

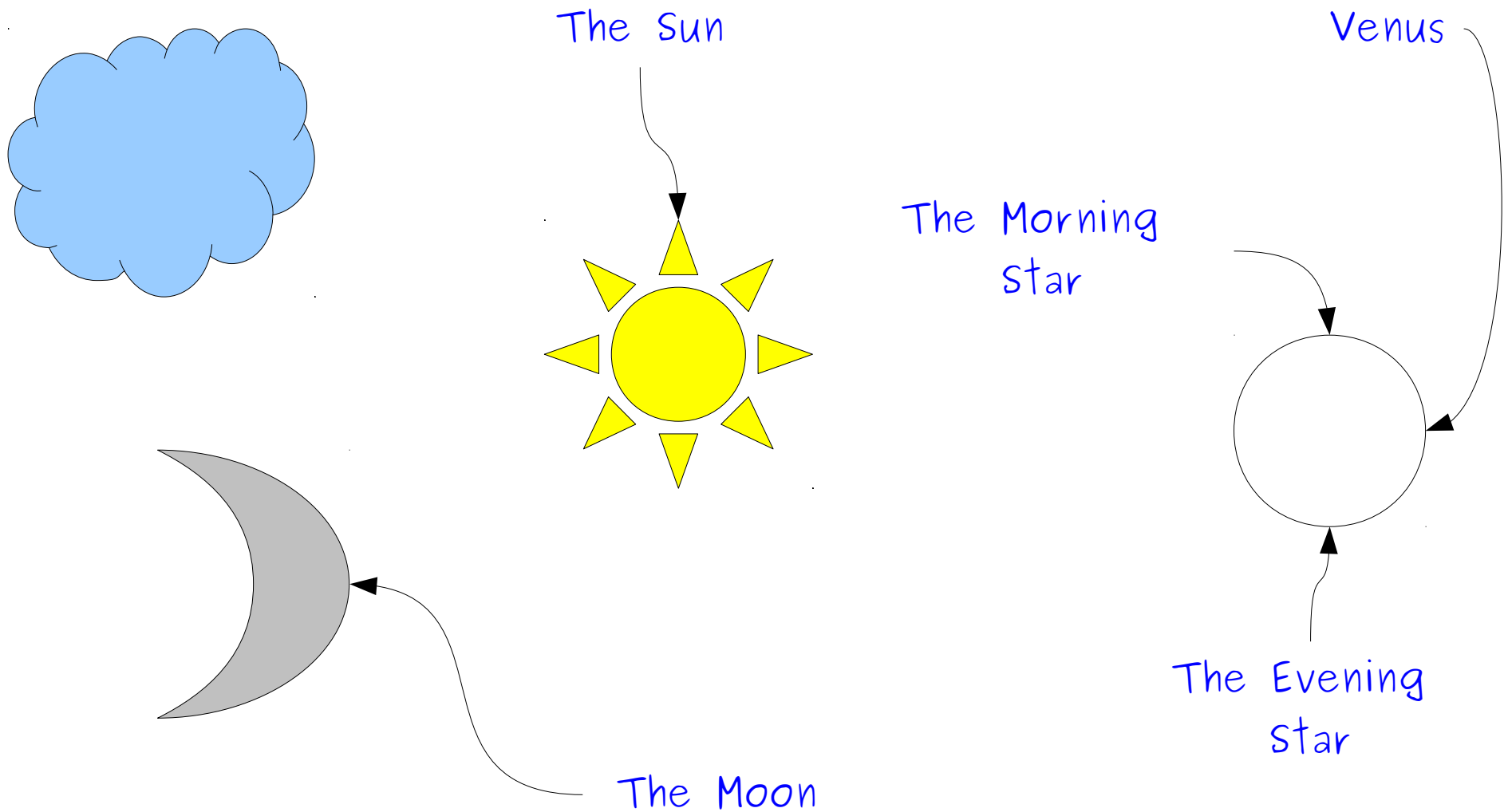
Mathematical Logic

Part Two

Problem set
Three due in the
box up front.

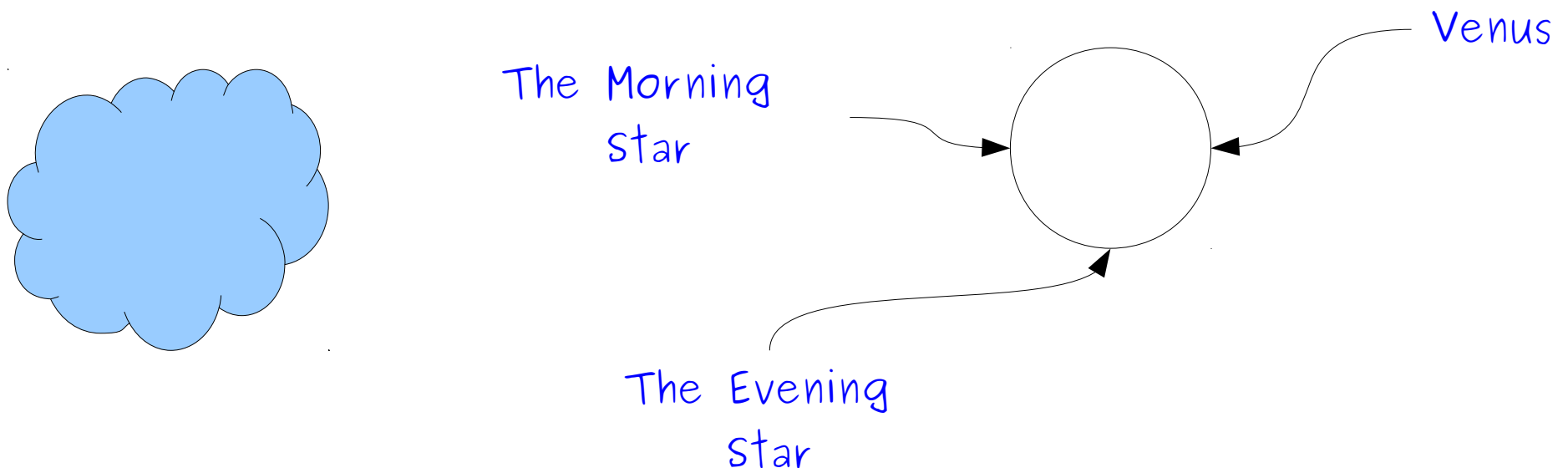
First-Order Logic

The Universe of First-Order Logic



First-Order Logic

- In first-order logic, each variable refers to some object in a set called the **domain of discourse**.
- Some objects may have multiple names.
- Some objects may have no name at all.



Propositional vs. First-Order Logic

- Because propositional variables are either true or false, we can directly apply connectives to them.

$$p \rightarrow q$$

$$\neg p \leftrightarrow q \wedge r$$

- Because first-order variables refer to arbitrary objects, it does not make sense to apply connectives to them.

$$\textit{Venus} \rightarrow \textit{Sun}$$

$$137 \leftrightarrow \neg 42$$

- *This is not C!*

Reasoning about Objects

- To reason about objects, first-order logic uses **predicates**.
- Examples:
 - *NowOpen(USGovernment)*
 - *FinallyTalking(House, Senate)*
- Predicates can take any number of arguments, but each predicate has a fixed number of arguments (called its **arity**)
- Applying a predicate to arguments produces a proposition, which is either true or false.

First-Order Sentences

- Sentences in first-order logic can be constructed from predicates applied to objects:

LikesToEat(V, M) \wedge Near(V, M) \rightarrow WillEat(V, M)

Cute(t) \rightarrow Dikdik(t) \vee Kitty(t) \vee Puppy(t)

$x < 8 \rightarrow x < 137$

The notation $x < 8$ is just a shorthand for something like **LessThan(x, 8)**.

Binary predicates in math are often written like this, but symbols like $<$ are not a part of first-order logic.

Equality

- First-order logic is equipped with a special predicate **=** that says whether two objects are equal to one another.
- Equality is a part of first-order logic, just as \rightarrow and \neg are.
- Examples:

MorningStar = EveningStar

Voldemort = TomMarvoloRiddle

- Equality can only be applied to **objects**; to see if **propositions** are equal, use \leftrightarrow .

For notational simplicity, define \neq as

$$x \neq y \equiv \neg(x = y)$$

Expanding First-Order Logic

$$x < 8 \wedge y < 8 \rightarrow x + y < 16$$

Expanding First-Order Logic

$$x < 8 \wedge y < 8 \rightarrow x + y < 16$$

Why is this allowed?



Functions

- First-order logic allows **functions** that return objects associated with other objects.
- Examples:

$$x + y$$

LengthOf(path)

MedianOf(x, y, z)

- As with predicates, functions can take in any number of arguments, but each function has a fixed arity.
- Functions evaluate to **objects**, not **propositions**.
- There is no syntactic way to distinguish functions and predicates; you'll have to look at how they're used.

How would we translate the
statement

“For any natural number n ,
 n is even iff n^2 is even”

into first-order logic?

Quantifiers

- The biggest change from propositional logic to first-order logic is the use of **quantifiers**.
- A **quantifier** is a statement that expresses that some property is true for some or all choices that could be made.
- Useful for statements like “for every action, there is an equal and opposite reaction.”

“For any natural number n ,
 n is even iff n^2 is even”

“For any natural number n ,
 n is even iff n^2 is even”

$$\forall n. (n \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (Even(n) \leftrightarrow Even(n^2)))$$

“For any natural number n ,
 n is even iff n^2 is even”

$\forall n. (n \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (Even(n) \leftrightarrow Even(n^2)))$

\forall is the **universal quantifier**
and says “for any choice of n ,
the following is true.”

The Universal Quantifier

- A statement of the form $\forall x. \psi$ asserts that for **every** choice of x in our domain, ψ is true.
- Examples:

$$\forall v. (Puppy(v) \rightarrow Cute(v))$$

$$\forall n. (n \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (Even(n) \leftrightarrow \neg Odd(n)))$$

$$Tallest(x) \rightarrow \forall y. (x \neq y \rightarrow IsShorterThan(y, x))$$

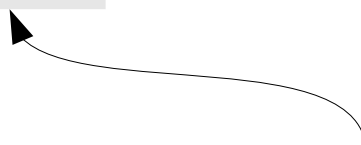
Some muggles are intelligent.

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$\exists m. (Muggle(m) \wedge Intelligent(m))$

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\exists is the **existential quantifier**
and says "for some choice of
 m , the following is true."

The Existential Quantifier

- A statement of the form $\exists x. \psi$ asserts that for **some** choice of x in our domain, ψ is true.
- Examples:
 - $\exists x. (Even(x) \wedge Prime(x))$
 - $\exists x. (TallerThan(x, me) \wedge LighterThan(x, me))$
 - $(\exists x. Appreciates(x, me)) \rightarrow Happy(me)$

Operator Precedence (Again)

- When writing out a formula in first-order logic, the quantifiers \forall and \exists have precedence just below \neg .
- Thus

$$\forall x. P(x) \vee R(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$$

is interpreted as

$$((\forall x. P(x)) \vee R(x)) \rightarrow Q(x)$$

rather than

$$\forall x. ((P(x) \vee R(x)) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

Translating into First-Order Logic

A Bad Translation

All puppies are cute!

$\forall x. (Puppy(x) \wedge Cute(x))$

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This should work
for any choice of
x, including things
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“Whenever $P(x)$, then $Q(x)$ ”

translates as

$$\forall x. (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

Another Bad Translation

Some blobfish is cute.

$$\exists x. (Blobfish(x) \rightarrow Cute(x))$$

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$$\exists x. (\textit{Blobfish}(x) \rightarrow \textit{Cute}(x))$$

What happens if

1. The above statement is false, but
2. x refers to a cute puppy?

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**“There is some $P(x)$ where
 $Q(x)$ ”**

translates as

$$\mathbf{\exists x. (P(x) \wedge Q(x))}$$

The Takeaway Point

- Be careful when translating statements into first-order logic!
- \forall is usually paired with \rightarrow .
 - Sometimes paired with \leftrightarrow .
- \exists is usually paired with \wedge .

Time-Out For Announcements

Friday Four Square!

Today at 4:15PM at Gates

Problem Set Four

- Problem Set Four released today.
 - Checkpoint due on Monday.
 - Rest of the assignment due Friday.
 - Explore functions, cardinality, diagonalization, and logic!

Your Questions

What material is covered on the midterm?
Is it open-notes?

Hey Keith, how did you first get interested in math/computer science? Your enthusiasm is infectious but also somewhat curious.

Back to Logic!

Combining Quantifiers

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- Example: “Everyone loves someone else.”

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For every person,
there is some person
who isn't them
that they love.

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For Comparison

$\forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow \exists q. (Person(q) \wedge p \neq q \wedge Loves(p, q)))$

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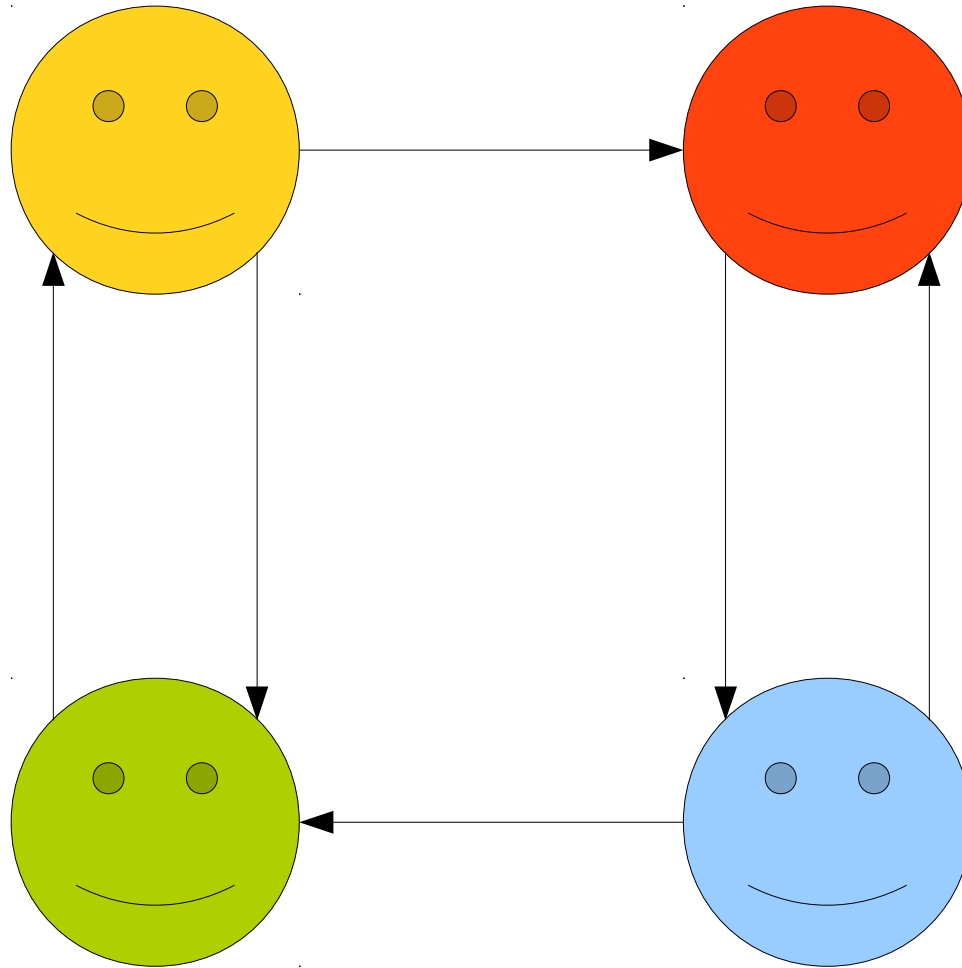
There is some person

who everyone

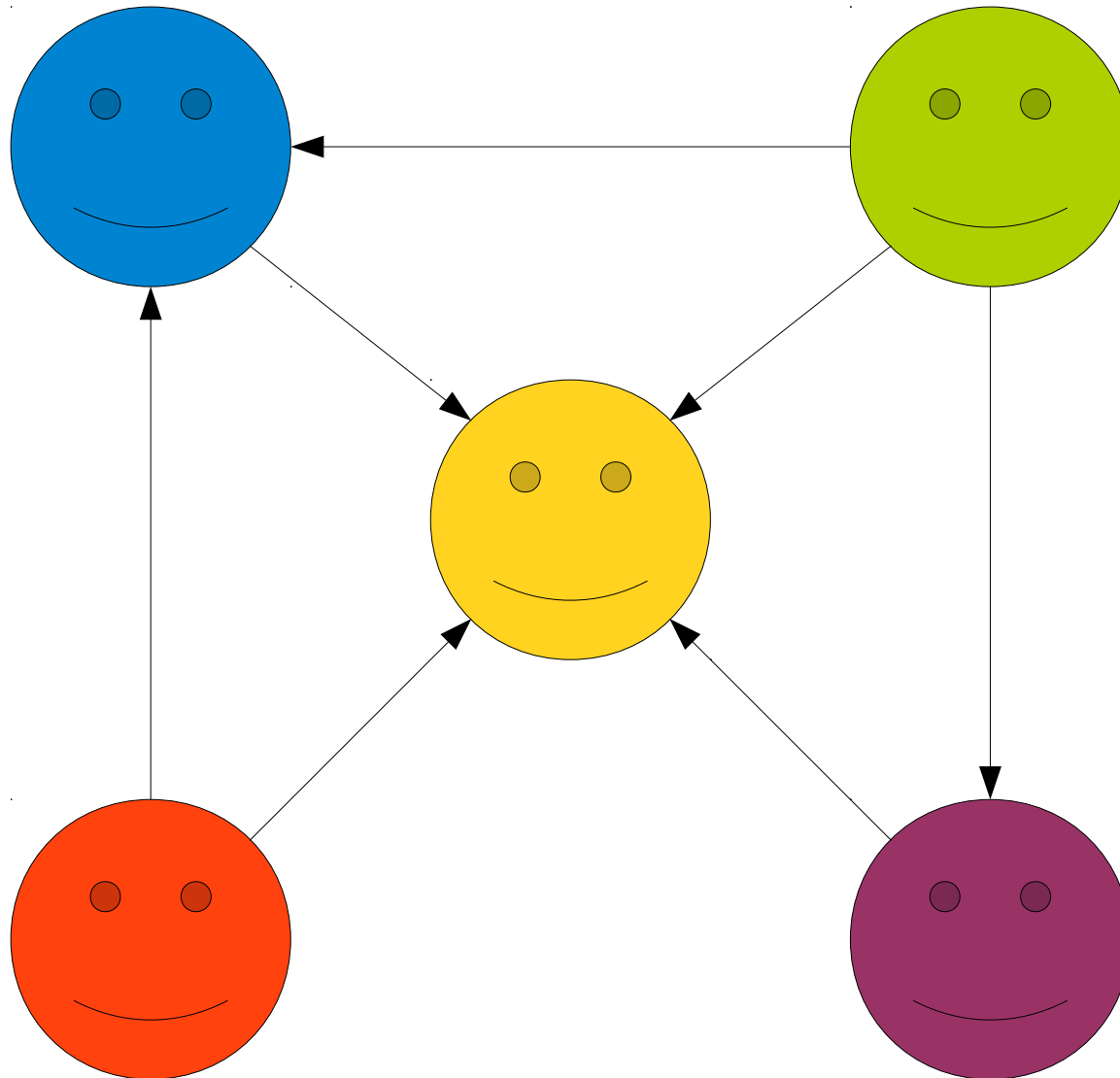
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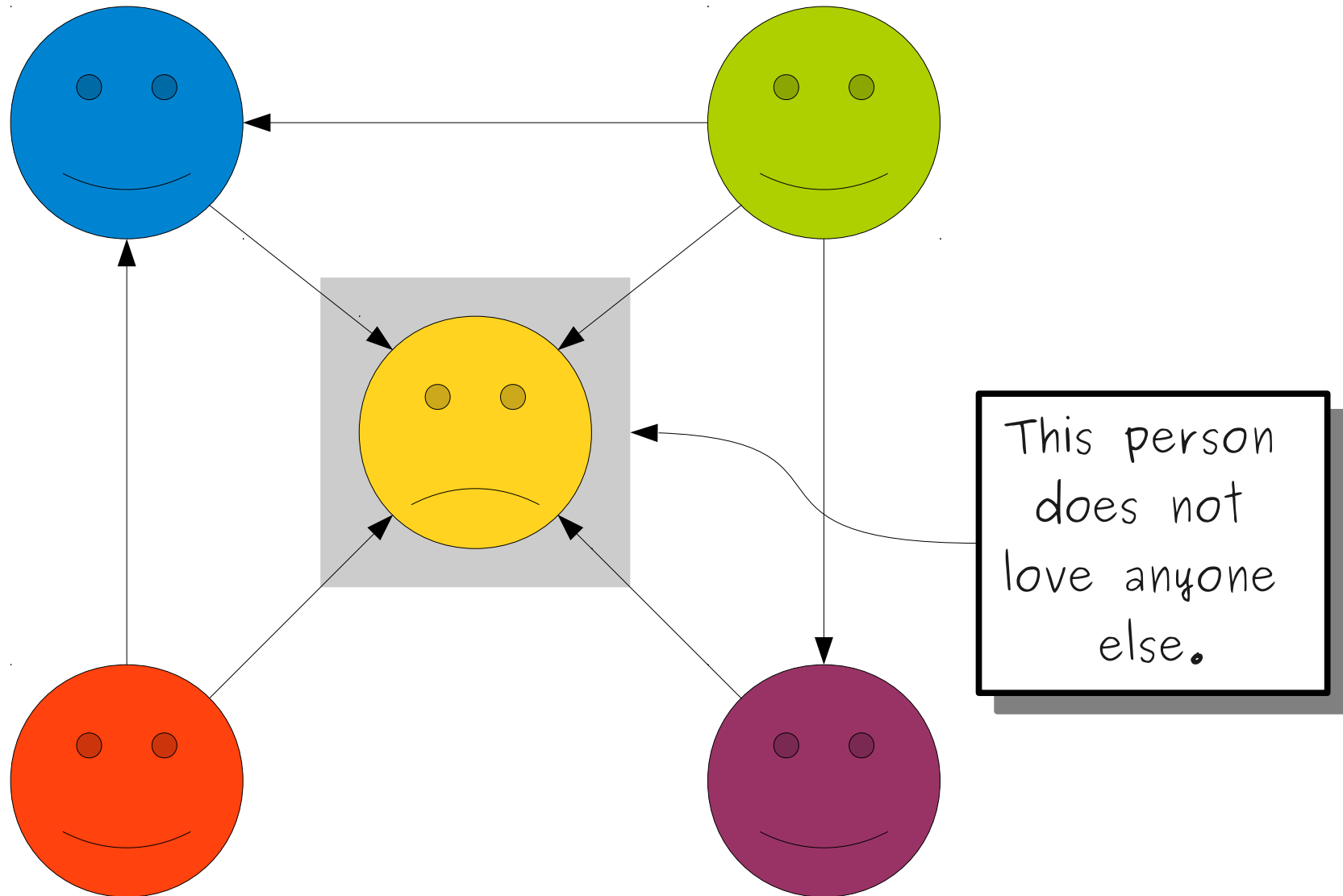
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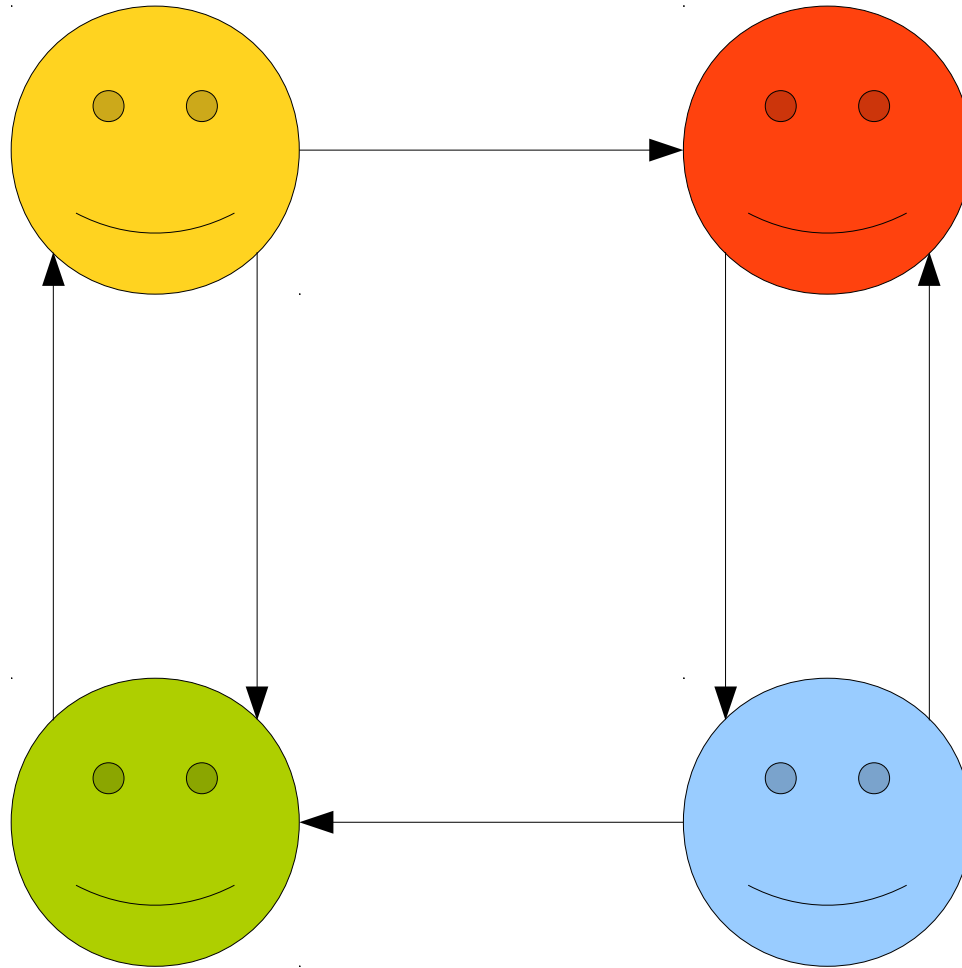
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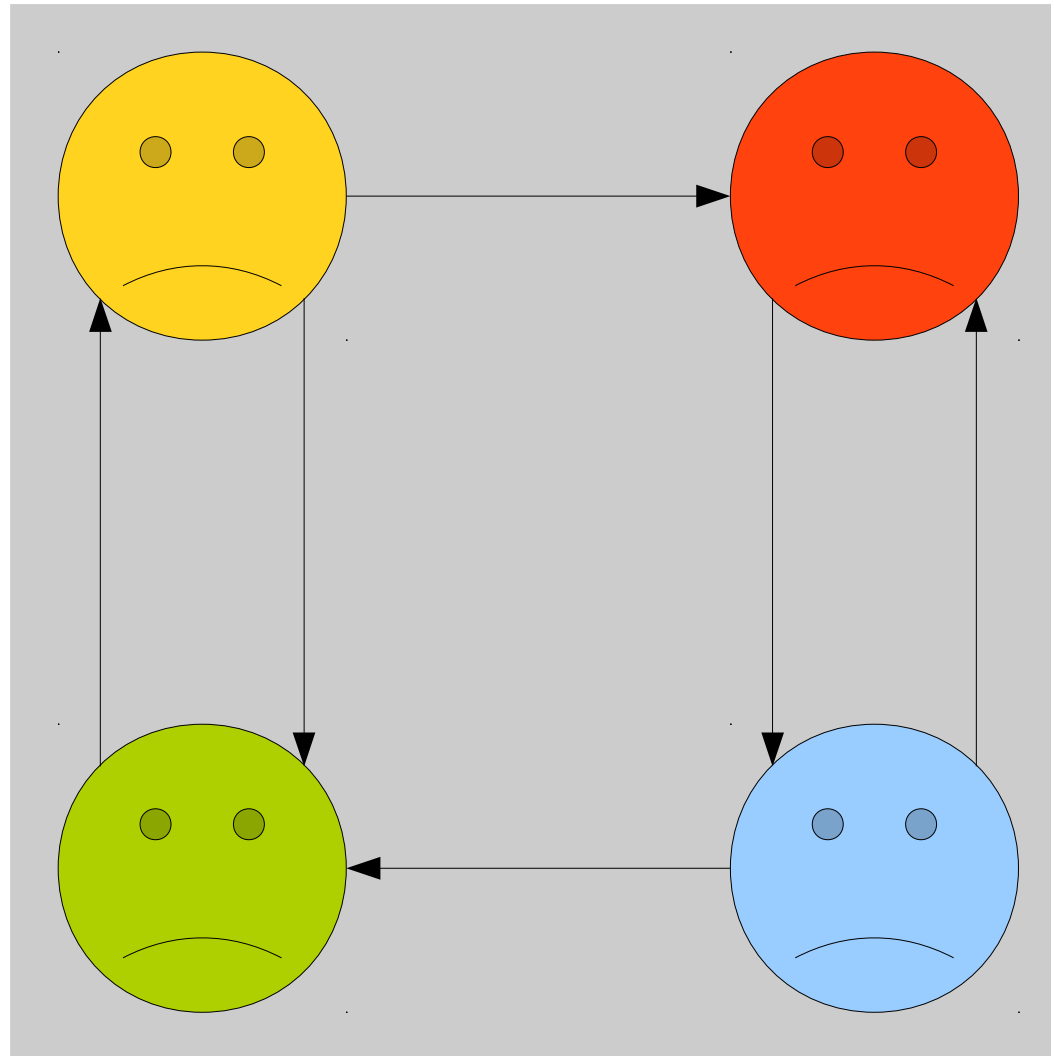
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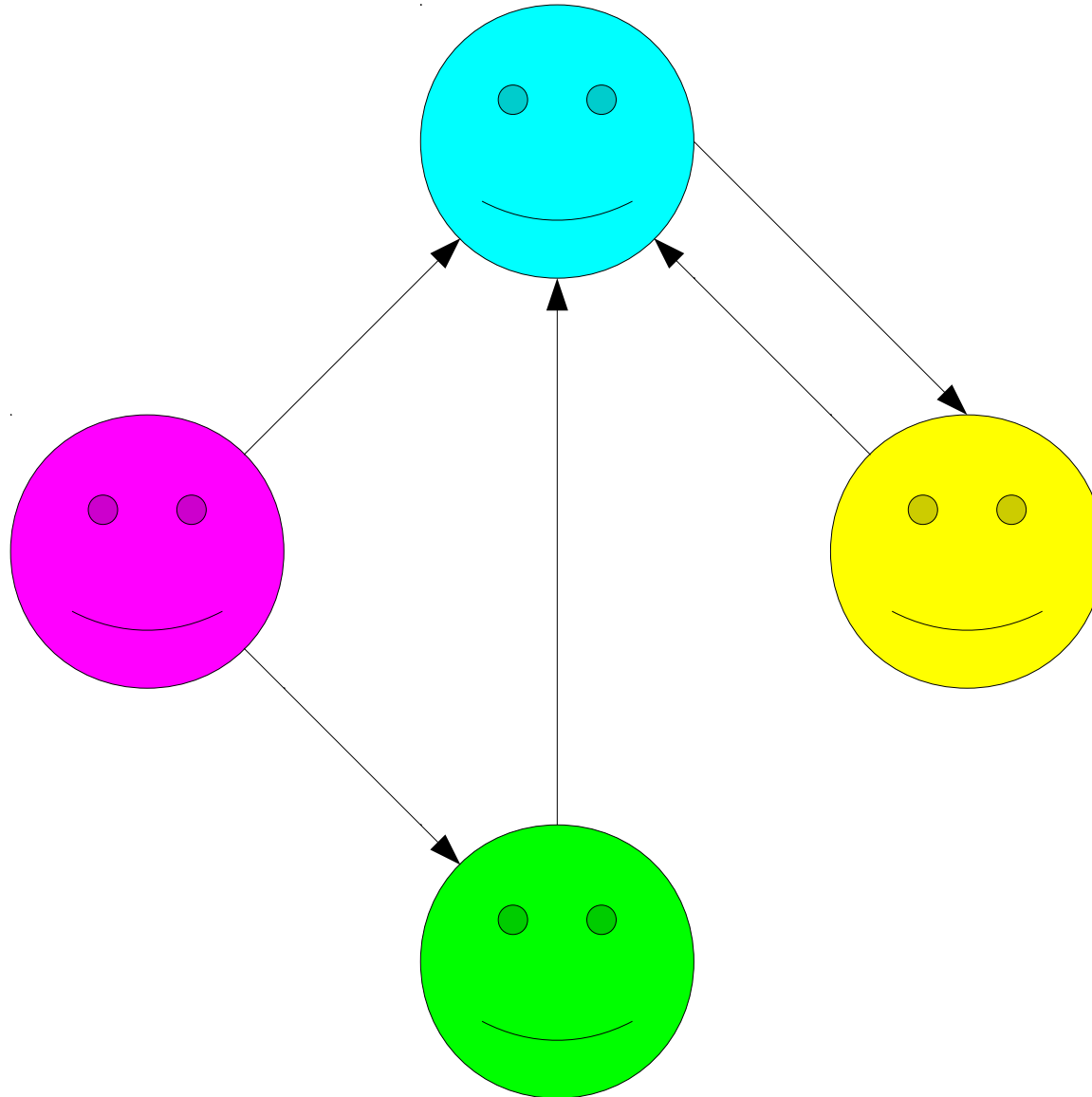


Everyone Loves Someone Else



No one here
is universally
loved.

Everyone Loves Someone Else **and**
There is Someone Everyone Else Loves



$\forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow \exists q. (Person(q) \wedge p \neq q \wedge Loves(p, q)))$

For every person,

there is some person

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that they love.

\wedge

$\exists p. (Person(p) \wedge \forall q. (Person(q) \wedge p \neq q \rightarrow Loves(q, p)))$

There is some person

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The statement

$$\forall x. \exists y. P(x, y)$$

means “For any choice of x , there is **some** choice of y (possibly dependent on x) where $P(x, y)$ holds.”

The statement

$$\exists y. \forall x. P(x, y)$$

means “There is some choice of y where
for **any** choice of x , $P(x, y)$ holds.”

Order matters when mixing existential
and universal quantifiers!

Quantifying Over Sets

- The notation

$$\forall x \in S. P(x)$$

means “for any element x of set S , $P(x)$ holds.”

- This is not technically a part of first-order logic; it is a shorthand for

$$\forall x. (x \in S \rightarrow P(x))$$

- How might we encode this concept?

$$\exists x \in S. P(x)$$

Answer: $\exists x. (x \in S \wedge P(x)).$

Note the use of \wedge instead of \rightarrow here.

Quantifying Over Sets

- The syntax

$$\forall x \in S. \varphi$$

$$\exists x \in S. \varphi$$

is allowed for quantifying over sets.

- In CS103, please do not use variants of this syntax.
- Please don't do things like this:

$$\forall x \text{ with } P(x). Q(x)$$

$$\forall y \text{ such that } P(y) \wedge Q(y). R(y).$$

Translating into First-Order Logic

- First-order logic has great expressive power and is often used to formally encode mathematical definitions.
- Let's go provide rigorous definitions for the terms we've been using so far.

Set Theory

“Two sets are equal iff they contain the same elements.”

$$S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)$$

Is something
missing?

Set Theory

“Two sets are equal iff they contain the same elements.”

$$\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow$$
$$\forall T. (Set(T) \rightarrow$$

$$(S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)))$$

Many statements asserting a general claim is true are implicitly universally quantified.

Set Theory

“The **union** of two sets is the set containing all elements of both sets.”

$$\begin{aligned} &\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \\ &\quad \forall T. (Set(T) \rightarrow \\ &\quad \quad \forall x. (x \in S \cup T \leftrightarrow x \in S \vee x \in T) \\ &\quad) \\ &) \end{aligned}$$

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Relations

“ R is a reflexive relation over A .”

Relations

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$$\forall a \in A. aRa$$

Relations

“ R is a symmetric relation over A .”

$$\forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. (aRb \rightarrow bRa)$$

Relations

“ R is an antisymmetric relation over A .”

$$\forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. (aRb \wedge bRa \rightarrow a = b)$$

Relations

“ R is a transitive relation over A .”

$$\forall a \in A. \forall b \in A. \forall c \in A. (aRb \wedge bRc \rightarrow aRc)$$

Negating Quantifiers

- We spent much of Wednesday's lecture discussing how to negate propositional constructs.
- How do we negate quantifiers?

An Extremely Important Table

	When is this true?	When is this false?
$\forall x. P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$	For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
$\exists x. P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$	For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
$\forall x. \neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
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Negating First-Order Statements

- Use the equivalences

$$\neg \forall x. \varphi \equiv \exists x. \neg \varphi$$

$$\neg \exists x. \varphi \equiv \forall x. \neg \varphi$$

to negate quantifiers.

- Mechanically:
 - Push the negation across the quantifier.
 - Change the quantifier from \forall to \exists or vice-versa.
- Use techniques from propositional logic to negate connectives.

Analyzing Relations

“ R is a binary relation over set A that is not reflexive”

$$\neg \forall a \in A. aRa$$

$$\exists a \in A. \neg aRa$$

“Some $a \in A$ is not related to itself by R .”

Analyzing Relations

“ R is a binary relation over A that is not antisymmetric”

$$\neg \forall x \in A. \forall y \in A. (xRy \wedge yRx \rightarrow x = y)$$

$$\exists x \in A. \neg \forall y \in A. (xRy \wedge yRx \rightarrow x = y)$$

$$\exists x \in A. \exists y \in A. \neg (xRy \wedge yRx \rightarrow x = y)$$

$$\exists x \in A. \exists y \in A. (xRy \wedge yRx \wedge \neg (x = y))$$

$$\exists x \in A. \exists y \in A. (xRy \wedge yRx \wedge x \neq y)$$

“Some $x \in A$ and $y \in A$ are related to one another by R , but are not equal”

Next Time

- **Formal Languages**
 - What is the mathematical definition of a problem?
- **Finite Automata**
 - What does a mathematical model of a computer look like?