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## Predicate logic cont.

Syntax and semantics

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#### Homework

· Chapter 12, Signaling Adversity of "Haskell from first principles".

# Predicate logic

```
type Name = String
newtype Var = Var Name deriving Eq
data Formula = Atomic String [Var]
    | Neg Formula
    | Formula `Impl` Formula
    | Formula `Conj` Formula
    | Formula `Disj` Formula
    deriving Eq
```

## Writing helper functions

```
at :: String -> String -> Formula
at p v = Atomic p [Var "v"]

forall :: String -> Formula -> Formula
forall v = Forall (Var "v")
```

## Example formula

$$\forall x[dog(x) \rightarrow bark(x)]$$

#### Semantics of predicate logic

- A semantics for predicate logic is stated relative to a model and an assignment.
  - A model consists of a domain of individuals D, and an interpretation function I mapping predicate symbols to boolean-valued functions.
    - $\cdot$  I maps a predicate symbol of arity  $\bf 0$  to a boolean value.
    - $\cdot$   $\,$  I maps a predicate symbol of arity 1 to a function

```
f: D \to \{ \text{True}, \text{False} \}.
```

 $\cdot$   $\,$  I maps a predicate symbol of arity 2 to a function

```
f: D \times D \rightarrow \{\text{True}, \text{False}\}\
```

- · ...and so on.
- You're probably more familiar with a presentation where I maps predicate symbols to sets rather than functions, but this is equivalent.

#### Assignments

An assignment function g is a total function from the set of variables Var the domain of individuals D.

$$g_1 := \begin{bmatrix} x \to & \mathbf{Bart} \\ y \to & \mathbf{Milhouse} \\ z \to & \mathbf{Bart} \\ \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

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#### Semantics of atomic sentences

We can now define  $[.]^{M,g}$  for atomic sentences, where  $[.]^{M,g}$  is a total function from wffs of predicate logic to boolean values.

$$[P(x_1, ..., x_n)]^{M,g} = I(P)(g(x_1), ..., g(x_n))$$

#### Semantics of complex sentences

The semantics of the logical connectives is the same as in propositional logic.

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#### Semantics for quantifiers

• The semantics for quantifiers is a little more involved.:

 $\cdot \ \left[ \exists x \phi \right]^{M,g} =$  **True** iff there is some assignment g' s.t. g[x]g' and  $\left[ \phi \right]^{M,g'} =$ **True**  $\cdot \ \left[ \forall x \phi \right]^{M,g} =$ 

**True** iff there is no assignment g' s.t. g[x]g' and  $\llbracket \phi \rrbracket^{M,g'} = \mathbf{False}$ 

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Semantics for quantifiers cont.

• g[x]g' means that assignments g and g' differ only in the value they assign to x.

## Interlude: hackage

#### Hackage

- Hackage is the haskell package repository.
  - Chances are, if we can't find the datatype/function we need in the the haskell prelude, we can find it in a package on hackage.
  - Today I'll make use of one of the most ubiquitous haskell packages containers - which provides an implementation of sets in the module Data.Set.



#### Package managers

- To add packages from hackage to your haskell project there are basically two options.
  - · Cabal, the official haskell project/package manager.
    - · If you've installed ghc, you probably already have this installed.
  - Stack, an unofficial, but simple and widely-used project/package manager.

#### Qualified import

- It's good practice to use a qualified import for Data.Set, since some of the exported functions overlap with prelude (e.g., delete).
- We can use the overloaded lists language extension to simply express sets using list syntax.
  - · Alternatively, you can build a set explicitly using S.fromList.

```
{-# LANGUAGE OverloadedLists #-}
import qualified Data.Set as S

aSet :: S.Set Int
aSet = [1,2,1,3]
```

```
ghci> aSet
fromList [1,2,3]
```

#### Union, intersection, and deleting

- Data.Set means that we no longer have to worry about accidentally duplicating elements of a list.
- The order of elements in a set doesn't matter.

```
ghci> [1,2,3] `S.union` [1,2,4]
fromList [1,2,3,4]
ghci> [1,2,3] `S.intersection` [1,2,4]
fromList [1,2]
ghci> S.delete 1 [1,2,1,3]
fromList [2,3]
ghci> fromList [1,2] == fromList [2,1]
True
```

## Model theoretic semantics

#### Implementing a model

- In order to implement a semantics for predicate logic in Haskell, we first need to implement a *model*.
- The most convenient choice for an entity type is **Int**, since we can define some predicates in terms of built in functions in Haskell.

```
newtype Entity = E Int deriving (Eq,Show,Ord)

domE :: S.Set Entity
domE = S.fromList $ E <$> [1..10]
```

 Note: since we want computation for quantificational statements such as "everyone left" to terminate, it's particularly important that we define a finite domain as a subset of the set of integers (i.e., domE).

#### Adding predicates

```
oddP :: [Entity] -> Bool
oddP [E n] = odd n
oddP = undefined
evenP :: [Entity] -> Bool
evenP [E n] = even n
evenP _ = undefined
isEqualR :: [Entity] -> Bool
isEqualR [E n, E n'] = n == n'
isEqualR _ = undefined
evenlyDivisibleR :: [Entity] -> Bool
evenlyDivisibleR [E n,E n'] = (n `rem` n') == 0
evenlyDivisibleR = undefined
```

 Note: functions are simply left undefined if the wrong number of arguments are supplied.

#### Interpretation function

```
type I = String -> [Entity] -> Bool

lexicon :: String -> [Entity] -> Bool
lexicon "odd" = oddP
lexicon "even" = evenP
lexicon "evenlyDivisible" = evenlyDivisibleR
lexicon "isEqual" = isEqualR
lexicon _ = const True
```

#### Gathering variables using Data.Set

```
allVars :: Formula -> S.Set Var
allVars s = case s of
  (Atomic p vs) -> S.fromList vs
  (Neg p) -> allVars p
  (p `Impl` q) -> allVars p `S.union` allVars q
  (p `Conj` q) -> allVars p `S.union` allVars q
  (p `Disj` q) -> allVars p `S.union` allVars q
  (Forall v p) -> v `S.insert` allVars p
  (Exists v p) -> v `S.insert` allVars p
```

## Making assignments

```
import Control.Monad (replicateM)
import qualified Data.Map as M

type Assignment = M.Map Var Int

mkAssignments :: [Var] → [Entity] → S.Set Assignment
mkAssignments vs d = S.fromList [M.fromList $ zip vs es | es <--
→ replicateM (length vs) d]</pre>
```

```
import qualified Data.Map as M
type Dom = S.Set Entity
eval :: I -> Dom -> Assignment -> Formula -> Bool
eval i d g (Atomic p vs) = i p [ g M.! v | v <- vs]
eval i d g (Neg p) = not $ eval i d g p
eval i d g (p `Conj` q) = eval i d g p && eval i d g q
eval i d g (p `Disj` q) = eval i d g p || eval i d g q
eval i d g (p `Impl` q) = not (eval i d g p) || eval i d g q
eval i d g (Exists v p) = undefined
eval i d g (Forall v p) = undefined
```

## Assignment modification

```
modify :: Assignment -> Var -> Entity -> Assignment
modify g v x = M.insert v x g
```

## Quantification via generalized conjunction/disjunction

```
eval i d g (Exists v p) = disjoin [ eval i d (modify g v x) p | x

     <- S.toList d]
eval i d g (Forall v p) = conjoin [eval i d (modify g v x) p | x

     <- S.toList d]</pre>
```

Maybe

## The Maybe datatype

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
```

Maybe is used to explictly reason about undefinedness.

#### Writing a function with Maybe

- We use **Maybe** to write partial functions.
- For example, here is a safe version of **head** using **Maybe**:

```
safeHead :: [a] -> Maybe a
safeHead [] = Nothing
safeHead (x:xs) = Just x
```

• Kinds are types *one level up*, used to describe the types of *type constructors* such as **Maybe**.

```
ghci> :kind Int
Int :: *
ghci> :k Bool
Bool :: *
ghci> :k Char
Char :: *
```

## Higher-kinded types

Here is a datatype isomorphic to Maybe:

```
data Example a = Blah | Woot a
```

· Question: what is the kind of Example

## More higher-kinded types

- Question: What is the kind of Maybe?
- · Question: What is kind of the tuple type constructor (,)?
- Question: What is kind of the list type constructor []?
- Question: What is kind of the function type constructor (->)?

#### Applying type constructors

Which of the following are concrete types?

```
ghci> :k Maybe Maybe
ghci> :k Maybe Bool
ghci> :k Example (Maybe (Maybe Bool))
ghci> :k Maybe Example
ghci> :l Maybe (Example Int)
```

#### **Functors**

- A functor is a way to apply a function over or around some immutable structure.
- Functors are a notion from category theory (a mapping from categories to categories), implemented in Haskell as a type-class.
- Remember, type-classes categorize types based on certain well-defined behaviours.

## The functor type-class

```
class Functor f where
fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

Notice that f is a higher-kinded type.

#### Examples of fmap

```
ghci> fmap (\x -> x > 3) [1..6]
[False,False,False,True,True]
ghci> fmap not (Just True)
Just False
ghci> fmap not Nothing
Nothing
```

This means that [] and Maybe are both higher-kinded types which implement the typeclass Functor.

## fmap as function application

```
(<$>) :: Functor f =>
  (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
($) ::
  (a -> b) -> a -> b
```

```
ghci> (\n -> n+1) <$> Just 3
Just 4
```

#### Functor laws

- Instances of the **Functor** type class should abide by two basic laws.
  - Alert: ghci won't always warn you if you write a functor instance that doesn't obey these laws!
- · The laws are:
  - · Identity.
  - · Composition.

## The identity law

fmap id == id

- · Question: what are the types of fmap and id in this expression?
- · Question: what does this law guarantee?

#### Composition

```
fmap (f. g) == fmap f. fmap g
```

 If we compose two functions and fmap over some structure, we should get the same result as if we mapped and then composed them.

```
fmap ((+1) . (*2)) [1..5]
fmap (+1) . fmap (*2) $ [1..5]
```

## Mapping into structures

By composing fmap with itself we can tunnel into complex expressions.

```
(fmap . fmap) (++ "lol") (Just ["Hi,","Hello"])
```

• Exercise: normalize this expression by hand.

 $\mathcal{F}in$ 

#### References