Mathematical Logic Part Two

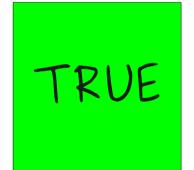
Announcements

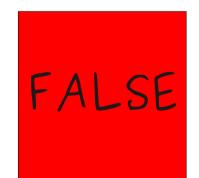
- Problem Set 2 and Checkpoint 3 graded.
 - Will be returned at end of lecture.
- Problem Set 3 due this Friday at 2:15PM.
 - Stop by office hours questions!
 - Email cs103-aut1213-staff@lists.stanford.edu with questions!

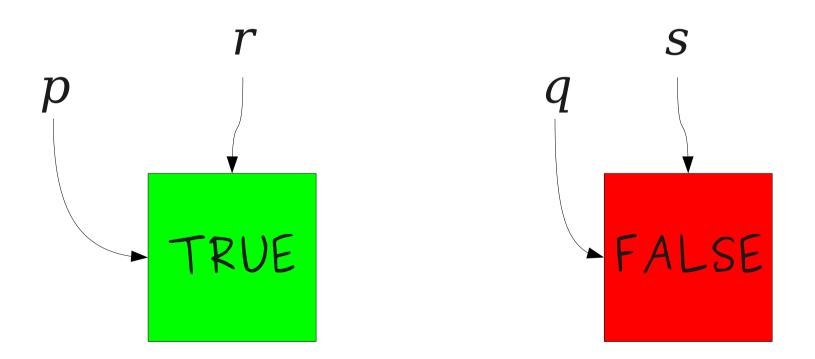
First-Order Logic

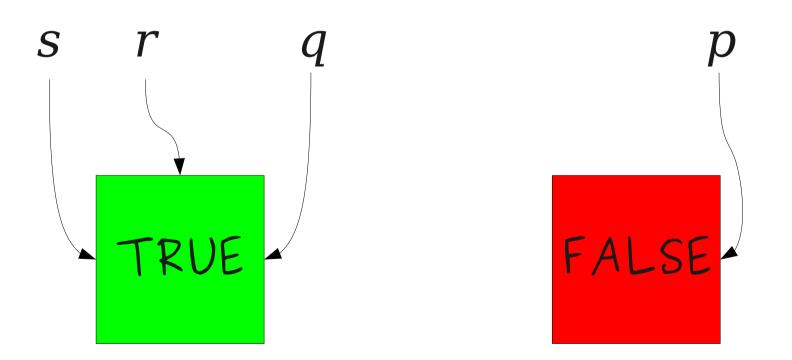
What is First-Order Logic?

- **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, and
 - **functions** that map objects to one another,
 - **quantifiers** that allow us to reason about multiple objects simultaneously.



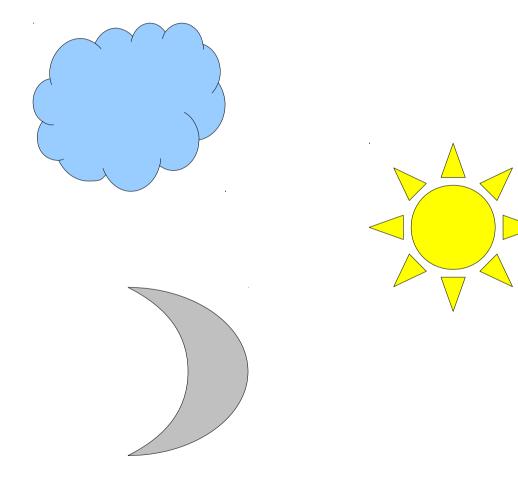


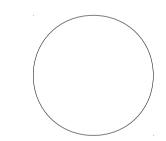


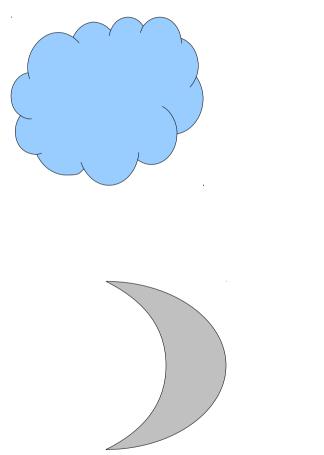


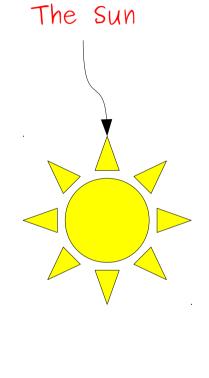
Propositional Logic

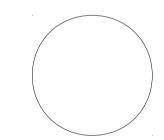
- In propositional logic, each variable represents a **proposition**, which is either true or false.
- Consequently, we can directly apply connectives to propositions:
 - $p \rightarrow q$
 - ¬p ∧ q
- The truth or falsity of a statement can be determined by plugging in the truth values for the input propositions and computing the result.
- We can see all possible truth values for a statement by checking all possible truth assignments to its variables.

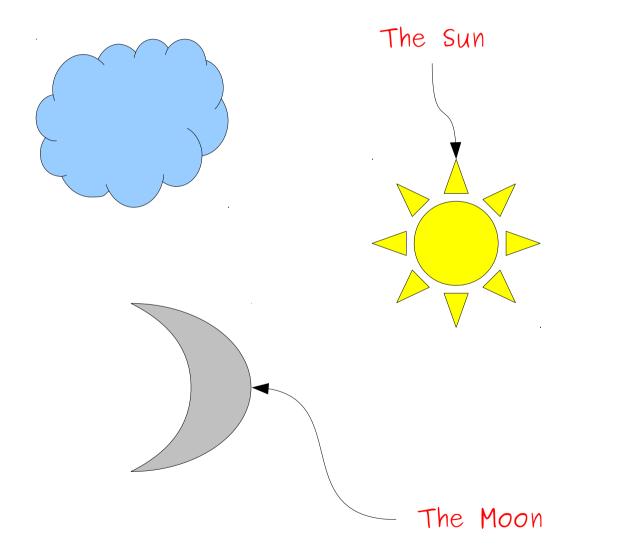


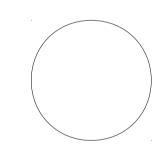


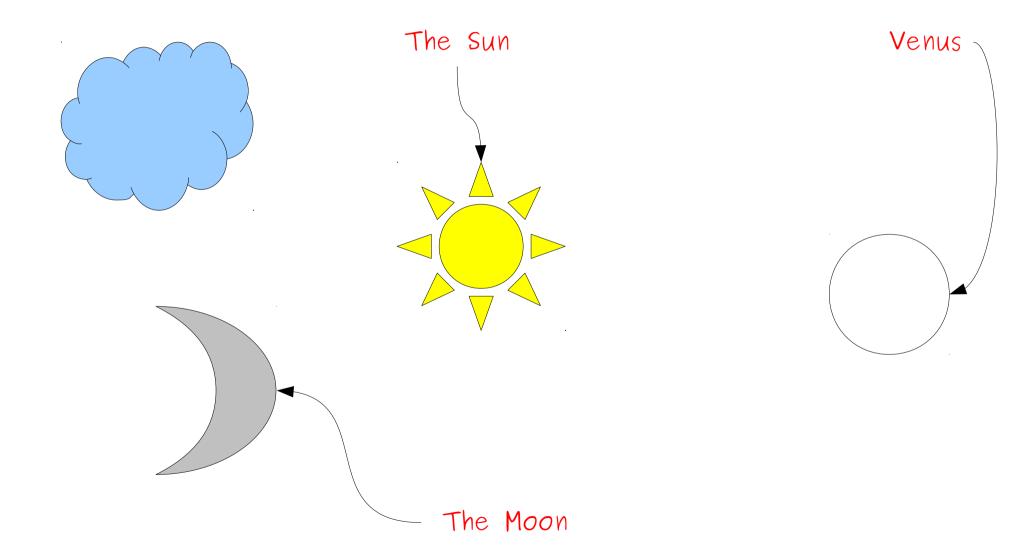


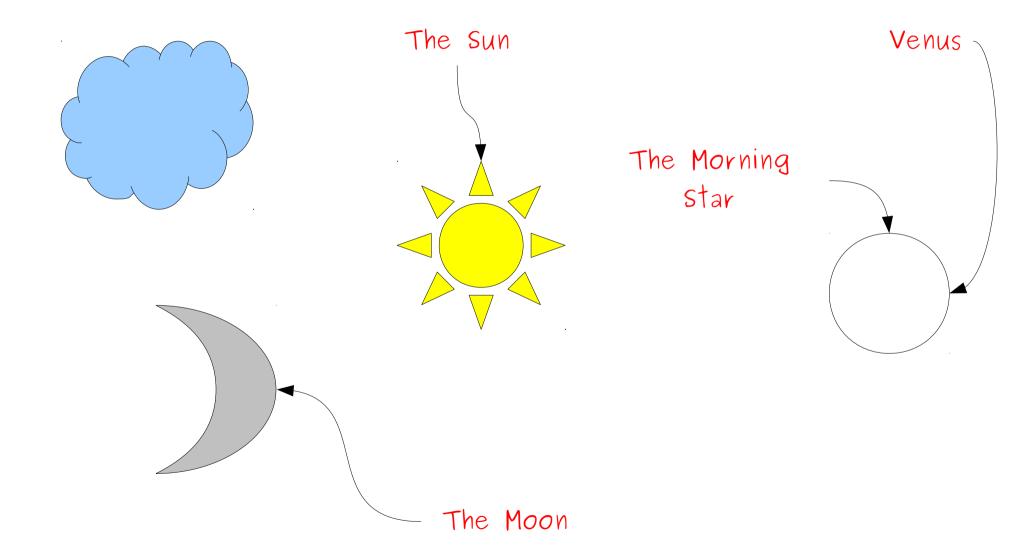


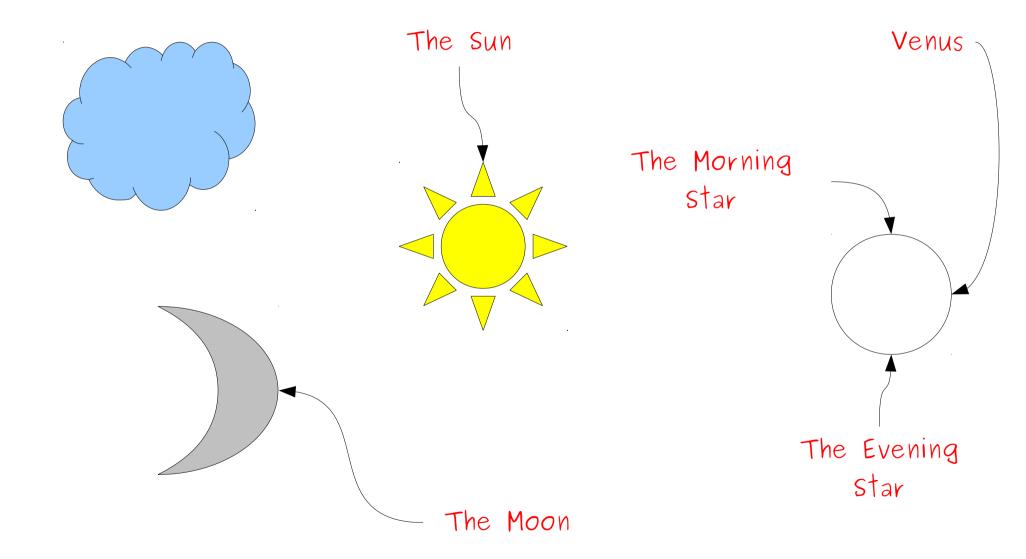






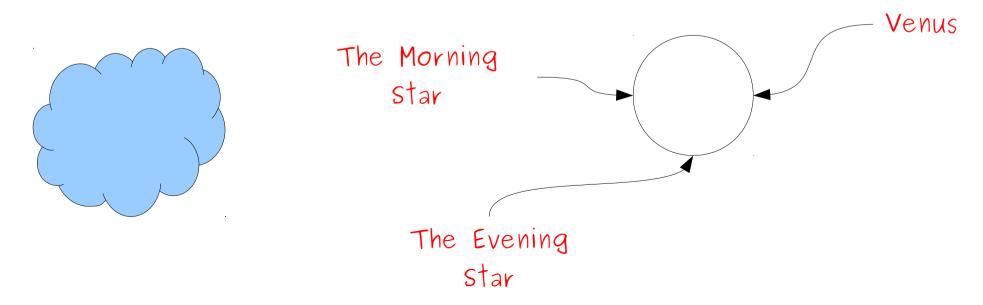






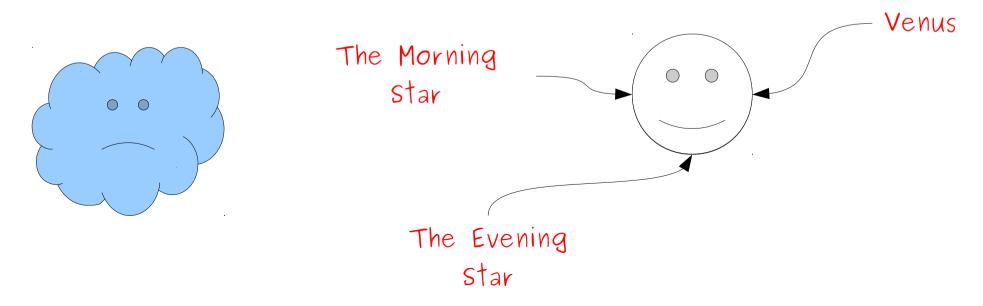
First-Order Logic

- In first-order logic, each variable refers to some object in a set called the domain of discourse.
- Some objects may have multiple names.
- Some objects may have no name at all.



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Propositional vs. First-Order Logic

- Because propositional variables are either true or false, we can directly apply connectives to them.
 - $p \rightarrow q$
 - $\neg p \leftrightarrow q \land r$
- Because first-order variables refer to arbitrary objects, it does not make sense to apply connectives to them.
 - Venus \rightarrow Sun
 - $137 \leftrightarrow \neg 42$
- This is not C!

Reasoning about Objects

- To reason about objects, first-order logic uses predicates.
- Examples:
 - GottaGetDownOn(Friday)
 - LookingForwardTo(Weekend)
 - ComesAfterwards(Sunday, Saturday)
- Predicates can take any number of arguments, but each predicate has a fixed number of arguments (called its arity)
- Applying a predicate to arguments produces a proposition, which is either true or false.

First-Order Sentences

• Sentences in first-order logic can be constructed from predicates applied to objects: $LikesToEat(V, M) \land Near(V, M) \rightarrow WillEat(V, M)$

 $Cute(t) \rightarrow Dikdik(t) \lor Kitty(t) \lor Puppy(t)$

 $x < 8 \rightarrow x < 137$

The notation x < 8 is just a shorthand for something like LessThan(x, 8). Binary predicates in math are often written like this, but symbols like < are not a part of first-order logic.

Equality

- First-order logic is equipped with a special predicate = that says whether two objects are equal to one another.
- Equality is a part of first-order logic, just as \rightarrow and \neg are.
- Examples:

MorningStar = EveningStar Glenda = GoodWitchOfTheNorth

Equality can only be applied to **objects**; to see if **propositions** are equal, use ↔.

For notational simplicity, define **≠** as

$x \neq y \equiv \neg (x = y)$

Expanding First-Order Logic

$x < 8 \land y < 8 \rightarrow x + y < 16$

Expanding First-Order Logic

$x < 8 \land y < 8 \rightarrow x + y < 16$ Why is this allowed?

Functions

- First-order logic allows **functions** that return objects associated with other objects.
- Examples:

x + y

LengthOf(path)

MedianOf(x, y, z)

- As with predicates, functions can take in any number of arguments, but each function has a fixed arity.
- Functions evaluate to **objects**, not **propositions**.
- There is no syntactic way to distinguish functions and predicates; you'll have to look at how they're used.

How would we translate the statement

"For any natural number n, n is even iff n^2 is even"

into first-order logic?

Quantifiers

- The biggest change from propositional logic to first-order logic is the use of quantifiers.
- A **quantifier** is a statement that expresses that some property is true for some or all choices that could be made.
- Useful for statements like "for every action, there is an equal and opposite reaction."

"For any natural number n, n is even iff n^2 is even"

"For any natural number n, n is even iff n^2 is even"

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

"For any natural number n, n is even iff n^2 is even"

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

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

The Universal Quantifier

- A statement of the form ∀x. ψ asserts that for every choice of x in our domain, ψ is true.
- Examples:

 $\begin{aligned} &\forall v. \ (Velociraptor(v) \rightarrow WillEat(v, me)) \\ &\forall n. \ (n \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (Even(n) \leftrightarrow \neg Odd(n))) \\ &Tallest(x) \rightarrow \forall y. \ (x \neq y \rightarrow IsShorterThan(y, x)) \end{aligned}$

Some velociraptor can open windows.

Some velociraptor can open windows. $\exists v. (Velociraptor(v) \land OpensWindows(v))$

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I is the existential quantifier
and says "for some choice of v, the following is true."

The Existential Quantifier

- A statement of the form ∃x. ψ asserts that for some choice of x in our domain, ψ is true.
- Examples:

 $\exists x. (Even(x) \land Prime(x))$

 $\exists x. (TallerThan(x, me) \land LighterThan(x, me))$

 $(\exists x. Appreciates(x, me)) \rightarrow Happy(me)$

Operator Precedence (Again)

- When writing out a formula in first-order logic, the quantifiers ∀ and ∃ have precedence just below ¬.
- Thus

$$\forall x. \ P(x) \ \lor \ R(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$$

is interpreted as

 $((\forall x. P(x)) \lor R(x)) \to Q(x)$

rather than

 $\forall x. ((P(x) \lor R(x)) \rightarrow Q(x))$

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- Example: "Everyone loves someone else."

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For any person

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- Example: "Everyone loves someone else."

$$\forall x \exists y \land Loves(x, y))$$

For any person

There is some person

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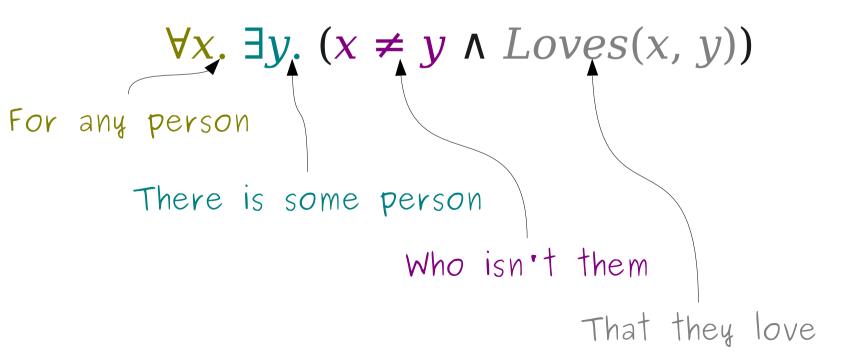


For any person

There is some person

Who isn't them

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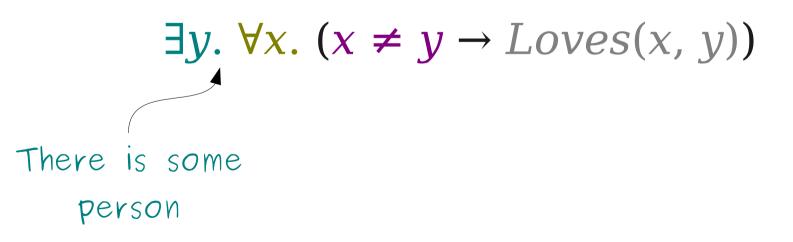


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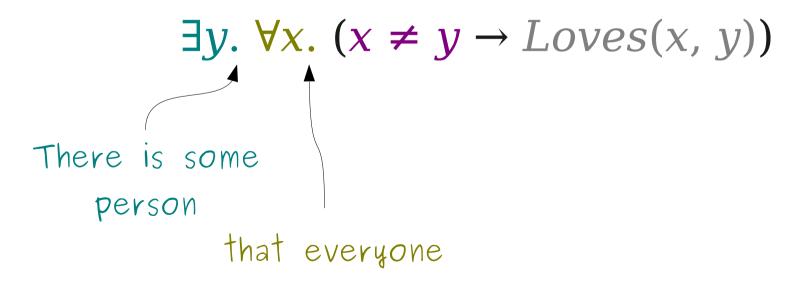
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 $\exists y. \ \forall x. \ (x \neq y \rightarrow Loves(x, y))$

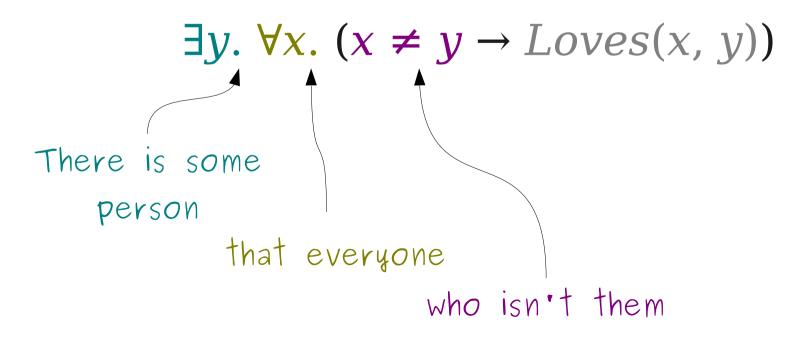
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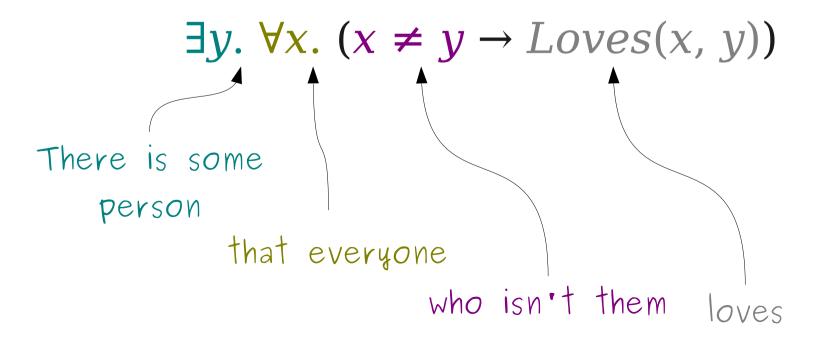
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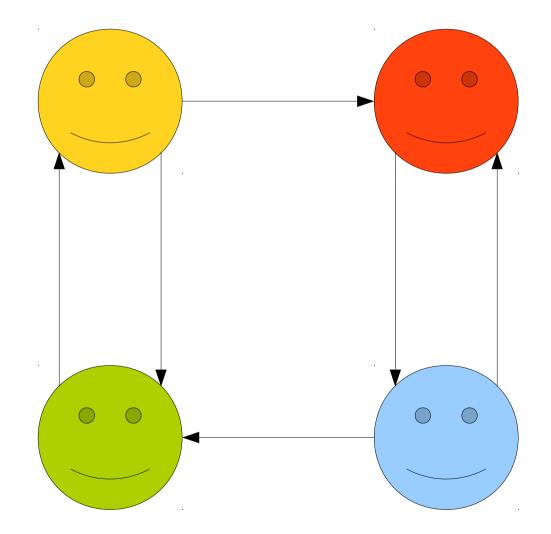
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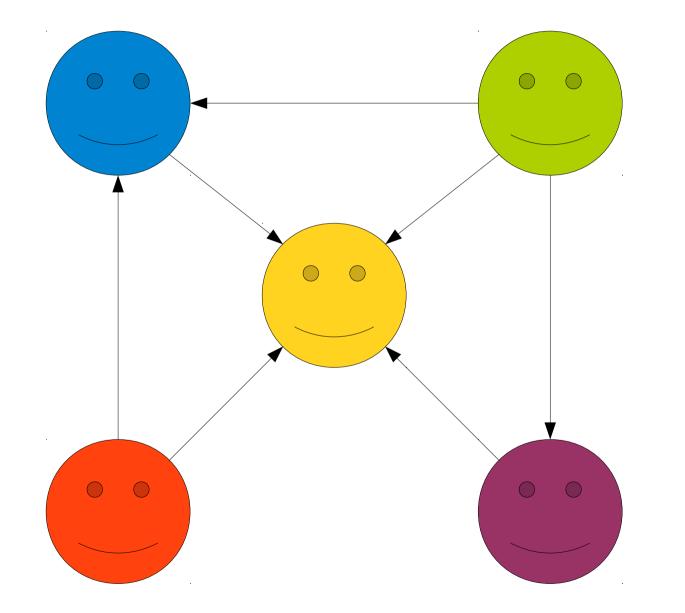
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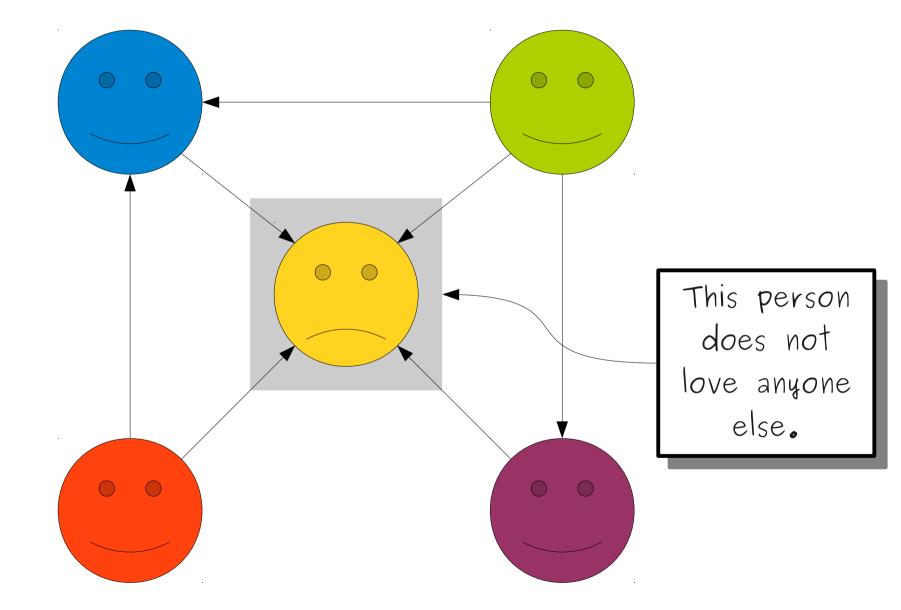
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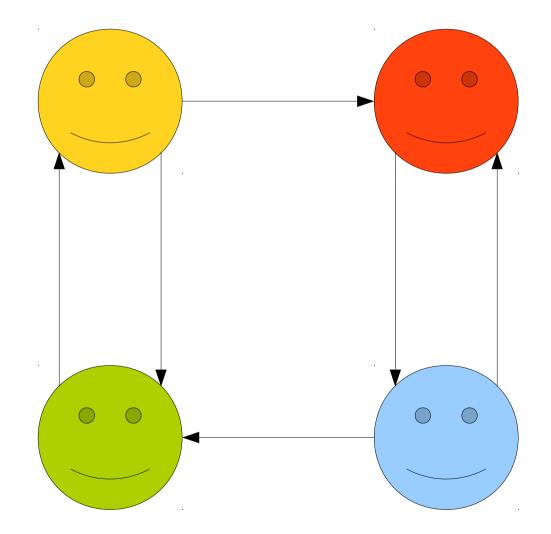
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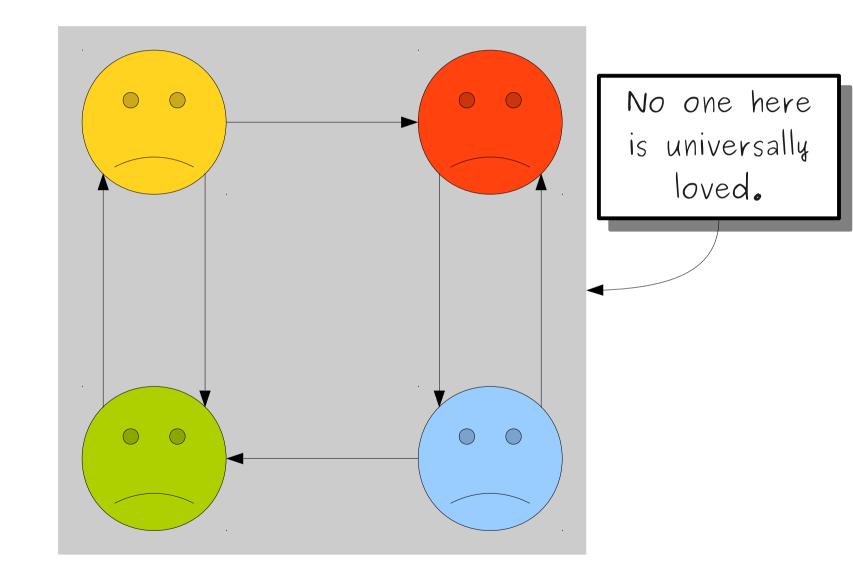
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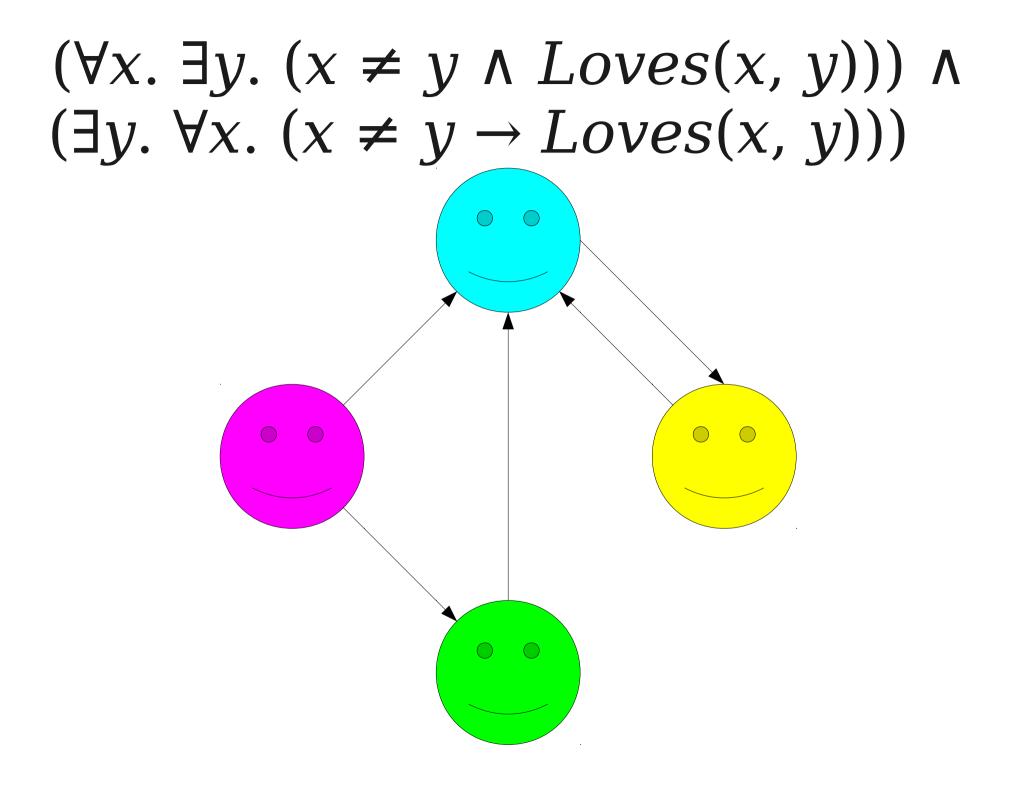


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The statement

∀x. ∃y. P(x, y)

means "For any choice of x, there is **some** choice of y where P(x, y)."

The statement

∃y. ∀x. P(x, y)

means "There is some choice of y where for **any** choice of x, P(x, y)." **Order matters** when mixing existential and universal quantifiers!

A Note on the Checkpoints...

This Doesn't Work!

Theorem: If R is transitive, then R^{-1} is transitive. Proof: Consider any a, b, and c such that aRb and bRc. Since R is transitive, we have aRc. Since aRb and bRc, we have $bR^{-1}a$ and $cR^{-1}b$. Since we have aRc, we have $cR^{-1}a$. Thus $cR^{-1}b$, $bR^{-1}a$, and $cR^{-1}a$.

This proves

 $\forall a. \forall b. \forall c. (aRb \land bRc \rightarrow cR^{-1}b \land bR^{-1}a \land cR^{-1}a)$

You need to show

 $\forall a. \forall b. \forall c. (aR^{-1}b \land bR^{-1}c \rightarrow aR^{-1}c)$

Don't get tripped up by definitions!

To directly prove that $p \rightarrow q$, assume p and prove q.

A Correct Proof

 $\forall a. \forall b. \forall c. (aR^{-1}b \land bR^{-1}c \rightarrow aR^{-1}c)$

Theorem: If R is transitive, then R^{-1} is transitive. *Proof:* Consider any a, b, and c such that $aR^{-1}b$ and $bR^{-1}c$. We will prove $aR^{-1}c$. Since $aR^{-1}b$ and $bR^{-1}c$, we have that bRa and cRb. Since cRb and bRa, by transitivity we know cRa. Since cRa, we have $aR^{-1}c$, as required.

Back to First-Order Logic...

Everyone who can outrun velociraptors won't get eaten.

 $\forall x. (FasterThanVelociraptors(x) \land \neg WillBeEaten(x))$

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"Whenever P(x), then Q(x)"

translates as

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

There is some velociraptor that can open windows and eat me.

 $\exists x. (Velociraptor(x) \land OpensWindows(x) \rightarrow EatsMe(x))$

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What happens if

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What happens if

"There is some P(x) where Q(x)"

translates as

 $\exists \mathbf{x.} (P(\mathbf{x}) \land Q(\mathbf{x}))$

The Takeaway Point

- Be careful when translating statements into first-order logic!
- \forall is usually paired with \rightarrow .
- \exists is usually paired with \land .

Quantifying Over Sets

• The notation

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

means "for any element x of set S, P(x) holds."

• This is not technically a part of first-order logic; it is a shorthand for

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

• How might we encode this concept?

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

Answer: $\exists x. (x \in S \land P(x)). \blacktriangleleft$

Note the use of \wedge instead of \rightarrow here.

Quantifying Over Sets

• The syntax

 $\forall x \in S. \phi$ $\exists x \in S. \phi$

is allowed for quantifying over sets.

- In CS103, please do not use variants of this syntax.
- Please don't do things like this:

 $\forall x \text{ with } P(x). Q(x)$

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

Translating into First-Order Logic

- First-order logic has great expressive power and is often used to formally encode mathematical definitions.
- Let's go provide rigorous definitions for the terms we've been using so far.

Set Theory

"Two sets are equal iff they contain the same elements."

$$S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)$$

Every possible element is either in both S and T, or it's in neither S nor T.

Set Theory

"Two sets are equal iff they contain the same elements."

$S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T)$

Is something missing?

Set Theory

"Two sets are equal iff they contain the same elements."

$\forall S. \ \forall T. \ (S = T \leftrightarrow \forall x. \ (x \in S \leftrightarrow x \in T))$

These quantifiers are critical here, but they don't appear anywhere in the English. Many statements asserting a general claim is true are implicitly universally quantified.