

# First-order (predicate) Logic

# TRANSFORMATION OF NATURAL LANGUAGE SENTENCES INTO PREDICATE FORMULAS

1. **All** Computer Science (CS) students are smart.
2. **There is** someone who studies at Babes-Bolyai University (*BBU*) and is smart.
3. If  $x$  and  $y$  are **nonnegative integers** and  $x$  is **greater than**  $y$  , then  $x^2$  is **greater than**  $y^2$  .
4. In a plane if a line  $x$  is **parallel** to a constant line  $d$  then **all** the lines **perpendicular** to  $x$  are also **perpendicular** to  $d$  .
5. **Every** child loves **anyone** who gives the child **any** present.

# The axioms that define the natural numbers

**a<sub>1</sub>.** Every natural number has a unique immediate successor.

**existence:**  $(\forall x)(\exists y)equal(y, successor(x))$

**unicity:**  $(\forall x)(\forall y)(\forall z)(equal(y, successor(x)) \wedge equal(z, successor(x)) \rightarrow equal(y, z))$

**a<sub>2</sub>.** The number 0 is *not* the immediate successor of a natural number.

$\neg(\exists x)equal(0, successor(x))$

**a<sub>3</sub>.** Every natural number, except 0, has a unique immediate predecessor.

**existence:**  $(\forall x)(\exists y)(\neg equal(0, x) \wedge equal(y, predecessor(x)))$

**unicity:**  $(\forall x)(\forall y)(\forall z)(equal(y, predecessor(x)) \wedge equal(z, predecessor(x)) \rightarrow equal(y, z))$

**unary functions:** *successor, predecessor* ;

**binary predicate:** *equal*.

The predicate *equal* is defined by the following axioms:

$(\forall x)equal(x, x)$  – **reflexivity**

$(\forall x)(\forall y)(equal(x, y) \rightarrow equal(y, x))$  – **symmetry**

$(\forall x)(\forall y)(\forall z)(equal(x, y) \wedge equal(y, z) \rightarrow equal(x, z))$  – **transitivity**

The equality of the successors and the predecessors of two equal numbers:

$(\forall x)(\forall y)(equal(x, y) \rightarrow equal(successor(x), successor(y)))$

$(\forall x)(\forall y)(equal(x, y) \rightarrow equal(predecessor(x), predecessor(y)))$

$$\mathbf{Pr} = (\Sigma_{\mathbf{Pr}}, F_{\mathbf{Pr}}, A_{\mathbf{Pr}}, R_{\mathbf{Pr}})$$

$$\Sigma_{\mathbf{Pr}} = Var \cup Const \cup (\bigcup_{j=1}^n F_j) \cup (\bigcup_{j=1}^m P_j) \cup \text{Connectives} \cup \text{Quantifiers} - \text{vocabulary}$$

- *Var* is the set of *variable* symbols  $\{x, y, z, \dots\}$  ;
- *Const* is the set of *constants*  $\{a, b, c, \dots\}$  ;
- $F_i = \{f \mid f : D^i \rightarrow D\}$  is the set of *function symbols* of arity “ $i$ ”
- $P_i = \{p \mid p : D^i \rightarrow \{T, F\}\}$  is the set of *predicate symbols* of arity “ $i$ ”
- *Connectives* =  $\{\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$  ;
- *Quantifiers* =  $\{\forall(\text{universal quantifier}), \exists(\text{existential quantifier})\}$ 
  - o *ATOMS* is the set of atomic formulas (atoms):
    - $T, F \in ATOMS$
    - if  $P \in P_k$  and  $t_1, \dots, t_k \in TERMS$  then  $P(t_1, \dots, t_k) \in ATOMS$

**examples:**  $T, F, P(x, y, a), Q(f(x), a), R(a, g(f(x), y))$
  - o *Literal* - an atom or its negation.
 

**examples:**  $P(f(x), a, y, g(x, b)), \neg Q(x, a, g(x))$

## AXIOMATIC SYSTEM (CONTD.)

$$\text{Pr} = (\Sigma_{\text{Pr}}, F_{\text{Pr}}, A_{\text{Pr}}, R_{\text{Pr}})$$

- $F_{\text{Pr}}$  is the *set of well-formed formulas*
- $A_{\text{Pr}} = \{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4, A_5\}$  is the *set of axioms*
  - $A_1: U \rightarrow (V \rightarrow U)$
  - $A_2: ((U \rightarrow (V \rightarrow Z)) \rightarrow ((U \rightarrow V) \rightarrow (U \rightarrow Z)))$
  - $A_3: (U \rightarrow V) \rightarrow (\neg V \rightarrow \neg U)$  (*modus tollens*)
  - $A_4: (\forall x)U(x) \rightarrow U(t)$ , where  $t$  is a term.  
(*universal instantiation*)
  - $A_5: (U \rightarrow V(y)) \rightarrow (U \rightarrow (\forall x)V(x))$ , where  $x$  is not free in  $U$  or  $V$ ,  
 $y$  is free in  $V$  and does not appear in  $U$ .
- $R_{\text{Pr}} = \{mp, gen\}$  is the *set of inference rules*:
  - *modus ponens* symbolized as:  $U, U \rightarrow V \vdash_{mp} V$
  - *universal generalization rule* symbolized as:  
 $U(x) \vdash_{gen} (\forall x)U(x)$ ,  $x$  is a free variable in  $U$

## OPEN VERSUS CLOSED FORMULAS

### Definition:

1. In a predicate formula the variables which are within the scope of a quantifier are called *bound variables*, all the others are called *free variables*.
2. A formula is called a *closed formula* if all its variables are bound.
3. If a formula contains at least one free variable, the *formula is open*.

### Example:

1. The predicate formula  $(\forall x)(\exists z)(P(x, z, a) \vee (\exists y)Q(x, f(y)))$  is *closed*
  - where:  $x, y, z \in Var, a \in Const, f \in F_1, P \in P_3, Q \in P_2$ .
  - all variables  $(x, y, z)$  are bound.
2. The predicate formula  $(\forall x)P(x, y) \wedge Q(z, a)$  is *open*,
  - where:  $a \in Const, x, y, z \in Var, P, Q \in P_2$
  - the variables  $y$  and  $z$  are *free*,
  - $x$  is a *bound variable* (within the scope of  $\forall$ )

# DEDUCTION IN FIRST-ORDER LOGIC

## Definition:

Let  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n, V$  be first-order formulas,  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n$  are the *hypotheses (premises)* and  $V$  is the *conclusion*.  $V$  is *deducible (inferable, derivable)* from  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n$ , notation:  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n \vdash V$ , if there exists a sequence of formulas  $(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m)$  such that  $f_m = V$  and  $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$  we have a) or b) or c) or d).

- a)  $f_i \in A_{Pr}$  (axiom of predicate logic);
- b)  $f_i \in \{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n\}$  (hypothesis formula);
- c)  $f_{i_1}, f_{i_2} \vdash_{mp} f_i$ ,  $i_1 < i$  and  $i_2 < i$  (formula  $f_i$  is inferred, using *modus ponens* rule, from two formulas that exist in the sequence);
- d)  $f_j \vdash_{gen} f_i$ ,  $j < i$  (formula  $f_i$  is obtained using the *universal generalization* rule from a formula that exists already in the sequence).

The sequence  $(f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m)$  is called the *deduction* of  $V$  from  $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n$ .

## Definition:

A formula  $U \in F_{Pr}$ , such that  $\emptyset \vdash U$  (notation:  $\vdash U$ ) is called a *theorem*.

**Remark:** The theorems are the formulas deducible from the axioms, using *modus ponens* and the *generalization* rule.

## INFERENCE RULES IN FIRST-ORDER LOGIC

	<b>Inference rule</b>
<i>universal instantiation</i>	$(\forall x)U(x) \vdash_{univ\_inst} U(t) ,$ <i>t</i> is a <i>term</i> (variable or constant of the domain)
<i>universal generalization</i>	$U(x) \vdash_{univ\_gen} (\forall x)U(x) ,$ <i>x</i> is a <i>free variable</i> in <i>U</i>
<i>existential instantiation</i>	$(\exists x)U(x) \vdash_{exist\_inst} U(c) ,$ <i>c</i> is a <i>new constant</i> of the domain
<i>existential generalization</i>	$U(t) \vdash_{exist\_gen} (\exists x)U(x) ,$ <i>t</i> is a <i>variable</i> or a <i>constant</i> of the domain, the variable <i>x</i> must not appear free in <i>U</i>



## EXAMPLE 1 – MODELING REASONING

### Hypotheses:

$H_1$ . All hummingbirds are richly colored.

$H_2$ . No large birds live on honey.

$H_3$ . Birds that do not live on honey are dull in color.

$H_4$ . Picky is a hummingbird.

### Conclusions:

$C_1$ . There is a bird which lives on honey.

$C_2$ . All hummingbirds are small.

Check whether the following deductions hold or not.

$H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4 \vdash C_1$  and  $H_1, H_2, H_3 \vdash C_2$ .



## EXAMPLE 1 –MODELING REASONING (contd.)

### Hypotheses:

$H_1$ . All hummingbirds are richly colored.

$H_2$ . No large birds live on honey.

$H_3$ . Birds that do not live on honey are dull in color.

$H_4$ . *Piky* is a hummingbird.

### Conclusions:

$C_1$ . There is a bird which lives on honey.

$C_2$ . All hummingbirds are small.

Check whether the following deductions hold or not.

$H_1, H_2, H_3, H_4 \vdash C_1$  and  $H_1, H_2, H_3 \vdash C_2$ .

### First-order (predicate) formulas:

$H_1 : (\forall x)(hb(x) \rightarrow rc(x))$

$H_2 : \neg(\exists x)(\neg sb(x) \wedge lh(x)) \equiv$   
 $\equiv (\forall x)(\neg sb(x) \rightarrow \neg lh(x))$

$H_3 : (\forall x)(\neg lh(x) \rightarrow \neg rc(x))$

$H_4 : hb(Piky)$

$C_1 : (\exists x)lh(x)$

$C_2 : (\forall x)(hb(x) \rightarrow sb(x))$

$D$  is the **domain** (the universe of birds)

*Piky* is a **constant** of the universe.

unary **predicate symbols**: *hb*, *rc*, *sb*, *lh*.

$hb : D \rightarrow \{T, F\}$ ,  $hb(x) = T$  if  $x$  is a *hummingbird*,

$rc : D \rightarrow \{T, F\}$ ,  $rc(x) = T$  if  $x$  is *richly colored*,

$sb : D \rightarrow \{T, F\}$ ,  $sb(x) = T$  if  $x$  is a *small bird*,

$lh : D \rightarrow \{T, F\}$ ,  $lh(x) = T$  if  $x$  *lives on honey*.

## EXAMPLE 1 – BUILDING DEDUCTIONS (LECTURE)

Inference rules
$(\forall x)U(x) \vdash_{univ\_inst} U(t)$ , <i>t</i> is a term (variable or constant of the domain)
$U(x) \vdash_{univ\_gen} (\forall x)U(x)$ , <i>x</i> is a free variable in <i>U</i>
$(\exists x)U(x) \vdash_{exist\_inst} U(c)$ , <i>c</i> is a new constant of the domain
$U(t) \vdash_{exist\_gen} (\exists x)U(x)$ , <i>t</i> is a variable or a constant of the domain
$U, U \rightarrow V \vdash_{mp} V$ (modus ponens)
$U \rightarrow V, V \rightarrow Z \vdash_{syllogism} U \rightarrow Z$
$U \rightarrow V \vdash_{mt} \neg V \rightarrow \neg U$ (modus tollens) $\neg V, U \rightarrow V \vdash_{mt} \neg U$

### First-order (predicate) formulas:

$$H_1 : (\forall x)(hb(x) \rightarrow rc(x))$$

$$H_2 : \neg(\exists x)(\neg sb(x) \wedge lh(x)) \equiv \\ \equiv (\forall x)(\neg sb(x) \rightarrow \neg lh(x))$$

$$H_3 : (\forall x)(\neg lh(x) \rightarrow \neg rc(x))$$

$$H_4 : hb(Piky)$$

$$C_1 : (\exists x)lh(x)$$

$$C_2 : (\forall x)(hb(x) \rightarrow sb(x))$$

## Example 2

Using the definition of deduction and the inference rules prove that:

$$(\forall x)(\forall y)(P(x) \vee Q(y)), \neg(\forall z)P(z) \vdash (\exists t)Q(t)$$

The sequence  $(f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4, f_5, f_6, f_7)$  of predicate formulas is generated.

$$f_1 : (\forall x)(\forall y)(P(x) \vee Q(y)) - \text{hypothesis}$$

$$f_2 : \neg(\forall z)P(z) \equiv (\exists z)\neg P(z) - \text{hypothesis}$$

We have a universal formula ( $f_1$ ) and an existential formula ( $f_2$ ). It is recommended to use first the *existential instantiation* inference rule that introduces a new constant, and then this constant will be used for *universal instantiations*.

$$f_2 \vdash_{\text{exist\_inst}} f_3 = \neg P(c), \text{ } c \text{ is a new constant;}$$

$$f_1 \vdash_{\text{univ\_inst}} f_4 = (\forall y)(P(c) \vee Q(y)),$$

the outermost universally quantified variable  $x$  was instantiated using the constant  $c$ ;

$$f_4 \vdash_{\text{univ\_inst}} f_5 = P(c) \vee Q(c),$$

the universally quantified variable  $y$  was instantiated using the constant  $c$ ;

$$f_5 \equiv \neg P(c) \rightarrow Q(c)$$

$$f_3, f_5 \vdash_{\text{mp}} f_6 = Q(c), \text{ } \textit{modus ponens} \text{ was applied;}$$

$$f_6 \vdash_{\text{exist\_gen}} f_7 = (\exists t)Q(t),$$

*existential generalization* was applied,  $t$  is a variable introduced by this inference rule;

$(f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4, f_5, f_6, f_7)$  is the deduction (proof) of the conclusion  $f_7$  from the hypotheses  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ .



## EXAMPLE 3: SUCCESSION TO THE BRITISH THRONE

### Hypotheses:

H1: If  $x$  is the king and  $y$  is his oldest son, then  $y$  can become the king.

H2: If  $x$  is the king and  $y$  defeats  $x$ , then  $y$  will become the king

H3: *Richard III* is the king.

H4: *Henry VII* defeated *Richard III*.

H5: *Henry VIII* is *Henry VII*'s oldest son.

**Conclusion C:** Can *Henry VIII* become the king?



### EXAMPLE 3 (HOMEWORK)

#### SUCCESSION TO THE BRITISH THRONE

##### Hypotheses:

H1: If  $x$  is the king and  $y$  is his oldest son, then  $y$  can become the king.

H2: If  $x$  is the king and  $y$  defeats  $x$ , then  $y$  will become the king

H3: *RichardIII* is the king.

H4: *HenryVII* defeated *RichardIII*.

H5: *HenryVIII* is *HenryVII*'s oldest son.

**Conclusion C:** Can *HenryVIII* become the king?

We transform the hypotheses and the conclusion into predicate formulas using:

**variables:**  $x, y, z, t$

**constants:** *RichardIII*, *HenryVII*, *HenryVIII*

**predicate symbols:** unary: *king*, binary: *oldest\_son*, *defeats*

H1:  $(\forall x)(\forall y) (king(x) \wedge oldest\_son(y, x) \rightarrow king(y))$

H2:  $(\forall z)(\forall t) (king(z) \wedge defeats(t, z) \rightarrow king(t))$

H3:  $king(RichardIII)$

H4:  $defeats(HenryVII, RichardIII)$

H5:  $oldest\_son(HenryVIII, HenryVII)$

C:  $king(HenryVIII)$

Prove the **deduction**  $H1, H2, H3, H4, H5 \vdash C$ .

# Theorems

## Theorem of deduction:

If  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n \vdash V$ , then  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1} \vdash U_n \rightarrow V$ .

## Reverse of the theorem of deduction:

If  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1} \vdash U_n \rightarrow V$  then  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n \vdash V$ .

## Refutation theorem:

If  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n \cup \{\neg V\}$  is inconsistent then  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n \vdash V$ .

**Note:** The last theorem models “*reductio ad absurdum principle*”  
(proof by contradiction) and is used in proof methods such as:

- *resolution*,
- *semantic tableaux method*,

called *refutation proof methods*.

**Example 4:** Using the theorem of deduction, prove that the formula  
 $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x))$  is a theorem.

**Step1:**

We apply the reverse of the theorem of deduction:

if  $\vdash (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x))$

then  $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \vdash (\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x)$

then  $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)), (\forall x)A(x) \vdash (\forall x)B(x) (*)$

**Step3:**

Using the deduction (\*) proved at Step 2 we apply twice the theorem of deduction:

if  $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)), (\forall x)A(x) \vdash (\forall x)B(x)$  then

$(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \vdash (\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x)$  then

$\vdash (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x))$

We have proved that the initial formula is a theorem.

**Step2:** We prove

$(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)), (\forall x)A(x) \vdash (\forall x)B(x) (*)$

using the definition of a deduction.

The sequence (f1, f2, ..., f8) is generated:

f1:  $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$  - hypothesis

f2:  $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow (A(y) \rightarrow B(y))$

-- axiom A4, x is instantiated with y

f1, f2  $\vdash_{mp}$  f3 =  $A(y) \rightarrow B(y)$

f4:  $(\forall x)A(x)$  - hypothesis

f5:  $(\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow A(y)$  --- axiom A4

f4, f5  $\vdash_{mp}$  f6 =  $A(y)$

f3, f6  $\vdash_{mp}$  f7 =  $B(y)$

f7  $\vdash_{gen}$  f8 =  $(\forall x)B(x)$



- The semantics of predicate logic realize the connection between the *constant symbols*, the *function symbols*, the *predicate symbols* and the *real constants*, *functions*, *predicates* from the modeled universe.
- It is provided a meaning in terms of the modeled universe for each formula from the language.

**Definition:**

An *interpretation* of predicate formula is a pair  $I = \langle D, m \rangle$ , where:

- $D$  is a nonempty set called the domain of interpretation.
- $m$  is a function that assigns:
  - a fixed value  $m(c) \in D$  to the constant  $c$ .
  - a function  $m(f): D^n \rightarrow D$  to each  $n$ -ary function symbol  $f$ ;
  - a predicate  $m(P): D^n \rightarrow \{T, F\}$  to each  $n$ -ary predicate symbol  $P$ .

**Notations:** Let  $I = \langle D, m \rangle$  be an interpretation.

- $|I| = D$  is the domain of  $I$ ,  $Var$  is the set of variables.
- $I|X|$  is  $m(X)$  where  $X$  is a predicate symbol or a function symbol.
- $As(I)$  is the set of assignment functions for variables over the domain of  $I$ .  
 $a \in As(I), a: Var \rightarrow |I|$ .
- $[a]_x = \{a' \mid a' \in As(I) \text{ and } a'(y) = a(y), \text{ for every } y \neq x\}$ .

**Definition:** Let  $I$  be an interpretation and  $a \in As(I)$ . The evaluation function  $v_a^I$  is defined:

- $v_a^I(x) = a(x), x \in Var$ ;  $v_a^I(c) = I|c|, c \in Const$ ;
- $v_a^I(f(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)) = I|f|(v_a^I(t_1), v_a^I(t_2), \dots, v_a^I(t_n)), f \in F_n, n > 0$ ;
- $v_a^I(P(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)) = I|P|(v_a^I(t_1), v_a^I(t_2), \dots, v_a^I(t_n)), P \in P_n, n > 0$ ;
- $v_a^I(\neg A) = \neg v_a^I(A)$ ;  $v_a^I(A \wedge B) = v_a^I(A) \wedge v_a^I(B)$ ;
- $v_a^I(A \vee B) = v_a^I(A) \vee v_a^I(B)$ ;  $v_a^I(A \rightarrow B) = v_a^I(A) \rightarrow v_a^I(B)$ ;
- $v_a^I((\exists x)A(x)) = T$  if and only if  $v_{a'}^I(A(x)) = T$  for a function  $a' \in [a]_x$
- $v_a^I((\forall x)A(x)) = T$  if and only if  $v_{a'}^I(A(x)) = T$  for any function  $a' \in [a]_x$

**Note:** The evaluation of a closed formula  $U$  depends only on the interpretation, notation:  $v^I(U)$

## Definitions (semantic concepts)

- A *formula*  $A$  is *satisfiable (consistent)* if there is an interpretation  $I$  and an assignment function  $a \in As(I)$  such that  $v_a^I(A) = T$ . Otherwise the formula is *unsatisfiable (inconsistent)*.
- A formula  $A$  is *true under the interpretation*  $I$  if for any assignment function  $a \in As(I)$ ,  $v_a^I(A) = T$ , notation:  $\models_I A$ , and  $I$  is called *model* of  $A$ .
- A formula  $A$  is *false under the interpretation*  $I$  if for any assignment function  $a \in As(I)$ ,  $v_a^I(A) = F$ , and  $I$  is called *anti-model* of  $A$ .
- A *formula*  $A$  is *valid (tautology)* if  $A$  is true under all possible interpretations, notation:  $\models A$ .
- The *formulas*  $A$  and  $B$  are *logically equivalent* if  $v_a^I(A) = v_a^I(B)$  for any interpretation  $I$  and any assignment function  $a$ , notation:  $A \equiv B$ .
- A set of formulas  $S$  *logically implies* the formula  $V$  if all the models of the set  $S$  are also models of the formula  $V$ . We say that  $V$  is a *logical consequence* of the set  $S$ , notation:  $S \models V$ .
- A *set* of formulas is *consistent* if the conjunction of all its formulas has at least one model. A *set* of formulas is *inconsistent* if the conjunction of all its formulas does not have a model.

## Example 5

Build a **model** and an **anti-model** for the closed predicate formula:

$$U = (\forall x)(P(x) \vee Q(x)) \rightarrow (\forall x)P(x) \vee (\forall x)Q(x).$$

Let us consider the **interpretation**  $I_1 = \langle D_1, m \rangle$ , where:

$D_1 = \mathbf{N}$  (the set of natural numbers)

$m(P) : \mathbf{N} \rightarrow \{T, F\}, m(P)(x) = "x : 2",$

$m(Q) : \mathbf{N} \rightarrow \{T, F\}, m(Q)(x) = "x : 3".$

$$\begin{aligned} v^{I_1}(U) &= v^{I_1}((\forall x)(P(x) \vee Q(x))) \rightarrow v^{I_1}((\forall x)P(x) \vee (\forall x)Q(x)) \\ &= v^{I_1}((\forall x)(P(x) \vee Q(x))) \rightarrow v^{I_1}((\forall x)P(x)) \vee v^{I_1}((\forall x)Q(x)) \\ &= (\forall x)_{x \in \mathbf{N}}(x : 2 \vee x : 3) \rightarrow (\forall x)_{x \in \mathbf{N}}(x : 2) \vee (\forall x)_{x \in \mathbf{N}}(x : 3) \\ &= F \rightarrow F \vee F = F \rightarrow F = T \end{aligned}$$

$v^{I_1}(U) = T$ ,  $U$  is evaluated as true under the interpretation  $I_1$  which is a **model** of  $U$ .

### Example 5 (contd.)

$$U = (\forall x)(P(x) \vee Q(x)) \rightarrow (\forall x)P(x) \vee (\forall x)Q(x)$$

Let us consider the interpretation  $I_2 = \langle D_2, m \rangle$ , where:

$D_2 = \{4, 9\}$  – the domain of interpretation;

$m(P) : \{4, 9\} \rightarrow \{T, F\}$ ,  $m(P)(x) = "x:2"$

$m(Q) : \{4, 9\} \rightarrow \{T, F\}$ ,  $m(Q)(x) = "x:3"$ .

To evaluate the formula  $U$  under the interpretation  $I_2$ , with the finite domain  $D_2 = \{4, 9\}$ , the universally quantified subformulas are replaced by the conjunction of their instances for  $x = 4$  and  $x = 9$ .

$$\begin{aligned} v^{I_2}(U) &= v^{I_2}((\forall x)(P(x) \vee Q(x))) \rightarrow v^{I_2}((\forall x)P(x) \vee (\forall x)Q(x)) \\ &= v^{I_2}((\forall x)(P(x) \vee Q(x))) \rightarrow v^{I_2}((\forall x)P(x)) \vee v^{I_2}((\forall x)Q(x)) \\ &= (4:2 \vee 4:3) \wedge (9:2 \vee 9:3) \rightarrow (4:2 \wedge 9:2) \vee (4:3 \wedge 9:3) \\ &= (T \vee F) \wedge (F \vee T) \rightarrow (T \wedge F) \vee (F \wedge T) \\ &= T \wedge T \rightarrow F \vee F = T \rightarrow F = F \end{aligned}$$

$I_2$  evaluates the formula  $U$  as false,  $I_2$  is an anti-model of  $U$ .

## LOGICAL EQUIVALENCES IN PREDICATE LOGIC

- *Expansion laws*

$$(\forall x)A(x) \equiv (\forall x)A(x) \wedge A(t)$$

– the universal quantifier is an infinitary conjunction

$$(\exists x)A(x) \equiv (\exists x)A(x) \vee A(t)$$

– the existential quantifier is a infinitary disjunction

- *DeMorgan infinitary laws*

$$\neg(\exists x)A(x) \equiv (\forall x)\neg A(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \neg(\forall x)A(x) \equiv (\exists x)\neg A(x)$$

- *Quantifiers interchanging laws*

$$(\exists x)(\exists y)A(x, y) \equiv (\exists y)(\exists x)A(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad (\forall x)(\forall y)A(x, y) \equiv (\forall y)(\forall x)A(x, y)$$

**Note:**  $(\exists x)(\forall y)B(x, y) \not\equiv (\forall y)(\exists x)B(x, y)$

Quantifiers of the same type commute, but quantifiers of different types do not commute.



# Distributive laws

$(\exists x)(A(x) \vee B(x)) \equiv (\exists x)A(x) \vee (\exists x)B(x)$  distributivity of ' $\exists$ ' over ' $\vee$ '

$(\forall x)(A(x) \wedge B(x)) \equiv (\forall x)A(x) \wedge (\forall x)B(x)$  distributivity of ' $\forall$ ' over ' $\wedge$ '

Semi-distributivity of ' $\exists$ ' over ' $\wedge$ ':

$\models (\exists x)(A(x) \wedge B(x)) \rightarrow (\exists x)A(x) \wedge (\exists x)B(x)$

$\not\models (\exists x)A(x) \wedge (\exists x)B(x) \rightarrow (\exists x)(A(x) \wedge B(x))$

Semi-distributivity of ' $\forall$ ' over ' $\vee$ ':

$\models (\forall x)A(x) \vee (\forall x)B(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)(A(x) \vee B(x))$

$\not\models (\forall x)(A(x) \vee B(x)) \rightarrow (\forall x)A(x) \vee (\forall x)B(x)$

Semi-distributivity of ' $\exists$ ' over ' $\rightarrow$ ':

$\models ((\exists x)A(x) \rightarrow (\exists x)B(x)) \rightarrow (\exists x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$

$\not\models (\exists x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow ((\exists x)A(x) \rightarrow (\exists x)B(x))$

Semi-distributivity of ' $\forall$ ' over ' $\rightarrow$ ':

$\models (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x))$

$\not\models ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x)) \rightarrow (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$

## EXTRACTION OF QUANTIFIERS

$$A \vee (\exists x)B(x) \equiv (\exists x)(A \vee B(x))$$

$$A \vee (\forall x)B(x) \equiv (\forall x)(A \vee B(x))$$

$$A \wedge (\exists x)B(x) \equiv (\exists x)(A \wedge B(x))$$

$$A \wedge (\forall x)B(x) \equiv (\forall x)(A \wedge B(x))$$

where  $A$  does not contain  $x$  as a free variable.

$$(\exists x)A(x) \vee B \equiv (\exists x)(A(x) \vee B)$$

$$(\forall x)A(x) \vee B \equiv (\forall x)(A(x) \vee B)$$

$$(\exists x)A(x) \wedge B \equiv (\exists x)(A(x) \wedge B)$$

$$(\forall x)A(x) \wedge B \equiv (\forall x)(A(x) \wedge B)$$

where  $B$  does not contain  $x$  as a free variable.



## Example 6

Prove that the *universal* and *existential* quantifiers do not commute.

We have to prove that the logical equivalence:

$$(\exists x)(\forall y)L(x, y) \equiv (\forall y)(\exists x)L(x, y) \text{ does not hold.}$$

We choose the interpretation  $I = \langle D, m \rangle$ , where:

- $D$  is the set of all persons in the world
- $m(L) : D \times D \rightarrow \{T, F\}, m(L)(x, y) = "x \text{ loves } y"$

Under the interpretation  $I$ , the formula  $U_1 = (\exists x)(\forall y)L(x, y)$  has the meaning:

*"There exists a person who loves all persons."*

The formula  $U_2 = (\forall y)(\exists x)L(x, y)$  has the meaning:

*"All persons are loved by at least one person."*, under the same interpretation  $I$ .

These two natural language statements are not equivalent, so  $U_1 \neq U_2$ ,

but note that  $U_1 \models U_2$ .

# PROPERTIES OF FIRST-ORDER LOGIC:

## SOUNDNESS, COMPLETENESS, SEMI-DECIDABILITY

**Theorem of soundness and completeness** states the equivalence between the “logical consequence” concept and the “syntactic consequence” concept.

Let  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n, V$  be first-order formulas.

- **completeness:** if  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n \models V$  then  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n \vdash V$ .
- **soundness:** if  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n \vdash V$  then  $U_1, \dots, U_{n-1}, U_n \models V$ .

A particular case of this theorem is the following result:

**“A formula is a tautology if and only if it is a theorem in first-order logic.”**

**Theorem** (Church 1936):

The problem of validity of a first-order formula is *undecidable*, but is *semi-decidable*. If a procedure *Proc* is used to check the validity of a first-order formula *U* we have the following cases:

- if *U* is a valid formula, then *Proc* ends with the corresponding answer.
- if the formula *U* is not valid, then *Proc* ends with the corresponding answer or *Proc* may never stop.