# COSE419: Software Verification 

## Lecture 6 - First-Order Logic

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## First-Order Logic

- An extension of propositional logic with predicates, functions, and quantifiers.
- First-order logic is also called predicate logic, first-order predicate calculus, and relational logic.
- First-order logic is expressive enough to reason about programs.
- However, completely automated reasoning is not possible.


## Terms (Variables, Constants, and Functions)

- Terms denote the objects that we are reasoning about.
- While formulas in PL evaluate to true or false, terms in FOL evaluate to values in an underlying domain such as integers, strings, lists, etc.
- Terms in FOL are defined by the grammar:

$$
t \rightarrow x|c| f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)
$$

- Basic terms are variables $(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{z}, \ldots)$ and constants $(\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{b}, \boldsymbol{c}, \ldots)$.
- Composite terms include $\boldsymbol{n}$-ary functions applied to $\boldsymbol{n}$ terms, i.e., $f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$, where $t_{i} \mathrm{~s}$ are terms.
$\star$ A constant can be viewed as a $\mathbf{0}$-ary function.
- Examples:
- $f(a)$, a unary function $f$ applied to a constant
- $\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{b})$, a binary function $\boldsymbol{g}$ applied to a variable $\boldsymbol{x}$ and a constant $\boldsymbol{b}$
- $f(g(x, f(b)))$


## Predicates

- The propositional variables of PL are generalized to predicates in FOL, denoted $\boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{r}, \ldots$
- An $\boldsymbol{n}$-ary predicate takes $\boldsymbol{n}$ terms as arguments.
- A FOL propositional variable is a 0 -ary predicate, denoted $P, Q, \ldots$
- Examples:
- $\boldsymbol{P}$, a propositional variable (or 0 -ary predicate)
- $p(f(x), g(x, f(x)))$, a binary predicate applied to two terms


## Syntax

- Atom: basic elements
- truth symbols $\perp$ ("false") and $\top$ ("true")
- $n$-ary predicates applied to $n$ terms
- Literal: an atom $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$ or its negation $\neg \boldsymbol{\alpha}$.
- Formula: a literal or application of a logical connective to formulas, or the application of a quantifier to a formula.

| $\boldsymbol{F} \rightarrow$ | $\perp\|\top\| p\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$ | atom |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| \| | $\neg F$ | negation (" not") |
| \| | $F_{1} \wedge F_{2}$ | conjunction (" and") |
| \| | $F_{1} \vee F_{2}$ | disjunction (" or") |
| \| | $F_{1} \rightarrow F_{2}$ | implication ("implies") |
| \| | $F_{1} \leftrightarrow F_{2}$ | iff ("if and only if') |
| \| | $\exists x . F[x]$ | existential quantification |
| 1 | $\forall x . F[x]$ | universal quantification |

## Notations on Quantification

- In $\forall \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}]$ and $\exists \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}], \boldsymbol{x}$ is the quantified variable and $\boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}]$ is the scope of the quantifier. We say $\boldsymbol{x}$ in $\boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}]$ is bound.
- $\forall \boldsymbol{x} . \forall \boldsymbol{y} . \boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}]$ is often abbreviated by $\forall \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \cdot \boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}]$.
- The scope of the quantified variable extends as far as possible: e.g.,

$$
\forall x \cdot \underbrace{p(f(x), x) \rightarrow(\exists y \cdot \underbrace{p(f(g(x, y)), g(x, y))}) \wedge q(x, f(x)})
$$

- A variable is free in $\boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}]$ if it is not bound. free $(\boldsymbol{F})$ and bound $(\boldsymbol{F})$ denote the free and bound variables of $\boldsymbol{F}$, respectively. A formula $\boldsymbol{F}$ is closed if $\boldsymbol{F}$ has no free variables. E.g.,

$$
\forall x \cdot p(f(x), y) \rightarrow \forall y \cdot p(f(x), y)
$$

- If $\operatorname{free}(F)=\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$, then its universal closure is $\forall x_{1} \ldots \forall x_{n} . \boldsymbol{F}$ and its existential closure is $\exists x_{1} \ldots \exists x_{n} . \boldsymbol{F}$. They are usually written $\forall * . \boldsymbol{F}$ and $\exists * . \boldsymbol{F}$.


## Example FOL Formulas

- Every cat has its day.

$$
\forall x \cdot \operatorname{cat}(x) \rightarrow \exists y \cdot \operatorname{day}(y) \wedge i t s D a y(x, y)
$$

- Some cats have more days than others.

$$
\exists x, y \cdot \operatorname{cat}(x) \wedge \operatorname{cat}(y) \wedge \# \operatorname{days}(x)>\# \operatorname{days}(y)
$$

- The length of one side of a triangle is less than the sum of the lengths of the other two sides.
$\forall x, y, z . t r i a n g l e(x, y, z) \rightarrow$ length $(x)<\operatorname{length}(y)+l e n g t h(z)$
- Fermat's Last Theorem.

```
\(\forall n . i n t e g e r(n) \wedge n>2\)
    \(\rightarrow \forall x, y, z\).
        \(\operatorname{integer}(x) \wedge \operatorname{integer}(y) \wedge \operatorname{integer}(z) \wedge x>0 \wedge y>0 \wedge z>0\)
            \(\rightarrow x^{n}+y^{n} \neq z^{n}\)
```


## Interpretation

A FOL interpretation $I:\left(\boldsymbol{D}_{I}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\boldsymbol{I}}\right)$ is a pair of a domain and an assignment.

- $\boldsymbol{D}_{\boldsymbol{I}}$ is a nonempty set of values such as integers, real numbers, etc.
- $\alpha_{I}$ maps variables, constant, functions, and predicate symbols to elements, functions, and predicates over $\boldsymbol{D}_{\boldsymbol{I}}$.
- each variable $\boldsymbol{x}$ is assigned a value from $\boldsymbol{D}_{\boldsymbol{I}}$
- each $\boldsymbol{n}$-ary function symbol $\boldsymbol{f}$ is assigned an $\boldsymbol{n}$-ary function $f_{I}: D_{I}^{n} \rightarrow D_{I}$.
- each $\boldsymbol{n}$-ary predicate symbol $\boldsymbol{p}$ is assigned an $\boldsymbol{n}$-ary predicate $p_{I}: D_{I}^{n} \rightarrow\{$ true, false $\}$.
- Arbitrary terms and atoms are evaluated recursively:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\alpha_{I}\left[f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\right] & =\alpha_{I}[f]\left(\alpha_{I}\left[t_{1}\right], \ldots, \alpha_{I}\left[t_{n}\right]\right) \\
\alpha_{I}\left[p\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\right] & =\alpha_{I}[p]\left(\alpha_{I}\left[t_{1}\right], \ldots, \alpha_{I}\left[t_{n}\right]\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example

$$
F: x+y>z \rightarrow y>z-x
$$

- Note,,$+->$ are just symbols: we could have written

$$
p(f(x, y), z) \rightarrow p(y, g(z, x))
$$

- Domain: $D_{I}=\mathbb{Z}=\{\ldots,-1,0,1, \ldots\}$
- Assignment:

$$
\alpha_{I}=\left\{+\mapsto+_{\mathbb{Z}},-\mapsto-_{\mathbb{Z}},>\mapsto>_{\mathbb{Z}}, x \mapsto 13, y \mapsto 42, z \mapsto 1, \ldots\right\}
$$

## Semantics of First-Order Logic

Given an interpretation $\boldsymbol{I}:\left(\boldsymbol{D}_{I}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\boldsymbol{I}}\right), \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}$ or $\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \top, \quad I \not \vDash \perp, \\
& I \vDash p\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right) \quad \text { iff } \quad \alpha_{I}\left[p\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)\right]=\text { true } \\
& \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \neg \boldsymbol{F} \quad \text { iff } \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} \\
& I \vDash F_{1} \wedge F_{2} \quad \text { iff } I \vDash F_{1} \text { and } I \vDash \boldsymbol{F}_{2} \\
& I \vDash F_{1} \vee F_{2} \quad \text { iff } I \vDash F_{1} \text { or } I \vDash \boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{2}} \\
& I \vDash F_{1} \rightarrow F_{2} \quad \text { iff } I \not \models F_{1} \text { or } I \vDash F_{2} \\
& I \vDash F_{1} \leftrightarrow F_{2} \\
& \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \forall \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F} \\
& \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \exists \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F} \\
& \text { iff }\left(\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}_{1} \text { and } \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}_{2}\right) \text { or }\left(\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F}_{1} \text { and } \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F}_{2}\right) \\
& \text { iff for all } v \in D_{I}, I \triangleleft\{x \mapsto v\} \vDash F \\
& \text { iff there exists } v \in D_{I}, I \triangleleft\{x \mapsto v\} \vDash F
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\boldsymbol{J}: \boldsymbol{I} \triangleleft\{\boldsymbol{x} \mapsto \boldsymbol{v}\}$ denotes an $\boldsymbol{x}$-variant of $\boldsymbol{I}$ :

- $D_{J}=D_{I}$
- $\alpha_{J}[y]=\alpha_{I}[y]$ for all constant, free variable, function, and predicate symbols $y$, except that $\alpha_{J}(x)=v$.


## Example 1

$$
F: x+y>z \rightarrow y>z-x
$$

- Domain: $D_{I}=\mathbb{Z}=\{\ldots,-\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}, \ldots\}$
- Assignment:

$$
\alpha_{I}=\left\{+\mapsto+_{\mathbb{Z}},-\mapsto-_{\mathbb{Z}},>\mapsto>_{\mathbb{Z}}, x \mapsto 13, y \mapsto 42, z \mapsto 1, \ldots\right\}
$$

1. $I \vDash x+y>z$ since $\alpha_{I}[x+y>z]=13+_{\mathbb{Z}} 42>_{\mathbb{Z}} 1$
2. $I \vDash y>z-x$ since $\alpha_{I}[y>z-x]=42>_{\mathbb{Z}} 1-_{\mathbb{Z}} 13$
3. $\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \quad$ by 1,2 , and the semantics of $\rightarrow$

## Example 2

Consider the formula:

$$
F: \exists x . f(x)=g(x)
$$

and the interpretation $I:\left(\boldsymbol{D}:\left\{\boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{1}}, \boldsymbol{v}_{\boldsymbol{2}}\right\}, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\boldsymbol{I}}\right)$ :

$$
\alpha_{I}:\left\{f\left(v_{1}\right) \mapsto v_{1}, f\left(v_{2}\right) \mapsto v_{2}, g\left(v_{1}\right) \mapsto v_{2}, g\left(v_{2}\right) \mapsto v_{1}\right\}
$$

Compute the truth value of $\boldsymbol{F}$ under $\boldsymbol{I}$ as follows:

1. $I \triangleleft\{x \mapsto v\} \quad \nvdash \quad f(x)=g(x) \quad$ for all $v \in D$
2. I $\quad \nvdash \exists \boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x})=\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{x})$ by the semantics of $\exists$

## Satisfiability and Validity

- A formula $\boldsymbol{F}$ is satisfiable iff there exists an interpretation $\boldsymbol{I}$ such that $\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}$.
- A formula $\boldsymbol{F}$ is valid iff for all interpretations $\boldsymbol{I}, \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}$.
- Technically, satisfiability and validity are defined for closed FOL formulas. Convention for formulas with free variables:
- If we say that a formula $\boldsymbol{F}$ such that $\operatorname{free}(\boldsymbol{F}) \neq \emptyset$ is valid, we mean that its universal closure $\forall * . \boldsymbol{F}$ is valid.
- If we say that $\boldsymbol{F}$ is satisfiable, we mean that its existential closure $\exists * . \boldsymbol{F}$ is satisfiable.
- Duality still holds:

$$
\forall * . \boldsymbol{F} \text { is valid } \Longleftrightarrow \exists * . \neg \boldsymbol{F} \text { is unsatisfiable. }
$$

## Extension of the Semantic Argument Method

Most of the proof rules from PL carry over to FOL:

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\frac{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \neg \boldsymbol{F}}{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F}} & \frac{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \neg \boldsymbol{F}}{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}} \\
\frac{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \wedge \boldsymbol{G}}{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}, \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{G}} & \frac{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} \wedge \boldsymbol{G}}{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} \mid \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{G}} \\
\frac{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \vee \boldsymbol{G}}{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \mid \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{G}} & \frac{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} \vee \boldsymbol{G}}{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F}, \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{G}} \\
\frac{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{G}}{\boldsymbol{I} \nvdash \boldsymbol{F} \mid \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{G}} & \frac{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{G}}{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}, \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{G}} \\
\frac{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{G}}{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \wedge \boldsymbol{G} \mid \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \neg \boldsymbol{F} \wedge \neg \boldsymbol{G}} & \frac{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} \leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{I}}{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \wedge \neg \boldsymbol{G} \mid \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \neg \boldsymbol{F} \wedge \boldsymbol{G}}
\end{array}
$$

## Rules for Quantifiers

"Universal" rules:

- Universal elimination I:

$$
\frac{\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \forall \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F}}{\boldsymbol{I} \triangleleft\{\boldsymbol{x} \mapsto \boldsymbol{v}\} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}} \text { for any } \boldsymbol{v} \in \boldsymbol{D}_{\boldsymbol{I}}
$$

- Existential elimination I:

$$
\frac{I \not \models \exists x . F}{I \triangleleft\{x \mapsto v\} \not \models F} \text { for any } v \in D_{I}
$$

There rules are usually applied using a domain element $\boldsymbol{v}$ that was introduced earlier in the proof.

## Rules for Quantifiers

"Existential" rules:

- Existential elimination II:

$$
\frac{I \vDash \exists x . F}{I \triangleleft\{x \mapsto v\} \vDash \boldsymbol{F}} \text { for a fresh } v \in D_{I}
$$

- Universal elimination II:

$$
\frac{\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \forall \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F}}{I \triangleleft\{\boldsymbol{x} \mapsto \boldsymbol{v}\} \not \models \boldsymbol{F}} \text { for a fresh } \boldsymbol{v} \in \boldsymbol{D}_{I}
$$

When applying these rules, $\boldsymbol{v}$ must not have been previously used in the proof.

## Contradiction Rule

A contradiction exists if two variants of the original interpretation $I$ disagree on the truth value of an $\boldsymbol{n}$-ary predicate $\boldsymbol{p}$ for a given tuple of domain values:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& J: I \triangleleft \cdots \vDash p\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) \\
& K: I \triangleleft \cdots \not \models p\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right) \\
& I \vDash \perp
\end{aligned} \text { for } i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}, \alpha_{J}\left[s_{i}\right]=\alpha_{K}\left[t_{i}\right]
$$

## Example 1

Prove that the formula is valid:

$$
F:(\forall x . p(x)) \rightarrow(\forall y . p(y))
$$

Suppose not; there is an interpretation $\boldsymbol{I}$ such that $\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F}$.

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { 1. } & \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} & \text { assumption } \\
\text { 2. } & \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \forall \boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}) & 1 \text { and } \rightarrow \\
\text { 3. } & \boldsymbol{I \not \models \forall \boldsymbol { y } \cdot \boldsymbol { p } ( \boldsymbol { y } )} & 1 \text { and } \rightarrow \\
\text { 4. } & \boldsymbol{I} \triangleleft\{\boldsymbol{y} \mapsto \boldsymbol{v}\} \not \models \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{y}) & 3 \text { and } \forall \text {, for some } \boldsymbol{v} \in \boldsymbol{D}_{\boldsymbol{I}} \\
\text { 5. } & \boldsymbol{I} \triangleleft\{\boldsymbol{x} \mapsto \boldsymbol{v}\} \vDash \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}) & 2 \text { and } \forall \\
\mathbf{6 .} & \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \perp & 4 \text { and } 5
\end{array}
$$

## Example 2

Prove that the formula is valid:

$$
F:(\forall x \cdot p(x)) \leftrightarrow(\neg \exists x . \neg p(x))
$$

We need to show both of forward and backward directions.

$$
F_{1}:(\forall x \cdot p(x)) \rightarrow(\neg \exists x . \neg p(x)), F_{2}:(\forall x \cdot p(x)) \leftarrow(\neg \exists x \cdot \neg p(x))
$$

Suppose $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{1}}$ is not valid; there is an interpretation $\boldsymbol{I}$ such that $\boldsymbol{I} \nvdash \boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{1}}$.

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { 1. } & \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \forall \boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}) & \text { assumption } \\
\text { 2. } & \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \neg \exists \boldsymbol{x} . \neg \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}) & \text { assumption } \\
\text { 3. } & \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \exists \boldsymbol{x . \neg \boldsymbol { p } ( \boldsymbol { x } )} & 2 \text { and } \neg \\
\text { 4. } & \boldsymbol{I} \triangleleft\{\boldsymbol{x} \mapsto \boldsymbol{v}\} \vDash \neg \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}) & 3 \text { and } \exists \text {, for some } \boldsymbol{v} \in D_{\boldsymbol{I}} \\
\text { 5. } & \boldsymbol{I} \triangleleft\{\boldsymbol{x} \mapsto \boldsymbol{v}\} \vDash \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}) & 1 \text { and } \forall \\
\text { 6. } & \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \perp & 4 \text { and } 5
\end{array}
$$

Exercise) Prove that $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{2}}$ is valid.

## Example 3

Prove that the formula is valid:

$$
F: p(a) \rightarrow \exists x \cdot p(x)
$$

Assume $\boldsymbol{F}$ is invalid and derive a contradiction:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. } \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} \text { assumption } \\
& \text { 2. } I \vDash p(a) \\
& \text { 3. } I \nvdash \exists x . p(x) \\
& 1 \text { and } \rightarrow \\
& \text { 4. } I \triangleleft\left\{x \mapsto \alpha_{\boldsymbol{I}}[a]\right\} \not \models p(x) \quad 3 \text { and } \exists \\
& \text { 5. } \quad I \vDash \perp \\
& \text { 2, } 4
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 4

Prove that the formula is invalid:

$$
F:(\forall x \cdot p(x, x)) \rightarrow(\exists x \cdot \forall y \cdot p(x, y))
$$

It suffices to find an interpretation $\boldsymbol{I}$ such that $\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \neg \boldsymbol{F}$. Choose $D_{I}=\{0,1\}$ and $p_{I}=\{(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{0}),(\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{1})\}$. The interpretation falsifies $\boldsymbol{F}$.

## Soundness and Completeness of FOL

A proof system is sound if every provable formula is valid. It is complete if every valid formula is provable.

Theorem (Sound)
If every branch of a semantic argument proof of $\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F}$ closes, then $\boldsymbol{F}$ is valid.

Theorem (Complete)
Each valid formula $\boldsymbol{F}$ has a semantic argument proof.

## Substitution

- A substitution is a map from FOL formulas to FOL formulas:

$$
\sigma:\left\{F_{1} \mapsto G_{1}, \ldots, F_{n} \mapsto G_{n}\right\}
$$

- To compute $\boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$, replace each occurrence of $\boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ in $\boldsymbol{F}$ by $\boldsymbol{G}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ simultaneously.
- For example, consider formula

$$
F:(\forall x . p(x, y)) \rightarrow q(f(y), x)
$$

and substitution

$$
\sigma:\{x \mapsto g(x), y \mapsto f(x), q(f(y), x) \mapsto \exists x . h(x, y)\}
$$

Then,

$$
F \sigma:(\forall x \cdot p(g(x), f(x))) \rightarrow \exists x . h(x, y)
$$

## Safe Substitution

- A restricted application of substitution, which has a useful semantic property.
- Idea: Before applying substitution, replace bound variables to fresh variables.
- For example, consider formula

$$
F:(\forall x . p(x, y)) \rightarrow q(f(y), x)
$$

and substitution

$$
\sigma:\{x \mapsto g(x), y \mapsto f(x), q(f(y), x) \mapsto \exists x . h(x, y)\}
$$

Then, safe substitution proceeds
(1) Renaming: $\left(\forall x^{\prime} . p\left(x^{\prime}, y\right)\right) \rightarrow q(f(y), x)$
(2) Substitution: $\left(\forall x^{\prime} \cdot p\left(x^{\prime}, f(x)\right)\right) \rightarrow \exists x \cdot h(x, y)$

## Safe Substitution

## Proposition (Substitution of Equivalent Formulas)

Consider substitution

$$
\sigma:\left\{F_{1} \mapsto G_{1}, \ldots, F_{n} \mapsto G_{n}\right\}
$$

such that for each $\boldsymbol{i}, \boldsymbol{F}_{\boldsymbol{i}} \Longleftrightarrow \boldsymbol{G}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$. Then $\boldsymbol{F} \Longleftrightarrow \boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ when $\boldsymbol{F} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is computed as a safe substitution.

## Formula Schema and Schema Substitution

- The relation $\forall \boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x}) \Longleftrightarrow \neg \exists \boldsymbol{x} . \neg \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{x})$ is interesting but not general. Instead, we can prove the validity of formula schema

$$
\boldsymbol{H}:(\forall x . \boldsymbol{F}) \leftrightarrow(\neg \exists x . \neg \boldsymbol{F})
$$

- A formula schema $\boldsymbol{H}$ contains at least one placeholder $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{1}}, \boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{2}}, \ldots$ and can also contain side conditions that specify that certain variables do not occur free in the placeholders, e.g.,

$$
\boldsymbol{H}:(\forall \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F}) \leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{F} \quad \text { provided } \boldsymbol{x} \notin \text { free }(\boldsymbol{F})
$$

- Consider a substitution $\sigma$ mapping placeholders to FOL formulas. A schema substitution is an (unrestricted) application of $\sigma$ to a formula schema. It is legal only if $\sigma$ obeys the side conditions of the formula schema.


## Proposition (Formula Schema)

If $\boldsymbol{H}$ is a valid formula schema and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is a substitution obeying $\boldsymbol{H}$ 's side conditions, then $\boldsymbol{H} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ is also valid.

## Examples

- Consider valid formula schema:

$$
H:(\forall x . F) \leftrightarrow(\neg \exists x . \neg F)
$$

The formula

$$
G:(\forall x \cdot \exists y \cdot q(x, y) \leftrightarrow(\neg \exists x \cdot \neg \exists y \cdot q(x, y))
$$

is valid because $\boldsymbol{G}=\boldsymbol{H} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ for $\boldsymbol{\sigma}:\{\boldsymbol{F} \mapsto \exists \boldsymbol{y} \cdot \boldsymbol{q}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})\}$.

- Consider valid formula schema:

$$
\boldsymbol{H}:(\forall \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F}) \leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{F} \quad \text { provided } \boldsymbol{x} \notin \text { free }(\boldsymbol{F})
$$

The formula

$$
G:(\forall x \cdot \exists y \cdot p(z, y)) \leftrightarrow \exists y \cdot p(z, y)
$$

is valid because $\boldsymbol{G}=\boldsymbol{H} \boldsymbol{\sigma}$ for $\boldsymbol{\sigma}:\{\boldsymbol{F} \mapsto \exists \boldsymbol{y} \cdot \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y})\}$.

## Proving Formula Schemata

Prove the validity of formula schema:

$$
\boldsymbol{H}:(\forall \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F}) \leftrightarrow \boldsymbol{F} \quad \text { provided } \boldsymbol{x} \notin \text { free }(\boldsymbol{F})
$$

$(\rightarrow)$

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { 1. } & \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \forall \boldsymbol{x} . \boldsymbol{F} & \text { assumption } \\
\text { 2. } & \boldsymbol{I} \not \models \boldsymbol{F} & \text { assumption } \\
\text { 3. } & \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} & \mathbf{1 ,} \forall, \text { since } \boldsymbol{x} \notin \text { free }(\boldsymbol{F}) \\
\text { 4. } & \boldsymbol{I} \vDash \perp & \mathbf{2 , 3}
\end{array}
$$

$(\leftarrow)$

1. $\boldsymbol{I} \not \models \forall \boldsymbol{x}$. $\boldsymbol{F}$ assumption
2. $\boldsymbol{I} \vDash \boldsymbol{F} \quad$ assumption
3. $\quad I \vDash \exists x$. $\neg F \quad 1$, ᄀ
4. $I \vDash \neg F \quad 3, \exists$, since $\boldsymbol{x} \notin$ free $(F)$
5. $I \vDash \perp \quad 2,4$

## Negation Normal Form

- A FOL formula $\boldsymbol{F}$ can be transformed into NNF by using the following equivalences:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{aligned}
\neg \neg \boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{1}} & \Longleftrightarrow \boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{1}} \\
\neg \top & \Longleftrightarrow \perp \\
\neg \perp & \Longleftrightarrow \top
\end{aligned} \\
& \neg\left(F_{1} \wedge F_{2}\right) \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \neg F_{1} \vee \neg F_{2} \\
& \neg\left(F_{1} \vee F_{2}\right) \Longleftrightarrow \neg F_{1} \wedge \neg F_{2} \\
& F_{1} \rightarrow F_{2} \Longleftrightarrow \neg F_{1} \vee F_{2} \\
& F_{1} \leftrightarrow F_{2} \Longleftrightarrow\left(F_{1} \rightarrow F_{2}\right) \wedge\left(F_{2} \rightarrow F_{1}\right) \\
& \neg \forall x . F[x] \Longleftrightarrow \exists x . \neg F[x] \\
& \neg \exists x . F[x] \Longleftrightarrow \forall x . \neg F[x]
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example

Convert the formula into NNF:

$$
G: \forall x \cdot(\exists y \cdot p(x, y) \wedge p(x, z)) \rightarrow \exists w \cdot p(x, w)
$$

(1) Use the equivalence $\boldsymbol{F}_{1} \rightarrow F_{2} \Longleftrightarrow \neg F_{1} \vee F_{2}$ :

$$
\forall x \cdot \neg(\exists y \cdot p(x, y) \wedge p(x, z)) \vee \exists w \cdot p(x, w)
$$

(2) Use the equivalence $\neg \exists \boldsymbol{x} \cdot \boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}] \Longleftrightarrow \forall \boldsymbol{x} \cdot \neg \boldsymbol{F}[\boldsymbol{x}]$ :

$$
\forall x \cdot(\forall y \cdot \neg(p(x, y) \wedge p(x, z))) \vee \exists w \cdot p(x, w)
$$

(3) Use De Morgan's Law:

$$
\forall x .(\forall y \cdot \neg p(x, y) \vee \neg p(x, z)) \vee \exists w \cdot p(x, w)
$$

## Prenex Normal Form (PNF)

- A formula is in prenex normal form (PNF) if all of its quantifiers appear at the beginning of the formula:

$$
\mathbf{Q}_{1} x_{1} \ldots \mathbf{Q}_{n} x_{n} \cdot F\left[x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]
$$

where $\mathbf{Q}_{i} \in\{\forall, \exists\}$ and $\boldsymbol{F}$ is quantifier-free.

- Every FOL $\boldsymbol{F}$ has an equivalent PNF. To convert $\boldsymbol{F}$ into PNF,
(1) Convert $\boldsymbol{F}$ into NNF: $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{1}}$
(2) Rename quantified variables to unique names: $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{2}}$
(3) Remove all quantifiers from $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{2}}: \boldsymbol{F}_{3}$
(9) Add the quantifiers before $\boldsymbol{F}_{3}$ :

$$
F_{4}: \mathbf{Q}_{1} x_{1} \ldots \mathbf{Q}_{n} x_{n} . F_{3}
$$

where $\mathbf{Q}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ are the quantifiers such that if $\mathbf{Q}_{\boldsymbol{j}}$ is in the scope of $\mathbf{Q}_{\boldsymbol{i}}$ in $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{1}}$, then $\boldsymbol{i}<\boldsymbol{j}$.

- A FOL formula is in CNF (DNF) if it is in PNF and its main quantifier-free subformula is in CNF (DNF).


## Example

$$
F: \forall x . \neg(\exists y \cdot p(x, y) \wedge p(x, z)) \vee \exists y \cdot p(x, y)
$$

(1) Conversion to NNF:

$$
F_{1}: \forall x .(\forall y \cdot \neg p(x, y) \vee \neg p(x, z)) \vee \exists y \cdot p(x, y)
$$

(2) Rename quantified variables:

$$
F_{2}: \forall x \cdot(\forall y \cdot \neg p(x, y) \vee \neg p(x, z)) \vee \exists w \cdot p(x, w)
$$

(3) Remove all quantifiers:

$$
F_{3}: \neg p(x, y) \vee \neg p(x, z) \vee p(x, w)
$$

(9) Add the quantifiers before $\boldsymbol{F}_{\mathbf{3}}$ :

$$
F_{4}: \forall x . \forall y \cdot \exists w \cdot \neg p(x, y) \vee \neg p(x, z) \vee p(x, w)
$$

Note that $\forall x \cdot \exists w \cdot \forall y \cdot F_{3}$ is okay, but $\forall y \cdot \exists w \cdot \forall x \cdot F_{3}$ is not.

## Decidability

- Satisfiability can be formalized as a decision problem in formal languages.
- Ex) Let $\boldsymbol{L}_{P L}$ be the set of all satisfiable formulas. Given $\boldsymbol{w}$, is $w \in L_{P L}$ ?
- A formal language $\boldsymbol{L}$ is decidable if there exists a procedure that, given a word $\boldsymbol{w},(1)$ eventually halts and (2) answer yes if $\boldsymbol{w} \in \boldsymbol{L}$ and no if $\boldsymbol{w} \notin \boldsymbol{L}$. Otherwise, $\boldsymbol{L}$ is undecidable.
- $\boldsymbol{L}_{P L}$ is decidable but $L_{F O L}$ is not.


## Summary

- Syntax and semantics of first-order logic
- Satisfiability and validity
- Substitution
- Normal forms
- Soundness, completeness, decidability

