

COMP2022 Models of Computation

Introduction to Predicate Logic

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Motivation for predicate logic

Can we formalise this argument in propositional logic?

- Romeo is a man.
- All men are mortal.
- So, Romeo is mortal.

Motivation for predicate logic

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- Romeo is a man.
- All men are mortal.
- So, Romeo is mortal.

Propositional Logic doesn't have a way to talk about:

1. individuals/objects (Romeo),
2. that certain objects have properties (e.g., being a man, being mortal),
3. or that a property holds for all individuals/objects (all men are mortal)

Predicate logic in a nutshell

Predicate-logic (aka **First-order logic**) is for modeling

1. **objects** (like numbers)
2. **properties** of objects (' x is even')
3. **relations** between objects (like ' x is greater than y ').

It generalises Propositional Logic. The main new ingredients are:¹

1. domain: collection of objects,
2. predicates: properties of objects and relations between objects.
3. variables: vary over objects in the domain.
4. quantifiers: allow one to reason about multiple objects.

¹Often predicate logic also explicitly includes functions like $f(x) = x^2$, but we will not focus on these.

Domains

When we reason about objects, we have in mind a certain domain of discourse.

1. In programming, the domain may be the integers, or strings, or both, etc.
2. In the world, the domain includes people, animals, etc.

Definition

A **domain** is a non-empty set \mathbb{D} . It's elements are sometimes called **objects**.

- The set \mathbb{Z} of integers is a domain. e.g., it contains -3 .
- The set \mathbb{H} of humans is a domain. e.g., it contains someone called Romeo.
- The set \mathbb{S} of binary strings is a domain. e.g., it contains "011"

Variables x, y, z, \dots vary over elements of the domain.

Predicates

In propositional logic we write propositions:

- 'Romeo is happy'
- 'Romeo loves Juliet'

In predicate logic we use predicates:

- `happy(Romeo)`
- `loves(Romeo, Juliet)`.

With variables we can also write **atomic formulas**:

- `happy(x)`
- `loves(x, y)`
- `loves(Romeo, y)`

Using connectives, we can now write some simple formulas:

- `loves(Romeo, Juliet) \rightarrow happy(Juliet)`
- `loves(Romeo, x) \rightarrow happy(x)`

Predicates

Ok, but what is a predicate actually?

Definition

A **predicate** (of arity k) over domain \mathbb{D} is a subset of \mathbb{D}^k .

- `happy` $\subseteq \mathbb{H}$ is a unary predicate ($k = 1$) .
- `loves` $\subseteq \mathbb{H} \times \mathbb{H}$ is a binary predicate ($k = 2$).

We also allow infix notation:

$$x \text{ loves } y$$

We also allow functional notation:

$$\text{loves} : \mathbb{H} \times \mathbb{H} \rightarrow \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$$

Predicates

- Arguments in atomic formulas are variables and objects.

`loves(x , Juliet)`

- If we fix the values of the variables, then predicates become propositions! And so are either true or false.

`loves(Romeo, Juliet)`

- We cannot compose predicates...
e.g.

`happy(loves(x , y))`

is not a formula and has no meaning.

Quantifiers

There are two types of quantifiers.

1. The **existential quantifier**, written \exists , read "exists"

$$\exists x F$$

is true if **there is** an element d of the domain so that F true when d replaces x in F .

2. The **universal quantifier**, written \forall , read "for all"

$$\forall x F$$

is true if **for every** element d of the domain, the formula F is true when d replaces x in F .

Quantifiers

Domain \mathbb{Z} of integers

Predicates $\text{even}(x)$, $\text{odd}(x)$

Which of the following formulas are true?

1. $\exists x \text{ even}(x)$
2. $\exists x (\text{even}(x) \wedge \text{odd}(x))$
3. $(\exists x \text{ even}(x)) \wedge (\exists x \text{ odd}(x))$

Quantifiers

Domain \mathbb{Z} of integers

Predicates $\text{even}(x)$, $\text{odd}(x)$

Which of the following formulas are true?

1. $\forall x \text{ even}(x)$
2. $\forall x (\text{even}(x) \vee \text{odd}(x))$
3. $(\forall x \text{ even}(x)) \vee (\forall x \text{ odd}(x))$

Quantifiers

A quantified formula

$$\exists x F$$

has two parts:

1. The variable being quantified x
2. The formula being quantified F .

We can nest quantifiers...

$$\exists x \exists y F$$

and even mix them...

$$\exists x \forall y F$$

Quantifiers

Domain \mathbb{H} of humans

Predicate $\text{loves}(x, y)$

$\forall x \text{ loves}(x, x)$

$\forall x \forall y \text{ loves}(x, y)$

$\exists x \forall y \text{ loves}(x, y)$

$\forall x \exists y \text{ loves}(x, y)$

$\exists x \exists y \text{ loves}(x, y)$

Every human loves themselves

Everyone loves everyone

Someone loves everyone

Everyone loves someone

Someone loves someone

Translating to and from logic

Think of logic as a programming language that is based in mathematics.

- Programming languages (datalog, answer set programming)
- Database query languages (SQL)
- Hoare logic for verifying correctness of programs

We will learn how to write formulas to say what we mean.

Translation Tips (i)

There are some common forms:

1. "All As are Bs" translates as $\forall x(A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$
2. "Some As are Bs" translates as $\exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x))$
3. "No As are Bs" translates as $\forall x(A(x) \rightarrow \neg B(x))$
4. "Some As are not Bs" translates as $\exists x(A(x) \wedge \neg B(x))$

Usually:

\wedge goes with \exists

\rightarrow goes with \forall

Translation Tips (i)

Domain \mathbb{Z}

Predicates even, odd and greater

Translate the statement "Every even integer is greater than some odd integer" into predicate logic.

- This is of the form "All As are Bs"
- $A(x)$ for " x is an even integer"
- $B(x)$ for " x is greater than some odd integer"

$$\forall x(\text{even}(x) \rightarrow \exists y(\text{odd}(y) \wedge \text{greater}(x, y)))$$

Translation Tips (i)

Translate the statement "Some even integer is equal to 0" into predicate logic.

1. $\exists x(\text{even}(x) \wedge \text{equal}(x, 0))$
2. $\exists x(\text{even}(x) \rightarrow \text{equal}(x, 0))$

Translation Tips (i)

Translate the statement "Every even integer is equal to 0" into predicate logic.

1. $\forall x(\text{even}(x) \wedge \text{equal}(x, 0))$
2. $\forall x(\text{even}(x) \rightarrow \text{equal}(x, 0))$

Translation Tips (ii)

The order of quantifiers only matters when mixing existential and universal quantifiers.

- $\forall x \forall y P(x, y)$ means the same thing as $\forall y \forall x P(x, y)$
- $\exists x \exists y P(x, y)$ means the same thing as $\exists y \exists x P(x, y)$
- $\exists y \forall x P(x, y)$ means there is a single y such that for all x we have that $P(x, y)$ is true.
- $\forall x \exists y P(x, y)$ means for every x there is a y (that can be different for different choices of x) such that $P(x, y)$ is true.

Translation Tips (ii)

Translate the following into logic in the domain of integers: "Every integer is greater than some integer"

1. $\forall x \exists y \text{ greater}(x, y)$
2. $\exists y \forall x \text{ greater}(x, y)$

Translation Tips (iii)

The formula $\forall x \neg P(x)$ is false when...?

1. $P(x)$ is true for every x .
2. $\neg P(x)$ is true for every x .
3. $P(x)$ is true for some x .
4. $\neg P(x)$ is true for some x .

Translation Tips (iii)

Which of the following is the negation of the formula

$$\forall x \exists y P(x, y)$$

1. $\forall x \exists y \neg P(x, y)$
2. $\forall x \forall y \neg P(x, y)$
3. $\exists x \forall y \neg P(x, y)$
4. $\exists x \exists y \neg P(x, y)$
5. None of the above

Are there rules for manipulating formulas of predicate logic?

Equivalences involving quantifiers

For all formulas F, G :

(Q. Negation)

$$\neg \forall x F \equiv \exists x \neg F$$

$$\neg \exists x F \equiv \forall x \neg F$$

(Q. Unification)

$$(\forall x F \wedge \forall x G) \equiv \forall x (F \wedge G)$$

$$(\exists x F \vee \exists x G) \equiv \exists x (F \vee G)$$

(Q. Transposition)

$$\forall x \forall y F \equiv \forall y \forall x F$$

$$\exists x \exists y F \equiv \exists y \exists x F$$

(Q. Extraction)

if $x \notin \text{Free}(G)$:

$$(\forall x F \wedge G) \equiv \forall x (F \wedge G)$$

$$(\forall x F \vee G) \equiv \forall x (F \vee G)$$

$$(\exists x F \wedge G) \equiv \exists x (F \wedge G)$$

$$(\exists x F \vee G) \equiv \exists x (F \vee G)$$

Bound/Free variables

An occurrence of the variable x in the formula F is **bound** if x occurs within a subformula of F of the form $\exists xG$ or $\forall xG$. Otherwise it is a **free** occurrence.

- This is similar to local variables and global variables in programming.
- A variable may have both free and bound occurrences in a formula F .
- Intuitively, to get a proposition from a formula we need to instantiate all the free variables.
- A formula without free variables is called a **sentence**.

Self-test

Which variable occurrences are bound in the following formula?

$$\forall x (P(x, y) \rightarrow \exists y Q(x, y, z))$$

1. The x in P
2. The x in Q
3. The y in P
4. The y in Q
5. The z in Q

To give the precise syntax and semantics of predicate logic, we need to separate the vocabulary from the domain/structure.

- first-order structure
- vocabulary

A **first-order structure** (aka **structure**) consists of a domain \mathbb{D} , predicates on \mathbb{D} , and constants from \mathbb{D} .

e.g., $(\mathbb{Z}, \text{plus}, 0)$

e.g., $(\mathbb{S}, \text{plus}, 0)$

We will use superscripts to distinguish predicates.

e.g., $\text{plus}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is addition on integers

e.g., $\text{plus}^{\mathbb{S}}$ is concatenation on strings²

²Similarly, $0^{\mathbb{Z}}$ is the integer 0, while $0^{\mathbb{S}}$ is the empty-string.

We distinguish between `plus` as a symbol, and as a relation on a specific domain.

A **vocabulary** (aka **signature**) is a collection of **symbols**, *i.e.*, predicate symbols and constant symbols (that are used as **names** for the predicates and constants in structures).

e.g., the vocabulary of both the structures $(\mathbb{Z}, \text{plus}, 0)$ and $(\mathbb{S}, \text{plus}, 0)$ have a single predicate `plus` and a single constant `0`.

Syntax of predicate logic

Fix a vocabulary.

Definition

A **term** is a variable x, y, z, \dots or a constant symbol c, d, e, \dots .³

An **atomic formula** has the form $P(t_1, \dots, t_k)$ where P is a k -ary predicate symbol and t_1, \dots, t_k are terms.

A **formula** is defined by the following recursive process:

1. Every atomic formula is a formula.
2. If F is a formula then $\neg F$ is a formula.
3. If F, G are formulas then $(F \wedge G)$ and $(F \vee G)$ are formulas.⁴
4. If F is a formula and x a variable then $\exists x F$ and $\forall x F$ are formulas.

³If we had included function symbols, then terms would also include things like $f(g(x))$ and $x^2 + 1$.

⁴We can also use other propositional connectives, e.g., $\rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$.

Example

- Vocabulary
 - Binary predicate symbol `greater_or_equal`
 - Constant symbols `0, 1`
- Domain \mathbb{Z}
- Terms: $x, y, z, 0, 1$
- Atomic formulas
 - `greater_or_equal(x, y)`
 - `greater_or_equal($x, 0$)`
 - `greater_or_equal(x, x)`
- Formulas:
 $\forall x(\text{greater_or_equal}(x, 0) \vee \text{greater_or_equal}(x, y))$

What about semantics of predicate logic?

- The truth value of a formula obviously depends on the structure it is interpreted over.
- But it also depends on the values of the variables.

An **assignment** maps variables to objects (elements of the domain)

- Typically denote assignments by the letter α
- So if F is a formula and α an assignment then $\alpha(F)$ is either true or false

Example

- Domain \mathbb{Z}
- Assignment $\alpha(x) = 3, \alpha(y) = 2$
- Which of the following formulas become true in this case?
 1. `greater_or_equal(x, y)` (aka $x \geq y$)
 2. `greater_or_equal(y, y)` (aka $y \geq y$)
 3. `greater_or_equal(y, x)` (aka $y \geq x$)

Example

- Domain \mathbb{Z}
- Formula $\forall x(x \geq y)$
- Assignment $\alpha(y) = 0$ (and we don't care what the value of α on x is, since x is bound).

The formula is false under the assignment. Why?

- Informally, the statement $\forall x(x \geq y)$ is true under α is the same as saying
 "for every integer d , the formula $x \geq y$ is true under the assignment which agrees with α (on y) but maps x to d "
- And this statement is false, since we can take $d = -3$.
- On the next slide we will formalise this and give a recursive definition of semantics.

Semantics

Fix a vocabulary and a structure with domain \mathbb{D} .

Definition

The **truth-value of a formula F under assignment α** is defined recursively:

1. Predicates:
 - 1.1 Unary predicate P is true under α if $\alpha(x) \in P$.
 - 1.2 Binary predicate Q is true under α if $(\alpha(x), \alpha(y)) \in Q$.
2. The truth-value of the Boolean connectives are as usual.
3. $\forall x F$ is true under α if for every $d \in \mathbb{D}$, F is true under $\alpha[x := d]$.
4. $\exists x F$ is true under α if there is some $d \in \mathbb{D}$ such that F is true under $\alpha[x := d]$.

Here $\alpha[x := d]$ is the assignment that is identical to α except that it maps x to d . This is like replacing x by d .

Note the recursion in this definition.

To see if $\forall x F$ is true under α we must see if the simpler formula F is true under a bunch of assignments, i.e., $\alpha[x := d]$ for every $d \in \mathbb{D}$.

Semantics

- Domain \mathbb{Z}
- Formula $\forall x(x \geq y)$
- Assignment $\alpha(y) = 0$ (and we don't care what the value of α on x is, since x is bound).

Let's apply the definition to show that the formula is false under the assignment.

- We want to know if $\forall x(x \geq y)$ is true under α .
- Same as $x \geq y$ being true under $\alpha[x := d]$, for every integer d .
- Same as $\alpha[x := d](x) \geq \alpha[x := d](y)$ for every integer d .
- Same as $d \geq 0$ for every integer d .
- This is false about the integers, e.g., take $d = -3$.
- Conclude that $\forall x(x \geq y)$ is false under α .

Validity

Fix a vocabulary.

A formula F is **valid** if it evaluates to true for every structure and assignment.

Examples

- $\forall x(P(x) \vee \neg P(x))$ is valid.
- $\forall x \exists y Q(y, x)$ is not valid since it is not true statement about the natural numbers with $Q(y, x)$ meaning $y < x$.

Validity

Does the following argument make logical sense?

1. All tall people are happy

$$\forall x(T(x) \rightarrow H(x))$$

2. There is someone who is happy.

$$\exists x H(x)$$

3. So, there is someone who is tall.

$$\exists x T(x)$$

We can show that

$$(\forall x(T(x) \rightarrow H(x)) \wedge \exists x.H(x)) \rightarrow \exists x.T(x)$$

is not valid by finding a **counterexample**, i.e., domain and predicates that make it false.

	$T(x)$	$H(x)$
Alan	0	1
Bob	0	0

Validity

How do we show that a formula of predicate logic is valid?

- For propositional logic we could use truth-tables or deduction.
- For predicate logic, we can use a proof-system like Natural Deduction. This allows us to prove all (and only) the validities.

Good to know

Is there an algorithm that decides if a given predicate logic sentence is valid?

- The language

$$\{\langle F \rangle : F \text{ is a valid predicate-logic formula}\}$$

is Turing-recognisable (since we have a sound and complete proof system!) but not Turing-decidable.

- Intuitively, this means that no algorithm can decide logical truth.

Good to know

Predicate logic can also include functions⁵

$$f : \mathbb{D}^k \rightarrow \mathbb{D}$$

For instance, in the domain of integers

$$\text{plus} : \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\text{square} : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$$

These can be written using infix notation.

Functions allow us to write **terms** that are more complex than simply variables and elements of the domain, e.g., $x^2 + 3$.

Terms can then be arguments in predicates, e.g., $\text{even}(x^2 + 3)$.

⁵We don't use them in this course.

More?

To learn more about predicate logic I recommend the following introductory texts:

1. [Artificial Intelligence: A modern approach](#), Russell and Norvig, Chapter 8
2. [Logic for Computer Scientists](#), Schönig, Chapter 2