

# DISCRETE MATHEMATICS AND ITS APPLICATIONS



## 1.4 PREDICATES AND QUANTIFIERS

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# OUTLINE

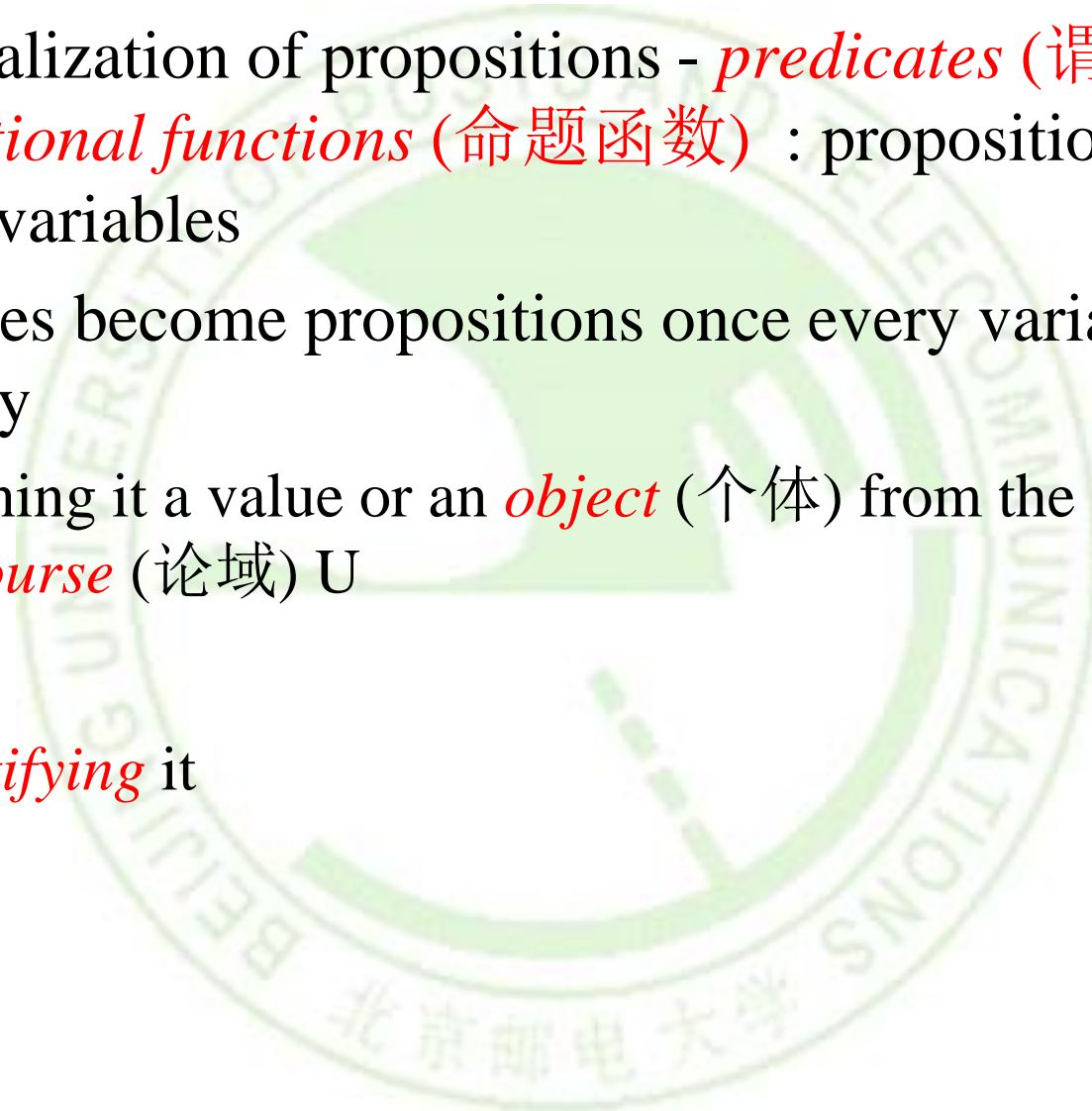
- **Predicate logic**（谓词逻辑）
- **Quantifiers**（量词）
  - Universal（全称量词）
  - Existential（存在量词）
  - Unique Existential（唯一存在量词）
- **Property of Quantifiers**
  - **Free and Bound Variables**（自由变项与绑定变项）
  - **Nesting**（嵌套）
  - **Negation**（否定）
- **Applications**

# 苏格拉底三段论

- 凡人都是要死的。苏格拉底是人。所以，苏格拉底是要死的。
  - 设：  $p$ :凡人都是要死的;  $q$ :苏格拉底是人;  $r$ : 苏格拉底是要死的。
  - 前提：  $p, q$ , 结论：  $r$
- 推理的形式结构：  $p \wedge q \rightarrow r$  (非永真式！)
- 重新符号化：  $x, a, F(), \forall, \exists$ 
  - 设：  $F(x)$ :  $x$ 是人。  $G(x)$ :  $x$ 是要死的。  $a$ : 苏格拉底。
  - 前提：  $\forall x(F(x) \rightarrow G(x)), F(a)$
  - 结论：  $G(a)$

# PREDICATES LOGIC

- A generalization of propositions - *predicates* (谓词) or *propositional functions* (命题函数) : propositions which contain variables
- Predicates become propositions once every variable is *bound* by
  - assigning it a value or an *object* (个体) from the *Universe of Discourse* (论域)  $U$or
  - *quantifying* it



# FORMULAS OF PREDICATE LOGIC

## ■ Notation:

- We will use various kinds of *individual constants* that denote individuals/objects:  $a, b, c, \dots$ , *individual variables* over objects:  $x, y, z, \dots$
- $P$ : refers to a **property** that the **subject** of the statement can have.
- The result of applying a *predicate*  $P$  to a *constant*  $a$  is the **proposition**  $P(a)$ . Meaning: the object denoted by  $a$  has the property denoted by  $P$ .
- The result of applying a *predicate*  $P$  to a *variable*  $x$  is the **propositional form**  $P(x)$ .
  - E.g. if  $P = \text{“is a prime number”}$ , then  $P(x)$  is the *propositional form* of “ $x$  is a prime number”.

# FORMULAS OF PREDICATE LOGIC

## ■ Example:

- Let  $U = \mathbb{Z}$ , the integers =  $\{\dots -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
- $P(x): x > 0$  is the predicate. It has no truth value until the variable  $x$  is bound.

## ■ Examples of propositions where $x$ is assigned a value:

- $P(-3)$  is false,
- $P(0)$  is false,
- $P(3)$  is true.

The collection of integers for which  $P(x)$  is true are the positive integers.

- $P(y) \vee \sim P(0)$  is not a proposition. The variable  $y$  has not been bound. However.
- $P(3) \vee \sim P(0)$  is a proposition which is true.



# PROPOSITIONAL FUNCTIONS

- Predicate logic generalizes the grammatical notion of a predicate to also include **propositional functions** of **any** number of arguments, each of which may take **any** grammatical role that a noun can take.
- *E.g.*
  - let  $P(x,y,z) = \text{"}x \text{ gave } y \text{ the grade } z\text{"}$ ,
  - then if  $x = \text{"Mike"}$ ,  $y = \text{"Mary"}$ ,  $z = \text{"A"}$ ,
  - then  $P(x,y,z) = \text{"Mike gave Mary the grade A."}$

***Proposition***

***Proposition variable***

***Predicate (Propositional function)***

# N-PLACE PREDICATE

- A statement involving the  $n$  variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  can be denoted by  $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ .
- 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  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ , and  $P$  is also called a  **$n$ -place predicate** or a  **$n$ -ary predicate**.
- Let  $R$  be the three-variable predicate
  - $R(x, y, z): x + y = z$
- Find the truth value of
  - $R(2, -1, 5)$
  - $R(3, 4, 7)$
  - $R(x, 3, z)$



# QUANTIFIERS – UNIVERSAL(全称量词)

- $P(x)$  is true *for every  $x$*  in the **universe of discourse**.
- Notation: *universal quantifier*

$$\forall xP(x)$$

‘For all  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ’, ‘For every  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ’

- The variable  $x$  is bound by the universal quantifier producing a proposition.
- Let  $P(x)$  be the statement “ $x+1 > x$ ”.
- What is the truth value of the quantification  $\forall xP(x)$ , where the universe of discourse consists of all real numbers?

# QUANTIFIERS – UNIVERSAL(全称量词)

- **Example:**

$$U = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

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

- **Example:**

- Let  $P(x)$  be the statement “ $x^2 > 0$ ”.
- What is the truth value of the quantification  $\forall x P(x)$ , where the universe of discourse consists of all integers?

# QUANTIFIERS – EXISTENTIAL(存在量词)

- $P(x)$  is true for some  $x$  in the universe of discourse.

- Notation: *existential quantifier*

$$\exists xP(x)$$

‘There is an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ’, ‘For some  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ’, ‘For at least one  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ’, ‘I can find an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ .’

- Let  $P(x)$  be the statement “ $x > 3$ ”.
- What is the truth value of the quantification  $\exists xP(x)$ , where the universe of discourse consists of all real numbers?

# QUANTIFIERS – EXISTENTIAL(存在量词)

- **Example:**

$$U = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

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

- **Example:**

- Let  $Q(x)$  denote the statement “ $x = x + 1$ ”.
- What is the truth value of the quantification  $\exists x P(x)$ , where the universe of discourse consists of all real numbers?

# UNIQUE EXISTENTIAL(唯一存在量词)

- $P(x)$  is true for one and only one  $x$  in the universe of discourse.
- Notation: *unique existential quantifier*

$$\exists!xP(x)$$

‘There is a unique  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ’, ‘There is one and only one  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ’, ‘One can find only one  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ’.

# UNIQUE EXISTENTIAL(唯一存在量词)

- Example:

$$U = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$\exists! x P(x) \Leftrightarrow ?$$

$P(1)$	$P(2)$	$P(3)$	$\exists! x P(x)$
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0

$$(\sim P(1) \wedge \sim P(2) \wedge P(3)) \vee (\sim P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \sim P(3)) \vee (P(1) \wedge \sim P(2) \wedge \sim P(3))$$

**minterms in the PDNF**



# UNIQUENESS QUANTIFIER

## ■ Examples:

- If  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x + 1 = 0$ ” and  $U$  is the integers, then  $\exists!x P(x)$  is true.
- But if  $P(x)$  denotes “ $x > 0$ ,” then  $\exists!x P(x)$  is false.

- **Note:** 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:*

$\forall x P(x) :\equiv$  “For all  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ . ”

$\exists x P(x) :\equiv$  “There is an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ . ”

$\exists!x P(x) :\equiv$  “There is one and only one  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ . ”



# 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 the loops will not terminate in some cases.

# THINKING ABOUT QUANTIFIERS

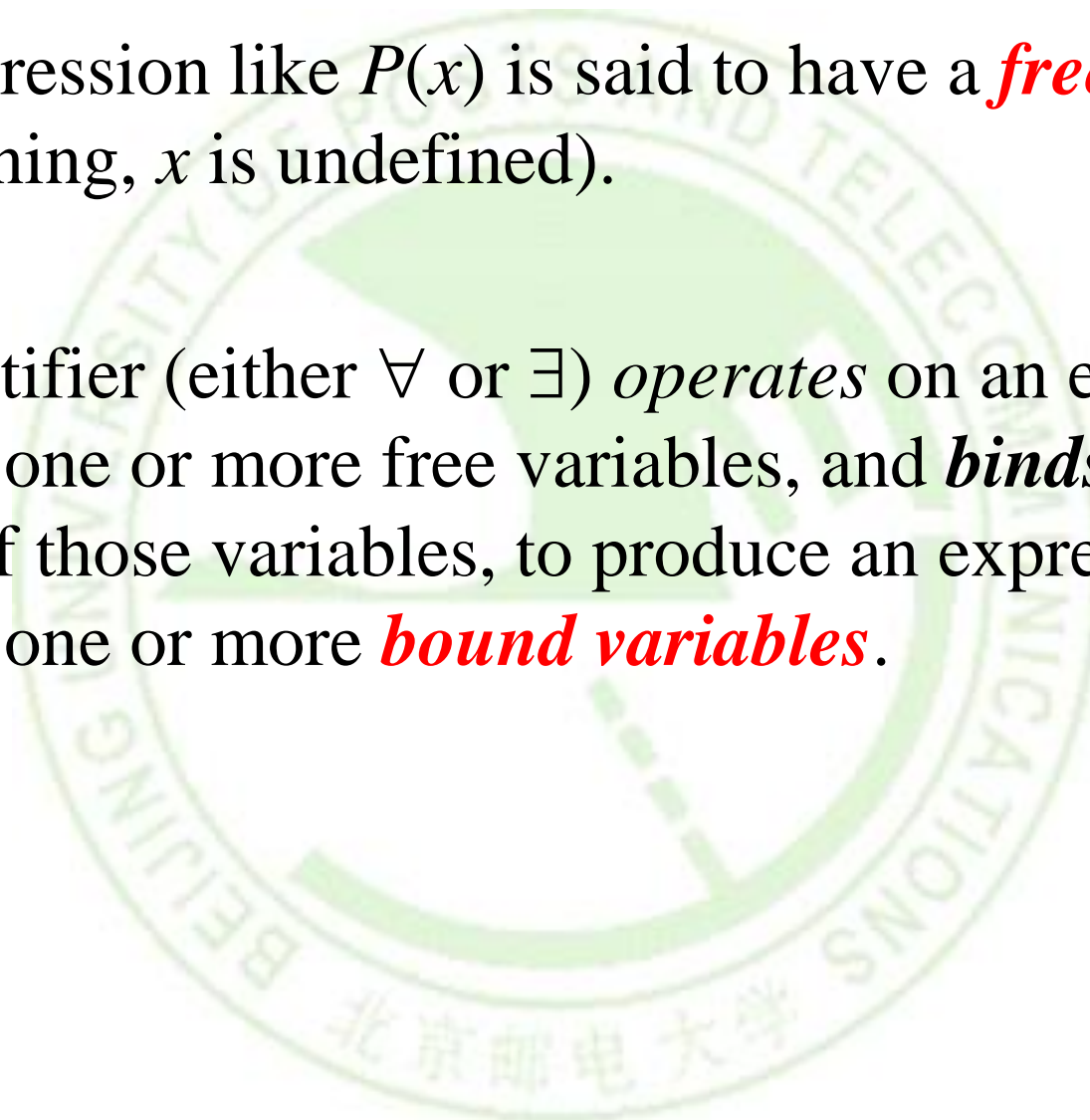
- The truth value of  $\exists x P(x)$  and  $\forall x P(x)$  depend on both the **propositional function**  $P(x)$  and on the **domain**  $U$ .
- **Examples:**
  1. If  $U$  is the positive integers and  $P(x)$  is the statement “ $x < 2$ ”, then  $\exists x P(x)$  is true, but  $\forall x P(x)$  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.
- **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  $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$ .
- **Remember:** A predicate is not a proposition until *all* variables have been bound either by quantification or assignment of a value!

# FREE AND BOUND VARIABLES

- An expression like  $P(x)$  is said to have a *free variable*  $x$  (meaning,  $x$  is undefined).
- A quantifier (either  $\forall$  or  $\exists$ ) *operates* on an expression having one or more free variables, and *binds* one or more of those variables, to produce an expression having one or more *bound variables*.



# EXAMPLE OF BINDING

- $P(x,y)$  has 2 free variables,  $x$  and  $y$ .
- $\forall x P(x,y)$  has 1 free variable and 1 bound variable.  
[Which is which?]
- An expression with zero free variables is a bona-fide (actual) proposition.
- An expression with one or more free variables is similar to a predicate:

*e.g. let  $Q(y) = \forall x P(x,y)$*



# NESTING OF QUANTIFIERS

## ■ Example:

- Let the u.d. of  $x$  and  $y$  be people.
- Let  $L(x,y) = \text{“}x \text{ likes } y\text{”}$
- Then  $\exists y L(x,y) = \text{“}There is someone whom } x \text{ likes. ”}$
- Then  $\forall x (\exists y L(x,y)) = \text{“}Everyone has someone whom they like. ”}$

**(a real proposition; no free variables left)**

# BINDING AND NESTING

## ■ Examples:

- $\forall x \exists x P(x)$  -  $x$  is not a free variable in  $\exists x P(x)$

Therefore the  $\forall x$  binding isn't used.

- $(\forall x P(x)) \wedge Q(x)$  - The variable  $x$  is outside of the *scope* of the  $\forall x$  quantifier, and is therefore free.

Not a complete proposition!

- $(\forall x P(x)) \wedge (\exists x Q(x))$  – A complete proposition, and no superfluous quantifiers

# BINDING AND NESTING

- If  $R(x,y)$  = “ $x$  relies upon  $y$ , ” express the following in unambiguous English ( $U$  is all people):

- $\forall x(\exists y R(x,y))=$

Everyone has *someone* to rely on.

- $\exists y(\forall x R(x,y))=$

There’s an overburdened soul whom *everyone* relies upon (including himself)!

- $\exists x(\forall y R(x,y))=$

There’s some needy person who relies upon *everybody* (including himself).

- $\forall y(\exists x R(x,y))=$

*Everyone* has someone who relies upon them.

- $\forall x(\forall y R(x,y))=$

*Everyone* relies upon everybody, (including themselves)!

# NATURAL LANGUAGE IS AMBIGUOUS!

- Let  $L(x,y) = “x \text{ likes } y”$
- “Everybody likes somebody.”
  - For everybody, there is somebody they like,
    - $\forall x \exists y L(x,y)$
  - or, there is somebody (a popular person) whom everyone likes?
    - $\exists y \forall x L(x,y)$
- “Somebody likes everybody.”
  - Same problem: Depends on context, emphasis.

$$\exists x \forall y L(x,y)$$

$$\forall y \exists x L(x,y)$$

# NEGATIONS

- Every student in the class has taken a course in Calculus.

$$\sim \forall x P(x) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \sim P(x)$$

- **Negation:** There is a student in this class who has not taken a course in calculus.
- There is a student in this class who has taken a course in calculus.

$$\sim \exists x P(x) \Leftrightarrow \forall x \sim P(x)$$

- **Negation:** Every student in this class has not taken a course in calculus.
- **Remember:**
  - Distributing a negation operator across a quantifier changes a universal to an existential and vice versa.

# NEGATIONS

- **Example 20:** What are the negation of the statements “*there is an honest politician*” and “*All Americans eat cheeseburgers*”?

- $H(x)$  : “*x is honest.*”

$\exists x H(x)$ , where the domain consists of all politicians.

The negation is  $\neg \exists x H(x)$ , which is equivalent to  $\forall x \neg H(x)$ :  
*Every politician is dishonest.*”

- $C(x)$  : “*x eats cheeseburgers.*”

$\forall x C(x)$ , where the domain consists of all Americans.

The negation is  $\neg \forall x C(x)$ , which is equivalent to  $\exists x \neg C(x)$ :  
“*Some American does not eat cheeseburgers*” or “*There is an American who does not eat cheeseburgers.*”



# NEGATIONS

- **Example 21:** What are the negation of the statements  $\forall x(x^2 > x)$  and  $\exists x(x^2 = 2)$ ?

- $\sim \forall x(x^2 > x) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \sim (x^2 > x) \Leftrightarrow \exists x (x^2 \leq x)$
- $\sim \exists x(x^2 = 2) \Leftrightarrow \forall x \sim (x^2 = 2) \Leftrightarrow \forall x (x^2 \neq 2)$

# 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,

$J(x)$  denoting “ $x$  has taken a course in Java”

$$\forall x J(x).$$

**Solution 2:** But if  $U$  is all people,

$S(x)$  denoting “ $x$  is a student in this class”

$$\forall x (S(x) \rightarrow J(x))$$

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

# 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,

$$\exists x J(x)$$

**Solution 2:** But if  $U$  is all people,

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

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

# EXCERSICE-EXAMPLE 24

- Some student in this class has visited Guangzhou.
- Every student in this class has visited Chengdu or Guangzhou.
- $G(x)$ : “ $x$  has visited Guangzhou.” ,  $C(x)$ : “ $x$  has visited Chengdu.”
- The U.D. for the variable  $x$  consists of the students in this class,
  - $\exists x G(x)$ .
  - $\forall x (C(x) \vee G(x))$
- The U.D. for the variable  $x$  consists of all people.
  - $S(x)$ : “ $x$  is a student in this class.”
  - $\exists x (S(x) \wedge G(x))$
  - $\forall x (S(x) \rightarrow (C(x) \vee G(x)))$

# SOME COMMON SHORTHANDS

- Sometimes the universe of discourse is restricted within the quantification.
- *E.g.*,
  - $\forall x > 0 P(x)$  is shorthand for  
“For all  $x$  that are greater than zero,  $P(x)$ .”  
 $\forall x (x > 0 \rightarrow P(x))$
  - $\exists x > 0 P(x)$  is shorthand for  
“There is an  $x$  greater than zero such that  $P(x)$ .”  
 $\exists x (x > 0 \wedge P(x))$

# SOME COMMON SHORTHANDS

- Consecutive quantifiers of the same type can be combined:

$$\forall xyz P(x,y,z) \Leftrightarrow_{\text{def}} \forall x \forall y \forall z P(x,y,z)$$

$$\exists xyz P(x,y,z) \Leftrightarrow_{\text{def}} \exists x \exists y \exists z P(x,y,z)$$

- One way of precisely defining the calculus concept of a limit, using quantifiers:

$$\left( \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \right) \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\left( \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \forall x (0 < |x - a| < \delta) \rightarrow (|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon) \right)$$



# LEWIS CARROLL EXAMPLE



Charles Lutwidge Dodgson  
(AKA Lewis Carroll)  
(1832-1898)

- The first two are called *premises* and the third is called the *conclusion*.

1. “All lions are fierce.”
2. “Some lions do not drink coffee.”
3. “Some fierce creatures do not drink coffee.”

- Let:

- |                                  |  |
|----------------------------------|--|
| ■ $P(x)$ : “ $x$ is a lion” ;    | 1. <u><math>\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))</math></u> |
| ■ $Q(x)$ : “ $x$ is fierce” ;    | 2. <u><math>\exists x (P(x) \wedge \neg R(x))</math></u> |
| ■ $R(x)$ : “ $x$ drinks coffee”. | 3. <u><math>\exists x (Q(x) \wedge \neg R(x))</math></u> |

- Later we will see how to prove that the conclusion follows from the premises.

# EXERCISE-EXAMPLE 27

- All hummingbirds are richly colored.
- No large birds live on honey.
- Birds that do not live on honey are dull in color.
- Hummingbirds are small.

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

$$\neg \exists x(Q(x) \wedge R(x))$$

$$\forall x(\neg R(x) \rightarrow \neg S(x))$$

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

- **Let:**

- $P(x)$  : “ $x$  is a hummingbird,”
- $S(x)$  : “ $x$  is richly colored,”
- $Q(x)$ : “ $x$  is large,”
- $R(x)$ : “ $x$  lives on honey,”
- Assuming that the domain consists of all birds.



# BONUS TOPIC: LOGIC PROGRAMMING

- There are some programming languages that are based entirely on predicate logic!
- The most famous one is called Prolog.
- Prolog (from *Programming in Logic*) is a programming language developed in the 1970s by researchers in artificial intelligence (AI).
- A Prolog program is a set of propositions (“facts”) and (“rules”) in predicate logic.
- The input to the program is a “query” proposition.
  - Want to know if it is true or false.
- The Prolog interpreter does some automated deduction to determine whether the query follows from the facts.

# LOGIC PROGRAMMING (CONT)

- example of a set of Prolog facts consider the following:

- *instructor(p,c)* : professor *p* is the instructor of course *c*;
- *enrolled(s,c)*: student *s* is enrolled in course *c*.

*instructor(chan, math273).*

*instructor(patel, ee222).*

*instructor(grossman, cs301).*

*enrolled(kevin, math273).*

*enrolled(juna, ee222).*

*enrolled(juana, cs301).*

*enrolled(kiko, math273).*

*enrolled(kiko, cs301).*

# LOGIC PROGRAMMING (CONT)

- In Prolog, names beginning with an uppercase letter are variables.
- If we have a predicate *teaches(p,s)* representing “professor *p* teaches student *s*,” we can write the rule:

*teaches(P,S) :- instructor(P,C), enrolled(S,C).*

- This Prolog rule can be viewed as equivalent to the following statement in logic (using our conventions for logical statements).

$$\forall p \ \forall c \ \forall s ((I(p,c) \wedge E(s,c)) \rightarrow T(p,s))$$

# LOGIC PROGRAMMING (CONT)

- Prolog programs are loaded into a *Prolog interpreter*. The interpreter receives *queries* and returns answers using the Prolog program.
- For example, using our program, the following query may be given:

*?enrolled(kevin,math273).*

- Prolog produces the response:

*yes*

- Note that the ? is the prompt given by the Prolog interpreter indicating that it is ready to receive a query.



# LOGIC PROGRAMMING (CONT)

- The query:

*?enrolled(X,math273).*

produces the response:

*X = kevin;*

*X = kiko;*

*no*

- The query:

*?teaches(X,juana).*

produces the response:

*X = patel;*

*X = grossman;*

*no*

- *The Prolog interpreter tries to find an instantiation for X.*
- *It does so and returns X=kevin. Then the user types the ; indicating a request for another answer.*
- *When Prolog is unable to find another answer it returns no.*

# LOGIC PROGRAMMING (CONT)

- The query:

*?teaches(chan,X).*

produces the response:

X = kevin;

X = kiko;

no

- A number of very good Prolog texts are available. *Learn Prolog Now!* is one such text with a free online version at <http://www.learnprolognow.org/>
- There is much more to Prolog and to the entire field of logic programming.



# **HOMEWORK**

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- **§ 1.4**

- 10, 18, 38, 42, 64

