

## Lecture #13, Continued; Oct. 30

### Extending Boolean Logic

Boolean Logic can deal only with the Boolean glue: properties and behaviour.

Can certify tautologies, but it *misses* many other truths as we will see, *like*  $x = x$  where  $x$  stands for a mathematical object like a matrix, string, array, number, etc.

One of the obvious reasons is that Boolean logic cannot even “see” or “speak” about mathematical objects.



*If it cannot see or speak about them, then naturally cannot reason about them either!*



E.g, we cannot say inside Boolean logic the sentence “every natural number greater than 1 has a prime factor”.

Boolean Logic *does not know* what “every” means or what a “number” is, what “natural” means, what is “1”, what “greater” means, what “prime” is, or what “factor” is.

In fact it is worse than not “knowing”: It cannot even say any one of the concepts listed above.

Its alphabet and language is extremely limited.

*We need a richer language!*

**0.0.1 Example.** Look at these two math statements. The first says that *two sets are equal iff they have the same elements*. The second says that *any object is equal to itself*.

We read “ $(\forall x)$ ” below as “*for all values of  $x$* ”, usually said MORE SIMPLY as, “*for all  $x$* ”.

$$(\forall y)(\forall z)\left((\forall x)(x \in y \equiv x \in z) \rightarrow y = z\right) \quad (1)$$

and

$$x = x \quad (2)$$

Boolean Logic is a *very high level* (= very non-detailed) abstraction of Mathematics.

Since Boolean Logic cannot see object variables  $x, y, z$ , cannot see  $\forall$  or  $=$ , *nor can penetrate inside the so-called “scope” of  $(\forall z)$* —that is, the big brackets above—it myopically understands each (1) and (2) as atomic statements  $p$  and  $q$  (not seeing inside the scope it sees no “glue”).

Thus Boolean logic, if forced to opine about the above it will say none of the above is a theorem (by soundness).

Yet, (1) is a theorem of *Set Theory* and (2) is an *axiom in ALL mathematics*.

Says: “**Every object is equal to itself.**” □

## Enter First-Order Logic or Predicate Logic.

Predicate logic is *the language AND logic* of mathematics and mathematical sciences.

*In it we CAN “speak” (1) and (2) above and reason about them.*

### 0.1. The language of First-Order Logic

What symbols are *absolutely necessary* to *include* in the Alphabet,  $\mathcal{V}_1$  —the subscript “1” for “1st-order”— of Predicate Logic?

Well, let us enumerate:

#### 0.1.1 Definition. (The 1st-order alphabet; first part)

1. First of all, we are *EXTENDING*, *NOT* discarding, *Boolean Logic*. So we include in  $\mathcal{V}_1$  *all of Boolean Logic’s symbols*  $\mathbf{p}, \perp, \top, (, ), \neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \equiv$ , where  $\mathbf{p}$  stands for any of the infinitely many Boolean variables.
2. Then we need *object variables* —that is variables that stand for *mathematical objects*—  $x, y, z, u, v, w$  with or without primes or subscripts. So, these are infinitely many.

*Metanotation* that stands for any of them will be bold face, but using the same letters with or without primes or subscripts:  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}'_5, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}''_{123}$ , etc.

3. *Equality* between mathematical objects:  $=$
4. *New glue*:  $\forall$

We call this glue *universal quantifier*. It is pronounced “for all”.

*Is that all? No. But let’s motivate with two examples.*

□

**0.1.2 Example. (Set theory)** The language of set theory needs also a binary relation or *predicate* up in front: Denoted by “ $\in$ ”. **BUT nothing else.**

All else is “*manufactured*” in the theory, that is, introduced by definitions.

The manufactured symbols include *constants* like our familiar  $\mathbb{N}$  (the *set of natural numbers*, albeit set theorists often prefer the symbol “ $\omega$ ”), our familiar *constant* “ $\emptyset$ ” (the empty set).

Also include *functions* like  $\cup, \cap$  and relations or *predicates* like  $\subset, \subseteq$ .

So set theory needs no constants or functions up in front to start “operating” (proving theorems, that is). □

**0.1.3 Example. (Number theory)** The language of Number theory —also called Peano arithmetic— needs —in order to get started:

- A *constant*, the *number zero*: 0
- A *predicate* (“less than”):  $<$
- A unary *function*: “ $S$ ”. (This, informally/intuitively is the “successor function” which with input  $x$  produces output  $x + 1$ .)
- Two binary *functions*, “ $+$ ,  $\times$ ” with the obvious meaning.

All else is “*manufactured*” in the theory, that is, introduced by definitions.

The manufactured symbols include *constants* like our familiar 1, 2, 1000234000785.

Also include *functions* like  $x^y$ ,  $\lfloor x/y \rfloor$  and more relations or *predicates* like  $\leq$ .  $\square$

We will do logic for the user, that is, we are aiming to teach the USE of logic.

But will do so *without having to do set theory or number theory or any specific mathematical theory* (geometry, algebra, etc.).

So equipped with our observations from the examples above, we note that various theories start up with *DIFFERENT* sets of constants, functions and predicates.

So we will complete the Definition 0.1.1 in a way that *APPLIES TO ANY AREA OF MATHEMATICAL APPLICATION*.

**0.1.4 Definition. (The 1st-order alphabet; part 2)** Our 1st-order alphabet also includes the following symbols

- (1) Symbols for zero or more *constants*. *Generically*, we use  $a, b, c, d$  with or without primes or subscripts for constants.
- (2) Symbols for zero or more *functions*. *Generically* we use  $f, g, h$  with or without primes or subscripts for functions.

Each such symbol will have the need for a certain number of arguments, this number called the function's "*arity*" (must be  $\geq 1$ ). For example,  $S$  has arity 1; it is unary. Each of  $+$ ,  $\times$  have arity two; they are binary.

- (3) Symbols for zero or more *predicates*, *generically* denoted as  $\phi, \psi$ , with or without primes or subscripts.

Each predicate symbol will have the need for a certain number of arguments called it "*arity*" (must be  $\geq 1$ ). For example,  $<$  has arity 2. □

The first-order *LANGUAGE* is a set of strings of two types —*terms* and *formulas*— over the *alphabet* 0.1.1 – 0.1.4.

By now we should feel comfortable with *first-order inductive definitions*.

In fact we gave inductive definitions of *first-order Boolean formulas* and used it quite a bit, but also more recently gave an inductive definition of Boolean *proofs*.

Thus we introduce first-order Terms, that denote objects, and first-order formulas, that denote statements, inductively in two separate definitions.

First terms:

### 0.1.5 Definition. (Terms)

A term is a string over the alphabet  $\mathcal{V}_1$  that satisfies one of:

- (1) It is just an *object variable*  $\mathbf{x}$  (recall that  $\mathbf{x}$  is metanotation and stands for *any* object variable).

 BTW, we drop the qualifier “object” from “object variable” from now on, but *RETAIN* the qualifier “Boolean” in “Boolean variable”.



- (2) An *object constant*  $a$  (this stands for any constant —generically).

 BTW, we ALSO drop the qualifier “object” from “object constant” from now on, but *RETAIN* the qualifier “Boolean” in “Boolean constant”.



- (3) General case. It is a string of the form  $ft_1t_2\dots t_n$  where the function symbol  $f$  has *arity*  $n$ .

*We will denote arbitrary terms generically by the metasymbols  $t, s$  with or without primes or subscripts.* □



We will often abuse notation and write “ $f(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ ” for “ $ft_1t_2 \dots t_n$ ”.

This is one (rare) case where *the human eye prefers extra brackets!* Be sure to note that the comma “,” is not in our alphabet!



Examples from number theory.

$x, 0$  are terms.  $x + 0$  is a term (abuse of the actual “ $+x0$ ” notation).

$(x + y) \times z$  is a term (abuse of the actual “ $\times +xyz$ ”).

With the concept of terms out of the way we now define 1st-order formulas:

First the Atomic Case:

**0.1.6 Definition. (1st-order Atomic formulas)** The following are the *atomic formulas of 1st-order logic*:

- (i) Any *Boolean* atomic formula.
- (ii) The *expression (string)* “ $t = s$ ”, for any choice of  $t$  and  $s$  (probably, the  $t$  and  $s$  name the same term).
- (iii) For any predicate  $\phi$  of *arity*  $n$ , and any  $n$  terms  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n$ , the string “ $\phi t_1 t_2 \dots t_n$ ”.

We denote *the set of all atomic formulas* here defined **AF**. □



**0.1.7 Remark.**

(1) As in the case of “complex” terms  $f t_1 t_2 \dots t_n$ , we often abuse notation using “ $\phi(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ ” in place of the correctly written “ $\phi t_1 t_2 \dots t_n$ ”.

(2) The symbol “=” is a binary predicate and is always written as it is here (never “ $\phi, \psi$ ”).

(3) We **absolutely NEVER** confuse “=” with the “glue” “ $\equiv$ ”.

**They are more different than apples and oranges!** □ 

**0.1.8 Definition. (1st-order formulas)** A first-order formula  $A$  —or **wff**  $A$ — is one of



We let context fend for us as to *what formulas we have in mind when we say “wff”*.

*From here on it is 1st-order ones!*

If we want to talk about Boolean wff we *WILL USE* the qualifier “Boolean”!



- (1) A *member of 1st-order AF set* —in particular it could be a *Boolean* atomic wff!
- (2)  $(\neg B)$  if  $B$  is a wff.
- (3)  $(B \circ C)$  if  $B$  and  $C$  are wff, and  $\circ$  is one of  $\wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \equiv$ .
- (4)  $(\forall \mathbf{x})B$ , where  $B$  is a wff and  $\mathbf{x}$  any variable.



TWO things: (1) we already agreed that “variable” means *object variable* otherwise I’d say “Boolean variable”. (2) Nowhere in the definition is required that  $\mathbf{x}$  occurs in  $B$  as a substring.



We call “ $\forall$ ” the *universal quantifier*.

The configuration  $(\forall \mathbf{x})$  is pronounced “for all  $\mathbf{x}$ ” —intuitively meaning “*for all values of  $\mathbf{x}$* ” rather than “for all variables  $x, y'', z'''_{1234009}, \dots$  that  $\mathbf{x}$  may stand for”.

We say that the part of  $A$  between the two red brackets is the scope of  $(\forall \mathbf{x})$ .

Thus the  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $(\forall \mathbf{x})$  and the entire  $B$  are in this scope. □



The “in particular” observation in (1) and the cases (2) and (3) make it clear that every Boolean wff is also a (1st-order) wff.



**0.1.9 Example.**  $x = y$  and  $p$  are wff. *The second one is also a Boolean wff.*

$((\forall x)((\forall y)(\neg x = y)))$  is a wff. Note that  $\neg$  in  $(\neg x = y)$  *applies to  $x = y$*  NOT to  $x$ !

*Glue cannot apply to an object* like  $x$ . Must apply to a *statement* (a wff)!

$((\forall y)((\neg x = y) \wedge p))$  and  $((\forall y)(\neg x = y) \wedge p)$  are also formulas.

BTW, in the two last examples:  *$p$  is in the scope of  $(\forall y)$  in the first*, but not so in the second. □

**0.1.10 Definition. (Existential quantifier)**

It is convenient —but NOT NECESSARY— to introduce the “*existential quantifier*”,  $\exists$ .

This is only a *metatheoretical abbreviation* symbol that we introduce by this *Definition*, that is, by a “*naming*”

For any wff  $A$ , we define  $((\exists \mathbf{x})A)$  to be *short for*

$$\left( \neg \left( (\forall \mathbf{x})(\neg A) \right) \right) \quad (1)$$

We pronounce  $((\exists \mathbf{x})A)$  “for some (value of)  $\mathbf{x}$ ,  $A$  holds”.

The intuition behind this  $((\exists \mathbf{x})A)$  *naming* is captured by the diagram below

$$\left( \overbrace{\neg}^{\text{it is not the case that}} \left( \underbrace{(\forall \mathbf{x})}_{\text{all values of } x} \overbrace{(\neg A)}^{\text{make } A \text{ false}} \right) \right)$$

The *scope of*  $(\exists \mathbf{x})$  in

$$\left( (\exists \mathbf{x})A \right) \quad (2)$$

is the area between the two red brackets.

In particular, the leftmost  $\mathbf{x}$  in (2) is in the scope. □

## Priorities Revisited

We *augment* our priorities *table, from highest to lowest*:

$$\overbrace{\forall, \exists, \neg}^{\text{equal priorities}}, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \equiv$$

Associativities *remain right!* Thus,  $\neg(\forall x)\neg A$  is *a short form* of (1) in 0.1.10.

Another example:  $(u = v \rightarrow ((\forall x)x = a) \wedge p)$  simplifies into

$$u = v \rightarrow (\forall x)x = a \wedge p$$

More examples:

(2) Instead of  $((\forall z)(\neg x = y))$  we write

$$(\forall z)\neg x = y$$

(3) Instead of  $((\forall x)((\forall x)x = y))$  we write

$$(\forall x)(\forall x)x = y$$

**BOUND vs FREE.**

**0.1.11 Definition.** A variable  $\mathbf{x}$  *occurs free* in a wff  $A$  iff *it is NOT in the scope of a  $(\forall \mathbf{x})$  or  $(\exists \mathbf{x})$ .*

A bound variable  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $(\forall \mathbf{x})A$  other than the one in the displayed  $(\forall \mathbf{x})$ , belongs to the displayed leftmost “ $(\forall \mathbf{x})$ ” iff  $\mathbf{x}$  *occurs free in  $A$ .*

We apply this criterion to *subformulas* of  $A$  of the form  $(\forall \mathbf{x})(\dots)$  to determine where various bound  $\mathbf{x}$  found inside  $A$  belong.  $\square$

**0.1.12 Example.** Consider

$$(\forall x) \overbrace{(x = y \rightarrow (\forall x)x = z)}^A$$

Here the red  $x$  in  $A$  belongs to the red  $\forall x$ . The black  $x$  belongs to the black  $\forall x$ .  $\square$