

Discrete Mathematics

Predicates

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Contents

Discrete Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

- Predicates
- Quantifiers
- Negation
- Logical equivalence of predicates
- Nested quantifiers
- Generalised set operations

An example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Example:

Let's consider the following expression:

An example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Example:

Let's consider the following expression:

Natural number x is even.

An example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Example:

Let's consider the following expression:

Natural number x is even.

Is it a proposition?

An example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Example:

Let's consider the following expression:

Natural number x is even.

Is it a proposition?

Is it a kind of logical statement?

An example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Example:

Let's consider the following expression:

Natural number x is even.

Is it a proposition?

Is it a kind of logical statement?

What can make it a proposition?

An example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Example:

Let's consider the following expression:

Natural number x is even.

Is it a proposition?

Is it a kind of logical statement?

What can make it a proposition?

Substituting any particular value for the variable x (e.g. 3) will make it a proposition, e.g.:

An example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Example:

Let's consider the following expression:

Natural number x is even.

Is it a proposition?

Is it a kind of logical statement?

What can make it a proposition?

Substituting any particular value for the variable x (e.g. 3) will make it a proposition, e.g.:

Natural number 2 is even.

Natural number 3 is even.

Predicate

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Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Let U be some universal set.

A logical expression containing some *variable* that becomes a proposition when we *substitute* any particular value from the universe for this variable is called a **predicate**.

It is also called *propositional function*.

It is usually denoted similarly to functions, for example:

$\phi(x)$, $f(x)$, $\psi(x)$, etc.

Example

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Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Assume that the universe U is (\mathbb{N}) (natural numbers)

Example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Assume that the universe U is (N) (natural numbers)

$\phi(x)$: *x is an even number*

Example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Assume that the universe U is (\mathbb{N}) (natural numbers)

$\phi(x)$: *x is an even number*

$\psi(x)$: *x is divisible by 3*

Example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Assume that the universe U is (\mathbb{N}) (natural numbers)

$\phi(x)$: *x is an even number*

$\psi(x)$: *x is divisible by 3*

(these two are examples of *atomic predicates*)

Example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Assume that the universe U is (\mathbb{N}) (natural numbers)

$\phi(x)$: *x is an even number*

$\psi(x)$: *x is divisible by 3*

(these two are examples of *atomic predicates*)

What is literally $\phi(x) \wedge \psi(x)$?

Example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Assume that the universe U is (\mathbb{N}) (natural numbers)

$\phi(x)$: *x is an even number*

$\psi(x)$: *x is divisible by 3*

(these two are examples of *atomic predicates*)

What is literally $\phi(x) \wedge \psi(x)$?

x is an even number and x is divisible by 3

(the above is an example of a *compound predicate*)

Example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Assume that the universe U is (N) (natural numbers)

$\phi(x)$: *x is an even number*

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(these two are examples of *atomic predicates*)

What is literally $\phi(x) \wedge \psi(x)$?

x is an even number and x is divisible by 3

(the above is an example of a *compound predicate*)

What does it mean in short?

x is divisible by 6

Another example

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Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

U is a set of all animals.

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

$\text{mammal}(x)$:

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

$\text{mammal}(x)$: x is a *mammal*

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

$\text{mammal}(x)$: *x is a mammal*

$\text{oceanicAnimal}(x)$:

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

$\text{mammal}(x)$: *x is a mammal*

$\text{oceanicAnimal}(x)$: *x lives in the ocean*

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

$\text{mammal}(x)$: *x is a mammal*

$\text{oceanicAnimal}(x)$: *x lives in the ocean*

Now, give an example of animal $a \in U$ that satisfies:

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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$\text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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$\text{mammal}(x)$: *x is a mammal*

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Now, give an example of animal $a \in U$ that satisfies:

$\text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: dolphin)

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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Now, give an example of animal $a \in U$ that satisfies:

$\text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: dolphin)

$\neg \text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$

Another example

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

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Now, give an example of animal $a \in U$ that satisfies:

$\text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: dolphin)

$\neg \text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: shark)

Another example

Discrete Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical equivalence

Negation

Nested quantifiers

Generalised operations

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Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

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$\text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: dolphin)

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$\neg \text{mammal}(a) \wedge \neg \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$

Another example

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

$\text{mammal}(x)$: *x is a mammal*

$\text{oceanicAnimal}(x)$: *x lives in the ocean*

Now, give an example of animal $a \in U$ that satisfies:

$\text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: dolphin)

$\neg \text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: shark)

$\neg \text{mammal}(a) \wedge \neg \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: stork)

Another example

U is a set of all animals.

Let's introduce two atomic predicates concerning animals:

$\text{mammal}(x)$: *x is a mammal*

$\text{oceanicAnimal}(x)$: *x lives in the ocean*

Now, give an example of animal $a \in U$ that satisfies:

$\text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: dolphin)

$\neg \text{mammal}(a) \wedge \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: shark)

$\neg \text{mammal}(a) \wedge \neg \text{oceanicAnimal}(a)$ (example: stork)

There are more values for a that make the above propositions true.

Predicate Logic

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Predicate logic is more powerful than propositional logic as it can express more.

Predicate can be viewed as an extension of proposition by introducing *variables*. Predicates, similarly to propositions, can be atomic or compound, for example:

Predicate as an expression of “property”

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Predicate can be also viewed as a description of some *feature* of the object from the universe represented by the variable, e.g. having some color, being positive, etc.

Examples:

“ $x > 0$ ”, (“being a positive number”) ($\text{positive}(x)$)

“ x is green” (“having a green color”) ($\text{green}(x)$)

The above predicates are not propositions, since the truth value depends on the value of the variables that are not (yet) specified.

Predicates of two

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have more than 1 variable, e.g.:

Predicates of two

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have more than 1 variable, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(x, y)$: *x is greater than y* (universe of x and y : numbers)

Predicates of two

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have more than 1 variable, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(x, y)$: *x is greater than y* (universe of x and y : numbers)

$\text{parent}(x, y)$: *x is a parent of y* (universe of x and y : people)

Predicates of two

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have more than 1 variable, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(x, y)$: *x is greater than y* (universe of x and y : numbers)

$\text{parent}(x, y)$: *x is a parent of y* (universe of x and y : people)

Any of the above statements becomes a proposition if both x and y are substituted with particular values from the universe, e.g.:

Predicates of two

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have more than 1 variable, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(x, y)$: *x is greater than y* (universe of x and y : numbers)

$\text{parent}(x, y)$: *x is a parent of y* (universe of x and y : people)

Any of the above statements becomes a proposition if both x and y are substituted with particular values from the universe, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(3, 2)$

Predicates of two

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have more than 1 variable, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(x, y)$: *x is greater than y* (universe of x and y : numbers)

$\text{parent}(x, y)$: *x is a parent of y* (universe of x and y : people)

Any of the above statements becomes a proposition if both x and y are substituted with particular values from the universe, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(3, 2)$

$\text{parent}(\text{"Johann Sebastian Bach"}, \text{"Carl Philipp Emanuel Bach"})$

Predicates of two

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have more than 1 variable, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(x, y)$: *x is greater than y* (universe of x and y : numbers)

$\text{parent}(x, y)$: *x is a parent of y* (universe of x and y : people)

Any of the above statements becomes a proposition if both x and y are substituted with particular values from the universe, e.g.:

$\text{greater}(3, 2)$

$\text{parent}(\text{"Johann Sebastian Bach"}, \text{"Carl Philipp Emanuel Bach"})$

" $yx > 0$ AND x is integer AND y is integer" (" x and y are integers of the same sign")

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

The variables in a predicate can have different universa, e.g.:

Another example

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

The variables in a predicate can have different universa, e.g.:

$$\text{isCapitalOf}(x, y) \text{ (} x \text{ is a capital of } y\text{)}$$

Another example

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

The variables in a predicate can have different universa, e.g.:

$\text{isCapitalOf}(x, y)$ (*x is a capital of y*)

Universe of x : cities, universe of y : countries.

Another example

Discrete Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

The variables in a predicate can have different universa, e.g.:

$\text{isCapitalOf}(x, y)$ (*x is a capital of y*)

Universe of x : cities, universe of y : countries.

$\text{isCapitalOf}(\text{Warsaw}, \text{Poland})$

Predicates of more variables

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have arbitrarily many variables (but always fixed, finite number).

Predicates of more variables

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have arbitrarily many variables (but always fixed, finite number).

example:

Predicates of more variables

Discrete Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

A predicate can have arbitrarily many variables (but always fixed, finite number).

example:

$\text{playedBridge}(a,b,c,d)$: *people a,b,c,d played bridge together*

Free variables of a predicate

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Unspecified variables of a predicate are called its *free variables*.

Examples:

$P(x)$: " $x > 0$ " (x is a free variable)

" $\forall x (x > 0 \text{ AND } x \text{ is integer AND } \exists y (y > 0 \text{ AND } y \text{ is integer}))$ " (x and y are free)

Predicate can become a proposition when there are no free variables.

This may happen in two basic ways:

- *substituting* some concrete value for a variable
- *quantifying* a variable with a **quantifier**

Quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Each free variable of a predicate can be *bound* by a **quantifier** and specifying its **domain**.

There are 2 basic quantifiers:

- universal quantifier: \forall (“for all”)

Quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Each free variable of a predicate can be *bound* by a **quantifier** and specifying its **domain**.

There are 2 basic quantifiers:

- universal quantifier: \forall (“for all”)
- existential quantifier” \exists (“exists”)

Quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Each free variable of a predicate can be *bound* by a **quantifier** and specifying its **domain**.

There are 2 basic quantifiers:

- universal quantifier: \forall (“for all”)
- existential quantifier” \exists (“exists”)

Each free variable can be bound by only one quantifier

Quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Each free variable of a predicate can be *bound* by a **quantifier** and specifying its **domain**.

There are 2 basic quantifiers:

- universal quantifier: \forall (“for all”)
- existential quantifier” \exists (“exists”)

Each free variable can be bound by only one quantifier

Note: Each quantifier has its natural **range** (or scope) of the variable it bounds, i.e. the part of the predicate associated with it. If a variable of the same name is outside of its range it is still free. E.g.:

$$(\forall x P(x)) \vee Q(x)$$

(x is still a free variable in this compound predicate!)

Universal quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$P(x)$: x is a student, universe: all people in this room

Universal quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$P(x)$: x is a student, universe: all people in this room

$\forall x P(x)$: everybody in this room is a student

Universal quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$P(x)$: x is a student, universe: all people in this room

$\forall x P(x)$: everybody in this room is a student

$P(x)$: " $x > 0$ "

Universal quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$P(x)$: x is a student, universe: all people in this room

$\forall x P(x)$: everybody in this room is a student

$P(x)$: " $x > 0$ "

$\forall x P(x)$: "for each x , x is positive"

Examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

When we specify the **domain** of the quantifier, the predicate becomes a proposition, e.g.:

Examples:

Examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

When we specify the **domain** of the quantifier, the predicate becomes a proposition, e.g.:

Examples:

domain: prime numbers (2,3,5,...)

Examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

When we specify the **domain** of the quantifier, the predicate becomes a proposition, e.g.:

Examples:

domain: prime numbers (2,3,5,...)

$\forall_x P(x)$ “all prime numbers are positive” (true)

Examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

When we specify the **domain** of the quantifier, the predicate becomes a proposition, e.g.:

Examples:

domain: prime numbers (2,3,5,...)

$\forall_x P(x)$ “all prime numbers are positive” (true)

domain: integer numbers

$\forall_x P(x)$

“all integers are positive” (false)

Examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

When we specify the **domain** of the quantifier, the predicate becomes a proposition, e.g.:

Examples:

domain: prime numbers (2,3,5,...)

$\forall_x P(x)$ “all prime numbers are positive” (true)

domain: integer numbers

$\forall_x P(x)$

“all integers are positive” (false)

NOTICE: the choice of domain is necessary to determine the truth value of the (now) proposition

Existential quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$P(x)$: “ $x > 0$ ”

Existential quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$P(x)$: “ $x > 0$ ”

$\exists_x P(x)$ “there exists number that is positive”

Existential quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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Examples:

Existential quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$P(x)$: “ $x > 0$ ”

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Examples:

domain: integers

Existential quantifier: examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$P(x)$: “ $x > 0$ ”

$\exists_x P(x)$ “there exists number that is positive”

Examples:

domain: integers

$\exists_x P(x)$

“there exists integer that is positive” (true)

domain: real numbers less than -1

$\exists_x P(x)$ “there exists an integer less than -1 that is positive”
(false)

Logical equivalence of predicates

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Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Two statements built of predicates and quantifiers are *logically equivalent* if and only if they have the same truth value no matter what concrete predicates are substituted and what domains for its variables are used.

Logical equivalence of predicates

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Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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We use the same symbols of equivalence (\equiv or \Leftrightarrow) as in the case of propositions.

Logical equivalence of predicates

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Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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We use the same symbols of equivalence (\equiv or \Leftrightarrow) as in the case of propositions.

Example:

$$\forall_x P(x) \wedge \forall_x Q(x) \equiv \forall_x (Q(x) \wedge P(x))$$

the above is an example of a logical equivalence (general law) since it holds for any domain of the variable x .

Notice: the quantifiers have higher precedence than any other logical operators.

Negating the quantifiers

(De Morgan laws for quantifiers)

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

The 2 following equivalences specify the rules for negating quantifiers:

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

Negating the quantifiers

(De Morgan laws for quantifiers)

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Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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They are called “De Morgan’s laws for quantifiers”

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Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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They are called “De Morgan’s laws for quantifiers”

Examples:

“It is not true that all people in Warsaw are students”

Negating the quantifiers

(De Morgan laws for quantifiers)

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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Examples:

“It is not true that all people in Warsaw are students”
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Negating the quantifiers

(De Morgan laws for quantifiers)

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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They are called “De Morgan’s laws for quantifiers”

Examples:

“It is not true that all people in Warsaw are students”
is equivalent to:

“there is a person in Warsaw that is not a student”

Negating the quantifiers

(De Morgan laws for quantifiers)

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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Examples:

“It is not true that all people in Warsaw are students”
is equivalent to:

“there is a person in Warsaw that is not a student”

“No person in this room was on the moon”
is equivalent to:

Negating the quantifiers

(De Morgan laws for quantifiers)

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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They are called “De Morgan’s laws for quantifiers”

Examples:

“It is not true that all people in Warsaw are students”
is equivalent to:

“there is a person in Warsaw that is not a student”

“No person in this room was on the moon”
is equivalent to:

“for each person in this room it is the case that he/she was not
on the moon”

Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

When a predicate has more than one free variables it is possible to use **nested quantifiers**:

Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

When a predicate has more than one free variables it is possible to use **nested quantifiers**:

Example: for $P(x,y)$ that is " $x > y$ " and domain being the real numbers:

Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

When a predicate has more than one free variables it is possible to use **nested quantifiers**:

Example: for $P(x,y)$ that is “ $x > y$ ” and domain being the real numbers:

$\forall_x \forall_y P(x,y)$ “each real is greater than all reals”

Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

When a predicate has more than one free variables it is possible to use **nested quantifiers**:

Example: for $P(x,y)$ that is “ $x > y$ ” and domain being the real numbers:

$\forall_x \forall_y P(x,y)$ “each real is greater than all reals”(false)

Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

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$\forall_x \forall_y P(x,y)$ “each real is greater than all reals” (false)

$\forall_x \exists_y P(x,y)$ “for each real x there exists real y so that x is greater than y ”

Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

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Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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$\forall_x \exists_y P(x,y)$ “for each real x there exists real y so that x is greater than y ” (true)

$\exists_x \forall_y P(x,y)$ “there is x that is greater than any real”

Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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$\exists_x \forall_y P(x, y)$ “there is x that is greater than any real” (false)

$\exists_x \exists_y P(x, y)$ “there exist some real x and y such that x is greater than y ”

Nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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$\exists_x \exists_y P(x, y)$ “there exist some real x and y such that x is greater than y ” (true)

The order of nested quantifiers matters!

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

If the quantifiers are of the same kind they relative order (if they are neighbours) does not matter, however the order of different kinds may matter:

The order of nested quantifiers matters!

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

If the quantifiers are of the same kind they relative order (if they are neighbours) does not matter, however the order of different kinds may matter:

Examples:

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

is logically equivalent to:

The order of nested quantifiers matters!

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

If the quantifiers are of the same kind they relative order (if they are neighbours) does not matter, however the order of different kinds may matter:

Examples:

$$\forall_x \forall_y P(x, y)$$

is logically equivalent to:

$$\forall_y \forall_x P(x, y)$$

and both can be read as “each real is greater than all reals”
(false)

The order of nested quantifiers matters!

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

If the quantifiers are of the same kind they relative order (if they are neighbours) does not matter, however the order of different kinds may matter:

Examples:

$$\forall_x \forall_y P(x, y)$$

is logically equivalent to:

$$\forall_y \forall_x P(x, y)$$

and both can be read as “each real is greater than all reals” (false)

However:

$\forall_x \exists_y P(x, y)$ “for each real x there exists real y so that x is greater than y ” (true)

The order of nested quantifiers matters!

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

If the quantifiers are of the same kind they relative order (if they are neighbours) does not matter, however the order of different kinds may matter:

Examples:

$$\forall_x \forall_y P(x, y)$$

is logically equivalent to:

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and both can be read as “each real is greater than all reals” (false)

However:

$\forall_x \exists_y P(x, y)$ “for each real x there exists real y so that x is greater than y ” (true)

$\exists_y \forall_x P(x, y)$ “there is y that is greater than any real” (false)

Negating nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

When negating nested quantifiers, the negation can “pass” each quantifier from left to right *turning it into the other kind*, for example:

Negating nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

When negating nested quantifiers, the negation can “pass” each quantifier from left to right *turning it into the other kind*, for example:

$$\neg \forall x \exists y \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

Negating nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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$$\neg \forall x \exists y \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

$$\exists x \neg \exists y \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

Negating nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
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When negating nested quantifiers, the negation can “pass” each quantifier from left to right *turning it into the other kind*, for example:

$$\neg \forall x \exists y \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

$$\exists x \neg \exists y \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

$$\exists x \forall y \neg \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

Negating nested quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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$$\neg \forall x \exists y \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

$$\exists x \neg \exists y \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

$$\exists x \forall y \neg \forall z P(x, y, z)$$

\equiv

$$\exists x \forall y \exists z \neg P(x, y, z)$$

Examples: mixture of substitutions and quantifiers

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Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

Let $G(x,y)$ be " $x \geq y$ " (" x is not less than y "), assume domain is natural numbers for both x and y

It is a predicate with 2 free variables.

Examples: mixture of substitutions and quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Let $G(x,y)$ be " $x \geq y$ " (" x is not less than y "), assume domain is natural numbers for both x and y

It is a predicate with 2 free variables.

Now, for example:

- substitution of 0 for y : $G(x,0)$ is a predicate with 1 free variable (" x is nonnegative")

Examples: mixture of substitutions and quantifiers

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

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It is a predicate with 2 free variables.

Now, for example:

- substitution of 0 for y : $G(x,0)$ is a predicate with 1 free variable (" x is nonnegative")
- quantifying x : $\forall_x G(x,y)$ is a predicate with 1 free variable (" $\text{each natural number is not less than } y$ ")

Examples: mixture of substitutions and quantifiers

Let $G(x,y)$ be “ $x \geq y$ ” (“ x is not less than y ”), assume domain is natural numbers for both x and y

It is a predicate with 2 free variables.

Now, for example:

- substitution of 0 for y : $G(x,0)$ is a predicate with 1 free variable (“ x is nonnegative”)
- quantifying x : $\forall x G(x,y)$ is a predicate with 1 free variable (“each natural number is not less than y ”)
- mix of substitution and quantification, e.g. $\forall x G(x,0)$ is now a **proposition** (no free variables) “any natural is non-negative” (true!), etc.

Examples

Discrete
Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

$$\forall \epsilon \exists \delta \forall h (|h| < \delta) \Rightarrow (|f(x+h) - f(x)| < \epsilon)$$

Examples

Discrete Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

$$\forall \epsilon \exists \delta \forall h (|h| < \delta) \Rightarrow (|f(x+h) - f(x)| < \epsilon)$$

(continuity of function f at point x)

Examples

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$$\forall \epsilon \exists \delta \forall h (|h| < \delta) \Rightarrow (|f(x+h) - f(x)| < \epsilon)$$

(continuity of function f at point x)

$$\forall x \forall \epsilon \exists \delta \forall h (|h| < \delta) \Rightarrow (|f(x+h) - f(x)| < \epsilon)$$

(continuity of function f)

Examples

Discrete Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

$$\forall \epsilon \exists m \forall n |a_{m+n} - b| < \epsilon$$

Examples

Discrete Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

$$\forall \epsilon \exists m \forall n |a_{m+n} - b| < \epsilon$$

(convergence of a sequence a to limit b)

Examples

Discrete Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

$$\forall \epsilon \exists m \forall n |a_{m+n} - b| < \epsilon$$

(convergence of a sequence a to limit b)

$$\forall x \forall \epsilon \exists m \forall n |f_{m+n}(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$

Examples

Discrete
Mathematics

(c) Marcin
Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$$\forall \epsilon \exists m \forall n |a_{m+n} - b| < \epsilon$$

(convergence of a sequence a to limit b)

$$\forall x \forall \epsilon \exists m \forall n |f_{m+n}(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$

(convergence of a sequence of functions f_i to a function f)

Examples

Discrete Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

$$\forall \epsilon \exists m \forall n |a_{m+n} - b| < \epsilon$$

(convergence of a sequence a to limit b)

$$\forall x \forall \epsilon \exists m \forall n |f_{m+n}(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$

(convergence of a sequence of functions f_i to a function f)

$$\forall \epsilon \exists m \forall x \forall n |f_{m+n}(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$

Example: “big O” asymptotic notation

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Mathematics

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$

Example: “big O” asymptotic notation

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

**Nested
quantifiers**

Generalised
operations

$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$

$$\exists c \exists n_0 \forall n (n > n_0) \Rightarrow f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$$

Generalised unions and intersections

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

Imagine we have a family \mathcal{F} of sets indexed by a set of indices I (that can be infinite!):

$$\mathcal{F} = \{F_i : i \in I\}$$

The **generalised union** of \mathcal{F} , denoted as $\bigcup_{i \in I} F_i$ is defined as follows:

$$\bigcup_{i \in I} F_i = \{x : \exists i \in I x \in F_i\}$$

The **generalised intersection** of \mathcal{F} , denoted as $\bigcap_{i \in I} F_i$ is defined as follows:

$$\bigcap_{i \in I} F_i = \{x : \forall i \in I x \in F_i\}$$

Summary

Discrete
Mathematics

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Sydow

Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

- Predicates
- Quantifiers
- Negation
- Logical equivalence of predicates
- Nested quantifiers
- Generalised set operations

Example tasks/questions/problems

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Predicates

Quantifiers

Logical
equivalence

Negation

Nested
quantifiers

Generalised
operations

- definition of predicate, free variable
- definition and interpretation of quantifiers (2 kinds)
- negating the quantifiers (including nested ones)
- practice translating mathematical concepts to the predicate logic.
E.g.:
 - using only logical and mathematical symbols “=”, “*” define a predicate $Q(x,y)$ that reads as “ x is a divisor of y ” for the domain of integer variables x,y (hint: you can use helper variables and quantifiers)
 - using only logical symbols and “ $<$ ” and “ $=$ ” write a predicate specifying that x (a variable) is a maximum in some set S of numbers (being the domain)
- give examples of predicates $P(x)$, $Q(x)$ and domain that show that the two following statements: $(\forall_x P(x) \vee Q(x))$ and $\forall_x P(x) \vee \forall_x Q(x)$ are not logically equivalent. Does any of them **implies** the other? (i.e. is any of them a **stronger** condition?)

Thank you for your attention.