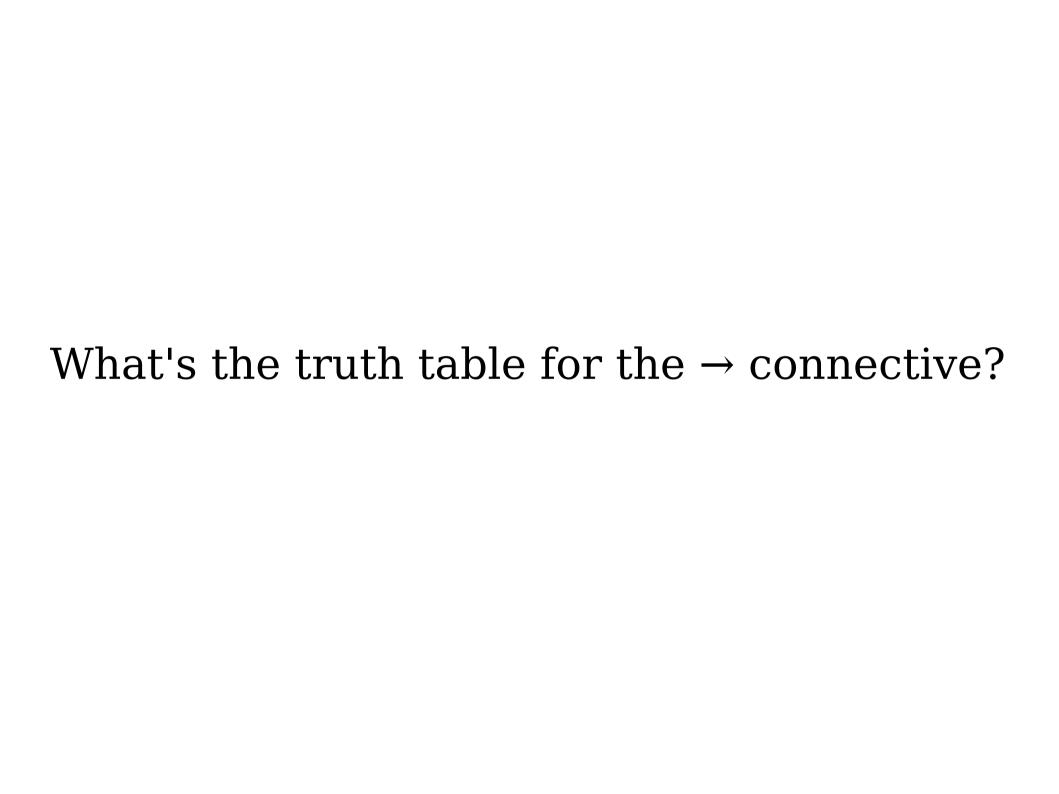
Mathematical Logic Part Two

Recap from Last Time

Recap So Far

- A *propositional variable* is a variable that is either true or false.
- The *propositional connectives* are as follows:
 - Negation: $\neg p$
 - Conjunction: *p* ∧ *q*
 - Disjunction: p v q
 - Implication: $p \rightarrow q$
 - Biconditional: $p \leftrightarrow q$
 - True: T
 - False: ⊥

Take out a sheet of paper!



What's the negation of $p \rightarrow q$?

New Stuff!

First-Order Logic

What is First-Order Logic?

- *First-order logic* is a logical system for reasoning about properties of objects.
- Augments the logical connectives from propositional logic with
 - *predicates* that describe properties of objects,
 - functions that map objects to one another, and
 - *quantifiers* that allow us to reason about multiple objects.

Some Examples

Likes(You, ComicBooks) v Likes(You, GoodMovies) v Likes(You, AwesomeWomenInTech) → Likes(You, BlackPanther)



Learns(You, History) v ForeverRepeats(You, History)

In(MyHeart, Havana) \(\Lambda \) TookBackTo(Him, Me, EastAtlanta)

Learns(You, History) v ForeverRepeats(You, History)

 $In(MyHeart, Havana) \land TookBackTo(Him, Me, EastAtlanta)$

Learns(You, History) v ForeverRepeats(You, History)

In(MyHeart, Havana) ∧ TookBackTo(Him, Me, EastAtlanta)

These blue terms are called constant symbols. Unlike propositional variables, they refer to objects, not propositions.

Learns(You, History) v ForeverRepeats(You, History)

In(MyHeart, Havana) ∧ TookBackTo(Him, Me, EastAtlanta)

Learns(You, History) v ForeverRepeats(You, History)

 $In(MyHeart, Havana) \land TookBackTo(Him, Me, EastAtlanta)$

The red things that look like function calls are called **predicates**. Predicates take objects as arguments and evaluate to true or false.

Learns(You, History) v ForeverRepeats(You, History)

In(MyHeart, Havana) \(\Lambda \) TookBackTo(Him, Me, EastAtlanta)

Learns(You, History) v ForeverRepeats(You, History)

 $In(MyHeart, Havana) \land TookBackTo(Him, Me, EastAtlanta)$

What remains are traditional propositional connectives. Because each predicate evaluates to true or false, we can connect the truth values of predicates using normal propositional connectives.

Reasoning about Objects

- To reason about objects, first-order logic uses predicates.
- Examples:

Cute(Quokka)

Likes(DrLee, CS103)

Likes(DrLee, Quokka)

¬Cute(Mosquito)

¬Likes(DrLee, Mosquito)

- Applying a predicate to arguments produces a proposition, which is either true or false.
- Typically, when you're working in FOL, you'll have a list of predicates, what they stand for, and how many arguments they take. It'll be given separately than the formulas you write.

First-Order Sentences

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

 $Cute(a) \rightarrow Dikdik(a) \lor Kitty(a) \lor Puppy(a)$

 $Succeeds(You) \leftrightarrow Practices(You)$

$$x < 8 \rightarrow x < 137$$

The less-than sign is just another predicate. Binary predicates are sometimes written in *infix notation* this way.

Numbers are not "built in" to first-order logic. They're constant symbols just like "You" and "a" above.

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 → and ¬ are.
- Examples:

TomMarvoloRiddle = LordVoldemortMorningStar = EveningStar

 Equality can only be applied to *objects*; to state that two *propositions* are equal, use ↔. Let's see some more examples.

These purple terms are **functions**. Functions take objects as input and produce objects as output.

Functions

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

ColorOf(Sky) MedianOf(x, y, z) x + y

- As with predicates, functions can take in any number of arguments, but always return a single value.
- Functions evaluate to *objects*, not *propositions*.

Objects and Predicates

- When working in first-order logic, be careful to keep objects (actual things) and predicates (true or false) separate.
- You cannot apply connectives to objects:

 \triangle

Venus → TheSun



- You cannot apply functions to propositions:
 - \triangle StarOf(IsRed(Sun) \land IsGreen(Mars)) \triangle
- Ever get confused? Just ask!

The Type-Checking Table

	operate on	and produce
Connectives (↔, ∧, etc.)	propositions	a proposition
Predicates (=, etc.)	objects	a proposition
Functions	objects	an object

Type Inference

Consider the following formula in first-order logic:

$$R(y) \rightarrow (S(x, y) = T(x))$$

Assuming that this formula is syntactically correct, which of R, S, and T are **predicates** and which are **functions**?

```
A. R is a predicate, S is a predicate,
                                         and T is a predicate.
B. R is a predicate,
                      S is a predicate,
                                        and T is a function.
C. R is a predicate, S is a function,
                                        and T is a predicate.
D. R is a predicate,
                      S is a function,
                                         and T is a function.
E. R is a function, S is a predicate,
                                        and T is a predicate.
F. R is a function, S is a predicate,
                                        and T is a function.
G. R is a function,
                      S is a function,
                                         and T is a predicate.
H. R is a function, S is a function,
                                        and T is a function.
```

Answer at **PollEv.com/cs103** or text **CS103** to **22333** once to join, then **A**, **B**, **C**, ..., or **H**.

One last (and major) change

Some muggle is intelligent.

Some muggle is intelligent.

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

Some muggle is intelligent.

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

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

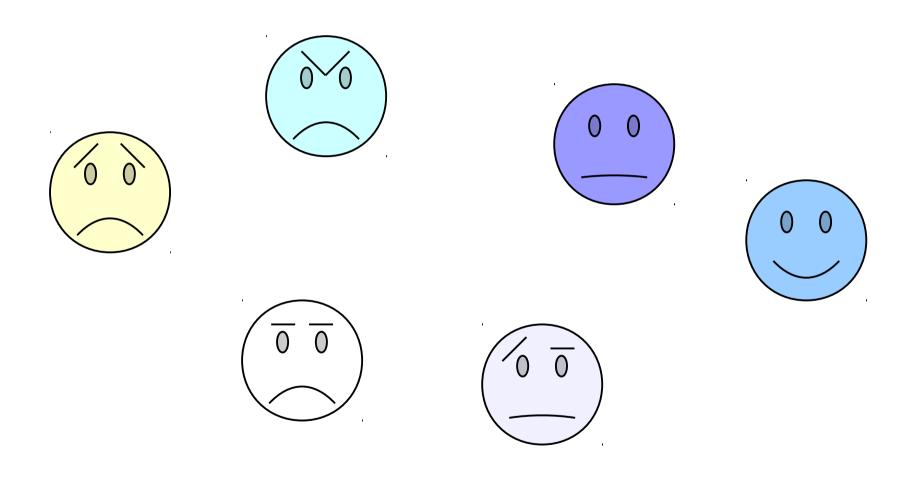
A statement of the form

3x. some-formula

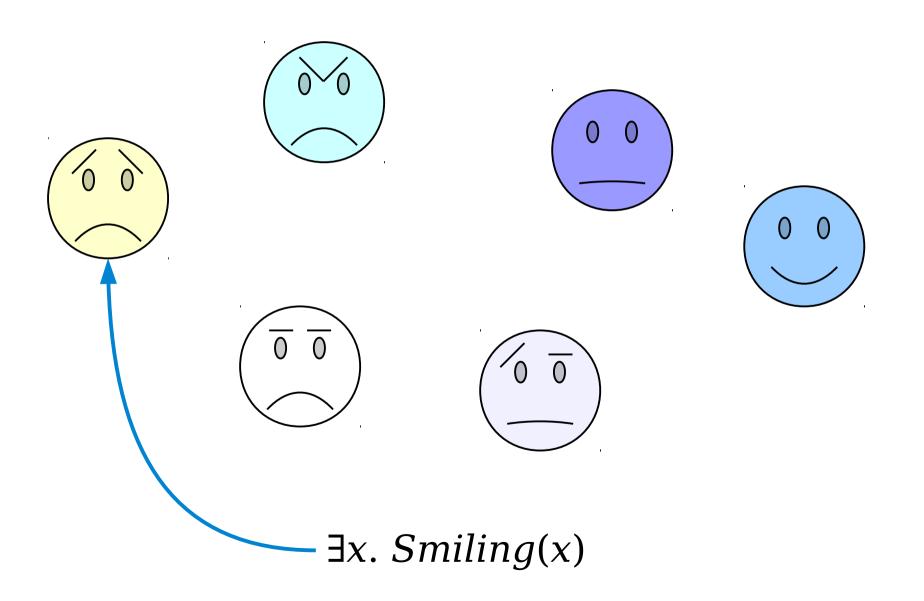
is true if, for *some* choice of x, the statement **some-formula** is true when that x is plugged into it.

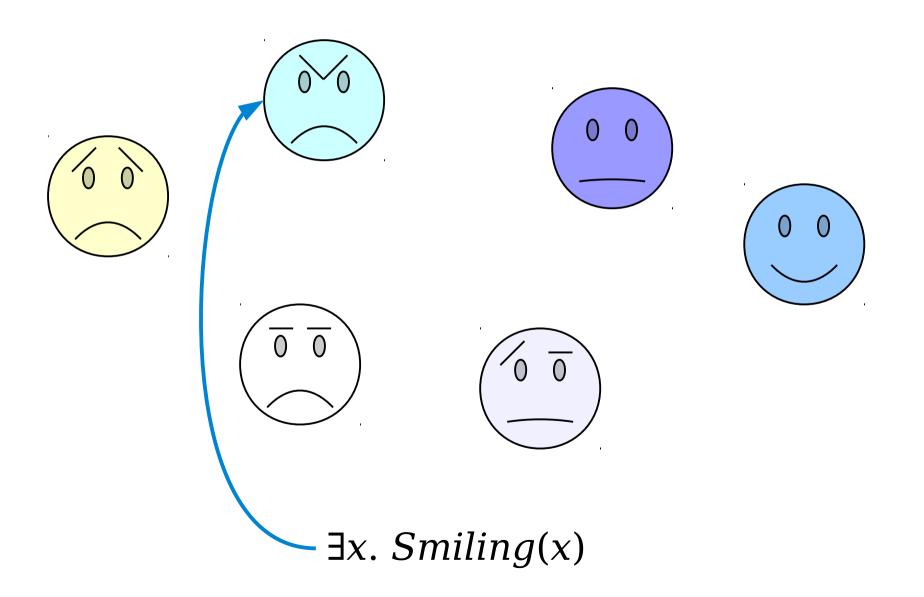
• Examples:

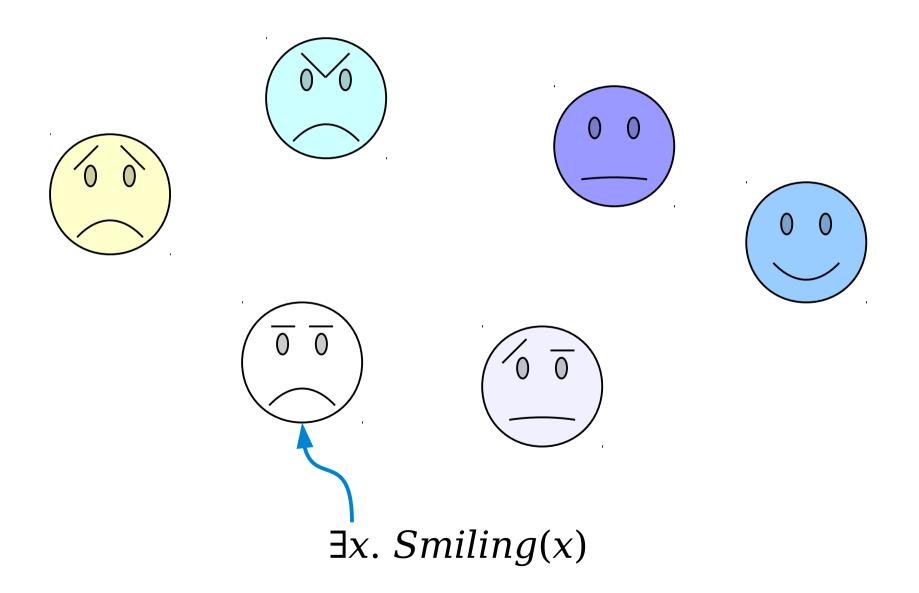
```
\exists x. (Even(x) \land Prime(x))
\exists x. (TallerThan(x, me) \land LighterThan(x, me))
(\exists w. Will(w)) \rightarrow (\exists x. Way(x))
```

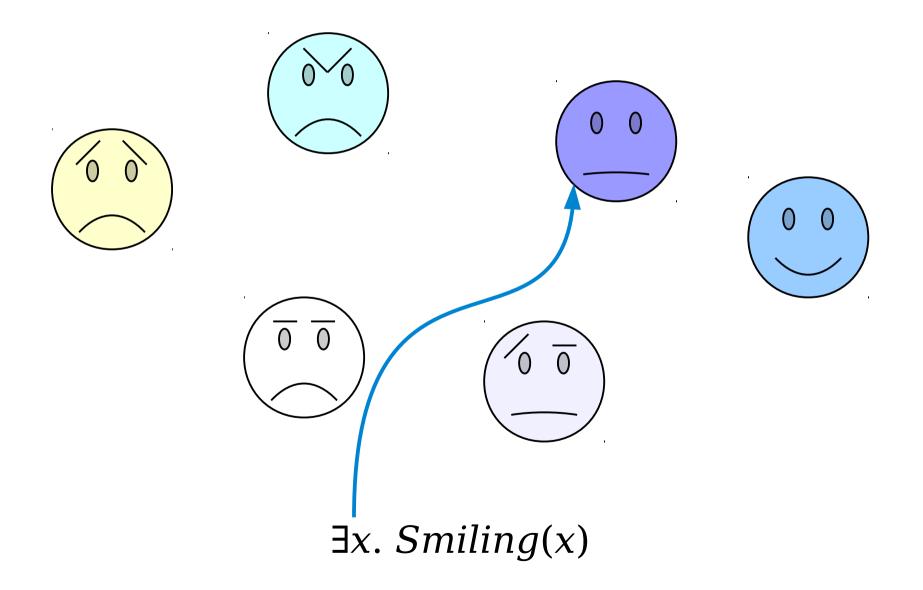


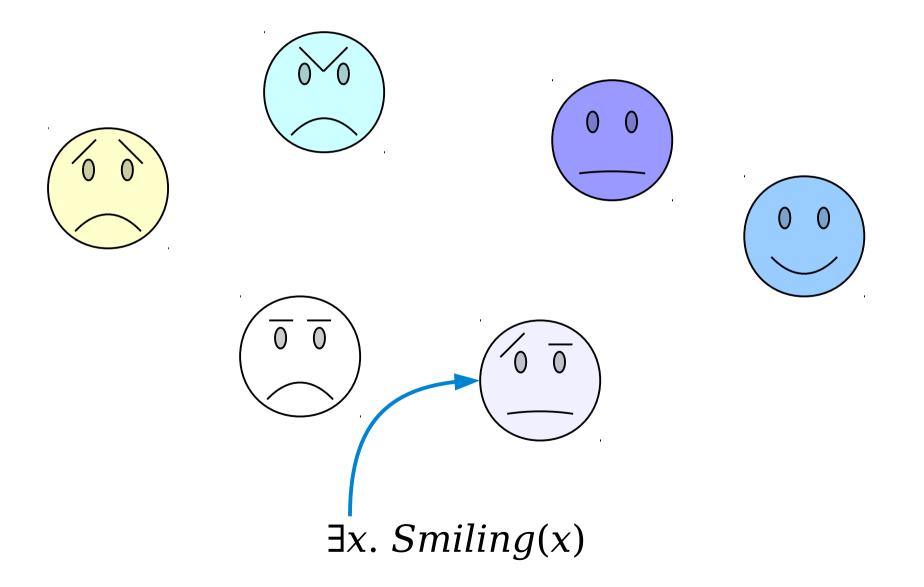
 $\exists x. Smiling(x)$

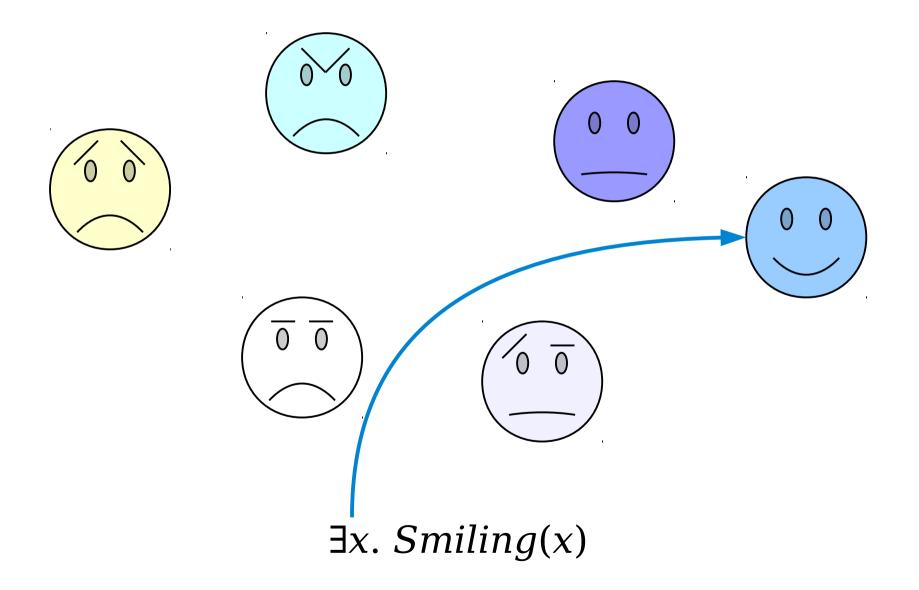


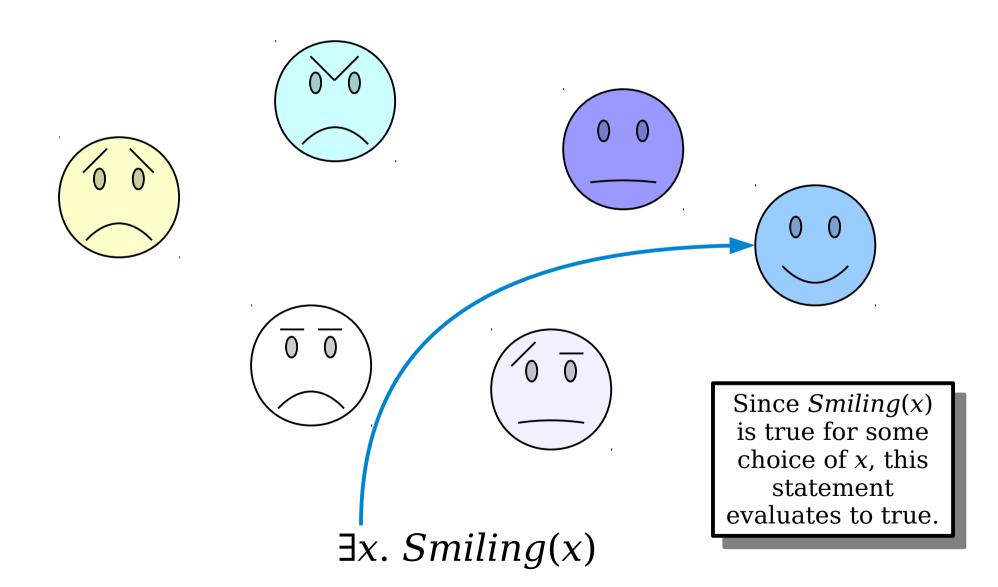


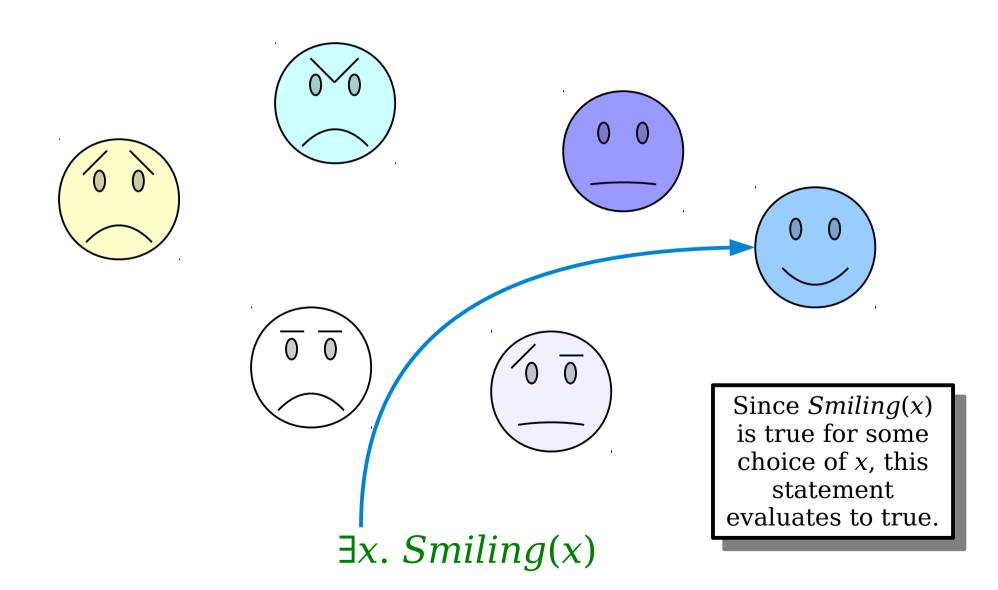


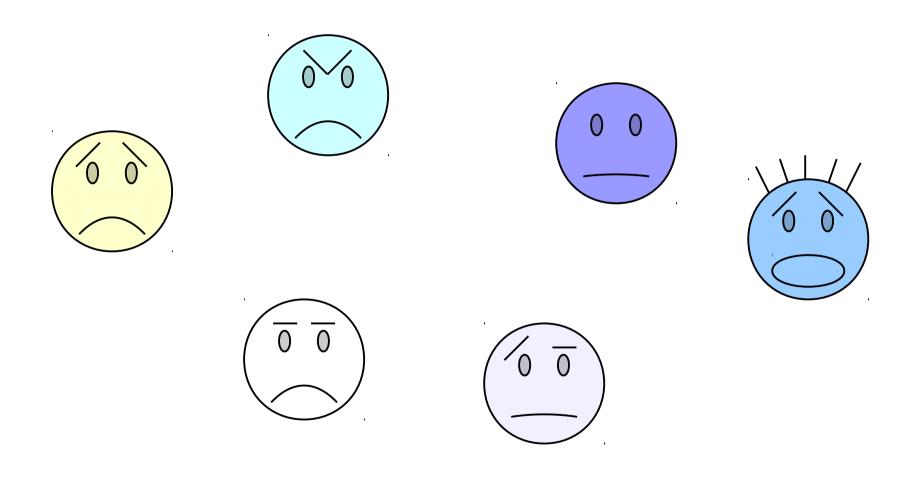




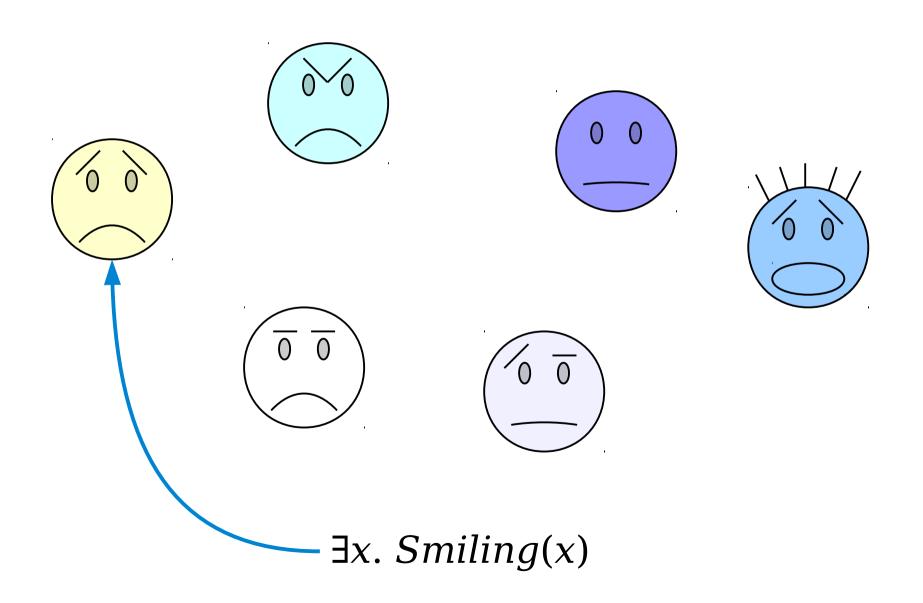


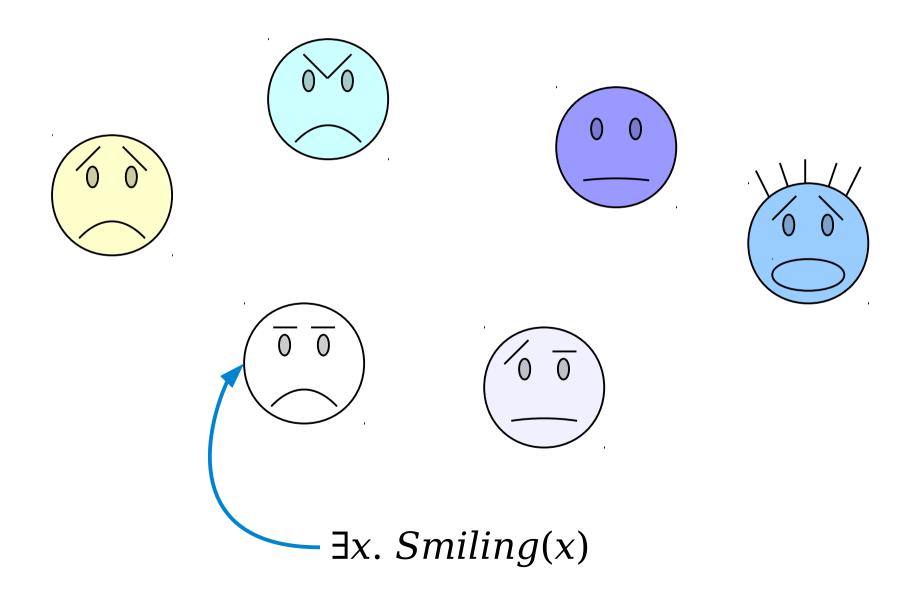


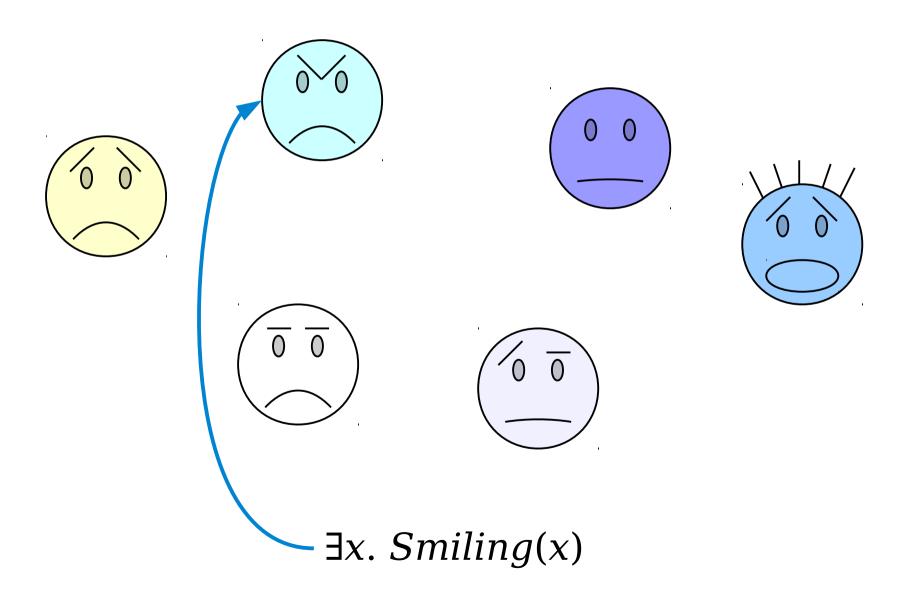


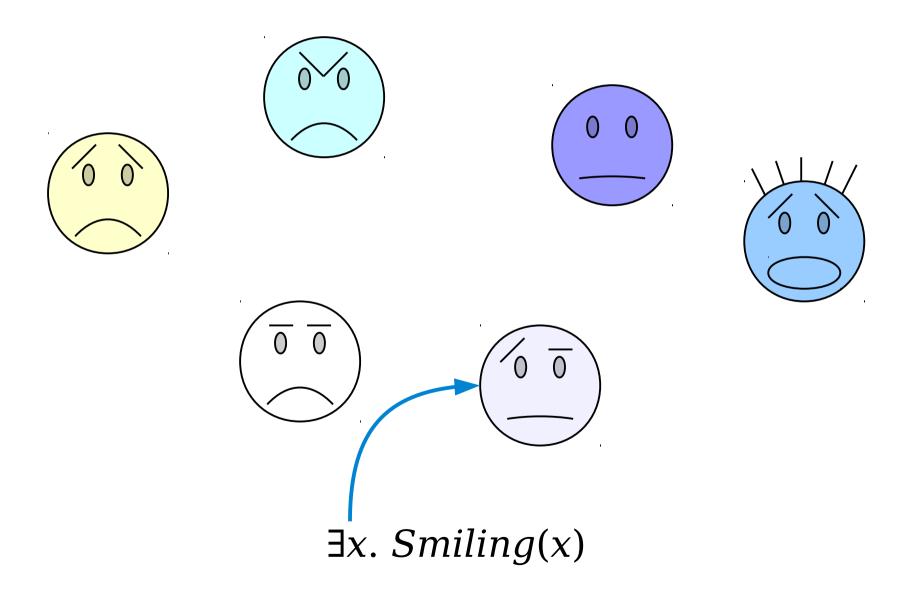


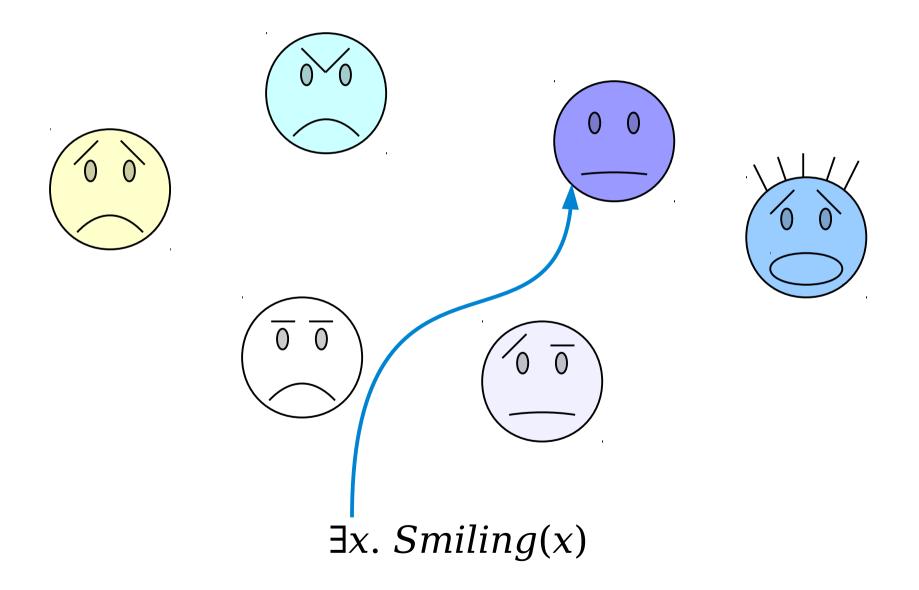
 $\exists x. Smiling(x)$

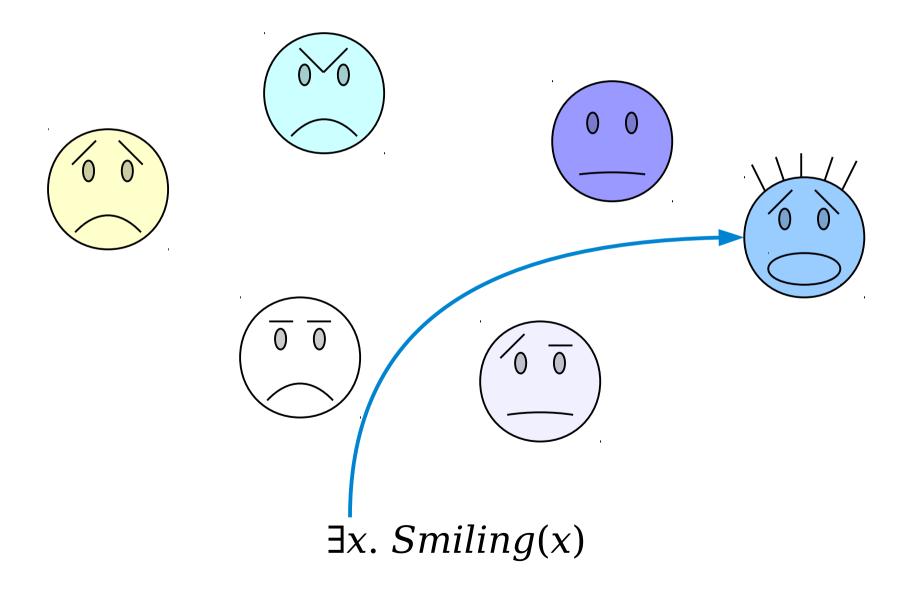


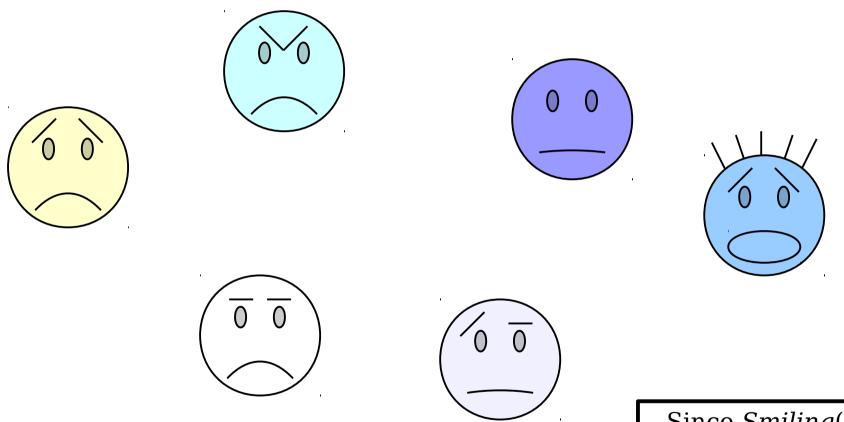






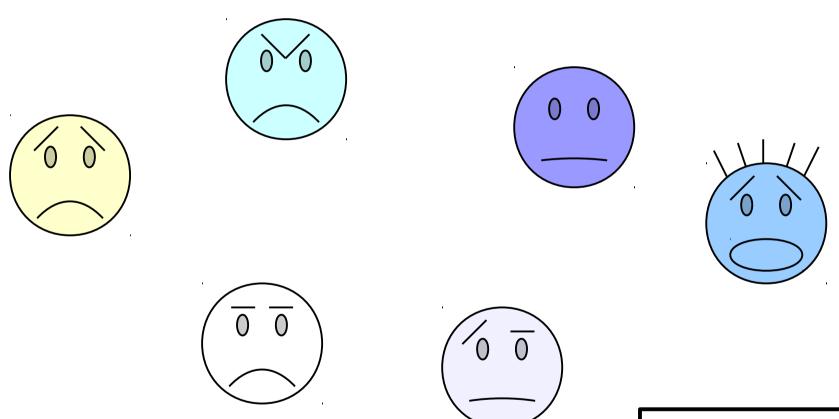






 $\exists x. Smiling(x)$

Since *Smiling*(*x*) is not true for any choice of *x*, this statement evaluates to false.



 $\exists x. Smiling(x)$

Since *Smiling*(*x*) is not true for any choice of *x*, this statement evaluates to false.

The Existential Qu

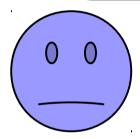
In this world, this first-order logic statement is...

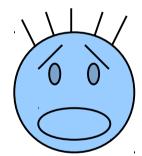
A. ... true.

B. ... false.

C. ... neither true nor false.



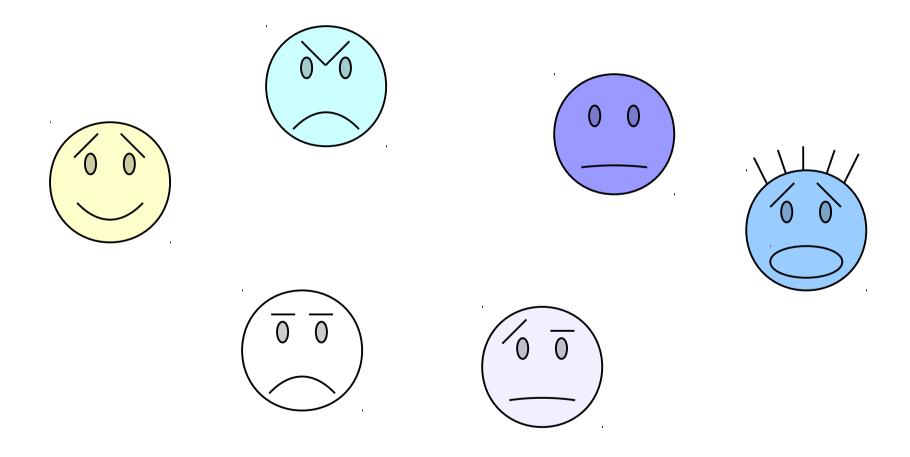


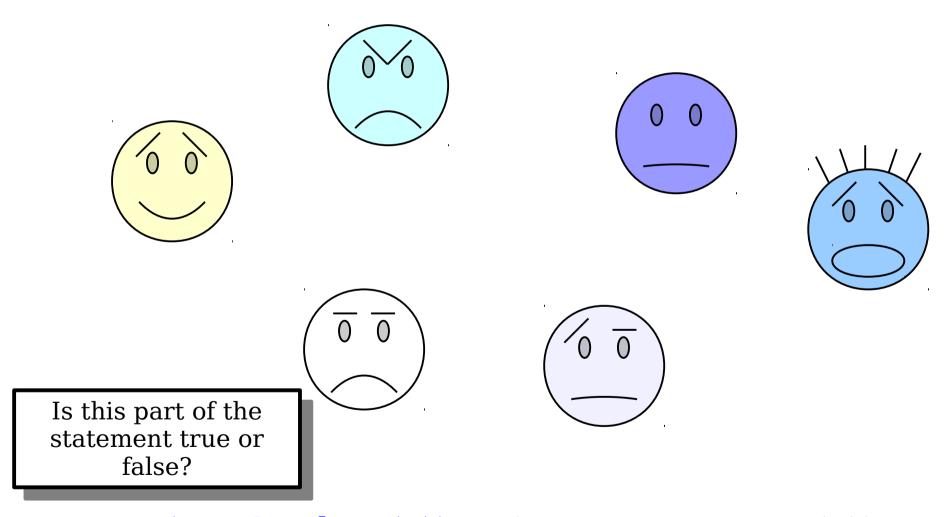


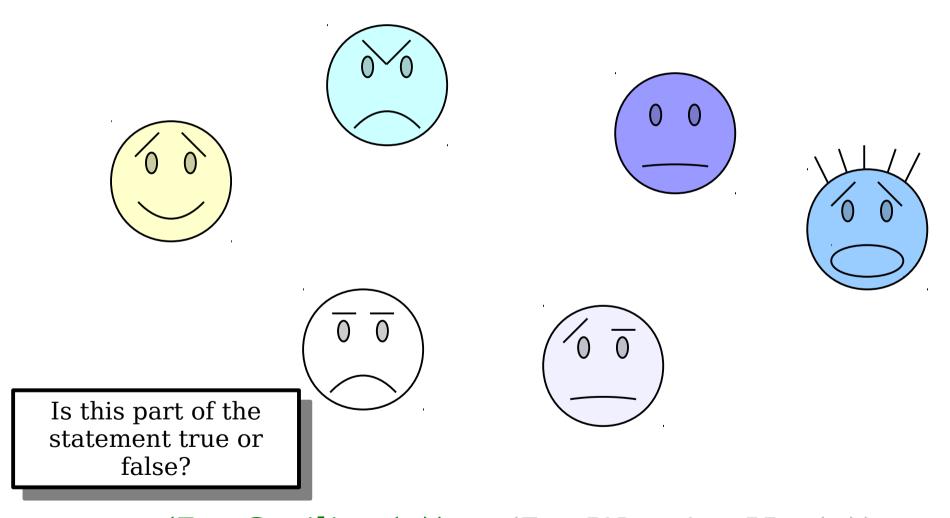


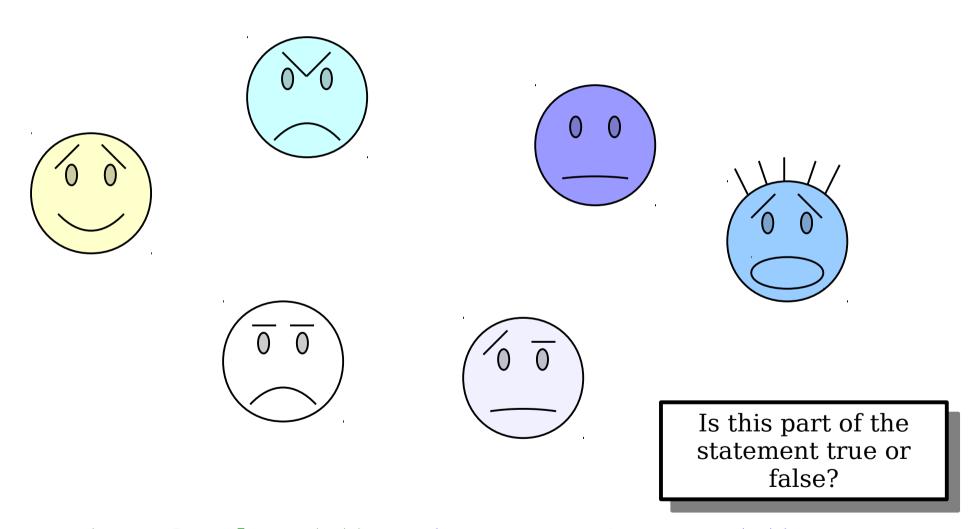


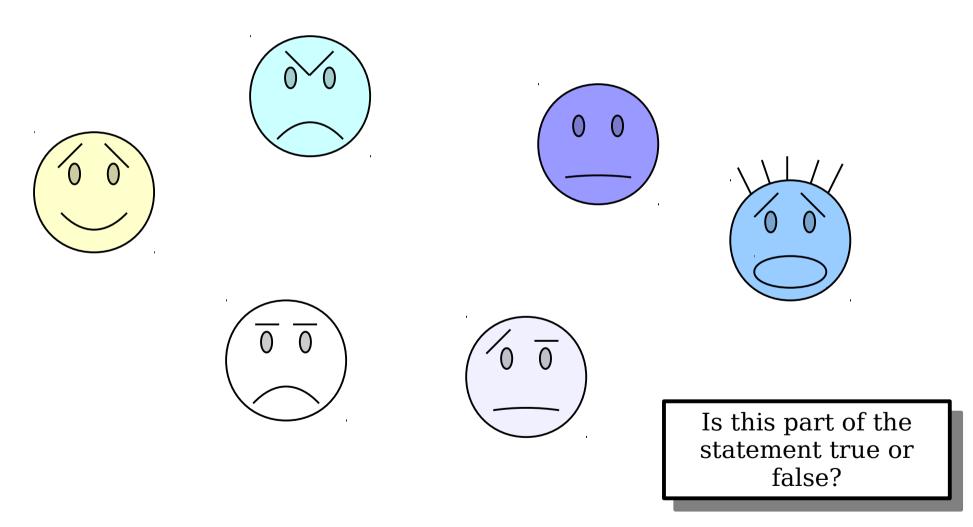
Answer at **PollEv.com/cs103** or text **CS103** to **22333** once to join, then **A**, **B**, or **C**.

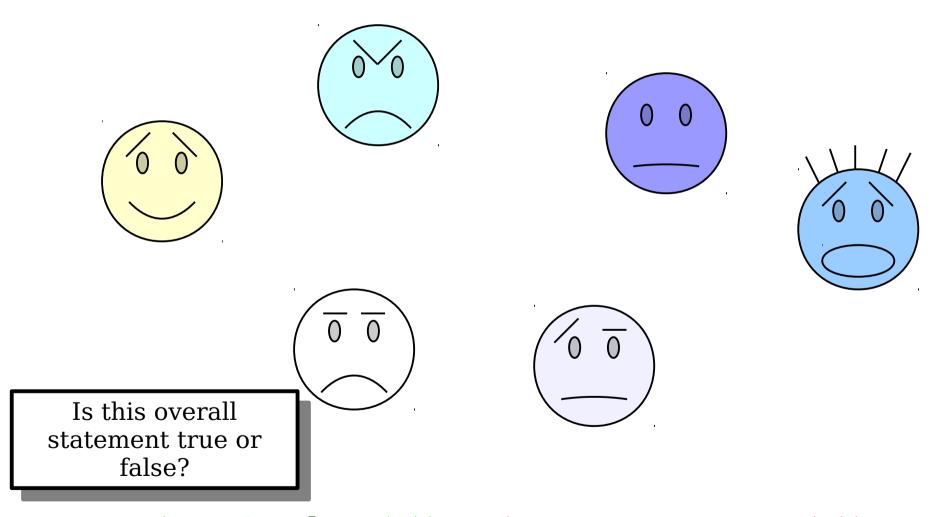


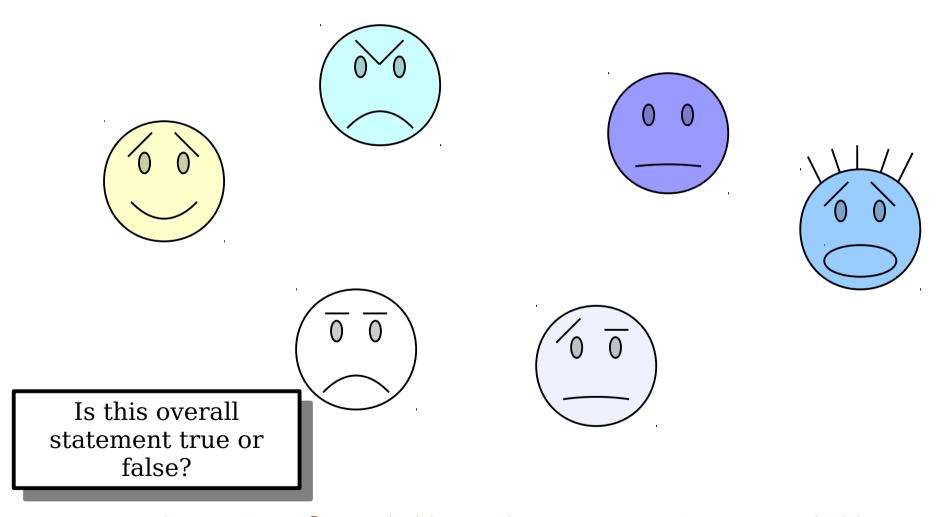












Fun with Edge Cases

Fun with Edge Cases

Existentially-quantified statements are false in an empty world, since it's not possible to choose an object!

 $\exists x. Smiling(x)$

Some Technical Details

- Each quantifier has two parts:
 - the variable that is introduced, and
 - the statement that's being quantified.
- The variable introduced is scoped just to the statement being quantified.

 $(\exists x. Loves(You, x)) \land (\exists y. Loves(y, You))$

- Each quantifier has two parts:
 - the variable that is introduced, and
 - the statement that's being quantified.
- The variable introduced is scoped just to the statement being quantified.

 $(\exists x. Loves(You, x)) \land (\exists y. Loves(y, You))$

The variable **x** just lives here.

The variable *y* just lives here.

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 - the variable that is introduced, and
 - the statement that's being quantified.
- The variable introduced is scoped just to the statement being quantified.

 $(\exists x. Loves(You, x)) \land (\exists y. Loves(y, You))$

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 - the variable that is introduced, and
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 $(\exists x. Loves(You, x)) \land (\exists x. Loves(x, You))$

Variables and Quantifiers

- Each quantifier has two parts:
 - the variable that is introduced, and
 - the statement that's being quantified.
- The variable introduced is scoped just to the statement being quantified.

 $(\exists x. Loves(You, x)) \land (\exists x. Loves(x, You))$

The variable x just lives here.

A different variable, also named **x**, just lives here.

Operator Precedence (Again)

- When writing out a formula in first-order logic, quantifiers have precedence just below ¬.
- The statement

$$\exists x. P(x) \land R(x) \land Q(x)$$

is parsed like this:

$$(\exists x. P(x)) \land (R(x) \land Q(x))$$

- This is syntactically invalid because the variable *x* is out of scope in the back half of the formula.
- To ensure that *x* is properly quantified, explicitly put parentheses around the region you want to quantify:

$$\exists x. (P(x) \land R(x) \land Q(x))$$

"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"

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

"For any natural number n, n is even iff n^2 is even"

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

∀ is the *universal quantifier* and says "for any choice of *n*, the following is true."

A statement of the form

$\forall x. some-formula$

is true if, for every choice of x, the statement **some-formula** is true when x is plugged into it.

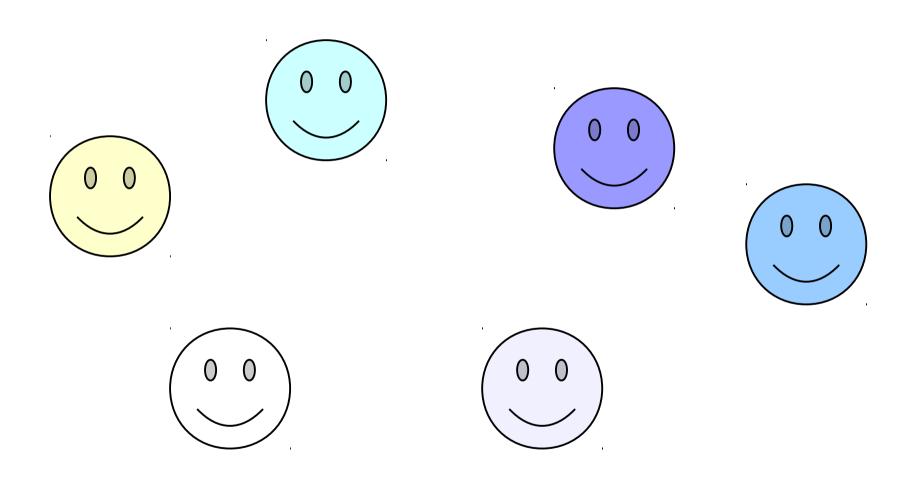
• Examples:

```
\forall p. (Puppy(p) \rightarrow Cute(p))

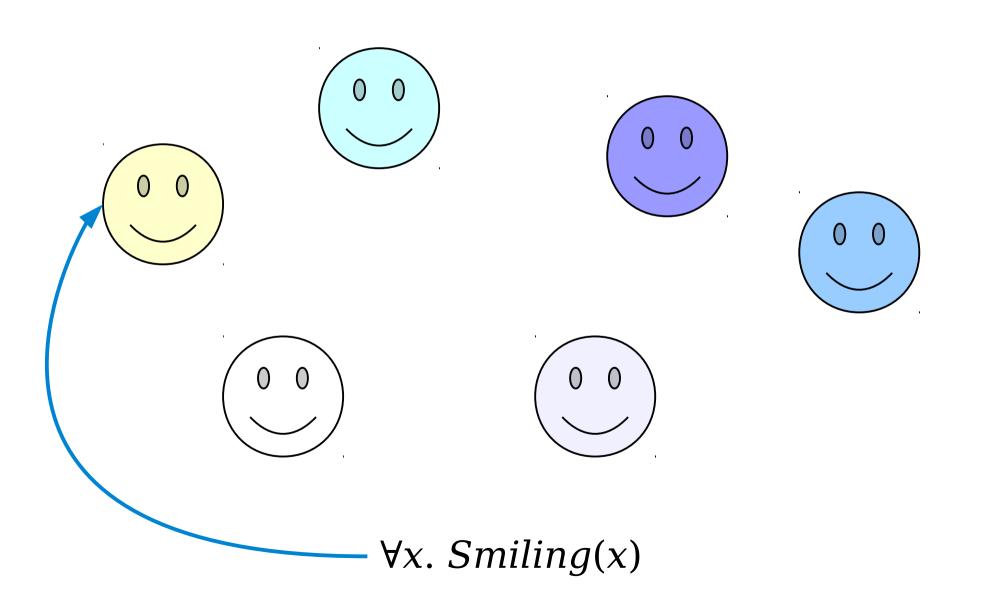
\forall m. (IsMillennial(m) \rightarrow IsSpecial(m))

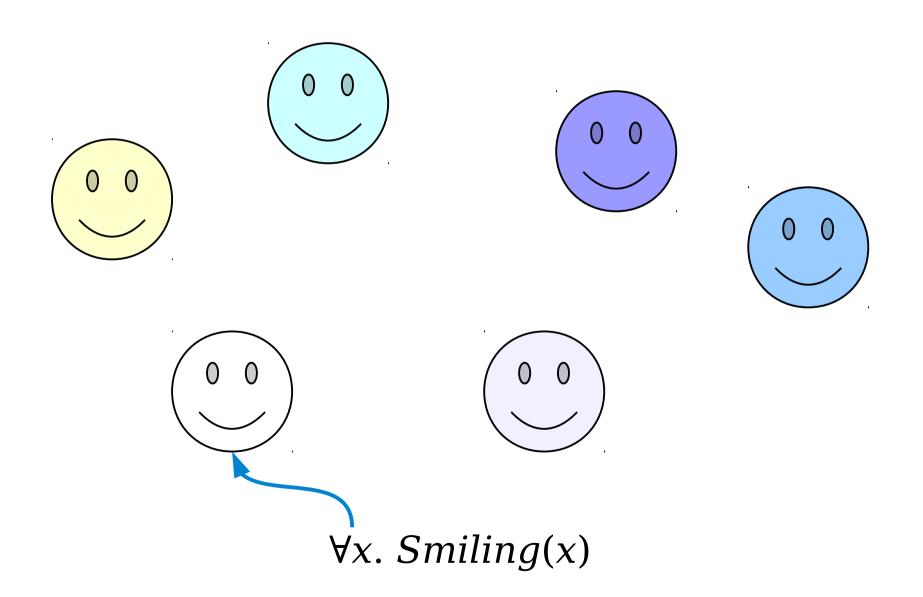
Tallest(SultanK\"{o}sen) \rightarrow

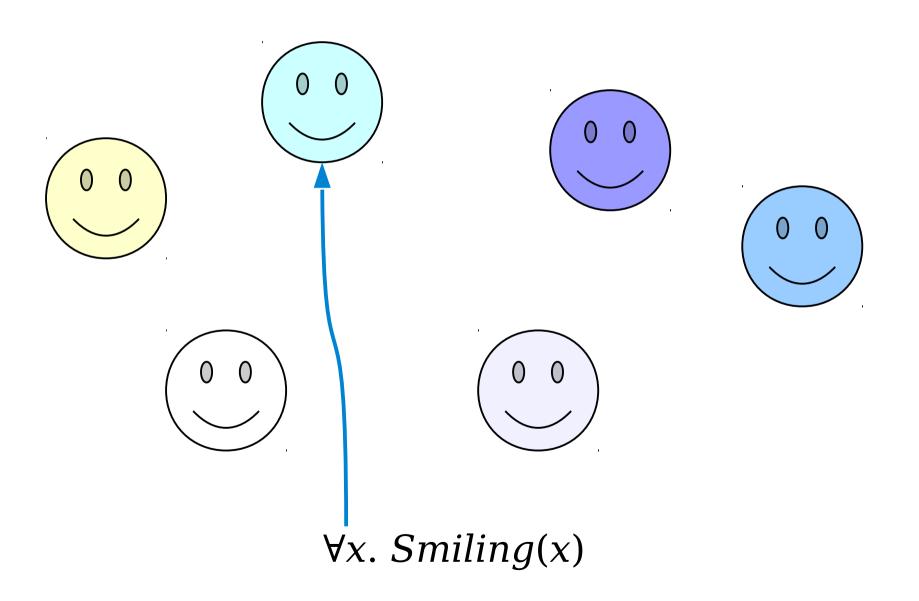
\forall x. (SultanK\"{o}sen \neq x \rightarrow ShorterThan(x, SultanK\"{o}sen))
```

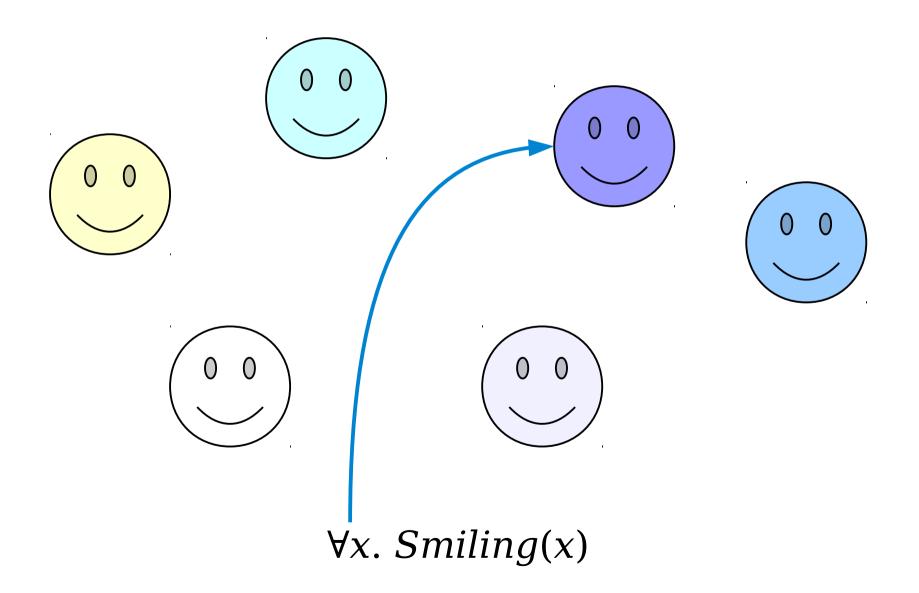


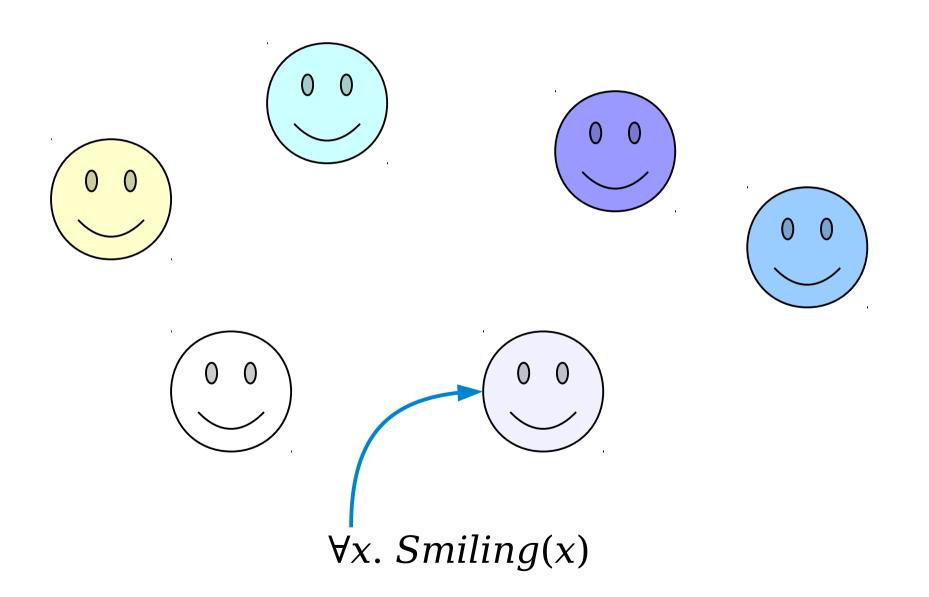
 $\forall x. Smiling(x)$

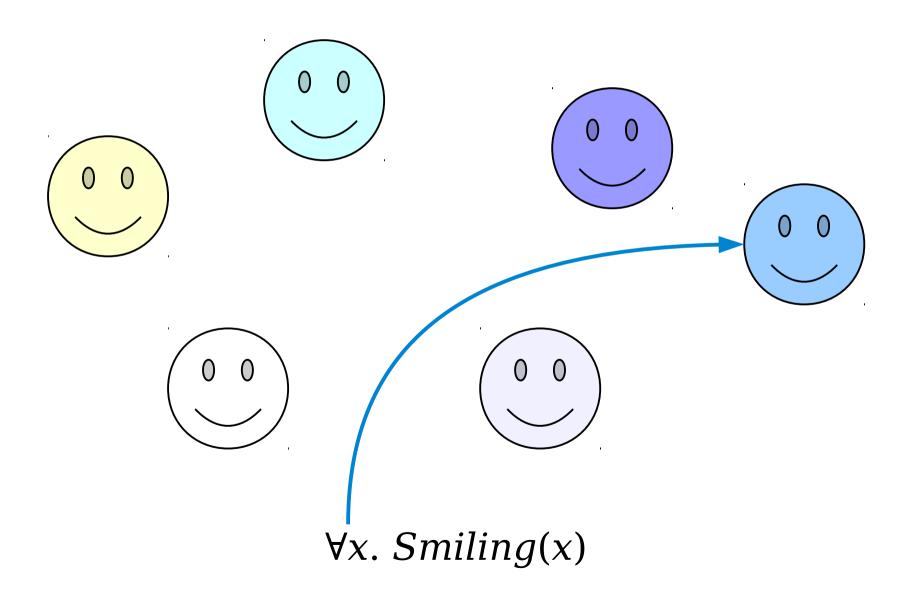


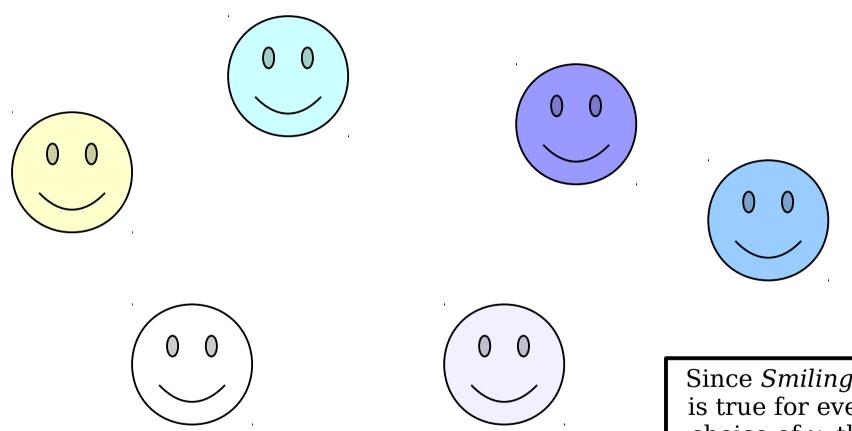






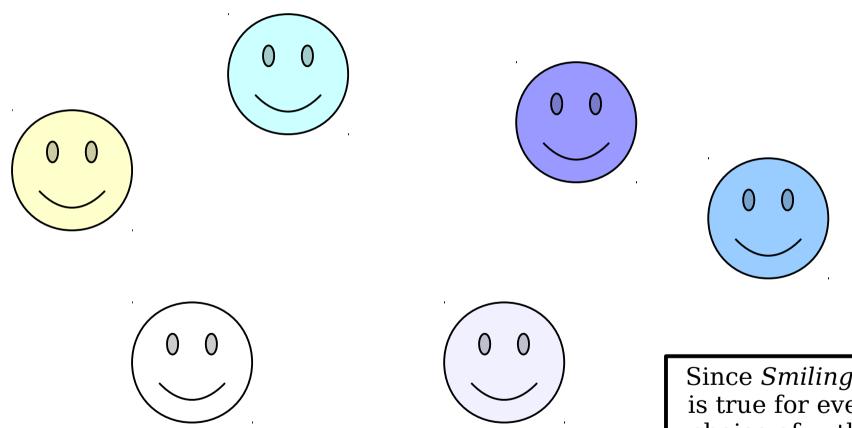






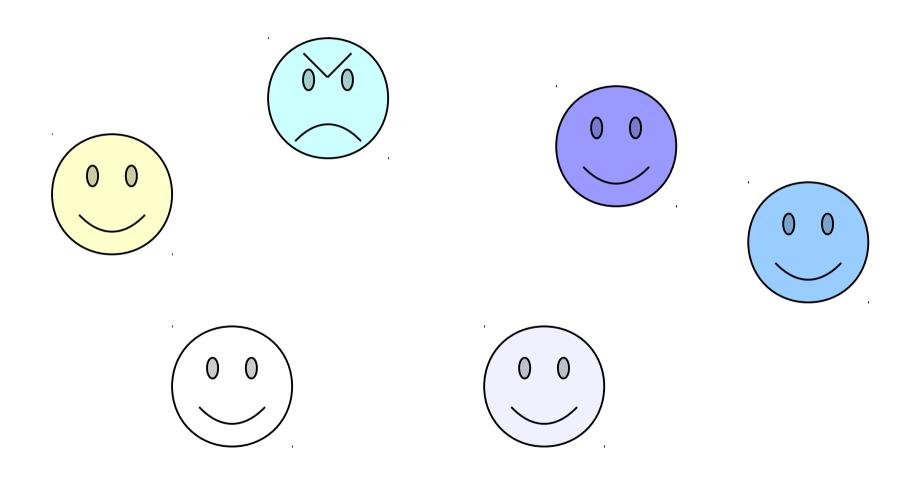
 $\forall x. Smiling(x)$

Since *Smiling*(*x*) is true for every choice of *x*, this statement evaluates to true.

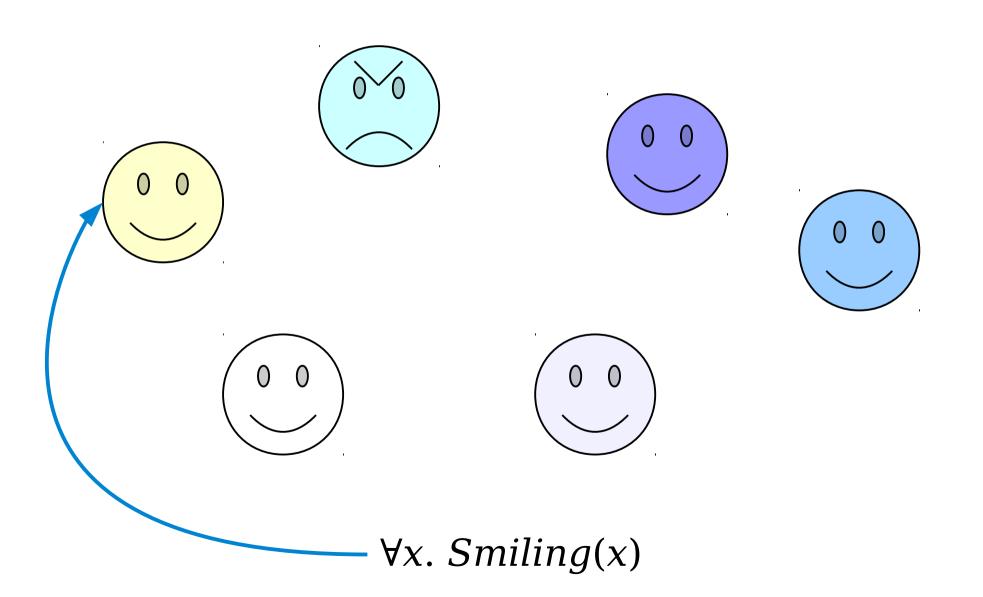


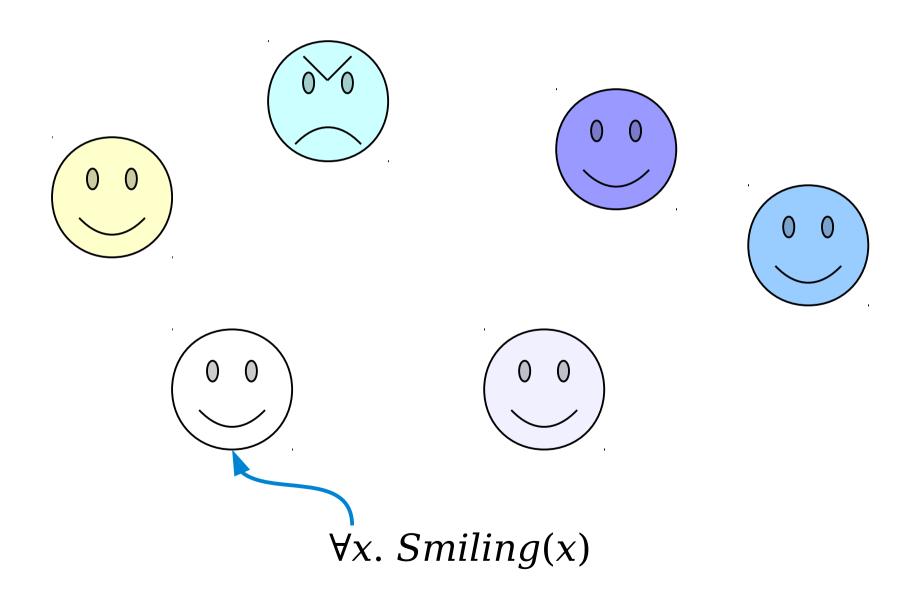
 $\forall x. Smiling(x)$

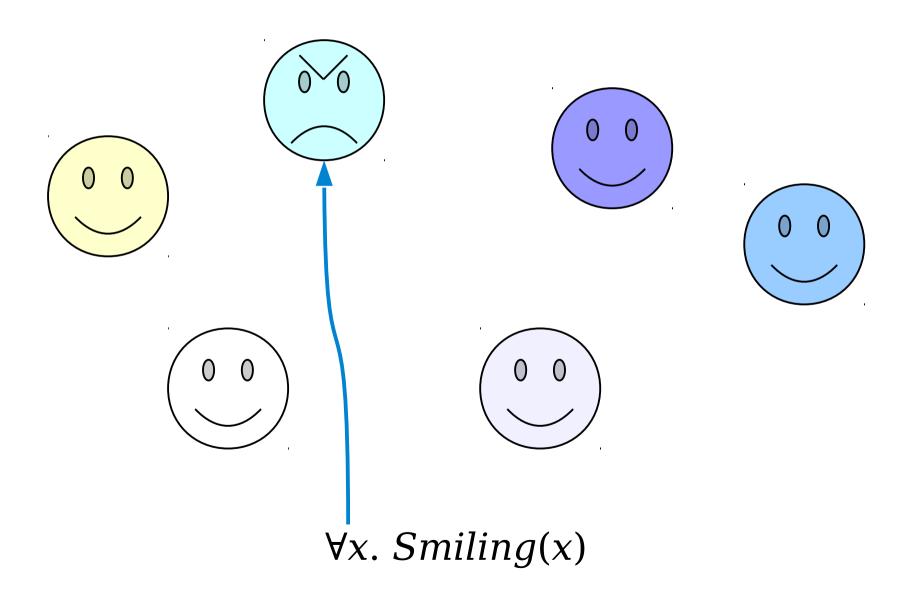
Since *Smiling*(*x*) is true for every choice of *x*, this statement evaluates to true.

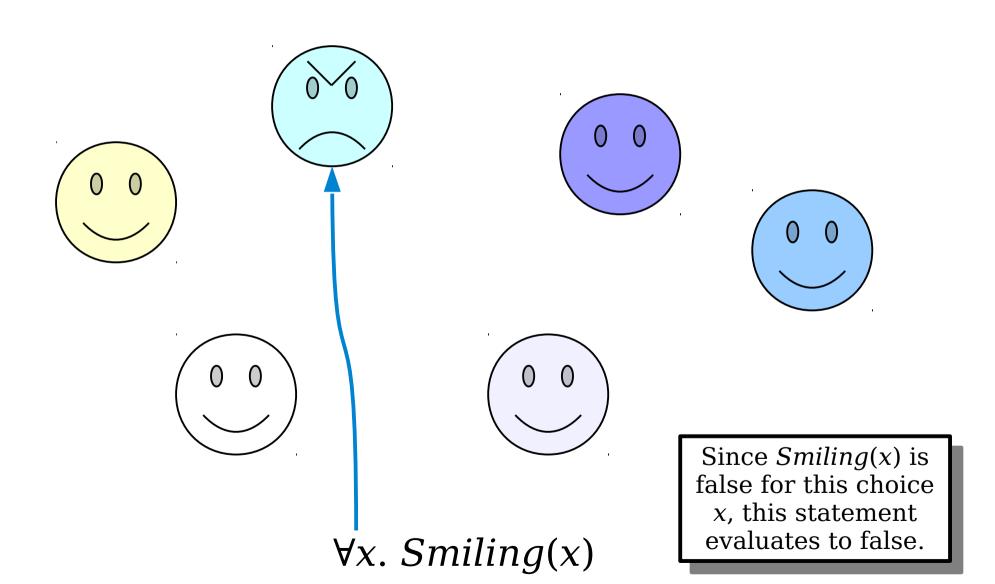


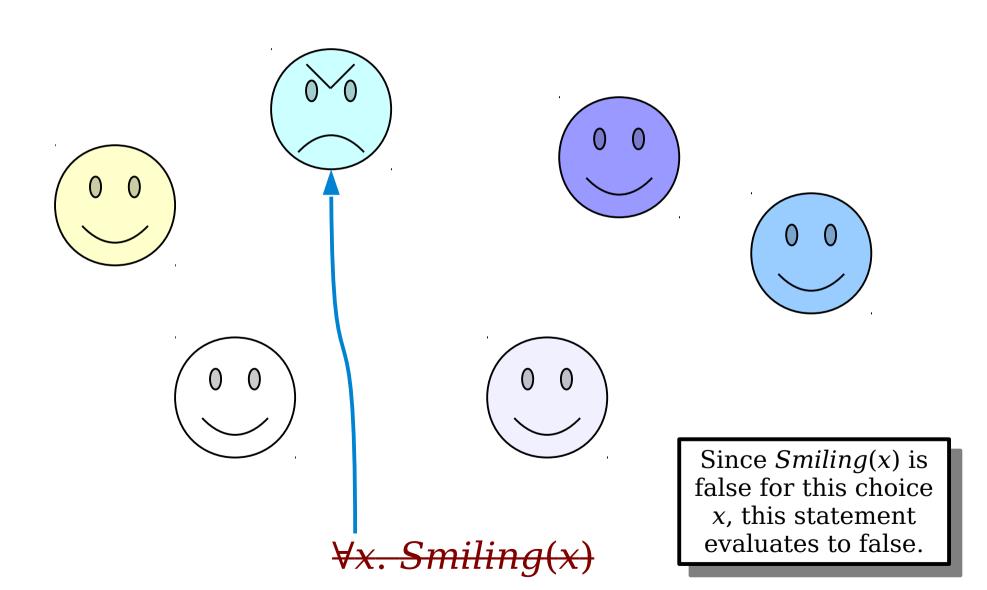
 $\forall x. Smiling(x)$

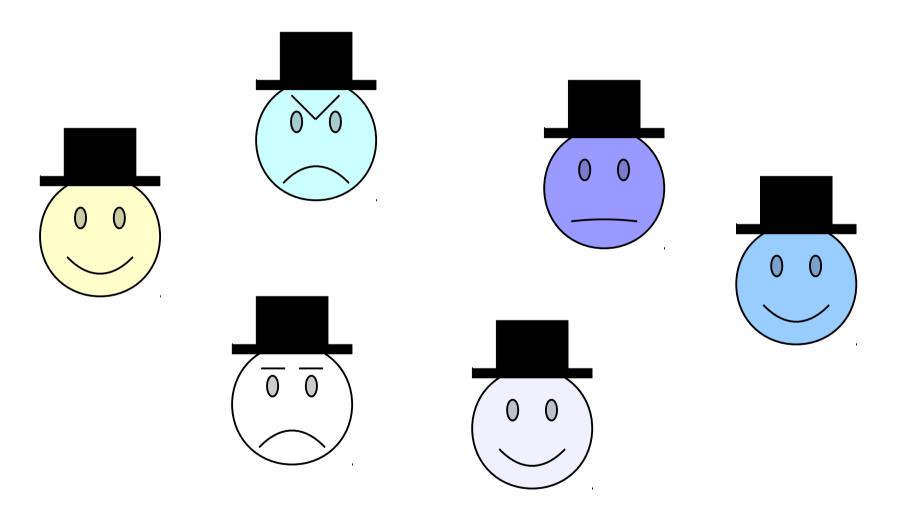


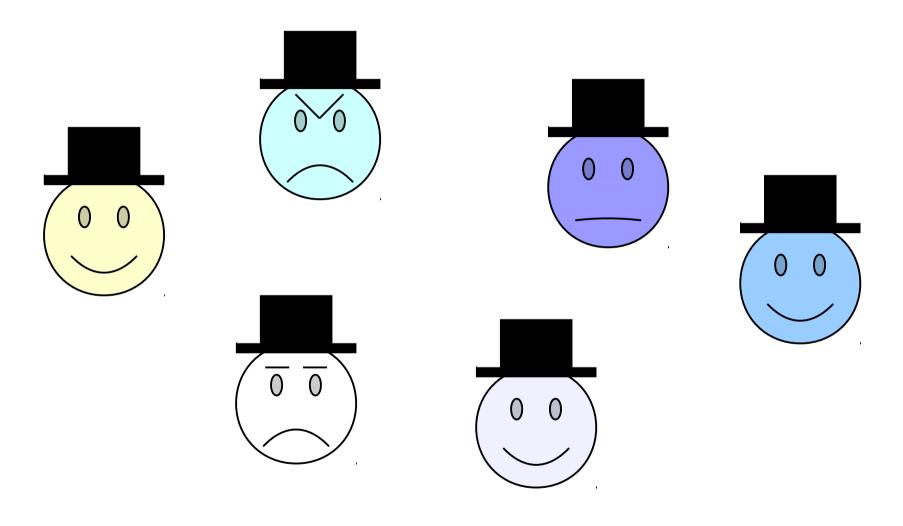


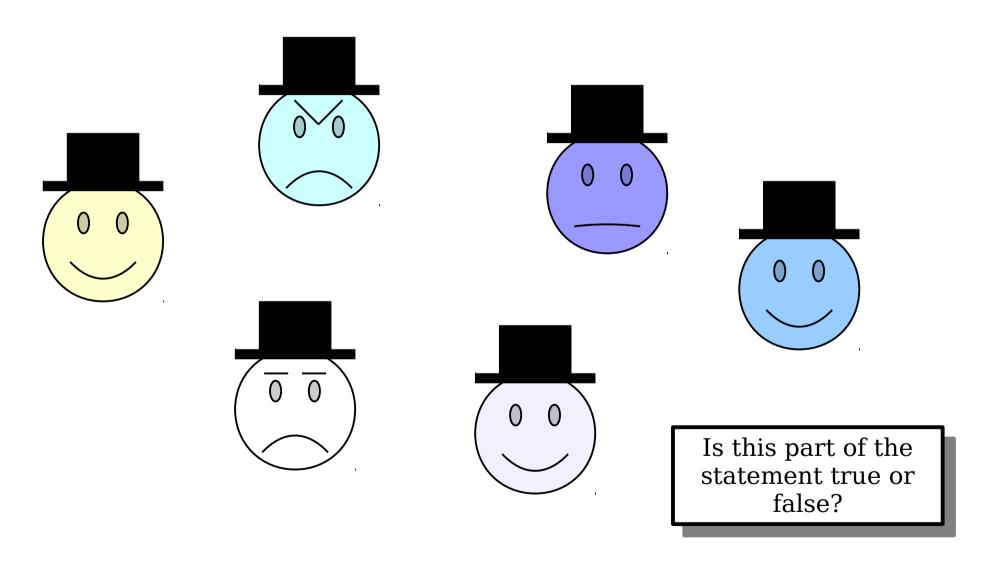


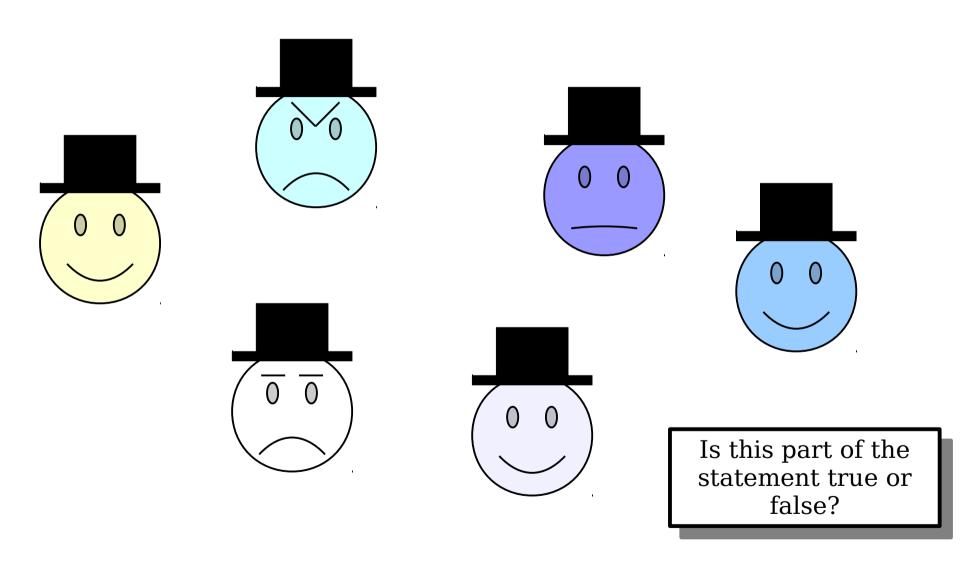


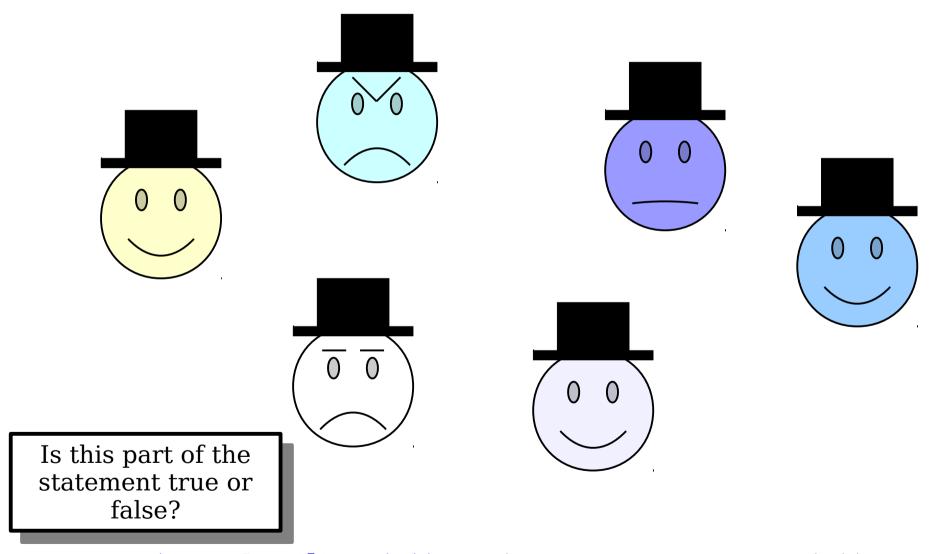


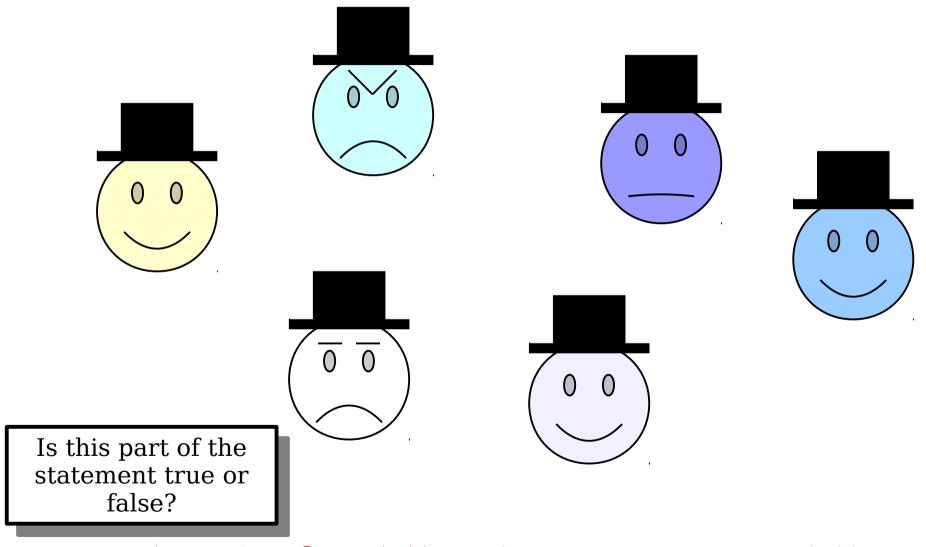


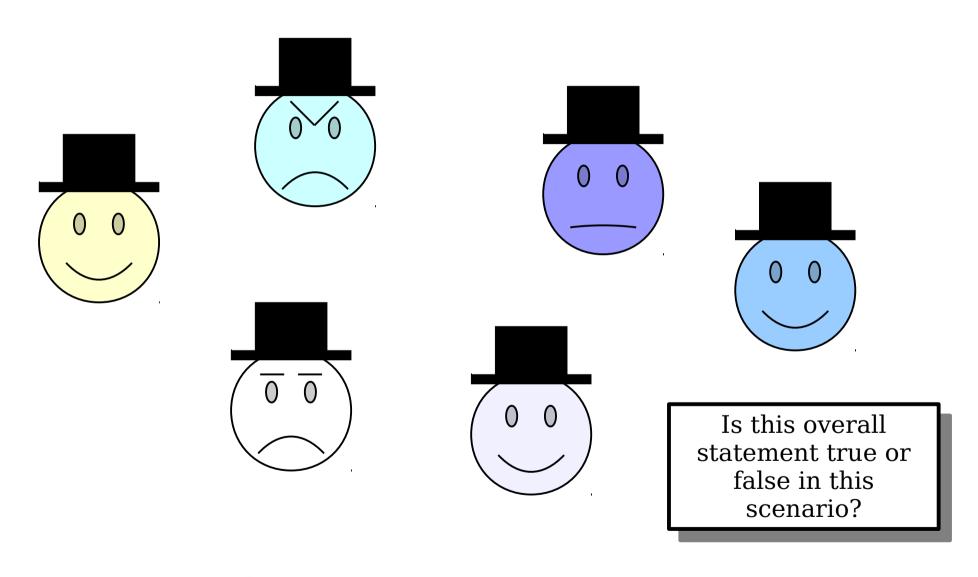


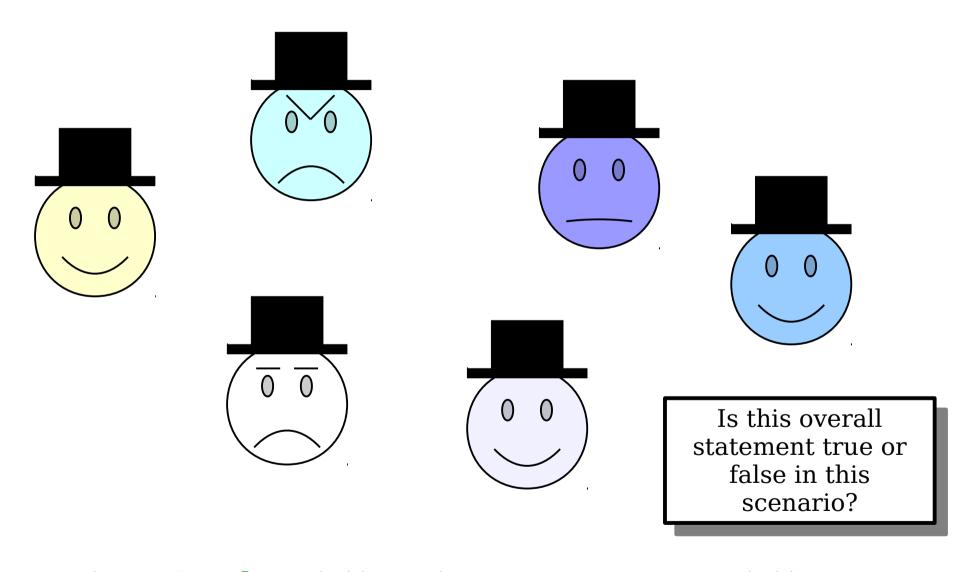












Fun with Edge Cases

Fun with Edge Cases

Universally-quantified statements are *vacuously true* in empty worlds.

 $\forall x. Smiling(x)$

Time-Out for Announcements!

Problem Set One

- Problem Set One is due Friday at 2:30PM.
 - Want to use your late days? You can submit up to 2:30PM on *Sunday*.
 - Remember that late days are 24-hour extensions, so submitting on Sunday would use two late days.
- Problem Set Two goes out Friday.
 - Checkpoint assignment is due next *Monday* at 2:30PM.
 - Remaining problems are due next *Friday* at 2:30PM.
 - Play around with propositional and first-order logic and sharpen your proof-writing skills!

Back to CS103!

Translating into First-Order Logic

Translating Into Logic

- First-order logic is an excellent tool for manipulating definitions and theorems to learn more about them.
- Need to take a negation? Translate your statement into FOL, negate it, then translate it back.
- Want to prove something by contrapositive?
 Translate your implication into FOL, take the contrapositive, then translate it back.

Translating Into Logic

- Translating statements into first-order logic is a lot more difficult than it looks.
- There are a lot of nuances that come up when translating into first-order logic.
- We'll cover examples of both good and bad translations into logic so that you can learn what to watch for.
- We'll also show lots of examples of translations so that you can see the process that goes into it.

Using the predicates

- Puppy(p), which states that p is a puppy, and
- Cute(x), which states that x is cute,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "all puppies are cute."

Which of these first-order logic statements is a proper translation?

- A. $\exists p. (Puppy(p) \land Cute(p))$
- B. $\exists p. (Puppy(p) \rightarrow Cute(p))$
- C. $\forall p. (Puppy(p) \land Cute(p))$
- D. $\forall p. (Puppy(p) \rightarrow Cute(p))$
- E. More than one of these.
- F. None of these.

Answer at **PollEv.com/cs103** or text **CS103** to **22333** once to join, then **A**, **B**, **C**, **D**, **E**, or **F**.

All puppies are cute!

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

All puppies are cute!

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



All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



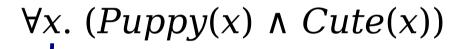
 $\forall x. (Puppy(x) \land Cute(x))$







All puppies are cute!









All puppies are cute!









All puppies are cute!









All puppies are cute!



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





A statement of the form

 $\forall x. something$

is true only when **something** is true for **every** choice of x.



All puppies are cute!



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





A statement of the form

 $\forall x. something$

is true only when **something** is true for **every** choice of x.



All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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





This first-order statement is false even though the English statement is true. Therefore, it can't be a correct translation.



All puppies are cute!



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





The issue here is that this statement asserts that everything is a puppy. That's too strong of a claim to make.

All puppies are cute!

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

All puppies are cute!

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



All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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This should work for any choice of x, including things that aren't puppies.



All puppies are cute!



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







All puppies are cute!



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





A statement of the form

 $\forall x. something$

is true only when **something** is true for **every** choice of x.



All puppies are cute!



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





A statement of the form

 $\forall x. something$

is true only when **something** is true for **every** choice of x.

"All P's are Q's"

translates as

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

Useful Intuition:

Universally-quantified statements are true unless there's a counterexample.

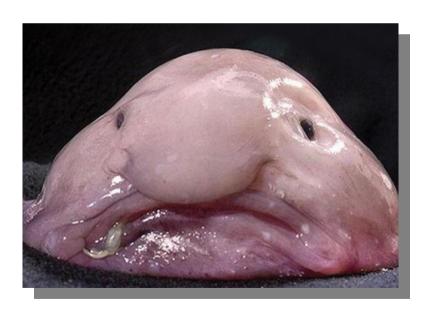
$$\forall x. \ (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$$

If x is a counterexample, it must have property P but not have property Q.

Using the predicates

- Blobfish(b), which states that b is a blobfish, and
- Cute(x), which states that x is cute,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "some blobfish is cute."



Using the predicates

- Blobfish(b), which states that b is a blobfish, and
- Cute(x), which states that x is cute,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "some blobfish is cute."

Which of these first-order logic statements is a proper translation?

- A. $\exists b. (Blobfish(b) \land Cute(b))$
- B. $\exists b. (Blobfish(b) \rightarrow Cute(b))$
- C. $\forall b. (Blobfish(b) \land Cute(b))$
- D. $\forall b. (Blobfish(b) \rightarrow Cute(b))$
- E. More than one of these.
- F. None of these.

Answer at PollEv.com/cs103 or text CS103 to 22333 once to join, then A, B, C, D, E, or F.

Some blobfish is cute.



Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.

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







A statement of the form

$\exists x. something$

is true only when **something** is true for <u>at least one</u> choice of x.



Some blobfish is cute.

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







A statement of the form

$\exists x. something$

is true only when **something** is true for <u>at least one</u> choice of x.



Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.

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







This first-order statement is true even though the English statement is false. Therefore, it can't be a correct translation.



Some blobfish is cute.

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







The issue here is that implications are true whenever the antecedent is false. This statement "accidentally" is true because of what happens when x isn't a blobfish.

Some blobfish is cute.



Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.









Some blobfish is cute.

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







A statement of the form

$\exists x. something$

is true only when **something** is true for <u>at least one</u> choice of x.



Some blobfish is cute.

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







A statement of the form

$\exists x. something$

is true only when **something** is true for <u>at least one</u> choice of x.

"Some P is a Q"

translates as

 $\exists x. (P(x) \land Q(x))$

Useful Intuition:

Existentially-quantified statements are false unless there's a positive example.

$$\exists x. (P(x) \land Q(x))$$

If x is an example, it must have property P on top of property Q.

Good Pairings

• The \forall quantifier *usually* is paired with \rightarrow .

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

• The \exists quantifier *usually* is paired with \land .

$$\exists x. (P(x) \land Q(x))$$

- In the case of \forall , the \rightarrow connective prevents the statement from being *false* when speaking about some object you don't care about.
- In the case of \exists , the \land connective prevents the statement from being *true* when speaking about some object you don't care about.

Next Time

• First-Order Translations

How do we translate from English into first-order logic?

Quantifier Orderings

 How do you select the order of quantifiers in first-order logic formulas?

Negating Formulas

• How do you mechanically determine the negation of a first-order formula?

• Expressing Uniqueness

How do we say there's just one object of a certain type?