

# PREDICATE LOGIC

Section 1.4

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# PREDICATES AND QUANTIFIERS

## Section 1.4

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# SECTION SUMMARY

- Predicates
- Variables
- Quantifiers
  - Universal Quantifier
  - Existential Quantifier
- Equivalences in Predicate Logic
- Negating Quantifiers
  - De Morgan's Laws for Quantifiers
- Translating English to Logic

# PROPOSITIONAL LOGIC NOT ENOUGH

- If we have:
  - “All men are mortal.”
  - “Socrates is a man.”
- Does it follow that “Socrates is mortal” using propositional logic?
- Can’t be represented in propositional logic. Need a language that talks about objects, their properties, and their relations.
- It is difficult to draw inferences.

# INTRODUCING PREDICATE LOGIC

- Predicate logic uses the following new features:
  - **Variables** (变量) :  $x, y, z$
  - **Predicates** (谓词) :  $P(x), M(x)$
  - **Quantifiers** (量词) : to be covered in later slides
- *Propositional functions* (命题函数) are a generalization of propositions.
  - They contain variables and a predicate, e.g.,  $P(x)$
  - A statement of the form  $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is the value of the propositional function  $P$  at the  $n$ -tuple  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ .
  - $P$  is also called an  $n$ -place predicate or a  $n$ -ary predicate ( $n$ 元谓词).
  - Variables can be replaced by elements from their **domain** (论域) .

# 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  $P$  at  $x$ .
- For example, let  $P(x)$  denote “ $x > 0$ ” and the domain be the integers. Then:
  - $P(-3)$   
is false.
  - $P(3)$   
is true.
- Often the domain is denoted by  $U$ . So in this example  $U$  is the integers.



Charles Peirce (1839-1914)

# QUANTIFIERS

- We need *quantifiers* to express the meaning of English words including *all* and *some*:
  - “All men are Mortal.”
  - “Some students are from Hong Kong.”
- 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  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ” or “For every  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ”

## 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 “For some  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ”, or as “There is an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ,” or “For at least one  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ .”

## 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.

# UNIQUENESS QUANTIFIER

- $\exists!x P(x)$  means that  $P(x)$  is true for one and only one  $x$  in the universe of discourse.
- This is commonly expressed in English in the following equivalent ways:
  - “There is a unique  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ .”
  - “There is one and only one  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ”
- Examples:
  1. If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x + 1 = 0$ ” and  $U$  is the integers, then  $\exists!x P(x)$  is true.
  2. But if  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x > 0$ ,” then  $\exists!x P(x)$  is false.
- The uniqueness quantifier is not really needed as the restriction that there is a unique  $x$  such that  $P(x)$  can be expressed as:

$$\exists x (P(x) \wedge \forall y (P(y) \rightarrow y = x))$$

# QUANTIFIERS WITH RESTRICTED DOMAINS

- An abbreviated notation to restrict the domain of a quantifier.
- Examples: What do the statements  $\forall x < 0 (x^2 > 0)$ , and  $\exists z > 0 (z^2 = 2)$  mean, where the domain in each case consists of the real numbers?
  - $\forall x < 0 (x^2 > 0)$  states that for every real number  $x$  with  $x < 0$ ,  $x^2 > 0$ .  
 $\forall x(x < 0 \rightarrow x^2 > 0)$ .
  - $\exists z > 0 (z^2 = 2)$  states that there exists a real number  $z$  with  $z > 0$  such that  $z^2 = 2$ .  
 $\exists z(z > 0 \wedge z^2 = 2)$ .
- The restriction of a universal quantification is the same as the universal quantification of **a conditional statement**.
- The restriction of an existential quantification is the same as the existential quantification of **a conjunction**.

# 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  $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$ .

# 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:**  
$$\forall x \neg \neg S(x) \equiv \forall x S(x)$$

# THINKING ABOUT QUANTIFIERS AS CONJUNCTIONS AND DISJUNCTIONS

- If the domain is finite, a universally quantified proposition is equivalent to a conjunction of propositions without quantifiers and an existentially quantified proposition is equivalent to a disjunction of propositions without quantifiers.
- If  $U$  consists of the integers 1,2, and 3:

$$\forall x P(x) \equiv P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge P(3)$$

$$\exists x P(x) \equiv P(1) \vee P(2) \vee P(3)$$

- Even if the domains are infinite, you can still think of the quantifiers in this fashion, but the equivalent expressions without quantifiers will be infinitely long.

# DE MORGAN'S LAWS FOR QUANTIFIERS

- The rules for negating quantifiers are:

<b>TABLE 2</b> De Morgan's Laws for Quantifiers.			
<i>Negation</i>	<i>Equivalent Statement</i>	<i>When Is Negation True?</i>	<i>When False?</i>
$\neg \exists x P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$	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 $x$ .

- The reasoning in the table shows that:

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

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

- These are important.

# TRANSLATING FROM ENGLISH TO LOGIC

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

**Solution:**

First decide on the domain  $U$ .

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

**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  $\forall x (S(x) \rightarrow C(x))$ .

$\forall x (S(x) \wedge C(x))$  ?



# 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

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

$\exists x (S(x) \rightarrow J(x))$  is not correct. What does it mean?

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