

Predicate Logic

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1 The Need for Predicate Logic

2 Syntax of Predicate Logic

3 Proof Methods

4 Conclusions

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The limitations of propositional logic

- How should we express the followings in propositional logic?
 - Every student is younger than some instructor.
 - There is a student who is younger than an instructor.
 - Not all birds can fly.
 - Everybody has a father and a mother.
- Do they capture the true meaning of the sentences?
- E.g., in the first sentence, it's about being student, being younger, being an instructor, it is about all students etc
- Propositional logic dealt with sentence components like not, and, or and if ... then
- Cannot handle the logical aspects of natural and artificial languages.

Predicate Logic

- Predicate logic assumes that the world consists of individual objects and the relations among them.
- Separate objects gives the possibility to quantify over them and make statements about all or some
- Adds functions, predicates and quantifiers to propositional logic

Example

We define the following predicates:

- $Student(x)$: x is a student
- $Instructor(x)$: x is an instructor
- $Younger(x, y)$: x is younger than y .

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Terms

- Constants: represent a specific object
- Variables: model objects of a specific domain (type), not always Boolean
- Functions: define properties of or relations among objects

Definition

Let \mathcal{F} be a set of functions. A term is defined as follows:

- Any variable is a term.
- If $c \in \mathcal{F}$ is a nullary function (i.e. is a constant), then c is a term.
- If t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are terms and $f \in \mathcal{F}$ has arity $n > 0$, then $f(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ is a term.
- Nothing else is a term.

Terms

Example

- Let $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, f_2, \text{age}\} \cup F_{arith}$ where F_{arith} is the set of arithmetic functions.
- $f_1 = \text{Alice}, f_2 = \text{Bob}, \text{age} : \{\text{Alice}, \text{Bob}, \text{John}, \text{Emma}\} \implies \mathbb{N}$
- Alice is younger than Bob: $\text{age}(\text{Alice}) < \text{age}(\text{Bob})$
- What are the (sub-)terms?

Predicate

- To represent properties of object or their relations
- A function with a boolean co-domain, i.e. it returns true or false
- Consists of two parts
 - a name
 - list of arguments that are terms

Example

Define a predicate to express "Alice is younger than Bob"!

Younger(Alice, Bob)

Quantifiers

- Universal quantifier
 - the property is satisfied by ALL members of a group
 - Of the form $\forall a.\phi$ where a is a variable and ϕ is a formula (discussed later)

Example

$\forall a.\text{person}(a) \implies \text{has_father}(a)$

Quantifiers

- Existential quantifier

- AT LEAST ONE member of the group satisfies the property
- Of the form $\exists a. \phi$ where a is a variable and ϕ is a formula

Example

$person(Alice) \wedge \exists b.(person(b) \wedge is_father_of(Alice, b))$

BP How do we express "everybody has ONE father" using the predicate *is_father_of*.

Logical Formulas

Definition (Formula)

[1] A formula over $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ is defined as follows inductively

- If $P \in \mathcal{P}$ is a predicate symbol of arity $n \geq 1$, and if t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are terms over \mathcal{F} , then $P(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ is a formula.
- If ϕ is a formula, then so is $(\neg\phi)$
- If ϕ and ψ are two formulas, then so are $\phi \vee \psi$, $\phi \wedge \psi$ and $\phi \implies \psi$
- If ϕ is a formula and x is a variable, then $(\forall x.\phi)$ and $\exists x.\phi$ are formulas.
- Nothing else is a formula.

Logical Formulas Cont.

- If we assign each variable with a constant, the predicate becomes a proposition, $younger(Alice, Bob) \equiv younger_{AB}$.
- Operator precedence:
Quantifiers > Negation > Conjunction > Disjunction > Implication > Equivalence

Example

- $\neg P(x) \wedge Q(x)$
- $\forall x. P(x) \wedge Q(x)$
- $\neg \forall x. P(x) \vee \forall x. Q(x)$

Example

Example

- Objects: students, teachers, courses
- Predicates
 - $Course(x)$: x is a course
 - $teaches(t, c)$: t teaches the course c
 - $teacher(t)$: t is a teacher and $student(x)$ means x is a student
 - $registerfor(x, y)$: x has registered for the course y

Example

Example

- 1DV517 is a course: $course(1DV517)$
- There should be at least one student registered to each course:
 $\forall c.(course(c) \implies (\exists s.student(s) \wedge registerfor(s, c)))$
- Why $\forall c.(course(c) \implies (\exists s.(student(s) \implies registerfor(s, c))))$
 and $\forall c.(course(c) \wedge (\exists s.(student(s) \wedge registerfor(s, c))))$ don't
 specify the above?
- There are students who registered for 1DV517:
 $\exists s.(student(s) \wedge registerfor(s, 1DV517))$

Example

- The terms (in bold that are the predicates arguments)
 $\exists s.(student(\mathbf{s}) \wedge registerfor(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{1DV517}))$
 $\forall c.(Course(\mathbf{c}) \implies (\exists s.(student(\mathbf{s}) \wedge registerfor(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{c}))))$
- Which formula is a proposition?

Quantifier Binding

- A **bound variable** either has a constant value or is quantified over.
- A variable that is not bound is **free**.
- An expression without free variables is called a **ground formula**, e.g., $\forall x.((x > 1) \implies (x > 0))$
- Let x be an individual variable. In expressions of the form $\exists x\phi$ or $\forall x.\phi$, the scope of quantifier is ϕ
- In $\forall x.\phi$ or $\exists x\phi$, the quantifier binds every occurrence of x in ϕ , unless it is bounded by an *inner quantifier*.

Quantifier Binding- Example

Example

Which variables are bound?

- $\forall x. student(x) \wedge happy(x)$
- $\forall x.(student(x) \wedge happy(x))$
- $\forall x.(student(x) \wedge \exists x.happy(x))$
- $\exists x.happy(y)$
- $happy(y)$

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Tautology

- **A predicate formula is tautology if it is true for all possible interpretations.**
- Examples
 - $p(x) \vee \neg p(x)$
 - $\forall x. \forall y. (p(x, y) \vee \neg p(x, y))$
 - $p(x, y) \vee q(x) \equiv q(x) \vee p(x, y)$
 - $p(x) \vee \neg p(x) \equiv q(y) \vee \neg q(y)$
- We use the proof (inference) rules introduced for propositional logic
- Extra proof rules are required to reason about quantifiers

Substitution

- Replacing a **free** variable by another valid term
- For example, let the formula ϕ be $P(x, y) \implies \neg Q(x, y)$
- x and y are free variables of type number
- Substituting x with $2a * b$ leads to $P(2a * b, y) \implies \neg Q(2a * b, y)$
- This substitution is represented by $\phi[2a * b/x]$
- **We CANNOT substitute bound variables or constants, e.g. we cannot substitute x in $\forall x.(P(x, y) \implies \neg Q(x, y))$.**

Inference Rules for Equality

- The first rule:

$$\overline{t = t}$$

- Let ϕ be a tautology with a free variable r
- $\phi[t/r]$ is an expression obtained by substituting all occurrences of r with the term t

$$\frac{t_1 = t_2 \quad \phi[t_1/x]}{\phi[t_2/x]}$$

Inference Rules for Universal Quantifiers

- Universal instantiation (t is a term)

$$\frac{\forall x \, p(x)}{p(t/x)}$$

- Universal generalization

$$\frac{\boxed{\begin{array}{c} x_0 \\ \vdots \\ \phi[x_0/x] \end{array}}}{\forall x \, \phi}$$

where the box shows the scope of temporary variable x_0 (and not any assumption like what we had in the proof theory of propositional logic)

Example

Prove $\forall x.(P(x) \wedge \neg Q(x)), \forall x.P(x) \vdash \forall x.Q(x)$

1	$\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$	premise	
2	$\forall x P(x)$	premise	
3	x_0		
4	$P(x_0) \rightarrow Q(x_0)$	$\forall x$ e	1
5	$P(x_0)$	$\forall x$ e	2
6	$Q(x_0)$	\rightarrow e	4, 5
7	$\forall x Q(x)$	$\forall x$ i	3-6

Inference Rules for Existential Quantifiers

- Existential generalization (t is a term)

$$\frac{p(t/x)}{\exists x \, p(x)}$$

- Existential instantiation

$$\frac{\exists x \, \phi \quad \boxed{\begin{array}{c} x_0 \, \phi[x_0/x] \\ \vdots \\ \chi \end{array}}}{\chi} \exists e.$$

χ is an x_0 -free formula

Example

Prove $\forall x. (P(x) \wedge \neg Q(x)), \exists x P(x) \vdash \exists x Q(x)$

1	$\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$	premise	
2	$\exists x P(x)$	premise	
3	$x_0 \quad P(x_0)$	assumption	
4	$P(x_0) \rightarrow Q(x_0)$	\forall e	1
5	$Q(x_0)$	\rightarrow e	3, 4
6	$\exists x Q(x)$	\exists i	5
7	$\exists x Q(x)$	\exists e	2, 3-6

Quantifiers Equivalences



$$\begin{aligned}
 \neg \forall x. P(x) &\not\equiv \neg p(x1) \wedge \neg p(x2) \wedge \dots \wedge \neg p(xn) \\
 &\equiv \neg(p(x1) \wedge p(x2) \wedge \dots \wedge p(xn)) \\
 &\equiv \neg p(x1) \vee \neg p(x2) \vee \dots \vee \neg p(xn) \\
 &\equiv \exists X. \neg p(X)
 \end{aligned}$$

- In general $\neg \forall x. \phi \equiv \exists x \neg \phi$:
 " ϕ is not true for all x iff there is a x that makes it false"
- Similarly $\neg \exists x. \phi \equiv \forall x (\neg \phi)$:
 "There is no x that makes ϕ true iff it is false for all x "

Quantifiers Equivalences

- If x is not free in ϕ :

$$\phi \wedge \forall x \psi \equiv \forall x (\phi \wedge \psi)$$

$$\phi \vee \forall x \psi \equiv \forall x (\phi \vee \psi)$$

$$\phi \wedge \exists x \psi \equiv \exists x (\phi \wedge \psi)$$

$$\phi \vee \exists x \psi \equiv \exists x (\phi \vee \psi)$$

why?

- Multiple quantifiers:

$$\forall x \forall y \phi \equiv \forall y \forall x \phi$$

$$\exists x \exists y \phi \equiv \exists y \exists x \phi$$

Existential Proof

- How can we prove $\exists x p(x)$?
- Method 1: Constructive proof, i.e. find c such that $p(c)$ holds
- Method 2: Proof by contradiction, i.e. prove that $\forall x \neg p(x) \implies \perp$

Example- Constructive Proof

Prove that

$$[\forall X.(p(X) \implies q(X)), p(d), s(d)] \vdash \exists X.(q(X) \wedge s(X))$$

d is a constant/instance

- | | | |
|----|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. | $\forall X.(p(X) \implies q(X))$ | <i>Premise</i> |
| 2. | $p(d)$ | <i>Premise</i> |
| 3. | $s(d)$ | <i>Premise</i> |
| 4. | $p(d) \implies q(d)$ | <i>Universal instantiation : 1</i> |
| 5. | $q(d)$ | <i>Modus ponens : 2&4</i> |
| 6. | $q(d) \wedge s(d)$ | <i>3&5</i> |
| 7. | $\exists X.(q(X) \wedge s(X))$ | <i>Existential generalization</i> |

Example- Proof By Contradiction

Prove $\neg\forall x. \phi \vdash \exists x. \neg\phi$

1	$\neg\forall x \phi$	premise	
2	$\neg\exists x \neg\phi$	assumption	
3	x_0		
4	$\neg\phi[x_0/x]$	assumption	
5	$\exists x \neg\phi$	$\exists x$ i	4
6	\perp	\neg e	2, 5
7	$\phi[x_0/x]$	PBC	4-6
8	$\forall x \phi$	$\forall x$ i	3-7
9	\perp	\neg e	1, 8
10	$\exists x \neg\phi$	PBC	2-9

Proof by Induction

- To prove that a formula $P(n)$ is true for every natural number n
- **Base Case** Prove that it holds for $n = 0$
- **Inductive Hypothesis** Assume that it holds for any $n = k$, i.e., $P(k)$ is true.
- **Inductive Step** Prove that it holds for $n = k + 1$, i.e., $P(k + 1)$ is true

Example

- Prove that $2k \leq 2^k$, $1 \leq k$
- **Base Case** $2 \leq 2$: it holds.
- **Inductive Hypothesis** Assume that $2n \leq 2^n$ holds.
- **Inductive Step** Prove $2(n+1) \leq 2^{n+1}$

$$2n \times 2 \leq 2^n \times 2$$

$$\implies 4n \leq 2^{(n+1)}$$

From Inductive Step Hypothesis
(1)

And

$$1 \leq n \implies 2 \leq 2n \implies$$

$$0 \leq 2n - 2 \implies 0 \leq 4n - 2n - 2$$

$$\implies 2n + 2 \leq 4n \implies 2(n+1) \leq 4n \quad (2)$$

$$\stackrel{(1),(2)}{\implies} 2(n+1) \leq 4n \leq 2^{(n+1)}$$

Limitations of predicate logic

- Can we express everything using predicate logic?
 - “Most students will pass the exam”
 - “The car is very fast”
 - ” He studied the book before attending the lecture.”
- Other types of logic
 - Second order predicate logic (predicates as arguments to predicates)
 - Fuzzy/probabilistic logic (approximate statements)
 - Modal logics (Epistemic logic, Temporal logic, deontic logic etc)

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Summary

- Predicate logic is a more expressive logic to express knowledge
- Syntax of predicate logic was introduced
- Proof in predicate logic was discussed