Phil/LPS 31 Introduction to Inductive Logic Lecture 4

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April 10th 2023

Topics

- Quantified Relational Logic: Motivation
- Quantified Relational Logic: Variables and Quantifiers
- Quantified Relational Logic: Predicates and Relations
- Quantified Relational Logic: The Logic Itself

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- This argument is valid, (and sound!) but sentential logic cannot explain why.

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- So we need a logic with more expressive power to represent not only the truth-functional structure of sentences in a natural language like English, but also their internal or grammatical structure. This logic is called quantified relational logic or first order logic.

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- So we need a logic with more expressive power to represent not only the truth-functional structure of sentences in a natural language like English, but also their internal or grammatical structure. This logic is called quantified relational logic or first order logic.
- ► This logic will allow us to say why the argument we started with earlier is deductively valid.

- (1) Hypatia is wise.
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 - Fundamental to quantified relational logic is the notion of a variable and a quantifier, which we use to generalize.
 - ▶ Look at (1) and (2), if we want to generalize from these two sentences, we can drop the proper names 'Hypatia' and 'Cavendish' and simply say that:
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 - ▶ If the universe of discourse involves only Hypatia and Cavendish we generalize and say that:

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 - (8) $(\exists x \ (x \text{ is wise}))$ Read as "There exists an x such that x is wise."

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 - In quantified relational logic, we paraphrase (6) and (7) as:
 - (8) ($\exists x \ (x \text{ is wise})$) Read as "There exists an x such that x is wise."
 - (9) $(\forall x \ (x \text{ is wise}))$ Read as "For all x, x is wise." or "Every x is wise."

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 - ▶ In your Homework 3 you will practice with these sorts of paraphrases. But this is not the main focus of the class. I just want to cover this because we will need it to understand things we will talk about later in week 2 or early week 3.

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- In fact, (10) is true not just for some two numbers but any two numbers. So we can generalize even further and say:
 (12) (∀x∀y(x² y² = (x y)(x + y)))
- ▶ We will not have to represent anything crazy like (11) and (12) for this class, but you will need to have an idea similar to what happens in high school algebra to understand what is going on.

Let us go back to some of our original sentences:

- (1) Hypatia is wise.
- (2) Cavendish is wise.

We said we can represent (1) and (2) as either as:

- (6) Someone is wise, or
- (7) Everyone is wise.

Or symbolically as:

- (8) $(\exists x \ (x \text{ is wise}))$
- (9) $(\forall x (x \text{ is wise}))$
 - The symbols ∃ and ∀ are called quantifiers. x is a called a variable that is bound by that quantifier.

Using quantifiers and variables generalize the other two sentences we started with assuming that the universe of discourse includes only Hypatia and Cavendish.

- (3) Hypatia is female.
- (4) Cavendish is female.

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Quantified Relational Logic: Predicates and Relations

Now consider all four of our original sentences:

- (1) Hypatia is wise.
- (2) Cavendish is wise.
- (3) Hypatia is female.
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 - Notice that there is variation in proper names ("Hypatia", "Cavendish") and what comes after the proper name ("is wise", "is female"), which are both one place relations.

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 - Notice that there is variation in proper names ("Hypatia", "Cavendish") and what comes after the proper name ("is wise", "is female"), which are both one place relations.
 - ▶ But! what is is common between all four sentences is their logical form. They are all of the logical form:
 <subject> + <one place relation>

- (1) Hypatia is wise.
- (2) Cavendish is wise.
- (3) Hypatia is female.
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 - We have already seen how to generalize when the subject of a sentence is a proper name. We introduced symbols for quantifiers (∃ and ∀) and variables (x, y).

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 - We have already seen how to generalize when the subject of a sentence is a proper name. We introduced symbols for quantifiers (∃ and ∀) and variables (x, y).
 - How do we generalize sentences which have the same logical form:

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 - How do we generalize sentences which have the same logical form:
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 - We introduce the relational symbol W for the relation "is wise" and paraphrase (1) and (2) as:

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 - ► Introduce the relational symbol F for the relation "is female" and paraphrase (3) and (4):

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 - ▶ So the structure of (1), (2) can be represented most generally using quantified relational logic as either:

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 - (16) $(\exists x(Wx))$ Read as "There exists an x and x is W", or

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 - (16) $(\exists x(Wx))$ Read as "There exists an x and x is W", or
 - (17) $(\forall x(Wx))$ Read as "Every x is W".

Using appropriate symbols for quantifiers, variables and relations, paraphrase or formalize the following sentences in quantified relational logic:

- (3) Hypatia is female.
- (4) Cavendish is female.

Now consider the following sentences:

- (1) Hypatia is wise.
- (18) Hypatia possesses wisdom.
- (19) Ottoline met Russell.
 - ▶ While (1) and (18) appear to mean the same thing, they have different logical form. (1) is of the form:

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► The numbers one and two that tell us how many subjects or objects ("one place" or "two place") a relation needs in a full grammatical sentence of English are called the arity of the relation.

There is a special name for relations whose arity is one. They are called predicates. "is wise", "is female" are all predicates.

To paraphrase sentences like:

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we introduce symbols for 2-place or binary relations and use different variables for all the distinct subjects or objects that stand in the relation.

▶ So (18) can be paraphrased as:

(Pxy) Read as "x possesses y"

Here we chose the variable x to stand for Hypatia and the variable y to stand for wisdom and the relational symbol P to stand for the two place relation < x possesses y >.

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 - (Pxy) Read as "x possesses y" Here we chose the variable x to stand for Hypatia and the variable y to stand for wisdom and the relational symbol P to stand for the two place relation < x possesses y >.
- Once we made this choice, the correct paraphrase was (Pxy) not (Pyx)! So with relations order matters!

- (18) Hypatia possesses wisdom.
- (19) Ottoline met Russell.
 - Once we have paraphrased (18) as (Pxy) we can use quantifiers and variables to generalize (18) as: $(\exists x \exists y (Pxy))$

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Using the symbol M for the relation $< x \mod y >$ paraphrase (19) with full generality.

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 - 2. If \mathcal{F} is a formula by Rule 1 and if x is a free variable in \mathcal{F} , then $(\exists x \mathcal{F})$ is a formula and $(\forall x \mathcal{F})$ is a formula. Rule 2 is known as binding any free variable x in \mathcal{F} by a quantifier.

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- ▶ A formula F formed by either rule 1 and 2 is called an atomic formula.

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 - 4. If \mathcal{H} is a complex formula, then the result of binding any free variable in \mathcal{H} and closing everything up with one left and one right parenthesis is a formula.

► The Closure Condition says that a formula of quantified relational logic is either an atomic formula or a complex formula built from atomic formulas by finite applications of rule 3 and 4. Nothing else is a formula.

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 - 8. $(\neg(Fa))$
 - 9. $((\exists y(Fy)) \rightarrow (\forall z(Gyz)))$
 - 10. $(\forall z((\exists y(Fy)) \rightarrow (\exists y(Gyz))))$

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- ► The focus of this class is not quantified relational logic. But see Homework 3 for more exercises.
- ▶ We have now characterized the formal system of quantified relational logic. Next time we will introduce some inference rules for doing deduction in quantified relational logic, and talk about the interpretation or semantics of quantified relational logic very briefly.