

# Computational Logic

## Recall of First-Order Logic

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# Syntax of a first-order language

## Sidenotes

- we try to introduce the ideas of this course requiring *as little formal logic background as possible* (since you are studying it at the same time)
- we start directly from *first-order logic* (sometimes referred to as *predicate logic*); *propositional logic* is a special, much simpler case

PROPOSITIONAL LOGIC  
(only propositions, no variables)

"  $\subset$  "

FIRST-ORDER LOGIC

## What we need to talk about logic: thinking formally!

- be able to deal with symbols
- do not be misled by names or notation
- *true* is not *reasonable* nor *well-formed*!  $\rightsquigarrow$  implication
- practice: (1) formalize informal ideas (2) give informal meaning to formulæ
- never forget the relation between syntax and semantics

# Syntax of a first-order language

An *alphabet*  $\mathcal{A}$  consists of

- *variable* symbols:  $x, y, z, w, x', \dots$
- *function* symbols:  $f(-), g(-, -), \dots$  (*arity* = no. of args:  $f/1, g/2$ )
- *predicate* symbols:  $p(-), q(-, -), \dots, = /2$
- *connectives*:  $\neg, \vee, \wedge, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$
- *quantifiers*:  $\forall, \exists$

- *constants* ( $a, b, c, \dots$ ) = 0-arity functions
- *propositions* = 0-arity predicates

## Metalanguage

$F$  and  $G$  denote arbitrary formulæ

# Syntax of a first-order language

## Example: alphabet

- variables:  $x, y, z$
- constants (0-ary functions):  $a, b, c, tom, 0, 1$
- functions:  $f/1, g/2$
- predicates:  $p/0, q/2, cat/1, +/3$

## Terms

- a variable is a term
- if  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are terms and  $f$  is an  $n$ -ary ( $n \geq 0$ , thus including **constants**) function symbol, then  $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  is a term

## Examples

- correct:  $a, f(tom), f(f(f(x))), g(1, f(a)), a()$  ?
- incorrect:  $a(1), f(2), g(g, g(1)), a + y, g(0c), f(1, +(a, f(z), c))$

# Syntax of a first-order language

## Example: alphabet

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## Atoms

- if  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are terms and  $p$  is an  $n$ -ary ( $n \geq 0$ ) predicate symbol, then  $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  is an atom

## Examples

- correct:  $p, q(a, f(1)), cat(g(x, y)), +(a, f(z), c)$
- incorrect:  $q(p, p), cat(a, 1), f(q(a, a)), q(0, , z)$

# Syntax of a first-order language

## Example: alphabet

- variables:  $x, y, z$
- constants (0-ary functions):  $a, b, c, tom, 0, 1$
- functions:  $f/1, g/2$
- predicates:  $p/0, q/2, cat/1, +/3$

## Formulæ

- an atom is a formula
- if  $F$  and  $G$  are formulæ, and  $x$  is a variable, then  $\neg F, (F \wedge G), (F \vee G), (F \rightarrow G), (F \leftrightarrow G), \forall xF$  and  $\exists xF$  are also formulæ

## Examples

- correct:  $(p \rightarrow \neg q(a, f(x))), (\neg cat(a) \wedge (\forall x p \vee \exists y cat(y)))$
- incorrect:  $p \wedge, \exists z f(1), \forall p, q(a, b) \leftrightarrow tom$

# Syntax of a first-order language

## Literals

A *literal* is an atom or the negation of an atom

- $p$ ,  $\neg p$ ,  $q(a, f(1))$ ,  $\neg q(a, f(1))$ ,  $cat(g(x, y))$ ,  $\neg cat(g(x, y))$

## Precedence

- parentheses give an *order* between operators, but can make a formula quite unreadable
- we can use an order of precedence between operators in order to remove some parentheses without introducing *ambiguity*

$$\begin{aligned} ((p \wedge \neg q) \rightarrow (p \vee r)) &\rightsquigarrow p \wedge \neg q \rightarrow p \vee r \rightsquigarrow \\ & p \wedge (\neg q \rightarrow p) \vee r \\ & ((p \wedge \neg q) \rightarrow p) \vee r \\ & (p \wedge \neg q) \rightarrow (p \vee r) \\ & p \wedge (\neg q \rightarrow p \vee r) \end{aligned}$$

# Syntax of a first-order language

## Literals

A *literal* is an atom or the negation of an atom

- $p, \neg p, q(a, f(1)), \neg q(a, f(1)), \text{cat}(g(x, y)), \neg \text{cat}(g(x, y))$

## Precedence

- parentheses give an *order* between operators, but can make a formula quite unreadable
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- $\{\neg, \forall, \exists\}$  higher precedence than  $\{\wedge, \vee\}$   
 $\{\wedge, \vee\}$  higher precedence than  $\{\rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}$



# Syntax of a first-order language

## Free and bounded variables

- an occurrence of the variable  $x$  is *bounded* in  $F$  if it is in the scope of a quantifier  $\forall x$  or  $\exists x \rightsquigarrow \exists x(p(1, x, y) \wedge q(x)) \wedge q(x)$
- otherwise, it is said to be *free*  $\rightsquigarrow \exists x(p(1, x, y) \wedge q(x)) \wedge q(x)$
- a formula is *closed* if it contains no free occurrences

## Substitution

- $F(x)$  denotes a formula where  $x$  occurs free somewhere
- $F(x/t)$  denotes a formula where every free occurrence of  $x$  has been replaced by a term  $t$ , provided  $x$  does not occur free in the scope of any  $\forall y$  or  $\exists y$  for  $y$  occurring in  $t$

$$F \equiv s(x) \wedge (\forall y(p(x) \rightarrow q(y)))$$

$F(x/f(y, y))$  cannot be done

- important:  $\forall x p(x)$  is the same as  $\forall y p(y)$ , and this can be generalized

# Syntax of a first-order language

## Alternative notation

$\wedge$		$\&$		$\rightarrow$		$\Rightarrow, \supset$
$\leftrightarrow$		$\Leftrightarrow, \equiv$		$\exists xF$		$\exists x. F$
$\forall xF$		$\forall x. F$		$p, q, r$		$P, Q, R$

## More than first-order

- *second-order logic*: it allows quantification over functions and predicates (e.g., *mathematical induction*)

$$\forall p(p(0) \wedge \forall k(p(k) \rightarrow p(s(k))) \rightarrow \forall n p(n))$$

- *higher-order logic* allows quantification over functions and predicates of any order (as in *functional programming*)