## CS 441 Discrete Mathematics for CS

## Lecture 4

## Predicate logic

## Milos Hauskrecht

milos@cs.pitt.edu
5329 Sennott Square

## Announcements

- Homework assignment 1 due today
- Homework assignment 2:
- posted on the course web page
- Due on Thursday January 23, 2013
- Recitations today and tomorrow:
- Practice problems related to assignment 2


## Propositional logic: limitations

Propositional logic: the world is described in terms of elementary propositions and their logical combinations
Elementary statements/propositions:

- Typically refer to objects, their properties and relations. But these are not explicitly represented in the propositional logic
- Example:
- "John is a UPitt student."

- Objects and properties are hidden in the statement, it is not possible to reason about them


## Propositional logic: limitations

(1) Statements that hold for many objects must be enumerated

- Example:
- John is a CS UPitt graduate $\rightarrow$ John has passed cs441
- Ann is a CS Upitt graduate $\rightarrow$ Ann has passed cs441
- Ken is a CS Upitt graduate $\rightarrow$ Ken has passed cs441
- ...
- Solution: make statements with variables
-x is a CS UPitt graduate $\rightarrow \mathrm{x}$ has passed cs441


## Propositional logic: limitations

(2) Statements that define the property of the group of objects

- Example:
- All new cars must be registered.
- Some of the CS graduates graduate with honor.
- Solution: make statements with quantifiers
- Universal quantifier -the property is satisfied by all members of the group
- Existential quantifier - at least one member of the group satisfy the property


## Predicate logic

## Remedies the limitations of the propositional logic

- Explicitly models objects and their properties
- Allows to make statements with variables and quantify them

Predicate logic:

- Constant -models a specific object

Examples: "John", "France", "7"

- Variable - represents object of specific type (defined by the universe of discourse)
Examples: x, y
(universe of discourse can be people, students, numbers)
- Predicate - over one, two or many variables or constants.
- Represents properties or relations among objects

Examples: Red(car23), student(x), married(John,Ann)

## Predicates

Predicates represent properties or relations among objects

- A predicate $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})$ assigns a value true or false to each x depending on whether the property holds or not for x .
- The assignment is best viewed as a big table with the variable $x$ substituted for objects from the universe of discourse


## Example:

- Assume Student(x) where the universe of discourse are people
- Student(John) .... T (if John is a student)
- Student(Ann) .... T (if Ann is a student)
- Student(Jane) ..... F (if Jane is not a student)
- ...


## Predicates

Assume a predicate $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x})$ that represents the statement:

- $x$ is a prime number

Truth values for different x :

- $\mathrm{P}(2) \mathrm{T}$
- $\mathrm{P}(3) \mathrm{T}$
- P(4) F
- $\mathrm{P}(5) \mathrm{T}$
- $\mathrm{P}(6) \mathrm{F}$

All statements $\mathbf{P}(2), \mathbf{P}(3), \mathbf{P}(4), \mathbf{P}(5), \mathbf{P}(6)$ are propositions
...
But $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})$ with variable x is not a proposition

## Quantified statements

## Predicate logic lets us to make statements about groups of objects

- To do this we use special quantified expressions

Two types of quantified statements:

- universal

Example: ‘ all CS Upitt graduates have to pass cs441"

- the statement is true for all graduates
- existential

Example: ‘Some CS Upitt students graduate with honor.'

- the statement is true for some people


## Universal quantifier

Quantification converts a propositional function into a proposition by binding a variable to a set of values from the universe of discourse.

## Example:

- Let $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})$ denote $\mathrm{x}>\mathrm{x}-1$. Assume x are real numbers.
- Is $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})$ a proposition? No. Many possible substitutions.
- Is $\forall \mathrm{xP}(\mathrm{x})$ a proposition? Yes.
- What is the truth value for $\forall \mathrm{xP}(\mathrm{x})$ ?
- True, since $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})$ holds for all x .


## Existential quantifier

Quantification converts a propositional function into a
proposition by binding a variable to a set of values from the universe of discourse.

## Example:

- Let $T(x)$ denote $x>5$ and $x$ is from Real numbers.
- Is T(x) a proposition? No.
- Is $\exists \mathrm{x} \mathrm{T}(\mathrm{x})$ a proposition? Yes.
- What is the truth value for $\exists \mathrm{x} T(\mathrm{x})$ ?
- Since 10 > 5 is true. Therefore, $\exists \mathrm{x} \mathrm{T}(\mathrm{x})$ is true.


## Summary of quantified statements

- When $\forall \mathbf{x} \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x})$ and $\exists \mathbf{x} \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{x})$ are true and false?

| Statement | When true? | When false? |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
| $\forall x P(x)$ | $P(x)$ true for all $x$ | There is an $x$ <br> where $P(x)$ is false. |
| $\exists x P(x)$ | There is some $x$ for <br> which $P(x)$ is true. | $P(x)$ is false for all <br> $x$. |

Suppose the elements in the universe of discourse can be enumerated as $\mathrm{x} 1, \mathrm{x} 2, \ldots, \mathrm{xN}$ then:

- $\forall x P(x)$ is true whenever $P(x 1) \wedge P(x 2) \wedge \ldots \wedge P(x N)$ is true
- $\exists x P(x)$ is true whenever $P(x 1) \vee P(x 2) \vee \ldots \vee P(x N)$ is true.


## Translation with quantifiers

## Sentence:

- All Upitt students are smart.
- Assume: the domain of discourse of $x$ are Upitt students
- Translation:
- $\forall x \operatorname{Smart}(\mathrm{x})$
- Assume: the universe of discourse are students (all students):
- $\forall \mathrm{x}$ at( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{Upitt)} \rightarrow \operatorname{Smart}(\mathrm{x})$
- Assume: the universe of discourse are people:
- $\forall \mathrm{x}$ student(x) $\wedge$ at( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{Upitt}) \rightarrow$ Smart(x)


## Translation with quantifiers

## Sentence:

- Someone at CMU is smart.
- Assume: the domain of discourse are all CMU affiliates
- Translation:
- $\exists \mathrm{x} \operatorname{Smart}(\mathrm{x})$
- Assume: the universe of discourse are people:
- $\exists \mathrm{x}$ at( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{CMU}) \wedge \operatorname{Smart}(\mathrm{x})$


## Translation with quantifiers

- Assume two predicates $S(x)$ and $P(x)$

Universal statements typically tie with implications

- All $S(x)$ is $\mathbf{P ( x )}$
$-\forall x(S(x) \rightarrow P(x))$
- No $S(x)$ is $P(x)$
$-\forall \mathrm{x}(\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{x}) \rightarrow \neg \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x}))$
Existential statements typically tie with conjunctions
- Some $S(x)$ is $P(x)$
$-\exists x(S(x) \wedge P(x))$
- Some $S(x)$ is not $P(x)$
$-\exists \mathrm{x}(\mathrm{S}(\mathrm{x}) \wedge \neg \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x}))$


## Nested quantifiers

- More than one quantifier may be necessary to capture the meaning of a statement in the predicate logic.


## Example:

- Every real number has its corresponding negative.
- Translation:
- Assume:
- a real number is denoted as $x$ and its negative as $y$
- A predicate $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$ denotes: " $\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{y}=0$ "
- Then we can write:
$\forall \mathrm{x} \exists \mathrm{y} P(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$


## Nested quantifiers

- More than one quantifier may be necessary to capture the meaning of a statement in the predicate logic.


## Example:

- There is a person who loves everybody.
- Translation:
- Assume:
- Variables $x$ and $y$ denote people
- A predicate $L(x, y)$ denotes: "x loves $y$ "
- Then we can write in the predicate logic:
$\exists \mathrm{x} \forall \mathrm{y}$ L(x,y)


## Order of quantifiers

The order of nested quantifiers matters if quantifiers are of different type

- $\forall x \exists y \mathrm{~L}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$ is not the same as $\exists \mathrm{y} \forall \mathrm{x} \mathrm{L}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$


## Example:

- Assume L(x,y) denotes "x loves y"
- Then: $\forall x \exists y \mathrm{~L}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$
- Translates to: Everybody loves somebody.
- And: $\exists \mathrm{y} \forall \mathrm{x}$ L(x,y)
- Translates to: There is someone who is loved by everyone.

The meaning of the two is different.

## Order of quantifiers

The order of nested quantifiers does not matter if quantifiers are of the same type

## Example:

- For all $x$ and $y$, if $x$ is a parent of $y$ then $y$ is a child of $x$
- Assume:
- Parent( $x, y$ ) denotes " $x$ is a parent of $y$ "
- Child( $x, y$ ) denotes " $x$ is a child of $y$ "
- Two equivalent ways to represent the statement:
$-\forall \mathrm{x} \forall \mathrm{y} \operatorname{Parent}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}) \rightarrow \operatorname{Child}(\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{x})$
$-\forall \mathrm{y} \forall \mathrm{x} \operatorname{Parent}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}) \rightarrow$ Child(y,x)


## Translation exercise

## Suppose:

- Variables x,y denote people
- L(x,y) denotes " $x$ loves $y$ ".

Translate:

- Everybody loves Raymond. $\forall x$ L(x,Raymond)
- Everybody loves somebody. $\forall x \exists y \mathrm{~L}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})$
- There is somebody whom everybody loves. $\exists y \forall x L(x, y)$
- There is somebody who Raymond doesn't love.
$\exists \mathrm{y} \neg \mathrm{L}$ (Raymond,y)
- There is somebody whom no one loves.

$$
\exists \mathrm{y} \forall \mathrm{x} \neg \mathrm{~L}(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y})
$$

