

Predicate Logic

- *Fish are vertebrates living in water.*
 - *Carps are fish.*
 - *There exists at least one carp.*
-
- *There exists at least one vertebrate living in water.*

- *Triangles are convex polygons.*
 - *Equilateral triangles are triangles.*
 - *There exists at least one equilateral triangle.*
-
- *There exists at least one convex polygon.*

- *Fish are vertebrates living in water.*
 - *Carps are fish.*
 - *There exists at least one carp.*
-
- *There exists at least one vertebrate living in water.*

The use of **variables**:

- *For each x it holds that if x is a fish then x is a vertebrate and x lives in water.*
 - *For each x it holds that if x is a carp then x is a fish.*
 - *There exists at least one x such that x is a carp.*
-
- *There exists at least one x such that x is a vertebrate and x lives in water.*

- *Triangles are convex polygons.*
 - *Equilateral triangles are triangles.*
 - *There exists at least one equilateral triangle.*
-
- *There exists at least one convex polygon.*

The use of **variables**:

- *For each x it holds that if x is a triangle then x is a polygon and x is convex.*
 - *For each x it holds that if x is an equilateral triangle then x is a triangle.*
 - *There exists at least one x such that x is an equilateral triangle.*
-
- *There exists at least one x such that x is a polygon and x is convex.*

Predicate Logic

- For each x it holds that if x has property P then x has property Q and x has property R .
 - For each x it holds that if x has property S then x has property P .
 - There exists at least one x such that x has property S .
-
- There exists at least one x such that x has property Q and x has property R .

P	is a fish	is a triangle
Q	is a vertebrate	is a polygon
R	lives in water	is convex
S	is a carp	is an equilateral triangle

Predicate Logic

- For each x it holds that if $P(x)$ then $Q(x)$ and $R(x)$.
 - For each x it holds that if $S(x)$ then $P(x)$.
 - There exists x such that $S(x)$.
-
- There exists x such that $Q(x)$ and $R(x)$.

$P(x)$	x is a fish	x is a triangle
$Q(x)$	x is a vertebrate	x is a polygon
$R(x)$	x lives in water	x is convex
$S(x)$	x is a carp	x is an equilateral triangle

Predicate Logic

- For each x , $(P(x) \rightarrow (Q(x) \wedge R(x)))$.
 - For each x , $(S(x) \rightarrow P(x))$.
 - There exists x such that $S(x)$.
-
- There exists x such that $(Q(x) \wedge R(x))$.

$P(x)$	x is a fish	x is a triangle
$Q(x)$	x is a vertebrate	x is a polygon
$R(x)$	x lives in water	x is convex
$S(x)$	x is a carp	x is an equilateral triangle

- $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow (Q(x) \wedge R(x)))$
 - $\forall x(S(x) \rightarrow P(x))$
 - $\exists x S(x)$
-
- $\exists x(Q(x) \wedge R(x))$

$P(x)$	x is a fish	x is a triangle
$Q(x)$	x is a vertebrate	x is a polygon
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$S(x)$	x is a carp	x is an equilateral triangle

- \forall — universal quantifier (“*for all*”)
- \exists — existential quantifier (“*there exists*”)

Formulas of propositional logic express propositions about objects with some properties and which can be in some relationships.

Interpretation or **interpretation structure** — a particular set of these objects, their properties and relationships.

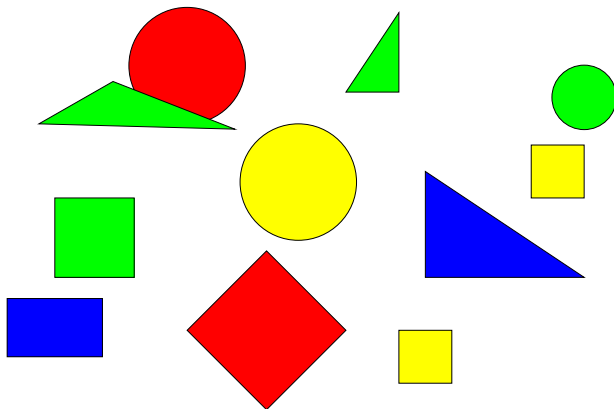
Universe — the set of all objects in a given interpretation

- An arbitrary **non-empty** set can be the universe.
- Objects in a given universe are called the **elements** of the universe.

Valuation — an assignment of elements of the universe to variables

The truth values of formulas depend on a given interpretation and valuation.

An example of a universe:



Other examples of universes:

- Some precisely specified set of people, for example, the set of people that live in some specified house (*“John Smith”, “John Doe”, ...*)
- The set of all books in a given library.
- The set of natural numbers $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.
- The set of all points in a plane.
- The set $\{a, b, c, d, e\}$.
- The set $\{a\}$.

Variables — x, y, z, \dots , possibly with indexes — x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots

It is assumed that there are infinitely many variables.

Valuation — an assignment of elements of the universe to the variables

Example:

- Universe — a set of people; valuation v , where:

$$v(x) = \text{"John Doe"}$$

$$v(y) = \text{"Mary Smith"}$$

...

- Universe — the set of natural numbers $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$; valuation v , where

$$v(x) = 57 \qquad v(y) = 3 \qquad v(z) = 57 \qquad \dots$$

Predicates — P, Q, R, \dots

- **Unary predicates** — they represent **properties** of elements of the universe

Example: Predicate P representing the property “to be blue”:

$$P(x) \quad \text{—} \quad “x \text{ is blue}”$$

A unary predicate assigns truth values to the elements of the universe.

E.g., the value of $P(x)$ can be:

- 1 — the element assigned to variable x has property P (i.e., it is blue)
- 0 — the element assigned to variable x does not have this property P (i.e., it is not blue)

- **Binary predicates** — they represent **relationships** between pairs of elements of the universe

Example: Predicate R representing the relationship “to be a parent of”:

$$R(x, y) \quad \text{—} \quad “x \text{ is a parent of } y”$$

A binary predicate assigns truth values to pair of elements of the universe.

E.g., the value of $R(x, y)$ can be:

- 1 — when x and y are in the given relationship (i.e., when x is a parent of y)
- 0 — when x and y are not in the given relationship (i.e., when x is not a parent of y)

We can consider predicates of arbitrary arities.

For example:

- **Ternary** predicate T (i.e., predicate of arity 3) representing the relationship between parents and their child:

$$T(x, y, z)$$

— x and y are parents of child z , and x is his/her mother and y is his/her father

- **Nulary** predicates (i.e., predicates of arity 0) can be viewed as atomic propositions, not related to the elements of the universe.

Formulas of Predicate Logic

Atomic formula — a predicate applied on some variables

Example:

- P — a unary predicate representing property *“to be blue”*
- Q — a unary predicate representing property *“to be a square”*
- R — a binary predicate representing relationships *“overlaps”*

$P(x)$	—	<i>“x is blue”</i>
$P(y)$	—	<i>“y is blue”</i>
$Q(y)$	—	<i>“y is a square”</i>
$R(z, x)$	—	<i>“z overlaps x”</i>
$R(y, y)$	—	<i>“y overlaps itself”</i>

Remark: Later, we will extend the notion of an atomic formula a little bit.

Formulas of Predicate Logic

Using **logical connectives** (“ \neg ”, “ \wedge ”, “ \vee ”, “ \rightarrow ”, “ \leftrightarrow ”), more complicated formulas can be created from simpler formulas, similarly as in propositional logic.

Example:

- P — unary predicate representing property “*is blue*”
- Q — unary predicate representing property “*is a square*”
- R — binary predicate representing relationship “*overlaps*”

“If x is a blue square or y does not overlap x , then z is not a square.”

$$((P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \vee \neg R(y, x)) \rightarrow \neg Q(z)$$

Formulas of Predicate Logic

Using **logical connectives** (“ \neg ”, “ \wedge ”, “ \vee ”, “ \rightarrow ”, “ \leftrightarrow ”), more complicated formulas can be created from simpler formulas, similarly as in propositional logic.

Example:

- P — unary predicate representing property “*is a woman*”
- Q — unary predicate representing property “*has dark hair*”
- R — binary predicate representing relationship “*is a parent of*”

“If x is a woman with dark hair or y is not a parent of x , then z does not have dark hair.”

$$((P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \vee \neg R(y, x)) \rightarrow \neg Q(z)$$

Formulas of Predicate Logic

Using **logical connectives** (“ \neg ”, “ \wedge ”, “ \vee ”, “ \rightarrow ”, “ \leftrightarrow ”), more complicated formulas can be created from simpler formulas, similarly as in propositional logic.

Example:

- P — unary predicate representing property “is even”
- Q — unary predicate representing property “is a prime”
- R — binary predicate representing relationship “is greater than”

“If x is an even prime or y is not greater than x , then z is not a prime.”

$$((P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \vee \neg R(y, x)) \rightarrow \neg Q(z)$$

Universal quantifier — symbol “ \forall ”

If φ is a formula representing some proposition then

$$\forall x \varphi$$

is a formula representing proposition

“for every x φ holds”.

Example: P — *“to be a square”*

$$\forall x P(x)$$

- *“For every x it holds that x is a square.”*
- *“Every x is a square.”*
- *“All elements are squares.”*

Example:

- “For every x it holds that if x is a square then x is green.”
- “For each x it holds that if x is a square then x is green.”
- “For all x it holds that if x is a square then x is green.”
- “All squares are green.”

$$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

- P — “to be a square” (arity 1)
- Q — “to be green” (arity 1)

Example:

- *"If it holds for all x that x is a square or x is green then it holds for all y that y is a triangle."*
- *"If every object is a square or is green then all objects are triangles."*

$$\forall x(P(x) \vee Q(x)) \rightarrow \forall yT(y)$$

- P — "to be a square" (arity 1)
- Q — "to be green" (arity 1)
- T — "to be a triangle" (arity 1)

There is a big difference between the following formulas:

- $P(x)$ — “ x is a square”

It claims something about **one** particular element assigned to variable x .

The truth value of this claim depends on the particular element assigned to variable x , i.e., on the particular valuation.

- $\forall x P(x)$ — “every x is a square” (i.e., “all elements are squares”)

It claims something about **all** elements of the universe.

The truth value of this claim does not depend on a valuation.

Example:

- “If x is a prime then x is odd.”

$$P(x) \rightarrow L(x)$$

- “For every x it holds that if x is a prime then it is odd”. (I.e., “all primes are odd”.)

$$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow L(x))$$

Predicates:

- P — “to be a prime” (arity 1)
- L — “to be odd” (arity 1)

Example:

- *“It holds for every y that if y is green then x overlaps y .”*
- *“Object x overlaps all green objects.”*

$$\forall y (G(y) \rightarrow R(x, y))$$

Predicates:

- R — “overlaps” (arity 2)
- G — “to be green” (arity 1)

Example:

- *"It holds for every x that it holds for every y that if x is a parent of y then x loves y ."*
- *"It holds for each x and y that if x is a parent of y then x loves y ."*
- *"For every pair of elements x and y it holds that if x is a parent of y then x loves y ."*

$$\forall x \forall y (R(x, y) \rightarrow S(x, y))$$

Predicates:

- R — *"is a parent"* (arity 2)
- S — *"loves"* (arity 2)

Existential quantifier — symbol “ \exists ”

If φ is a formula representing some proposition then

$$\exists x \varphi$$

is a formula representing proposition

“there exists x , for which φ holds”.

Example: P — *“to be a square”*

$$\exists x P(x)$$

- *“There exists x , for which it holds that x is a square.”*
- *“There is x such that x is a square.”*
- *“There exists at least one square.”*

Example:

- “There exists x , for which it holds that x is a square and x is green.”
- “There is x such that x is a square and x is green.”
- “For some x it holds that x is a square and x is green.”
- “There exists a green square.”
- “Some squares are green.”
- “At least one x is a green square.”

$$\exists x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$$

Predicates:

- P — “to be a square” (arity 1)
- Q — “to be green” (arity 1)

Example:

- “There exists x such that for each y it holds that x is greater than y .”

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

- “For each y there is x such that x is greater than y .”

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

P — “to be greater than” (arity 2)

Syntax of Formulas of Predicate Logic

Alphabet:

- **logical connectives** — “ \neg ”, “ \wedge ”, “ \vee ”, “ \rightarrow ”, “ \leftrightarrow ”
- **quantifiers** — “ \forall ”, “ \exists ”
- **auxiliary symbols** — “(”, “)”, “,”
- **variables** — “ x ”, “ y ”, “ z ”, \dots , “ x_0 ”, “ x_1 ”, “ x_2 ”, \dots
- **predicate symbols** — for example symbols “ P ”, “ Q ”, “ R ”, etc.
(for each symbol, its arity must be specified)
- \dots

Remark: Other types of symbols will be described later.

Syntax of Formulas of Predicate Logic

Definition

Well-formed **atomic formulas** of predicate logic are formulas of the form:

- $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, where P is a predicate symbol of arity n and x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are (not necessarily different) variables.
- ...

Remark: This is not the whole definition. Later, it will be generalized a little bit and some additional items will be added.

Example:

$P(x, y)$

$R(z, z, z)$

$S(y)$

Definition

Well-formed **formulas of predicate logic** are sequences of symbols constructed according to the following rules:

- 1 Well-formed atomic formulas are well-formed formulas.
- 2 If φ and ψ are well-formed formulas, then also $(\neg\varphi)$, $(\varphi \wedge \psi)$, $(\varphi \vee \psi)$, $(\varphi \rightarrow \psi)$ and $(\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi)$ are well-formed formulas.
- 3 If φ is a well-formed formula and x is a variable, then $\forall x\varphi$ and $\exists x\varphi$ are well-formed formulas.
- 4 There are no other well-formed formulas than those constructed according to the previous rules.

Notions like

- subformulas
- an abstract syntax tree

are introduced in a similar way like in propositional logic (they are only extended with the additional constructions not present in propositional logic).

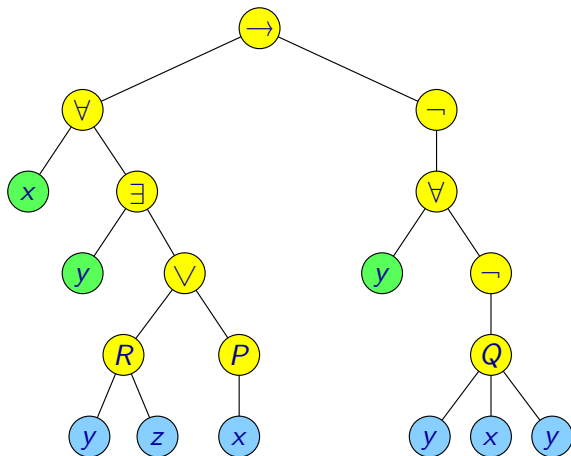
Convention for omitting parentheses:

- The same conventions as in propositional logic.
- Quantifiers (\forall and \exists) have the same priority as negation (\neg), i.e., the highest priority.

Syntax of Formulas of Predicate Logic

An abstract syntax tree of formula

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



Free and Bound Occurrences of Variables

Every occurrence of variable x in a subformula of the form $\exists x\varphi$ or $\forall x\varphi$ is **bound**.

An occurrence of a variable, which is not bound, is **free**.

Example: Formula

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

- y in subformula $R(y, z)$ — the bound occurrence ($\exists y$)
- z in subformula $R(y, z)$ — the free occurrence
- x in subformula $P(x)$ — the bound occurrence ($\forall x$)
- both occurrences of y in subformula $Q(y, x, y)$ — the bound occurrences ($\forall y$)
- x in subformula $Q(y, x, y)$ — the free occurrence

Free and Bound Occurrences of Variables

The set of those variables, which occur as **free** variables in formula φ , will be denoted $free(\varphi)$.

Example:

- If φ is formula $P(x, y)$, then $free(\varphi) = \{x, y\}$.
- If ψ is formula $\exists x \exists y P(x, y)$, then $free(\psi) = \emptyset$.

- If χ is formula

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

then $free(\chi) = \{x, z\}$.

Free and Bound Occurrences of Variables

The set of free variables $free(\varphi)$ can be described by the following inductive definition:

- $free(P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)) = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$
(where P is a predicate symbol)
- $free(\neg\varphi) = free(\varphi)$
- $free(\varphi \wedge \psi) = free(\varphi) \cup free(\psi)$
(it is similar for formulas of the form $\varphi \vee \psi$, $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$, and $\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$)
- $free(\forall x\varphi) = free(\varphi) - \{x\}$ (where x is a variable)
- $free(\exists x\varphi) = free(\varphi) - \{x\}$ (where x is a variable)

Free and Bound Occurrences of Variables

A formula φ is **closed** if it contains no free occurrences of variables (i.e., when $\text{free}(\varphi) = \emptyset$).

A formula φ is **open** if it is not closed (i.e., when $\text{free}(\varphi) \neq \emptyset$).

Remark: Closed formulas are sometimes also called **sentences**.

Example:

- Formula $\exists x \exists y P(x, y)$ is closed.
- Formula $\forall x \exists y (R(y, z) \vee P(x)) \rightarrow \neg \forall y \neg Q(y, x, y)$ is open (because it contains free occurrences of variables z and x).

Truth values of closed formulas do not depend on a valuation, only on an interpretation.

Formulas are evaluated in a given **interpretation** (**interpretation structure**) and **valuation**.

The fact that formula φ holds (i.e., it has truth value 1) in interpretation \mathcal{A} and valuation v , is denoted

$$\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi$$

The fact that formula φ does not hold (i.e., it has truth value 0) in interpretation \mathcal{A} and valuation v , is denoted $\mathcal{A}, v \not\models \varphi$.

An **interpretation** \mathcal{A} is a structure consisting of the following items:

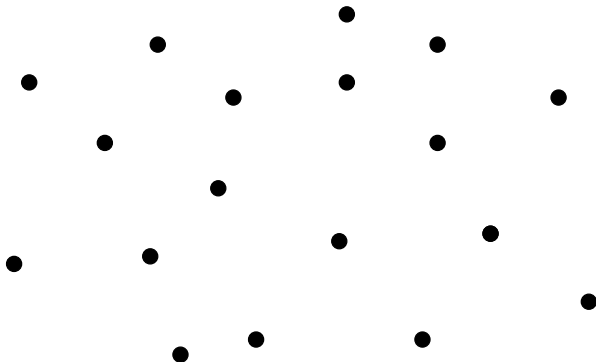
- **Universe** A — an arbitrary non-empty set
- Some subset of the set A is assigned to every unary predicate symbol P — it is denoted $P^{\mathcal{A}}$.
(And so $P^{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq A$.)
- Some binary relation on A is assigned to every binary predicate symbol Q — it is denoted $Q^{\mathcal{A}}$.
(And so $Q^{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq A \times A$.)
- It is similar for predicate symbols with other arities (3, 4, 5, ...).

Remark: This definition is not complete yet, and it will be later extended by other items.

Semantics of Predicate Logic

An example of an interpretation \mathcal{A} :

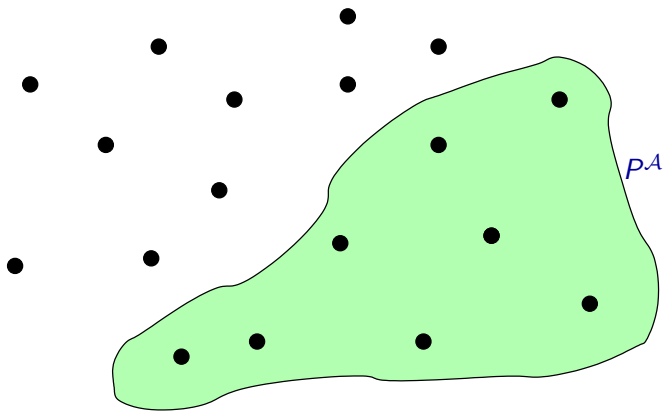
universe A



Semantics of Predicate Logic

An example of an interpretation \mathcal{A} :

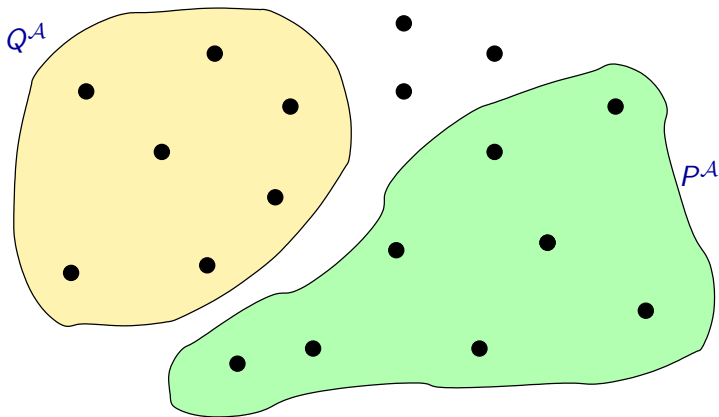
universe A



Semantics of Predicate Logic

An example of an interpretation \mathcal{A} :

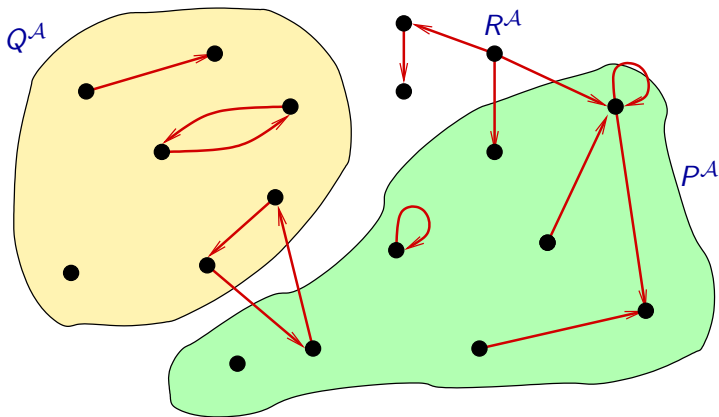
universe A



Semantics of Predicate Logic

An example of an interpretation \mathcal{A} :

universe A



Other example of an interpretation \mathcal{A} :

- universe $A = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}$
- $P^{\mathcal{A}} = \{b, d, e\}$
- $Q^{\mathcal{A}} = \{a, b, e, g\}$
- $R^{\mathcal{A}} = \{(a, b), (a, e), (a, g), (b, b), (c, e), (f, c), (f, g), (g, a), (g, g)\}$

Semantics of Predicate Logic

Let Var be the set of all variables, i.e.,

$$Var = \{x, y, z, \dots, x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$$

For a given interpretation \mathcal{A} with a universe A , a **valuation** v is an arbitrary function

$$v : Var \rightarrow A$$

that assigns elements of the universe to the variables.

Remark: As we will see, in fact, only values assigned by the valuation v to variables in $free(\varphi)$ are important for determining the truth value of formula φ .

Values assigned by valuation v to the other variables are not important from this point of view.

Semantics of Predicate Logic

Let us consider an interpretation \mathcal{A} with universe A and a valuation v .

Lets assume that (i.e., $x \in Var$) and a is an element of the universe (i.e., $a \in A$).

Notation

$$v[x \mapsto a]$$

denotes the valuation $v' : Var \rightarrow A$, which assigns to every variable the same value as valuation v , except that it assigns value a to variable x .

I.e., for every variable y (where $y \in Var$) is

$$v'(y) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } y = x \\ v(y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Example:

- universe $A = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, \dots\}$

valuation v :

$$v(x_0) = c \quad v(x_1) = e \quad v(x_2) = b \quad v(x_3) = e \quad \dots$$

valuation $v[x_2 \mapsto g]$:

$$v(x_0) = c \quad v(x_1) = e \quad v(x_2) = g \quad v(x_3) = e \quad \dots$$

Definition

Let us assume an interpretation \mathcal{A} with universe A and a valuation v , assigning elements of the universe A to the variables.

The **truth values of formulas of predicate logic** in interpretation \mathcal{A} and valuation v are defined as follows:

- For a predicate P of arity n , $\mathcal{A}, v \models P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ iff $(v(x_1), v(x_2), \dots, v(x_n)) \in P^{\mathcal{A}}$.
- $\mathcal{A}, v \models \neg \varphi$ iff $\mathcal{A}, v \not\models \varphi$.
- $\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi \wedge \psi$ iff $\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi$ and $\mathcal{A}, v \models \psi$.
- $\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi \vee \psi$ iff $\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi$ or $\mathcal{A}, v \models \psi$.
- $\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi \rightarrow \psi$ iff $\mathcal{A}, v \not\models \varphi$ or $\mathcal{A}, v \models \psi$.
- $\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$ iff $\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi$ and $\mathcal{A}, v \models \psi$, or $\mathcal{A}, v \not\models \varphi$ and $\mathcal{A}, v \not\models \psi$.
- ...

Definition (cont.)

- ...
- $\mathcal{A}, v \models \forall x \varphi$ iff for **every** $a \in A$ it holds that $\mathcal{A}, v[x \mapsto a] \models \varphi$.
- $\mathcal{A}, v \models \exists x \varphi$ iff there **exists** some $a \in A$ such that $\mathcal{A}, v[x \mapsto a] \models \varphi$.

Semantics of Predicate Logic

A closed formula φ is **true** (i.e., it has truth value 1) in interpretation \mathcal{A} if it holds for each valuation v that $\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi$.

The fact that formula φ is true in interpretation \mathcal{A} is denoted

$$\mathcal{A} \models \varphi.$$

Remark: A truth value of a closed formula in a given interpretation does not depend on a valuation.

Consider a closed formula φ .

A **model** of the formula φ is an arbitrary interpretation \mathcal{A} such that $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi$.

Evaluation of Truth of Formulas as a Game

Let us consider a formula of the form

$$\exists x_1 \forall x_2 \exists x_3 \forall x_4 \cdots \exists x_{n-1} \forall x_n \varphi,$$

where quantifiers alternate in some arbitrary way, and where φ does not contain quantifiers.

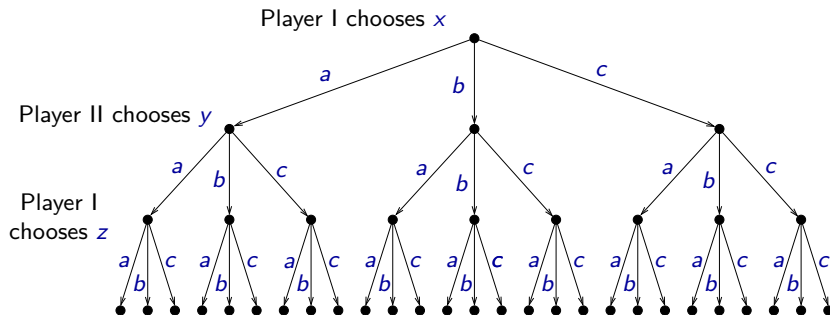
The evaluation of truth values of formulas of this form (in a given interpretation \mathcal{A} and a valuation v) can be viewed as a game:

- It is played by a pair of players — **Player I** and **Player II**.
- Player I wants to show that the formula is true.
- Player II wants to show that the formula is false.
- Player I chooses values of those variables, which are bound by an existential quantifier (\exists).
- Player II chooses values of those variables, which are bound by an universal quantifier (\forall).

Evaluation of Truth of Formulas as a Game

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

universe $A = \{a, b, c\}$



Evaluation of Truth of Formulas as a Game

- Formula φ is true iff Player I has a **winning strategy** in this game.
- Formula φ is false iff Player II has a winning strategy.

Strategy — determines how a player should play in every situation, i.e., it determines moves of the player for all possible moves of the other player.

Winning strategy — a strategy that guarantees a win of the given player in every play, not matter what the other player does.

Evaluation of Truth of Formulas as a Game

Example: Interpretation where universe is the set of real numbers \mathbb{R} and binary predicate symbol R represents relation “greater or equal” (i.e., $R(x, y)$ iff $x \geq y$).

Formula $\exists x \forall y R(x, y)$ — a winning strategy of Player II:

- Player I chooses number x .
- Player II chooses number $y = x + 1$ — Player II wins since it is obviously not true that $x \geq x + 1$.

Formula $\forall y \exists x R(x, y)$ — a winning strategy of Player I:

- Player II chooses number y .
- Player I chooses number $x = y$ — Player I wins since it is obviously true that $x \geq x$.

A formula φ is **logically valid** if it has truth value 1 in every interpretation and valuation, i.e., if for every interpretation \mathcal{A} and valuation v is

$$\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi.$$

Example:

- $\exists x P(x) \rightarrow \exists y P(y)$
- $\forall x P(x) \wedge \neg \exists y Q(y) \rightarrow \forall z (P(z) \wedge \neg Q(z))$
- $\forall x P(x) \rightarrow \exists x P(x)$

Logically Valid Formulas

If we take an arbitrary tautology of propositional logic and replace in it all atomic propositions with arbitrary formulas of predicate logic, we obtain a logically valid formula.

Example: Tautology $p \rightarrow (q \vee p)$

- p is replaced with $\forall z(P(x, z) \leftrightarrow \neg Q(z, y))$
- q is replaced with $R(x)$

We obtain a logically valid formula

$$\forall z(P(x, z) \leftrightarrow \neg Q(z, y)) \rightarrow (R(x) \vee \forall z(P(x, z) \leftrightarrow \neg Q(z, y)))$$

Logically Equivalent Formulas

Formulas φ and ψ are **logically equivalent** if they have the same truth values in every interpretation and valuation, i.e., if for every interpretation \mathcal{A} and valuation v is

$$\mathcal{A}, v \models \varphi \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathcal{A}, v \models \psi.$$

The fact that φ and ψ are logically equivalent is denoted

$$\varphi \Leftrightarrow \psi.$$

- Similarly as in propositional logic, we can do equivalent transformations in predicate logic.
- All equivalences that hold in propositional logic also hold in predicate logic.

Logically Equivalent Formulas

- There are other equivalences in predicate logic that have no analogy in propositional logic.

Examples of some important equivalences:

$$\neg \forall x \varphi \Leftrightarrow \exists x \neg \varphi$$

$$\neg \exists x \varphi \Leftrightarrow \forall x \neg \varphi$$

$$\forall x \forall y \varphi \Leftrightarrow \forall y \forall x \varphi$$

$$\exists x \exists y \varphi \Leftrightarrow \exists y \exists x \varphi$$

When $x \notin \text{free}(\varphi)$:

$$\forall x \varphi \Leftrightarrow \varphi$$

$$\exists x \varphi \Leftrightarrow \varphi$$

Logically Equivalent Formulas

Some other important equivalences:

$$(\forall x\varphi) \wedge (\forall x\psi) \Leftrightarrow \forall x(\varphi \wedge \psi)$$

$$(\exists x\varphi) \vee (\exists x\psi) \Leftrightarrow \exists x(\varphi \vee \psi)$$

When $x \notin \text{free}(\psi)$:

$$(\forall x\varphi) \wedge \psi \Leftrightarrow \forall x(\varphi \wedge \psi)$$

$$(\forall x\varphi) \vee \psi \Leftrightarrow \forall x(\varphi \vee \psi)$$

$$(\exists x\varphi) \wedge \psi \Leftrightarrow \exists x(\varphi \wedge \psi)$$

$$(\exists x\varphi) \vee \psi \Leftrightarrow \exists x(\varphi \vee \psi)$$

Renaming of Bound Variables

If we rename a bound variable in a formula, we obtain an equivalent formula.

Example:

$$\forall x P(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \forall z P(z, y)$$

- If we rename for example x to y in formula $\forall x \varphi$ or $\exists x \varphi$, the variable y **must not** occur in formula φ as a free variable.

$$\exists x P(x, y) \quad \text{is not equivalent to} \quad \exists y P(y, y)$$

- Free occurrences of variables in a subformula **must not** become bound after renaming. E.g.,

$$\exists x \forall y P(x, y) \quad \text{is not equivalent to} \quad \exists y \forall y P(y, y)$$

Substitution

Let us say that we want to replace **free** occurrences of variable x with variable y (i.e., we want to substitute y for x).

This operation on formulas is called **substitution** and the resulting formula is denoted

$$\varphi[y/x].$$

Remark: In general, formulas φ and $\varphi[y/x]$ are **not** equivalent.

Example:

$$P(x, z) \quad \text{is not equivalent to} \quad P(y, z)$$

Renaming of Bound Variables

With the operation of substitution, the renaming of bound variables can be described by the following equivalences.

When $y \notin \text{free}(\forall x\varphi)$:

$$\forall x\varphi \Leftrightarrow \forall y(\varphi[y/x])$$

When $y \notin \text{free}(\exists x\varphi)$:

$$\exists x\varphi \Leftrightarrow \exists y(\varphi[y/x])$$

Example:

$$\exists x\forall yP(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \exists x\forall zP(x, z) \Leftrightarrow \exists y\forall zP(y, z) \Leftrightarrow \exists y\forall xP(y, x)$$

Definition

Conclusion ψ **logically follows** from assumptions $\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n$, which is denoted

$$\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n \models \psi,$$

if in every interpretation \mathcal{A} and valuation v where assumption $\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n$ are true, also the conclusion ψ is true.

- All, what was said about the logical entailment in propositional logic, holds all analogously in predicate logic.

Logical Entailment

If we want to show that a given conclusion ψ **does not** follow from assumptions $\varphi_1, \varphi_2, \dots, \varphi_n$, it is sufficient to find an example of one particular interpretation \mathcal{A} and valuation v , where the assumptions are true and the conclusion ψ is false.

Example:

- *There exists an aquatic animal, which is meat-eating.*
 - *All fish are aquatic animals.*
-
- *There exists a meat-eating fish.*

$$\exists x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$$

$$\forall x(R(x) \rightarrow P(x))$$

$$\hline \exists x(R(x) \wedge Q(x))$$

$$P(x) \text{ — “}x \text{ is an aquatic animal”}$$

$$Q(x) \text{ — “}x \text{ is meat-eating”}$$

$$R(x) \text{ — “}x \text{ is a fish”}$$

An interpretation \mathcal{A} with universe $A = \{a, b\}$

$$P^{\mathcal{A}} = \{a, b\}$$

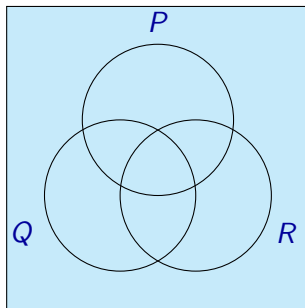
$$Q^{\mathcal{A}} = \{a\}$$

$$R^{\mathcal{A}} = \{b\}$$

Venn Diagrams

In general, it is difficult to find out whether a conclusion does or does not follow from given assumptions.

In cases when we have only unary predicates and there is only a small number of them (e.g., 3), we use so called **Venn diagrams** as an aid for the reasoning.



Venn Diagrams

Example:

- *Fish are vertebrates.*
 - *Fish live in water.*
 - *There exists at least one fish.*
-
- *There exists a vertebrate living in water.*

$$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

$$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow R(x))$$

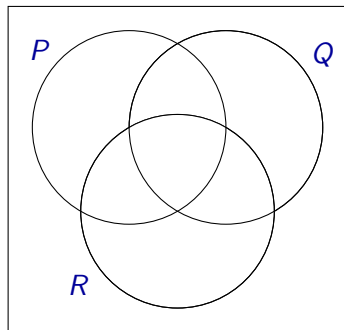
$$\exists xP(x)$$

$$\exists x(Q(x) \wedge R(x))$$

$P(x)$ — “ x is a fish”

$Q(x)$ — “ x is a vertebrate”

$R(x)$ — “ x lives in water”



Venn Diagrams

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 - *Fish live in water.*
 - *There exists at least one fish.*
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- *There exists a vertebrate living in water.*

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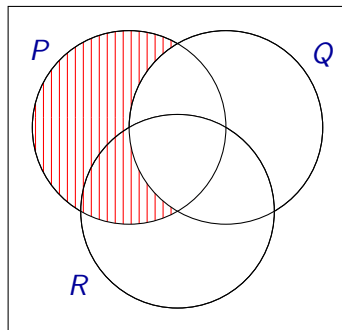
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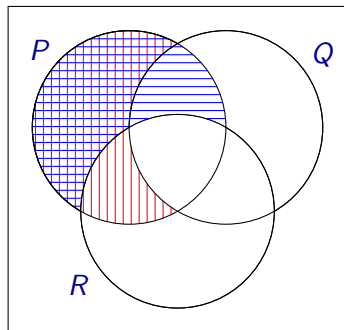
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Venn Diagrams

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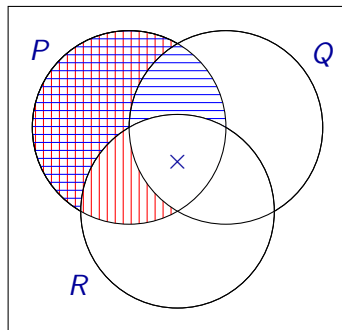
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$$\exists x(Q(x) \wedge R(x))$$

$P(x)$ — “ x is a fish”

$Q(x)$ — “ x is a vertebrate”

$R(x)$ — “ x lives in water”



An Example of a Proof

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \forall x(\neg R(x, x)) \\ \forall x\forall y\forall z(R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z) \rightarrow R(x, z)) \end{array}}{\forall x\forall y(R(x, y) \rightarrow \neg R(y, x))}$$

1. $\forall x(\neg R(x, x))$ - assumption 1
2. $\forall x\forall y\forall z(R(x, y) \wedge R(y, z) \rightarrow R(x, z))$ - assumption 2
3. Lets assume arbitrary elements x and y :
4. Lets assume $R(x, y)$:
5. Lets assume $R(y, x)$:
6. $R(x, y) \wedge R(y, x) \rightarrow R(x, x)$ - from 2.
7. $R(x, x)$ - from 4., 5., 6.
8. $\neg R(x, x)$ - from 1.
9. $\neg R(y, x)$ - contradiction of 7. and 8.,
so 5. does not hold
10. $R(x, y) \rightarrow \neg R(y, x)$ - from 4., 9.
11. $\forall x\forall y(R(x, y) \rightarrow \neg R(y, x))$ - from 3., 10.