

# Discrete Mathematics for Computer Science

## Lecture 2: Propositional and Predicate Logic

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# Last Lecture

A proposition is a **declarative** statement that is **either true or false**.

Compound propositions are build using **logical connectives**:

- Negation  $\neg$
- Conjunction  $\wedge$
- Disjunction  $\vee$
- Exclusive or  $\oplus$
- Implication  $\rightarrow$
- Biconditional  $\leftrightarrow$

Up to now, nothing related to inference.

# Questions from Students: Proposition

**Proposition:** a **declarative** sentence that is **either true or false (not both)**.

Are paradox propositions?

- A paradox is a declarative sentence that is true and false at the same time — thus, a paradox is not a proposition.<sup>1</sup>

	Determine the type of Sentence	If a proposition determine its truth value
5 is a prime number.	Declarative and Proposition	T
8 is an odd number.	Declarative and proposition	F
Did you lock the door?	Interrogative	
Happy Birthday!	Exclamatory	
Jane Austen is the author of Pride and Prejudice.	Declarative and Proposition	T
Please pass the salt.	Imperative	
She walks to school.	Declarative	
$ x + y  \leq  x  +  y $	Declarative	

<sup>1</sup><https://calcworkshop.com/logic/propositional-logic/>

# Questions from Students: Proposition

**Proposition:** a **declarative** sentence that is **either true or false (not both)**.

Is  $x^2 \geq 0$  a proposition? Note that  $x^2 \geq 0$  is true whenever  $x$  is a real number.

- No, because  $x$  is variable and could be anything, e.g., a car, a person.

Predicate  $P(x)$ :  $x^2 \geq 0$

- $P(2)$  is a proposition
- “ $\forall x P(x)$  whenever  $x$  is a real number” is a proposition

# Questions from Students: Implication

$p$	$q$	$p \rightarrow q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

- $p$ : It doesn't rain today (F)
- $q$ : I will go to the store today
- $p \rightarrow q$ : If it doesn't rain today, then I will go to the store today (T)

Suppose it rains today. Then,

- No matter whether I go to the store today or not, my statement is true, i.e., I am not lying.



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# Questions from Students: Implication

$p$	$q$	$p \rightarrow q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

Essentially,  $\rightarrow$  is a **logical operator**: given two logical values, produces a third logical value, using a common **defined rule**

Using “if ..., then ...” to express this operator:

- “If it is sunny tomorrow, then we will go hiking.”

However, “if ..., then ...” may not be the most accurate expression:

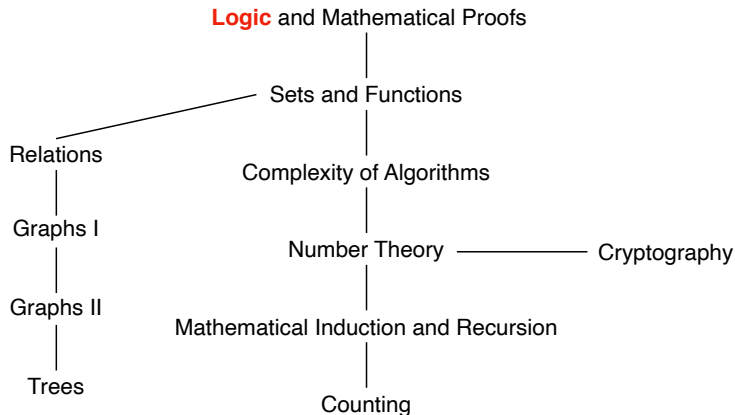
- “Not A; or, A implies B” (useful law)
- BUT this expression is NOT commonly accepted!



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Please use “if ..., then ...” as the English interpretation.

# This Lecture



**Logic:** Propositional logic, applications of propositional logic,  
propositional equivalence, predicates and quantifiers, nested quantifiers



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# Applications of Propositional Logic

- Translation of English sentences to **remove ambiguous**
  - ▶ Use combinations of atomic (elementary) propositions
  - ▶ Sentence to logical expression: determine the true value
- Inference and reasoning
  - ▶ New true propositions are **inferred** from existing ones
  - ▶ Used in Artificial Intelligence
- Design of logic circuit





# Translation of English

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

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

## Atomic (elementary) propositions:

- $p$ : you are older than 13
- $q$ : you are with your parents
- $r$ : you can watch this movie

**Translation:**  $p \vee q \rightarrow r$

# Try to Translate This Sentence

You can access the Internet from campus **only if** you are a computer science major or you are not a freshman.

## Atomic (elementary) propositions:

- $p$ : You can access the Internet from campus
- $q$ : You are a computer science major
- $r$ : You are a freshman

**Translation:**  $p \rightarrow (q \vee \neg r)$

(Recall that " $p$  only if  $q$ " means "if  $p$ , then  $q$ ".)

# Inference and Reasoning

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

**Translation:**  $p \vee q \rightarrow r$

Given that  $p$  is true.

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

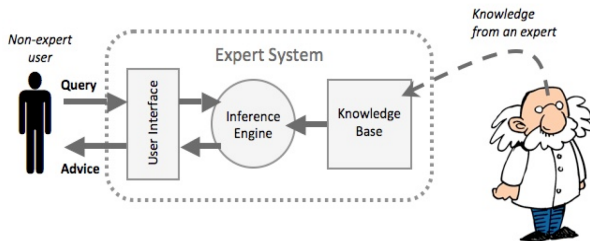
You can watch this movie.

We will learn **rules of inference** next lecture.

# Inference and Reasoning: Artificial intelligence

**Artificial intelligence (AI):** builds programs that act intelligently

- Expert System



- Automated Theorem Proving

- ▶ Automated reasoning dealing with proving mathematical theorems by computer programs



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# Design of Logic Circuits



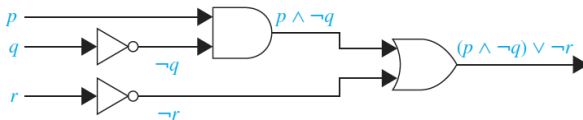
Inverter



OR gate



AND gate



# Other Applications



## Advanced Search

Find pages with...

all these words:

this exact word or phrase:

any of these words:

none of these words:

numbers ranging from:

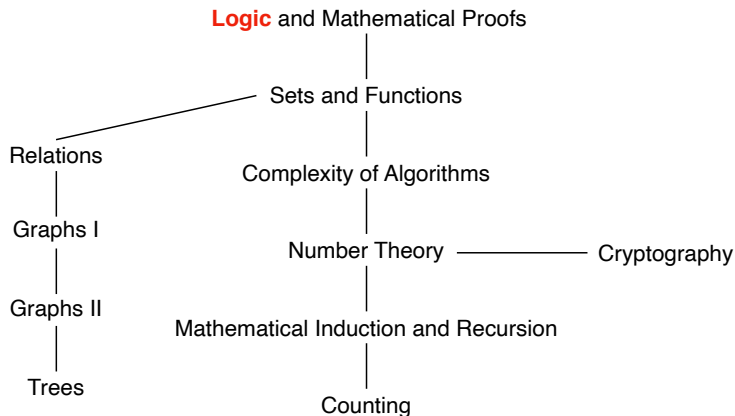
to



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# This Lecture



**Logic:** Propositional logic, applications of propositional logic, propositional equivalence, predicates and quantifiers, nested quantifiers



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# Tautology and Contradiction

- **Tautology**: A compound proposition that is **always true**, no matter what the truth values of the propositional variables that occur in it.
- **Contradiction**: A compound proposition that is always false.
- **Contingency**: A compound proposition that is neither a tautology nor a contradiction.

$p$	$\neg p$	$p \vee \neg p$	$p \wedge \neg p$
T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F



# Logical Equivalences

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

That is, two compound propositions are equivalent if they always have the same truth value.

Show that  $\neg(p \vee q)$  and  $\neg p \wedge \neg q$  are logically equivalent.

# Logical Equivalences

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That is, two compound propositions are equivalent if they always have the same truth value.

Show that  $\neg(p \vee q)$  and  $\neg p \wedge \neg q$  are logically equivalent.

$p$	$q$	$p \vee q$	$\neg(p \vee q)$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$\neg p \wedge \neg q$
T	T	T	F	F	F	F
T	F	T	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	F	T	T	T	T



# Logical Equivalences: Example

```
(1) if ((i+j ≤ p+q) && (i ≤ p) &&  
    ((j > q) || (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
```

```
(1) if (((i+j ≤ p+q) && (i ≤ p) && (j > q))  
    || ((i+j ≤ p+q) && (i ≤ p)  
        && (List1[i] ≤ List2[j])))  
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(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?

# Logical Equivalences: Example

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

- $s \sim (i + j \leq p + q)$

- $t \sim (i \leq p)$

- $u \sim (j > q)$

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

Left

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

Right

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

Let  $w \sim (s \wedge v)$ .



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# Logical Equivalences: Example

```
(1) if ((i+j ≤ p+q) && (i ≤ p) &&  
      ((j > q) || (List1[i] ≤ List2[j])))  
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```

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

- $s \sim (i + j \leq p + q)$

- $t \sim (i \leq p)$

- $u \sim (j > q)$

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

Let  $w \sim (s \wedge v)$ .

Left

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

Right

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



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# Logical Equivalences: Example

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

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

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

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

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# Distributive Laws

- $w \wedge (u \vee v)$  is equivalent to  $(w \wedge u) \vee (w \wedge v)$
- $w \vee (u \wedge v)$  is equivalent to  $(w \vee u) \wedge (w \vee v)$

**Equivalent statements** are important for logical reasoning since they can be substituted and can help us to:

- make a logical argument
- infer new propositions

**Example:**  $p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$

# De Morgan's Laws

■  $\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$

$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$

$p$	$q$	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$(p \vee q)$	$\neg(p \vee q)$	$\neg p \wedge \neg q$
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*

$$\diamond p \wedge T \equiv p$$

$$\diamond p \vee F \equiv p$$

## ■ *Domination laws*

$$\diamond p \vee T \equiv T$$

$$\diamond p \wedge F \equiv F$$

## ■ *Idempotent laws*

$$\diamond p \vee p \equiv p$$

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



# Important Logical Equivalences

## ■ *Double negation laws*

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

## ■ *Commutative laws*

$$\diamond p \vee q \equiv q \vee p$$

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

## ■ *Associative laws*

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

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

# Important Logical Equivalences

## ■ *Distributive laws*

$$\diamond p \vee (q \wedge r) \equiv (p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee r)$$

$$\diamond p \wedge (q \vee r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (p \wedge r)$$

## ■ *De Morgan's laws*

$$\diamond \neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$$

$$\diamond \neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$$

## ■ *Others*

$$\diamond p \vee (p \wedge q) \equiv p$$

$$\diamond p \wedge (p \vee q) \equiv p$$

*Absorption laws*

$$\diamond p \vee \neg p \equiv T$$

$$\diamond p \wedge \neg p \equiv F$$

*Negation laws*

$$\diamond p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q$$

*Useful law*

# Using Logical Equivalences

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

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



# Using Logical Equivalences

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Proof: } (p \wedge q) \rightarrow p &\equiv \neg(p \wedge q) \vee p \\ &\equiv (\neg p \vee \neg q) \vee p \\ &\equiv (\neg q \vee \neg p) \vee p \\ &\equiv \neg q \vee (\neg p \vee p) \\ &\equiv \neg q \vee T \\ &\equiv T\end{aligned}$$

Useful  
De Morgan's  
Commutative  
Associative  
Negation  
Domination

# Using Logical Equivalences

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

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

**Proof** (alternatively):

$p$	$q$	$p \wedge q$	$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p$
T	T	T	T
T	F	F	T
F	T	F	T
F	F	F	T

# Using Logical Equivalences

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:**

$$\begin{aligned}\neg q \rightarrow \neg p &\equiv \neg(\neg q) \vee (\neg p) \\ &\equiv q \vee (\neg p) \\ &\equiv (\neg p) \vee q \\ &\equiv p \rightarrow q\end{aligned}$$

Useful  
Double negation  
Commutative  
Useful



# Limitations of Propositional Logic

Propositional logic: describe the world in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations.

**Example 1:**  $1^2 \geq 0$

However, we also have

- $2^2 \geq 0, 3^2 \geq 0, \dots$
- $(-1)^2 \geq 0, (-2)^2 \geq 0, \dots$

**What is a more natural solution to express the knowledge?**

Include **variables**!

- **Predicates:**  $P(x): x^2 \geq 0$
- **Quantifiers:** For **all** integer  $x$ , we have  $x^2 \geq 0$ .



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# Limitations of Propositional Logic

## Example 2:

- **Every** computer in Room 101 is functioning properly.
- MATH3 is a computer in Room 101.

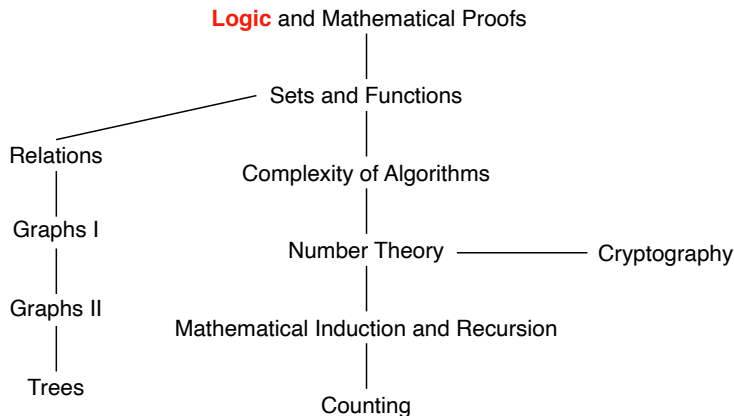
Can we conclude “MATH3 is functioning properly” using the rules of propositional logic?

**NO!**

## Solution: Predicates and Quantifiers

- $P(x)$ : Computer  $x$  is functioning properly.
- $\forall x P(x)$ :  $P(x)$  holds for all computer  $x$  in Room 101.
- Universal quantifier, existential quantifier

# This Lecture



**Logic:** Propositional logic, applications of propositional logic, propositional equivalence, predicates and quantifiers, nested quantifiers



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# Predicate Logic

Predicate Logic: make statements with **variables**

**Example:**  $x$  is greater than 3

- Variable  $x$
- **Predicate**  $P$ : “is greater than 3”
- **Propositional function**  $P(x)$ : the truth value of  $P$  at  $x$

# Predicate Logic

A propositional function  $P(x)$  assigns a value T or F to each  $x$  depending on whether the property holds or not for  $x$

**Example:**  $P(x)$  denote the statement “ $x > 3$ ”:

- $P(2)$  is F
- $P(4)$  is T

Is  $P(x)$  a proposition? No!

Is  $P(2)$  a proposition? Yes!

# Predicates

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

# Predicates: Example 1

Let  $P(x)$  be the predicate “ $x^2 > x$ ” with domain of the real numbers.

- 1 What are the truth values of  $P(2)$  and  $P(1)$ ?

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

- 2 What is the truth set of  $P(x)$ ?

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

## Predicates: Example 2

Let  $Q(x, y)$  be the predicate " $x = y + 3$ " with domain of the real numbers.

- 1 What are the truth values of  $Q(1, 2)$  and  $Q(3, 0)$ ?

$$Q(1, 2) = F, Q(3, 0) = T$$

- 2 What is the truth set of  $Q(x, y)$ ?

$$(a, a - 3) \text{ for all real numbers } a$$

# Compound Statements in Predicate Logic

Compound statements are obtained via logical connectives.

$P(x)$ :  $x$  is a prime

$Q(x)$ :  $x$  is an integer

- $P(2) \wedge P(3)$ : Both 2 and 3 are primes. (T)
- $P(2) \wedge Q(2)$ : 2 is a prime or an integer. (T)
- $Q(x) \rightarrow P(x)$ : If  $x$  is an integer, then  $x$  is a prime. (Not a proposition!)

How to make it a proposition?

Note: Researchers may use  $\text{Prime}(x)$  to refer to “ $x$  is a prime”,  $\text{Integer}(x)$  to refer to “ $x$  is an integer”, and others. It is only a way of notation. If you use such notations, please define it clearly beforehand.



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# Quantified Statements

Propositional function  $P(x)$   $\xRightarrow{\text{specify } x}$  Proposition

**An alternative way to obtain proposition:**

Propositional function  $P(x)$   $\xRightarrow{\text{for all/some } x \text{ in domain}}$  Proposition

Predicate logic permits **quantified statement** where **variables** are **substituted** for statements about the **group of objects**.

# Quantified Statements

Two types of quantified statements:

- Universal quantifier  $\forall xP(x)$ 
  - ▶ **All** CS-major graduates have to pass CS201.
  - ▶ (This is **true** for **all** CS-major graduates.)
- Existential quantifier  $\exists xP(x)$ 
  - ▶ **Some** CS-major students graduate with honor.
  - ▶ (This is **true** for **some** students.)

# Universal Quantifier

The **universal quantification** of  $P(x)$  is the statement

$P(x)$  for all values of  $x$  in the **domain**.

The notation  $\forall x P(x)$  denotes the universal quantification of  $P(x)$ . We read  $\forall x P(x)$  as “for all  $x P(x)$ ” or “for every  $x P(x)$ .”

# Universal Quantifier: Example

$$P(x): |x| \leq x$$

**What is the truth value of  $\forall x P(x)$ ?**

- Assuming the **domain** to be all positive real numbers? **True**
- All real numbers? **False**

**The domain must always be specified!**



# Universal Quantifier: Questions

The **universal quantification** of  $P(x)$  is the statement

$P(x)$  for all values of  $x$  in the **domain**.

**Question 1:** Is  $\forall x P(x)$  a proposition?

Yes. Its truth value?

- True if  $P(x)$  is true for all  $x$  in the domain.
- False if there is an  $x$  in the domain such that  $P(x)$  is false.  
(**counterexample**)

**Question 2:** What is the truth value of  $\forall x P(x)$  when the domain is empty?

Proposition  $\forall x P(x)$  is **true** for every propositional function  $P(x)$ .

# Existential Quantifier

The **existential quantification** of  $P(x)$  is the proposition

“There **exists** an element  $x$  in the domain such that  $P(x)$ .”

We use the notation  $\exists x P(x)$  for the existential quantification of  $P(x)$ .

**Example:**  $P(x): x > 0$

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

- What if assuming the domain to be all real numbers? **True**
- What if all negative real numbers? **False**

**The domain must always be specified!**

# Existential Quantifier: Questions

The **existential quantification** of  $P(x)$  is the proposition

“There **exists** an element  $x$  in the domain such that  $P(x)$ .”

**Question 1:** Is  $\exists xP(x)$  a proposition?

Yes. Its truth value?

- True if there is an  $x$  in the domain such that  $P(x)$  is true. (**an example**)
- False if  $P(x)$  is false for all  $x$  in the domain.

**Question 2:** What is the truth value of  $\exists xP(x)$  when the domain is empty?

Proposition  $\exists xP(x)$  is **false** for every propositional function  $P(x)$ .

# Summary of Quantified Statements

Statement	When true?	When false?
$\forall x P(x)$	$P(x)$ true for all $x$	There is an $x$ where $P(x)$ is false.
$\exists x P(x)$	There is some $x$ for which $P(x)$ is true.	$P(x)$ is false for all $x$ .

Suppose that the elements in the domain can be enumerated as  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  then:

- $\forall x P(x)$  is true whenever  $P(x_1) \wedge P(x_2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(x_n)$  is true.
- $\exists x P(x)$  is true whenever  $P(x_1) \vee P(x_2) \vee \dots \vee P(x_n)$  is true.



# Properties of Quantifiers

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

**Example:**  $P(x): x < 2$

- domain: the positive integers

$\forall xP(x)$ : F,  $\exists xP(x)$ : T

- domain: the negative integers

$\forall xP(x)$ : T,  $\exists xP(x)$ : T

- domain:  $\{3, 4, 5\}$

$\forall xP(x)$ : F,  $\exists xP(x)$ : F

# Precedence of Proposition and Quantifiers

<i>Operator</i>	<i>Precedence</i>
$\neg$	1
$\wedge$ $\vee$	2 3
$\rightarrow$ $\leftrightarrow$	4 5

- $\neg p \wedge q$  means  $(\neg p) \wedge q$  rather than  $\neg(p \wedge q)$
- $p \wedge q \vee r$  means  $(p \wedge q) \vee r$  rather than  $p \wedge (q \vee r)$

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

- $\forall x P(x) \vee Q(x)$  means  $(\forall x P(x)) \vee Q(x)$  rather than  $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$

# Translation with Quantifiers

Every student in this class has studied algebra.

## Logic Expression 1:

- $A(x)$ : “ $x$  has studied algebra”.
- Domain: the students in the class
- $\forall x A(x)$

# Translation with Quantifiers

Every student in this class has studied algebra.

## Logic Expression 2:

- $A(x)$ : “ $x$  has studied algebra”.
- $C(x)$ : “ $x$  is in this class”
- Domain: all students
- $\forall x(C(x) \rightarrow A(x))$

Note: Implication  $p \rightarrow q$ .

# Translation with Quantifiers

Every student in this class has studied algebra.

## Logic Expression 2:

- $A(x)$ : “x has studied algebra”.
- $C(x)$ : “x is in this class”
- Domain: all students
- $\forall x(C(x) \rightarrow A(x))$

How about  $\forall x(C(x) \wedge A(x))$ ?

# Translation with Quantifiers

Every student in this class has studied algebra.

## Logic Expression 2:

- $A(x)$ : “ $x$  has studied algebra”.
- $C(x)$ : “ $x$  is in this class”
- Domain: all students
- $\forall x(C(x) \rightarrow A(x))$

How about  $\forall x(C(x) \wedge A(x))$ ? All students are in this class and has studied algebra.

# Translation with Quantifiers

Every student in this class has studied algebra.

## Logic Expression 3:

- $A(x)$ : “ $x$  has studied algebra”.
- $C(x)$ : “ $x$  is in this class”
- $S(x)$ : “ $x$  is a student”
- Domain: all people
- $\forall x(S(x) \wedge C(x) \rightarrow A(x))$

# Translation with Quantifiers

Some student in this class has visited Mexico.



# Translation with Quantifiers

Some student in this class has visited Mexico.

## Logic Expression 1:

- $M(x)$ : “ $x$  has visited Mexico”.
- Domain: the students in the class
- $\exists x M(x)$

# Translation with Quantifiers

Some student in this class has visited Mexico.

## Logic Expression 2:

- $M(x)$ : “ $x$  has visited Mexico”.
- $C(x)$ : “ $x$  is a student in this class.”
- Domain: all people
- $\exists x(C(x) \wedge M(x))$

How about  $\exists x(C(x) \rightarrow A(x))$ ? **No!** This is even true when there is some people not in the class.

# Negation of Quantifiers

Every student in this class has taken a course in calculus.

- $P(x)$ :  $x$  has taken a course in calculus
- Domain: All students in this class
- $\forall x P(x)$

**The negation of this statement:** It is not the case that every student in this class has taken a course in calculus.

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

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



# Negation of Quantifiers

There is a student in this class who has taken a course in calculus."

- $P(x)$ :  $x$  has taken a course in calculus
- Domain: All students in this class
- $\exists x P(x)$

**The negation of this statement:** It is not the case that there is a student in this class has taken a course in calculus.

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

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

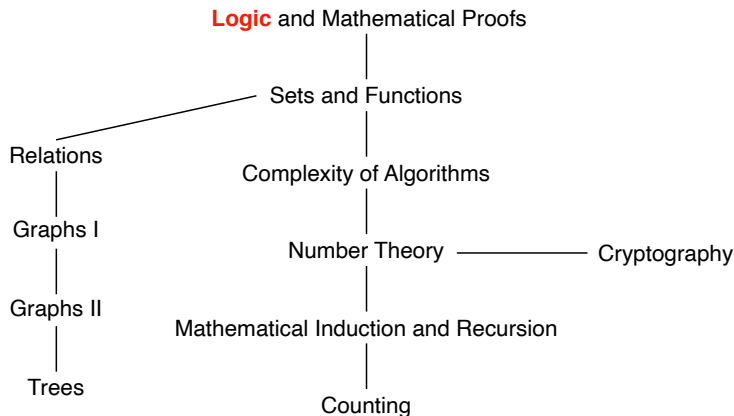
# Negation of Quantified Statements

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



**Logic:** Propositional logic, applications of propositional logic, propositional equivalence, predicates and quantifiers, nested quantifiers

**Mathematical Proofs:** Rules of inference, introduction to proofs,