

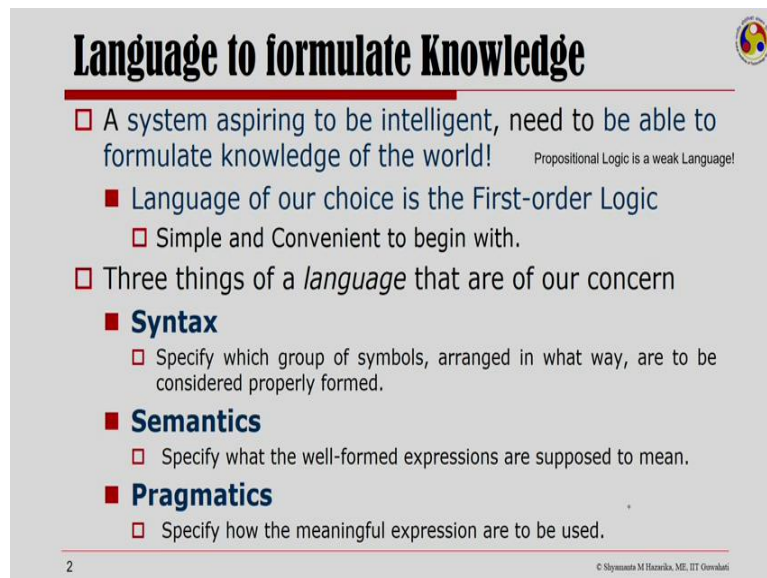
Fundamentals Of Artificial Intelligence
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Lecture – 12
First Order Logic -I

Welcome to fundamentals of artificial intelligence. We are looking at knowledge representation and reasoning. And, in the last class we have discussed propositional logic. Propositional logic deals with preposition, complete statements used as a whole. The truth values and logical reasoning involving these propositions, propositional logic commits only to the existence of facts.

The wall being represented may not be so; we have objects their properties, relationship between objects and generalization those are to be dealt with. Therefore language which is more expressive than propositional logic is required. Today we will look at first order logic also called predicate logic for first order predicate calculus. A language co-opted by the artificial intelligence community for knowledge representation purposes.

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Language to formulate Knowledge

- A system aspiring to be intelligent, need to be able to formulate knowledge of the world! Propositional Logic is a weak Language!
 - Language of our choice is the First-order Logic
 - Simple and Convenient to begin with.
- Three things of a *language* that are of our concern
 - **Syntax**
 - Specify which group of symbols, arranged in what way, are to be considered properly formed.
 - **Semantics**
 - Specify what the well-formed expressions are supposed to mean.
 - **Pragmatics**
 - Specify how the meaningful expression are to be used.

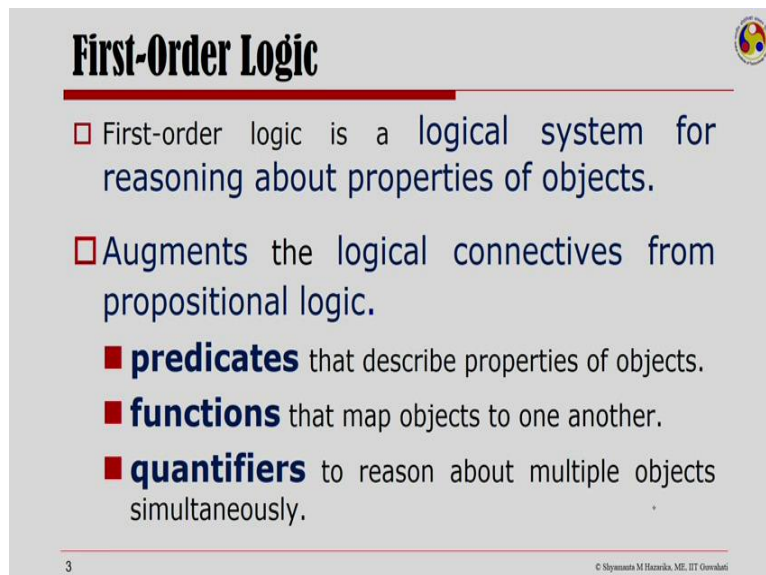
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A machine aspires to be intelligent to somehow formalize the knowledge of the world in which it in habits language for this is the first order logic. The first order logic is our language of choice because it is simple and convenient to begin with and we have seen that propositional logic is a weak language. Any, language that needs to formulate knowledge of the world need to deal with three things that are of our concern here.

Number one, syntax; we need to specify which group of symbols arrange in what way are to be considered legal or well-formed expressions within the language. The next is semantics which is about associating meaning to these well formed expressions and then we have pragmatics, which is specifying how the meaningful expressions are to be used. Now Syntax and semantics is easy to understand.

Let us take an example to understand pragmatics. In English the statement there is someone behind you would be a warning or a request. And depending on the scenario one would become cautious or one would make way. Similarly in the knowledge representation and reasoning when we say pragmatics, We are interested in figuring out how to use the meaningful sentences as part of a knowledge base from which inferences are to be drawn?

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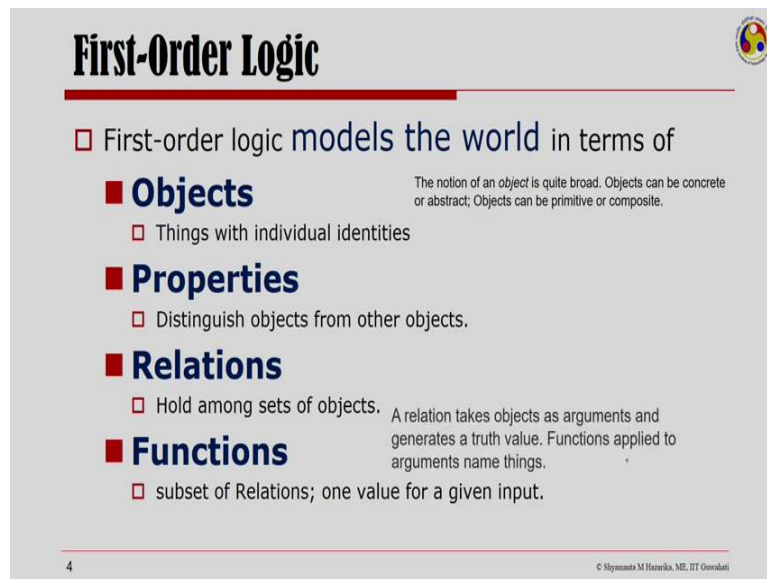
First-Order Logic

- First-order logic is a logical system for reasoning about properties of objects.
- Augments the logical connectives from propositional logic.
 - **predicates** that describe properties of objects.
 - **functions** that map objects to one another.
 - **quantifiers** to reason about multiple objects simultaneously.

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First order logic is a logical system for reasoning about properties of objects. First order logic actually arguments propositional logic. And it has a predicate that describes properties of objects, functions that maps object to another object, quantifiers to rigid about multiple objects simultaneously. It is this quantifier that makes first order logic more expressive than propositional logic.

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First-Order Logic

- First-order logic models the world in terms of
 - **Objects**
The notion of an object is quite broad. Objects can be concrete or abstract; Objects can be primitive or composite.
 - Things with individual identities
 - **Properties**
 - Distinguish objects from other objects.
 - **Relations**
 - Hold among sets of objects.
 - **Functions**
A relation takes objects as arguments and generates a truth value. Functions applied to arguments name things.
 - subset of Relations; one value for a given input.

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First order logic models the world in terms of objects which are things with individual identities? It is important to realise that concept of object is very broad objects can be as concrete as a person or as abstract as the notion of justice. Objects can be primitive or composite such as an electric circuit being made up of smaller circuits. Then we have properties which distinguish objects from other objects relations define between set of objects and function which is a subset of relation is returning a value for a given input.

Now a relation takes objects as arguments and generated truth value whereas functions are applied to arguments and then the name things. We will come back to this when we are talking of converting English to first order languages. Let us now look at propositional logic and try to understand, what is it that makes first order logic difference?.

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Propositional Logic

- Each variable represents a proposition, which is either true or false.
- Directly apply connectives to propositions:
 - $\neg P \wedge Q$
 - $P \rightarrow Q$
- The truth of a statement can be determined from the truth values for the input propositions.
 - Can see all possible truth values for a statement by checking all possible truth assignments to its variables.

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In propositional logic each variable represents a proposition which is either true or false. And we apply connectives to prepositions directly. The truth of a statement in propositional logic can be determined from the truth values for the input propositions. That is, one can see all possible truth values for a statement by checking all possible truth assignment to its variables.

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First-Order Logic

- Each variable refers to some object in a set called the **domain of discourse**.
- First-order variables refer to arbitrary objects, it **does not make sense** to directly apply connectives to them:
- To reason about objects, first-order logic uses **predicates**.
 - In English, the predicate is the part of the sentence that tells you something about the subject.

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On the contrary each variable in first order logic refers to some object in a set called the domain of discourse. The first order variable actually refers to arbitrary objects. And it makes no sense to apply connectives directly to them. Infact first order logic uses predicates to region about objects like in English the predicate is part of the sentence that tells you something about the subject.

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Predicate

Definition: A **predicate** is a property that a variable or a finite collection of variables can have.

- Predicates can take any number of arguments, but each predicate has a fixed number of arguments called its arity.
 - $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is a predicate of n variables or n arguments.
- A predicate becomes a proposition when specific values are assigned to the variables.
 - Applying a predicate to arguments produces a proposition, which is either true or false.

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Here, in first order logic a predicate is a property that a variable or a finite collection of variables can have. Predicates can take any number of arguments and each predicate but must have a fixed number of arguments called its arity. Here the predicate $p x_1$ to x_n is a predicate of n variables or n arguments. A predicate becomes a proposition when specific values are assigned to the variables.

That is when I apply a predicate two arguments it produces a proposition. Which is either true or false?

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Predicate

- Example
 - She is a student at IIT Guwahati.
We could have a predicate
 $P(x, \text{IIT})$ - 'x' is a student at IIT Guwahati.
OR
 $P(x, y)$ - 'x' is a student at 'y'.
 - He lives in the city.
We could have a predicate
 $P(x, y)$ - 'x' lives in 'y'.
Note that $P(\text{Mohan}, \text{Guwahati})$ is a proposition!

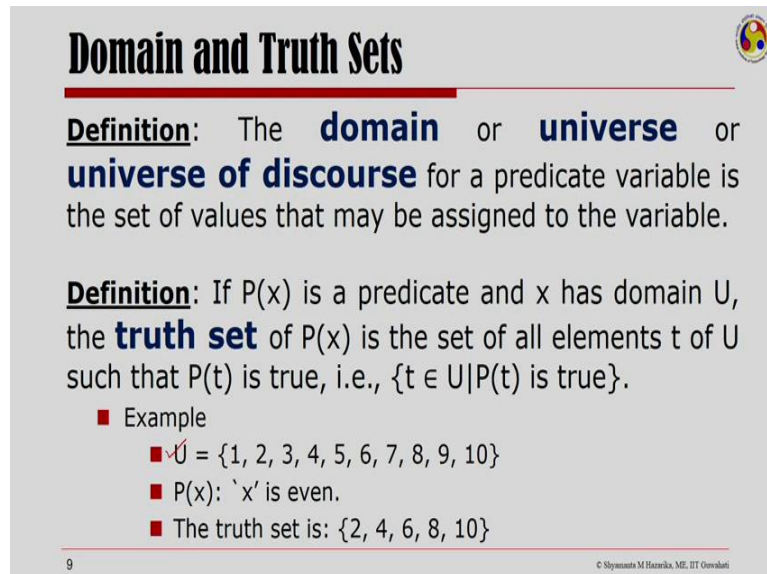
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Let us look at a couple of predicate to understand the same here is an English statement saying she is a student at IIT Guwahati, we could have a pretty $P x, \text{IIT}$ to mean x is a

student at IIT Guwahati in which case this x is the only variable that specifies it is a student at IIT Guwahati. We could also have a predicate $p(x, y)$ to say that x is a student at y . Here is another example, he lives in the city we could have a predicate $p(x, y)$ to state x lives in y .

Now if I instantiate x to Mohan and y to Guwahati then here I have $p(\text{Mohan}, \text{Guwahati})$ which is a proposition to mean Mohan lives in Guwahati.

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Domain and Truth Sets

Definition: The **domain** or **universe** or **universe of discourse** for a predicate variable is the set of values that may be assigned to the variable.

Definition: If $P(x)$ is a predicate and x has domain U , the **truth set** of $P(x)$ is the set of all elements t of U such that $P(t)$ is true, i.e., $\{t \in U \mid P(t) \text{ is true}\}$.

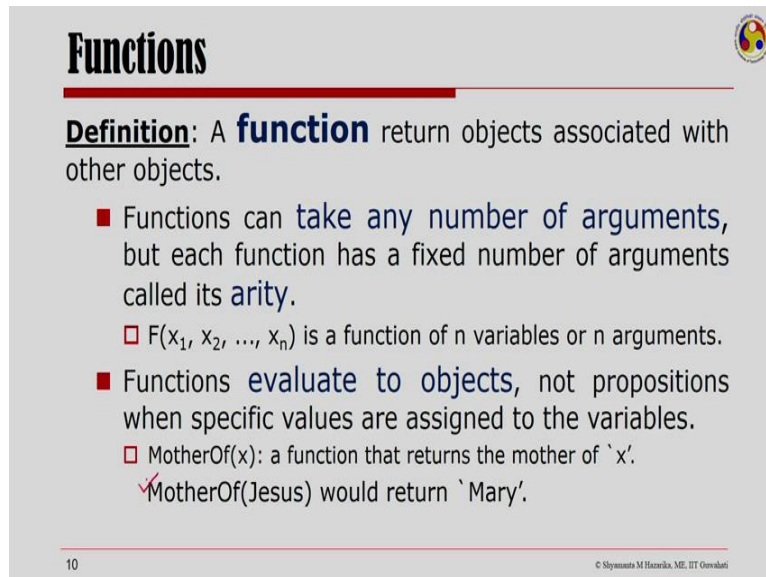
■ Example

- $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$
- $P(x)$: ' x ' is even.
- The truth set is: $\{2, 4, 6, 8, 10\}$

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The domain or universe or universe of discourse for a predicate variable is the set of values that may be assigned to the variable. And the truth set of a predicate given a domain U is the set of all elements of you such that the predicate Pt is true. Let us try to understand this with an example here. Here, I have a domain U which is the first 10 integers 1 to 10, I have a predicate P of x which is saying x is given. Given the predicate Px the truth set is there for the set of even integers which is 2 4 6 8 and 10.

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Functions

Definition: A **function** return objects associated with other objects.

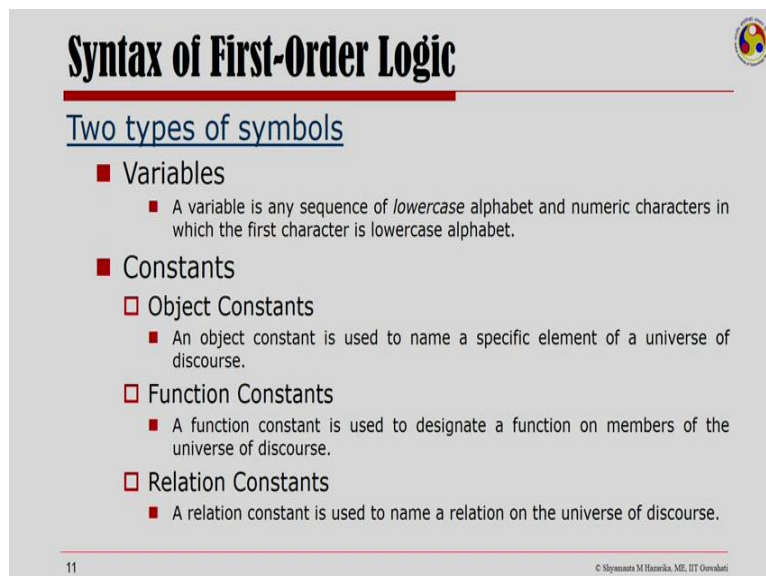
- Functions can take any number of arguments, but each function has a fixed number of arguments called its **arity**.
 - $F(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is a function of n variables or n arguments.
- Functions **evaluate to objects**, not propositions when specific values are assigned to the variables.
 - $\text{MotherOf}(x)$: a function that returns the mother of `x`.
 - ✓ $\text{MotherOf}(\text{Jesus})$ would return `Mary`.

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Now let us look at what we mean by function in first order logic. A function return objects associated with other objects. Functions can take any number of arguments but each function would have a fixed number of arguments called its airty. Here I have a function of n variables of n arguments. Unlike predicates that evaluate into prepositions functions evaluate to objects when specific values are assigned to the variable.

Let us say I have a function mother of x with the meaning that it returns the mother of the variable x . Under a common interpretation we should not be very difficult to see if it is a mother of Jesus that would return only Mary.

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Syntax of First-Order Logic

Two types of symbols

- Variables
 - A variable is any sequence of *lowercase* alphabet and numeric characters in which the first character is lowercase alphabet.
- Constants
 - Object Constants
 - An object constant is used to name a specific element of a universe of discourse.
 - Function Constants
 - A function constant is used to designate a function on members of the universe of discourse.
 - Relation Constants
 - A relation constant is used to name a relation on the universe of discourse.

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Let us quickly look at what are the types of symbols we have in first order logic. First order logic has two types of symbols as you may have made from our previous discussion. One, it is variable, a variable is any sequence of lowercase alphabet and numeric character in which the first character is lowercase alphabet. Then we have constants. We are three types of constant symbols in first order logic.

One the object constant; the object constant is used to name a specific element of a Universe of discourse. We have the function constant, which is used to designate a function on members of the Universe of discourse. And we have a relation constant which is used to name a relation on the Universe of discourse. Having introduced a couple of concept from first order logic, let us now look at what the first order logic provides and what the user provides in order to understand a first order logic representation.

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Syntax of First-Order Logic

FOL Provides	User Provides
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Variable symbols <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ E.g., x, y, foo ■ Connectives <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Same as in PL: ■ $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$ ■ Quantifiers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Universal $\forall x$ ■ Existential $\exists x$ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Constant symbols <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Mary ■ Green ■ Function symbols <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ father-of(Mary) = John ■ color-of(Sky) = Blue ■ Predicate symbols <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ greater(5,3) ■ color(Grass, Green)

A predicate becomes a proposition when specific values are assigned to the variables

Functions evaluate to objects, not propositions when specific values are assigned to the variables

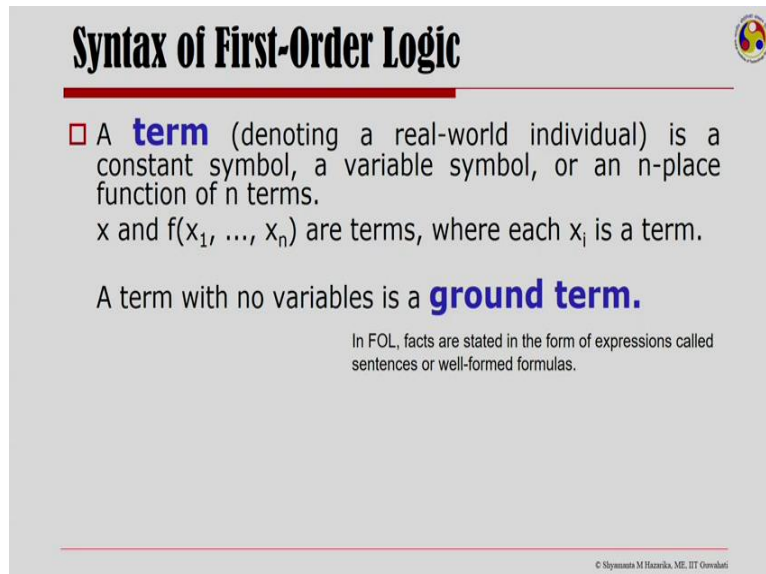
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The first order logic provides variable symbols it provides connectives. Same as in propositional logic it provides the quantifiers the universal and existential quantifier. The user provides constant symbols meaning of which is clear under certain interpretation. The user provides functions symbols and these functions if you remember evaluate to objects when the specific values are assigned to the variable.

Like here, I could say father of Mary and it could evaluate to John or I could have a function symbol like colour of the variable being sky and it should return an object blue. The user also provides predicate symbols the predicate symbols when instantiated evaluates to a proposition. So, we can have predicates like greater x, y and then if I have 5 and 3, then this

becomes a proposition greater 5, 3. Here I have a predicate called colour x, y, x is y in colour that I could write things like grass is green because grass is green in colour.

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Syntax of First-Order Logic

- A **term** (denoting a real-world individual) is a constant symbol, a variable symbol, or an n-place function of n terms.
x and $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ are terms, where each x_i is a term.

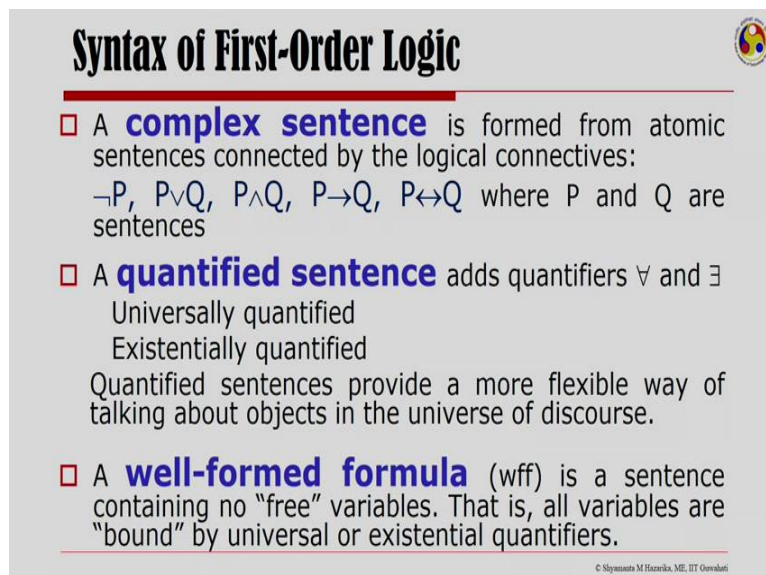
A term with no variables is a **ground term**.

In FOL, facts are stated in the form of expressions called sentences or well-formed formulas.

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So a term in first order logic is a constant symbol, a variable symbol or an n-place function of n terms. A term with no variables is a ground term. In first order logic facts are stated in form of expressions call sentences for well formed formulas. Of this, the atomic sentence is an n-place predicate of n terms.

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Syntax of First-Order Logic

- A **complex sentence** is formed from atomic sentences connected by the logical connectives:
 $\neg P, P \vee Q, P \wedge Q, P \rightarrow Q, P \leftrightarrow Q$ where P and Q are sentences
- A **quantified sentence** adds quantifiers \forall and \exists
Universally quantified
Existentially quantified
Quantified sentences provide a more flexible way of talking about objects in the universe of discourse.
- A **well-formed formula** (wff) is a sentence containing no "free" variables. That is, all variables are "bound" by universal or existential quantifiers.

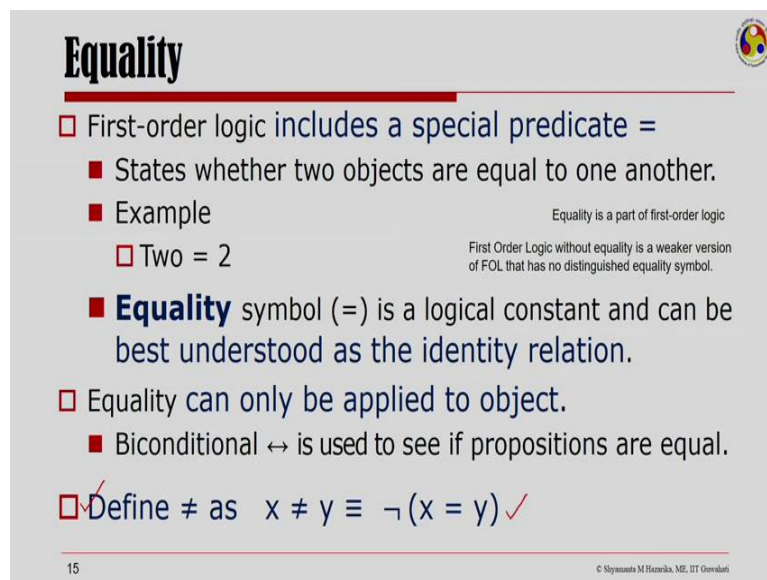
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A complex sentence is formed from atomic sentences when they are connected by the logical connectives. So, we have sentences p and q, and we could generate not of p, p or q, p and q, p implies q, if and only if q. Quantified sentence as quantifiers for all and there exist the

universally quantified sentence and the existential quantifier sentence, quantified sentences providing more flexible way of talking about objects in the Universe of discourse.

Find me a well formed formula in first order logic is a sentence containing no free variable that is all variables are bound by universal or existential quantifiers.

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Equality

- First-order logic includes a special predicate =
 - States whether two objects are equal to one another.
 - Example
 - Two = 2
 - **Equality** symbol (=) is a logical constant and can be best understood as the identity relation.
- Equality can only be applied to object.
 - Biconditional \leftrightarrow is used to see if propositions are equal.
- Define \neq as $x \neq y \equiv \neg(x = y)$

Equality is a part of first-order logic
First Order Logic without equality is a weaker version of FOL that has no distinguished equality symbol.

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Let us now quickly look at a very special predicate in first order logic that is the predicate of equality. The predicate of equality state whether two objects are equal to one another. Example here could be I could have an object two and object 2. And I could say two is equal to 2. Equality symbol is a logical constant and can be best understood as the identity relation. First order logic without equality is also possible but its weaker version of first order logic that has no distinguished equality symbol.

Equality can only be applied to objects. If I am talking of propositions then I need to use by conditional. So, not equal to given the equality symbol could be defined as negation of x equal to y. Let us the quantifiers more closely.

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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.
 - Turn predicates into propositions by assigning values to all variables:
 - ✓ Predicate $P(x)$: x is even.
 - Proposition $P(6)$: 6 is even.
 - The other way to turn a predicate into a proposition:
 - Add a quantifier like "All" or "Some" that indicates the number of values for which the predicate is true.

A formula that contains variables is not simply true or false unless each of these variables is **bound** by a quantifier

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The biggest change from propositional logic to first order logic is the use of quantifiers. It is the quantifiers that make first order logic more expressive than propositional logic. And a quantifier is a statement that expresses that some property is true for some or all of the choices that could be made. So, it turns predicates into propositions by assigning values to all the variables. So here is a predicate P of x to mean x is even any five instantiate x to 6 then I have a proposition P of 6, 6 is an even number.

The other way to turn a predicate into a proposition is to add a quantifier like all or some, that indicates the number of values for which the predicate is true. A formula that contains variables is not simply true or false unless each of these variables is bound by a quantifier. And that is what these quantifiers are used for.

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The Universal Quantifier

Definition: The symbol \forall is the **universal quantifier**.

- The universal quantification of $P(x)$ is the statement $P(x)$ for all values x in the universe, which is written in logical notation as:
$$\forall x P(x) \text{ or sometimes } \forall x \in D, P(x).$$
- A statement of the form $\forall x P(x)$ asserts that for every choice of x in our domain, $P(x)$ is true.
 - Example: All professors are people.
$$\forall x (\text{Professor}(x) \rightarrow \text{People}(x))$$

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We will first look at the universal quantifier. the symbol for all is the universal quantifier. The universal quantification of Px means x for all values of x in the universe which in the logical notation could be written as for all x Px or sometimes for all x in the D is the domain of this course P of x . A statement of the form for all x Px asserts that for every choice of x in our domain system Px is true.

For example, we could say all professors are people by saying for all x if x is a professor then ht is a people.

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The Universal Quantifier

Definition: The **counterexample** for $\forall x P(x)$ is any $t \in U$, where U is the domain of discourse, such that $P(t)$ is false.

- Example
 $\forall x,y,z \text{ sum}(x,y,z): \text{ `z' is the sum of `x' and `y'}$
For $U = \text{non-negative integers}$.

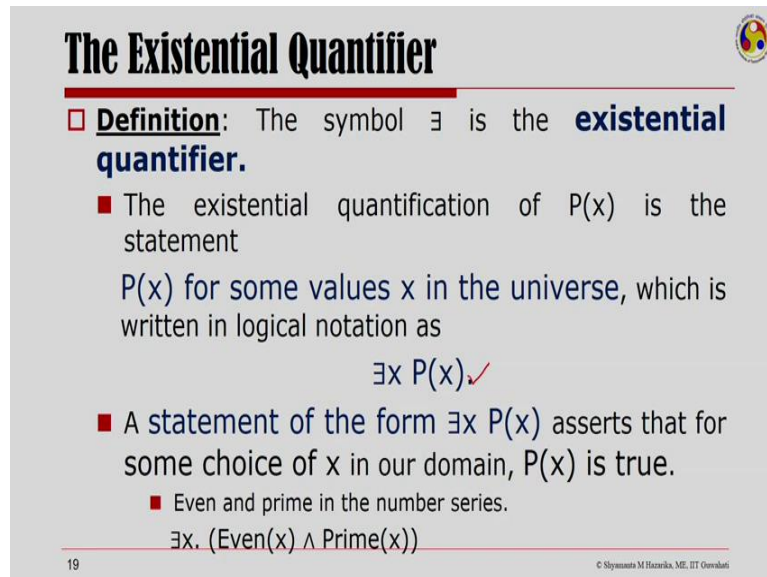
Proposition $\text{sum}(1,7,8)$ is true.
 $\text{sum}(5,1,8)$ is false.

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The counter example for all x Px is any t in the domain of discourse? Such that P of t , is false. Let us look at this example to understand what we mean by the counter example for all x Px .

For all x, y, z let some x, y, z refer to z sum of x and y . Now if I think the Universe of discourse as the non-negative integers proposition $1, 7, 8$ is true, where $5, 1, 8$ is false.

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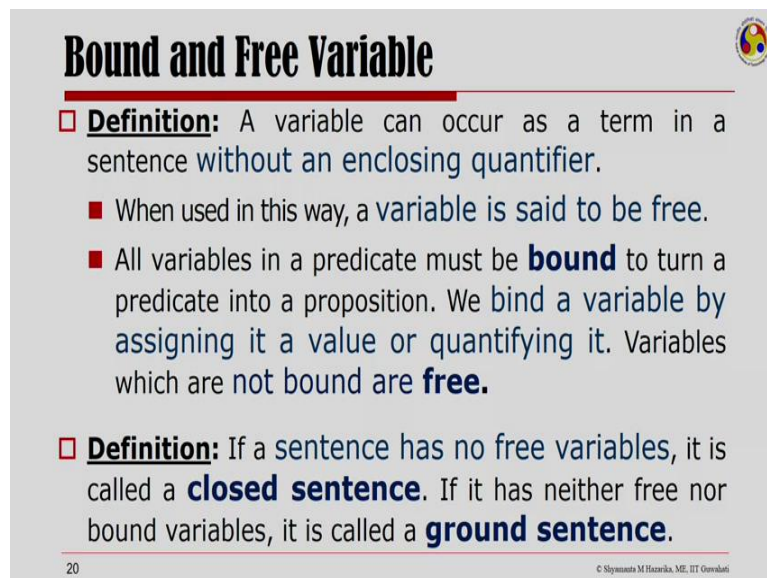
The Existential Quantifier

- **Definition:** The symbol \exists is the **existential quantifier**.
 - The existential quantification of $P(x)$ is the statement $P(x)$ for some values x in the universe, which is written in logical notation as $\exists x P(x)$ ✓
 - A statement of the form $\exists x P(x)$ asserts that for some choice of x in our domain, $P(x)$ is true.
 - Even and prime in the number series.
 $\exists x. (\text{Even}(x) \wedge \text{Prime}(x))$

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So, let us now look at the existential quantifier the symbol there exist is existential quantifier. The existential quantification of P of x is the statement that P of x for some value of x in the universe which is written as there exist $x P$ of x . A statement of the form there exist $x P$ of x asserts that for some choice of x in our domain P of x is true. For example, we could say even and prime in the numbers that the number 2 because there exist even x and prime x . There exist a number which is even and prime.

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Bound and Free Variable

- **Definition:** A variable can occur as a term in a sentence without an enclosing quantifier.
 - When used in this way, a variable is said to be free.
 - All variables in a predicate must be **bound** to turn a predicate into a proposition. We bind a variable by assigning it a value or quantifying it. Variables which are not bound are **free**.
- **Definition:** If a sentence has no free variables, it is called a **closed sentence**. If it has neither free nor bound variables, it is called a **ground sentence**.

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A variable can occur as a term in a sentence without an enclosing quantifier. When use in this way, the variable is said to be free. All variables in a predicate must be bound to turn a

predicate into a preposition. We bind a variable by assigning it value for quantifying it. Variable which are not bound are called free variables. If sentences has no free variable it is called the close sentence if it is neither free not bound variables is called the ground sentence.

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Translating Into First-Order Logic

1. All students are smart.

A universal quantification is a type of quantifier, a logical constant which is interpreted as "given any" or "for all"

Incorrect Translation

$\forall x (\text{Student}(x) \wedge \text{Smart}(x))$

This should work for any choice of x, including things that aren't students.

■ Although the original statement is true, this logical statement is false. It's therefore not a correct translation.

Correct Translation

$\forall x (\text{Student}(x) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(x))$

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So let us now look at translating a couple of English statements to first order logic. Here is our first example? All students are smart a Universal quantifier needs to be used here because we are talking of all the students. But then if we write for all x student x and smart x, this is an incorrect translation. This is because our translation should work for any choice of x including things that are not student.

If we take certain x which is not a student this statement fails. Although the original statement is true this logical statement will be false is definitely not a correct translation. A correct translation would be for all x if x is a student then he is smart. One needs to remember that a Universal quantification is a type of quantifier logical constant which is to be interpreted as given any or for all and this statement will work for any x.

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Translating Into First-Order Logic

2. There is a student who is smart.

Incorrect Translation

$\exists x (\text{Student}(x) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(x))$

- Under an interpretation that the original statement is false; this logical statement is true. It's therefore not a correct translation.

Correct Translation

$\exists x (\text{Student}(x) \wedge \text{Smart}(x))$

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Let us take another example and here we are saying there is a student who is smart. Now we are talking of existence of and therefore. One thing is clear that we would be using and existential quantifier. But if you say there is a student x that would mean that he smart this should be an incorrect translation. The original statement is false whereas is this logical statement for any interpretation that I take where is not tested would become true therefore it not a correct translation. A correct translation would be there exists an x student x and smart x.

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Translating Into First-Order Logic

□ All P's are Q's

translates as

✓ $\forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$

- \forall quantifier usually is paired with \rightarrow
- In the case of \forall , the \rightarrow connective prevents the statement from being false when speaking about some object you don't care about.

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Two things that have come to focus in this examples is number one if statement that says all P's are Q's . Then the translation should be for all x if P x then Q x. If I have statement that says some P's are Q's then I need to translate it as there exist x, Px and Qx. So, when I look

at this statement all P's are Q's this for all quantifier. I need to remember is usually to be paired with an implies. In case of the fall quantifier the implication connective prevent the statement from being false when speaking about some object you do not care about.

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Translating Into First-Order Logic

- Some P's are Q's
translates as
 $\exists x (P(x) \wedge Q(x))$
- \exists quantifier usually is paired with \wedge
- In the case of \exists , the \wedge connective prevents the statement from being true when speaking about some object you don't care about.

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Whereas when you are talking about the existential quantifier, the existential quantifier is to be paired with a conjunction. In case of the existential quantifier, the And connective prevents the statement from being true when speaking about some object you do not care about. And this is something that is a Pitfall on conversion of English to first order logic that needs to be avoided.

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De Morgan's Laws for Quantifiers

- $\neg \forall x P(x) \equiv \exists x \neg P(x)$
 - If $\neg \forall x P(x)$, then $P(x)$ is not true for every x ,
 - For some value a , $P(a)$ is not true. This means that $\neg P(a)$ is true.
 - Since $\neg P(a)$ is true, it is certainly the case that there is some value of x that makes $\neg P(x)$ true.
 - $\exists x \neg P(x)$ is true.
- $\neg \exists x P(x) \equiv \forall x \neg P(x)$

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Now let us quickly look at De Morgan's laws for quantifiers. The first one states that not for all $x P(x)$ is equivalent to there exist not of $P(x)$. Now, how do you go about checking this let us

argue it out. If not of all x Px , then we could see that Px is not true for every x . When Px is not true for every x I will have some value a where Pa is not true. What this would mean is that $\text{not } Pa$ is true. If $\text{not } Pa$ is true.

It is certainly the case that there is some value of x that makes $\text{not } Px$ true. And that is what has been written that there is an x where $\text{not } Px$ is true. We can proceed along the similar lines and argue that $\text{not } \exists x Px$ is equivalent to $\forall x \text{not } Px$.

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Nesting Quantifiers

- For predicate $P(x,y)$:
 - Switching the order of universal quantifiers *does not* change the meaning

$$\forall x \forall y P(x,y) \leftrightarrow \forall y \forall x P(x,y).$$
 - Similarly, one can switch the order of existential quantifiers

$$\exists x \exists y P(x,y) \leftrightarrow \exists y \exists x P(x,y).$$
- Can not interchange the position of \forall and \exists like this!

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Now let us look at the vital point in first order logic that is about nesting quantifiers. For predicate Px switching the order of universal quantifier does not change the meaning. If I have a statement like for all x for x all y p of x y I could very well write it as for all y for all x P of x y . Similarly one can switch the order of existential quantifiers like there exist x there exist y P x , y this would be the same as there exist y there exists x P of x , y so I could switch this for all x for all y .

And I would still have the same meaning. Similarly I could switch the existential quantifier and I could have the same meaning. But one needs to remember that one cannot interchange the position of for all and there exist like this.

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Combining Quantifiers

3. Everyone loves someone else ✓

Correct Translation

$\forall x \exists y \text{ Loves}(x,y)$ ✓✓

Person(x) : 'x' is a Person.
Loves(x,y): 'x' loves 'y'.

Different from him

$\forall x (\text{Person}(x) \rightarrow \exists y (\text{Person}(y) \wedge x \neq y \wedge \text{Loves}(x,y)))$

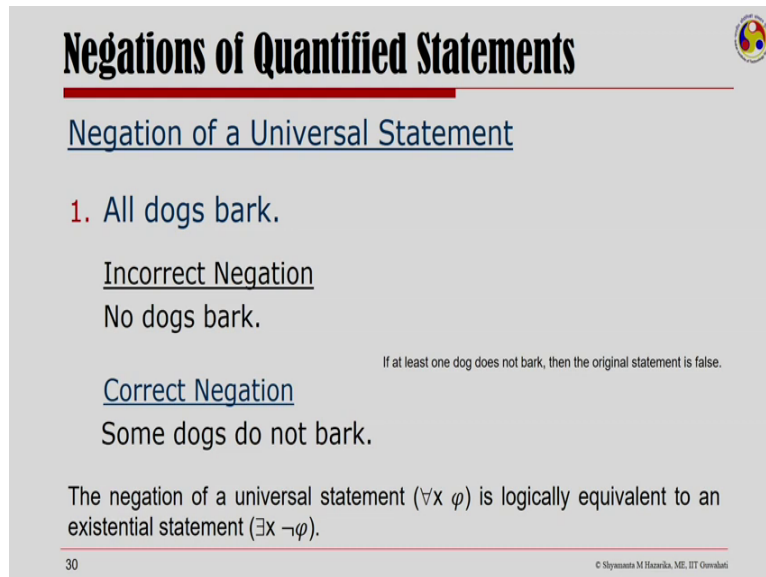
For EVERY person There is SOMEONE They LOVE

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So, let us look at an example and try to understand them. Here is a 3rd English statement which says everyone loves someone else. In the statement we can make out that the correct translation would be if I was just saying everyone loves someone it will be that I would for all x to mean everyone and there exist a y to mean there is someone and x loves y here in order to take the fact into consideration that we are saying love someone else I will have to include a statement to somewhere. We says that x and y are not the same ones.

So I take person x to mean x is a person. I take a predicate loves x, y to mean x loves y and then I could write a statement here like this that for all x if x is a person. It imply that there is a y. Where y is a person and x is not equal to y and x loves y so here in this statement I would have for every person I would have someone who is different from him and they love each other, now here the order of the quantifiers is Universal first followed by existential.

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Negations of Quantified Statements

Negation of a Universal Statement

1. All dogs bark.

Incorrect Negation
No dogs bark.

Correct Negation
Some dogs do not bark.

If at least one dog does not bark, then the original statement is false.

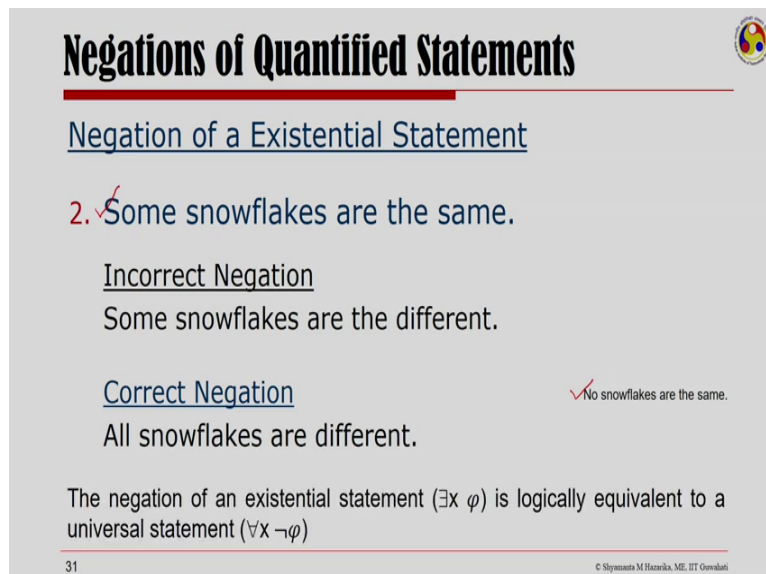
The negation of a universal statement ($\forall x \varphi$) is logically equivalent to an existential statement ($\exists x \neg\varphi$).

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Now let us look at how we negate quantify sentences. So, first we look at negation of universal statement. If I give you a statement like all dogs bark, and I want you to negative it. The immediate statement that comes to mind is no dog bark but that is an incorrect negation. The correct navigation for this statement would be that there is some dogs that do not bark. All dogs bark if at least one dog does not bark then the original statement is false.

And therefore the negation would be that some dogs do not bark. We do not all the dogs not to bark. The negation of a Universal statement is logically equivalent to an existential statement with only the Phi being replaced by not Phi. So, here we have all dogs bark we replaced by saying some dogs do not bark.

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Negations of Quantified Statements

Negation of an Existential Statement

2. ✓ Some snowflakes are the same.

Incorrect Negation
Some snowflakes are the different.

Correct Negation
All snowflakes are different.

✓ No snowflakes are the same.

The negation of an existential statement ($\exists x \varphi$) is logically equivalent to a universal statement ($\forall x \neg\varphi$).

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Now let us look at negation of an existential statement. Some snowflakes are the same immediately and incorrect negation comes to mind some snowflakes are different. But the correct navigation would be no snowflakes are the same because here it is saying some of them are same another for them to be false all of them need to be actually different. So, we will say all snow facts are different.

So the negation of an existential statement there exist x is logically equivalent to Universal statement with the phi being replaced by not of phi. So here we have some snowflakes. We replace it by for all snowflakes and say the same not of same we are usually returns different. So, we could write there all snowflakes are not same.

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Negations of Quantified Statements

Negation - Pushing the NOT across

3. Everyone loves someone.

$\forall x \exists y \text{ Loves}(x,y)$

Correct Negation

$\neg \forall x \exists y \text{ Loves}(x,y)$ $\neg \forall x P(x) \equiv \exists x \neg P(x)$ ✓

$\exists x \neg \exists y \text{ Loves}(x,y)$

$\exists x \forall y \neg \text{Loves}(x,y)$ ✓ $\neg \exists x P(x) \equiv \forall x \neg P(x)$

There is someone who doesn't love anyone.

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Let us look at how we could do it for complex statements. The negation for Complex statement would mean pushing the not across. So, let us look at this statement. Everyone loves someone. So here is a statement which says everyone loves someone because I have everyone and there is someone who everyone loves. I want to know this, what is the negation of the statement.

The correct negation of this statement would be that not for all x there exist y loves x, y and then I could push the not forward by looking at the de-Morgan's law that we have little while ago try to argue that for all x Px is same as there exist x not Px. So, we could write this and push this not inside or I could now replace this statement as there exist x not of there exist y loves x, y.

And then I could take this one step forward to replace it with the second de Morgan's law that we had seen that not of their exists x P of x is same as for all x not P of x and replace this here to write for all y not loves x,y . So, the negation of this statement that for would be that there is someone who does not love anyone. Even if everyone loves someone you want to negate and immediate treatment that comes to my mind is everyone does not love someone. Actually the correct negation is there is someone who does not love anyone.

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Negations of Quantified Statements

Negation of a Universal Conditional Statement

Negation of a conditional (if-then) statement is logically equivalent to an AND statement.

$$\neg(P \rightarrow Q) \equiv P \wedge \neg Q \quad \checkmark$$

$\neg(\neg P \vee Q)$
 $\neg\neg P \wedge \neg Q$
 $P \wedge \neg Q$

Negation of a universal statement is logically equivalent to an existential statement.

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

Substituting the conditional statement into the universal statement

$$\neg \forall x (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \equiv \exists x (P(x) \wedge \neg Q(x))$$

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Now let us look at the negation of a Universal conditional statement that is a statement that is conditional that has a Universal quantifier in its location of a conditional statement is logically equivalent to an end statement. That is what we have looked in propositional logic. Not of P implies Q is same as P and not Q we could look at this way, not of P implies Q , P implies Q , I could write as not P or Q . And then when I have a not of P junction, it is not of the first and not of the second so I have not of not of P and not of Q .

So, double negation I am the having P and not a Q so negation of a if then statement is logically equivalent an end statement and then we have seen that negation of a Universal statement is logically equivalent an existential statement that is Not of for all x Φ is same as there exist x not Φ . Now, substituting the conditional statement into the universal statement here we would have not for all x Px implies Qx that is the conditional statement which is universal conditional statement.

The negation of the universal conditional statement is same as saying there exist x Px and not Qx .

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Negations of Quantified Statements

Negation of a Universal Conditional Statement

4. If x is a rational number, then \sqrt{x} is a rational number.

$\forall x$ Rational (\sqrt{x} is Rational)

Correct Negation

$\exists x$ Rational (\sqrt{x} is \neg Rational)

There exist a rational number x , such that \sqrt{x} is not a rational number.

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Let us take an example and try to understand this. If x is a rational number then root of x is a rational number, how do you get this statement? Now first you need to realise. This is sound form of a Universal statement because it is saying that for all x which are rational then it is saying root x is rational. So what is the correct negation? For the correct navigation I need to realise that I can introduce the existential there exist x which is rational and root x is not rational.

So, the correct negation of the statement if x is a rational number then root x is a rational number is the statement saying there exist a rational number x such that root of x is not a rational number.

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Distributivity of \forall over \wedge

$\forall x P(x) \wedge \forall x Q(x) \equiv \forall x (P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ \forall distributes over \wedge

No matter what the domain is, these two propositions always have the same truth value.

This shouldn't be surprising, since for a finite domain, say $\{1,2,3\}$,

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

Further \wedge is commutative and associative, so:

$\forall x \in \{1, 2, 3\} P(x) \wedge Q(x)$

$\equiv (P(1) \wedge Q(1)) \wedge (P(2) \wedge Q(2)) \wedge (P(3) \wedge Q(3))$ For this example domain

$\equiv (P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge P(3)) \wedge (Q(1) \wedge Q(2) \wedge Q(3))$ Commutativity/Associativity

$\equiv \forall x \in \{1, 2, 3\} P(x) \wedge \forall x \in \{1, 2, 3\} Q(x)$ For this specific example

Though this is only an example domain, the intuition extends to other domains as well, including infinite domains.

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Now let us look at the distributivity of our Universal quantifier over a conjunction. So, for all x Px and for all x Qx this is the same as for all x Px and Qx that is that for all x distribute over \wedge and no matter what the domain is these two propositions always have the same truth value. Now this should not be surprising, we can give it for a finite domain. Say I have my domain of this course being the digits 1, 2 and 3 then when I say for all x Px , I could write it as P_1 and P_2 and P_3 .

And for all x Qx I could do a similar thing further \wedge is commutative and associative. So, I could write for all x in the domain 1, 2, 3 Px and Qx could be written as P_1 and Q_1 and P_2 and Q_2 and P_3 and Q_3 for this example domain. I could not bring the P 's together and the Q 's together because of \wedge being commutative and associative. And instead of having for all x in the domain 1, 2, 3 Px and for all x in the domain 1, 2, 3 Qx for this specific example.

Now this is an example domain the intuitive extends to other domains as well including infinite domains. And we can say that the existential quantifier distributes over the AND connective.

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Distributing \exists over \wedge

$$\checkmark \exists x (P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \neq \exists x P(x) \wedge \exists x Q(x).$$

The existential quantifier \exists does not distribute over \wedge

Find a counterexample - a universe and predicates P and Q - such that one of the propositions is true and the other is false:

Let $U = \mathbb{N}$.
 Set $P(x)$: "x is prime" and $Q(x)$: "x is composite" (i.e. not prime).

$\exists x (P(x) \wedge Q(x))$ is False,
 $\exists x P(x) \wedge \exists x Q(x)$ is True.

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Now let us distribute the existential quantifier over \wedge and there exist x Px and Qx not equivalent to there exist x Px and there exist x Qx what it means is that the existential quantifier does not distribute over the AND. We need to find the counter example our universe and predicates P and Q such that one of the propositions is true and the other are false then literally we would have shown this.

So, let us take U to be the set of numbers x is prime and Qx composite that is not prime then there exist a number which is prime and composite is false. Where as I could definitely have a prime number and composite number and this is true.

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Distributivity of \exists over \vee

$$\exists x(P(x) \vee Q(x)) \equiv \exists x P(x) \vee \exists x Q(x)$$

Recall: $\forall x (P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \equiv \forall x P(x) \wedge \forall x Q(x)$

$$\forall x (\neg S(x) \wedge \neg R(x)) \equiv \forall x \neg S(x) \wedge \forall x \neg R(x)$$

$$\neg \forall x (\neg S(x) \wedge \neg R(x)) \equiv \neg (\forall x \neg S(x) \wedge \forall x \neg R(x))$$

$$\exists x \neg(\neg S(x) \wedge \neg R(x)) \equiv \neg \forall x \neg S(x) \vee \neg \forall x \neg R(x)$$

$$\exists x (\neg \neg S(x) \vee \neg \neg R(x)) \equiv \exists x \neg \neg S(x) \vee \exists x \neg \neg R(x)$$

$$\checkmark \exists x(S(x) \vee R(x)) \equiv \exists x S(x) \vee \exists x R(x).$$

\exists distributes over \vee

This rule holds for arbitrary P and Q

Replace P by $\neg S$ and Q by $\neg R$.

Negate both sides.

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So, if you look at the distributivity of the existential quantifier over the disjunction. We see that on the contrary the existential quantifier distribution over the distinction. So, recall that for all x P of x and Qx we have shown that for all x is Px and for all x for Qx. Now this statement here holds for arbitrary P's and Q's therefore let us take P to be not s and Q to be not R and replace them in this formula.

So we have for all x not of x and not of Rx and this side also be replaced by not of S and Q by not of R and now we negate both sides. So, here one we negate for all x when we negate we will introduce and existential quantifier. Which is there exist not of whole of this expression here and this side. The negation being applied to a conjunction we will have the navigation of the first part or the negation of the second part.

So, we will then take the negation inside here and we will have the negation of the first part or negation of the second part. So, these two negations with give me a S, here I will end up with a R and therefore finally I will have this statement which is saying that there exist x Sx for all Rx there exist x Sx or there exist x Rx that is there exist distributes over the disjunction. So, we have seen some fundamental concepts in first order logic in our lecture today, we will continue this discussion in our next lecture. Thank you very much.