

## 2 Review of First-Order Logic

*First-order logic* (also called *predicate logic*) is an extension of propositional logic that is much more useful than propositional logic. It was created as a way of formalizing common mathematical reasoning. You should have seen first-order logic previously. This section is only review.

In first-order logic, you start with a nonempty set of values called the *universe of discourse*  $U$ . Logical statements talk about properties of values in  $U$  and relationships among those values.

### 2.1 Predicates

In place of propositional variables, first-order logic uses *predicates*.

**Definition 2.1.** A *predicate*  $P$  takes zero or more parameters  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  and yields either true or false. First-order formula  $P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  is the value of predicate  $P$  with parameters  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . A predicate with no parameters is a propositional variable. If  $P$  takes no parameters then  $P$  is a first-order formula.

Suppose that  $U$  is the set of all integers. Here are some examples of predicates. There is no standard collection of predicates that are always used. Rather, each of these is like a function definition in a computer program; different programs contain different functions.

- We might define  $\text{even}(n)$  to be true if  $n$  is even. For example  $\text{even}(4)$  is true and  $\text{even}(5)$  is false.
- We might define  $\text{greater}(x, y)$  to be true if  $x > y$ . For example,  $\text{greater}(7, 3)$  is true and  $\text{greater}(3, 7)$  is false.
- We might define  $\text{increasing}(x, y, z)$  to be true if  $x < y < z$ . For example,  $\text{increasing}(2, 4, 6)$  is true and  $\text{increasing}(2, 4, 2)$  is false.

## 2.2 Terms

A *term* is an expression that stands for a particular value in  $U$ . The simplest kind of term is a *variable*, which can stand for any value in  $U$ .

A *function* takes zero or more parameters that are members of  $U$  and yields a member of  $U$ . Here are examples of functions that might be defined when  $U$  is the set of all integers.

- A function with no parameters is called a *constant*. We might define function zero with no parameters to be the constant 0.
- We might define  $\text{successor}(n)$  to be  $n + 1$ . For example,  $\text{successor}(2) = 3$ .
- We might define  $\text{sum}(m, n)$  to be  $m + n$ . For example,  $\text{sum}(5, 7) = 12$ .
- We might define  $\text{largest}(a, b, c)$  to be the largest of  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ . For example,  $\text{largest}(3, 9, 4) = 9$  and  $\text{largest}(4, 4, 4) = 4$ .

**Definition 2.2.** A *term* is defined as follows.

1. A *variable* is a term. We use single letters such as  $x$  and  $y$  for variables.
2. If  $f$  is a function that takes no parameters then  $f$  is a term (standing for a value in  $U$ ).
3. If  $f$  is a function that takes  $n > 0$  parameters and  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are terms then  $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  is a term.

For example,  $\text{sum}(\text{sum}(x, y), \text{successor}(z))$  is a term.

The meaning of a term should be clear, provided the values of variables are known. Term  $\text{sum}(x, y)$  stands for the result that function  $\text{sum}$  yields on parameters  $(x, y)$  (the sum of  $x$  and  $y$ ).

## 2.3 First-order formulas

**Definition 2.3.** A *first-order formula* is defined as follows.

1.  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\mathbf{F}$  are first-order formulas.
2. If  $P$  is a predicates that takes no parameters then  $P$  is a first-order formula.
3. If  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are terms and  $P$  is a predicate that takes  $n > 0$  parameters, then  $P(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  is a first-order formula. It is true if  $P(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  is true, where  $v_1$  is the value of term  $t_1$ ,  $v_2$  is the value of term  $t_2$ , etc.
4. If  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are terms then  $t_1 = t_2$  is a first-order formula. (It is true if terms  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  have the same value.)
5. If  $A$  and  $B$  are first-order formulas and  $x$  is a variable then each of the following is a first-order formula.
  - (a)  $(A)$
  - (b)  $\neg A$
  - (c)  $A \vee B$
  - (d)  $A \wedge B$
  - (e)  $\forall x A$
  - (f)  $\exists x A$

The meaning of parentheses,  $\mathbf{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{F}$ ,  $\neg$ ,  $\vee$  and  $\wedge$  are the same as in propositional logic. Symbols  $\forall$  and  $\exists$  are called *quantifiers*. You read  $\forall x$  as “for all  $x$ ”, and  $\exists x$  as “for some  $x$ ” or “there exists an  $x$ ”. They have the following meanings.

1.  $\forall x A$  is true if  $A$  is true for all values of  $x$  in  $U$ .
2.  $\exists x A$  is true if  $A$  is true for at least one value of  $x$  in  $U$ .

By convention, quantifiers have higher precedence than all of the operators  $\wedge$ ,  $\vee$ , etc.

Examples of first-order formulas are:

1.  $P(\text{sum}(x, y))$  says that, if  $v = \text{sum}(x, y)$ , then  $P(v)$  is true. Its value (true or false) depends on the meanings of predicate  $P$  and function  $\text{sum}$ , as well as on the values of variables  $x$  and  $y$ .
2.  $\forall x(\text{greater}(x, x))$  says that  $\text{greater}(x, x)$  is true for every value  $x$  in  $U$ . Using the meaning of  $\text{greater}(a, b)$  given above,  $\forall x(\text{greater}(x, x))$  is clearly false, since no  $x$  can be greater than itself.
3.  $\neg\forall x(\text{greater}(x, x))$  says that  $\forall x(\text{greater}(x, x))$  is false. That is true.
4.  $\exists y(y = \text{sum}(y, y))$  says that there exists a value  $y$  where  $y = y + y$ . That is true since  $0 = 0 + 0$ .
5.  $\forall x(\exists y(\text{greater}(y, x)))$  says that, for every value  $v$  of  $x$ , first-order formula  $\exists y(\text{greater}(y, v))$  is true. That is true. If  $v = 100$ , then choose  $y = 101$ , which is larger than 100. If  $v = 1000$ , choose  $y = 1001$ . If  $v = 1,000,000$ , choose  $y = 1,000,001$ .
6.  $\exists y(\forall x(\text{greater}(y, x)))$  says that there exists a value  $v$  of  $y$  so that  $\forall x(\text{greater}(v, x))$ . That is false. There is no single value  $v$  that is larger than every integer  $x$ .

Operators  $\rightarrow$ ,  $\leftrightarrow$  and  $\equiv$  have the same meanings in first-order logic as in propositional logic.

## 2.4 Sentences

Example 1 above uses variable  $x$  and  $y$ , and its value cannot be determined without knowing the values of  $x$  and  $y$ . It only makes sense if the values of  $x$  and  $y$  have already been specified. Think of them as similar to global variables in a function definition in a computer program.

The other examples above do not depend on any variable values. They manage their own variables, and are similar to a function definition that only uses local variables.

We say that variable  $x$  is *bound* if it occurs inside  $A$  in a first-order formula of the form  $\forall x A$  or  $\exists x A$ .

**Definition 2.4.** A first-order formula is a *sentence* if all of its variables are bound.

Table 2-1. Some valid equivalences
$\exists x P(x) \vee \neg \exists x P(x)$
$\forall x P(x) \wedge \exists y Q(y) \equiv \exists y Q(y) \wedge \forall x P(x)$
$\neg(\forall x A) \equiv \exists x(\neg A)$
$\neg(\exists x A) \equiv \forall x(\neg A)$
$\forall x(A \wedge B) \equiv \forall x A \wedge \forall x B$
$\forall x A \rightarrow \exists x A$

## 2.5 Validity

Recall that a propositional formula is *valid* if it is true for all values of the variables that it contains. There is a similar concept of validity for first-order formulas.

**Definition 2.5.** Suppose that  $S$  is a sentence of first-order logic. (That is, it does not contain any unbound variables.) We say that  $S$  is *valid* if it is true regardless of the universe of discourse and the meanings of the predicates and functions that it mentions.

One way to get a valid first-order formula is to substitute first-order formulas into a propositional tautology. The following table lists two valid first-order formulas found in that way. Table 2-1 lists a few valid first-order equivalences, the first two of which are examples of substituting a first-order formula into a propositional equivalence.

## 2.6 Notation

First-order logic notation is usually extended to include common mathematical notation. For example, we write  $x > y$  rather than  $\text{greater}(x, y)$ , and  $x + y$  rather than  $\text{sum}(x, y)$ . Constants such as 0, 1 and 200 are also usually allowed. Instead of writing  $\text{even}(x)$ , we write “ $x$  is even”. For example,

$$\forall x(x \text{ is even} \wedge y \text{ is even} \rightarrow x + y \text{ is even})$$

is true. Those notational changes make first-order logic more readable.

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