

Lecture 4: Classical Logic and Quantifiers

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1 Lecture 4: Classical Logic and Quantifiers

1.1 Aim of the lecture

Lecture 3 connected Lean tactics with the introduction and elimination rules of natural deduction. This lecture extends that framework in two directions. We first introduce reductio ad absurdum as a classical rule. We then move from propositional logic to predicate logic and learn to represent objects, properties, functions, relations, and quantifiers.

The lecture will:

- distinguish constructive rules from classical principles and apply reductio ad absurdum;
- build a small first-order language in Lean;
- formalize statements containing $\forall$ and $\exists$.

1.2 From constructive rules to classical logic

The rules seen so far have a direct constructive reading: each proof specifies how to build the required term. To prove a conjunction we construct both components; to prove an implication we construct a function.

In Lean's constructive base logic, excluded middle $A \vee \neg A$ and double-negation elimination $\neg\neg A \rightarrow A$ are not automatically available. Lean does allow classical principles to be used locally and explicitly (Source: [Theorem Proving in Lean 4, Classical Logic](#)).

1.3 Reductio ad absurdum

Classical reductio ad absurdum proves A by showing that assuming $\neg A$ leads to `False`. In Lean, we apply it with `Classical.byContradiction`.

$$\frac{\displaystyle \frac{}{\neg A} \text{ 1} \quad \vdots \quad \frac{}{\perp} \text{ 1}}{A} \text{ 1 RAA}$$

Reductio ad absurdum, RAA

The working pattern is: apply reductio, introduce $\neg A$, derive `False` using the available assumptions, and use exactly that contradiction.

```
theorem lecture04_reductio_ad_absurdum
  (Rains TakeUmbrella : Prop)
  (hNotRainsNotUmbrella :  $\neg$ Rains  $\rightarrow$   $\neg$ TakeUmbrella)
  (hTakeUmbrella : TakeUmbrella) :
  Rains := by
  apply Classical.byContradiction
  intro hNotRains
  have hNotTakeUmbrella := hNotRainsNotUmbrella hNotRains
  have hContradiction := hNotTakeUmbrella hTakeUmbrella
  exact hContradiction
```

The first assumption turns $\neg$ Rains into $\neg$ TakeUmbrella. The latter is a function from TakeUmbrella to `False`; applying it to `hTakeUmbrella` produces the required contradiction.

1.4 A limitation of propositional logic

In propositional logic, each complete statement is represented by a separate proposition. We might use *P* for “Hypatia is a philosopher,” *Q* for “Hannah Arendt is a philosopher,” and *R* for “Hypatia is curious.” This hides the fact that *P* and *Q* attribute the same property to different objects. It also prevents us from directly expressing “every philosopher is curious” or “there is a curious philosopher.”

Predicate logic exposes the objects we discuss and the properties or relations attributed to them.

1.5 The domain of discourse

Every formalization begins with a *domain*: the collection of objects under consideration. In this lecture we use one general type.

```
variable (Thing : Type)
```

`Thing` represents the domain of discourse. A term $x : \text{Thing}$ is an element of that domain. This is the usual single-domain presentation of first-order logic (Source: [Logic and Proof, First Order Logic in Lean](#)).

Named objects are represented by terms of the domain:

```
variable (Thing : Type)
variable (hypatia hannah rome athens : Thing)
```

These declarations do not yet assert any proposition. They only introduce terms that will receive an interpretation.

1.6 Predicates: properties of objects

A one-place predicate takes an object and returns a proposition.

```
variable (Thing : Type)
variable (Person City Philosopher Curious : Thing → Prop)
variable (hypatia hannah : Thing)

#check Philosopher hypatia
#check Philosopher hannah
```

Philosopher hypatia and Philosopher hannah are different propositions, but they share the same predicate.

Natural language	Lean
Hypatia is curious	Curious hypatia
Hannah Arendt is curious	Curious hannah
Io is a moon of Jupiter	MoonOfJupiter io
It rains in Rome	RainsIn rome

1.7 Functions: constructing new terms

A function takes one or more objects from the domain and returns an object.

```
variable (Thing : Type)
variable (hypatia : Thing)
variable (motherOf : Thing → Thing)
variable (Curious : Thing → Prop)

#check motherOf hypatia
#check Curious (motherOf hypatia)
```

motherOf hypatia : Thing is a new term. Since its type is still Thing, it can be used as the argument of a predicate. Functions can be nested: motherOf (motherOf hypatia) denotes the mother of Hypatia's mother.

In first-order logic a function is total and returns exactly one result for each argument. A function returns an object; a predicate returns a proposition.

1.8 Relations between objects

A predicate with two or more arguments expresses a relation.

```
variable (Thing : Type)
variable (hypatia hannah athens : Thing)
variable (Knows Visits : Thing → Thing → Prop)

#check Knows hypatia hannah
#check Visits hypatia athens
```

Argument order matters. `Knows hypatia hannah` and `Knows hannah hypatia` represent different statements.

1.9 Local parameters and assumptions

The keyword `variable` introduces local parameters. A section limits their scope, and Lean adds to a theorem only the parameters actually used in its statement.

```
section PredicateLogicLanguage

variable (Thing : Type)
variable (hypatia hannah : Thing)
variable (Philosopher Curious : Thing → Prop)
variable (motherOf : Thing → Thing)
variable (Knows : Thing → Thing → Prop)

end PredicateLogicLanguage
```

Declaring `Philosopher : Thing → Prop` does not assert that anyone is a philosopher. A genuine assumption that Hypatia is a philosopher has the form `hHypatiaPhilosopher : Philosopher hypatia`. The vocabulary determines which propositions can be formulated; assumptions provide proofs of some of them.

1.10 Variables and quantifiers

A variable `x : Thing` represents an object that has not been specified. Quantifiers turn expressions containing such variables into statements:

- $\forall$ reads “for every”;
- $\exists$ reads “there exists at least one.”

Natural language	Lean
Every person is curious	$\forall x : \text{Thing}, \text{Person } x \rightarrow \text{Curious } x$
Some person is curious	$\exists x : \text{Thing}, \text{Person } x \wedge \text{Curious } x$
Every philosopher is curious	$\forall x : \text{Thing}, \text{Philosopher } x \rightarrow \text{Curious } x$
There is a curious philosopher	$\exists x : \text{Thing}, \text{Philosopher } x \wedge \text{Curious } x$

Writing `x : Thing` explicitly makes both the introduced variable and its domain visible.

1.11 Implication and conjunction under quantifiers

Two patterns occur repeatedly:

```
variable (Thing : Type)
variable (Philosopher Curious : Thing → Prop)

#check  $\forall x : \text{Thing}, \text{Philosopher } x \rightarrow \text{Curious } x$ 
#check  $\exists x : \text{Thing}, \text{Philosopher } x \wedge \text{Curious } x$ 
```

In the universal formula we take an arbitrary thing and say: *if* it is a philosopher, then it is curious. The implication restricts the assertion to philosophers. In the existential formula we seek one witness that is *both* a philosopher *and* curious, so the properties are joined by a conjunction.

Consider the following examples:

Statement	Lean
Every student reads	$\forall x : \text{Thing}, \text{Student } x \rightarrow \text{Reads } x$
Some student reads	$\exists x : \text{Thing}, \text{Student } x \wedge \text{Reads } x$
Every student who reads understands	$\forall x : \text{Thing}, \text{Student } x \rightarrow \text{Reads } x \rightarrow \text{Understands } x$
There is a student who reads and understands	$\exists x : \text{Thing}, \text{Student } x \wedge \text{Reads } x \wedge \text{Understands } x$

We can check the same formalizations in Lean:

```
variable (Thing : Type)
variable (Student Reads Understands : Thing → Prop)

#check ∀ x : Thing, Student x → Reads x
#check ∃ x : Thing, Student x ∧ Reads x
#check ∀ x : Thing, Student x → Reads x → Understands x
#check ∃ x : Thing, Student x ∧ Reads x ∧ Understands x
```

#check verifies that an expression is a well-formed proposition. It does not prove that proposition.

1.12 Sources and further reading

- Jeremy Avigad, Robert Y. Lewis, and Floris van Doorn, *Logic and Proof*, “Natural Deduction Rules”: https://leanprover.github.io/logic_and_proof_lean3/nd_quickref.html.
- Lean developers, *The Lean Language Reference*, “Quantifiers”: <https://lean-lang.org/doc/reference/latest/Basic-Propositions/Quantifiers/>.
- Jeremy Avigad, Robert Y. Lewis, and Floris van Doorn, *Logic and Proof*, “First Order Logic in Lean”: https://leanprover.github.io/logic_and_proof_lean3/first_order_logic_in_lean.html.
- Jeremy Avigad, Leonardo de Moura, Soonho Kong, and Sebastian Ullrich, *Theorem Proving in Lean 4*, “Classical Logic”: https://lean-lang.org/theorem_proving_in_lean4/Propositions-and-Proofs/.