

# Predicate Logic: Predicates and Quantifiers

Section 1.4

# Propositional Logic Not Enough

- If we have:

“All men are mortal.”

“Socrates is a man.”

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∴ “Socrates is mortal”

Compare to:

“If it is snowing, then I will study discrete math.”

“It is snowing.”

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∴ “I will study discrete math.”

- This *not* a valid argument in propositional logic.

➔ Need a language that talks about objects, their properties, and their relations.

# Introducing Predicate Logic

- Predicate logic uses the following new features:
  - Variables:  $x, y, z$
  - Predicates:  $P, M$
  - Quantifiers:  $\forall, \exists$
- *Propositional functions* are a generalization of propositions.
  - They contain variables and a predicate, e.g.,  $P(x)$
  - Variables can be replaced by elements from their *domain*, e.g. the domain of integers.

# Propositional Functions

- Propositional functions become propositions (and have truth values) when their variables are each replaced by a value from the *domain* (or *bound* by a quantifier, as we will see later).
- The statement  $P(x)$  is said to be the value of the propositional function  $P(x)$  at  $x$ .
- For example, let  $P(x)$  denote “ $x > 0$ ” and the domain be the integers. Then:
  - $P(-3)$  is false.
  - $P(0)$  is false.
  - $P(3)$  is true.
- Often the domain is denoted by  $U$ . So in this example  $U$  is the integers.

# Examples of Propositional Functions

- Let “ $x + y = z$ ” be denoted by  $R(x, y, z)$  and  $U$  (for all three variables) be the integers. Find these truth values:

$R(2, -1, 5)$

**Solution: F**

$R(3, 4, 7)$

**Solution: T**

$R(x, 3, z)$

**Solution: Not a Proposition**

- Now let “ $x - y = z$ ” be denoted by  $Q(x, y, z)$ , with  $U$  as the integers. Find these truth values:

$Q(2, -1, 3)$

**Solution: T**

$Q(3, 4, 7)$

**Solution: F**

$Q(x, 3, z)$

**Solution: Not a Proposition**

# Compound Expressions

- Connectives from propositional logic carry over to predicate logic.
- If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x > 0$ ,” find these truth values:
  - $P(3) \vee P(-1)$     **Solution:** T
  - $P(3) \wedge P(-1)$     **Solution:** F
  - $P(3) \rightarrow P(-1)$     **Solution:** F
  - $P(3) \rightarrow P(-1)$     **Solution:** T
- Expressions with variables are not propositions and therefore do not have truth values. For example,
  - $P(3) \wedge P(y)$
  - $P(x) \rightarrow P(y)$
- When used with quantifiers (to be introduced next), these expressions (propositional functions) become propositions.

# Quantifiers

- We need *quantifiers* to express the meaning of English words including *all* and *some*:
  - “**All** men are Mortal.”
  - “**Some** cats do not have fur.”
- The two most important quantifiers are:
  - *Universal Quantifier*, “For **All**,” symbol:  $\forall$
  - *Existential Quantifier*, “There **Exists**,” symbol:  $\exists$
- We write as in  $\forall x P(x)$  and  $\exists x P(x)$ .
- $\forall x P(x)$  asserts  $P(x)$  is true for every  $x$  in the *domain*.
- $\exists x P(x)$  asserts  $P(x)$  is true for some  $x$  in the *domain*.
- The quantifiers are said to bind the variable  $x$  in these expressions.

# Universal Quantifier

- $\forall x P(x)$  is read as “For All  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ”

## Examples:

- 1) If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x > 0$ ” and  $U$  is the integers, then  $\forall x P(x)$  is false.
- 2) If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x > 0$ ” and  $U$  is the positive integers, then  $\forall x P(x)$  is true.
- 3) If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x$  is even” and  $U$  is the integers, then  $\forall x P(x)$  is false.



# Existential Quantifier

- $\exists x P(x)$  is read as “There **E**xists an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ”

## Examples:

1. If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x > 0$ ” and  $U$  is the integers, then  $\exists x P(x)$  is true. It is also true if  $U$  is the positive integers.
2. If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x < 0$ ” and  $U$  is the positive integers, then  $\exists x P(x)$  is false.
3. If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x$  is even” and  $U$  is the integers, then  $\exists x P(x)$  is true.

# Thinking about Quantifiers

- When the domain of discourse is finite, we can think of quantification as looping through the elements of the domain.
- To evaluate  $\forall x P(x)$  loop through all  $x$  in the domain.
  - If at every step  $P(x)$  is true, then  $\forall x P(x)$  is true.
  - If at a step  $P(x)$  is false, then  $\forall x P(x)$  is false and the loop terminates.
- To evaluate  $\exists x P(x)$  loop through all  $x$  in the domain.
  - If at some step,  $P(x)$  is true, then  $\exists x P(x)$  is true and the loop terminates.
  - If the loop ends without finding an  $x$  for which  $P(x)$  is true, then  $\exists x P(x)$  is false.
- Even if the domains are infinite, we can still think of the quantifiers this fashion, but it would not be practical to implement it this way...

# Properties of Quantifiers

- The truth value of  $\exists x P(x)$  and  $\forall x P(x)$  depend on both the propositional function  $P(x)$  and on the domain  $U$ .
- **Examples:**
  1. If  $U$  is the positive integers and  $P(x)$  is the statement “ $x < 2$ ”, then  $\exists x P(x)$  is true, but  $\forall x P(x)$  is false.
  2. If  $U$  is the negative integers and  $P(x)$  is the statement “ $x < 2$ ”, then both  $\exists x P(x)$  and  $\forall x P(x)$  are true.
  3. If  $U$  consists of 3, 4, and 5, and  $P(x)$  is the statement “ $x > 2$ ”, then both  $\exists x P(x)$  and  $\forall x P(x)$  are true. But if  $P(x)$  is the statement “ $x < 2$ ”, then both  $\exists x P(x)$  and  $\forall x P(x)$  are false.

# Precedence of Quantifiers

- The quantifiers  $\forall$  and  $\exists$  have higher precedence than all the logical operators.
- For example,  $\forall x P(x) \vee Q(x)$  means  $(\forall x P(x)) \vee Q(x)$
- $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$  means something different.
- Unfortunately, often people write  $\forall x P(x) \vee Q(x)$  when they mean  $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$ .
- To avoid any confusion just put brackets right after every quantifier you use, i.e.  
$$\forall x [P(x) \vee Q(x)]$$
- Proposition then becomes very easy to read

# Translating from English to Logic

**Example 1:** Translate the following sentence into predicate logic: “Every student in this class has taken a course in Java.”

**Solution:**

First decide on the domain  $U$ .

**Solution 1:** If  $U$  is all students in this class, define a propositional function  $J(x)$  denoting “ $x$  has taken a course in Java” and translate as  $\forall x J(x)$ .

**Solution 2:** But if  $U$  is all people, also define a propositional function  $S(x)$  denoting “ $x$  is a student in this class” and translate as  $\forall x [S(x) \rightarrow J(x)]$ .

# Translating from English to Logic

**Example 2:** Translate the following sentence into predicate logic: “Some student in this class has taken a course in Java.”

**Solution:**

First decide on the domain  $U$ .

**Solution 1:** If  $U$  is all students in this class, translate as

$$\exists x J(x)$$

**Solution 1:** But if  $U$  is all people, then translate as

$$\exists x [S(x) \wedge J(x)]$$

# Returning to the Socrates Example

- Introduce the propositional functions  $man(x)$  denoting “ $x$  is a man” and  $mortal(x)$  denoting “ $x$  is mortal.” Specify the domain as all people.
- The two premises are:  
 $\forall x[man(x) \rightarrow mortal(x)]$   
 $man(Socrates)$   
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- The conclusion is:  
 $\therefore mortal(Socrates)$
- Later we will show how to prove that the conclusion follows from the premises.

# Equivalences in Predicate Logic

- Statements involving predicates and quantifiers are *logically equivalent* if and only if they have the same truth value
  - for every predicate substituted into these statements and
  - for every domain of discourse used for the variables in the expressions.
- The notation  $S \equiv T$  indicates that  $S$  and  $T$  are logically equivalent.
- **Example:**  $\forall x \neg\neg S(x) \equiv \forall x S(x)$



# Equivalences

- To show that two quantified expressions are equivalent, we need to show that both sides will be true under all predicates and all domains.
- Here is a way to prove it.

$$\forall x[\neg \neg P(x)] \equiv \forall x[P(x)]$$

Assume that the right side holds, also

assume that  $a \in U$  is *any* element in  $U$ ,

where  $U$  is *any* domain, then

$$\forall x[P(x)] \text{ implies } P(a) \text{ implies } \neg \neg P(a) \text{ implies } \forall x[\neg \neg P(x)]$$

Now, assume that the left side holds, then

$$\forall x[\neg \neg P(x)] \text{ implies } \neg \neg P(a) \text{ implies } P(a) \text{ implies } \forall x[P(x)]$$

$$\therefore \forall x[\neg \neg P(x)] \equiv \forall x[P(x)]$$

# Negating Quantified Expressions

- Consider  $\forall x J(x)$

“Every student in your class has taken a course in Java.”

Here  $J(x)$  is “x has taken a course in Java” and the domain is students in your class.

- Negating the original statement gives “It is not the case that every student in your class has taken Java.” This implies that “There is a student in your class who has not studied Java.”

Symbolically  $\neg \forall x J(x)$  and  $\exists x \neg J(x)$  are equivalent

# Negating Quantified Expressions (continued)

- Now Consider  $\exists x J(x)$

“There is a student in this class who has taken a course in Java.”

Where  $J(x)$  is “x has taken a course in Java.”

- Negating the original statement gives “It is not the case that there is a student in this class who has taken Java.” This implies that “Every student in this class has not taken Java”

Symbolically  $\neg \exists x J(x)$  and  $\forall x \neg J(x)$  are equivalent

# De Morgan's Laws for Quantifiers

- It can be shown that the following holds:

$$\neg \forall x P(x) \equiv \exists x \neg P(x)$$

$$\neg \exists x P(x) \equiv \forall x \neg P(x)$$

# Translation from English to Logic

## Examples:

1. “Some student in this class has visited Mexico.”

**Solution:** Let  $M(x)$  denote “ $x$  has visited Mexico” and  $S(x)$  denote “ $x$  is a student in this class,” and  $U$  be all people.

$$\exists x [S(x) \wedge M(x)]$$

2. “Every student in this class has visited Canada or Mexico.”

**Solution:** Add  $C(x)$  denoting “ $x$  has visited Canada.”

$$\forall x [S(x) \rightarrow (M(x) \vee C(x))]$$

# Nested Quantifiers

Section 1.5

# Nested Quantifiers

- Nested quantifiers are often necessary to express the meaning of sentences in English as well as important concepts in computer science and mathematics.
- **Example:** “Every real number has an inverse” is  
$$\forall x \exists y [x + y = 0]$$
where the domains of  $x$  and  $y$  are the real numbers.

# Thinking of Nested Quantification

- Nested Loops

- To see if  $\forall x \forall y [P(x,y)]$  is true, loop through the values of  $x$ :
  - At each step, loop through the values for  $y$ .
  - If for some pair of  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $P(x,y)$  is false, then  $\forall x \forall y [P(x,y)]$  is false and both the outer and inner loop terminate.

$\forall x \forall y [P(x,y)]$  is true if the outer loop ends after stepping through each  $x$ .

- To see if  $\forall x \exists y [P(x,y)]$  is true, loop through the values of  $x$ :
  - At each step, loop through the values for  $y$ .
  - The inner loop ends when a pair  $x$  and  $y$  is found such that  $P(x,y)$  is true.
  - If no  $y$  is found such that  $P(x,y)$  is true the outer loop terminates as  $\forall x \exists y [P(x,y)]$  has been shown to be false.

$\forall x \exists y [P(x,y)]$  is true if the outer loop ends after stepping through each  $x$ .

- If the domains of the variables are infinite, then this process can not actually be carried out.



# Order of Quantifiers

The order of quantification matters!

## Examples:

1. Let  $P(x,y)$  be the statement “ $x + y = y + x$ .” Assume that  $U$  is the real numbers. Then  $\forall x \forall y P(x,y)$  and  $\forall y \forall x P(x,y)$  have the same truth value.
2. However, let  $Q(x,y)$  be the statement “ $x + y = 0$ .” Assume that  $U$  is the real numbers. Then  $\forall x \exists y P(x,y)$  is true, but  $\exists y \forall x P(x,y)$  is false.

# Translating Nested Quantifiers into English

**Example :** Translate the statement

$$\forall x [C(x) \vee \exists y [C(y) \wedge F(x, y)]]$$

where  $C(x)$  is “ $x$  has a computer,” and  $F(x,y)$  is “ $x$  and  $y$  are friends,” and the domain for both  $x$  and  $y$  consists of all students in your school.

**Solution:** First we can rewrite the expression:

$$\forall x [C(x) \vee \exists y [C(y) \wedge F(x, y)]] \equiv \forall x [C(x)] \vee \forall x \exists y [F(x, y) \wedge C(y)]$$

Every student in your school has a computer or has a friend who has a computer.

# Translating Mathematical Statements into Predicate Logic

**Example :** Translate “The sum of two positive integers is always positive” into a logical expression.

**Solution:**

1. Rewrite the statement to make the implied quantifiers and domains explicit:

“For every two integers, if these integers are both positive, then the sum of these integers is positive.”

2. Introduce the variables  $x$  and  $y$ , and specify the domain, to obtain:

“For all positive integers  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $x + y$  is positive.”

3. The result is:

$$\forall x \forall y ((x > 0) \wedge (y > 0) \rightarrow (x + y > 0))$$

where the domain of both variables consists of all integers