

Intermediate Logic

Lecture Four

First-Order Logic

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First-Order Logic

Introducing First-Order Logic

Names

Predicates

Quantifiers

Putting It All Together

Identity

The Limits of TFL

- Consider the following obviously valid argument:
 - Sharon studies archaeology
 - Everyone who studies archaeology wishes that they were Indiana Jones
 - So Sharon wishes that she were Indiana Jones
- We cannot use TFL to show that this argument is valid
- The trouble is that, as far as TFL is concerned, the three sentences are all just atoms
 - A: Sharon studies archaeology
 - B: Everyone who studies archaeology wishes that they were Indiana Jones
 - C: Sharon wishes that she were Indiana Jones

Splitting the (Logical) Atom

- To improve on TFL, we need to find a way of breaking atomic sentences down into subatomic units
 - An **atom** is a sentence which is not built out of any smaller *sentences*
 - In TFL, atoms have absolutely no internal structure
 - What we need is a logical system in which atomic sentences are built out of smaller *sub-sentential* expressions
- The system which does this is known as **First-Order Logic** (FOL)
 - This is the system you called Predicate Logic
 - We are calling it 'First-Order Logic' because there is another kind of predicate logic out there, called 'Second-Order Logic'

The Three Basic Building Blocks

- **Names**

- Names in English: 'Gottlob Frege', 'Ludwig Wittgenstein', 'Rob Trueman'
- Names in FOL: ' a ', ' b ', ' c ', ... ' r '

- **Predicates**

- Predicates in English: '___ is wise', '___ is human', '___ is a dog'
- Predicates in FOL: ' A ', ' B ', ' C '...

- **Quantifiers**

- Quantifiers in English: 'Everything', 'Something'
- Quantifiers in FOL: ' \forall ', ' \exists '

First-Order Logic

Introducing First-Order Logic

Names

Predicates

Quantifiers

Putting It All Together

Identity

Names versus Singular Terms

- In general, a **singular term** is an expression which stands for a specific person, place or thing
 - ‘Bertrand Russell’ stands for a specific person, Bertrand Russell
 - ‘The inventor of quantified logic’ stands for a specific person, Gottlob Frege
- These two expressions are quite different:
 - ‘Bertrand Russell’ is a *proper name*; it’s job is just to stand for Bertrand Russell
 - ‘The inventor of quantified logic’ is a *definite description*; it’s job is to pick out whoever satisfies that description
- The **names** in FOL are meant to be symbolisations of proper names, not definite descriptions
 - We’ll come back to definite descriptions later!

Names in FOL

- Names in FOL are lower case letters between 'a' and 'r', and if we want even more names, then we can add numerical subscripts (e.g. 'q₂₇')
- Each name stands for **exactly one** thing
 - There are no *ambiguous* names which sometimes refer to one thing, sometimes to another
 - However, there is nothing wrong with **one** object being referred to by **two** (or more!) names
- When we provide a symbolisation key for FOL, here is how we specify what each name refers to:
 - b*: Bertrand Russell
 - f*: Gottlob Frege

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Introducing First-Order Logic

Names

Predicates

Quantifiers

Putting It All Together

Identity

English Predicates

- The simplest predicates in English are expression which attribute properties to individuals; they let us say things about objects
- Here's an example of an English predicate: '___ is wise'
 - '___ is wise' attributes the property of wisdom
 - '___ is wise' says of an individual that they are wise
- Here's another example: '___ loves *Intermediate Logic*'
 - '___ loves *Intermediate Logic*' attributes the property of loving *Intermediate Logic*
 - '___ loves *Intermediate Logic*' says of an individual that they love *Intermediate Logic*

How to Make Predicates

- In general, you can think of predicates as things which combine with singular terms to make sentences
 - When you combine the predicate ‘___ is wise’ with the name ‘Socrates’, you get the sentence ‘Socrates is wise’
- Alternatively, you can think of a predicate as what you get when you remove a singular term from a sentence
 - Start with the sentence ‘Daniel stole the ball from Simon’
 - If you remove ‘Daniel’, then you get: ‘___ stole the ball from Simon’
 - If you remove ‘the ball’, then you get: ‘Daniel stole ___ from Simon’
 - If you remove ‘Simon’, then you get: ‘Daniel stole the ball from ___’

Predicates of Higher Adicities

- The predicates that we have been looking at so far are all **monadic** predicate, meaning that they combine with just one name at a time
 - ‘___ is wise’ has one gap for a name to be plugged into
- But other predicates combine with *more than one* name at a time
 - **Dyadic predicates** combine with *two* names at a time, e.g. ‘___ loves ___’
 - **Triadic predicates** combine with *three* names at a time, e.g. ‘___ is between ___ and ___’
- We call the number of names that a predicate can combine with its **adicity**, and you can have predicates of any adicity whatsoever

Predicates in FOL

- Predicates in FOL are capital letters, and we can add numerical subscripts if we ever need more than 26 predicates (e.g. ' V_{342} ')
- We also really need some way of indicating the adicity of each predicate; we will do that with numerical superscripts:
 - **Monadic predicates:**
 $A^1, B^1, \dots, Z^1, A_1^1, B_1^1, \dots, Z_1^1, A_2^1, B_2^1, \dots, Z_2^1, \dots$
 - **Dyadic predicates:**
 $A^2, B^2, \dots, Z^2, A_1^2, B_1^2, \dots, Z_1^2, A_2^2, B_2^2, \dots, Z_2^2, \dots$
 - **n -adic predicates:**
 $A^n, B^n, \dots, Z^n, A_1^n, B_1^n, \dots, Z_1^n, A_2^n, B_2^n, \dots, Z_2^n, \dots$

Symbolisation Keys for Predicates

- When we provide a symbolisation key for FOL, here is how we specify what each monadic predicate symbolises:

A^1 : ___ is angry

H^1 : ___ is happy

- So if ' g ' symbolises 'Gottlob Frege', then ' A^1g ' symbolises 'Gottlob Frege is angry', and ' H^1g ' symbolises 'Gottlob Frege is happy'
- And if ' b ' symbolises 'Bertrand Russell', then ' A^1b ' symbolises 'Bertrand Russell is angry', and ' H^1b ' symbolises 'Bertrand Russell is happy'

Symbolisation Keys for Predicates

- Here is how to provide a symbolisation key for a dyadic predicate:

L^2 : $_1$ loves $_2$

- The little subscript numerals attached to the blanks are there to tell us the *order* in which ' L^2 ' applies to individuals
 - On this key, ' L^2 ' applies to the lover first, and to the beloved second
 - So ' L^2bg ' symbolises 'Bertrand Russell loves Gottlob Frege'
- Contrast ' L^2 ' with ' M^2 ' on the following key:

M^2 : $_2$ loves $_1$

- On this key, ' M^2 ' applies to the *beloved* first and the *lover* second
- So ' M^2bg ' symbolises 'Gottlob Frege loves Bertrand Russell'

Symbolisation Keys for Predicates

- Here is how to provide a symbolisation key for a dyadic predicate:

K^2 : ___₁ kicks ___₂

- The little subscript numerals attached to the blanks are there to tell us the *order* in which ' K^2 ' applies to individuals
 - On this key, ' K^2 ' applies to the kicker first, and to the kicked second
 - So ' K^2bg ' symbolises 'Bertrand Russell kicks Gottlob Frege'
- Contrast ' K^2 ' with ' N^2 ' on the following key:

N^2 : ___₂ kicks ___₁

- On this key, ' N^2 ' applies to the *kicked* first and the *kicker* second
- So ' N^2bg ' symbolises 'Gottlob Frege kicks Bertrand Russell'

Symbolisation Keys for Predicates

- Here is how to provide a symbolisation key for a dyadic predicate:

Q^2 : $_1$ quizzes $_2$

- The little subscript numerals attached to the blanks are there to tell us the *order* in which ' Q^2 ' applies to individuals
 - On this key, ' Q^2 ' applies to the quizzer first, and to the quizzed second
 - So ' Q^2bg ' symbolises 'Bertrand Russell quizzes Gottlob Frege'
- Contrast ' Q^2 ' with ' R^2 ' on the following key:

R^2 : $_2$ quizzes $_1$

- On this key, ' R^2 ' applies to the *quizzed* first and the *quizzer* second
- So ' R^2bg ' symbolises 'Gottlob Frege quizzes Bertrand Russell'

Let's Get Rid of those Superscripts!

- Strictly speaking, we need the superscript on an FOL predicate to tell us what its adicity is
- But in practice, we can usually tell what the adicity of a predicate is just by looking at how we actually use it
 - If I write ' Rab ', then unless I've messed up, ' R ' must be a dyadic predicate
 - Equally, ' S ' must be a triadic predicate if you give it the following entry in a symbolisation key:
 $S: _1 \text{ sold } _2 \text{ to } _3$
- So from now on, we won't bother with those ugly superscripts unless we *really* have to

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Introducing First-Order Logic

Names

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Quantifiers

Putting It All Together

Identity

Quantifiers

- FOL has two basic **quantifiers**
 - The *existential* quantifier, ' \exists ', is the FOL for 'Something'
 - The *universal* quantifier, ' \forall ', is the FOL for 'Everything'
- A quantifier must always be followed by a **variable**
 - A variable is a lowercase letter from 's' to 'z', with subscripts if we need them (e.g. ' x_{3000} ')
- Here is an example: ' $\forall xHx$ '
 - If ' H ' is our symbolisation for '___ is happy', then ' $\forall xHx$ ' says that everyone is happy
 - You should think of the ' x ' as a kind of placeholder: whoever we pick as x , x is happy
- If we wanted to say that *someone* was happy, we would write: ' $\exists xHx$ '

Domains of Quantification

- Very often, when we use the quantifier 'everyone' in English, we do not literally mean **everyone** in the *whole world*
- Normally, we are quantifying over a particular, limited **domain** of quantification
- Roughly, the domain of quantification is the collection of things we are talking about
- If we wanted to talk about the people in York, then we would pick the people in York to be our domain
domain: people in York
- The quantifiers only quantify over things in the domain, and all our names need to pick out things in the domain

Scope

- Like other logical expressions, quantifiers come with a **scope**
 - (1) If everyone is a singer, then Rob is a singer
 - (2) Everyone is such that, if they are a singer, then Rob is a singer
- (1) is true: *everyone* includes me, so if everyone is a singer then I am a singer
- (2) is false: I am not a singer but Susanne Sundfør is; so it is not true of Susanne Sundfør that if she is a singer, then I am a singer!
- We can capture the difference between these two sentences in FOL by giving the universal quantifier different scope
 - (1') $\forall x Sx \rightarrow Sr$
 - (2') $\forall x (Sx \rightarrow Sr)$

Multiple-Generality

- Questions of scope become even more important when we are dealing with sentences which contain more than one quantifier:
 - (1) Everyone loves someone
 - (2) Someone is loved by everyone
- (1) means that each person loves someone, but leaves it open that different people may love different people
- (2) means that there is a single person who everyone loves
- We can capture the difference between these two sentences in FOL by giving the quantifiers different scope
 - (1') $\forall x \exists y Lxy$
 - (2') $\exists y \forall x Lxy$

First-Order Logic

Introducing First-Order Logic

Names

Predicates

Quantifiers

Putting It All Together

Identity

An Example Symbolisation

domain: Everyone born after 1900

b: Bertrand Russell

g: Gottlob Frege

A: — is angry

R: —₁ respects —₂

M: —₂ loves —₁

An Example Symbolisation

domain: Everyone born after 1900

b : Bertrand Russell

g : Gottlob Frege

L : ___ is a logician

R : ___₁ respects ___₂

M : ___₂ loves ___₁

- Frege is angry, unless Russell respects him $\Rightarrow Ag \vee Rbg$
- Someone angry is loved by Frege $\Rightarrow \exists x(Ax \wedge Mxg)$
- Everyone is loved by someone $\Rightarrow \forall x\exists y(Myx)$

Reading FOL

- **YOU WILL NOT BE ASSESSED ON YOUR ABILITY TO SYMBOLISE ENGLISH SENTENCES INTO FOL!**
- However, it *can* be helpful to know how to translate a sentence of FOL into English
- In preparation for this module, you should do all of the formalisation exercises in *forall χ* , but for now we will do some translations from FOL to English

Top Translation Tips

- $\forall x(\mathcal{A}x \rightarrow \mathcal{B}x)$ symbolises 'All \mathcal{A} s are \mathcal{B} ' (or 'Everything that is \mathcal{A} is \mathcal{B} ')
- $\forall x(\mathcal{A}x \leftrightarrow \mathcal{B}x)$ symbolises 'All \mathcal{A} s are \mathcal{B} , and all \mathcal{B} s are \mathcal{A} '
- $\exists x(\mathcal{A}x \wedge \mathcal{B}x)$ symbolises 'Some \mathcal{A} is \mathcal{B} ' (or 'Something is \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} ')

Top Translation Tips

- Keep an eye on the scope of the quantifiers
 - ‘ $\forall x(Fx \rightarrow Ga)$ ’ means something very different from ‘ $\forall xFx \rightarrow Ga$ ’!
- Keep an eye on the order of the quantifiers
 - ‘ $\forall x\exists yRxy$ ’ means something very different from ‘ $\exists y\forall xRxy$ ’

Top Translation Tips

- $\neg\exists x\mathcal{A}$ and $\forall x\neg\mathcal{A}$ can *both* be translated as ‘Nothing is \mathcal{A} ’
- $\neg\forall x\mathcal{A}$ and $\exists x\neg\mathcal{A}$ can *both* be translated as ‘Something is not \mathcal{A} ’

Exercises

- Translate the following into English, using this key:

domain: Everyone born after 1900

d : David Attenborough

r : Richard Attenborough

A : ___ is an actor

Z : ___ is a zoologist

L : ___₁ loves ___₂

- (i) $Ldr \wedge Lrd$
- (ii) $\neg \exists x(Ax \wedge Zx)$
- (ii) $\forall x(Zx \rightarrow Lxd)$
- (iv) $\forall z \forall y(Az \rightarrow Lyz)$
- (v) $\forall u \exists v(Av \wedge Luv)$
- (vi) $\exists v \forall u(Zv \wedge Luv)$

First-Order Logic

Introducing First-Order Logic

Names

Predicates

Quantifiers

Putting It All Together

Identity

A Limit of FOL So Far...

- Consider this English sentence:
 - (1) Simon is mean to everyone
- On the face of it, it seems that we can easily symbolise this sentence:
 - (2) $\forall x Msx$
- But (2) implies that Simon is mean to everyone, *including* Simon!
- That is not how we ordinarily hear (1): we normally take this to say that Simon is mean to everyone, *except* Simon
- But as it stands, FOL is unable to express this simple thought

Introducing Identity

- To deal with cases like this, we add an identity symbol to FOL

$=$: $_1$ is identical to $_2$

- ' $=$ ' is a dyadic predicate symbol, but unlike the other predicates it **has** to be used to express identity; we cannot change its meaning at any time

(As a result, we don't need to bother including an entry for it in our symbolisation keys)

- Now return to this sentence:

(1) Simon is mean to everyone

- We can symbolise it as:

(2) $\forall x(\neg x = s \rightarrow Msx)$

There are at least...

- Consider these sentences:
 - (1) There is at least one apple
 - (2) There are at least two apples
 - (3) There are at least three apples
- Now that we have '=', we can symbolise these sentences in FOL:
 - (1') $\exists xAx$
 - (2') $\exists x\exists y(Ax \wedge Ay \wedge \neg x = y)$
 - (3') $\exists x\exists y\exists z(Ax \wedge Ay \wedge Az \wedge \neg x = y \wedge \neg y = z \wedge \neg z = x)$

There are at most...

- Consider these sentences:
 - (1) There is at most one apple
 - (2) There are at most two apples
- Now that we have '=', we can symbolise these sentences in FOL:

$$(1') \quad \neg \exists x \exists y (Ax \wedge Ay \wedge \neg x = y)$$

$$(2') \quad \neg \exists x \exists y \exists z (Ax \wedge Ay \wedge Az \wedge \neg x = y \wedge \neg y = z \wedge \neg z = x)$$

There are at most...

- Consider these sentences:
 - (1) There is at most one apple
 - (2) There are at most two apples
- Now that we have '=', we can symbolise these sentences in FOL:

$$(1') \quad \forall x \forall y ((Ax \wedge Ay) \rightarrow x = y)$$

$$(2') \quad \neg \exists x \exists y \exists z (Ax \wedge Ay \wedge Az \wedge \neg x = y \wedge \neg y = z \wedge \neg z = x)$$

There are at most...

- Consider these sentences:
 - (1) There is at most one apple
 - (2) There are at most two apples
- Now that we have '=', we can symbolise these sentences in FOL:
 - (1') $\forall x \forall y ((Ax \wedge Ay) \rightarrow x = y)$
 - (2') $\forall x \forall y \forall z ((Ax \wedge Ay \wedge Az) \rightarrow (x = y \vee y = z \vee z = x))$

There are exactly...

- Consider this sentence:
 - (1) There is exactly one apple
- (1) is the conjunction of these two sentences:
 - (2) There is at least one apple
 - (3) There is at most one apple
- So we can symbolise (1) in FOL as:
 - (1') $\exists xAx \wedge \forall x\forall y((Ax \wedge Ay) \rightarrow x = y)$

There are exactly...

- Consider this sentence:
 - (1) There is exactly one apple
- (1) is the conjunction of these two sentences:
 - (2) There is at least one apple
 - (3) There is at most one apple
- So we can symbolise (1) in FOL as:
 - (1') $\exists x(Ax \wedge \forall y(Ay \rightarrow x = y))$

There are exactly...

- Consider this sentence:
 - (1) There is exactly one apple
- (1) is the conjunction of these two sentences:
 - (2) There is at least one apple
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- So we can symbolise (1) in FOL as:
 - (1') $\exists x \forall y (Ay \leftrightarrow x = y)$

Definite Descriptions

- Definite descriptions are expressions like 'the F '
 - The inventor of quantified logic
 - The present Queen of England
 - The present King of France
- On the face of it, they look like singular terms, i.e. expressions which stand for objects
- But Russell famously insisted that they were not
- We will not now look at Russell's reasons for this, but will just show how we can neatly formulate Russell's approach to definite descriptions in FOL

Russell's Theory of Definite Descriptions

- The Queen of England is having lunch
 - (a) There is at least one queen of England; and
 - (b) There is at most one queen of England; and
 - (c) Every queen of England is having lunch

- The author of *Harry Potter* is very rich
 - (a) There is at least one author of *Harry Potter*; and
 - (b) There is at most one author of *Harry Potter*; and
 - (c) Anyone who authored *Harry Potter* is very rich

Russell's Theory of Definite Descriptions

- The F is G
 - (a) There is at least one F ; and
 - (b) There is at most one F ; and
 - (c) All F s are G s
- In a short sentence:
 - There is exactly one F , and it is G
- In formal symbols:
 - $\exists x(Fx \wedge \forall y(Fy \rightarrow y = x) \wedge Gx)$
 - $\exists x(\forall y(Fy \leftrightarrow y = x) \wedge Gx)$

Practise!

- Translate the following into English, using this key:

domain: Everyone born after 1900

d : David Attenborough

r : Richard Attenborough

A : ___ is an actor

Z : ___ is a zoologist

L : ___₁ loves ___₂

- (i) $\forall x(\neg x = r \rightarrow Lxd)$
- (ii) $\exists x\exists y((Ax \wedge Ay) \wedge \neg x = y)$
- (iii) $\exists x((Zx \wedge \forall y(Zy \rightarrow y = x)) \wedge Lxr)$
- (iv) $\exists x\forall y((Zx \leftrightarrow y = x)) \wedge Lxr)$
- (v) $\exists x\forall y(((Zx \wedge Lxr) \leftrightarrow y = x)$