CS5733 Program Synthesis #5. Propositional Logic Normal Forms

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Partly based on slides by Roopsha Samata at Purdue

EUSolver

- Q1: What does EUSolver use as behavioral constraints? Structural
	- constraint? Search strategy?
	- First-order formula
	- Conditional expression grammar
	- Bottom-up enumerative with OE + pruning
- Why do they need the specification to be pointwise?
	- How would it break the enumerative solver?

EUSolver

- search?
	- Condition abduction + (special form of) equivalence reduction
- Why does EUSolver keep generating additional terms when all inputs are covered?
- How is the EUSolver equivalence reduction differ from observational equivalence we saw in class?
	- Only takes input coverage as the judgement, rather than similar behavior.
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• Q2: What are pruning/decomposition techniques EUSolver used to speed up the

• Can we discard a term that covers a subset of the points covered by another term?

EUSolver

- Q3: What would be a naive alternative to decision tree learning for synthesizing branch conditions?
	- Learn atomic predicates that precisely classify points
		- why is this worse?
		- is it as bad as ESolver?
- Next best thing is decision tree learning w/o heuristics
	- why is this worse?

EUSolver: strengths

- Divide-and-conquer (aka condition abduction) • scales better on conditional expressions
- but: they didn't invent it
- leverages the structure of Boolean expressions
-
- Neat application of decision tree learning Empirically does well, especially on PBE
	-

EUSover: weaknesses

Only applies to conditional expressions Does not always generate the smallest expression

- in the limit, can find the smallest solution
- but unclear when to stop

Only works for pointwise specifications

• but so do ALL CEGIS-based approaches

No solution size evaluation beyond those solved by ESolver

No ablation of DT repair / branch-wise verification

Reading: point-wise,

Counterexample-Guided Quantifier Instantiation for Synthesis in SMT, CAV '15

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-
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Top-down enumeration pruning, continue...

Types and Type based Top-down pruning

• Drop the smallest element from each list

[71, 75, 83] [90, 87, 95] [68, 77, 80]

[75, 83] [90 95] [77 80]

Example

[71, 75, 83] [90, 87, 95] [68, 77, 80]

dropmins $x = map$ dropmin x where dropmin $y =$ filter is Not Min y where $isNotMin z = fold 1 h False y$ where h t $w = t$ || $(w < z)$

[75, 83] [90 95] [77 80]

How can we discover this program?

Defining the language

 | $\lambda x. expr$

expr = var

 | **filter** *expr expr* | **map** *expr expr* | **foldl** *expr expr expr* | *boolExpr* | *arithExpr*

Top-down search

Many of these programs can be eliminated before having to complete them!

How?

Top-down search

Top-down search

• Our simple language supports an infinite set of types of 3 basic

type

Function from some type to some other type

Types

[71, 75, 83] [90, 87, 95] [68, 77, 80] $\left[\begin{array}{c} \lfloor Int \rfloor \end{array} \right]$ $\left[\begin{array}{c} \lfloor Int \rfloor \end{array} \right]$

Input and output types are lists of lists of integers

• Each element in our language has a type given by a *typing rule* premises

 $C \vdash expr : \tau$

A typing rule like the one above states that $_{expr}$ has type τ in a context c as long as all the premises are satisfied • A context simply tracks information about the type of any variables

'pes

• Each element in our language has a type given by a *typing rule*

C says var *has type* τ $C \vdash \text{var} : \tau$ $C, x : \tau_1 \vdash expr : \tau_2$ $C \vdash \lambda x$. expr: $\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ $: \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ epxr: τ_1 \vdash f expr: τ_2

 $map: (\tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2) \rightarrow [\tau_1] \rightarrow [\tau_2]$ foldl

$$
\mathcal{I}:\left(\tau_{start}\rightarrow\tau_{lst}\rightarrow\tau_{start}\right)\rightarrow\tau_{start}\rightarrow\left[\tau_{lst}\right]\rightarrow\tau_{sta}
$$

$$
:Bool \t\t\t filter: (\tau \to Bool) \to [\tau] \to [\tau] \t\t\t int Expr :
$$

 $int Expr: Int$

They cannot possibly have the correct type

We can quickly dismiss many possible expressions because they cannot produce the type $\tau_1 \rightarrow [Int]$

Program Synthesis Program Verification

Propositional Logic Normal Forms

Calculus of Computation?

It is reasonable to hope that the relationship between computation and mathematical logic will be as fruitful in the next century as that between analysis and physics in the last. The development of this relationship demands a concern for both applications and mathematical elegance.

John McCarthy A Basis for a Mathematical Theory of Computation, 1963

Propositional logic (PL) syntax

- truth symbols $T('true")$ and $\perp ('false")$ Atom propositional variables p, q, r, p_1, q_1
- Literal atom α or its negation $\neg \alpha$
- Formula $"$ not" $\neg F$ "or" $F_1 \vee F_2$ $F_1 \wedge F_2$ "and" $F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ "implies" $F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2$ "if and only if"

literal or application of a logical connective to F, F_1, F_2 (negation) (disjunction) (conjunction) (implication) \sqrt{iff}

Example

formula $F:(P \wedge Q) \rightarrow (T \vee \neg Q)$ atoms: P, Q, T literals: $P, Q, \top, \neg Q$ subformulae: P, Q, T, $\neg Q$, $P \wedge Q$, $T \vee \neg Q$, F abbreviation $F: P \wedge Q \rightarrow \top \vee \neg Q$

PL Semantics (Meaning)

Sentence $F +$ Interpretation $I =$ Truth value (true, false)

Interpretation

\n
$$
I: \{P \mapsto \text{true}, Q \mapsto
$$

Evaluation of F under I : $\begin{array}{c|c}\nF & \neg F \\
\hline\n0 & 1 \\
1 & 0\n\end{array}$ where 0 corresponds to value false $\mathbf 1$ true $F_1 | F_2 | F_1 \wedge F_2 | F_1 \vee F_2 | F_1 \rightarrow F_2 | F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2$ $\overline{0}$ $\overline{0}$ $\overline{0}$

 \rightarrow false, $\cdots\}$

 $\pmb{\prime}$

 $I \models F$ if F evaluates to true under / $I \not\models F$ false

Satisfying and Falsifying Interpretations

Example

$F: P \wedge Q \rightarrow P \vee \neg Q$ $I: {P \mapsto true, Q \mapsto false}$

F evaluates to true under I

 $1 = true$ 0 = false

PL Semantics (Inductive definitions)

Base Case: $I \models T$ $1 \not\models \bot$ $I \models P$ iff $I[P] = true$ $I \not\models P$ iff $I[P] = false$

Note: $1 \not\models F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ iff $1 \not\models F_1$ and $1 \not\models F_2$

Inductive Case: $I \models \neg F$ iff $I \not\models F$ $I \models F_1 \wedge F_2$ iff $I \models F_1$ and $I \models F_2$ $I \models F_1 \lor F_2$ iff $I \models F_1$ or $I \models F_2$ $I \models F_1 \rightarrow F_2$ iff, if $I \models F_1$ then $I \models F_2$ $I \models F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2$ iff, $I \models F_1$ and $I \models F_2$, or $I \not\models F_1$ and $I \not\models F_2$

Example

 $F: P \wedge Q \rightarrow P \vee \neg Q$ $I: {P \mapsto true, Q \mapsto false}$

Thus, F is true under Γ .

since $I[P] = true$ since $I[Q] = false$ by 4 and \rightarrow Why?

Satisfiability and Validity

F is satisfiable iff there exists $I: I \models F$

F is valid iff for all $I: I \vDash F$

Duality: F is valid iff $\neg F$ is unsatisfiable

Procedure for deciding satisfiability or validity suffices!

Deciding satisfiability/validity

• Basic techniques

- Truth table method: search-based
- Semantic argument method: deductive technique
- SAT solvers
	- Combine search and deduction

Truth table method

- 1. Enumerate all interpretations
- 2. Search for satisfying interpretation

Brute-force! Impractical $(2^n$ interpretations) Can't be used if domain is not finite, e.g., for first-order logic

$F: P \wedge Q \rightarrow P \vee \neg Q$

Thus F is valid.

Example

$F: P \vee Q \rightarrow P \wedge Q$

Thus F is satisfiable, but invalid.

 $\boxed{1}$ \leftarrow satisfying *I*
0 \leftarrow falsifying *I*

Method 2: Semantic Argument

Proof by contradiction:

- 1. Assume F is not valid
- 2. Apply proof rules
- 3. Contradiction (i.e, \perp) along every branch of proof tree \Rightarrow F is valid
- 4. Otherwise, F is not valid

A bit of an overhead for PL Applicable to first-order logic

Proof rules

Let's assume that F is not valid and that I is a falsifying interpretation.

1.
$$
I \not\models P \land Q \rightarrow P \lor
$$

\n2. $I \not\models P \land Q$
\n3. $I \not\models P \lor \neg Q$
\n4. $I \not\models P$
\n5. $I \not\models P$
\n6. $I \not\models \bot$

Thus F is valid

- **Example** To Prove $F: P \wedge Q \rightarrow P \vee \neg Q$ is valid.
	-

assumption

 $\neg Q$

- 1 and \rightarrow
- 1 and \rightarrow
- 2 and \land
- 3 and \vee
- 4 and 5 are contradictory

Example 2

To Prove $F: (P \rightarrow Q) \wedge (Q \rightarrow R) \rightarrow (P \rightarrow R)$ is valid.

Example 2

Let's assume that F is not valid.

1.
$$
1 \not\models F
$$

\n2. $1 \not\models (P \rightarrow Q) \land ($
\n3. $1 \not\models P \rightarrow R$
\n4. $1 \not\models P$
\n5. $1 \not\models R$
\n6. $1 \not\models P \rightarrow Q$
\n7. $1 \not\models Q \rightarrow R$

$(Q \rightarrow R)$ 1 and \rightarrow

assumption

-
- 1 and \rightarrow
- 3 and \rightarrow
- 3 and \rightarrow
- 2 and of \land
- 2 and of \land

Our assumption is incorrect in all cases $- F$ is valid.

8a. $I \not\models P$ 6 and \rightarrow
9a. $I \not\models \perp$ 4 and 8a are contradictory

8b. $I \models Q$ 6 and \rightarrow

9ba. $I \not\models Q$ 7 and \rightarrow
10ba. $I \not\models \perp$ 8b and 9ba are contradictory

9bb. $I \models R$ 7 and \rightarrow
10bb. $I \models \bot$ 5 and 9bb are contradictory

Semantic judgements, Equivalence F_1 and F_2 are equivalent $(F_1 \Leftrightarrow F_2)$

- iff for all interpretations $I, I \models F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2$
- To prove $F_1 \Leftrightarrow F_2$ show $F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2$ is valid.
- F_1 implies F_2 $(F_1 \Rightarrow F_2)$ iff for all interpretations $I, I \models F_1 \rightarrow F_2$

 $F_1 \Leftrightarrow F_2$ and $F_1 \Rightarrow F_2$ are not formulae!

Normal Forms

• A normal form for a logic is a syntactical restriction such that for every formula in the

- logic, there is an equivalent formula in the normal form.
- Three useful normal forms for propositional logic:
	- Negation Normal Form (NNF)
	- Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF)
	- Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

Negation Normal Form (NNF)

The only logical connectives are \neg , \wedge , \vee

Negations appear only in literals

Example: Convert $F: \neg (P \rightarrow \neg (P \land Q))$ to NNF

$$
F': \neg(\neg P \lor \neg(P \land Q)) \rightarrow \text{to} \lor
$$

$$
F'': \neg\neg P \land \neg\neg(P \land Q) \qquad \text{De Morgan'}
$$

$$
F''' : P \land P \land Q \qquad \neg\neg
$$

Conversion to NNF:

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Eliminate \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow
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"Push negations in" using DeMorgan's Laws:

 $\neg(F_1 \wedge F_2) \Leftrightarrow (\neg F_1 \vee \neg F_2)$

$$
\neg (F_1 \lor F_2) \Leftrightarrow (\neg F_1 \land \neg F_2)
$$

's Law

F "' is equivalent to F (F $'' \Leftrightarrow$ F) and is in NNF

Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF)

Disjunction of conjunctions of literals $\bigvee_i \bigwedge_i \ell_{i,j}$ for literals $\ell_{i,j}$

> Deciding satisfiability of DNF formulas is trivial Why not convert all PL formulas to DNF for SAT solving? Exponential blow-up of formula size in DNF conversion!

Conversion to DNF:

First convert to NNF

Distribute A over V

 $((F_1 \vee F_2) \wedge F_3) \Leftrightarrow ((F_1 \wedge F_3) \vee (F_2 \wedge F_3))$ $(F_1 \wedge (F_2 \vee F_3)) \Leftrightarrow ((F_1 \wedge F_2) \vee (F_1 \wedge F_3))$

Example

Example: Convert

 F' : $(Q_1 \vee Q_2) \wedge (R_1 \vee R_2)$ $F'': (Q_1 \wedge (R_1 \vee R_2)) \vee (Q_2 \wedge (R_1 \vee R_2))$ $F''': (Q_1 \wedge R_1) \vee (Q_1 \wedge R_2) \vee (Q_2 \wedge R_1) \vee (Q_2 \wedge R_2)$

 $F: (Q_1 \vee \neg \neg Q_2) \wedge (\neg R_1 \rightarrow R_2)$ into DNF in NNF dist dist

F $''$ is equivalent to F (F $'' \Leftrightarrow$ F) and is in DNF

Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

Conjunction of disjunctions of literals

$$
\bigwedge_i \bigvee_j \ell_{i,j} \quad \text{for literals } \ell_{i,j}
$$

Deciding satisfiability of CNF formulas is not trivial CNF conversion must also exhibit an exponential blow-up of formula size Yet, almost all SAT solvers convert to CNF first before solving. Why?

Conversion to CNF:

First convert to NNF

Distribute V over A

 $((F_1 \wedge F_2) \vee F_3) \Leftrightarrow ((F_1 \vee F_3) \wedge (F_2 \vee F_3))$ $(F_1 \vee (F_2 \wedge F_3)) \Leftrightarrow ((F_1 \vee F_2) \wedge (F_1 \vee F_3))$

Natural representation because in practice, many formulas arise from multiple constraints that must hold simultaneously (AND).

Potential Problem with CNF: Size blowup

Distributivity will duplicate entire subformulas

Can happen repeatedly: $(p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge p_3) \vee (q_1 \wedge q_2 \wedge q_3) =$ $(p_1 \vee (q_1 \wedge q_2 \wedge q_3)) \wedge (p_2 \vee (q_1 \wedge q_2 \wedge q_3)) \wedge (p_3 \vee (q_1 \wedge q_2 \wedge q_3))$ $= (p_1 \vee q_1) \wedge (p_1 \vee q_2) \wedge (p_1 \vee q_3)$ \wedge (p₂ \vee q₁) \wedge (p₂ \vee q₂) \wedge (p₂ \vee q₃) \wedge (p₃ \vee q₁) \wedge (p₃ \vee q₂) \wedge (p₃ \vee q₃)

Worst-case blowup? : exponential!

Can't use this transformation for subsequent algorithms (e.g., satisfiability checking) if resulting formula is inefficiently large (possibly too large to represent/process).

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Equisatisfiability and Tseitin's Transformation

Two formulas F_1 and F_2 are equisatisfiable iff: F_1 is satisfiable iff F_2 is satisfiable

Tseitin's transformation converts any PL formula F_1 to equisatisfiable formula F_2 in CNF with only a linear increase in size

Note that equisatisfiability is a much weaker notion than equivalence, but is adequate for checking satisfiability.

Tseitin Transformation

Idea: rather than duplicate subformula: introduce *new proposition* to represent it add constraint: equivalence of subformula with new proposition write this equivalence in CNF

Transformation rules for three basic operators formula $p \leftrightarrow$ formula $(\neg A \rightarrow p) \land (p \rightarrow \neg A)$ $(A \lor p) \land (\neg A \lor \neg p)$ $\neg A$

-
-
-

rewritten in CNF $A \wedge B$ $(A \wedge B \rightarrow p) \wedge (p \rightarrow A \wedge B)$ $(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee p) \wedge (A \vee \neg p) \wedge (B \vee \neg p)$ $A \vee B$ $(p \rightarrow A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee B \rightarrow p)$ $(A \vee B \vee \neg p) \wedge (\neg A \vee p) \wedge (\neg B \vee p)$

Tseitin's Transformation

- Introduce an auxiliary variable rep(G) for each subformula $G = G_1$ op G_2 of formula F_1 1.
- 2. Constrain auxiliary variable to be equivalent to subformula: rep(G) \leftrightarrow rep(G₁) op rep(G₂)
- Convert equivalence constraint to CNF: CNF(rep(G) \leftrightarrow rep(G_1) op rep(G_2)) 3.
- 4. Let F_2 be rep(F) $\wedge \wedge_G \text{CNF}(\text{rep}(G) \leftrightarrow \text{rep}(G_1) op \text{rep}(G_2))$. Check if F_2 is satisfiable.

 F_1 and F_2 are equisatisfiable!

Size of each equivalence constraint is bounded by a constant This restricts the size of F_2 to be linear in the size of $F_1: |F_2| = 30. |F_1| + 2$

Tseitin Transformation: Example

Add numbered proposition for each operator: $(a \stackrel{1}{\wedge} \neg b) \vee \neg(c \stackrel{2}{\wedge} d)$ no need to number negations

nor top-level operator $(...) \vee (...)$

New propositions: $p_1 \leftrightarrow a \stackrel{1}{\wedge} \neg b$, $p_2 \leftrightarrow a$

Rewrite equivalences for new propositions in CNF, conjunct with top-level operator of formula: $(p_1 \vee \neg p_2)$ \wedge ($\neg a \vee b \vee p_1) \wedge (a \vee \neg p_1) \wedge (\neg b \vee \neg p_1)$ $\wedge (\neg c \vee \neg d \vee p_2) \wedge (c \vee \neg p_2) \wedge (d \vee \neg p_2)$

$$
c \stackrel{2}{\wedge} d
$$

overall formula $p_1 \leftrightarrow a \wedge \neg b$ $p_2 \leftrightarrow c \wedge d$

What do we get?

A new formula with more propositions than the original one NOT an equivalent formula

New formula is satisfiable iff the original is satisfiable we call it equisatisfiable)

Size of resulting formula: *linear* in original size good for use in satisfiability checking

Logistics

- Reviews for Week 3.
	- Due Thursday!
- Other questions?