

3 First-Order Logic

First-order logic

- is expressive:
can be used to formalize mathematical concepts,
can be used to encode Turing machines,
but cannot axiomatize natural numbers or uncountable sets,
- has important decidable fragments,
- has interesting logical properties (model and proof theory).

First-order logic is also called (first-order) *predicate logic*.

3.1 Syntax

Syntax:

- non-logical symbols (domain-specific)
⇒ terms, atomic formulas
- logical connectives (domain-independent)
⇒ Boolean combinations, quantifiers

Signatures

A signature $\Sigma = (\Omega, \Pi)$ fixes an alphabet of non-logical symbols, where

- Ω is a set of *function symbols* f with *arity* $n \geq 0$, written $\text{arity}(f) = n$,
- Π is a set of *predicate symbols* P with *arity* $m \geq 0$, written $\text{arity}(P) = m$.

Function symbols are also called *operator symbols*.

If $n = 0$ then f is also called a *constant (symbol)*.

If $m = 0$ then P is also called a *propositional variable*.

We will usually use

b, c, d for constant symbols,

f, g, h for non-constant function symbols,

P, Q, R, S for predicate symbols.

Convention: We will usually write $f/n \in \Omega$ instead of $f \in \Omega$, $\text{arity}(f) = n$ (analogously for predicate symbols).

General First-Order Formulas

$F_\Sigma(X)$ is the set of *first-order formulas* over Σ defined as follows:

$F, G, H ::=$	\perp	(falsum)
	\top	(verum)
	A	(atomic formula)
	$\neg F$	(negation)
	$(F \wedge G)$	(conjunction)
	$(F \vee G)$	(disjunction)
	$(F \rightarrow G)$	(implication)
	$(F \leftrightarrow G)$	(equivalence)
	$\forall x F$	(universal quantification)
	$\exists x F$	(existential quantification)

Notational Conventions

We omit parentheses according to the conventions for propositional logic.

$\forall x_1, \dots, x_n F$ and $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n F$ abbreviate $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n F$ and $\exists x_1 \dots \exists x_n F$.

We use infix-, prefix-, postfix-, or mixfix-notation with the usual operator precedences.

Examples:

$s + t * u$	for	$+(s, *(t, u))$
$s * u \leq t + v$	for	$\leq (*(s, u), +(t, v))$
$-s$	for	$-(s)$
$s!$	for	$!(s)$
$ s $	for	$ _-(s)$
0	for	$0()$

Example: Peano Arithmetic

$$\begin{aligned} \Sigma_{\text{PA}} &= (\Omega_{\text{PA}}, \Pi_{\text{PA}}) \\ \Omega_{\text{PA}} &= \{0/0, +/2, */2, s/1\} \\ \Pi_{\text{PA}} &= \{</2\} \end{aligned}$$

Examples of formulas over this signature are:

$$\begin{aligned} &\forall x, y ((x < y \vee x \approx y) \leftrightarrow \exists z (x + z \approx y)) \\ &\exists x \forall y (x + y \approx y) \\ &\forall x, y (x * s(y) \approx x * y + x) \\ &\forall x, y (s(x) \approx s(y) \rightarrow x \approx y) \\ &\forall x \exists y (x < y \wedge \neg \exists z (x < z \wedge z < y)) \end{aligned}$$

Positions in Terms and Formulas

The set of positions is extended from propositional logic to first-order logic:

The *positions* of a term s (formula F):

$$\begin{aligned} \text{pos}(x) &= \{\varepsilon\}, \\ \text{pos}(f(s_1, \dots, s_n)) &= \{\varepsilon\} \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^n \{ip \mid p \in \text{pos}(s_i)\}, \\ \text{pos}(P(t_1, \dots, t_n)) &= \{\varepsilon\} \cup \bigcup_{i=1}^n \{ip \mid p \in \text{pos}(t_i)\}, \\ \text{pos}(\forall x F) &= \{\varepsilon\} \cup \{1p \mid p \in \text{pos}(F)\}, \\ \text{pos}(\exists x F) &= \{\varepsilon\} \cup \{1p \mid p \in \text{pos}(F)\}. \end{aligned}$$

The prefix order \leq , the subformula (subterm) operator, the formula (term) replacement operator and the size operator are extended accordingly. See the definitions in Sect. 2.

Variables

The *set of variables* occurring in a term t is denoted by $\text{var}(t)$ (and analogously for atoms, literals, clauses, and formulas).

Bound and Free Variables

In $Qx F$, $Q \in \{\exists, \forall\}$, we call F the *scope* of the quantifier Qx . An *occurrence* of a variable x is called *bound*, if it is inside the scope of a quantifier Qx . Any other occurrence of a variable is called *free*.

Formulas without free variables are called *closed formulas* (or *sentential forms*).

Formulas without variables are called *ground*.

Example:

$$\forall y \left(\overbrace{((\forall x \overbrace{P(x)})}^{\text{scope of } \forall x})}^{\text{scope of } \forall y} \right) \rightarrow R(x, y)$$

The occurrence of y is bound, as is the first occurrence of x . The second occurrence of x is a free occurrence.

Substitutions

Substitution is a fundamental operation on terms and formulas that occurs in all inference systems for first-order logic.

Substitutions are mappings

$$\sigma : X \rightarrow T_{\Sigma}(X)$$

such that the *domain* of σ , that is, the set

$$\text{dom}(\sigma) = \{ x \in X \mid \sigma(x) \neq x \},$$

is finite. The set of variables *introduced* by σ , that is, the set of variables occurring in one of the terms $\sigma(x)$, with $x \in \text{dom}(\sigma)$, is denoted by $\text{codom}(\sigma)$.

Substitutions are often written as $\{x_1 \mapsto s_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto s_n\}$, with x_i pairwise distinct, and then denote the mapping

$$\{x_1 \mapsto s_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto s_n\}(y) = \begin{cases} s_i, & \text{if } y = x_i \\ y, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We also write $x\sigma$ for $\sigma(x)$.

The *modification* of a substitution σ at x is defined as follows:

$$\sigma[x \mapsto t](y) = \begin{cases} t, & \text{if } y = x \\ \sigma(y), & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Why Substitution is Complicated

We define the application of a substitution σ to a term t or formula F by structural induction over the syntactic structure of t or F by the equations below.

In the presence of quantification it is surprisingly complex: We must not only ensure that bound variables are not replaced by σ . We must also make sure that the (free) variables in the codomain of σ are not *captured* upon placing them into the scope of a quantifier Qy . Hence the bound variable must be renamed into a “fresh”, that is, previously unused, variable z .

Application of a Substitution

“Homomorphic” extension of σ to terms and formulas:

$$\begin{aligned}f(s_1, \dots, s_n)\sigma &= f(s_1\sigma, \dots, s_n\sigma) \\ \perp\sigma &= \perp \\ \top\sigma &= \top \\ P(s_1, \dots, s_n)\sigma &= P(s_1\sigma, \dots, s_n\sigma) \\ (u \approx v)\sigma &= (u\sigma \approx v\sigma) \\ \neg F\sigma &= \neg(F\sigma) \\ (F \circ G)\sigma &= (F\sigma \circ G\sigma) \quad \text{for each binary connective } \circ \\ (\mathbf{Q}x F)\sigma &= \mathbf{Q}z (F\sigma[x \mapsto z]) \quad \text{with } z \text{ a fresh variable}\end{aligned}$$

If $s = t\sigma$ for some substitution σ , we call the term s an *instance* of the term t , and we call t a *generalization* of s (analogously for formulas).

3.2 Semantics

To give semantics to a logical system means to define a notion of truth for the formulas. The concept of truth that we will now define for first-order logic goes back to Tarski.

As in the propositional case, we use a two-valued logic with truth values “true” and “false” denoted by 1 and 0, respectively.

Algebras

A Σ -algebra (also called Σ -interpretation or Σ -structure) is a triple

$$\mathcal{A} = (U_{\mathcal{A}}, (f_{\mathcal{A}} : U_{\mathcal{A}}^n \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}})_{f/n \in \Omega}, (P_{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq U_{\mathcal{A}}^m)_{P/m \in \Pi})$$

where $U_{\mathcal{A}} \neq \emptyset$ is a set, called the *universe* of \mathcal{A} .

By Σ -Alg we denote the class of all Σ -algebras.

Σ -algebras generalize the valuations from propositional logic.

Assignments

A variable has no intrinsic meaning. The meaning of a variable has to be defined externally (explicitly or implicitly in a given context) by an assignment.

A (*variable*) *assignment* (over a given Σ -algebra \mathcal{A}), is a function $\beta : X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$.

Variable assignments are the semantic counterparts of substitutions.

Value of a Term in \mathcal{A} with respect to β

By structural induction we define

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta) : T_{\Sigma}(X) \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$$

as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}(\beta)(x) &= \beta(x), & x \in X \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(f(s_1, \dots, s_n)) &= f_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A}(\beta)(s_1), \dots, \mathcal{A}(\beta)(s_n)), & f/n \in \Omega \end{aligned}$$

In the scope of a quantifier we need to evaluate terms with respect to modified assignments. To that end, let $\beta[x \mapsto a] : X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$, for $x \in X$ and $a \in U_{\mathcal{A}}$, denote the assignment

$$\beta[x \mapsto a](y) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } x = y \\ \beta(y) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Truth Value of a Formula in \mathcal{A} with respect to β

$\mathcal{A}(\beta) : F_{\Sigma}(X) \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ is defined inductively as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{A}(\beta)(\perp) &= 0 \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(\top) &= 1 \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(P(s_1, \dots, s_n)) &= \text{if } (\mathcal{A}(\beta)(s_1), \dots, \mathcal{A}(\beta)(s_n)) \in P_{\mathcal{A}} \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0 \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(s \approx t) &= \text{if } \mathcal{A}(\beta)(s) = \mathcal{A}(\beta)(t) \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0 \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(\neg F) &= 1 - \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F) \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F \wedge G) &= \min(\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F), \mathcal{A}(\beta)(G)) \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F \vee G) &= \max(\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F), \mathcal{A}(\beta)(G)) \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F \rightarrow G) &= \max(1 - \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F), \mathcal{A}(\beta)(G)) \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F \leftrightarrow G) &= \text{if } \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F) = \mathcal{A}(\beta)(G) \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 0 \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(\forall x F) &= \min_{a \in U_{\mathcal{A}}} \{\mathcal{A}(\beta[x \mapsto a])(F)\} \\ \mathcal{A}(\beta)(\exists x F) &= \max_{a \in U_{\mathcal{A}}} \{\mathcal{A}(\beta[x \mapsto a])(F)\} \end{aligned}$$

Example

The “Standard” interpretation for Peano arithmetic:

$$\begin{aligned}U_{\mathbb{N}} &= \{0, 1, 2, \dots\} \\0_{\mathbb{N}} &= 0 \\s_{\mathbb{N}} &: n \mapsto n + 1 \\+_{\mathbb{N}} &: (n, m) \mapsto n + m *_{\mathbb{N}} &: (n, m) \mapsto n * m \\<_{\mathbb{N}} &= \{(n, m) \mid n \text{ less than } m\}\end{aligned}$$

Note that \mathbb{N} is just one out of many possible Σ_{PA} -interpretations.

Values over \mathbb{N} for sample terms and formulas:

Under the assignment $\beta : x \mapsto 1, y \mapsto 3$ we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{N}(\beta)(s(x) + s(0)) &= 3 \\ \mathbb{N}(\beta)(x + y \approx s(y)) &= 1 \\ \mathbb{N}(\beta)(\forall x, y (x + y \approx y + x)) &= 1 \\ \mathbb{N}(\beta)(\forall z (z < y)) &= 0 \\ \mathbb{N}(\beta)(\forall x \exists y (x < y)) &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Ground Terms and Closed Formulas

If t is a ground term, then $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(t)$ does not depend on β , that is, $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(t) = \mathcal{A}(\beta')(t)$ for every β and β' .

Analogously, if F is a closed formula, then $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F)$ does not depend on β , that is, $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F) = \mathcal{A}(\beta')(F)$ for every β and β' .

An element $a \in U_{\mathcal{A}}$ is called *term-generated*, if $a = \mathcal{A}(\beta)(t)$ for some ground term t .

In general, not every element of an algebra is term-generated.

3.3 Models, Validity, and Satisfiability

F is *true* in \mathcal{A} under assignment β :

$$\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}(\beta)(F) = 1$$

F is *true* in \mathcal{A} (\mathcal{A} is a *model* of F ; F is *valid* in \mathcal{A}):

$$\mathcal{A} \models F \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}, \beta \models F \text{ for all } \beta \in X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$$

F is *valid* (or is a *tautology*):

$$\models F \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A} \models F \quad \text{for all } \mathcal{A} \in \Sigma\text{-Alg}$$

F is called *satisfiable* if there exist \mathcal{A} and β such that $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$. Otherwise F is called *unsatisfiable*.

Entailment and Equivalence

F *entails* (implies) G (or G is a *consequence* of F), written $F \models G$, if for all $\mathcal{A} \in \Sigma\text{-Alg}$ and $\beta \in X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$, we have

$$\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$$

F and G are called *equivalent*, written $F \models\!\!\!\!\!\! \models G$, if for all $\mathcal{A} \in \Sigma\text{-Alg}$ and $\beta \in X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$ we have

$$\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$$

Proposition 3.1 $F \models G$ if and only if $(F \rightarrow G)$ is valid

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose that $(F \rightarrow G)$ is not valid. Then there exist an algebra \mathcal{A} and an assignment β such that $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F \rightarrow G) = 0$, which means that $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F) = 1$ and $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(G) = 0$, or in other words $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$ but not $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$. Consequently, $F \models G$ does not hold.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $F \models G$ does not hold. Then there exist an algebra \mathcal{A} and an assignment β such that $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$ but not $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$. Therefore $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F) = 1$ and $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(G) = 0$, which implies $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F \rightarrow G) = 0$, so $(F \rightarrow G)$ is not valid. \square

Proposition 3.2 $F \models\!\!\!\!\!\! \models G$ if and only if $(F \leftrightarrow G)$ is valid.

Extension to sets of formulas N as in propositional logic, e. g.:

$$N \models F \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{for all } \mathcal{A} \in \Sigma\text{-Alg} \text{ and } \beta \in X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}: \\ \text{if } \mathcal{A}, \beta \models G \text{ for all } G \in N, \text{ then } \mathcal{A}, \beta \models F. \end{array}$$

Validity vs. Unsatisfiability

Validity and unsatisfiability are just two sides of the same medal as explained by the following proposition.

Proposition 3.3 *Let F and G be formulas, let N be a set of formulas. Then*

- (i) F is valid if and only if $\neg F$ is unsatisfiable.
- (ii) $F \models G$ if and only if $F \wedge \neg G$ is unsatisfiable.
- (iii) $N \models G$ if and only if $N \cup \{\neg G\}$ is unsatisfiable.

Hence in order to design a theorem prover (validity checker) it is sufficient to design a checker for unsatisfiability.

Substitution Lemma

Lemma 3.4 *Let \mathcal{A} be a Σ -algebra, let β be an assignment, let σ be a substitution. Then for any Σ -term t*

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta)(t\sigma) = \mathcal{A}(\beta \circ \sigma)(t),$$

where $\beta \circ \sigma : X \rightarrow U_{\mathcal{A}}$ is the assignment $\beta \circ \sigma(x) = \mathcal{A}(\beta)(x\sigma)$.

Proof. We use induction over the structure of Σ -terms.

If $t = x$, then $\mathcal{A}(\beta \circ \sigma)(x) = \beta \circ \sigma(x) = \mathcal{A}(\beta)(x\sigma)$ by definition of $\beta \circ \sigma$.

If $t = f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$, then $\mathcal{A}(\beta \circ \sigma)(f(t_1, \dots, t_n)) = f_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A}(\beta \circ \sigma)(t_1), \dots, \mathcal{A}(\beta \circ \sigma)(t_n)) = f_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A}(\beta)(t_1\sigma), \dots, \mathcal{A}(\beta)(t_n\sigma)) = \mathcal{A}(\beta)(f(t_1\sigma, \dots, t_n\sigma)) = \mathcal{A}(\beta)(f(t_1, \dots, t_n)\sigma)$ by induction. \square

Proposition 3.5 *Let \mathcal{A} be a Σ -algebra, let β be an assignment, let σ be a substitution. Then for every Σ -formula F*

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F\sigma) = \mathcal{A}(\beta \circ \sigma)(F).$$

Corollary 3.6 $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F\sigma \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}, \beta \circ \sigma \models F$

These theorems basically express that the syntactic concept of substitution corresponds to the semantic concept of an assignment.

Two Lemmas

Lemma 3.7 *Let \mathcal{A} be a Σ -algebra. Let F be a Σ -formula with free variables x_1, \dots, x_n . Then*

$$\mathcal{A} \models \forall x_1, \dots, x_n F \text{ if and only if } \mathcal{A} \models F.$$

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose that $\mathcal{A} \models \forall x_1, \dots, x_n F$, that is, $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(\forall x_1, \dots, x_n F) = 1$ for all assignments β . By definition, that means

$$\min_{a_1, \dots, a_n \in U_{\mathcal{A}}} \{\mathcal{A}(\beta[x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n])(F)\} = 1,$$

and therefore $\mathcal{A}(\beta[x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n])(F) = 1$ for all $a_1, \dots, a_n \in U_{\mathcal{A}}$.

Let γ be an arbitrary assignment. We have to show that $\mathcal{A}(\gamma)(F) = 1$. For every $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ define $a_i = \gamma(x_i)$, then $\gamma = \gamma[x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n]$, and therefore $\mathcal{A}(\gamma)(F) = \mathcal{A}(\gamma[x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n])(F) = 1$.

(\Leftarrow) Suppose that $\mathcal{A} \models F$, that is, $\mathcal{A}(\gamma)(F) = 1$ for all assignments γ .

Then in particular $\mathcal{A}(\beta[x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n])(F) = 1$ for all $a_1, \dots, a_n \in U_{\mathcal{A}}$ (take $\gamma = \beta[x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n]$). Therefore

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta)(\forall x_1, \dots, x_n F) = \min_{a_1, \dots, a_n \in U_{\mathcal{A}}} \{\mathcal{A}(\beta[x_1 \mapsto a_1, \dots, x_n \mapsto a_n])(F)\} = 1.$$

□

Note that it is not possible to replace $\mathcal{A} \models \dots$ by $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models \dots$ in Lemma 3.7.

Lemma 3.8 *Let \mathcal{A} be a Σ -algebra. Let F be a Σ -formula with free variables x_1, \dots, x_n . Let σ be a substitution and let y_1, \dots, y_m be the free variables of $F\sigma$. Then*

$$\mathcal{A} \models \forall x_1, \dots, x_n F \text{ implies } \mathcal{A} \models \forall y_1, \dots, y_m F\sigma.$$

Proof. By the previous lemma, we have $\mathcal{A} \models \forall x_1, \dots, x_n F$ if and only if $\mathcal{A} \models F$ and similarly $\mathcal{A} \models \forall y_1, \dots, y_m F\sigma$ if and only if $\mathcal{A} \models F\sigma$. So it suffices to show that $\mathcal{A} \models F$ implies $\mathcal{A} \models F\sigma$. Suppose that $\mathcal{A} \models F$, that is, $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F) = 1$ for all assignments β . Then for every assignment γ , we have by Prop. 3.5 $\mathcal{A}(\gamma)(F\sigma) = \mathcal{A}(\gamma \circ \sigma)(F) = 1$ (take $\beta = \gamma \circ \sigma$), and therefore $\mathcal{A} \models F\sigma$. □

3.4 Algorithmic Problems

Validity(F): $\models F$?

Satisfiability(F): F satisfiable?

Entailment(F, G): does F entail G ?

Model(\mathcal{A}, F): $\mathcal{A} \models F$?

Solve(\mathcal{A}, F): find an assignment β such that $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$.

Solve(F): find a substitution σ such that $\models F\sigma$.

Abduce(F): find G with “certain properties” such that $G \models F$.

Theory of an Algebra

Let $\mathcal{A} \in \Sigma\text{-Alg}$. The (*first-order*) *theory* of \mathcal{A} is defined as

$$\text{Th}(\mathcal{A}) = \{ G \in \text{F}_\Sigma(X) \mid \mathcal{A} \models G \}$$

Problem of axiomatizability:

Given an algebra \mathcal{A} (or a class of algebras) can one *axiomatize* $\text{Th}(\mathcal{A})$, that is, can one write down a formula F (or a recursively enumerable set F of formulas) such that

$$\text{Th}(\mathcal{A}) = \{ G \mid F \models G \}?$$

Two Interesting Theories

Let $\Sigma_{\text{Pres}} = (\{0/0, s/1, +/2\}, \{<\})$ and $\mathbb{N}_+ = (\mathbb{N}, 0, s, +, <)$ its standard interpretation on the natural numbers. $\text{Th}(\mathbb{N}_+)$ is called *Presburger arithmetic* (M. Presburger, 1929). (There is no essential difference when one, instead of \mathbb{N} , considers the integer numbers \mathbb{Z} as standard interpretation.)

Presburger arithmetic is decidable in 3EXPTIME (D. Oppen, JCSS, 16(3):323–332, 1978), and in 2EXPSPACE, using automata-theoretic methods (and there is a constant $c \geq 0$ such that $\text{Th}(\mathbb{Z}_+) \notin \text{NTIME}(2^{2^{cn}})$).

However, $\mathbb{N}_* = (\mathbb{N}, 0, s, +, *, <)$, the standard interpretation of $\Sigma_{\text{PA}} = (\{0/0, s/1, +/2, */2\}, \{<\})$, has as theory the so-called *Peano arithmetic* which is undecidable and not even recursively enumerable.

(Non-)Computability Results

1. For most signatures Σ , validity is undecidable for Σ -formulas.
(One can easily encode Turing machines in most signatures.)
2. Gödel's completeness theorem:
For each signature Σ , the set of valid Σ -formulas is recursively enumerable.
(We will prove this by giving complete deduction systems.)
3. Gödel's incompleteness theorem:
For $\Sigma = \Sigma_{PA}$ and $\mathbb{N}_* = (\mathbb{N}, 0, s, +, *, <)$, the theory $\text{Th}(\mathbb{N}_*)$ is not recursively enumerable.

These complexity results motivate the study of subclasses of formulas (*fragments*) of first-order logic

Some Decidable Fragments

Some decidable fragments:

- *Monadic class*: no function symbols, all predicates unary; validity is NEXPTIME-complete.
- Variable-free formulas without equality: satisfiability is NP-complete. (why?)
- Variable-free Horn clauses (clauses with at most one positive atom): entailment is decidable in linear time.
- Finite model checking is decidable in exponential time and PSPACE-complete.

3.5 Normal Forms and Skolemization

Study of normal forms motivated by

- reduction of logical concepts,
- efficient data structures for theorem proving.

The main problem in first-order logic is the treatment of quantifiers. The subsequent normal form transformations are intended to eliminate many of them.

Prenex Normal Form (Traditional)

Prenex formulas have the form

$$\mathbf{Q}_1 x_1 \dots \mathbf{Q}_n x_n F,$$

where F is quantifier-free and $\mathbf{Q}_i \in \{\forall, \exists\}$; we call $\mathbf{Q}_1 x_1 \dots \mathbf{Q}_n x_n$ the *quantifier prefix* and F the *matrix* of the formula.

Computing prenex normal form by the reduction system \Rightarrow_P :

$$\begin{aligned} H[(F \leftrightarrow G)]_p &\Rightarrow_P H[(F \rightarrow G) \wedge (G \rightarrow F)]_p \\ H[\neg \mathbf{Q}x F]_p &\Rightarrow_P H[\bar{\mathbf{Q}}x \neg F]_p \\ H[((\mathbf{Q}x F) \circ G)]_p &\Rightarrow_P H[\mathbf{Q}y (F\{x \mapsto y\} \circ G)]_p, \\ &\quad \circ \in \{\wedge, \vee\} \\ H[((\mathbf{Q}x F) \rightarrow G)]_p &\Rightarrow_P H[\bar{\mathbf{Q}}y (F\{x \mapsto y\} \rightarrow G)]_p, \\ H[(F \circ (\mathbf{Q}x G))]_p &\Rightarrow_P H[\mathbf{Q}y (F \circ G\{x \mapsto y\})]_p, \\ &\quad \circ \in \{\wedge, \vee, \rightarrow\} \end{aligned}$$

Here y is always assumed to be some fresh variable and $\bar{\mathbf{Q}}$ denotes the quantifier *dual* to \mathbf{Q} , i. e., $\bar{\forall} = \exists$ and $\bar{\exists} = \forall$.

Skolemization

Intuition: replacement of $\exists y$ by a concrete choice function computing y from all the arguments y depends on.

Transformation \Rightarrow_S

(to be applied outermost, *not* in subformulas):

$$\forall x_1, \dots, x_n \exists y F \Rightarrow_S \forall x_1, \dots, x_n F\{y \mapsto f(x_1, \dots, x_n)\}$$

where f/n is a new function symbol (*Skolem function*).

Together: $F \Rightarrow_P^* \underbrace{G}_{\text{prenex}} \Rightarrow_S^* \underbrace{H}_{\text{prenex, no } \exists}$

Theorem 3.9 Let F , G , and H as defined above and closed. Then

- (i) F and G are equivalent.
- (ii) $H \models G$ but the converse is not true in general.
- (iii) G satisfiable (w. r. t. Σ -Alg) $\Leftrightarrow H$ satisfiable (w. r. t. Σ' -Alg) where $\Sigma' = (\Omega \cup SKF, \Pi)$ if $\Sigma = (\Omega, \Pi)$.

The Complete Picture

$$\begin{aligned}
 F &\Rightarrow_P^* Q_1 y_1 \dots Q_n y_n G && (G \text{ quantifier-free}) \\
 &\Rightarrow_S^* \forall x_1, \dots, x_m H && (m \leq n, H \text{ quantifier-free}) \\
 &\Rightarrow_{CNF}^* \underbrace{\underbrace{\forall x_1, \dots, x_m}_{\text{leave out}} \bigwedge_{i=1}^k \underbrace{\bigvee_{j=1}^{n_i} L_{ij}}_{\text{clauses } C_i}}_{F'}
 \end{aligned}$$

$N = \{C_1, \dots, C_k\}$ is called the *clausal (normal) form (CNF)* of F .

Note: The variables in the clauses are implicitly universally quantified.

Theorem 3.10 *Let F be closed. Then $F' \models F$. (The converse is not true in general.)*

Theorem 3.11 *Let F be closed. Then F is satisfiable if and only if F' is satisfiable if and only if N is satisfiable*

Optimization

The normal form algorithm described so far leaves lots of room for optimization. Note that we only can preserve satisfiability anyway due to Skolemization.

- the size of the CNF is exponential when done naively; the transformations we introduced already for propositional logic avoid this exponential growth;
- we want to preserve the original formula structure;
- we want small arity of Skolem functions (see next section).

3.6 Getting Skolem Functions with Small Arity

A clause set that is better suited for automated theorem proving can be obtained using the following steps:

- eliminate trivial subformulas
- replace beneficial subformulas
- produce a negation normal form (NNF)
- apply miniscoping
- rename all variables
- Skolemize
- push quantifiers upward
- apply distributivity

We start with a closed formula.

Elimination of Trivial Subformulas

Eliminate subformulas \top and \perp essentially as in the propositional case modulo associativity/commutativity of \wedge , \vee :

$$\begin{aligned}
 H[(F \wedge \top)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[F]_p \\
 H[(F \vee \perp)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[F]_p \\
 H[(F \leftrightarrow \perp)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\neg F]_p \\
 H[(F \leftrightarrow \top)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[F]_p \\
 H[(F \vee \top)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\top]_p \\
 H[(F \wedge \perp)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\perp]_p \\
 H[\neg \top]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\perp]_p \\
 H[\neg \perp]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\top]_p \\
 H[(F \rightarrow \perp)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\neg F]_p \\
 H[(F \rightarrow \top)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\top]_p \\
 H[(\perp \rightarrow F)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\top]_p \\
 H[(\top \rightarrow F)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[F]_p \\
 H[\text{Q}x \top]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\top]_p \\
 H[\text{Q}x \perp]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\perp]_p
 \end{aligned}$$

Replacement of Beneficial Subformulas

The functions ν and $\bar{\nu}$ that give us an overapproximation for the number of clauses generated by a formula are extended to quantified formulas by

$$\begin{aligned}\nu(\forall x F) &= \nu(\exists x F) = \nu(F), \\ \bar{\nu}(\forall x F) &= \bar{\nu}(\exists x F) = \bar{\nu}(F).\end{aligned}$$

The other cases are defined as for propositional formulas.

Introduce top-down fresh predicates for beneficial subformulas:

$$H[F]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[P(x_1, \dots, x_n)]_p \wedge \text{def}(H, p, P, F)$$

if $\nu(H[F]_p) > \nu(H[P(\dots)]_p \wedge \text{def}(H, p, P, F))$,

where $\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ are the free variables in F , P/n is a predicate new to $H[F]_p$, and $\text{def}(H, p, P, F)$ is defined by

$$\begin{aligned}\forall x_1, \dots, x_n (P(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow F), & \text{ if } \text{pol}(H, p) = 1, \\ \forall x_1, \dots, x_n (F \rightarrow P(x_1, \dots, x_n)), & \text{ if } \text{pol}(H, p) = -1, \\ \forall x_1, \dots, x_n (P(x_1, \dots, x_n) \leftrightarrow F), & \text{ if } \text{pol}(H, p) = 0.\end{aligned}$$

As in the propositional case, one can test $\nu(H[F]_p) > \nu(H[P]_p \wedge \text{def}(H, p, P, F))$ in constant time without actually computing ν .

Negation Normal Form (NNF)

Apply the reduction system \Rightarrow_{NNF} :

$$H[F \leftrightarrow G]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{NNF}} H[(F \rightarrow G) \wedge (G \rightarrow F)]_p$$

if $\text{pol}(H, p) = 1$ or $\text{pol}(H, p) = 0$.

$$H[F \leftrightarrow G]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{NNF}} H[(F \wedge G) \vee (\neg G \wedge \neg F)]_p$$

if $\text{pol}(H, p) = -1$.

$$H[F \rightarrow G]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{NNF}} H[\neg F \vee G]_p$$

$$H[\neg\neg F]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{NNF}} H[F]_p$$

$$H[\neg(F \vee G)]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{NNF}} H[\neg F \wedge \neg G]_p$$

$$H[\neg(F \wedge G)]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{NNF}} H[\neg F \vee \neg G]_p$$

$$H[\neg Qx F]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{NNF}} H[\bar{Q}x \neg F]_p$$

Miniscoping

Apply the reduction system \Rightarrow_{MS} modulo associativity and commutativity of \wedge, \vee . For the rules below we assume that x occurs freely in F, F' , but x does not occur freely in G :

$$\begin{aligned} H[\text{Q}x (F \wedge G)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{MS}} H[(\text{Q}x F) \wedge G]_p \\ H[\text{Q}x (F \vee G)]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{MS}} H[(\text{Q}x F) \vee G]_p \\ H[\forall x (F \wedge F')]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{MS}} H[(\forall x F) \wedge (\forall x F')]_p \\ H[\exists x (F \vee F')]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{MS}} H[(\exists x F) \vee (\exists x F')]_p \\ H[\text{Q}x G]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{MS}} H[G]_p \end{aligned}$$

Variable Renaming

Rename all variables in H such that there are no two different positions p, q with $H|_p = \text{Q}x F$ and $H|_q = \text{Q}'x G$.

Standard Skolemization

Apply the reduction system:

$$H[\exists x F]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{SK}} H[F\{x \mapsto f(y_1, \dots, y_n)\}]_p$$

where p has minimal length,
 $\{y_1, \dots, y_n\}$ are the free variables in $\exists x F$,
and f/n is a new function symbol to H .

Final Steps

Apply the reduction system modulo commutativity of \wedge, \vee to push \forall upward:

$$\begin{aligned} H[(\forall x F) \wedge G]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\forall x (F \wedge G)]_p \\ H[(\forall x F) \vee G]_p &\Rightarrow_{\text{OCNF}} H[\forall x (F \vee G)]_p \end{aligned}$$

Note that variable renaming ensures that x does not occur in G .

Apply the reduction system modulo commutativity of \wedge, \vee to push disjunctions downward:

$$H[(F \wedge F') \vee G]_p \Rightarrow_{\text{CNF}} H[(F \vee G) \wedge (F' \vee G)]_p$$

3.7 Herbrand Interpretations

From now on we shall consider FOL without equality. We assume that Ω contains at least one constant symbol.

An *Herbrand interpretation* (over Σ) is a Σ -algebra \mathcal{A} such that

- $U_{\mathcal{A}} = T_{\Sigma}$ (= the set of ground terms over Σ)
- $f_{\mathcal{A}} : (s_1, \dots, s_n) \mapsto f(s_1, \dots, s_n)$, $f/n \in \Omega$

In other words, *values are fixed* to be ground terms and *functions are fixed* to be the *term constructors*. Only predicate symbols $P/m \in \Pi$ may be freely interpreted as relations $P_{\mathcal{A}} \subseteq T_{\Sigma}^m$.

Proposition 3.12 *Every set of ground atoms I uniquely determines an Herbrand interpretation \mathcal{A} via*

$$(s_1, \dots, s_n) \in P_{\mathcal{A}} \text{ if and only if } P(s_1, \dots, s_n) \in I$$

Thus we shall identify Herbrand interpretations (over Σ) with sets of Σ -ground atoms.

Existence of Herbrand Models

An Herbrand interpretation I is called an *Herbrand model* of F , if $I \models F$.

The importance of Herbrand models lies in the following theorem, which we will prove later in this lecture:

Let N be a set of (universally quantified) Σ -clauses. Then the following properties are equivalent:

- (1) N has a model.
- (2) N has an Herbrand model (over Σ).
- (3) $G_{\Sigma}(N)$ has an Herbrand model (over Σ).

where $G_{\Sigma}(N) = \{ C\sigma \text{ ground clause} \mid (\forall \vec{x} C) \in N, \sigma : X \rightarrow T_{\Sigma} \}$ is the set of *ground instances* of N .