Mathematical Logic Part Three

Recap from Last Time

What is First-Order Logic?

- *First-order logic* is a logical system for reasoning about properties of objects.
- Augments the logical connectives from propositional logic with
 - *predicates* that describe properties of objects,
 - *functions* that map objects to one another, and
 - *quantifiers* that allow us to reason about many objects at once.

Some muggle is intelligent.

 $\exists m. (Muggle(m) \land Intelligent(m))$

is the existential quantifier and says 'for some choice of m, the following is true."

"For any natural number n, n is even if and only if n^2 is even"

 $\forall n$. $(n \in \mathbb{N} \to (Even(n) \leftrightarrow Even(n^2)))$

 \forall is the universal quantifier and says "for any choice of n, the following is true."

"All A's are B's"

translates as

$$\forall x. (A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$$

Useful Intuition:

Universally-quantified statements are true unless there's a counterexample.

$$\forall x. (A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$$

If x is a counterexample, it must have property A but not have property B.

"Some A is a B"

translates as

Useful Intuition:

Existentially-quantified statements are false unless there's a positive example.

$$\exists x. (A(x) \land B(x))$$

If x is an example, it must have property A on top of property B.

The Aristotelian Forms

"All As are Bs"

"Some As are Bs"

$$\forall x. (A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$$

 $\exists x. (A(x) \land B(x))$

"No As are Bs"

"Some As aren't Bs"

$$\forall x. (A(x) \rightarrow \neg B(x))$$

 $\exists x. (A(x) \land \neg B(x))$

It is worth committing these patterns to memory. We'll be using them throughout the day and they form the backbone of many first-order logic translations.

The Art of Translation

Using the predicates

- Person(p), which states that p is a person, and
- Loves(x, y), which states that x loves y,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "every person loves someone else."

Every person loves someone else

Every person loves some other person

Every person p loves some other person

Every person p loves some other person

"All As are Bs"

 $\forall x. (A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$

```
\forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow p loves some other person
```

)

"All As are Bs"

 $\forall x. (A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$

```
\forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow p loves some other person
```

```
\forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow there is some other person that p loves
```

```
\forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow there is a person other than p that p loves
```

```
∀p. (Person(p) →
  there is a person q, other than p, where
  p loves q
```

```
∀p. (Person(p) →
there is a person q, other than p, where
p loves q
```

)

"Some As are Bs"

"Some As are Bs"

```
\forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow \exists q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \land p loves q)
```

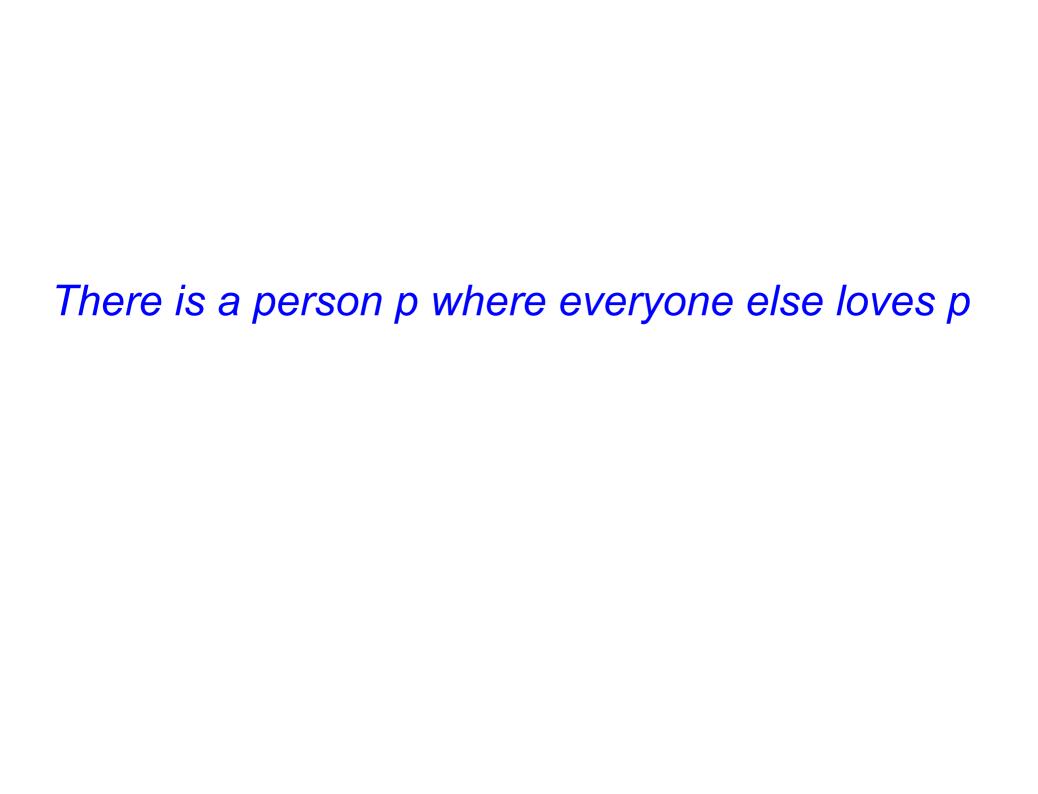
```
\forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow \exists q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \land Loves(p, q))
```

Using the predicates

- Person(p), which states that p is a person, and
- Loves(x, y), which states that x loves y,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "there is a person that everyone else loves."





There is a person p where everyone else loves p

"Some As are Bs"

 $\exists p. (Person(p) \land everyone else loves p)$

)

"Some As are Bs"

```
∃p. (Person(p) ∧ everyone else loves p
```

```
\exists p. (Person(p) \land every other person q loves p)
```

```
\exists p. (Person(p) \land every person q, other than p, loves p)
```

)

 $\exists p. (Person(p) \land every person q, other than p, loves p)$

)

"All As are Bs"

 $\forall x. \ (A(x) \to B(x))$

```
\exists p. (Person(p) \land \forall q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \rightarrow q loves p)
```

"All As are Bs"

 $\forall x. (A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$

```
\exists p. (Person(p) \land \forall q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \rightarrow q loves p)
)
```

```
\exists p. (Person(p) \land \forall q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \rightarrow Loves(q, p))
```

Combining Quantifiers

- Most interesting statements in first-order logic require a combination of quantifiers.
- Example: "Every person loves someone else"

```
For every person... \forall p.~(Person(p) \rightarrow
... there is another person \exists q.~(Person(q) \land p \neq q \land
... they love Loves(p,q)
```

Combining Quantifiers

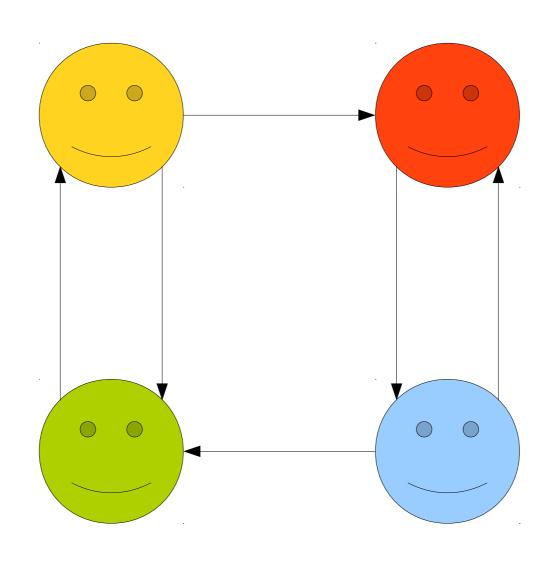
- Most interesting statements in first-order logic require a combination of quantifiers.
- Example: "There is someone everyone else loves."

```
There is a person... \exists p. \ (Person(p) \land \\ \forall q. \ (Person(q) \land p \neq q \rightarrow \\ \\ \text{... loves.} \qquad Loves(q, p) \\ \end{pmatrix}
```

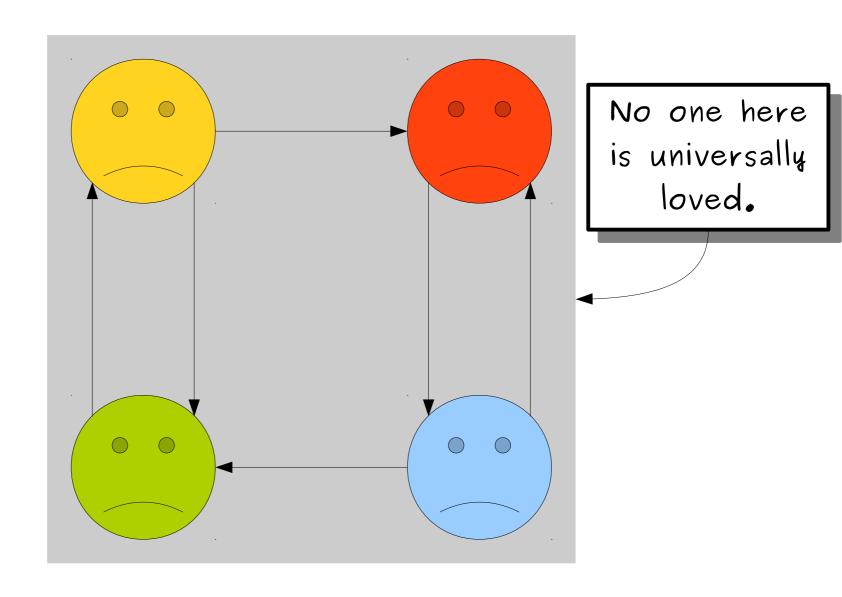
For Comparison

```
For every person... \forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow
... there is another person \exists q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \land
                                    Loves(p, q)
       ... they love
  There is a person...
                             \exists p. (Person(p) \land
                                \forall q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \rightarrow
... that everyone else ...
                                    Loves(q, p)
       ... loves.
```

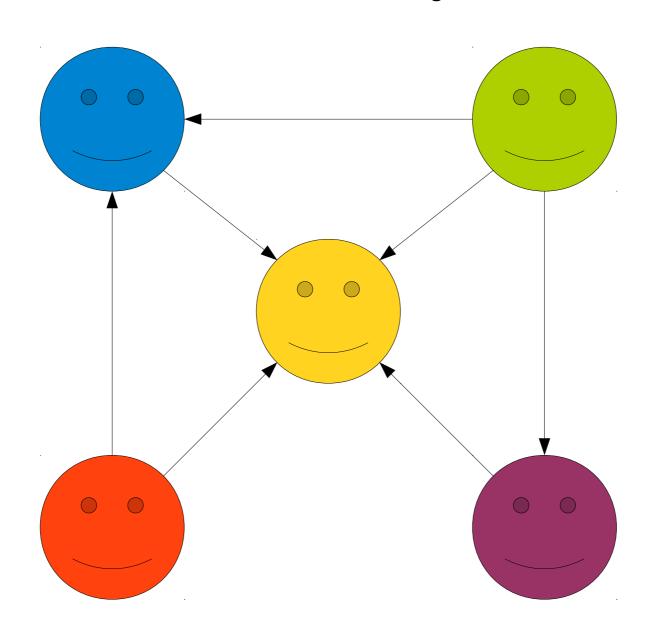
Every Person Loves Someone Else



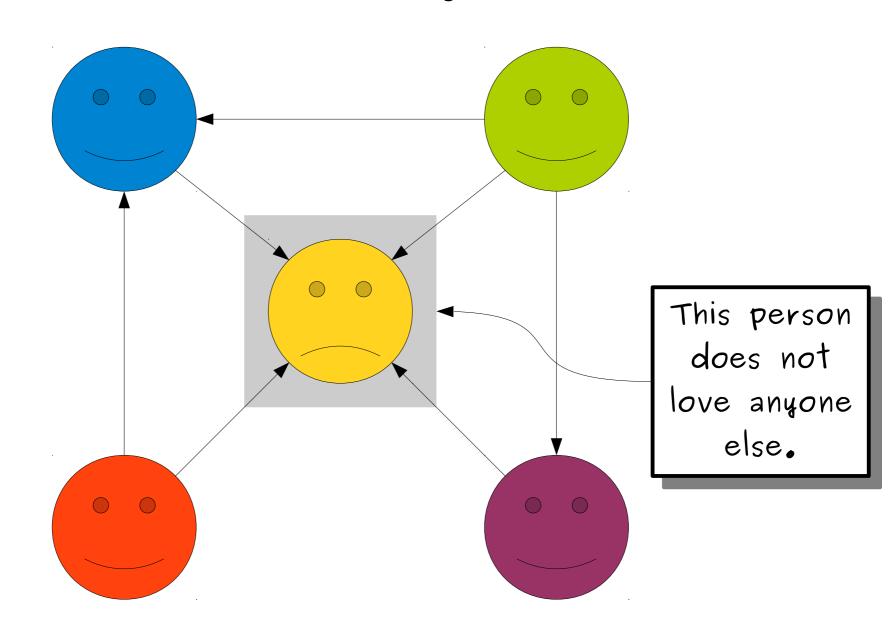
Every Person Loves Someone Else



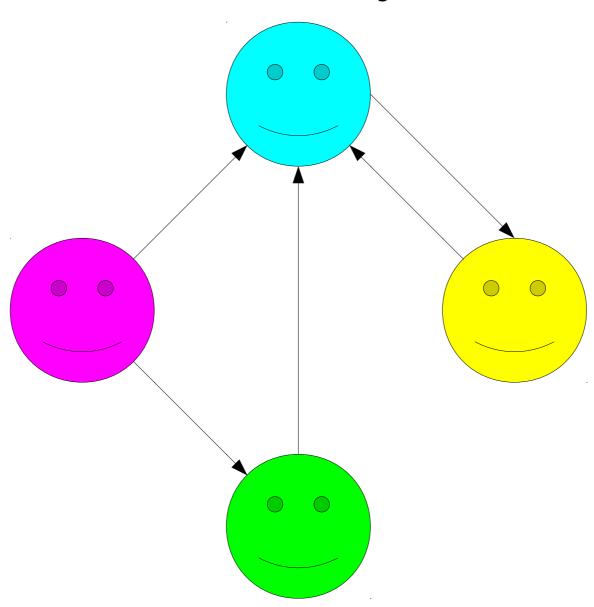
There is Someone Everyone Else Loves



There is Someone Everyone Else Loves



Every Person Loves Someone Else *and* There is Someone Everyone Else Loves



```
For every person... \forall p. (Person(p) \rightarrow
... there is another person \exists q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \land
                                     Loves(p, q)
       ... they love
           and
                             \exists p. (Person(p) \land
  There is a person...
                                 \forall q. (Person(q) \land p \neq q \rightarrow
... that everyone else ...
                                    Loves(q, p)
       ... loves.
```

Quantifier Ordering

The statement

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

means "for any choice of x, there's some choice of y where P(x, y) is true."

• The choice of *y* can be different every time and can depend on *x*.

Quantifier Ordering

The statement

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

means "there is some x where for any choice of y, we get that P(x, y) is true."

• Since the inner part has to work for any choice of *y*, this places a lot of constraints on what *x* can be.

Order matters when mixing existential and universal quantifiers!

Time-Out for Announcements!

Problem Set Two

- Problem Set One was due today at 3:00PM.
 - Want to use late days? Turn it in by Sunday at 3:00PM.
- Problem Set Two goes out today.
 - There is no checkpoint assignment.
 - All problems are due next Friday at 3:00PM.
- We have some reading recommendations for this problem set.
 - Check out the *Guide to Logic Translations* for more on how to convert from English to FOL.
 - Check out the *Guide to Negations* for information about how to negate formulas.
 - Check out the *First-Order Translation Checklist* for details on how to check your work.

Back to CS103!

Set Translations

Using the predicates

- Set(S), which states that S is a set, and
- $-x \in y$, which states that x is an element of y,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "the empty set exists."

Using the predicates

- Set(S), which states that S is a set, and
- $-x \in y$, which states that x is an element of y,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "the empty set exists."

First-order logic doesn't have set operators or symbols "built in." If we only have the predicates given above, how might we describe this?

The empty set exists.

There is some set S that is empty.

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land S is empty.)
```

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land there are no elements in S)
```

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg there is an element in S)
```

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg there is an element x in S)
```

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg \exists x. \ x \in S)
```

 $\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg \exists x. x \in S)$

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg \exists x. x \in S)
\exists S. (Set(S) \land there are no elements in S)
```

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg \exists x. x \in S)
\exists S. (Set(S) \land every object does not belong to S)
```

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg \exists x. x \in S)
\exists S. (Set(S) \land every object x does not belong to S)
```

```
\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg \exists x. x \in S)
\exists S. (Set(S) \land \forall x. x \notin S)
```

 $\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg \exists x. x \in S)$

 $\exists S. (Set(S) \land \forall x. x \notin S)$

 $\exists S. (Set(S) \land \neg \exists x. x \in S)$

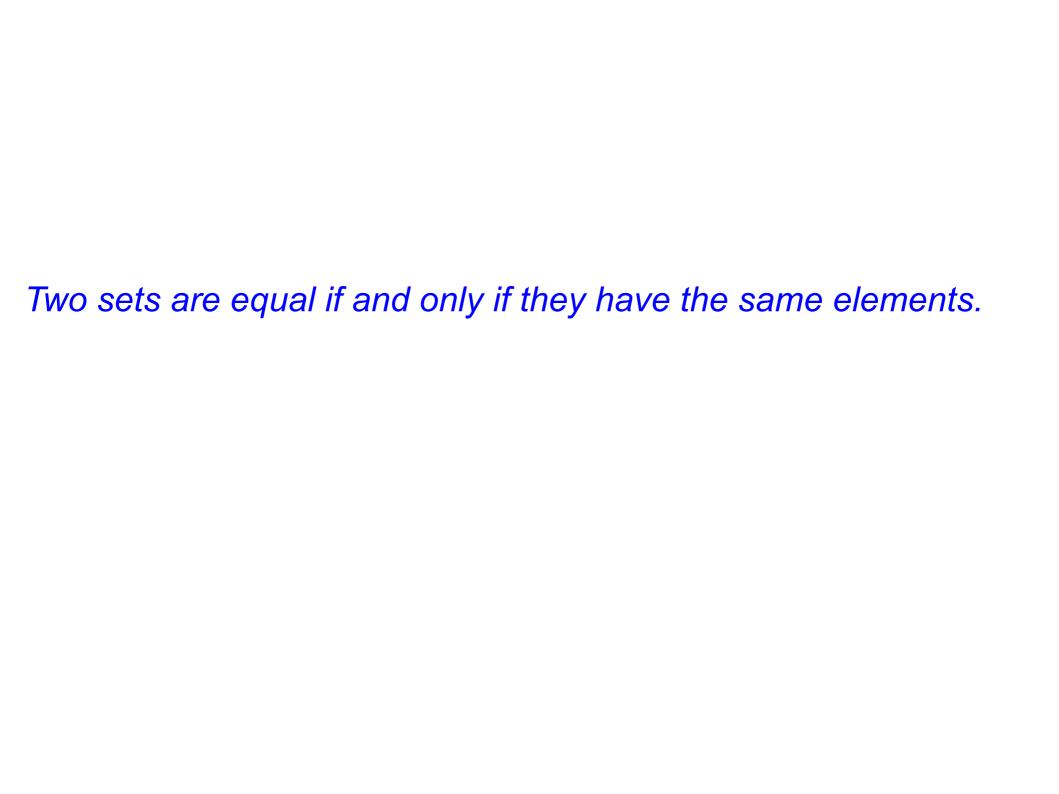
 $\exists S. (Set(S) \land \forall x. x \notin S)$

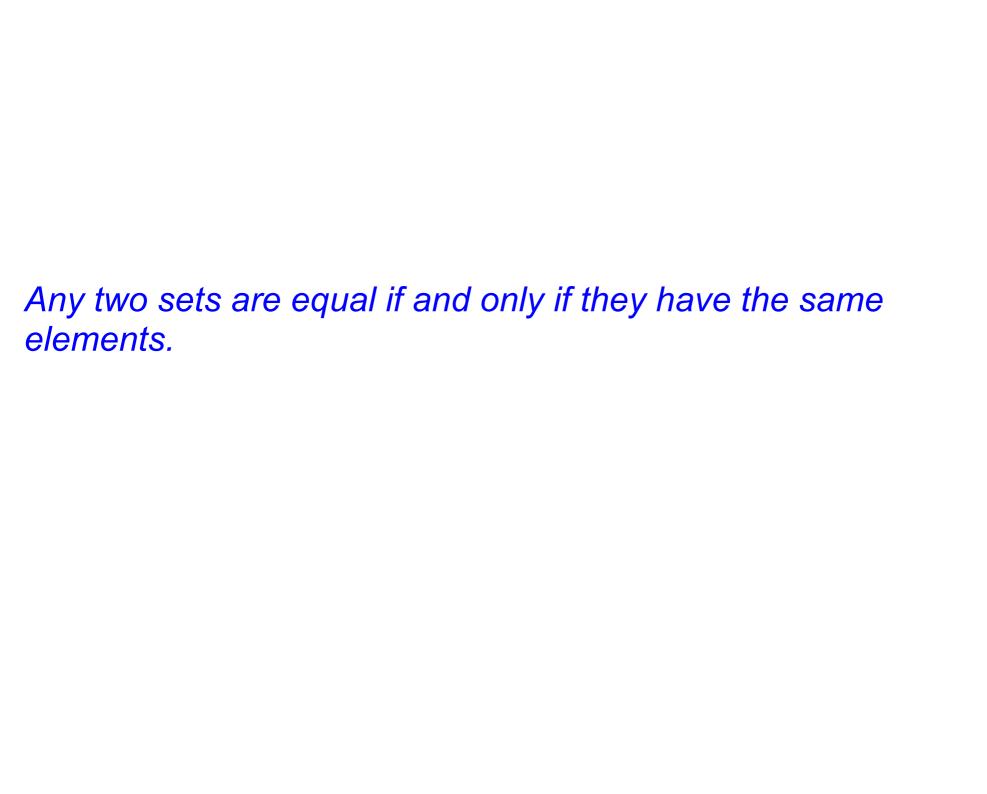
Both of these translations are correct. Just like in propositional logic, there are many different equivalent ways of expressing the same statement in first-order logic.

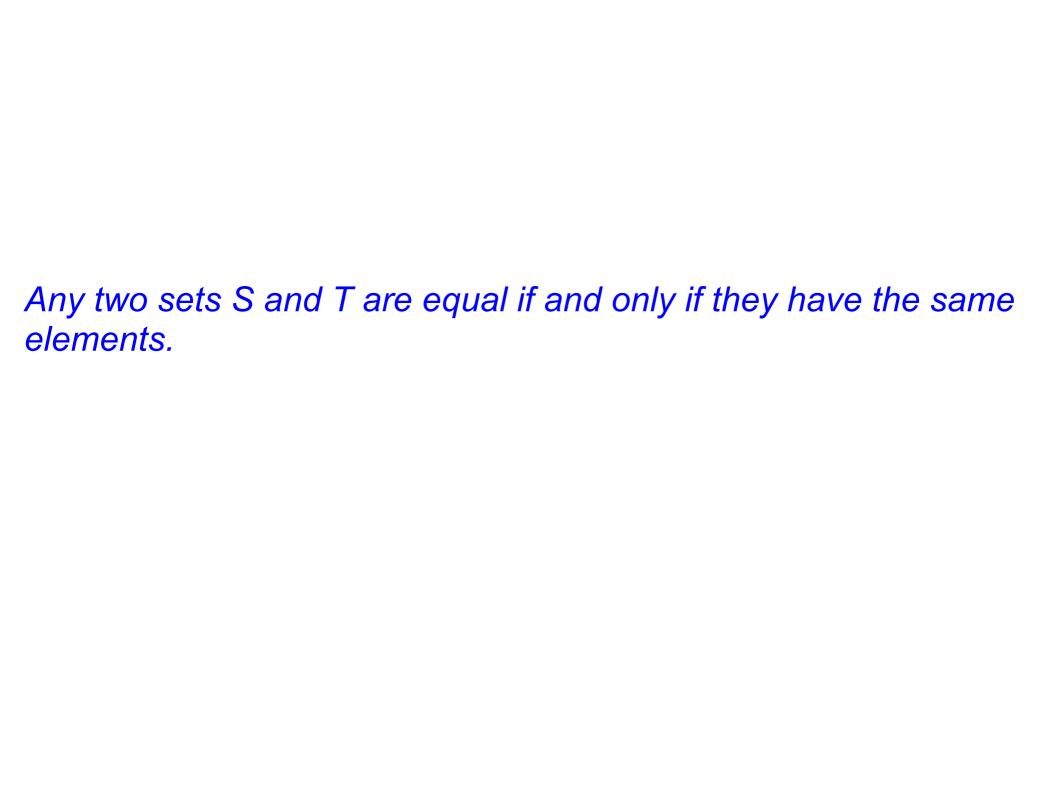
Using the predicates

- Set(S), which states that S is a set, and
- $-x \in y$, which states that x is an element of y,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "two sets are equal if and only if they contain the same elements."







```
\forall S. \ (Set(S) \rightarrow \\ \forall T. \ (Set(T) \rightarrow \\ S \ and \ T \ are \ equal \ if \ and \ only \ if \ they \ have \ the \ same \ elements.
```

```
\forall S. \ (Set(S) \rightarrow \\ \forall T. \ (Set(T) \rightarrow \\ (S = T \ \textit{if and only if they have the same elements.})
```

```
\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \forall T. (Set(T) \rightarrow (S = T \leftrightarrow they have the same elements.)
```

```
\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \forall T. (Set(T) \rightarrow (S = T \leftrightarrow S \text{ and } T \text{ have the same elements.})
```

```
\forall S. \ (Set(S) \rightarrow \\ \forall T. \ (Set(T) \rightarrow \\ (S = T \leftrightarrow every \ element \ of \ S \ is \ an \ element \ of \ T \ and \ vice-versa)
)
```

```
\forall S. \ (Set(S) \rightarrow \\ \forall T. \ (Set(T) \rightarrow \\ (S = T \leftrightarrow x \text{ is an element of S if and only if x is an element of T})
)
```

```
\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \forall T. (Set(T) \rightarrow (S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)))
```

```
\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \forall T. (Set(T) \rightarrow (S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)))
```

```
\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \forall T. (Set(T) \rightarrow (S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)))
```

You sometimes see the universal quantifier pair with the ↔ connective. This is especially common when talking about sets because two sets are equal when they have precisely the same elements.

```
\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \forall T. (Set(T) \rightarrow (S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)))
```

Restricted Quantifiers

Quantifying Over Sets

The notation

$$\forall x \in S. P(x)$$

means "for any element x of set S, P(x) holds." (It's vacuously true if S is empty.)

The notation

$$\exists x \in S. P(x)$$

means "there is an element x of set S where P(x) holds." (It's false if S is empty.)

Quantifying Over Sets

The syntax

$$\forall x \in S. P(x)$$
$$\exists x \in S. P(x)$$

is allowed for quantifying over sets.

- In CS103, feel free to use these restricted quantifiers, but please do not use variants of this syntax.
- For example, don't do things like this:

$$\triangle$$
 $\forall x \text{ with } P(x). \ Q(x)$ \triangle \triangle $\forall y \text{ such that } P(y) \land Q(y). \ R(y). \triangle \triangle $\exists P(x). \ Q(x)$$

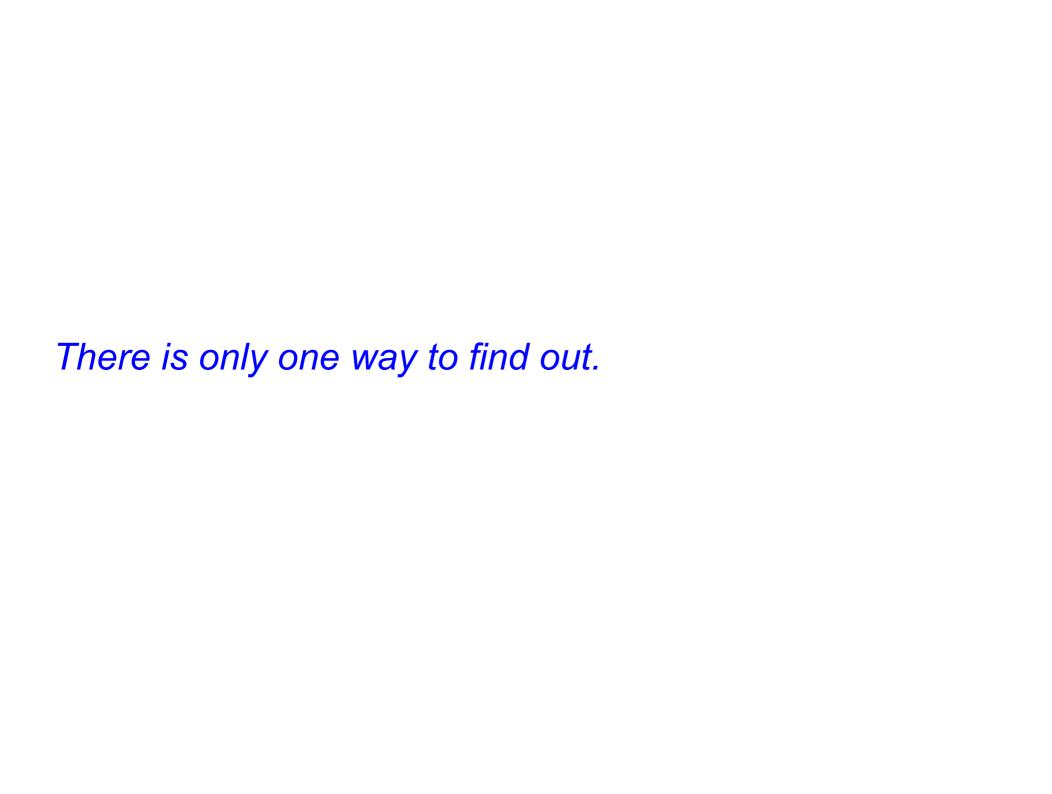
Let's take a five minute break!

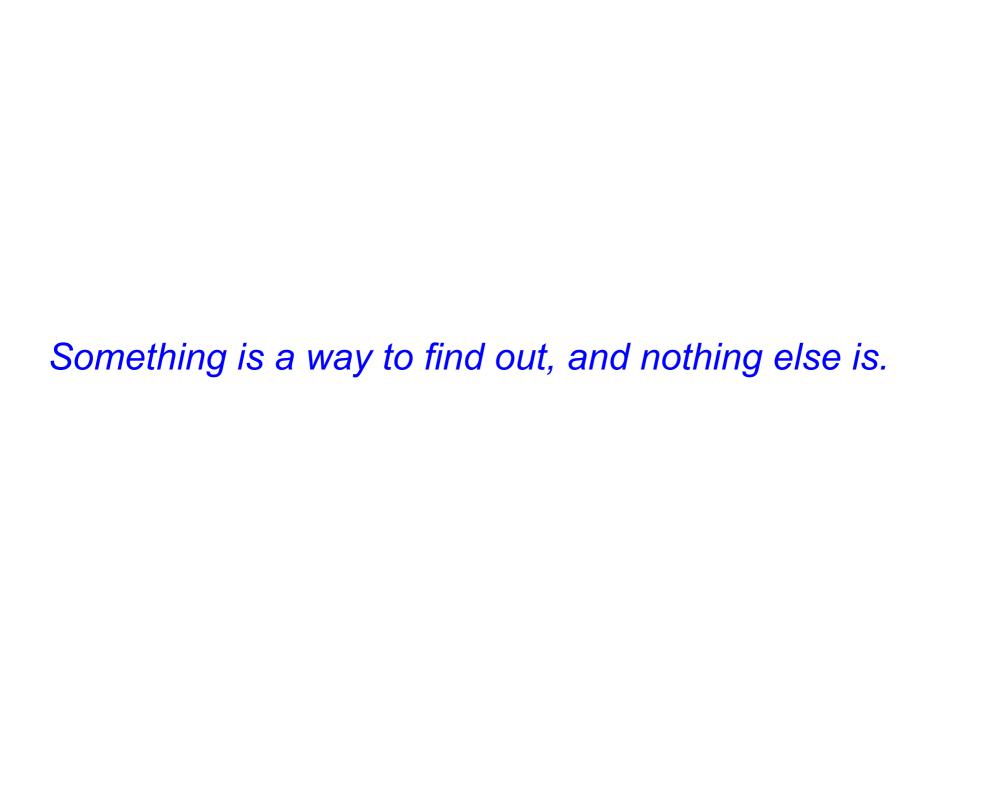
Expressing Uniqueness

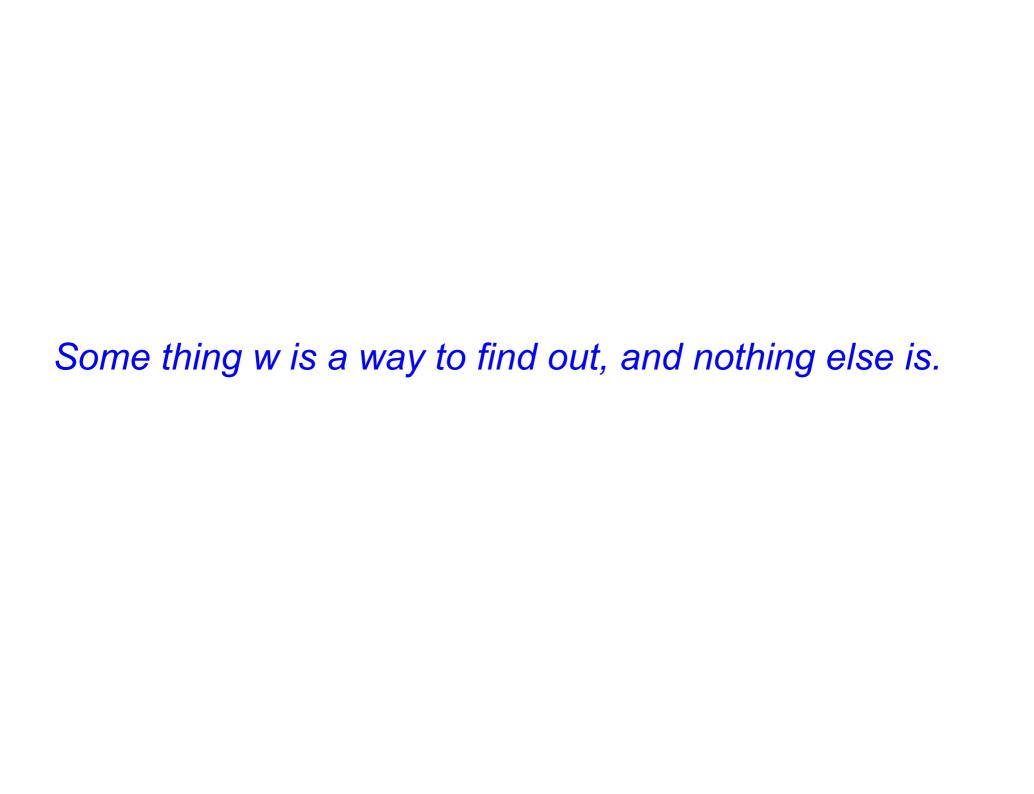
Using the predicate

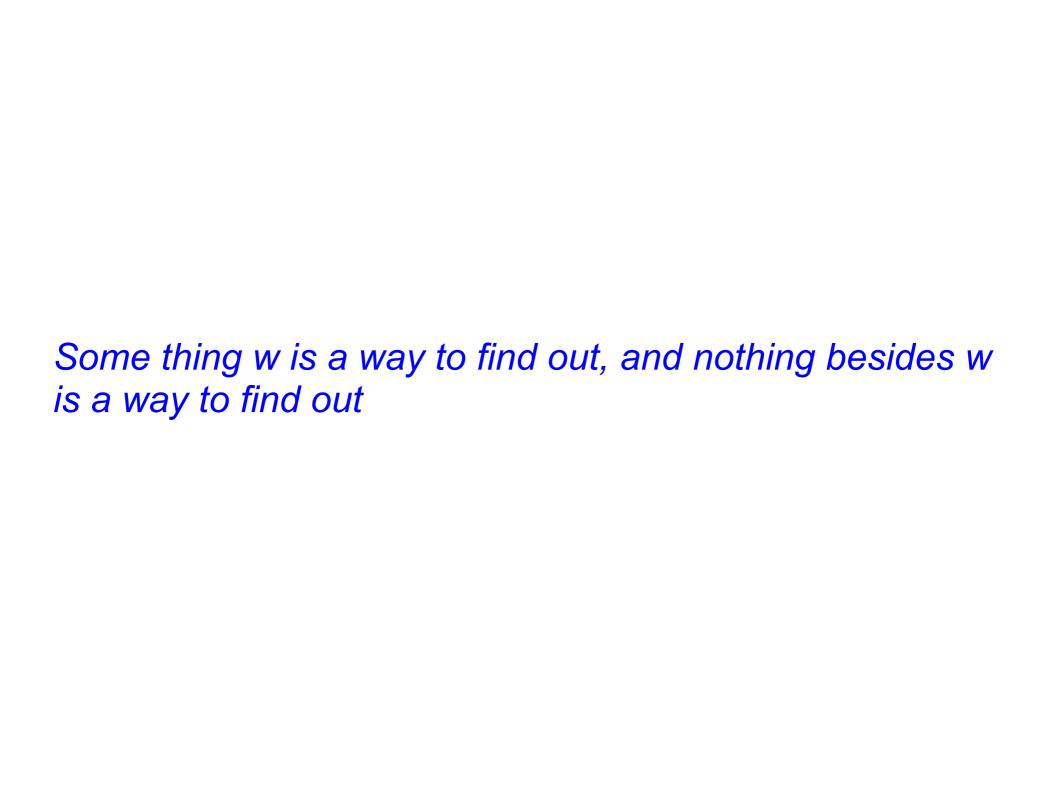
- WayToFindOut(w), which states that w is a way to find out,

write a sentence in first-order logic that means "there is only one way to find out."









```
∃w. (WayToFindOut(w) ∧ nothing besides w is way to find out )
```

```
∃w. (WayToFindOut(w) ∧ anything that isn't w isn't a way to find out )
```

```
∃w. (WayToFindOut(w) ∧ any thing x that isn't w isn't a way to find out )
```

```
\exists w. (WayToFindOut(w) \land \forall x. (x \neq w \rightarrow x isn't a way to find out)
```

```
∃w. (WayToFindOut(w) ∧ \forall x. (x \neq w \rightarrow \neg WayToFindOut(x)))
```

```
\exists w. (WayToFindOut(w) \land \forall x. (x \neq w \rightarrow \neg WayToFindOut(x))
```

```
\exists w. (WayToFindOut(w) \land \forall x. (WayToFindOut(x) \rightarrow x = w)
```

Expressing Uniqueness

- To express the idea that there is exactly one object with some property, we write that
 - there exists at least one object with that property, and that
 - there are no other objects with that property.
- You sometimes see a special "uniqueness quantifier" used to express this:

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

• For the purposes of CS103, please do not use this quantifier. We want to give you more practice using the regular ∀ and ∃ quantifiers.

Mechanics: Negating Statements

$\forall x$.	P	
V / .	1	

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

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

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

When	is	this	true?	When	is	this	fal	SA?
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For any choice of x , $P(x)$	For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

$\forall x$.		(\cdot, \cdot)
∇X	P	X
V / L •		

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

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

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

When is this true? When is this false?

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

$\forall x$.	D	(χ)
VX.		X

 $\exists x. P(x)$

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

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

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

$\forall x$.		(χ)
∇X	P	X

 $\exists x. P(x)$

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

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

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

When is this true? When is this false?

\ /		
$\forall x$.	P	
V / .	_	

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

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

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

	For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
F	For some choice of x , $P(x)$	For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$
F	For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
F	For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

$\forall x$	(x)
$A \sim$	
V A .	

 $\exists x. P(x)$

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

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

When is this true? When is this false?

F	For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \ \neg P(x)$
F	or some choice of x , $P(x)$	$\forall x. \neg P(x)$
F	or any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
F	or some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

$\forall x$.		(χ)
∇X	P	X
V /		

 $\exists x. P(x)$

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

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

For any choice of $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of $P(x)$	of x , $\forall x$. $\neg P(x)$
For any choice of $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
For some choice of $\neg P(x)$	of x , For any choice of x , $P(x)$

$\forall x$.		(x)
$A \sim$	P	
V /		

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

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

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

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	$\forall x. \ \neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For some choice of x , $P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

$\forall x$	(x)
$A \sim$	
V A .	

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

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

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

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	$\forall x. \neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	$\exists x. P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

$\forall x. P(x)$			4
$\nabla \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{P} \mathbf{I} \mathbf{Y}$	$\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{x}}$	T	
	∇X	P	X

 $\exists x. P(x)$

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

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

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	$\forall x. \neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	$\exists x. P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

When is this true? When is this false?

\ /		
$\forall x$.	U	
VX		
		(' - /

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

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

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

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	$\forall x. \neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	$\exists x. P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	For any choice of x , $P(x)$

When is this true? When is this false?

\ /	
$\forall x$.	V
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$$\exists x. P(x)$$

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

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

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	$\forall x. \neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	$\exists x. P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	$\forall x. P(x)$

$\forall x$.	D	(\mathbf{v})
VX.		(X)

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

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

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

For any choice of x , $P(x)$	$\exists x. \neg P(x)$
For some choice of x , $P(x)$	$\forall x. \neg P(x)$
For any choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	$\exists x. P(x)$
For some choice of x , $\neg P(x)$	$\forall x. P(x)$

Negating First-Order Statements

Use the equivalences

$$\neg \forall x. A \equiv \exists x. \neg A$$
$$\neg \exists x. A \equiv \forall x. \neg A$$

to negate quantifiers.

- Mechanically:
 - Push the negation across the quantifier.
 - Change the quantifier from \forall to \exists or vice-versa.
- Use techniques from propositional logic to negate connectives.

Taking a Negation

```
\forall x. \exists y. Loves(x, y) ("Everyone loves someone.")
```

```
\neg \forall x. \exists y. Loves(x, y)
\exists x. \neg \exists y. Loves(x, y)
\exists x. \forall y. \neg Loves(x, y)
```

("There's someone who doesn't love anyone.")

Two Useful Equivalences

• The following equivalences are useful when negating statements in first-order logic:

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

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

- These identities are useful when negating statements involving quantifiers.
 - A is used in existentially-quantified statements.
 - \rightarrow is used in universally-quantified statements.
- When pushing negations across quantifiers, we strongly recommend using the above equivalences to keep \rightarrow with \forall and \land with \exists .

Negating Quantifiers

• What is the negation of the following statement, which says "there is a cute puppy"?

$$\exists x. (Puppy(x) \land Cute(x))$$

• We can obtain it as follows:

```
\neg \exists x. (Puppy(x) \land Cute(x))
\forall x. \neg (Puppy(x) \land Cute(x))
\forall x. (Puppy(x) \rightarrow \neg Cute(x))
```

- This says "no puppy is cute."
- Do you see why this is the negation of the original statement from both an intuitive and formal perspective?

 $\exists S. (Set(S) \land \forall x. \neg (x \in S))$ ("There is a set with no elements.")

$$\neg \exists S. (Set(S) \land \forall x. \neg (x \in S))$$

 $\forall S. \neg (Set(S) \land \forall x. \neg (x \in S))$
 $\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \neg \forall x. \neg (x \in S))$
 $\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \exists x. \neg \neg (x \in S))$
 $\forall S. (Set(S) \rightarrow \exists x. x \in S)$

("Every set contains at least one element.")

These two statements are *not* negations of one another. Can you explain why?

 $\exists S. (Set(S) \land \forall x. \neg (x \in S))$ ("There is a set that doesn't contain anything")

 $\forall S. (Set(S) \land \exists x. (x \in S))$ ("Everything is a set that contains something")

Remember: \forall usually goes with \rightarrow , not \land

Next Time

Binary Relations

How do we model connections between objects?

Equivalence Relations

 How do we model the idea that objects can be grouped into clusters?

First-Order Definitions

Where does first-order logic come into all of this?

Proofs with Definitions

How does first-order logic interact with proofs?