

CS201 DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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- A proposition is a declarative statement that is either true or false. More complex propositions can be built from elementary statements using logical connectives.
- Logical connectives:



```
p: 2 is a prime (T)q: 6 is a prime (F)
```



- p: 2 is a prime (T)q: 6 is a prime (F)
- Determine the truth value of the following.



```
p: 2 is a prime (T)q: 6 is a prime (F)
```

Determine the truth value of the following.

$$eg p$$
 $eg p \land q$
 $eg p \land \neg q$
 $eg p \lor q$
 $eg p \oplus q$
 $eg p \to q$
 $eg p$



Constructing the Truth Table

■ Construct a truth table for $p \lor q \rightarrow \neg r$



Constructing the Truth Table

■ Construct a truth table for $p \lor q \rightarrow \neg r$

p	q	r	¬r	p∨q	$p \lor q \rightarrow \neg r$
T	T	T	F	T	F
T	T	F	T	T	T
T	F	T	F	T	F
T	F	F	T	T	T
F	T	T	F	T	F
F	T	F	T	T	T
F	F	T	F	F	T
F	F	F	T	F	T



Computer Representation of True and False

A bit is sufficient to represent two possible values:
 0 (false) or 1 (true)

- A varaiable that takes on values 0 and 1 is called a Boolean variable.
- A bit string is a sequence of zero or more bits. The length of this string is the number of bits in the string.



Computer Representation of True and False

- A bit is sufficient to represent two possible values:
 0 (false) or 1 (true)
- A varaiable that takes on values 0 and 1 is called a Boolean variable.
- A bit string is a sequence of zero or more bits. The length of this string is the number of bits in the string.
- bitwise operations: replace "T" and "F" with 1 and 0.

```
1011 0011

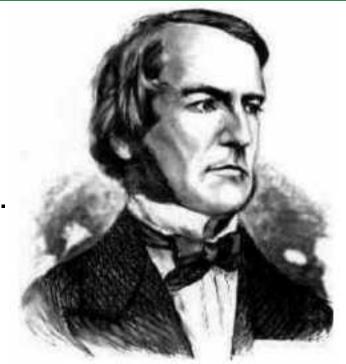
> 0110 1010

1111 1011
```



George Boole

- British mathematician (b. 1815, d. 1864)
 - ♦ The inventor of Boolean algebra
 - ⋄ Truth tables are an example of B.A.



♦ Although Booles's work was not originally perceived as particularly interesting, even by other mathematicians, he is now seen as one of the founders of the field of Computer Science.



Applications of Propositional Logic

- Translation of English sentences
 - use atomic (elementary) propositions
- Inference and reasoning
 - new true propositions are inferred from existing ones
 - ♦ used in Artificial Intelligence:
 - rule based (expert) systems, automatic theorem provers, ...
- Design of logic circuit



• If you are older than 13 or you are with your parents then you can watch this movie.



• If you are older than 13 or you are with your parents then you can watch this movie.

If (you are older than 13) or (you are with your parents) then (you can watch this movie).



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If (you are older than 13) or (you are with your parents) then (you can watch this movie).
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Atomic (elementary) propositions:

```
p – you are older than 13
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q – you are with your parents

r – you can watch this movie



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Translation: $p \lor q \rightarrow r$



■ If (you are older than 13) or (you are with your parents) then (you can watch this movie).

Translation: $p \lor q \rightarrow r$



■ If (you are older than 13) or (you are with your parents) then (you can watch this movie).

Translation: $p \lor q \rightarrow r$

Given that *p* is true.

With the help of the logic, we can infer the following statement:

You can watch this movie.



- Artificial intelligence
 - builds programs that act intelligently
 - programs often rely on symbolic manipulations



Artificial intelligence

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- programs often rely on symbolic manipulations

Expert systems

- encode knowledge about the world in logic
- support inferences where new facts are inferred from existing ones following the semantics of logic



Artificial intelligence

- builds programs that act intelligently
- programs often rely on symbolic manipulations

Expert systems

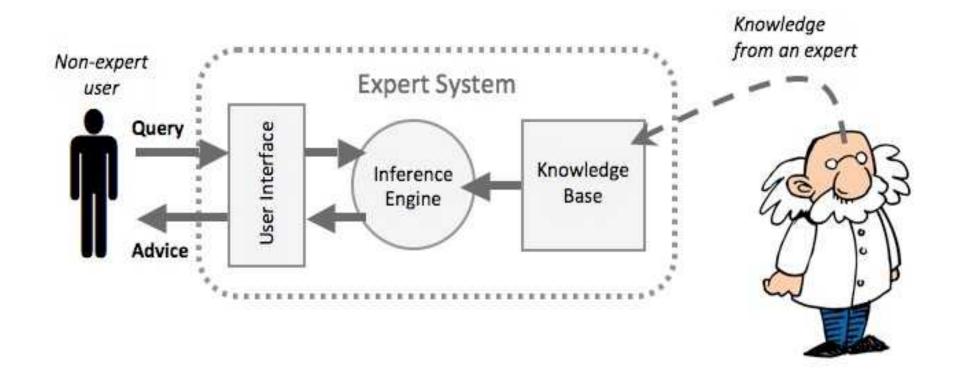
- encode knowledge about the world in logic
- support inferences where new facts are inferred from existing ones following the semantics of logic

Theorem provers

- encode existing knowledge (e.g., math) using logic
- show that some hypothesis is true

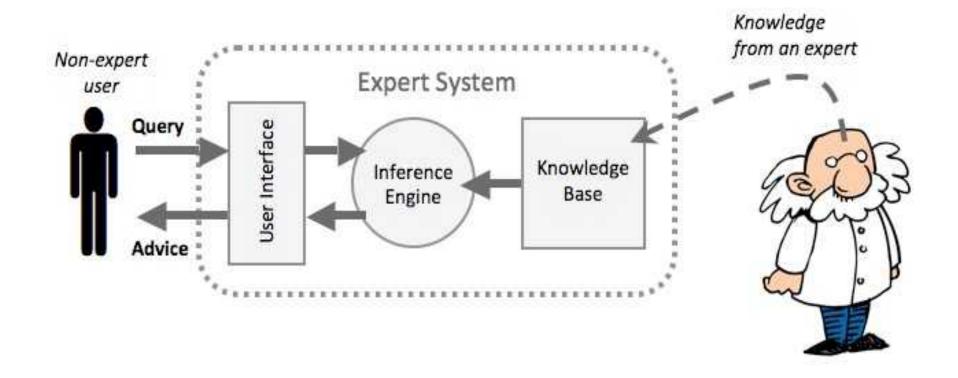


Expert System





Expert System







Theorem Prover



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Computer-aided proofs of Arrow's and other impossibility theorems *

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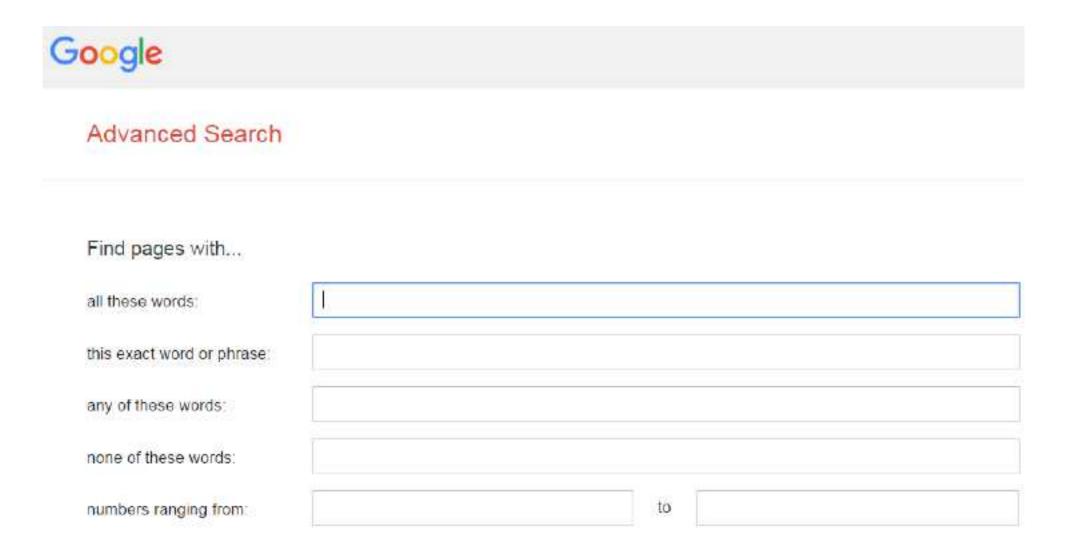
Social choice theory
Arrow's theorem
Muller-Satterthwaite theorem
Sen's theorem
Knowledge representation
Computer-aided theorem proving

ABSTRACT

Arrow's impossibility theorem is one of the landmark results in social choice theory. Over the years since the theorem was proved in 1950, quite a few alternative proofs have been put forward. In this paper, we propose yet another alternative proof of the theorem. The basic idea is to use induction to reduce the theorem to the base case with 3 alternatives and 2 agents and then use computers to verify the base case. This turns out to be an effective approach for proving other impossibility theorems such as Muller-Satterthwaite and Sen's theorems as well. Motivated by the insights of the proof, we discover a new theorem with the help of computer programs. We believe this new proof opens an exciting prospect of using computers to discover similar impossibility or even possibility results.

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Other Applications





Tautology and Contradiction

- A compound proposition that is always true for all possible truth values is called a tautology.
- A compound proposition that is always false for all possible truth values is called a contradiction.
- A compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction is called a contingency.



Tautology and Contradiction

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- A compound proposition that is always false for all possible truth values is called a contradiction.
- A compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction is called a contingency.

P	$\neg p$	$p \lor \neg p$	$p \land \neg p$
T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F



■ Two propositions are *equivalent* if they always have the same truth value.



Two propositions are equivalent if they always have the same truth value.

Examples:

```
(1) if (((i+j ≤ p+q) && (i ≤ p) && (j > q))
    || ((i+j ≤ p+q) && (i ≤ p)
        && (List1[i] ≤ List2[j])))
(2)    List3[k] = List1[i]
(3)    i = i+1
(4) else
(5)    List3[k] = List2[j]
(6)    j = j+1
(7) k = k+1
```

Consider the two pieces of codes taken from two different versions of *Mergesort*. Do they do the same thing?



Let's rewrite using

$$s \sim (i+j \leq p+q), t \sim (i \leq p), u \sim (j>q)$$

 $v \sim (List1[i] \leq List2[j])$



Let's rewrite using

$$s \sim (i+j \leq p+q), \ t \sim (i \leq p), \ u \sim (j>q)$$

 $v \sim (List1[i] \leq List2[j])$

$$(1)$$
 $s \wedge t \wedge (u \vee v)$

$$(1') (s \wedge t \wedge u) \vee (s \wedge t \wedge v)$$



Let's rewrite using

$$s \sim (i+j \leq p+q), t \sim (i \leq p), u \sim (j>q)$$

 $v \sim (List1[i] \leq List2[j])$

(1)
$$s \wedge t \wedge (u \vee v)$$

$$(1')$$
 $(s \wedge t \wedge u) \vee (s \wedge t \wedge v)$

Now set $w \sim (s \wedge t)$

(1)
$$w \wedge (u \vee v)$$

$$(1')$$
 $(w \wedge u) \vee (w \wedge v)$



Truth Tables



w	u	v	$u \lor v$	$w \wedge (u \vee v)$
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	Т	F	Т	Т
Т	F	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	F	F
F	Т	Т	Т	F
F	Т	F	Т	F
F	F	Т	Т	F
F	F	F	F	F

(1')
$$(w \wedge u) \vee (w \wedge v)$$

w	u	v	$w \wedge u$	$w \wedge v$	$(w \wedge u) \vee (w \wedge v)$
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	Т	F	Т	F	Т
Т	F	Т	F	Т	Т
Т	F	F	F	F	F
F	Т	Т	F	F	F
F	Т	F	F	F	F
F	F	Т	F	F	F
F	F	F	F	F	F



• $(w \land (u \lor v))$ is equivalent to $(w \land u) \lor (w \land v)$



• $(w \land (u \lor v))$ is equivalent to $(w \land u) \lor (w \land v)$ $(w \lor (u \land v))$ is equivalent to $(w \lor u) \land (w \lor v)$



• $(w \land (u \lor v))$ is equivalent to $(w \land u) \lor (w \land v)$ $(w \lor (u \land v))$ is equivalent to $(w \lor u) \land (w \lor v)$

■ The propositions p and q are called *logically equivalent* if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology, denoted by $p \equiv q$ or $p \Leftrightarrow q$.



- $(w \land (u \lor v))$ is equivalent to $(w \land u) \lor (w \land v)$ $(w \lor (u \land v))$ is equivalent to $(w \lor u) \land (w \lor v)$
- The propositions p and q are called *logically equivalent* if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology, denoted by $p \equiv q$ or $p \Leftrightarrow q$.
- Equivalent statements are important for logical reasoning since they can be substituted and can help us to:
 - make a logical argument
 - infer new propositions



Distributive Laws

- $(w \land (u \lor v))$ is equivalent to $(w \land u) \lor (w \land v)$ $(w \lor (u \land v))$ is equivalent to $(w \lor u) \land (w \lor v)$
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Example
$$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$$



De Morgan's Laws

$$\neg (p \lor q) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q$$
$$\neg (p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$$



De Morgan's Laws

$$\neg (p \lor q) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q$$
$$\neg (p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$$

p	q	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	(pVq)	$\neg(pVq)$	$\neg p \land \neg q$
T	T	F	F	T	F	F
T	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	T	T	F	T	T



Important Logical Equivalences

Identity laws

Domination laws

Idempotent laws



Important Logical Equivalences

Double negation laws

$$\diamond \neg (\neg p) \equiv p$$

Commutative laws

$$\diamond p \lor q \equiv q \lor p$$

$$\diamond p \wedge q \equiv q \wedge p$$

Associative laws

$$\diamond (p \lor q) \lor r \equiv p \lor (q \lor r)$$

$$\diamond (p \land q) \land r \equiv p \land (q \land r)$$



Important Logical Equivalences

Distributive laws

$$\diamond p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)$$

$$\diamond p \land (q \lor r) \equiv (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$$

De Morgan's laws

Others



Equivalences can be used in proofs. A proposition or its part can be transformed using equivalences.



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Example: Show that $(p \land q) \rightarrow p$ is a tautology.



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Example: Show that $(p \land q) \rightarrow p$ is a tautology.

Proof:
$$(p \land q) \rightarrow p \equiv \neg(p \land q) \lor p$$
Useful $\equiv (\neg p \lor \neg q) \lor p$ De Morgan's $\equiv (\neg q \lor \neg p) \lor p$ Commutative $\equiv \neg q \lor (\neg p \lor p)$ Associative $\equiv \neg q \lor T$ Negation $\equiv T$ Domination



Equivalences can be used in proofs. A proposition or its part can be transformed using equivalences.

Example: Show that $(p \land q) \rightarrow p$ is a tautology.

Proof (alternatively):

р	q	p ∧ q	(p ∧ q)→p
Т	Т	Т	T
Т	F	F	T
F	Т	F	T
F	F	F	T



Equivalences can be used in proofs. A proposition or its part can be transformed using equivalences.

Example: Show that $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$.



Equivalences can be used in proofs. A proposition or its part can be transformed using equivalences.

Example: Show that $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$.

Proof:
$$\neg q \rightarrow \neg p \equiv \neg(\neg q) \lor (\neg p)$$
 Us
$$\equiv q \lor (\neg p)$$

$$\equiv (\neg p) \lor q$$

$$\equiv p \rightarrow q$$
 Us

Useful
Double negation
Communitative
Useful



Propositional logic: the world is described in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations. Elementary statements typically refer to objects, their properties and relations.



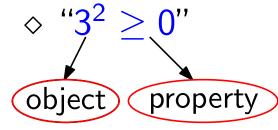
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Example 1: (repeated statements for many objects) \diamond "3² \geq 0"



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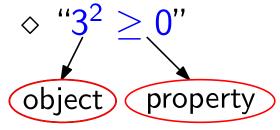
Example 1: (repeated statements for many objects)

$$\Leftrightarrow "3^2 \ge 0"$$
object property



Propositional logic: the world is described in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations. Elementary statements typically refer to objects, their properties and relations.

Example 1: (repeated statements for many objects)

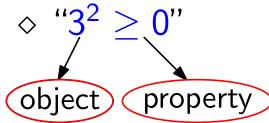


What is a more natural solution to express the knowledge?



Propositional logic: the world is described in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations. Elementary statements typically refer to objects, their properties and relations.

Example 1: (repeated statements for many objects)



$$⋄ "2^2 ≥ 0"
 ⋄ "1^2 ≥ 0"
 ⋄ "0^2 ≥ 0"
 ⋄ "(-1)^2 ≥ 0'
 ⋄ ...$$

What is a more natural solution to express the knowledge?

Solution: make statements with variables

- If x is an integer, then $x^2 \ge 0$.
- -x is an integer $\rightarrow x^2 \ge 0$.

Propositional logic: the world is described in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations. Elementary statements typically refer to objects, their properties and relations.

Example 2: (statements that define the property of a group of objects)

- \diamond "The square of every integer is ≥ 0 "
- Some of the integers are prime."



Propositional logic: the world is described in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations. Elementary statements typically refer to objects, their properties and relations.

Example 2: (statements that define the property of a group of objects)

- \diamond "The square of every integer is ≥ 0 "
- Some of the integers are prime."

Solutions: make statements with quantifiers

- universal quantifier: the property is satisfied by all members of the group
- existential quantifier: at least one member of the group satisfies the property



Predicate Logic

- Remedies the limitations of propositional logic:
 - explicitly models objects and their properties
 - allows to make statements with variables and quantify them



Predicate Logic

- Remedies the limitations of propositional logic:
 - explicitly models objects and their properties
 - allows to make statements with variables and quantify them
- Basic building blocks of the predicate logic:
 - ♦ Constant models a specific object Examples: "1", "SUSTech", ...
 - ♦ Variable represents object of specific type Examples: x, y, ... (universe can be people, numbers ...)
 - ♦ Predicate represents properties or relations among objects Examples: Red(car23), student(x), married(A, B)...



• A predicate P(x) assigns a value T or F to each x depending on whether the property holds or not for x.



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Example: Assume Prime(x) where the universe of discourse are integers

- Prime(2) ... T
- Prime(6) ... F
- **—** ...



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Is Prime(x) a proposition?



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Example: Assume Prime(x) where the universe of discourse are integers

- Prime(2) ... T
- Prime(6) ... F
- ...

Is Prime(x) a proposition?

No, but after the substitution it becomes one.



- A predicate is a statement $P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ that contains n variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ and becomes a proposition when specific values are substituted for the variables x_i .
- The universe (domain) D of the predicate variables (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) is the set of all values that may be substituted in place of the variables.
- The *truth set* of $P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ is the set of all values of the predicate variables $(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ such that the proposition $P(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$ is true.



- **Example 1**: (Predicates with one variable) Let P(x) be the predicate " $x^2 > x$ " with universe of the real numbers.
 - \diamond What are the truth values of P(2) and P(1)?
 - \diamond What is the truth set of P(x)?



- **Example 1**: (Predicates with one variable) Let P(x) be the predicate " $x^2 > x$ " with universe of the real numbers.
 - \diamond What are the truth values of P(2) and P(1)?
 - \diamond What is the truth set of P(x)?

$$\diamond P(2) = \mathsf{T}, \ P(1) = \mathsf{F}$$

 $\diamond x > 1 \text{ or } x < 0$



- **Example 2**: (Predicates with two variables) Let Q(x, y) be the predicate "x = y + 3" with universe of the real numbers.
 - \diamond What are the truth values of Q(1,2) and Q(3,0)?
 - \diamond What is the truth set of Q(x, y)?



- **Example 2**: (Predicates with two variables) Let Q(x, y) be the predicate "x = y + 3" with universe of the real numbers.
 - \diamond What are the truth values of Q(1,2) and Q(3,0)?
 - \diamond What is the truth set of Q(x, y)?

- $\Diamond Q(1,2) = F, Q(3,0) = T$
- \diamond (a, a 3) for all real numbers a



Compound Statements in Predicate Logic

Compound statements are obtained via logical connectives.



Compound Statements in Predicate Logic

 Compound statements are obtained via logical connectives.

Example:

- \diamond Prime(2) \wedge Prime(3)
 - Translation: "Both 2 and 3 are primes." (T)
- ♦ City(Shenzhen) ∨ River(Shenzhen)
 - Translation: "Shenzhen is a city or a river." (T)
- \diamond CS-major(x) \rightarrow Student(x)
 - Translation: "If x is CS-major then x is a student." (not a proposition)



The statement P(x) is not a proposition since there are many objects that it can be applied to.



The statement P(x) is not a proposition since there are many objects that it can be applied to.

- But the difference is:
 - predicate logic allows us to explicitly manipulate
 and substitute for the objects
 - predicate logic permits quantified sentences where variables are substituted for statements about the group of objects



Quantified Statements

■ Two types of quantified statements:

♦ Universal

```
Example: "All CS-major graduates have to pass CS201". (This is true for all CS-major graduates.)
```

♦ Existential

```
Example: "Some CS-major students graduate with honor." (This is true for some students.)
```



The *universal quantification* of P(x) is the proposition: "P(x) is true for all values of x in the universe of discourse." denoted by $\forall x \ P(x)$, and is expressed as for every x, P(x).



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- $\diamond P(x) "x > x 1"$.
- \diamond What is the truth value of $\forall x \ P(x)$?



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- Assume that the universe is all real numbers
- $\diamond \forall x \ P(x) \text{ is true.}$



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Example:

- $\diamond P(x) "x > x 1".$
- \diamond What is the truth value of $\forall x \ P(x)$?
- Assume that the universe is all real numbers
- $\diamond \forall x \ P(x) \text{ is true.}$
- \diamond Is P(x) a proposition? No. Many possible substitutions.
- \diamond Is $\forall x P(x)$ a proposition?

Yes. True if for all x from the universe P(x) is ture.

The existential quantification of P(x) is the proposition: "There exists an element in the universe of discourse such that P(x) is true ." denoted by $\exists x \ P(x)$, and is expressed as there is an x such that P(x).



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Example:

$$\diamond P(x) - "x > 5"$$
.

 \diamond What is the truth value of $\exists x \ P(x)$?



The existential quantification of P(x) is the proposition: "There exists an element in the universe of discourse such that P(x) is true ." denoted by $\exists x \ P(x)$, and is expressed as there is an x such that P(x).

- $\diamond P(x) "x > 5"$.
- \diamond What is the truth value of $\exists x \ P(x)$?
- Assume that the universe is all real numbers
- $\diamond \exists x \ P(x) \text{ is true.}$



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- \diamond What is the truth value of $\exists x \ P(x)$?
- Assume that the universe is all real numbers
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- \diamond Is P(x) a proposition?
- \diamond Is $\exists x \ P(x)$ a proposition?



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Example:

- $\diamond P(x) "x > 5"$.
- \diamond What is the truth value of $\exists x \ P(x)$?
- Assume that the universe is all real numbers
- $\diamond \exists x \ P(x) \text{ is true.}$
- \diamond Is P(x) a proposition? No. Many possible substitutions.
- \diamond Is $\exists x \ P(x)$ a proposition?

Yes. True if there is even an x s.t. P(x) is ture (e.g. 10).

- $\diamond Q(x)$ "x = x + 2 where x is a real number".
- \diamond What is the truth value of $\exists x \ Q(x)$?



- $\diamond Q(x)$ "x = x + 2 where x is a real number".
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- $\diamond Q(x)$ "x = x + 2 where x is a real number".
- \diamond What is the truth value of $\exists x \ Q(x)$?
- $\diamond \exists x \ Q(x)$ is false.
- \diamond C(x) CS-major(x) \land Honor-student(x).
- \diamond What is the truth value of $\exists x \ C(x)$?
- ⋄ Translation: "There is a person who is a CS-major student and who also graduated with honor." (T)



Summary of Quantified Statements

■ When $\forall x P(x)$ and $\exists x P(x)$ are true and false?

Statement	When true?	When false?	
∀x P(x)	P(x) true for all x There is an x where P(x) is fall		
∃х Р(х)	There is some x for which P(x) is true.	P(x) is false for all x.	



Summary of Quantified Statements

■ When $\forall x P(x)$ and $\exists x P(x)$ are true and false?

Statement	When true?	When false? There is an x where P(x) is false.	
∀x P(x)	P(x) true for all x		
∃х Р(х)	There is some x for which P(x) is true. P(x) is false for x.		

• Suppose that the elements in the universe can be enumerated as x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n then:

$$\Diamond \forall x \ P(x)$$
 is true whenever $P(x_1) \land P(x_2) \land \ldots \land P(x_n)$ is true $\Diamond \exists x \ P(x)$ is true whenever $P(x_1) \lor P(x_2) \lor \ldots \lor P(x_n)$ is true.



Properties of Quantifiers

■ The truth values of $\exists x \ P(x)$ and $\forall x \ P(x)$ depend on both the propositional function P(x) and the universe.



Properties of Quantifiers

■ The truth values of $\exists x \ P(x)$ and $\forall x \ P(x)$ depend on both the propositional function P(x) and the universe.

Example:
$$P(x) - "x < 2"$$

universe: the positive integers

$$\exists x \ P(x) - \mathsf{T}, \ \forall x \ P(x) - \mathsf{F}$$

universe: the negative integers

$$\exists x \ P(x) - \mathsf{T}, \ \forall x \ P(x) - \mathsf{T}$$

♦ universe: { 3, 4, 5 }

$$\exists x \ P(x) - F, \ \forall x \ P(x) - F$$



Precedence of Quantifiers

■ The quantifiers \forall and \exists have *higher precedence* than all the logical operators.

$$\diamond \forall x \ P(x) \lor Q(x)$$
 means $(\forall x \ P(x)) \lor Q(x)$ rather than $\forall x \ (P(x) \lor Q(x))$



Sentence: All SUSTech students are smart.

universe: SUSTech students

translation: $\forall x \; Smart(x)$



Sentence: All SUSTech students are smart.

universe: SUSTech students

translation: $\forall x \; Smart(x)$

♦ universe: all students

translation: $\forall x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \rightarrow Smart(x))$



Sentence: All SUSTech students are smart.

```
\diamond universe: SUSTech students translation: \forall x \; Smart(x)
```

 \diamond universe: all students translation: $\forall x \; (At(x, SUSTech) \rightarrow Smart(x))$

Q: What about this? $\forall x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))$



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$$\forall x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))$$

This means every student is at SUSTech and is smart!



Sentence: All SUSTech students are smart.

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\diamond universe: SUSTech students translation: \forall x \; Smart(x)
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Q: What about this? $\forall x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))$ This means every student is at SUSTech and is smart!

 \diamond universe: people translation: $\forall x \; (Student(x) \land At(x, SUSTech) \rightarrow Smart(x))$



Sentence: Someone at SUSTech is smart.

universe: all SUSTech affiliates

translation: $\exists x \; Smart(x)$



Sentence: Someone at SUSTech is smart.

universe: all SUSTech affiliates

translation: $\exists x \; Smart(x)$

♦ universe: people

translation: $\exists x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))$



Sentence: Someone at SUSTech is smart.

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\diamond universe: all SUSTech affiliates translation: \exists x \; Smart(x)
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translation: $\exists x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))$

Q: What about this? $\exists x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \rightarrow Smart(x))$



Sentence: Someone at SUSTech is smart.

universe: all SUSTech affiliates

translation: $\exists x \; Smart(x)$

♦ universe: people

translation: $\exists x \ (At(x, SUSTech) \land Smart(x))$

Q: What about this?

```
\exists x \; (At(x, SUSTech) \rightarrow Smart(x))
```

This is even true if there is anyone who is not at SUSTech!



Sentence: Nothing is perfect.

 \diamond translation: $\neg \exists x \ Perfect(x)$



Sentence: Nothing is perfect.

```
\diamond translation: \neg \exists x \; Perfect(x)
```

```
\diamond translation: \forall x \neg Perfect(x) (Everything is imperfect.)
```



Sentence: Nothing is perfect.

```
\diamond translation: \neg \exists x \; Perfect(x)
```

 \diamond translation: $\forall x \neg Perfect(x)$ (Everything is imperfect.)

Conclusion: $\neg \exists x \ P(x)$ is equivalent to $\forall x \ \neg P(x)$



Sentence: Not all horses are white.

```
\diamond translation: \neg \forall x \ (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))
```



Sentence: Not all horses are white.

```
\diamond translation: \neg \forall x \ (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))
```

```
♦ translation: \exists x \; (Horse(x) \land \neg White(x))
(There is a horse that is not white.)
```



Sentence: Not all horses are white.

```
\diamond translation: \neg \forall x \ (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))
```

- ♦ translation: $\exists x \; (Horse(x) \land \neg White(x))$ (There is a horse that is not white.)
- \diamond logically equivalent to $\exists x \neg (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))$



Sentence: Not all horses are white.

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- ♦ translation: $\exists x \; (Horse(x) \land \neg White(x))$ (There is a horse that is not white.)
- \diamond logically equivalent to $\exists x \neg (Horse(x) \rightarrow White(x))$

Conclusion: $\neg \forall x \ P(x)$ is equivalent to $\exists x \ \neg P(x)$



Negation of Quantified Statements

a.k.a. De Morgan laws for quantifiers

Negation	Equivalent Statement	When Is Negation True?	When False?
$\neg \exists x P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$	For every x , $P(x)$ is false.	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.
$\neg \ \forall x \ P(x)$	$\exists x \ \neg P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.	P(x) is true for every x .



Next Lecture

Predicate logic, proofs, sets ...

