

COMP30026 Models of Computation

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Predicate Logic: Syntax

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Lecture Week 3 Part 2 (Zo

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Semester 2, 2021

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# From Propositional to Predicate Logic

Propositional logic is useful for many purposes, but there is much in our everyday vocabulary (and in the mathematician's arguments) that it cannot express.

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By 1879 Gottlob Frege had designed his “Begriffsschrift” which was really the language of first-order predicate logic, although it looked very different, with statements being written as tree structures.

# Why Predicate Logic?

Unlike propositional logic, predicate logic allows us to

- finitely express statements that deal with infinite collections of objects
- express propositions

To enable this, predicate logic uses variables

range over collections of individuals, such as integers, people, or whatever, as well as quantifiers.

Propositional letters become generalised to predicates, that is, functions that map tuples of individuals to **f** or **t**.

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No emus fly:

$$\forall x (Emu(x) \Rightarrow \neg Flies(x))$$

There are

$$\wedge Swan(x))$$

or:

$$\wedge Swan(y))$$

If all push the cart, the donkey will be happy:

$$\forall x (P(x)) \Rightarrow H$$

If somebody pushes, the donkey will be happy:

$$\exists x (P(x)) \Rightarrow H$$

or (strangely):

$$\exists x (P(x)) \Rightarrow \neg H$$

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# Expressing Relations

Tom found Rover and returned him to Anne:

$Found(tom, rover) \wedge Gave(tom, rover, anne)$

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Tom fou

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Jill inhabits the house **that** Jack built:

$\exists x (House(x) \wedge Inhabits(jill, x))$

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Mothers' mothers are grandmothers:

$$\forall x, y, z ((Mother(x, y) \wedge Mother(y, z)) \Rightarrow Grandmother(x, z))$$

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Tom found an amount of money and gave it to Red Cross:

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Existential quantification,  $\exists$ , is generalised

Universal quantification,  $\forall$ , is generalised

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## Sidebar: Other Variable Binders

$\sum_{i=1}^{100} i^2$  is another example of variable binding.

Similarly with the **lambda term**  $\lambda x. x^2 + 1$ , or in Haskell notation

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A lambda term  $\lambda x. t$  has a variable  $x$  as its binder and  $t$  as its body. This is surprisingly useful.

Mathematicians sometimes talk about 'the function  $x \mapsto x^2 + 1$ '. This notation is ambiguous, because it does not distinguish, say,  $\lambda x. x^2 + 1$  and  $\lambda xy. x^2 + 1$ .

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Consider this argument:

- $\exists v$
- All  $i$
- Col
- Any tadpole eaten by a deep water fish is miserable
- Therefore some tadpole is miserable

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Later we shall see how to automate reasoning about such arguments.

# Our Vocabulary

The alphabet of a first-order language:

- variables ( $x, y, z, t, v, w, \dots$ )
- function symbols ( $f, g, h, \dots, +, \cdot, \dots$ )
- $\text{co}$
- $\text{pre}$
- $\text{co}$
- quantifiers
- parentheses
- (sometimes:  $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{t}$ )

Each function symbol comes with an **arity**: a number that says how many arguments the function takes. Each predicate symbol similarly comes with an arity.

# Terminology

A **term** is a variable or a constant or a construction

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$$f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$$

where  $n$

(Or we may

$t_i$  is a term.

An **atomic formula** (or atom) is a construction

re

$n \geq 0$  and  $P$  is a predicate symbol of arity

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Term  $\longleftrightarrow$  Individual

Atom  $\longleftrightarrow$  Assertion (false or true)

A **literal** is an atomic formula or its negation.

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Note carefully the convention we adopt:

A predicate starts with an upper case letter; nothing else does.

So *fath*

(Most lik

On the other hand, *Father*(*ron*) is a *for*

(Most likely we intend this to mean: “Ron is a father”)

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# First-Order Predicate Logic: Syntax

Well-formed formulas (wffs) are generated by the grammar

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$$\begin{array}{l} wff \mapsto atom \\ \quad \mid \neg wff \end{array}$$

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$$\begin{array}{l} wff \\ wff \\ \forall var \\ \exists var \\ ( wff ) \end{array}$$

Assume precedence rules like for propositional logic.

# Bound and Free Variables

A variable which is in the scope of a quantifier (binding that variable) is **bound**. If it is not bound then it is **free**.

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A variable may occur both free and bound in a formula—witness  $y$  in

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A formul

It is possible for scopes to have “holes”:

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$$\forall x \exists y (x < y \wedge \exists x \quad <$$

The last occurrence of  $x$  is bound by the closest quantifier, so the scope of  $\forall x$  is not all of  $\exists y(\dots)$ .

# Bound Variable Renaming and Capture

The bound variable of a quantified formula is just a placeholder—its exact name is irrelevant.

$\exists x \forall y ($

If a variable in an expression  $\text{expr}$  that is not bound by a quantifier in  $\text{expr}$  is replaced by another one.

However, to avoid variable capture, we can rename a bound variable by  $\forall y$  to a variable in an enclosing scope:

$\exists x \forall y (x \leq y)$  is very different to  $\exists x \forall x (x \leq x)$ .



# From English to Predicate Logic

Introduce symbols for predicates.

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Sentence: "He is a man"      Predicate: is a man      Symbol:  $M()$

"x is a ma

Kim is a ma

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Sentence: "Alice is taller than Kim"       $e, kim)$

Quantifier examples: Add WeChat edu\_assist\_pr

"Every human is mortal"       $\forall x (Human(x) \Rightarrow Mortal(x))$

"Some cat is mortal"       $\exists x (Cat(x) \wedge Mortal(x))$

**Note:** Very common to use  $\Rightarrow$  with  $\forall$  and  $\wedge$  with  $\exists$ .

# Example Translations

Let  $L(x, y)$  stand for "x loves y".

Let  $I(x, y)$  stand for "x is y".

$L(bob$

Bob loves Eva

$\forall x L(x,$

Everyone loves

$\forall x (\neg$

$\exists x (\neg I(x, bob) \wedge L(x, bob))$

Someone other than

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

Everybody loves somebody

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

Someone is loved by everybody

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

Someone loves everybody

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## Quiz: Translate This

Translate the following statement to predicate logic:

*Every Melburnian barracks for a footy team.*

Use these predicates:

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$$\forall x (M(x) \Rightarrow \exists y (T(y)$$

or, equivalently:

$$\forall x \exists y (M(x) \Rightarrow (T(y) \wedge B(x, y)))$$

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Consider word order with care:

- “T

- “T

$\neg \exists y P(y)$

- “All  $S$  are not  $P$ ” vs “not all  $S$  are

$\forall x (S(x) \Rightarrow \neg P(x))$  vs  $\neg \forall x (S(x) \Rightarrow P(x))$

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The order of different quantifiers is important.

$\forall x \exists y$  is n

The form

there's an individual  $y$  that satisfies  $P($

But  $\forall x \forall y$  is the same as  $\forall y \forall x$  and  $\exists x$

ter says

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# Quantified Formulas as a Two-Person Game

The truth or falsehood of a quantified formula can be expressed as a question of winning strategies for a two-person game. Say I make a claim (the quantified statement) and you try to disprove it. You get to supply values for the universally quantified variables.

- If I claim  $\forall x P(x)$ , then you can choose a value for  $x$  to try to disprove  $P(x)$ . If I claim  $\exists x P(x)$ , then I get to choose a value for  $x$  to try to satisfy  $P(x)$ .
- If I claim  $\exists y \forall x P(x, y)$ , then you can choose a value for  $y$  to try to disprove  $P(x, y)$ . If I claim  $\forall y \exists x P(x, y)$ , then I just have to find an  $x$  that satisfies  $P(x, y)$  for every  $y$ .
- If I claim  $\exists x \exists y P(x, y)$ , then I have to find both  $x$  and  $y$ , so it doesn't matter what order they appear.
- If I claim  $\forall y \forall x P(x, y)$ , then you get to pick both  $x$  and  $y$ , so again their order does not matter.

# Implicit Quantifiers

Often quantifiers are implicit in English. Look for nouns (especially plural) without determiners (words to indicate which members of a group are intended).

“Human

$\forall x (Ma$

“A woman is stronger than a man” would usually mean

$\forall x \forall y ((Woman(x) \wedge Man(y)) \Rightarrow Stronger(x, y))$

“If a girl owns a poodle, she spoils it”:

$\forall x \forall y ((Girl(x) \wedge Poodle(y) \wedge Owns(x, y)) \Rightarrow Spoils(x, y))$



Remember, if you feel like reading more about these topics, check out the resources that are linked under “Subject Overview” (also accessible from “Modules” → “Reading Resources”).

O’Donn  
includin  
use of a styl  
(not covered by us, and not examinable).

A rather different introduction to predicate logic is in  
Chapter 9.

The book by Jenkyns also looks good.

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