

LOGICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE: Classical and Non-Classical

Anita Wasilewska

Chapter 8
Classical Predicate Semantics and Proof Systems

CHAPTER 8 SLIDES

Slides Set 1

Chapter 8

Classical Predicate Semantics and Proof Systems

Slides Set 1

PART 1: Formal Predicate Languages

Slides Set 2

PART 2: Classical Semantics

Chapter 8

Classical Predicate Semantics and Proof Systems

Slides Set 3

PART 3: Predicate Tautologies, Equational Laws of Quantifiers

PART 4: Proof Systems: Soundness and Completeness

Chapter 8

Classical Predicate Semantics and Proof Systems

Slides Set 1

PART 1: Formal Predicate Languages

Formal Predicate Languages

We define a **predicate** language \mathcal{L} following the pattern established by the **propositional** languages

The **predicate** language \mathcal{L} is more complicated in its **structure** and hence its **alphabet** \mathcal{A} is much **richer**

The definition of its set \mathcal{F} of **formulas** is more **complicated**

In order to define the set \mathcal{F} of formulas we introduce an additional set \mathcal{T} , called a set of **terms**

The **terms** play important role in the **development** of other notions of **predicate** logic

Predicate Languages

Predicate languages are also called **first order** languages

The same applies to the use of terms for **propositional** and **predicate** logics

Propositional and **predicate** logics are called **zero order** and **first order** logics, respectively

We will use both terms **equally**

We work with **many** different **predicate** languages, depending on what **applications** we have in mind

All of these **languages** have some **common** features, and we begin with a following general definition

Predicate Language

Definition

By a **predicate language** \mathcal{L} we understand a triple

$$\mathcal{L} = (\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{T}, \mathcal{F})$$

where

\mathcal{A} is a predicate **alphabet**

\mathbf{T} is the set of **terms**

\mathcal{F} is a set of **formulas**

Predicate Languages Components

The first **component** of \mathcal{L} is defined as follows

1. **Alphabet** \mathcal{A} is the set

$$\mathcal{A} = \text{VAR} \cup \text{CON} \cup \text{PAR} \cup \mathbf{Q} \cup \mathbf{P} \cup \mathbf{F} \cup \mathbf{C}$$

where

VAR is set of **predicate variables**

CON is a set of **propositional connectives**

PAR is a set of **parenthesis**

\mathbf{Q} is a set of **quantifiers**

\mathbf{P} is a set of **predicate symbols**

\mathbf{F} is a set of **functions symbols**, and

\mathbf{C} is a set of **constant symbols**

We **assume** that all of the sets defining the alphabet are **disjoint**

Alphabet Components

The **component** of the **alphabet** \mathcal{A} are defined as follows

Variables

We assume that we always have a **countably infinite** set VAR of variables, i.e. we assume that

$$card VAR = \aleph_0$$

We denote variables by x, y, z, \dots , with indices, if necessary.
we often express it by writing

$$VAR = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$$

Alphabet Components

Propositional Connectives

We define the set of **propositional** connectives **CON** in the same way as in the propositional case

The set **CON** is a **finite** and **non-empty** and

$$CON = C_1 \cup C_2$$

where **C₁**, **C₂** are the sets of **one** and **two arguments** connectives, respectively

Parenthesis

As in the propositional case, we adopt the signs (and) for our parenthesis., i.e. we define a set **PAR** as

$$PAR = \{ (,) \}$$

Alphabet Components

The set of **propositional** connectives **CON** defines a **propositional part** of the **predicate** language

What really **differs** one **predicate** language from the other is the choice of the following **additional** symbols

These are **quantifiers** symbols, **predicate** symbols, **function** symbols, and **constant** symbols

A particular **predicate** language is **determined** by **specifying** the following **sets** of **symbols** of the alphabet

Alphabet Components

Quantifiers

We adopt two quantifiers;

universal quantifier denoted by \forall and

existential quantifier denoted by \exists

We have the following set of quantifiers

$$\mathbf{Q} = \{\forall, \exists\}$$

Alphabet Components

In a case of the **classical** logic and the logics that **extend** it, it is possible to **adopt** only **one** quantifier and to **define** the **other** in terms of it and propositional connectives

Such **definability** of quantifiers is **impossible** in a case of some **non-classical** logics, for example for the **intuitionistic** logic

But even in the case of **classical** logic we often adopt the **two quantifiers** as they express better the intuitive **understanding** of formulas

Alphabet Components

Predicate symbols

Predicate symbols **represent** relations

Any **predicate** language contains a **non empty**, **finite** or **countably infinite** set

P

of **predicate** symbols. We **denote** predicate symbols by

P, Q, R, \dots

with indices, if necessary

Each **predicate** symbol $P \in \mathbf{P}$ has a positive integer $\#P$ assigned to it

When $\#P = n$ we **call** P an **n-ary** (n - place) **predicate** symbol

Alphabet Components

Function symbols

Function symbols **represent** functions

Any **predicate** language contains a **finite** (may be empty) or **countably infinite** set

F

of **function** symbols. We **denote** functional symbols by

f, g, h, ...

with **indices**, if necessary

When **F** = \emptyset we say that we deal with a language **without** **functional** symbols

Each **function** symbol $f \in \mathbf{F}$ has a positive integer **#f** assigned to it

if **#f** = *n* then *f* is called an **n-ary** (n - place) **function symbol**

Alphabet Components

Constant symbols

Any **predicate** language contains a **finite** (may be empty) or **countably infinite set**

C

of **constant** symbols

The elements of **C** are **denoted** by

c, d, e, ...

with indices, if necessary

When the set **C** is **empty** we say that we deal with a language **without constant** symbols

Sometimes the **constant** symbols are defined as **0-ary function** symbols i.e. **C** \subseteq **F**

We single them out as a separate set for our convenience

Predicate Language

Given an **alphabet**

$$\mathcal{A} = \text{VAR} \cup \text{CON} \cup \text{PAR} \cup \mathbf{Q} \cup \mathbf{P} \cup \mathbf{F} \cup \mathbf{C}$$

What **distinguishes** one **predicate** language

$$\mathcal{L} = (\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{T}, \mathcal{F})$$

from the other is the **choice** of the components **CON** and the sets **P, F, C** of its alphabet **A**

We hence will write

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CON}}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

to denote the **predicate** language **L** **determined** by **P, F, C** and the set of propositional connectives **CON**

Predicate Language Notation

Once the set **CON** of propositional connectives is **fixed**, the predicate language

$$\mathcal{L}_{CON}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

is determined by the sets **P**, **F** and **C**

We write

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

for the predicate language \mathcal{L} determined by **P**, **F**, **C** (with a **fixed** set of propositional connectives)

If there is no danger of **confusion**, we may abbreviate

$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ to just \mathcal{L}

Predicate Languages Notation

We sometimes allow the **same** symbol to be used as an **n-place predicate** symbol, and also as an **m-place one** **No confusion** should arise because the different uses can be told **apart** easily

Example

If we write $P(x, y)$, the symbol P denotes **2-argument** predicate symbol

If we write $P(x, y, z)$, the symbol P denotes **3-argument** predicate symbol

Similarly for **function** symbols

Predicate Language

Having defined the **basic** element of **syntax**, the **alphabet** \mathcal{A} , we can now **complete** the formal definition of the predicate language

$$\mathcal{L} = (\mathcal{A}, \mathbf{T}, \mathcal{F})$$

by defining next **two** more **complex** components:

the set \mathbf{T} of all **terms** and

the set \mathcal{F} of all well formed **formulas** of the language

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{CON}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

Set of Terms

Terms

The set **T** of **terms** of the **predicate language** $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ is the **smallest** set

$$\mathbf{T} \subseteq \mathcal{A}^*$$

meeting the conditions:

1. any variable is a **term**, i.e. $\mathbf{VAR} \subseteq \mathbf{T}$
2. any constant symbol is a **term**, i.e. $\mathbf{C} \subseteq \mathbf{T}$
3. if f is an n -place **function symbol**, i.e. $f \in \mathbf{F}$ and $\#f = n$ and $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in \mathbf{T}$, then $f(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) \in \mathbf{T}$

Terms Examples

Example 1

Let $f \in \mathbf{F}$, $\#f = 1$, i.e. f is a **1-place function symbol**

Let x, y be **variables**, c, d be **constants**, i.e.

$$x, y \in \mathbf{VAR} \quad \text{and} \quad c, d \in \mathbf{C}$$

Then the following expressions are **terms**:

$$x, y, f(x), f(y), f(c), f(d), \dots$$

$$f(f(x)), f(f(y)), f(f(c)), f(f(d)), \dots$$

$$f(f(f(x))), f(f(f(y))), f(f(f(c))), f(f(f(d))), \dots$$

Terms Examples

Example 2

Let $\mathbf{F} = \emptyset$, $\mathbf{C} = \emptyset$

In this case **terms** consists of **variables only**, i.e.

$$\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{VAR} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$$

Directly from the **Example 2** we get the following

Remark

For any predicate language $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$, the set \mathbf{T} of its **terms** is always **non-empty**

Terms Examples

Example 3

Consider a case of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ where

$$\mathbf{F} = \{ f, g \} \quad \text{for} \quad \#f = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \#g = 2$$

Let $x, y \in \mathbf{VAR}$ and $c, d \in \mathbf{C}$

Some of the **terms** are the following:

$$f(g(x, y)), \quad f(g(c, x)), \quad g(f(f(c)), g(x, y)), \\ g(c, g(x, f(c))), \quad g(f(g(x, y)), g(x, f(c))), \quad \dots$$

Terms Notation

From time to time, the **logicians** are and so we may be also **informal** about the way we write **terms**

Example

If we **denote** a **2- place** function symbol **g** by **$+$** , we may **write**

$x + y$ instead of writing **$+(x, y)$**

Because in this case we can **think** of **$x + y$** as an **unofficial** way of designating the "real" **term** **$g(x, y)$**

Atomic Formulas

Atomic Formulas

Before we define formally the set \mathcal{F} of **formulas**, we need to define one more set, namely the **set** of **atomic**, or **elementary** formulas

Atomic formulas are the **simplest** formulas

They **building blocks** for other formulas the way the **propositional** variables were in the case of **propositional** languages

Atomic Formulas

Definition

An **atomic** formula of a predicate language $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ is any element of \mathcal{A}^* of the form

$$R(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$$

where $R \in \mathbf{P}$, $\#R = n$ and $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in \mathbf{T}$

I.e. R is **n-ary** predicate (relational) symbol and t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are any terms

The set of all **atomic** formulas is denoted by \mathcal{AF} and is defined as

$$\mathcal{AF} = \{R(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) \in \mathcal{A}^* : R \in \mathbf{P}, t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in \mathbf{T}, n \geq 1\}$$

Atomic Formulas Examples

Example

Consider a language

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\{P\}, \emptyset, \emptyset) \quad \text{for } \#P = 1$$

\mathcal{L} is a predicate language **without** neither **functional**, nor **constant** symbols, and with only **one**, **1-place** predicate symbol P

The set \mathcal{AF} of **atomic** formulas contains all formulas of the form $P(x)$, for x any variable, i.e.

$$\mathcal{AF} = \{P(x) : x \in \text{VAR}\}$$

Atomic Formulas Examples

Example

Let now consider a **predicate language**

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\{R\}, \{f, g\}, \{c, d\})$$

for $\#f = 1, \#g = 2, \#R = 2$

The language \mathcal{L} has **two functional symbols**: 1-place symbol f and 2-place symbol g , one 2-place **predicate symbol** R , and two **constants**: c, d

Some of the **atomic formulas** in this case are the following.

$$R(c, d), \quad R(x, f(c)), \quad R((g(x, y)), f(g(c, x))),$$

$$R(y, g(c, g(x, f(d)))) \dots$$

Set of Formulas Definition

Set \mathcal{F} of Formulas

Given a predicate language

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{CON}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C}),$$

where CON is *non-empty, finite set* of propositional connectives such that $CON = C_1 \cup C_2$ for C_1 a finite set (possibly empty) of unary connectives, C_2 a finite set (possibly empty) of binary connectives of the language \mathcal{L}

We define the set \mathcal{F} of all well formed formulas of the predicate language $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{CON}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ as follows

Set of Formulas Definition

Definition

The set \mathcal{F} of all well formed **formulas**, of the language $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{CON}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ is the **smallest** set meeting the following conditions

1. Any **atomic formula** of \mathcal{L} is a **formula** , i.e.

$$\mathcal{AF} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$$

2. If A is a formula of \mathcal{L} , ∇ is an one argument **propositional connective**, then ∇A is a **formula** of \mathcal{L} , i.e. the following **recursive condition** holds

$$\text{if } A \in \mathcal{F}, \nabla \in C_1 \text{ then } \nabla A \in \mathcal{F}$$

Set of Formulas Definition

3. If A, B are **formulas** of \mathcal{L} and \circ is a two argument **propositional connective**, then $(A \circ B)$ is a **formula** of \mathcal{L} , i.e. the following **recursive condition** holds

If $A \in \mathcal{F}, \nabla \in C_2$, then $(A \circ B) \in \mathcal{F}$

4. If A is a **formula** of \mathcal{L} and x is a **variable**, $\forall, \exists \in \mathbf{Q}$, then $\forall xA, \exists xA$ are **formulas** of \mathcal{L} , i.e. the following recursive condition holds

If $A \in \mathcal{F}, x \in VAR, \forall, \exists \in \mathbf{Q}$, then $\forall xA, \exists xA \in \mathcal{F}$

Scope of Quantifiers

Scope of Quantifiers

Another important notion of the predicate language is the notion of **scope** of a quantifier

Definition

Given formulas

$$\forall xA, \quad \exists xA$$

The formula A is said to be in the **scope** of a quantifier \forall, \exists , respectively.

Scope of Quantifiers

Example

Let \mathcal{L} be a language of the previous **Example** with the set of connectives $\{\cap, \cup, \Rightarrow, \neg\}$, i.e.

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\{\cap, \cup, \Rightarrow, \neg\}}(\{f, g\}, \{R\}, \{c, d\})$$

for $\#f = 1$, $\#g = 2$, $\#R = 2$

Some of the formulas of \mathcal{L} are the following.

$$\begin{aligned} &R(c, d), \quad \exists y R(y, f(c)), \quad \neg R(x, y), \\ &(\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y)), \quad (R(c, d) \cap \forall z R(z, f(c))), \\ &\forall y R(y, g(c, g(x, f(c))))), \quad \forall y \neg \exists x R(x, y) \end{aligned}$$

Scope of Quantifiers

The formula $R(x, f(c))$ is in **scope of the quantifier \exists** in the formula

$$\exists x R(x, f(c))$$

The formula $(\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$ **is not in scope of any quantifier**

The formula $(\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$ is in **scope of quantifier \forall** in the formula

$$\forall y (\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$$

Scope of Quantifiers

Example

Let \mathcal{L} be a **first order** language of some **modal** logic defined as follow

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\{\neg, \Box, \Diamond, \cap, \cup, \Rightarrow\}}(\{R\}, \{f, g\}, \{c, d\},)$$

where

$$\#f = 1, \#g = 2, \#R = 2$$

Some of the formulas of \mathcal{L} are the following.

$$\Diamond \neg R(c, f(d)), \quad \Diamond \exists x \Box R(x, f(c)), \quad \neg \Diamond R(x, y),$$

$$\forall z (\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y)),$$

$$(R(c, d) \cap \exists x R(x, f(c))), \quad \forall y \Box R(y, g(c, g(x, f(c))))),$$

$$\Box \forall y \neg \Diamond \exists x R(x, y)$$

Scope of Quantifiers

The formula $\Box R(x, f(c))$ is in the **scope** of the quantifier \exists in $\Diamond \exists x \Box R(x, f(c))$

The formula $(\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$ **is not** in a **scope** of any quantifier

The formula $(\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$ is in the **scope** of the quantifier \forall in $\forall z (\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$

Formula $\neg \Diamond \exists x R(x, y)$ is in the **scope** of the quantifier \forall in $\Box \forall y \neg \Diamond \exists x R(x, y)$

Free and Bound Variables

Given a predicate language $\mathcal{L} = (\mathcal{A}, T, \mathcal{F})$

We want to **distinguish** between formulas like

$$P(x, y), \quad \forall x P(x, y) \quad \text{and} \quad \forall x \exists y P(x, y)$$

This is done by introducing the notion of **free** and **bound variables** as well as the notion of **open** and **closed formulas** (sentences)

Before we formulate proper definitions, here are some simple **observations**

Free and Bound Variables

1. Some formulas are **without quantifiers**

For example formulas

$$R(c_1, c_2), \quad R(x, y), \quad (R(y, d) \Rightarrow R(a, z))$$

Variables x, y in $R(x, y)$ are called **free** variables

The variables y in $R(y, d)$, and z in $R(a, z)$ are also **free**

A formula **without quantifiers** is called an **open** formula

Free and Bound Variables

2. Quantifiers **bind variables** within formulas

In the formula

$$\forall y P(x, y)$$

the variable x is **free**, the variable y is **bounded** by the the quantifier \forall

In the formula

$$\forall z P(x, y)$$

both x and y are **free**

In both formulas

$$\forall z P(z, y), \quad \forall x P(x, y)$$

only the variable y is **free**

Free and Bound Variables

3. The formula $\exists x \forall y R(x, y)$ **does not** contain any **free variables**, neither does the formula $R(c_1, c_2)$

A formula **without** any **free variables** is called a **closed formula** or a **sentence**

The formula

$$\forall x (P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y Q(x, y))$$

is a **closed formula (sentence)**, the formula

$$(\forall x P(x) \Rightarrow \exists y Q(x, y))$$

is not a **sentence**

Free and Bound Variables

Sometimes in order to **distinguish** more easily which variable is **free** and which is **bound** in the formula we might use the **bold** face type for the quantifier bound variables and write the formulas as follows

$$(\forall \mathbf{x}Q(\mathbf{x}, y), \exists \mathbf{y}P(\mathbf{y}), \forall \mathbf{y}R(\mathbf{y}, g(c, g(x, f(c))))),$$

$$(\forall \mathbf{x}P(\mathbf{x}) \Rightarrow \exists \mathbf{y}Q(x, \mathbf{y})), (\forall \mathbf{x}(P(\mathbf{x}) \Rightarrow \exists \mathbf{y}Q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})))$$

Observe that the formulas

$$\exists \mathbf{y}P(\mathbf{y}), (\forall \mathbf{x}(P(\mathbf{x}) \Rightarrow \exists \mathbf{y}Q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})))$$

are **sentences**

Free and Bound Variables Formal Definition

Definition

The set $FV(A)$ of **free variables** of a formula A is defined by the induction of the **degree** of the formula as follows

1. If A is an **atomic** formula, i.e. $A \in \mathcal{AF}$, then $FV(A)$ is just the set of variables appearing in A ;
2. for any **unary** propositional connective, i.e. for any $\nabla \in C_1$

$$FV(\nabla A) = FV(A)$$

i.e. the **free** variables of ∇A are the **free** variables of A ;

3. for any **binary** propositional connective, i.e. for any $\circ \in C_2$

$$FV(A \circ B) = FV(A) \cup FV(B)$$

i.e. the **free** variables of $(A \circ B)$ are the **free** variables of A together with the **free** variables of B ;

4. $FV(\forall xA) = FV(\exists xA) = FV(A) - \{x\}$

i.e. the **free** variables of $\forall xA$ and $\exists xA$ are the **free** variables of A , **except** for x

Important Notation

It is common practice to use the notation

$$A(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

to indicate that

$$FV(A) \subseteq \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$$

without implying that **all of** x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are actually **free** in A

This is similar to the practice in **algebra** of writing

$w(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$ for a polynomial w
without implying that **all** of the coefficients a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are
nonzero

Replacements

Replacing x by t in Ax

Given a formula $A(x)$ and a term t . We denote by

$$A(x/t) \text{ or simply by } A(t)$$

the result of **replacing** all occurrences of the **free** variable x in A by the **term** t

When performing the **replacement** we always assume that **none** of the variables in t occur as **bound** variables in A

Replacement

Reminder

When **replacing** a variable x by a term $t \in \mathbf{T}$ in a formula $A(x)$, we denote the result as

$$A(t)$$

We do it under the **assumption** that **none** of the variables in t occur as **bound** variables in A

The assumption that **none** of the variables in t occur as bound variables in $A(t)$ is **essential** because **otherwise** by substituting t on the place of x we would **distort** the meaning of $A(t)$

Example

Example

Let $t = y$ and $A(x)$ is

$$\exists y(x \neq y)$$

i.e. the variable y in t **is bound** in A

The substitution of $t = y$ for the variable x produces a formula $A(t)$ of the form

$$\exists y(y \neq y)$$

which has a **different meaning** than

$$\exists y(x \neq y)$$

Example

Let now $t = z$ and the formula $A(x)$ is

$$\exists y(x \neq y)$$

i.e. the variable z in t **is not bound** in A

The substitution of $t = z$ for the variable x produces a formula $A(t)$ of the form

$$\exists y(z \neq y)$$

which express the **same meaning** as $A(x)$

Special Terms

Here an **important** notion we will depend on

Definition

Given $A \in \mathcal{F}$ and $t \in \mathbf{T}$

The **term** t is said to be **free for** a variable x in a formula A
if and only if

no free occurrence of x **lies** within the **scope** of **any**
quantifier bounding variables in t

Special Terms

Example

Given formulas

$$\forall y P(f(x, y), y), \quad \forall y P(f(x, z), y)$$

The term $t = f(x, y)$ is **free** for x in $\forall y P(f(x, y), y)$

and $t = f(x, y)$ is **not free** for y in $\forall y P(f(x, y), y)$

The term

$$t = f(x, z)$$

is **free** for x and z in

$$\forall y P(f(x, z), y)$$

Special Terms

Example

Let A be a formula

$$(\exists x Q(f(x), g(x, z)) \cap P(h(x, y), y))$$

The term $t_1 = f(x)$ is **not free** for x in A

The term $t_2 = g(x, z)$ is **free** for z only

Term $t_3 = h(x, y)$ is **free** for y only
because x occurs as a **bound** variable in A

Replacement Definition

Replacement Definition

Given

$$A(x), A(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathcal{F} \quad \text{and} \quad t, t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in \mathbf{T}$$

Then

$$A(x/t), A(x_1/t_1, x_2/t_2, \dots, x_n/t_n)$$

or, more simply just

$$A(t), A(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$$

denotes the result of **replacing** all occurrences of the **free** variables x, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , by the terms $t, t, t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n$, respectively, **assuming** that t, t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are **free** for **all** **their variables** in A

Classical Restricted Domain Quantifiers

Restricted Domain Quantifiers

We often use logic **symbols**, while writing **mathematical** statements

For example, mathematicians in order to say

"all natural numbers are greater than zero and some integers are equal 1"

often write it as

$$x \geq 0, \forall_{x \in \mathbb{N}} \text{ and } \exists_{y \in \mathbb{Z}}, y = 1$$

Some of them, who are more "logic oriented", would also write it as

$$\forall_{x \in \mathbb{N}} x \geq 0 \cap \exists_{y \in \mathbb{Z}} y = 1$$

or even as

$$(\forall_{x \in \mathbb{N}} x \geq 0 \cap \exists_{y \in \mathbb{Z}} y = 1)$$

Restricted Domain Quantifiers

None of the above **symbolic** statements are **formulas** of the predicate language \mathcal{L}

These are **mathematical** statement written with **mathematical** and **logic symbols**

They are written with different **degree** of "logical precision" , the last being, from a **logician** point of view the most **precise**

Restricted Domain Quantifiers

Observe that the quantifiers symbols

$$\forall_{x \in N} \quad \text{and} \quad \exists_{y \in Z}$$

used in all of the symbolic **mathematical** statements **are not** the one used in the **predicate** language \mathcal{L}

The **quantifiers** of this type are called quantifiers with **restricted domain**

Our **goal** now is to correctly "**translate**" mathematical and natural language statement into well formed **formulas** of the predicate language

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{CON}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

of the **classical** predicate logic

Restricted Domain Quantifiers

We say

” **formulas** of the predicate language \mathcal{L} of the **classical** predicate logic”

to express the **fact** that we define all notions for the **classical** semantics

One can **extend** these definitions to some **non-classical** logics, but we describe and will investigate only the **classical** case

Restricted Domain Quantifiers

We introduce the **quantifiers** with **restricted domain** by expressing them **within** the predicate language

$\mathcal{L}_{\{\neg, \cap, \cup, \Rightarrow\}}$ (**P, F, C**) as follows

Given a classical predicate logic language

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\{\neg, \cap, \cup, \Rightarrow, \neg\}}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

The quantifiers

$$\forall_{A(x)} \quad \text{and} \quad \exists_{A(x)}$$

are called quantifiers with **restricted domain**, or **restricted quantifiers**, where $A(x) \in \mathcal{F}$ is any formula with any **free** variable $x \in \text{VAR}$

Restricted Domain Quantifiers

Definition

A formula $\forall_{A(x)} B(x)$ is an **abbreviation** of a formula $\forall x(A(x) \Rightarrow B(x)) \in \mathcal{F}$

We write it symbolically as

$$(*) \quad \forall_{A(x)} B(x) = \forall x(A(x) \Rightarrow B(x))$$

A formula $\exists_{A(x)} B(x)$ is an **abbreviation** of a formula $\exists x(A(x) \cap B(x)) \in \mathcal{F}$

We write it symbolically as

$$(**) \quad \exists_{A(x)} B(x) = \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$$

We call $(*)$ and $(**)$ the **transformations rules** for **restricted quantifiers**

Exercise

Exercise

Given the following mathematical statement **S** written with logical symbols

$$(\forall_{x \in \mathbb{N}} x \geq 0 \cap \exists_{y \in \mathbb{Z}} y = 1)$$

1. **Translate** the statement **S** into a proper logical **formula A** that uses **restricted** quantifiers
2. Translate the obtained **restricted quantifiers** formula **A** into a correct **logical** formula **without** restricted domain quantifiers, i.e. into a well formed formula of \mathcal{L}

Translation Steps

Given a mathematical statement **S**

We proceed to **write** this and other **similar** problems **translation** in a sequence of the following steps

Step 1

We **identify** **basic** statements in **S** i.e. mathematical statements that involve only **relations**

They are to be **translated** into **atomic formulas**

We **identify** the **relations** in the basic statements and choose **predicate** symbols as their names

We **identify** all **functions** and **constants** (if any) in the basic statements and choose **function** symbols and **constant** symbols as their **names**

Translation Steps

Step 2

We write the **basic** statements as **atomic** formulas of \mathcal{L}

Step 3

We re-write the statement **S** as a logical **formula** with **restricted** quantifiers

Step 4

We apply the **transformations** rules (*) and (**) for **restricted** quantifiers to the formula from **Step 3**

Such obtained **formula** **A** of \mathcal{L} is a representation, which we call a **translation**, of the given mathematical statement **S**

Exercise Solution

Solution

The mathematical statement **S** is

$$(\forall_{x \in N} x \geq 0 \cap \exists_{y \in Z} y = 1)$$

Step 1 in this **particular** case is as follows

The basic statements in **S** are

$$x \in N, \quad x \geq 0, \quad y \in Z, \quad y = 1$$

The relations are $\in N$, $\in Z$, \geq , $=$

We use **one** argument **predicate** symbols **N**, **Z** for relations $\in N$, $\in Z$, respectively

We use **two** argument **predicate** symbol **G** for \geq

We use predicate symbol **E** for $=$

There are **no functions**

We have two **constant** symbols **c₁**, **c₂** for numbers **0** and **1**, respectively

Exercise Solution

Step 2

We write $N(x), Z(x)$ for $x \in N, x \in Z$, respectively

We write $G(x, c_1)$ for $x \geq 0$ and $E(y, c_2)$ for $y = 1$

Atomic formulas are

$$N(x), \quad Z(x), \quad G(x, c_1), \quad E(y, c_2)$$

Step 3

The statement **S** becomes a **restricted quantifiers** formula

$$(\forall_{N(x)} G(x, c_1) \cap \exists_{Z(y)} E(y, c_2))$$

Step 4

A formula $A \in \mathcal{F}$ that is a **translation** of **S** is

$$(\forall x (N(x) \Rightarrow G(x, c_1)) \cap \exists y (Z(y) \cap E(y, c_2)))$$

Exercise Short Solution

Here is a perfectly **acceptable** short solution

We presented first the **long** solution in order to **explain** in detail how one **approaches** the "translations" problems

This is why we identified the **Steps 1 - 4** needed to be **performed** when one does the **translation**

We use the word **translation** a short cut for saying
" The **formula** **A** is a formal predicate language **\mathcal{L}**
representation of the given mathematical statement **S**"

Exercise Short Solution

Short Solution

The basic statements in **S** are

$$x \in N, \quad x \geq 0, \quad y \in Z, \quad y = 1$$

The corresponding **atomic** formulas of \mathcal{L} are

$$N(x), \quad Z(x), \quad G(x, c_1), \quad E(y, c_2)$$

The statement **S** becomes a **restricted quantifiers** formula

$$(\forall_{N(x)} G(x, c_1) \cap \exists_{Z(y)} E(y, c_2))$$

A formula $A \in \mathcal{F}$ that is a **translation** of **S** is

$$(\forall x (N(x) \Rightarrow G(x, c_1)) \cap \exists y (Z(y) \cap E(y, c_2)))$$