CompSci 102
Discrete Math for Computer Science

January 19, 2012

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Most Slides are modified from Rosen

Announcements

- Read for next time Chap. 1.4-1.6
- Recitation 1 is tomorrow
- Homework will be posted by Friday

- Today more logic

Classwork problem from last time

Each inhabitant of a remote village always tells the truth or always lies. A villager will only give "yes" or "no" response to a question a tourist asks.

Suppose you are a tourist visiting this area and come to a fork in the road. One branch leads to the ruins you want to visit; the other leads deep into the jungle.

A villager is standing at the fork in the road. What one question can you ask the villager to determine which branch to take?

Precedence of Logical operators

Operator	Precedence
$\neg$	1
$\wedge$	2
$\vee$	3
$\rightarrow$	4
$\leftrightarrow$	5

Example: $p \vee \neg q \wedge r \rightarrow s \vee q$

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Example: $p \vee \neg q \wedge r \rightarrow s \vee q$

$$(p \vee ((\neg q) \wedge r)) \rightarrow (s \vee q)$$

Translating English Sentences

- Steps to convert an English sentence to a statement in propositional logic
  - Identify atomic propositions and represent using propositional variables.
  - Determine appropriate logical connectives
- “If I go to Harry’s or to the country, I will not go shopping.”
  - *p*: I go to Harry’s
  - q: I go to the country.
  - *r*: I will go shopping.

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- Steps to convert an English sentence to a statement in propositional logic
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- "If I go to Harry's or to the country, I will not go shopping."
  - *p*: I go to Harry's
  - q: I go to the country.
  - *r*: I will go shopping.

If *p* or *q* then not *r*.

$$(p \vee q) \rightarrow \neg r$$

Example

Problem: Translate the following sentence into propositional logic:

"You can access the Internet from campus only if you are a computer science major or you are not a freshman."

Example

Problem: Translate the following sentence into propositional logic:

"You can access the Internet from campus only if you are a computer science major or you are not a freshman."

One Solution: Let *a*, *c*, and *f* represent respectively "You can access the internet from campus," "You are a computer science major," and "You are a freshman."

$$a \to (c \lor \neg f)$$

System Specifications

- System and Software engineers take requirements in English and express them in a precise specification language based on logic.

Example: Express in propositional logic:

"The automated reply cannot be sent when the file system is full"

Solution: One possible solution: Let *p* denote "The automated reply can be sent" and *q* denote "The file system is full."

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"The automated reply cannot be sent when the file system is full"

Solution: One possible solution: Let p denote "The automated reply can be sent" and q denote "The file system is full."

$$q \rightarrow \neg p$$

Consistent System Specifications

Definition: A list of propositions is *consistent* if it is possible to assign truth values to the proposition variables so that each proposition is true.

Exercise: Are these specifications consistent?

- "The diagnostic message is stored in the buffer or it is retransmitted."
- "The diagnostic message is not stored in the buffer."
- "If the diagnostic message is stored in the buffer, then it is retransmitted."

- What if "The diagnostic message is not retransmitted is added."

Consistent System Specifications

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Exercise: Are these specifications consistent?

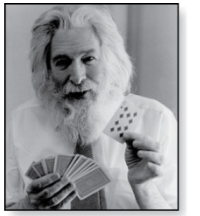
- "The diagnostic message is stored in the buffer or it is retransmitted."
- "The diagnostic message is not stored in the buffer."
- "If the diagnostic message is stored in the buffer, then it is retransmitted."

Solution: Let p denote "The diagnostic message is not stored in the buffer." Let q denote "The diagnostic message is retransmitted" The specification can be written as: $p \vee q$, $p \rightarrow q$, $\neg p$. When p is false and q is true all three statements are true. So the specification is consistent.

- What if "The diagnostic message is not retransmitted is added."

  Solution: Now we are adding $\neg q$ and there is no satisfying assignment. So the specification is not consistent.

Logic Puzzles



Raymond Smullyan (Born 1919)

- An island has two kinds of inhabitants, *knights*, who always tell the truth, and *knaves*, who always lie.
- You go to the island and meet A and B.
  - A says "The two of us are both knights"
  - B says "A is a Knave."

Example: What are the types of A and B?

Tautologies, Contradictions, and Contingencies

- A tautology is a proposition which is always true.
  - Example: $p \vee \neg p$
- A *contradiction* is a proposition which is always false.
  - Example: $p \wedge \neg p$
- A *contingency* is a proposition which is neither a tautology nor a contradiction, such as p

P	$\neg p$	$p \vee \neg p$	$p \wedge \neg p$
T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F

Logically Equivalent

- Two compound propositions p and q are logically equivalent if $p \leftrightarrow q$ is a tautology.
- We write this as $p \Leftrightarrow q$ or as $p \equiv q$ where p and q are compound propositions.
- Two compound propositions p and q are equivalent if and only if the columns in a truth table giving their truth values agree.
- This truth table show $\neg p \vee q$ is equivalent to $p \rightarrow q$.

p	q	$\neg p$	$\neg p \vee q$	$p \rightarrow q$
T	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T

De Morgan's Laws

$$\neg(p \wedge q) \equiv \neg p \vee \neg q$$

$$\neg(p \vee q) \equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q$$

Augustus De Morgan 1806-1871

This truth table shows that De Morgan's Second Law holds.

p	q	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$(p \vee q)$	$\neg(p \vee q)$	$\neg p \wedge \neg q$
T	T	F	F	T	F	F
T	F	F	T	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	T	T	F	T	T

Key Logical Equivalences

- Identity Laws: $p \wedge T \equiv p$ $\quad p \vee F \equiv p$
- Domination Laws: $p \vee T \equiv T$ $\quad p \wedge F \equiv F$
- Idempotent laws: $p \vee p \equiv p$ $\quad p \wedge p \equiv p$
- Double Negation Law: $\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$
- Negation Laws: $p \vee \neg p \equiv T$ $\quad p \wedge \neg p \equiv F$

Key Logical Equivalences (*cont*)

- Commutative Laws: $p \lor q \equiv q \lor p$, $p \land q \equiv q \land p$
- Associative Laws: $(p \land q) \land r \equiv p \land (q \land r)$
  $(p \lor q) \lor r \equiv p \lor (q \lor r)$
- Distributive Laws: $(p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (p \lor q)) \land (p \lor r)$
  $(p \land (q \lor r)) \equiv (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$
- Absorption Laws: $p \lor (p \land q) \equiv p$ $p \land (p \lor q) \equiv p$

More Logical Equivalences

TABLE 7 Logical Equivalences Involving Conditional Statements.

$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg p \vee q$
$p \rightarrow q \equiv \neg q \rightarrow \neg p$
$p \vee q \equiv \neg p \rightarrow q$
$p \wedge q \equiv \neg(p \rightarrow \neg q)$
$\neg(p \rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$
$(p \rightarrow q) \wedge (p \rightarrow r) \equiv p \rightarrow (q \wedge r)$
$(p \rightarrow r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r) \equiv (p \vee q) \rightarrow r$
$(p \rightarrow q) \vee (p \rightarrow r) \equiv p \rightarrow (q \vee r)$
$(p \rightarrow r) \vee (q \rightarrow r) \equiv (p \wedge q) \rightarrow r$

TABLE 8 Logical Equivalences Involving Biconditional Statements.

$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \rightarrow q) \wedge (q \rightarrow p)$
$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv \neg p \leftrightarrow \neg q$
$p \leftrightarrow q \equiv (p \wedge q) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q)$
$\neg(p \leftrightarrow q) \equiv p \leftrightarrow \neg q$

Constructing New Logical Equivalences

- We can show that two expressions are logically equivalent by developing a series of logically equivalent statements.
- To prove that $A \equiv B$ we produce a series of equivalences beginning with A and ending with B.

$$\begin{gathered} A \equiv A_1 \\ \vdots \\ A_n \equiv B \end{gathered}$$

- Keep in mind that whenever a proposition (represented by a propositional variable) occurs in the equivalences listed earlier, it may be replaced by an arbitrarily complex compound proposition.

Equivalence Proofs

Example: Show that $\neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q))$

is logically equivalent to $\neg p \wedge \neg q$

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Solution:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\neg(p \vee (\neg p \wedge q)) &\equiv \neg p \wedge \neg(\neg p \wedge q) && \text{by the second De Morgan law} \\
&\equiv \neg p \wedge [\neg(\neg p) \vee \neg q] && \text{by the first De Morgan law} \\
&\equiv \neg p \wedge (p \vee \neg q) && \text{by the double negation law} \\
&\equiv (\neg p \wedge p) \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) && \text{by the second distributive law} \\
&\equiv F \vee (\neg p \wedge \neg q) && \text{because } \neg p \wedge p \equiv F \\
&\equiv (\neg p \wedge \neg q) \vee F && \text{by the commutative law} \\
& && \text{for disjunction} \\
&\equiv (\neg p \wedge \neg q) && \text{by the identity law for } \mathbf{F}
\end{aligned}
$$

Equivalence Proofs

Example: Show that $(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (p \vee q)$ is a tautology.

Solution:

Equivalence Proofs

Example: Show that $(p \wedge q) \to (p \vee q)$ is a tautology.

Solution:

$$
\begin{aligned}
(p \wedge q) \to (p \vee q) &\equiv \neg(p \wedge q) \vee (p \vee q) && \text{by truth table for } \to \\
&\equiv (\neg p \vee \neg q) \vee (p \vee q) && \text{by the first De Morgan law} \\
&\equiv (\neg p \vee p) \vee (\neg p \vee \neg q) && \text{by associative and} \\
& && \text{commutative laws} \\
& && \text{laws for disjunction} \\
&\equiv T \vee T && \text{by truth tables} \\
&\equiv T && \text{by the domination law}
\end{aligned}
$$

Propositional Satisfiability

- A compound proposition is *satisfiable* if there is an assignment of truth values to its variables that make it true. When no such assignments exist, the compound proposition is *unsatisfiable*.
- A compound proposition is unsatisfiable if and only if its negation is a tautology.

Questions on Propositional Satisfiability

Example: Determine the satisfiability of the following compound propositions:

$$(p \vee \neg q) \wedge (q \vee \neg r) \wedge (r \vee \neg p)$$

$$(p \vee q \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r)$$

$$(p \vee \neg q) \wedge (q \vee \neg r) \wedge (r \vee \neg p) \wedge (p \vee q \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r)$$

Questions on Propositional Satisfiability

Example: Determine the satisfiability of the following compound propositions:

$$(p \vee \neg q) \wedge (q \vee \neg r) \wedge (r \vee \neg p)$$

Solution: Satisfiable. Assign **T** to *p, q,* and *r*.

$$(p \vee q \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r)$$

Solution: Satisfiable. Assign **T** to *p* and ***F*** to *q*.

$$(p \vee \neg q) \wedge (q \vee \neg r) \wedge (r \vee \neg p) \wedge (p \vee q \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg q \vee \neg r)$$

Solution: Not satisfiable. Check each possible assignment of truth values to the propositional variables and none will make the proposition true.

Satisfiability problem

- First CS problem to be shown NP-Complete
  - Problems that take too much time to solve….
  - Cook 1971
  - Math professor at UC Berkeley – now U Toronto
- Start of the area: Complexity theory
- Many problems now shown NP-Complete

Notation

$$\bigvee_{j=1}^{n} p_j \text{ is used for } p_1 \vee p_2 \vee \ldots \vee p_n$$

$$\bigwedge_{j=1}^{n} p_j \text{ is used for } p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge p_n$$

Needed for the next example.

Sudoku

- A **Sudoku puzzle** is represented by a 9×9 grid made up of nine 3×3 subgrids, known as **blocks**. Some of the 81 cells of the puzzle are assigned one of the numbers 1,2, …, 9.
- The puzzle is solved by assigning numbers to each blank cell so that every row, column and block contains each of the nine possible numbers.
- Example

	2	9				4		
			5			1		
	4							
				4	2			
6							7	
5								
7			3					5
	1			9				
							6	

Encoding as a Satisfiability Problem

- Let $p(i,j,n)$ denote the proposition that is true when the number n is in the cell in the ith row and the jth column.
- There are $9 \times 9 \times 9 = 729$ such propositions.
- In the sample puzzle $p(5,1,6)$ is true, but $p(5,j,6)$ is false for $j = 2,3,\ldots 9$

Encoding (cont)

- For each cell with a given value, assert $p(d,j,n)$, when the cell in row i and column j has the given value.
- Assert that every row contains every number.

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^{9} \bigwedge_{n=1}^{9} \bigvee_{j=1}^{9} p(i,j,n)$$

- Assert that every column contains every number.

$$\bigwedge_{j=1}^{9} \bigwedge_{n=1}^{9} \bigvee_{i=1}^{9} p(i,j,n)$$

Encoding (cont)

- Assert that each of the 3 x 3 blocks contain every number. $\bigwedge_{r=0}^{2} \bigwedge_{s=0}^{2} \bigwedge_{n=1}^{9} \bigwedge_{i=1}^{3} \bigvee_{j=1}^{3} p(3r+i, 3s+j, n)$
- Assert that no cell contains more than one number. Take the conjunction over all values of *n*, *n'*, *i*, and j, where each variable ranges from 1 to 9 and $n \neq n'$, of

$$p(i,j,n) \rightarrow \neg p(i,j,n')$$

Solving Satisfiability Problems

- To solve a Sudoku puzzle, we need to find an assignment of truth values to the 729 variables of the form $p(i,j,n)$ that makes the conjunction of the assertions true. Those variables that are assigned T yield a solution to the puzzle.
- A truth table can always be used to determine the satisfiability of a compound proposition. But this is too complex even for modern computers for large problems.
- There has been much work on developing efficient methods for solving satisfiability problems as many practical problems can be translated into satisfiability problems.

Propositional Logic Not Enough

- If we have:

  "All men are mortal."

  "Socrates is a man."

- Does it follow that "Socrates is mortal?"
- Can't be represented in propositional logic. Need a language that talks about objects, their properties, and their relations.
- Later we'll see how to draw inferences.

Introducing Predicate Logic

- Predicate logic uses the following new features:
  - Variables: x, y, z
  - Predicates: $P(x)$, $M(x)$
  - Quantifiers (*to be covered in a few slides*):
- *Propositional functions* are a generalization of propositions.
  - They contain variables and a predicate, e.g., $P(x)$
  - Variables can be replaced by elements from their *domain*.

Propositional Functions

- Propositional functions become propositions (and have truth values) when their variables are each replaced by a value from the *domain* (or *bound* by a quantifier, as we will see later).
- The statement $P(x)$ is said to be the value of the propositional function P at x.
- For example, let $P(x)$ denote "$x > 0$" and the domain be the integers. Then:

  P(-3) is false.

  P(0) is false.

  P(3) is true.
- Often the domain is denoted by U. So in this example U is the integers.

Examples of Propositional Functions

- Let "$x + y = z$" be denoted by $R(x, y, z)$ and U (for all three variables) be the integers. Find these truth values:

  R(2,-1,5)

  R(3,4,7)

  R(x, 3, z)

- Now let "$x - y = z$" be denoted by $Q(x, y, z)$, with U as the integers. Find these truth values:

  Q(2,-1,3)

  Q(3,4,7)

  Q(x, 3, z)

Examples of Propositional Functions

- Let "$x + y = z$" be denoted by $R(x, y, z)$ and U (for all three variables) be the integers. Find these truth values:

  R(2,-1,5)

  Solution: F

  R(3,4,7)

  Solution: T

  R(x, 3, z)

  Solution: Not a Proposition

- Now let "$x - y = z$" be denoted by $Q(x, y, z)$, with U as the integers. Find these truth values:

  Q(2,-1,3)

  Solution: T

  Q(3,4,7)

  Solution: F

  Q(x, 3, z)

  Solution: Not a Proposition

Compound Expressions

- Connectives from propositional logic carry over to predicate logic.
- If *P(x)* denotes "$x > 0$," find these truth values:

  $P(3) \vee P(-1)$

  $P(3) \wedge P(-1)$

  $P(3) \rightarrow P(-1)$

  $P(3) \rightarrow P(-1)$
- Expressions with variables are not propositions and therefore do not have truth values. For example,

  $P(3) \wedge P(y)$

  $P(x) \rightarrow P(y)$
- When used with quantifiers (to be introduced next), these expressions (propositional functions) become propositions.

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- Connectives from propositional logic carry over to predicate logic.
- If *P(x)* denotes "$x > 0$," find these truth values:

  $P(3) \vee P(-1)$ T

  $P(3) \wedge P(-1)$ F

  $P(3) \rightarrow P(-1)$ F

  $P(3) \rightarrow P(-1)$ T

- Expressions with variables are not propositions and therefore do not have truth values. For example,

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  $P(x) \rightarrow P(y)$

- When used with quantifiers (to be introduced next), these expressions (propositional functions) become propositions.

Quantifiers

Charles Peirce (1839-1914)

- We need *quantifiers* to express the meaning of English words including *all* and *some*:
  - "All men are Mortal."
  - "Some cats do not have fur."
- The two most important quantifiers are:
  - *Universal Quantifier*, "For all," symbol: $\forall$
  - *Existential Quantifier*, "There exists," symbol: $\exists$
- We write as in $\forall x\, P(x)$ and $\exists x\, P(x)$.
- $\forall x\, P(x)$ asserts $P(x)$ is true for <u>every</u> x in the *domain*.
- $\exists x\, P(x)$ asserts $P(x)$ is true for <u>some</u> x in the *domain*.
- The quantifiers are said to bind the variable x in these expressions.

Universal Quantifier

$\forall x\, P(x)$ is read as "For all x, P(x)" or "For every x, P(x)"

Examples:

1) If $P(x)$ denotes "$x > 0$" and U is the integers, then $\forall x\, P(x)$ is false.
2) If $P(x)$ denotes "$x > 0$" and U is the positive integers, then $\forall x\, P(x)$ is true.
3) If $P(x)$ denotes "x is even" and U is the integers, then $\forall\, x\, P(x)$ is false.

Existential Quantifier

- $\exists x\, P(x)$ is read as "For some x, P(x)", or as "There is an x such that P(x)," or "For at least one x, P(x)."

  Examples:

  1. If $P(x)$ denotes "$x > 0$" and U is the integers, then $\exists x\, P(x)$ is true. It is also true if U is the positive integers.
  2. If $P(x)$ denotes "$x < 0$" and U is the positive integers, then $\exists x\, P(x)$ is false.
  3. If $P(x)$ denotes "x is even" and U is the integers, then $\exists x\, P(x)$ is true.

Uniqueness Quantifier

- $\exists! x\, P(x)$ means that $P(x)$ is true for <u>one and only one</u> x in the universe of discourse.
- This is commonly expressed in English in the following equivalent ways:
  - "There is a unique x such that $P(x)$."
  - "There is one and only one x such that $P(x)$"
- Examples:
  1. If $P(x)$ denotes "$x + 1 = 0$" and U is the integers, then $\exists! x\, P(x)$ is true.
  2. But if $P(x)$ denotes "$x > 0$," then $\exists! x\, P(x)$ is false.
- The uniqueness quantifier is not really needed as the restriction that there is a unique x such that $P(x)$ can be expressed as:

$$\exists x\, (P(x) \land \forall y\, (P(y) \rightarrow y = x))$$

Thinking about Quantifiers

- When the domain of discourse is finite, we can think of quantification as looping through the elements of the domain.
- To evaluate $\forall x\, P(x)$ loop through all x in the domain.
  - If at every step $P(x)$ is true, then $\forall x\, P(x)$ is true.
  - If at a step $P(x)$ is false, then $\forall x\, P(x)$ is false and the loop terminates.
- To evaluate $\exists x\, P(x)$ loop through all x in the domain.
  - If at some step, $P(x)$ is true, then $\exists x\, P(x)$ is true and the loop terminates.
  - If the loop ends without finding an x for which $P(x)$ is true, then $\exists x\, P(x)$ is false.
- Even if the domains are infinite, we can still think of the quantifiers this fashion, but the loops will not terminate in some cases.

Properties of Quantifiers

- The truth value of $\exists x\, P(x)$ and $\forall x\, P(x)$ depend on both the propositional function $P(x)$ and on the domain U.
- **Examples**:
  1. If U is the positive integers and $P(x)$ is the statement "$x < 2$", then $\exists x\, P(x)$ is true, but $\forall x\, P(x)$ is false.
  2. If U is the negative integers and $P(x)$ is the statement "$x < 2$", then both $\exists x\, P(x)$ and $\forall x\, P(x)$ are true.
  3. If U consists of 3, 4, and 5, and $P(x)$ is the statement "$x > 2$", then both $\exists x\, P(x)$ and $\forall x\, P(x)$ are true. But if $P(x)$ is the statement "$x < 2$", then both $\exists x\, P(x)$ and $\forall x\, P(x)$ are false.

Precedence of Quantifiers

- The quantifiers $\forall$ and $\exists$ have higher precedence than all the logical operators.
- For example, $\forall x\, P(x) \lor Q(x)$ means $(\forall x\, P(x)) \lor Q(x)$
- $\forall x\, (P(x) \lor Q(x))$ means something different.
- Unfortunately, often people write $\forall x\, P(x) \lor Q(x)$ when they mean $\forall x\, (P(x) \lor Q(x))$.

Translating from English to Logic

Example 1: Translate the following sentence into predicate logic: "Every student in this class has taken a course in Java."

Solution:

First decide on the domain *U*.

Solution 1: If *U* is all students in this class, define a propositional function J(x) denoting "x has taken a course in Java" and translate as $\forall x\, J(x)$.

Solution 2: But if *U* is all people, also define a propositional function S(x) denoting "x is a student in this class" and translate as $\forall x\, (S(x) \rightarrow J(x))$.

$\forall x\, (S(x) \wedge J(x))$ is not correct. What does it mean?

Translating from English to Logic

Example 2: Translate the following sentence into predicate logic: "Some student in this class has taken a course in Java."

Solution:

First decide on the domain *U*.

Solution 1: If *U* is all students in this class, translate as

$$\exists x\, J(x)$$

Solution 1: But if *U* is all people, then translate as

$$\exists x\, (S(x) \wedge J(x))$$

$\exists x\, (S(x) \rightarrow J(x))$ is not correct. What does it mean?

Returning to the Socrates Example

- Introduce the propositional functions *Man(x)* denoting "*x* is a man" and *Mortal(x)* denoting "*x* is mortal." Specify the domain as all people.
- The two premises are: $\forall x Man(x) \rightarrow Mortal(x)$

  $Man(Socrates)$
- The conclusion is: $Mortal(Socrates)$

Equivalences in Predicate Logic

- Statements involving predicates and quantifiers are *logically equivalent* if and only if they have the same truth value
  - for every predicate substituted into these statements and
  - for every domain of discourse used for the variables in the expressions.
- The notation $S \equiv T$ indicates that S and T are logically equivalent.
- **Example**: $\forall x \neg\neg S(x) \equiv \forall x\, S(x)$

Thinking about Quantifiers as Conjunctions and Disjunctions

- If the domain is finite, a universally quantified proposition is equivalent to a conjunction of propositions without quantifiers and an existentially quantified proposition is equivalent to a disjunction of propositions without quantifiers.
- If *U* consists of the integers 1,2, and 3:

$$\forall x P(x) \equiv P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge P(3)$$

$$\exists x P(x) \equiv P(1) \vee P(2) \vee P(3)$$

- Even if the domains are infinite, you can still think of the quantifiers in this fashion, but the equivalent expressions without quantifiers will be infinitely long.

Negating Quantified Expressions

- Consider $\forall x\, J(x)$

  "Every student in your class has taken a course in Java."

  Here $J(x)$ is "x has taken a course in calculus" and

  the domain is students in your class.
- Negating the original statement gives "It is not the case that every student in your class has taken Java." This implies that "There is a student in your class who has not taken calculus."

  Symbolically $\neg\forall x\, J(x)$ and $\exists x\, \neg J(x)$ are equivalent

Negating Quantified Expressions (*continued*)

- Now Consider $\exists x\, J(x)$

  "There is a student in this class who has taken a course in Java."

  Where $J(x)$ is "x has taken a course in Java."

- Negating the original statement gives "It is not the case that there is a student in this class who has taken Java." This implies that "Every student in this class has not taken Java"

  Symbolically $\neg\exists x\, J(x)$ and $\forall x\, \neg J(x)$ are equivalent

De Morgan's Laws for Quantifiers

- The rules for negating quantifiers are:

TABLE 2 **De Morgan's Laws for Quantifiers.**

Negation	*Equivalent Statement*	*When Is Negation True?*	*When False?*
$\neg \exists x P(x)$	$\forall x \neg P(x)$	For every x, $P(x)$ is false.	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is true.
$\neg \forall x P(x)$	$\exists x \neg P(x)$	There is an x for which $P(x)$ is false.	$P(x)$ is true for every x.

- The reasoning in the table shows that:

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

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

- These are important. You will use these.

Some Fun with Translating from English into Logical Expressions

- U = {fleegles, snurds, thingamabobs}

  $F(x)$: x is a fleegle

  $S(x)$: x is a snurd

  $T(x)$: x is a thingamabob

Translate “Everything is a fleegle”

Solution: $\forall x\, F(x)$

Translation (cont)

- U = {fleegles, snurds, thingamabobs}

  $F(x)$: x is a fleegle

  $S(x)$: x is a snurd

  $T(x)$: x is a thingamabob

"Nothing is a snurd."

Solution: $\neg\exists x\, S(x)$ What is this equivalent to?

Solution: $\forall x \neg S(x)$

Translation (cont)

- U = {fleegles, snurds, thingamabobs}

  $F(x)$: x is a fleegle

  $S(x)$: x is a snurd

  $T(x)$: x is a thingamabob

“All fleegles are snurds.”

Solution: $\forall x\,(F(x) \rightarrow S(x))$

Translation (cont)

- U = {fleegles, snurds, thingamabobs}

  $F(x)$: x is a fleegle

  $S(x)$: x is a snurd

  $T(x)$: x is a thingamabob

"Some fleegles are thingamabobs."

Solution: $\exists x\ (F(x) \land T(x))$

Translation (cont)

- U = {fleegles, snurds, thingamabobs}

$F(x)$: x is a fleegle

$S(x)$: x is a snurd

$T(x)$: x is a thingamabob

"No snurd is a thingamabob."

Solution: $\neg\exists x\,(S(x) \wedge T(x))$ What is this equivalent to?

Solution: $\forall x\,(\neg S(x) \vee \neg T(x))$

Translation (cont)

- U = {fleegles, snurds, thingamabobs}

  $F(x)$: x is a fleegle

  $S(x)$: x is a snurd

  $T(x)$: x is a thingamabob

"If any fleegle is a snurd then it is also a thingamabob."

Solution: $\forall x\,((F(x) \wedge S(x)) \rightarrow T(x))$