Literals

 $\begin{array}{cccc} L & ::= & A & (\text{positive literal}) \\ & & | & \neg A & (\text{negative literal}) \end{array}$

Clauses

$$C, D ::= \bot$$
 (empty clause)
| $L_1 \lor \ldots \lor L_k, k \ge 1$ (non-empty clause)

General First-Order Formulas

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

| F, G, H | ::= | \perp | (falsum) |
|---------|-----|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| | | Т | (verum) |
| | | A | (atomic formula) |
| | | $\neg F$ | (negation) |
| | | $(F \wedge G)$ | (conjunction) |
| | | $(F \lor G)$ | (disjunction) |
| | | $(F \to G)$ | (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.

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

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

Examples:

| ampies. | | |
|-----------------------|-----|-------------------------|
| s + t * u | for | +(s,*(t,u)) |
| $s \ast u \leq t + v$ | for | $\leq (*(s,u), +(t,v))$ |
| -s | for | -(s) |
| s! | for | !(s) |
| s | for | (s) |
| 0 | for | 0() |
| | | |

Example: Peano Arithmetic

$$\begin{split} \Sigma_{PA} &= (\Omega_{PA}, \ \Pi_{PA}) \\ \Omega_{PA} &= \{0/0, \ +/2, \ */2, \ s/1\} \\ \Pi_{PA} &= \{\le/2, \ </2\} \\ +, *, <, \le \inf x; \ * >_p \ + \ >_p \ < \ >_p \ \le \end{split}$$

Examples of formulas over this signature are:

$$\begin{split} &\forall x, y \left(x \leq y \leftrightarrow \exists z (x + z \approx y) \right) \\ &\exists x \forall y \left(x + y \approx y \right) \\ &\forall x, y \left(x * s(y) \approx x * y + x \right) \\ &\forall x, y \left(s(x) \approx s(y) \rightarrow x \approx y \right) \\ &\forall x \exists y \left(x < y \land \neg \exists z (x < z \land z < y) \right) \end{split}$$

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):

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

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.

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 also called *closed* formulas or sentential forms.

Formulas without variables are called ground.

Example:

$$\forall y \quad \overbrace{((\forall x \quad P(x)) \quad \rightarrow \quad Q(x,y))}^{\text{scope of } y}$$

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

$$\sigma: X \to \mathrm{T}_{\Sigma}(X)$$

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

$$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 $x \in dom(\sigma)$, is denoted by $codom(\sigma)$.

Substitutions are often written as $\{x_1 \mapsto s_1, \ldots, x_n \mapsto s_n\}$, 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 depicted on the next page.

In the presence of quantification it is surprisingly complex: We need to 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:

$$f(s_1, \dots, s_n)\sigma = f(s_1\sigma, \dots, s_n\sigma)$$

$$\perp \sigma = \perp$$

$$\top \sigma = \top$$

$$P(s_1, \dots, s_n)\sigma = P(s_1\sigma, \dots, s_n\sigma)$$

$$(u \approx v)\sigma = (u\sigma \approx v\sigma)$$

$$\neg F\sigma = \neg (F\sigma)$$

$$(F \circ G)\sigma = (F\sigma \circ G\sigma) ; \text{ for each binary connective } \circ$$

$$(Qx F)\sigma = Qz (F \sigma[x \mapsto z]) ; \text{ with } z \text{ a fresh variable}$$

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

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

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.

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, also called a valuation (over a given Σ -algebra \mathcal{A}), is a map $\beta: X \to U_{\mathcal{A}}$.

Variable assignments are the semantic counterparts of substitutions.

Value of a Term in A with Respect to β

By structural induction we define

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta) : \mathrm{T}_{\Sigma}(X) \to U_{\mathcal{A}}$$

as follows:

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta)(x) = \beta(x), \qquad x \in X$$

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta)(f(s_1, \dots, s_n)) = f_{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{A}(\beta)(s_1), \dots, \mathcal{A}(\beta)(s_n)), \quad f/n \in \Omega$$

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

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

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

Example

The "Standard" Interpretation for Peano Arithmetic:

$$U_{\mathbb{N}} = \{0, 1, 2, ...\} \\ 0_{\mathbb{N}} = 0 \\ s_{\mathbb{N}} : n \mapsto n+1 \\ +_{\mathbb{N}} : (n,m) \mapsto n+m \\ *_{\mathbb{N}} : (n,m) \mapsto n*m \\ \leq_{\mathbb{N}} = \{(n,m) \mid n \text{ less than or equal to } m \} \\ <_{\mathbb{N}} = \{(n,m) \mid n \text{ less than } m \}$$

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

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

Ground Terms and Closed Formulas

If t is a ground term, then $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(t)$ does not depend on β :

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta)(t) = \mathcal{A}(\beta')(t)$$

for every β and β' .

Analogously, if F is a closed formula, then $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F)$ does not depend on β :

$$\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F) = \mathcal{A}(\beta')(F)$$

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 :

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

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

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

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

Substitution Lemma

The following propositions, to be proved by structural induction, hold for all Σ -algebras \mathcal{A} , assignments β , and substitutions σ .

Lemma 3.1 For any Σ -term t

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

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

Proposition 3.2 For any Σ -formula F, $\mathcal{A}(\beta)(F\sigma) = \mathcal{A}(\beta \circ \sigma)(F)$.

Corollary 3.3 $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F\sigma \iff \mathcal{A}, \beta \circ \sigma \models F$

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

Entailment and Equivalence

F entails (implies) G (or G is a consequence of F), written $F \models G$, if for all $\mathcal{A} \in \Sigma$ -Alg and $\beta \in X \to U_{\mathcal{A}}$, whenever $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$, then $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$.

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

Proposition 3.4 F entails G iff $(F \rightarrow G)$ is valid

Proposition 3.5 F and G are equivalent iff $(F \leftrightarrow G)$ is valid.

Extension to sets of formulas N in the "natural way", e.g., $N \models F$: \Leftrightarrow for all $\mathcal{A} \in \Sigma$ -Alg and $\beta \in X \to U_{\mathcal{A}}$: if $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models G$, for all $G \in N$, then $\mathcal{A}, \beta \models F$.

Validity vs. Unsatisfiability

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

Proposition 3.6 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 $F \land \neg G$ 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.