

# Predicate Logic

# Predicate Logic

- ◆ *Predicate logic* is an extension of propositional logic that permits concisely reasoning about whole *classes* of entities.
- ◆ Propositional logic treats simple *propositions* (sentences) as atomic entities.
- ◆ In contrast, *predicate* logic distinguishes the *subject* of a sentence from its *predicate*.
  - Remember these English grammar terms?

# Other Applications

- ◆ Predicate logic is the foundation of the field of *mathematical logic*, which culminated in *Gödel's incompleteness theorem*, which revealed the ultimate limits of mathematical thought:
  - Given any finitely describable, consistent proof procedure, there will still be *some* true statements that can *never be proven* by that procedure.
- ◆ *I.e.*, we can't discover *all* mathematical truths, unless we sometimes resort to making *guesses*.

# Practical Applications

- ◆ Basis for clearly expressed formal specifications for any complex system.
- ◆ Basis for *automatic theorem provers* and many other Artificial Intelligence systems.
- ◆ Supported by some of the more sophisticated *database query engines* and *container class libraries* (these are types of programming tools).

# More About Predicates

- ◆ Convention: Lowercase variables  $x, y, z\dots$  denote objects/entities; uppercase variables  $P, Q, R\dots$  denote propositional functions (predicates).
- ◆ Keep in mind that the *result of applying* a predicate  $P$  to an object  $x$  is the *proposition*  $P(x)$ . But the predicate  $P$  **itself** (e.g.  $P$ ="is sleeping") is **not** a proposition (not a complete sentence).
  - *E.g.* if  $P(x)$  = "x is a prime number",  $P(3)$  is the *proposition* "3 is a prime number."

# Propositional Functions

- ◆ Predicate logic *generalizes* the grammatical notion of a predicate to also include propositional functions of **any** number of arguments, each of which may take **any** grammatical role that a noun can take.
  - *E.g.* let  $P(x,y,z)$  = “ $x$  gave  $y$  the grade  $z$ ”, then if  $x$ =“Mike”,  $y$ =“Mary”,  $z$ =“A”, then  $P(x,y,z)$  = “Mike gave Mary the grade A.”

# Quantifier Expressions

- ◆ *Quantifiers* provide a notation that allows us to *quantify* (count) *how many* objects in the universe of disclosure satisfy a given predicate.
- ◆ “ $\forall$ ” is the **FOR $\forall$ LL** or *universal* quantifier.  
 $\forall x P(x)$  means *for all*  $x$  in the u.d.,  $P$  holds.
- ◆ “ $\exists$ ” is the  **$\exists$ XISTS** or *existential* quantifier.  
 $\exists x P(x)$  means there exists an  $x$  in the u.d. (that is, 1 or more) such that  $P(x)$  is true.

# Free and Bound Variables

- ◆ An expression like  $P(x)$  is said to have a *free variable*  $x$  (meaning,  $x$  is undefined).
- ◆ A quantifier (either  $\forall$  or  $\exists$ ) *operates* on an expression having one or more free variables, and *binds* one or more of those variables, to produce an expression having one or more *bound variables*.

# Example of Binding

- ◆  $P(x,y)$  has 2 free variables,  $x$  and  $y$ .
- ◆  $\forall x P(x,y)$  has 1 free variable, and one bound variable. [Which is which?]
- ◆ “ $P(x)$ , where  $x=3$ ” is another way to bind  $x$ .
- ◆ An expression with zero free variables is a bona-fide (actual) proposition.
- ◆ An expression with one or more free variables is still only a predicate:  $\forall x P(x,y)$

# Quantifier Equivalence Laws

- ◆ Definitions of quantifiers: If u.d.=a,b,c,...

$$\forall x P(x) \Leftrightarrow P(a) \wedge P(b) \wedge P(c) \wedge \dots$$

$$\exists x P(x) \Leftrightarrow P(a) \vee P(b) \vee P(c) \vee \dots$$

- ◆ From those, we can prove the laws:

$$\forall x P(x) \Leftrightarrow \neg \exists x \neg P(x)$$

$$\exists x P(x) \Leftrightarrow \neg \forall x \neg P(x)$$

- ◆ Which *propositional* equivalence laws can be used to prove this?

**DeMorgan's**

# Review: Predicate Logic

- ◆ Objects  $x, y, z, \dots$
- ◆ Predicates  $P, Q, R, \dots$  are functions mapping objects  $x$  to propositions  $P(x)$ .
- ◆ Multi-argument predicates  $P(x, y)$ .
- ◆ Quantifiers:  $[\forall x P(x)] :=$  “For all  $x$ ’s,  $P(x)$ .”  
 $[\exists x P(x)] :=$  “There is an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ .”
- ◆ Universes of discourse, bound & free vars.

# Nesting of Quantifiers

Example: Let the u.d. of  $x$  &  $y$  be people.

Let  $L(x,y)$  = “ $x$  likes  $y$ ” (a predicate w. 2 f.v.’s)

Then  $\exists y L(x,y)$  = “There is someone whom  $x$  likes.” (A predicate w. 1 free variable,  $x$ )

Then  $\forall x (\exists y L(x,y))$  =  
“Everyone has someone whom they like.”

(A **Proposition** with 1 free variables.)

# Quantifier Exercise

If  $R(x, y)$  = “ $x$  relies upon  $y$ ,” express the following in unambiguous English:

$\forall x(\exists y R(x, y)) =$  Everyone has *someone* to rely on.

$\exists y(\forall x R(x, y))$  There’s a poor overburdened soul whom *everyone* relies upon (including himself)!

$\exists x(\forall y R(x, y))$  There’s some needy person who relies upon *everybody* (including himself).

$\forall y(\exists x R(x, y))$  Everyone has *someone* who relies upon them.

$\forall x(\forall y R(x, y))$  *Everyone* relies upon *everybody*, (including themselves)!

# Natural language is ambiguous!

- ◆ “Everybody likes somebody.”
  - For everybody, there is somebody they like,
    - ◆  $\forall x \exists y \text{Likes}(x, y)$  [Probably more likely.]
  - or, there is somebody (a popular person) whom everyone likes?
    - ◆  $\exists y \forall x \text{Likes}(x, y)$
- ◆ “Somebody likes everybody.”
  - Same problem: Depends on context, emphasis.

# More to Know About Binding

- ◆  $\forall x \exists x P(x)$  -  $x$  is not a free variable in  $\exists x P(x)$ , therefore the  $\forall x$  binding isn't used.
- ◆  $(\forall x P(x)) \wedge Q(x)$  - The variable  $x$  is outside of the *scope* of the  $\forall x$  quantifier, and is therefore free. Not a complete proposition!
- ◆  $(\forall x P(x)) \wedge (\exists x Q(x))$  – This is legal, because there are 2 different  $x$ 's!

# More Equivalence Laws

- ◆  $\forall x \forall y P(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \forall y \forall x P(x, y)$
- ◆  $\exists x \exists y P(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \exists y \exists x P(x, y)$
- ◆  $\forall x (P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \Leftrightarrow (\forall x P(x)) \wedge (\forall x Q(x))$
- ◆  $\exists x (P(x) \vee Q(x)) \Leftrightarrow (\exists x P(x)) \vee (\exists x Q(x))$

# Calculus Example

- ◆ One way of precisely defining the calculus concept of a *limit*, using quantifiers:

$$\left( \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \right) \Leftrightarrow \left( \begin{array}{l} \forall \varepsilon > 0 : \exists \delta > 0 : \forall x : \\ (|x - a| < \delta) \rightarrow (|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon) \end{array} \right)$$

# Example

- ◆ Definitions:  $H(x) := "x \text{ is human}"$ ;  
 $M(x) := "x \text{ is mortal}"$ ;  $G(x) := "x \text{ is a god}"$
- ◆ Premises:
  - $\forall x H(x) \rightarrow M(x)$  ("Humans are mortal")  
and
  - $\forall x G(x) \rightarrow \neg M(x)$  ("Gods are immortal").
- ◆ Show that  $\neg \exists x (H(x) \wedge G(x))$   
("No human is a god.")

# The Derivation

- ◆  $\forall x H(x) \rightarrow M(x)$  and  $\forall x G(x) \rightarrow \neg M(x)$ .
- ◆  $\forall x \neg M(x) \rightarrow \neg H(x)$  **[Contrapositive.]**
- ◆  $\forall x [G(x) \rightarrow \neg M(x)] \wedge [\neg M(x) \rightarrow \neg H(x)]$
- ◆  $\forall x G(x) \rightarrow \neg H(x)$  **[Transitivity of  $\rightarrow$ .]**
- ◆  $\forall x \neg G(x) \vee \neg H(x)$  **[Definition of  $\rightarrow$ .]**
- ◆  $\forall x \neg(G(x) \wedge H(x))$  **[DeMorgan's law.]**
- ◆  $\neg \exists x G(x) \wedge H(x)$  **[An equivalence law.]**

# Predicate Logic

- ◆ From these sections you should have learned:
  - Predicate logic notation & conventions
  - Conversions: predicate logic  $\leftrightarrow$  clear English
  - Meaning of quantifiers, equivalences
  - Simple reasoning with quantifiers