

↳ First-order language

- A **first-order language** is a symbolic language used to express statements in first-order logic. **Well-formed formulas** are its constructed expressions, used to precisely express complex statements about objects and their relationships.
- **Definition 3.1:** The alphabet of a first-order language is defined as follows:
 - (1) Individual constants: $a, b, c, \dots, a_i, b_i, c_i, \dots$, where $i \geq 1$
 - (2) Individual variables: $x, y, z, \dots, x_i, y_i, z_i, \dots$, where $i \geq 1$
 - (3) Function symbols: $f, g, h, \dots, f_i, g_i, h_i, \dots$, where $i \geq 1$
 - (4) Predicate symbols: $F, G, H, \dots, F_i, G_i, H_i, \dots$, where $i \geq 1$
 - (5) Quantifier symbols: \forall, \exists
 - (6) Connective symbols: $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$
 - (7) Parentheses and commas: $() , ,$

↳ Terms and atomic formulas of first-order logic

- **Definition 3.2:** The definition of *terms* in a first-order language is as follows:
 - (1) *Individual constants* and *individual variables* are terms.
 - (2) If $\varphi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is an arbitrary n-ary function symbol, and t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are arbitrary terms, then $\varphi(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ is also a term.
 - (3) All terms are obtained through a finite number of applications of (1) and (2).
- **Definition 3.3:** Let $R(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ be an arbitrary n-ary predicate symbol in a first-order language, and let t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n be arbitrary terms. Then, $R(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ is called an *atomic formula*.

↳ Well-formed formula (predicate formulas or formulas.)

■ **Definition 3.4:** *Well-formed formulas* in a first-order language are defined as follows:

- (1) **Atomic formulas** are well-formed formulas.
 - (2) If A is a well-formed formula, then $\neg A$ is also a well-formed formula.
 - (3) If A and B are well-formed formulas, then $(A \wedge B)$, $(A \vee B)$, $(A \rightarrow B)$, and $(A \leftrightarrow B)$ are also well-formed formulas.
 - (4) If A is a well-formed formula, then $\forall xA$ and $\exists xA$ are also well-formed formulas.
 - (5) Only those expressions formed by a finite application of rules (1) through (4) are considered well-formed formulas.
- Well-formed formulas are also referred to as *predicate formulas* or simply *formulas*.

↳ Bound Variable and Bound Occurrences

- **Definition 3.5:** In the formulas $\forall xA$ and $\exists xA$, x is called the *bound variable* (or binder), and A is the scope of the respective quantifier. In the scope of $\forall x$ and $\exists x$, all occurrences of x are called *bound occurrences*. Variables in A that are not bound occurrences are called *free occurrences*.

e.g. >>> **Example:** The formula $\forall x(F(x,y) \rightarrow \exists yG(x,y,z))$

- The scope of $\forall x$ is $(F(x,y) \rightarrow \exists yG(x,y,z))$, with x as the **bound variable**. Both occurrences of x are **bound occurrences**.
- The scope of $\exists y$ is $G(x,y,z)$, with y as the **bound variable**.
- The first occurrence of y is a **free occurrence**, and the second occurrence is a **bound occurrence**.
- z is a **free occurrence**.

↳ Closed well-formed formula(closed formula)

e.g. >>> Example: The formula $\forall x(F(x) \rightarrow \exists xG(x))$

- The scope of $\forall x$ is $(F(x) \rightarrow \exists xG(x))$, with x as the bound variable.
 - The scope of $\exists x$ is $G(x)$, with x as the bound variable.
 - Both occurrences of x are bound occurrences: the first in $\forall x$, and the second in $\exists x$.
- **Closed formula:** A formula that contains no free occurrences of individual variables is called a *closed well-formed formula*, abbreviated as *closed formula*.

↳ Interpretation, assignment, and quantification of formulas

- A formula is merely a framework of logical expressions. To evaluate its truth value, the following tasks must be completed:
 - (1) **Interpretation:** Assign specific (semantic) meaning to this framework.
 - (2) **Assignment:** Under a given interpretation, assign values to the free variables in the formula.
 - (3) **Quantification:** Eliminate the free variables so that the truth value of the formula no longer depends on specific assignments but is determined by the overall situation of all possible assignments.

↳ Interpretation, assignment, and quantification of formulas(e.g.)

e.g. >>> Example: Formula $\forall x(F(x) \rightarrow G(x))$

- **Specification 1: Domain:** All individuals. $F(x)$: x is a person. $G(x)$: x is Asian. This formula translates to "For all x , if x is a person, then x is Asian." This is a **false statement** because not all people are Asian.
- **Specification 2: Domain:** The set of real numbers. $F(x)$: $x > 10$. $G(x)$: $x > 0$. This formula translates to "For all x , if $x > 10$, then $x > 0$." This is a **true statement** because any number greater than 10 is also greater than 0.

e.g. >>> Example: Formula $\exists xF(x,y)$

- **Specification: Domain:** The set of natural numbers. $F(x,y)$: $x = y$. $y = 0$. Since x,y both belong to the set of natural numbers N , for any $y \in N$, there exists an $x=y$ such that the equation holds. Therefore, the statement is **always true**.

↳ Interpretation, assignment, and quantification of formulas (e.g.)

e.g. >>> Example: Given the interpretation I and assignment σ as follows :

- ① Definition $D=N$; ② $\bar{a} = 0$; ③ $\bar{f}(x, y) = x + y, \bar{g}(x, y) = xy$) ;
 ④ $\bar{F}(x, y): x = y$. Value σ : $\sigma(x)=0, \sigma(y)=1, \sigma(z)=2$.

Explain the meaning of the following formula under interpretation I and assignment σ , and discuss its truth value.

- | | | |
|---|--|-------|
| (1) $\forall x F(g(x, a), y)$ | $\forall x (0x=1)$ | False |
| (2) $\forall x \forall y (F(f(x, a), y) \rightarrow F(f(y, a), x))$ | $f(x, a)=x, f(y, a)=y, \forall x \forall y (F(x, y) \rightarrow F(y, x)), (x=y) \rightarrow (y=x)$ | Truth |
| (3) $\forall x \forall y \exists z F(f(x, y), z)$ | $x \forall y \exists z (x+y=z)$ | Truth |
| (4) $\exists x F(f(x, y), g(x, z))$ | $\exists x (x+1=2x)$ | Truth |
| (5) $F(f(x, a), g(y, a))$ | $x+0=1 \times 0$ | Truth |
| (6) $\forall x (F(x, y) \rightarrow \exists y F(f(x, a), g(y, a)))$ | $\forall x (x=1 \rightarrow \exists y (x+2=2y))$ | False |

↳ Classification of first-order Logic formulas

- **Tautology** (logically valid formula): no false interpretation and assignment.
 - **Contradiction** (contravalid formula): no true interpretation and assignment.
 - **Satisfiable formula**: at least one true interpretation and assignment.
- i**
- A tautology is a satisfiable formula, but the converse is not true.
 - In first-order logic, the satisfiability (tautology, contradiction) of a formula is undecidable, meaning there is no algorithm that can determine in finite steps whether a given formula is satisfiable (a tautology, a contradiction).

↳ Substitution instance of a propositional formula

- **Definition 3.6:** Let A_0 be a propositional formula containing propositional variables p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n , and let A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n be predicate formulas. The formula A , obtained by uniformly replacing each p_i (for $1 \leq i \leq n$) in A_0 with A_i , is called a *substitution instance* of A_0 .
 - Such as: $F(x) \rightarrow G(x)$ and $\forall x F(x) \rightarrow \exists y G(y)$ are substitution instances of $p \rightarrow q$.
- **Theorem 3.2:** All substitution instances of a tautology are **logically valid**, and all substitution instances of a contradiction are **contradictions**.

↳ Classification of first-order Logic formulas(e.g.)

e.g. >>> Example: Determine the type of the following formula:

(1) $\forall x(F(x) \rightarrow G(x))$

I_1 : $D_1 = \mathbb{R}$, $\bar{F}(x)$: x integer, $\bar{G}(x)$: x is rational. (1) is a true proposition.

I_2 : $D_2 = \mathbb{R}$, $\bar{F}(x)$: x integer, $\bar{G}(x)$: x is natural number. (1) is a false proposition. (1) is a satisfiable formula (not logically valid formula).

(2) $\neg(\forall x F(x, y)) \vee (\forall x F(x, y))$,

$\neg p \vee p$ substitution instances , $\neg p \vee p$ tautology, (2) is a tautology.

(3) $\neg(\forall x F(x) \rightarrow \exists y G(y)) \wedge \exists y G(y)$,

$\neg(p \rightarrow q) \wedge q$ substitution instances, $\neg(p \rightarrow q) \wedge q$ contradiction, (3) is a contradiction.

↳ Classification of first-order Logic formulas(e.g.)

e.g. >>> Example: Determine the type of the following formula:

(4) $\forall xF(x,y)$

I_1 : $D_1=N$, $\bar{F}(x,y): x \geq y$, Assign $\sigma(y)=0$.

(4) is a true proposition.

I_2 : $D_2=N$, $\bar{F}(x,y): x \geq y$, Assign $\sigma(y)=1$.

(4) is a false proposition.

(4) is a satisfiable formula (not logically valid formula).

3.1 Basic Concepts of First-Order Logic • Brief summary

Objective :

Key Concepts :



Discrete Mathematics 2025 Spring



魏可佶 kejiwei@tongji.edu.cn



- 3.1 Basic Concepts of First-Order Logic
- 3.2 Equivalence Calculus of First-Order Logic

■ 3.2.1 First-Order Logic Equivalences and Substitution Rules

Basic Equivalences Substitution Rules, Renaming Rules

■ 3.2.2 Prenex normal form of first-order logic

2.2.1 Equivalence Expressions and Equivalence Calculus

↳ Basic Equivalence Expressions

- Double Negation Law: $\neg\neg A \Leftrightarrow A$
- Idempotent Law: $A \vee A \Leftrightarrow A, A \wedge A \Leftrightarrow A$
- Commutative Law: $A \vee B \Leftrightarrow B \vee A, A \wedge B \Leftrightarrow B \wedge A$
- Associative Law:
 $(A \vee B) \vee C \Leftrightarrow A \vee (B \vee C)$
 $(A \wedge B) \wedge C \Leftrightarrow A \wedge (B \wedge C)$
- Distributive Law:
 $A \vee (B \wedge C) \Leftrightarrow (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$
 $A \wedge (B \vee C) \Leftrightarrow (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$
- De Morgan's Laws:
 $\neg(A \vee B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A \wedge \neg B$
 $\neg(A \wedge B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A \vee \neg B$
- Absorption Law:
 $A \vee (A \wedge B) \Leftrightarrow A$
 $A \wedge (A \vee B) \Leftrightarrow A$

2.2.1 Equivalence Expressions and Equivalence Calculus

↳ Basic Equivalence Expressions (cont.)

- Zero Law: $A \vee 1 \Leftrightarrow 1, A \wedge 0 \Leftrightarrow 0$
- Identity Law: $A \vee 0 \Leftrightarrow A, A \wedge 1 \Leftrightarrow A$
- Law of the Excluded Middle: $A \vee \neg A \Leftrightarrow 1$
- Law of Contradiction: $A \wedge \neg A \Leftrightarrow 0$
- Implication Equivalence: $A \rightarrow B \Leftrightarrow \neg A \vee B$
- Biconditional Equivalence: $A \leftrightarrow B \Leftrightarrow (A \rightarrow B) \wedge (B \rightarrow A)$
- Contraposition: $A \rightarrow B \Leftrightarrow \neg B \rightarrow \neg A$
- Negation of Equivalence: $A \leftrightarrow B \Leftrightarrow \neg A \leftrightarrow \neg B$
- Reductio ad Absurdum (Proof by Contradiction):
$$(A \rightarrow B) \wedge (A \rightarrow \neg B) \Leftrightarrow \neg A$$

↳ Tautology $A \leftrightarrow B$ vs. Equivalence $A \Leftrightarrow B$

- **Definition 3.7:** If $A \leftrightarrow B$ is a tautology (a valid formula), then A and B are called equivalent, denoted by $A \Leftrightarrow B$, and $A \Leftrightarrow B$ is referred to as an *equivalence*.
- There are 24 propositional basic equivalences and their substitution examples, all of which are equivalences in first-order logic.
- For example:

$$\forall x F(x) \rightarrow \exists y G(y) \Leftrightarrow \neg \forall x F(x) \vee \exists y G(y)$$

$$\neg(\forall x F(x) \vee \exists y G(y)) \Leftrightarrow \neg \forall x F(x) \wedge \neg \exists y G(y) \quad \text{and so on}$$

↳ Quantifier Elimination Equivalences

- **Quantifier Elimination Equivalences:** To transform logical expressions to remove quantifiers (\exists , \forall), yielding an equivalent quantifier-free form.

- Let $D = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$

$$\forall x A(x) \Leftrightarrow A(a_1) \wedge A(a_2) \wedge \dots \wedge A(a_n)$$

$$\exists x A(x) \Leftrightarrow A(a_1) \vee A(a_2) \vee \dots \vee A(a_n)$$

↳ Quantifier Negation Equivalences

- **Quantifier Negation Equivalences:** To convert quantifiers (\forall and \exists) and negation (\neg), changing the scope of the negation without altering the logical meaning.
 - Let $A(x)$ be a formula in which x appears freely.

$$\neg \forall x A(x) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \neg A(x)$$

$$\neg \exists x A(x) \Leftrightarrow \forall x \neg A(x)$$

↳ Quantifier Negation Equivalences

- **Quantifier Distribution Equivalences:** To allocate or restructure quantifiers (\forall , \exists) to interact correctly with logical operations (\wedge , \vee , \rightarrow) while preserving logical equivalence.

- $\forall x(A(x) \wedge B(x)) \Leftrightarrow \forall xA(x) \wedge \forall xB(x)$

- $\exists x(A(x) \vee B(x)) \Leftrightarrow \exists xA(x) \vee \exists xB(x)$

i Attention: \forall to \vee , \exists to \wedge no Quantifier Distribution Equivalences.

↳ Quantifier scope reduction and expansion equivalences

- **Quantifier scope reduction and expansion equivalences:** To adjust the scope of quantifiers (\forall , \exists) while preserving logical equivalence.
 - Let $A(x)$ be a formula in which x appears freely, and let B be a formula in which x does not appear.

Universal quantifier

$$\forall x(A(x) \vee B) \Leftrightarrow \forall xA(x) \vee B$$

$$\forall x(A(x) \wedge B) \Leftrightarrow \forall xA(x) \wedge B$$

$$\forall x(A(x) \rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow \exists xA(x) \rightarrow B$$

$$\forall x(B \rightarrow A(x)) \Leftrightarrow B \rightarrow \forall xA(x)$$

Existential quantifier

$$\exists x(A(x) \vee B) \Leftrightarrow \exists xA(x) \vee B$$

$$\exists x(A(x) \wedge B) \Leftrightarrow \exists xA(x) \wedge B$$

$$\exists x(A(x) \rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow \forall xA(x) \rightarrow B$$

$$\exists x(B \rightarrow A(x)) \Leftrightarrow B \rightarrow \exists xA(x)$$

■ Substitution Rule:

Let $\Phi(A)$ be a formula containing formula A , and $\Phi(B)$ be the formula obtained by replacing all occurrences of A in $\Phi(A)$ with formula B . Then, $\Phi(A) \Leftrightarrow \Phi(B)$.

■ Renaming Rule:

In a formula A , change the bound variables (and their occurrences within the scope of the quantifier) of a quantifier to an individual term that has not appeared within the scope of that quantifier. The rest of the formula remains unchanged, and the resulting formula is denoted as A' . Then, $A' \Leftrightarrow A$.

Note:

- (1) *Substitution* can be used to transform expressions and find equivalent forms of expression.
- (2) *Renaming* can eliminate variable name conflicts and clarify the scope of quantifiers.
- (3) When substituting, the replaced terms should not become variables within the scope of some quantifier.
- (4) When renaming, only the variable names bound by quantifiers are changed, and the rest of the formula structure remains unchanged.

e.g. >>> **Example:** Eliminate the individual variables that appear both in the constraints and as free variables in the equation.

$$(1) \forall xF(x,y,z) \rightarrow \exists yG(x,y,z)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall uF(u,y,z) \rightarrow \exists yG(x,y,z)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall uF(u,y,z) \rightarrow \exists vG(x,v,z) \quad (\text{Renaming Rule Equivalence})$$

Avoid variable confusion and improve expression readability and consistency.

$$(2) \forall x(F(x,y) \rightarrow \exists yG(x,y,z))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x(F(x,y) \rightarrow \exists tG(x,t,z)) \quad (\text{Renaming Rule Equivalence})$$

Only changed the bound variable name of the existential quantifier y .

e.g. >>> **Example:** Let the domain of individuals be $D=\{a,b,c\}$, eliminate the quantifiers in the following formula:

(1) $\forall x(F(x)\rightarrow G(x))$

$$\Leftrightarrow (F(a)\rightarrow G(a))\wedge(F(b)\rightarrow G(b))\wedge(F(c)\rightarrow G(c))$$

(2) $\forall x(F(x)\vee\exists yG(y))$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall xF(x)\vee\exists yG(y) \quad (\text{Quantifier scope reduction})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (F(a)\wedge F(b)\wedge F(c))\vee(G(a)\vee G(b)\vee G(c))$$

(3) $\exists x\forall yF(x,y)$

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists x(F(x,a)\wedge F(x,b)\wedge F(x,c))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (F(a,a)\wedge F(a,b)\wedge F(a,c))\vee(F(b,a)\wedge F(b,b)\wedge F(b,c))$$

$$\vee(F(c,a)\wedge F(c,b)\wedge F(c,c))$$

e.g. >>> Example: Given I : (a) $D=\{2,3\}$, (b) $\bar{f}: \bar{f}(2) = 3, \bar{f}(3) = 2$,

(c) $\bar{F}(x)$: x is even, $\bar{G}(x, y)$: $x=2 \vee y=2$, $\bar{L}(x, y)$: $x=y$.

Solve the true value under I :

(1) $\exists x(F(f(x)) \wedge G(x, f(x)))$

Solve: $(F(f(2)) \wedge G(2, f(2))) \vee (F(f(3)) \wedge G(3, f(3)))$

$$\Leftrightarrow (1 \wedge 1) \vee (0 \wedge 1) \Leftrightarrow 1$$

(2) $\exists x \forall y L(x, y)$

Solve: $\forall y L(2, y) \vee \forall y L(3, y)$

$$\Leftrightarrow (L(2,2) \wedge L(2,3)) \vee (L(3,2) \wedge L(3,3))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (1 \wedge 0) \vee (0 \wedge 1) \Leftrightarrow 0$$

e.g. >>> **Example:** Prove the following equivalence:

$$\neg \exists x(M(x) \wedge F(x)) \Leftrightarrow \forall x(M(x) \rightarrow \neg F(x))$$

Prove:

$$\text{Left} \Leftrightarrow \forall x \neg(M(x) \wedge F(x)) \quad (\text{De Morgan's laws for quantifiers})$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x(\neg M(x) \vee \neg F(x))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x(M(x) \rightarrow \neg F(x))$$

i The proof applies three key logical transformation rules: quantifier negation, De Morgan's laws, and implication equivalence.

■ 3.2.1 First-Order Logic Equivalences and Substitution Rules

Basic Equivalences Substitution Rules, Renaming Rules

■ 3.2.2 Prenex normal form of first-order logic

↳ Prenex normal form

- **Definition 3.8:** Let A be a first-order logic formula. If A has the form

$$Q_1x_1Q_2x_2\dots Q_kx_k B$$

where each Q_i is either \forall or \exists (for $1 \leq i \leq k$), and B is a formula without quantifiers, then A is called a *prenex normal form*.

e.g. >>> **Examples:**

$\forall x \exists y (F(x) \rightarrow (G(y) \wedge H(x, y)))$ (prenex normal form)

$\forall x \neg (F(x) \wedge G(x))$ (prenex normal form)

$\forall x (F(x) \rightarrow \exists y (G(y) \wedge H(x, y)))$ (not prenex normal form)

$\neg \exists x (F(x) \wedge G(x))$ (not prenex normal form)

Objective :

Key Concepts :

Objective :

Key Concepts :