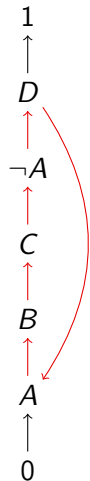
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In this example, the cycle contains complementary literals, so must be cut! There is **no satisfying assignment**.



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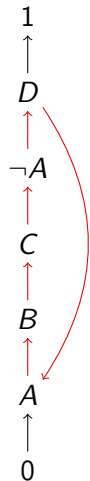
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In this example, the cycle contains complementary literals, so must be cut! There is **no satisfying assignment**.

Sometimes cycles can be removed by taking the contrapositive. Go back to the first example (slide 12) and complete it both with and without a cycle.



Drawing the implication graph and counting valid cuts lets us count satisfying assignments of 2-SAT formulae.

A valid cut must:

- ▶ separate 0 and 1
- ▶ separate complementary literals
- ▶ not cut a cycle

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Why do we care? It turns out that #2-SAT (as it is known) has application in statistical physics and artificial intelligence. It is also of theoretical interest in several ways.

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(There is one quirk we haven't considered. What if the implication graph is *non-planar*? See the book for how to deal with that.)