

#### ↳ Examples

*e.g.* >>> **Example:** Symbolize the following propositions:

- (1) Rabbits run faster than turtles.
- (2) Some rabbits run faster than all turtles.
- (3) Not all rabbits run faster than turtles.
- (4) There do not exist rabbits and turtles that run at the same speed.

■ **Solution:** Using a universal domain, let:

- $F(x)$ :  $x$  is a rabbit.
- $G(y)$ :  $y$  is a turtle.
- $H(x,y)$ :  $x$  runs faster than  $y$ .
- $L(x,y)$ :  $x$  and  $y$  run at the same speed.

(1)  $\forall x \forall y (F(x) \wedge G(y) \rightarrow H(x,y))$

(2)  $\exists x (F(x) \wedge \forall y (G(y) \rightarrow H(x,y)))$

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

(4)  $\neg \exists x \exists y (F(x) \wedge G(y) \wedge L(x,y))$

#### ↳ Notices

- The use of **unary** and  **$n$ -ary** predicates.
- The **distinction** between universal and **existential** quantifiers.
- When multiple quantifiers appear, their **order** cannot be arbitrarily swapped.

Such as: in the domain of real numbers  $R$ , let  $H(x,y): x+y=10$

- $\forall x \exists y H(x,y)$  has a truth value of 1
- $\exists y \forall x H(x,y)$  has a truth value of 0
- The symbolization of propositions is **not unique**.

Such as: based on the previous example, there are the following alternative symbolizations:

$$(1) \forall x(F(x) \rightarrow \forall y(G(y) \rightarrow H(x,y))) \quad (\forall x \forall y(F(x) \wedge G(y) \rightarrow H(x,y)))$$

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

$$(4) \forall x \forall y(F(x) \wedge G(y) \rightarrow \neg L(x,y)) \quad (\neg \exists x \exists y(F(x) \wedge G(y) \wedge L(x,y)))$$

- 3.1.1 The Limitations of Propositional Logic
- 3.1.2 Individual Terms, Predicates, and Quantifiers
- 3.1.3 Symbolization of First-Order Logic
- **3.1.4 First-Order Logic Formulas and Classification**
  - First-order language (alphabet, terms, atomic formulas, compound formulas)
  - Scope and bound variables, bound occurrences and free occurrences
  - Closed formulas
  - Interpretation of first-order language
  - Tautologies, contradictions, and satisfiable formulas
  - Substitution examples

### ↳ 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  $\sigma$  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  $\sigma$ :  $\sigma(x)=0, \sigma(y)=1, \sigma(z)=2$ .

Explain the meaning of the following formula under interpretation  $I$  and assignment  $\sigma$ , 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) $\forall x (F(x, y) \rightarrow \exists y F(f(x, a), g(y, a)))$ | $\forall x (x=1 \rightarrow \exists y (x=0))$  | 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



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- 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.