Discrete Mathematics in Computer Science E6. Advanced Concepts in Predicate Logic and Outlook

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E6.1 Free and Bound Variables

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E6.1 Free and Bound Variables

Free and Bound Variables: Motivation

Question:

- Consider a signature with variable symbols $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, ...\}$ and an interpretation \mathcal{I} .
- Which parts of the definition of α are relevant to decide whether $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models (\forall x_4 (R(x_4, x_2) \lor (f(x_3) = x_4)) \lor \exists x_3 S(x_3, x_2))$?
- $\sim \alpha(x_1), \ \alpha(x_5), \ \alpha(x_6), \ \alpha(x_7), \ \dots$ are irrelevant since those variable symbols occur in no formula.
- $\alpha(x_4)$ also is irrelevant: the variable occurs in the formula, but all occurrences are bound by a surrounding quantifier.
- ightharpoonup only assignments for free variables x_2 and x_3 relevant

German: gebundene und freie Variablen

Variables of a Term

Definition (Variables of a Term)

Let t be a term. The set of variables that occur in t, written as var(t), is defined as follows:

- var(x) = {x} for variable symbols x
- var(c) = ∅ for constant symbols c
- $ightharpoonup var(f(t_1,\ldots,t_k)) = var(t_1) \cup \cdots \cup var(t_k)$ for function terms

terminology: A term t with $var(t) = \emptyset$ is called ground term.

German: Grundterm

example: var(product(x, sum(k, y))) =

Free and Bound Variables of a Formula

Definition (Free Variables)

Let φ be a predicate logic formula. The set of free variables of φ , written as $free(\varphi)$, is defined as follows:

- $free(P(t_1,\ldots,t_k)) = var(t_1) \cup \cdots \cup var(t_k)$
- $free((t_1 = t_2)) = var(t_1) \cup var(t_2)$
- $free(\neg \varphi) = free(\varphi)$
- $free((\varphi \land \psi)) = free((\varphi \lor \psi)) = free(\varphi) \cup free(\psi)$
- $free(\forall x \varphi) = free(\exists x \varphi) = free(\varphi) \setminus \{x\}$

Example:
$$free((\forall x_4(R(x_4, x_2) \lor (f(x_3) = x_4)) \lor \exists x_3S(x_3, x_2)))$$

Closed Formulas/Sentences

Note: Let φ be a formula and let α and β variable assignments with $\alpha(x) = \beta(x)$ for all free variables x of φ .

Then $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models \varphi$ iff $\mathcal{I}, \beta \models \varphi$.

In particular, α is completely irrelevant if $free(\varphi) = \emptyset$.

Definition (Closed Formulas/Sentences)

A formula φ without free variables (i. e., $free(\varphi) = \emptyset$) is called closed formula or sentence.

If φ is a sentence, then we often write $\mathcal{I} \models \varphi$ instead of $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models \varphi$, since the definition of α does not influence whether φ is true under \mathcal{I} and α or not.

Formulas with at least one free variable are called open.

Closed formulas with no quantifiers are called ground formulas.

German: geschlossene Formel/Satz, offene Formel, Grundformel/variablenfreie Formel

Closed Formulas/Sentences: Examples

Question: Which of the following formulas are sentences?

- ▶ $(Block(b) \lor \neg Block(b))$
- ▶ $(\mathsf{Block}(x) \to (\mathsf{Block}(x) \lor \neg \mathsf{Block}(y)))$
- ightharpoonup (Block(a) \land Block(b))
- $ightharpoonup \forall x (\mathsf{Block}(x) \to \mathsf{Red}(x))$

E6.2 Reasoning in Predicate Logic

Terminology for Formulas

The terminology we introduced for propositional logic equally applies to predicate logic:

- Interpretation \mathcal{I} and variable assignment α form a model of the formula φ if $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models \varphi$.
- Formula φ is satisfiable if $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models \varphi$ for at least one \mathcal{I}, α .
- ▶ Formula φ is falsifiable if $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \not\models \varphi$. for at least one \mathcal{I}, α
- ▶ Formula φ is valid if $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models \varphi$ for all \mathcal{I}, α .
- ▶ Formula φ is unsatisfiable if $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \not\models \varphi$ for all \mathcal{I}, α .

German: Modell, erfüllbar, falsifizierbar, gültig, unerfüllbar

All concepts can be used for the special case of sentences. In this case we usually omit α . Examples:

- Interpretation \mathcal{I} is a model of a sentence φ if $\mathcal{I} \models \varphi$.
- ightharpoonup Sentence φ is unsatisfiable if $\mathcal{I} \not\models \varphi$ for all \mathcal{I} .

Sets of Formulas: Semantics

Definition (Satisfied/True Sets of Formulas)

Let $\mathcal S$ be a signature, Φ a set of formulas over $\mathcal S$, $\mathcal I$ an interpretation for $\mathcal S$ and α a variable assignment for $\mathcal S$ and the universe of $\mathcal I$.

We say that \mathcal{I} and α satisfy the formulas Φ (also: Φ is true under \mathcal{I} and α), written as: $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models \Phi$, if $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models \varphi$ for all $\varphi \in \Phi$.

German: \mathcal{I} und α erfüllen Φ , Φ ist wahr unter \mathcal{I} und α

We may again write $\mathcal{I} \models \Phi$ if all formulas in Φ are sentences.

Logical Equivalence and Logical Consequences

We again we use the same concepts and notations as in propositional logic.

- A set of formulas Φ logically entails/implies formula ψ , written as $\Phi \models \psi$, if all models of Φ are models of ψ .
- ▶ For a single formula φ , we may write $\varphi \models \psi$ for $\{\varphi\} \models \psi$.
- Formulas φ and ψ are logically equivalent, written as $\varphi \equiv \psi$, if they have the same models.
 - Note that $\varphi \equiv \psi$ iff $\varphi \models \psi$ and $\psi \models \varphi$.

Important Theorems about Logical Consequences

Theorem (Deduction Theorem)

 $\mathsf{KB} \cup \{\varphi\} \models \psi \text{ iff } \mathsf{KB} \models (\varphi \rightarrow \psi)$

German: Deduktionssatz

Theorem (Contraposition Theorem)

 $\mathsf{KB} \cup \{\varphi\} \models \neg \psi \; \mathit{iff} \; \mathsf{KB} \cup \{\psi\} \models \neg \varphi$

German: Kontrapositionssatz

Theorem (Contradiction Theorem)

 $KB \cup \{\varphi\}$ is unsatisfiable iff $KB \models \neg \varphi$

German: Widerlegungssatz

These can be proved exactly the same way as in propositional logic.

Logical Equivalences

- All logical equivalences of propositional logic also hold in predicate logic (e. g., $(\varphi \lor \psi) \equiv (\psi \lor \varphi)$). (Why?)
- Additionally the following equivalences and implications hold:

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(\forall x \varphi \wedge \forall x \psi) \equiv \forall x (\varphi \wedge \psi)
(\forall x \varphi \lor \forall x \psi) \models \forall x (\varphi \lor \psi)
                                                                                     but not the converse
      (\forall x \varphi \wedge \psi) \equiv \forall x (\varphi \wedge \psi)
                                                                                     if x \notin free(\psi)
      (\forall x \varphi \lor \psi) \equiv \forall x (\varphi \lor \psi)
                                                                                     if x \notin free(\psi)
                 \neg \forall x \varphi \equiv \exists x \neg \varphi
      \exists x (\varphi \lor \psi) \equiv (\exists x \varphi \lor \exists x \psi)
      \exists x(\varphi \wedge \psi) \models (\exists x \varphi \wedge \exists x \psi)
                                                                                     but not the converse
      (\exists x \varphi \lor \psi) \equiv \exists x (\varphi \lor \psi)
                                                                                    if x \notin free(\psi)
      (\exists x \varphi \wedge \psi) \equiv \exists x (\varphi \wedge \psi)
                                                                                     if x \notin free(\psi)
                 \neg \exists x \varphi \equiv \forall x \neg \varphi
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Normal Forms (1)

Analogously to DNF and CNF for propositional logic there are several normal forms for predicate logic, such as

- negation normal form (NNF): negation symbols (¬) are only allowed in front of atoms
- prenex normal form: quantifiers must form the outermost part of the formula
- Skolem normal form: prenex normal form without existential quantifiers

German: Negationsnormalform, Pränexnormalform, Skolemnormalform

Normal Forms (2)

Efficient methods transform formula arphi

- ▶ into an equivalent formula in negation normal form,
- into an equivalent formula in prenex normal form, or
- into an equisatisfiable formula in Skolem normal form.

German: erfüllbarkeitsäquivalent

Inference Rules and Calculi

There exist correct and complete proof systems (calculi) for predicate logic.

- An example is the natural deduction calculus.
- ▶ This is (essentially) Gödel's Completeness Theorem (1929).
- However, one can show that correct and complete algorithms that prove that a given formula does not follow from a given set of formulas cannot exist.
- ► How are these statements reconcilable?

First-Order Resolution

- Resolution can be extended to predicate logic with the concept of unification.
- Predicate logic resolution is correct and refutation-complete and can therefore be used as a general reasoning algorithm for showing $\Phi \models \varphi$.
- ► However, by the discussion on the previous slide, if $\Phi \not\models \varphi$, the algorithm cannot always terminate.

E6.3 Summary and Outlook

Summary

- Predicate logic is more expressive than propositional logic and allows statements over objects and their properties.
- Objects are described by terms that are built from variable, constant and function symbols.
- Properties and relations are described by formulas that are built from predicates, quantifiers and the usual logical operators.
- **Bound** vs. free variables: to decide if $\mathcal{I}, \alpha \models \varphi$, only free variables in α matter
- ▶ Sentences (closed formulas): formulas without free variables

Summary

Once the basic definitions are in place, predicate logic can be developed in the same way as propositional logic:

- logical consequence
- deduction theorem etc.
- logical equivalences
- normal forms
- inference rules, proof systems, resolution

Other Logics (1)

- We considered first-order predicate logic.
- Second-order predicate logic allows quantifying over predicate symbols.
- There are intermediate steps, e.g., monadic second-order logic (all quantified predicates are unary) and description logics (foundation of the semantic web).

Second-Order Logic Example

Second-order logic example:

- "T is the transitive closure of R"
- conjunction of
 - $\forall x \forall y (R(x,y) \to T(x,y))$ "T is a superset of R"

"T is transitive"

$$\forall Q((\forall x \forall y (R(x,y) \to Q(x,y)) \land \forall x \forall y \forall z ((Q(x,y) \land Q(y,z)) \to Q(x,z))) \to \forall x \forall y (T(x,y) \to Q(x,y))))$$

"All supersets Q of R that are transitive are supersets of T"

impossible to express in first-order logic

Other Logics (2)

▶ Modal logics have new operators \square and \diamondsuit .

▶ classical meaning: $\square \varphi$ for " φ is necessary", $\lozenge \varphi$ for " φ is possible".

▶ temporal logic: $\square \varphi$ for " φ is always true in the future", $\lozenge \varphi$ for " φ is true at some point in the future"

▶ epistemic logic: $\square \varphi$ for " φ is known", $\lozenge \varphi$ for " φ is possible"

▶ doxastic logic: $\square \varphi$ for " φ is believed", $\lozenge \varphi$ for " φ is considered possible"

▶ deontic logic: $\square \varphi$ for " φ is obligatory",

 $\Diamond \varphi$ for " φ is permitted"

very important in computer-aided verification

Other Logics (3)

- ► In fuzzy logic, formulas are not true or false but have values between 0 and 1.
- Intuitionist logic is "constructive" and excludes indirect proof methods such as the principle of the excluded third.
- Non-monotonic logics have rules with exceptions (e.g., default logic, cumulative logic).
- ...and there is a lot more