

Formal Logic

Lecture 6: The Syntax of Predicate Logic

Dr. Ioannis Votsis

ioannis.votsis@nchlondon.ac.uk

www.votsis.org

Predicate Logic

Propositional vs. predicate logic

DEDUCTIVE LOGIC



PROPOSITIONAL LOGIC

Formal study of arguments at the coarse-grained level of whole sentences.

NB: A.k.a. 'propositional calculus', 'sentential logic'.

PREDICATE LOGIC

Formal study of arguments at the sub-sentential (and thus more fine-grained) level of sentences.

NB: A.k.a. 'first-order logic', 'predicate calculus'.

The coarse-grained nature of L_1

- The coarseness of propositional logic is made obvious when we attempt to formalise some arguments in L_1 .

Example Formalised:

1. P

2. Q

3. R

Natural Language Example:

1. Zeno is a tortoise.

2. All tortoises are toothless.

Therefore, Zeno is toothless.

- Although the argument is clearly valid in natural language, it's not (semantically or syntactically) valid in L_1 .
- That's because each natural language sentence cannot but be formalised using a different sentence letter in L_1 .

Peering inside a sentence

- That's where predicate logic comes in as it offers us a more expressive (read: more fine-grained) formal language.
- To be precise, it allows us to peer inside the structure of natural language sentences.
- In particular, it allows us to track similarities in the internal structure of those sentences.

Natural Language Example Revisited:

1. **Zeno** is a **tortoise**.
 2. All **tortoises** are **toothless**.
-
- Therefore, **Zeno** is **toothless**.

Designator-predicate form

- In more detail, predicate logic allows us to track and formalise designator-predicate (a.k.a. subject-predicate) form.
- **Designators** (proper names and definite descriptions) are singular noun phrases that denote unique objects.
- **Predicates** denote properties that we ascribe to objects.

Designators:

Anthony (Grayling)

the Drawing Room (at NCH)

Garfield (the cat)

Lima

Predicates:

... is 70 years old.

... is spacious.

... is known to be lazy.

... is the capital of Peru.

One-place predicates

- One-place (a.k.a. unary) predicates ascribe properties to the unique objects identified by single designators.

Aristophanes is a playwright.

Tom is a cat.

Jerry has big ears.

Usain Bolt runs fast.

Surfing is fun.

NB: Where **designators** are in **green** and **predicates** in **red**.

Many-place predicates

- Many-place predicates ascribe properties to two or more objects. They're known as binary, ternary, etc, predicates.

Othello loves Desdemona. 2-place

The senate acquitted Trump. 2-place

Manchester is between London and Edinburgh. 3-place

Big Bird is taller than Elmo, Bert and Oscar. 4-place

The queen gives parliament her speech. 3-place

NB: Where **designators** are in **green** and **predicates** in **red**.

Predicates may be distributed

- One and the same predicate may be distributed across a natural language sentence.

Manchester **is between** London **and** Edinburgh.

1st part 2nd part

Big Bird **is taller than** Elmo, Bert **and the** Cookie Monster.

1st part 2nd part

The engineer **is loosening** the nut **with** the wrench.

1st part 2nd part

The syntax of L_2

- Predicate logic employs an artificial language – we call it ' L_2 '. The expressions of L_2 consists of:

non-logical terms:

- * **upper case letters** denoting **predicates**, e.g. P , Q and R .
- * **lower case letters** at the start of the alphabet denoting **constants**, e.g. a , b and c .
- * **lower case letters** at the end of the alphabet denoting **variables**, e.g. x , y and z .

logical terms:

- * **symbols** denoting **logical connectives**, i.e. \neg , $\&$, \vee , \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow .
- * **symbols** denoting **quantifiers**, i.e. \forall , \exists .

NB: An infinite # of predicates, constants and variables can be produced via natural number subscripts, e.g. P_3 , a_6 , x_{14} .

The *arity* of a predicate

- Halbach (2010) uses the convention of natural number superscripts to indicate the *arity* of a predicate.

Examples:

| | |
|----------|----------------------|
| C^2dz | 2-place (binary) |
| A^1a | 1-place (unary) |
| P^3ayc | 3-place (ternary) |
| R | 0-place (a sentence) |

- It should be clear that the superscripts are redundant as the number of constants + variables fixes the arity of a predicate.
- Although I do not intend to follow this convention, it's worth being familiar with it as some of Halbach's exercises require it.

Constants, variables and atomic formulae

- To understand well-formed formulae in L_2 we need the concepts of constant, variable and atomic formula.

Constants (in L_2): These denote unique objects. They are the corresponding notion of natural language designators in L_2 .

Variables (in L_2): These can take a range of values, namely any constant within L_2 .

Atomic formula (in L_2):

If P is a predicate letter of arity n and every term t_1, \dots, t_n is a variable or constant, then $Pt_1 \dots t_n$ is an atomic formula of L_2 .

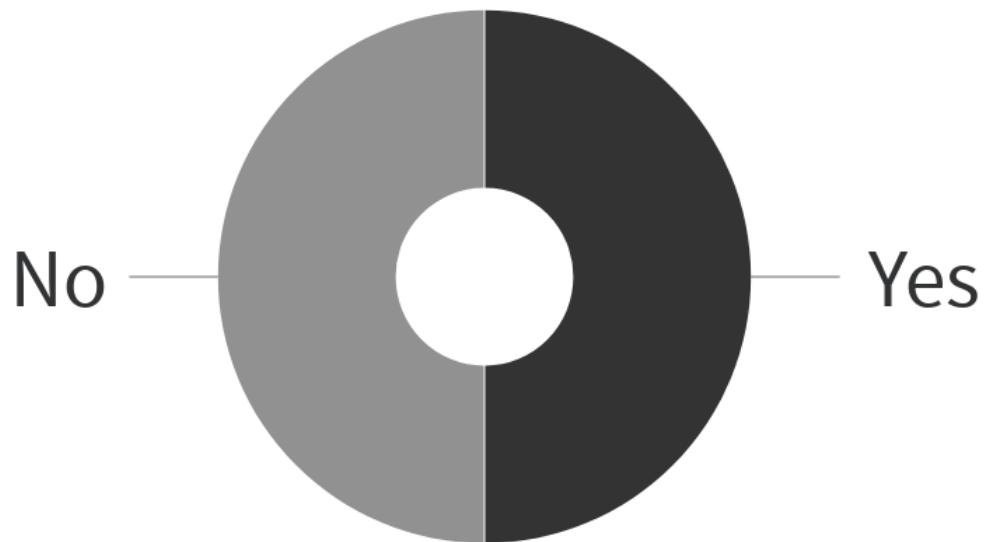
Formulae in L_2

- Definition of a **(well-formed) formula** in L_2 :
 1. All atomic formulae of L_2 are formulae of L_2 .
 2. If ϕ, ψ are formulae of L_2 , then $\neg\phi$, $(\phi \& \psi)$, $(\phi \vee \psi)$, $(\phi \rightarrow \psi)$ and $(\phi \leftrightarrow \psi)$ are formulae of L_2 .
 3. If v is a variable and ϕ is a formula, then $(\forall v)\phi$ and $(\exists v)\phi$ are formulae of L_2 .
 4. Nothing else is a formula of L_2 .

NB: Unlike with propositional logic, we are more careful here and use meta-variables ϕ, ψ in the definition of an L_2 formula.

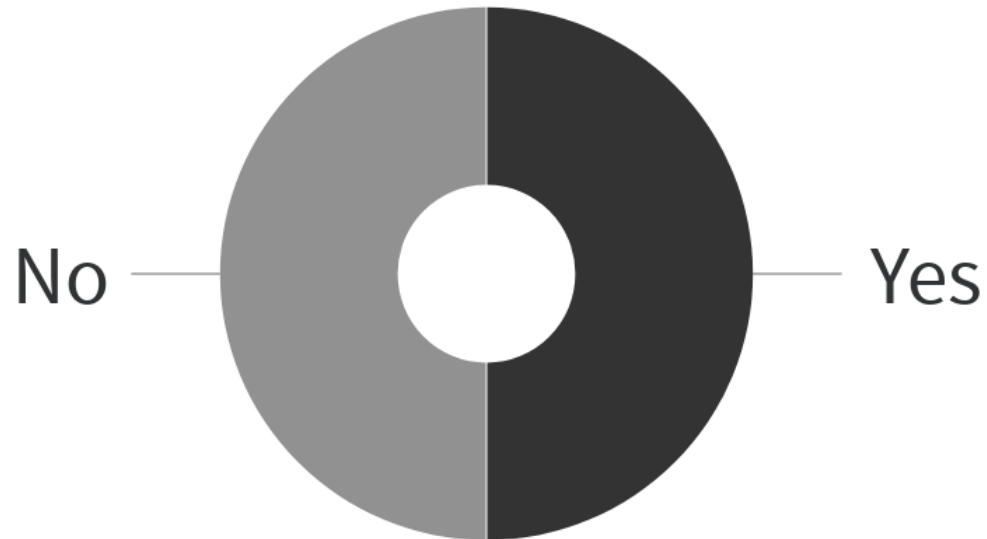
Is this a formula of L2? $(\forall x) \& P x a$

Yes **A** No **B**



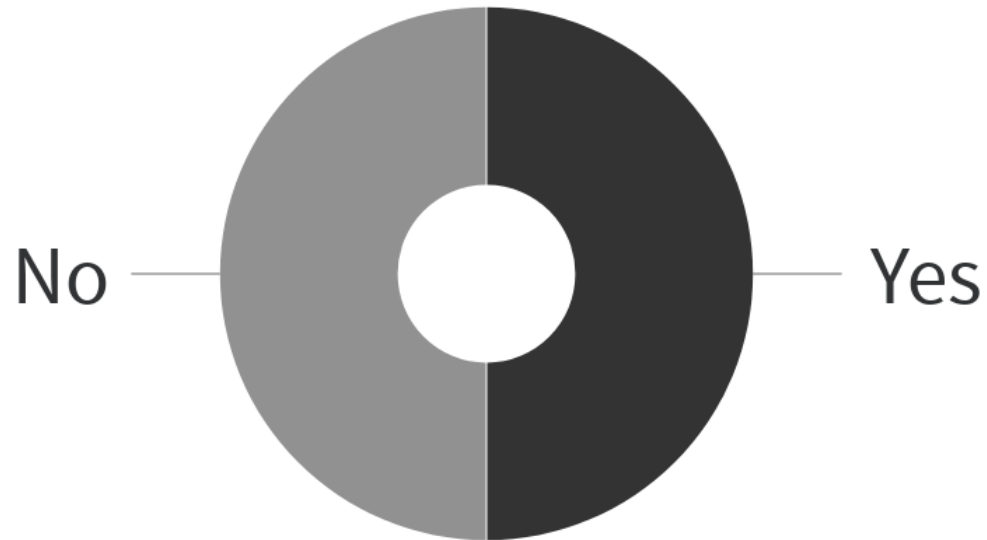
Is this a formula of L2? $(\forall x)(\forall y)\neg Sxy$

Yes **A** No **B**



Is this a formula of L2? $\neg(\forall x)(Qx \vee Rx)$

Yes **A** No **B**



Formulae in L_2 : Examples

- Examples of L_2 formulae:

$\neg Ab$

$(Adz \& (Baef \vee Cabcd))$

$(\forall x)(Pxa \rightarrow Qx)$

$\neg(\forall x)(Ad \rightarrow Bx)$

$(Aa \& Aa)$

$((Dc \rightarrow Bdx) \leftrightarrow (\neg \neg Caa \rightarrow Gy))$

$(\forall x)(\forall y) \neg Sxy$

$(\forall x) \neg (\exists y)(Pxy \rightarrow Ry)$

Examples of expressions which are not L_2 formulae:

$\neg \& Ab$

$(Aaz \& \& By)$

$(\forall x) \& Pxa$

$\neg(\forall \exists x)(Qx \vee Rx)$

$(Ab \& B \neg c)$

$(Ag \rightarrow Bhd)Ca$

$(\forall \neg x)(\forall y)Sxy$

$(\forall x) \neg (\exists y \& z)(Uxy \rightarrow Ez)$

Quantifiers and scope

- To properly understand quantifiers we need to have a proper understanding of scope.

“The scope of a quantifier in a formula P of PL is the quantifier itself and the subformula Q that immediately follows the quantifier” (Bergmann et al. 2014: 271).

Examples (scope underlined):

$(\exists y)$ (Fyz & Gzy)

Hx \rightarrow $(\forall y)$ Fxy

$(\exists w)$ (Gwa \rightarrow Fa) \leftrightarrow Hw

$(\forall x)$ \neg $(\exists y)$ (Pxy \rightarrow Ry)

Quantifiers, scope and parentheses

- Parentheses are crucial in helping us fix the scope of quantifiers.
- The following two sentences are not identical in meaning:

1. $(\forall x)(Fx \supset Ga)$

2. $(\forall x) Fx$ $\supset Ga$

NB: In the absence of parentheses, the scope extends only to the atomic formula to the immediate right of a quantifier.

No double booking

- Whenever you use more than one quantifier with *nested scopes* ensure that they *don't bind with the same variable*.

Correct usage:

$$(\forall y)(\exists x) Jyx$$

$$(\forall y)(Hy \rightarrow Rb) \rightarrow (\forall y) By$$

Incorrect usage:

$$(\forall y)(\exists y) Jyx$$

$$(\forall x)(Qxc \ \& \ (\exists x)(Pxc \ \& \ Ra))$$

Variables: Free and bound instances

- Roughly, a variable instance in an L_2 formula is free (it occurs freely) when it's not bound (tied) to a quantifier: \forall or \exists .

Free

Px

Qza

$(\forall y)(Pyx \rightarrow Ra)$

Bound

$(\forall x)Px$

$(\exists z)Qza$

$(\forall y)(Pyx \rightarrow Ra)$

- Here's the definition: "(i) All occurrences of variables in atomic formulae are free. (ii) The occurrences of a variable that are free in ϕ and ψ are also free in $\neg\phi$, $(\phi \& \psi)$, $(\phi \vee \psi)$, $(\phi \rightarrow \psi)$ and $(\phi \leftrightarrow \psi)$. (iii) In a formula $(\forall v)\phi$ or $(\exists v)\phi$ no occurrence of the variable v is free; all occurrences of variables other than v that are free in ϕ are also free in $(\forall v)\phi$ and $(\exists v)\phi$ " (Halbach p. 85).

Sentences in L_2

- A formula ϕ in L_2 is a sentence in L_2 if and only if ϕ contains no free instances of variables.
- In other words, all sentences in L_2 are formulae in L_2 but not vice-versa.

Examples:

$Pdae$

$Rc \ \& \ Gc$

$(Eh \vee Jc) \leftrightarrow Fb$

$(\forall x)(\forall y) \neg \neg Fxy$

$\neg(\exists y)(Ray \ \& \ By)$

$Pab \rightarrow (\exists y)(\neg Pby \ \& \ (\forall x)\neg Qxy)$

The End