01204211 Discrete Mathematics Lecture 2: Quantifiers

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July 10, 2019

This lecture covers:

- ▶ More connectives: implications and equivalences
- Quantifiers

Review (1)

- A proposition is a statement which is either **true** or **false**.
- ightharpoonup We can use variables to stand for propositions, e.g., P= "today is Tuesday".
- We can use connectives to combine variables to get propositional forms.
 - Conjunction: P ∧ Q ("P and Q"),
 - **Disjunction:** $P \lor Q$ ("P or Q"), and
 - ▶ **Negation:** $\neg P$ ("not P")

Review (2)

To represents values of propositional forms, we usually use truth tables.

And _/	Or/	Not						
P	\overline{Q}	$P \wedge Q$	$P \lor Q$	$\neg P$	7			
T	T	T	T	F				
$\mid T \mid$	F	F	T					
$\mid F \mid$	T	F	T	T				
$\mid F \mid$	F	F	F					

As we said before, the truth value of propositional forms may not depend on the values of its variables. As you can see in this exercise.

Use a truth table to find the values of (1) $P \land \neg P$ and (2) $P \lor \neg P$.

	$And_{/}$	Or/N	ot		
	P	$\neg P$	$P \wedge \neg P$	$P \vee \neg P$	
Ì	T	F	F	T	
	F	T	F	T	
,					

Note that $P \land \neg P$ is always false and $P \lor \neg P$ is always true. A propositional form which is always true regardless of the truth values of its variables is called a *tautology*. On the other hand, a propositional form which is always false regardless of the truth values of its variables is called a *contradiction*.

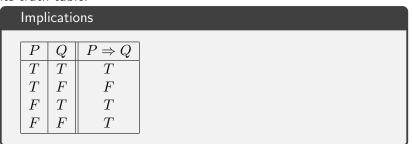
Implications¹

Given P and Q, an implication

$$P \Rightarrow Q$$

stands for "if P, then Q". This is a very important propositional form.

It states that "when ${\cal P}$ is true, ${\cal Q}$ must be true". Let's try to fill in its truth table:



¹Materials in this lecture are mostly from Berkeley CS70's lecture notes.

What?

- Yes, when P is false, $P \Rightarrow Q$ is always true no matter what truth value of Q is.
- We say that in this case, the statement $P \Rightarrow Q$ is vacuously true.
- ▶ You might feel a bit uncomfortable about this, because in most natural languages, when we say that if P, then Q we sometimes mean something more than that in the logical expression " $P \Rightarrow Q$."

One explanation

But let's look closely at what it means when we say that:

if P is true, Q must be true.

- Note that this statement does not say anything about the case when P is false, i.e., it only considers the case when P is true.
- ▶ Therefore, having that $P \Rightarrow Q$ is true is OK with the case that (1) Q is false when P is false, and (2) Q is true when P is false.
- ► This is an example when mathematical language is "stricter" than natural language.

Noticing if-then

We can write "if P, then Q" for $P \Rightarrow Q$, but there are other ways to say this. E.g., we can write (1) Q if P, (2) P only if Q, or (3) when P, then Q.

Quick check 2

For each of these statements, define propositional variables representing each proposition inside the statement and write the proposition form of the statement.

- If you do not have enough sleep, you will feel dizzy during class.
- ► If you eat a lot and you do not have enough exercise, you will get fat.
- You can get A from this course, only if you work fairly hard.

Only-if

Let P be "you get A from this course."

Let Q be "you work fairly hard."

Let R be "You can get A from this course, only if you work fairly hard."

Let's think about the truth values of R.

Only if you work fairly hard.

P	Q	R
T	T	
$\mid T \mid$	F	
F	$\mid T \mid$	
F	F	

Thus, R should be logically equivalent to $P \Rightarrow Q$. (We write $R \equiv P \Rightarrow Q$ in this case.)

If and only if: (\Leftrightarrow)

Given P and Q, we denote by

$$P \Leftrightarrow Q$$

the statement "P if and only if Q." It is logically equivalent to

$$(P \Leftarrow Q) \land (P \Rightarrow Q),$$

i.e., $P \Leftrightarrow Q \equiv (P \Leftarrow Q) \land (P \Rightarrow Q)$.

Let's fill in its truth table.

P	Q	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
T	T			
T	F			
F	$\left. egin{array}{c} T \\ F \\ T \end{array} \right $			
F	F			

An implication and its friends

When you have two propositions

- ightharpoonup P = "I own a cell phone", and
- ightharpoonup Q = "I bring a cell phone to class".

We have

- ▶ an implication $P \Rightarrow Q \equiv$ "If I own a cell phone, I'll bring it to class",
- ▶ its **converse** $Q \Rightarrow P \equiv$ "If I bring a cell phone to class, I own it", and
- its **contrapositive** $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P \equiv$ "If I do not bring a cell phone to class, I do not own one".

Let's consider the following truth table:

$\mid P \mid$	$\mid Q \mid$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$Q \Rightarrow P$	$\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$	
T	T				
T	$\mid F \mid$				
F	$\mid T \mid$				
F	$\mid F \mid$				

Do you notice any equivalence? Right, $P \Rightarrow Q \equiv \neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$.

How about our subgoal?

- In many cases, the statement we are interested in contains variables.
- \blacktriangleright For example, "x is even," "p is prime," or "s is a student."
- ► As we previously did with propositions, we can use variables to represent these statements. E.g.,
 - let $E(x) \equiv "x$ is even".
 - let $P(y) \equiv "y$ is prime, and
 - ▶ let $S(w) \equiv "w$ is a student.

We call E(x), P(y), and S(w) predicates. (You can think of predicates as statements that may be true of false depending on the values of its variables.)

Quantifiers (1)

- As we note before, these predicates are not propositions. But if we know the values of their variables, then they becomes propositions. For example, if we let x=5, then E(5) is a proposition which is false. Also, P(7) is true.
- Since the truth values of predicates depend on the assignments of their variables, we can put *quantifiers* to specify the scopes of these variables and how to interprete the truth values of the predicates over these values.

Quantifiers (2): universal quantifiers

- ightharpoonup Let $A = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}.$
- Note that E(2), E(4), E(6), and E(8) are true, i.e., E(x) is true for every $x \in A$. In this case, we say that the following proposition is true:

$$(\forall x \in A)E(x).$$

▶ The quantifier \forall is called a universal quantifier. (We usually pronounce "for all x", or "for every x.")

Quantifiers (3): existential quantifiers

- Again, let $A = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$.
- Note that P(2) is true. This means that P(y) is true for some $y \in A$. In this case, we say that the following proposition is true:

$$(\exists y \in A)P(y).$$

▶ The quantifier \exists is called an existential quantifier. (We usually pronounce "for some x", or "there exists x.")

When the universe A is clear, we can leave it out and just write $\forall x E(x)$ or $\exists y P(y)$.

The main goal

Let's try to be more specific about our main goal:

Algorithm CheckPrime2 is correct.

- ► Can we re-write this statement so that the input/output of the algorithm are explicit?
- Note that the set of its input n is an integer. Thus, we are interested in every $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, where \mathbb{Z} denote the set of all integers.
- Let's rewrite the goal as:

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, \ C(n) \Leftrightarrow P(n),$$

where $C(n) \equiv$ "CheckPrime2(n) returns True", and $P(n) \equiv$ "n is a prime."

Quantified propositions with more than one variables

Let our universe be integers (\mathbb{Z}). Which of the following statements is true?

- $\blacktriangleright \forall x \forall y (x = y)$
- $\triangleright \ \forall x \exists y (x = y)$
- $ightharpoonup \exists x \forall y (x = y)$
- $\exists x \exists y (x = y)$

When you have many quantifiers, we can interprete the statement by nesting the quantifiers. E.g,

$$\exists x \forall y P(x,y) \equiv \exists x (\forall y (P(x,y))).$$

$$\forall y \exists x P(x, y) \equiv \forall y (\exists x (P(x, y))).$$

Also note that usually, $\exists x \forall y P(x,y) \not\equiv \forall y \exists x P(x,y)$.

We will consider the universe to be "everything". Consider the following statements. Define appropriate predicates and rewrite them using the defined predicates and quantifiers. (Note: the predicates may have more than one variables.)

- Every human must die.
- Some animal eats other animals.
- If a student works hard, that student will be successful.
- Everyone has someone that care about him or her.

Let's consider the current subgoal. (Note that in this version, variable b is replaced with n/a.)

Another revised statement

For all positive composite integer n, and for every divisor a of n such that $\sqrt{n} < a < n,$

$$2 \le n/a \le \sqrt{n}$$
.

Define all required predicates and describe a quantified proposition equivalent to the revised statement above.

Negations of quantified propositions (1)

Let consider a set of positive integers \mathbb{Z}^+ as our universe. Let predicate $P(x)\equiv$ "x is a prime number." Consider this proposition

$$(\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}^+)P(x).$$

How can we show that this is false?

When showing that a universally quantified proposition is false, we need to show "one" counter example. In this case, since P(4) is false, $\forall x P(x)$ is false.

This way of disproving a statement is equivalent to showing that

$$(\exists x)(\neg P(x)).$$

Negations of quantified propositions (2)

Let consider a set of positive integers \mathbb{Z}^+ as our universe. Let predicate $Q(x)\equiv$ "if x>2, then $x^2\leq 2x$." Consider this proposition

$$(\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}^+)Q(x).$$

How can we show that this is false?

When showing that an existential quantified proposition is false, we need to show that Q(x) is false for every possible values of x. In this case, since $x^2 = x \cdot x > 2 \cdot x$ for every x > 2, we have that $(\exists x)Q(x)$ is false.

This way of disproving a statement is equivalent to showing that

$$(\forall x)(\neg Q(x)).$$

Negations of quantified propositions (3)

Thus, the following equivalences:

Consider the following statements with the quantified propositions that you have written previously. Write down their negations in quantified propositional forms, and then translate them back to English sentences.

- Every human must die.
- Some animal eats other animals.
- If a student works hard, that student will be successful.
- Everyone has someone that care about him or her.