## Predicate Logic - Introduction

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## Outline

- Motivation
- Predicates \& Functions
- Quantifiers $\forall, \exists$
- Coming to Terms with Formulas
- Quantifier Scope \& Bound Variables
- Free Variables \& Sentences


## Motivation:

## Specification of programs

Make requirements unambiguous.
E.g. For table meant to define a function $f(x)$ :

$$
f(x)=\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline C_{1}(x) & C_{2}(x) & C_{3}(x) \\
\hline f_{1}(x) & f_{2}(x) & f_{3}(x)
\end{array} \sim \text { condition }
$$

i) The table is consistent (i.e. not contradictory) - a sufficient condition is that there is no "overlap" between column conditions:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\forall x \neg\left(\left(C_{1}(x) \wedge C_{2}(x)\right)\right. \\
\vee\left(C_{1}(x) \wedge C_{3}(x)\right) \\
\left.\vee\left(C_{2}(x) \wedge C_{3}(x)\right)\right)
\end{array}
$$

ii) Table is complete - for all possible inputs, an output is specified

$$
\forall x\left(C_{1}(x) \vee C_{2}(x) \vee C_{3}(x)\right)
$$

## Motivation:

## Verification of programs:

E.g. How do you know you got 2A04 lab 2 right? When every input to program gives same answer as table.

For all $a, b, c \operatorname{prog}(a, b, c)=\operatorname{table}(a, b, c)$

$$
\forall x_{a} \forall x_{b} \forall x_{c}\left(\operatorname{prog}\left(x_{a}, x_{b}, x_{c}\right)=\operatorname{table}\left(x_{a}, x_{b}, x_{c}\right)\right)
$$

E.g. How do you show someone got 2A04 Lab 2 wrong? Show that there is at least one case when program gives wrong (different from table) answer.

$$
\exists x_{a} \exists x_{b} \exists x_{c}\left(\operatorname{prog}\left(x_{a}, x_{b}, x_{c}\right) \neq \operatorname{table}\left(x_{a}, x_{b}, x_{c}\right)\right)
$$

or equivalently

$$
\neg \forall x_{a} \forall x_{b} \forall x_{c}\left(\operatorname{prog}\left(x_{a}, x_{b}, x_{c}\right)=\operatorname{table}\left(x_{a}, x_{b}, x_{c}\right)\right)
$$

## Predicates \& Functions

We will use the notation ( $u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}$ ) for an ordered $n$-tuple.

Def: Let $A$ be a set. An $n$ place predicate or relation (over $A$ ) is a subset of $A^{n}$.

An $n$ place predicate $P$ is said to have an arity of $n$ and is also called an $n$-ary predicate.
$n$-ary predicate $P$ can also be considered to define a characteristic function:

$$
P: A^{n} \rightarrow\{T, F\}
$$

$P\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots u_{n}\right):= \begin{cases}T, & \text { if }\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}\right) \in P \\ F, & \text { if }\left(u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n}\right) \notin P\end{cases}$
E.g. If $A:=\mathbb{R}$ then $\leq:=\{(x, y) \mid x \leq y\} \subset \mathbb{R}^{2}$ and $\leq(1,2)=T$ while $\leq(2,1)=F$

Many mathematical predicates such as $\leq$ are written using infix notation as $1 \leq 2$.

## Predicates and Functions

Def: $f$ is a function of $n$ variables or an $n$ ary function if $f$ is a subset of $A^{n+1}$ ( $f$ is $(n+1)$ - ary relation over $A$ ) such that if $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, v_{1}\right) \in f$ and $\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}, v_{2}\right) \in f$ then $v_{1}=v_{2}$. We denote this $f: A^{n} \rightarrow A$.

Formally:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \forall u_{1} \ldots \forall u_{n} \forall v_{1} \forall v_{2} \\
& \left(f\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)=v_{1} \wedge f\left(u_{1}, \ldots, u_{n}\right)=v_{2} \rightarrow v_{1}=v_{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

PVS similarly allows one to overload function symbols:
$x, y, z: V A R$ nat
$\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$ : nat $=\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{y}$
$\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}, \mathrm{z}):$ nat $=\mathrm{x} * \mathrm{y} * \mathrm{z}$

## Predicates and Functions

Subset and characteristic function representations are often used interchangeably. Typically a given predicate symbol $P$ has fixed arity (number of arguments) $n$. To make this explicit formally the notation $P^{n}$ is often used.

We will assume that the arity of a predicate is obvious from how it is used or the context. E.g. $P(x, y)$ is a binary predicate while $Q(u, v, x, y)$ is a 4-ary predicate.

Some logics (PVS) allow overloading of predicate symbols:
$P(x, y)$ might denote $x \leq y$ while $P(x, y, z)$ might denote $x+y=z$.

The intended interpretation is clear from the context.

## Quantifiers

$\forall$ (FORALL) - Universal Quantifier
$\forall x P(x)$ - "For all $x, P(x)$ holds (is true). Also read as "For every $x$. . ." "For each $x$. . "

## $\exists$ (EXISTS) - Existential Quantifier

$\exists x P(x)$ - "There exists an $x$ such that $P(x)$ holds."

Also read as "There is at least one $x$..."
"There is an $x$ satisfying $P$."
Note: Order counts when you mix quantifiers!
"In every class there is a student with the highest mark."

$$
\forall x \exists y(C(x) \wedge S(y) \rightarrow H(x, y))
$$

"There is a student such that in every class she has the highest mark."

$$
\exists y \forall x(C(x) \wedge S(y) \rightarrow H(x, y))
$$

Consider the following statement:
No student who likes math also likes Oscar. This could be interpreted as:

For every $x$, if $x$ is a student and $x$ likes math, then $x$ doesn't like Oscar.

$$
\forall x(S(x) \wedge M(x) \rightarrow \neg L(x, o))
$$

A seemingly equivalent statement would be:

For every $x$, if $x$ is a student then it is not the case that $x$ likes math and likes Oscar.

$$
\forall x(S(x) \rightarrow \neg(M(x) \wedge L(x, o)))
$$

Are these statements really saying the same thing?

## Language of Predicate Calculus

A predicate vocabulary consists of three sets $(\mathcal{C}, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ where each denotes respectively:
$\mathcal{C}$ - set of constant symbols
$\mathcal{F}$ - set of functions symbols
$\mathcal{P}$ - set of predicate symbols

We also have an arity associated with each function and predicate symbol which we can think of as a mapping:

$$
\text { arity }: \mathcal{F} \cup \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}
$$

where $\mathbb{N}$ denotes natural numbers $\{0,1,2, \ldots\}$.
For our Oscar example: $\mathcal{C}=\{o\}, \mathcal{F}=\emptyset$, $\mathcal{P}=\{L, M, S\}$ and $\operatorname{arity}(L)=2$.

## Restriction of Quantifiers

Often want to restrict ourselves to considering $x$ 's of certain type.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \\
& \exists x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))
\end{aligned}
$$

E.g. In Dilbert $\forall x(\operatorname{Manager}(x) \rightarrow \operatorname{Idiot}(x))$

$$
\exists x(\operatorname{Animal}(x) \wedge \neg \operatorname{Glasses}(x))
$$

What is the relationship between these two forms?

$$
\neg \forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \text { iff } \exists x(P(x) \wedge \neg Q(x))
$$

Why?
Note: Other styles of quantification

$$
(\forall x \in P) Q(x) \text { or } \forall x \in P: Q(x)
$$

mean same as $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$
$\exists x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ is also written:
$(\exists x \in P) Q(x)$ or $\exists x \in P: Q(x)$
read "There exists an $x$ in $P$ such that $\mathrm{Q}(\mathrm{x})$ holds."
This starts to lead into Type Theory.

## Language of Predicate Calculus (cont)

In addition to constants, function symbols and predicate symbols our language will make use of

Variables: e.g., $u, v, w, x, y, z$ or $u_{1}, x_{4}$, etc.

Connectives: $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$

Quantifiers: $\forall, \exists$
as well as parentheses (, ) and we'll also usually include the two special 0-ary predicate symbols $\top, \perp$.

Note: In PVS most strings of letters, numbers and underscore can be defined to be a variable, constant, function symbol or predicate. In fact a string can even be several of these things at once!
PVS translates $\forall$ as FORALL and $\exists$ as EXISTS

## Language of Predicate Calculus (cont)

There are now two sorts of objects we are dealing with:

Terms: Variables such as $x$, constants such as $o$ and functions applied to these such as $f(x, o)$. All denote objects of our universe.

Formulas: Predicates $P(x)$ and logical connectives such as $M(x) \wedge L(x, o)$ and quantifiers over a variable applied to a formula such as $\forall x P(x)$. Once values are substituted for constants and free variables, these formulas all denote truth values.

We now formally define terms and formulas.

## Terms

Def: A term is defined as follows:

1. Any constant $c \in \mathcal{C}$ or variable is a term.
2. If $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ are terms and $f \in \mathcal{F}$ is an $n$-ary function symbol (i.e. $\operatorname{arity}(f)=n$ ) then $f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$ is a term.

In BNF form a term $t$ is defined as:

$$
t::=x|c| f(t, \ldots, t)
$$

where $x$ is a variable, $c \in \mathcal{C}$ and $f \in \mathcal{F}$ has $\operatorname{arity}(f)=n$.

Constants can be thought of as 0 -ary functions - they take no arguments so we drop the (.) and eliminate the set $\mathcal{C}$. (e.g., for the Oscar example then $\mathcal{F}=\{o\}$ and $\operatorname{arity}(o)=0)$.

## Formulas

Def: The set of formulas over $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ is defined as follows:

1. If $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ are terms and $P \in \mathcal{P}$ is an $n$ ary predicate symbol, then $P\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$ is a formula.
2. If $\phi$ and $\psi$ are formulas, so are:
$(\neg \phi),(\phi \wedge \psi),(\phi \vee \psi),(\phi \rightarrow \psi),(\phi \leftrightarrow \psi)$
$\top$ and $\perp$ are also formulas.
3. If $x$ is a variable and $\phi$ is a formula, then so are $(\forall x \phi)$ and $(\exists x \phi)$.

In BNF form formulas are defined as:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\phi::= & P\left(t_{1} \ldots t_{n}\right)|(\neg \phi)|(\phi \wedge \phi)|(\phi \vee \phi)| \\
& (\phi \rightarrow \phi)|(\phi \leftrightarrow \phi)|(\forall x \phi) \mid(\exists x \phi)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $x$ is a variable, $t_{i}$ are terms (over $\mathcal{F}$ ), and $P \in \mathcal{P}$ has $\operatorname{arity}(P)=n$.

## Order of Precedence \& Parenthesis

Recall: We use precedence of logical operators and associativity of $\wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow$ to drop parentheses. It is understood that this is shorthand for the fully parenthesized expressions.
Huth+Ryan uses order of precedence:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \neg \\
& \forall \\
& \exists
\end{aligned}, \wedge, \stackrel{\wedge}{\leftrightarrow}, \stackrel{ }{\leftrightarrow}
$$

PVS uses order of precedence:

$$
\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow, \begin{aligned}
& \forall \\
& \exists
\end{aligned}
$$

$(\forall x) P(x) \rightarrow(\exists y) Q(x, y) \wedge P(y)$ becomes:
In Huth+Ryan:

$$
(\forall x P(x)) \rightarrow((\exists y Q(x, y)) \wedge P(y))
$$

In PVS:

$$
\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow(\exists y(Q(x, y) \wedge P(y))))
$$

## Parse Tree

We can apply this inductive definition in reverse to construct a formula's parse tree. A parse tree represents a WFF $\phi$ if
i) The root node is $P$ and if $\operatorname{arity}(P)=n$ then there are $n$ well formed term subtrees,
ii) the root is $\forall x$ or $\exists x$ and there is only one well formed subtree
iii) the root is $\neg$ and there is only one well formed subtree, or
iv) the root is $\wedge, \vee, \rightarrow$ or $\leftrightarrow$ and there are two well formed subtrees or

Note: All leaf nodes will be variables or constants (or $\perp$ or $\top$ ).

Parse Tree (cont)

Example 1: Draw the parse tree for the formula

$$
\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \rightarrow \neg P(x) \vee Q(y)
$$



Example 2: Draw the parse trees for the two formulas on slide 14.

## Quantifier Scope \& Bound Variables

Scope of quantifiers: The scope of a quantifier in a formula $\phi$ is the subformula to which the quantifier was applied in the inductive construction of $\phi$.

In the fully parenthesized formulas the scope is the quantifier itself and the matching parentheses immediately following. E.g
$P(x, y) \rightarrow \overbrace{\forall x(Q(x) \wedge P(f(y, x), x))}^{\text {scope }} \vee \forall z(Q(f(x, z))$
$(P(x, y) \rightarrow(\underbrace{(\forall x(Q(x) \wedge P(f(y, x), x)))}_{\text {Scope }} \vee(\forall z(Q(f(x, z)))$
An occurrence of a variable $x$ in a formula $\phi$ is bound if it falls within the scope of $\forall x$ or $\exists x$.

Alternatively we can consider the parse tree. Then an occurrence of $x$ is bound if it occurs under a $\forall x$ or $\exists x$, otherwise it is free.

## Free Variables \& Sentences

Def: The free variables of a formula $\phi$, denoted $F V(\phi)$ can be defined inductively as follows:

1. For constants (e.g. $k$ ): $F V(k)=\emptyset$
2. For variables: $F V(x)=\{x\}$
3. For terms:

$$
F V\left(f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\right)=F V\left(t_{1}\right) \cup \ldots \cup F V\left(t_{n}\right)
$$

4. For atomic formulas:

$$
F V\left(P\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\right)=F V\left(t_{1}\right) \cup \ldots \cup F V\left(t_{n}\right)
$$

5. For formulas $\phi, \psi$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F V(\neg \phi)=F V(\phi) \\
& F V(\phi \wedge \psi)=F V(\phi) \cup F V(\psi) \\
& F V(\forall x \phi)=F V(\phi)-\{x\} \\
& F V(\exists x \phi)=F V(\phi)-\{x\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Also, $F V(\top)=F V(\perp)=\emptyset$
Def: A predicate logic formula $\phi$ is a sentence if $F V(\phi)=\emptyset$, otherwise $\phi$ is a sentence form.

## Valid Substitutions

Def: For formula $\phi$, term $t$ and $x$ is a variable, replace each free occurrence of $x$ with $t$ to obtain $\phi[t / x]$, the substitution of $t$ for $x$. It is a valid substitution provided no occurrence of a (free) variable in $t$ is bound in $\phi[t / x]$.

Substitution is valid if:

1. Each free occurrence of $x$ in $\phi$ is replaced by $t$.
2. For each $y \in F V(t)$, every occurrence $y$ in a substituted $t$ is free in $\phi[t / x]$.

Example: Let $\phi$ be $I x \rightarrow \exists y(I y \wedge y>x)$
$\phi[u / x]$ Valid: $I u \rightarrow \exists y(I y \wedge y>u)$
$\phi[y / x]$ Invalid: $I y \rightarrow \exists y(I y \wedge y>y)$

## Parse Tree (cont)

Example: Consider the formula
$S(x) \wedge \forall y(P(x) \rightarrow Q(y))$
$\mathbf{Q}:$ Is $\phi[f(y, y) / x]$ valid?


A: No. $y$ 's in $f(y, y)$ become bound by $\forall y$ in when substituting for 2 nd occurrence of $x$.

