# Discrete Mathematics 

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## Review

- Deduction from promises
- Compactness theorem
- Application


## Outline

- Application of compactness theorem
- Limits of propositional logic
- Predicates and quantifiers


## Application of compactness theorem

## Example

Given an infinite planar graph. If its every finite subgraph is $k$-colorable, then the graph itself is also $k$-colorable.

## Application of compactness theorem

Solution: Let $p_{a, i}$ represent vertex $a$ is colored with $i$. We can formulate a graph which is $k$-colorable with the following propositions.
(1) $p_{a, 1} \vee p_{a, 2} \vee \cdots \vee p_{a, k}$, for every $a \in V$. It means every vertex could be colored with at least one of $k$ colors.
(2) $\neg\left(p_{\mathrm{a}, i} \wedge p_{\mathrm{a}, j}\right), 1 \leq i<j \leq k$ for all $a \in V$. It means $C_{i} \cap C_{j}=\emptyset$.
(3) $\neg\left(p_{a, i} \wedge p_{b, i}\right), i=1, \ldots, k$ for all $a E b$. It means no neighbors have the same color .

## Application of compactness theorem

## Example

Every set $S$ can be (totally) ordered.

## Application of compactness theorem

## Theorem

An infinite tree with finite branch has an infinite path.

## Expressive Power of PL

(1) not.
(2) and.
(3) or.
(4) if . . . then ....
(5) Declarative sentences.

## Expressive Power of PL

## Example

If Socrates is a man then Socrates is mortal.

## Solution (Propositional Logic)

(1) A: "Socrates is a man".
(2) B: "Socrates is mortal".
(3) We can represent the previous statement as $A \rightarrow B$.
(9) If $A$ is true, then we know $B$ is true.

## Limits of PL

## Example

Given two statements:" All men are mortal" and
"Socrates is a man". What can we do?

## Solution

(1) We all know the following statement holding, "Socrates is mortal".
(2) If they are formalized as two proposition, nothing can be implied.

## Limits of PL

## Example

The previous example can be abstracted further like
(1) $P$ : All As have property $B$.
(2) $Q: C$ is one of $A s$.

## Remark

(1) There is no relation between $P$ and $Q$.
(2) The flaw is that "is/in" relationship can not be expressed by PL.
© Consider "there exists ...", "all ...", "among ...", and "only ...".
Q A richer language is needed.
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## Limits of PL

## Example

Consider a simple sentence, every student is younger than some instructor.

## Solution

It is a declarative statement, which can be expressed by a proposition letter, say P.

## Remark

(1) However, it means being a students, being a instructor and being younger than somebody else.
(2) fails to reflect the finer logic structure of it.

## Limits of PL

## Solution (Continue)

Consider a special instance of this statement. Suppose Andy is a student and Paul is a instructor. Let's introduce some predicates, which asserts something has some property.
Now we have
(1) S(Andy): Andy is a student.
(2) I(Paul):Paul is an instructor.
(3) $Y($ Andy, Paul $):$ Andy is younger than Paul.

## Limits of PL

## Remark

(1) There are many instances. Too many symbols are needed.
(2) Introduce variable, which can represent any students or instructors.
(3) How about "every/all" and "some"?
(1) $\exists$ means "there exists", which is called existential quantifier.
(2 $\forall$ means "for all", which is called universal quantifiers.

## Solution (Continue)

Now it can be written as


## Limits of PL

## Example

Consider this sentence "Bobby's father can beat up the father of any other kid on the block".

## Solution

Here the point is that how to express the connection between child and father. Function is proper than predicate because a child can determine his father. Let
(1) $K(x): x$ is a child on the block and $b$ means Bobby.
(2) $f(x): x$ 's father,
(3) $B(x, y): x$ can beat up $y$,
(9) Finally, $\forall x(K(x) \rightarrow(\neg(x=b) \rightarrow B(f(b), f(x))))$.

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## Predicates and Quantifiers

- predicates
- variables
- constants
- functions
- universal quantifier: $\forall$, "for all".
- existential quantifier: $\exists$, there exists


## The Language

## Definition (Language)

A language $\mathcal{L}$ consists of the following disjoint sets of distinct primitive symbols:
(1) Variables: $x, y, x_{0}, x_{1}, \ldots, y_{0}, y_{1}, \ldots$ (an infinite set)
(2) Constants: $c, d, c_{0}, d_{0}, \ldots$ (any set of them).
(3) Connectives: $\wedge, \neg, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$
(9) Quantifiers: $\forall, \exists$
(0) Predicate symbols: $P, Q, R, P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots$
(6) Function symbols: $f, g, h, f_{0}, f_{1}, \ldots$
(3) Punctuation: the comma, and (right and left) parentheses ), (

## Term

## Definition (Term)

Terms.
(1) Every variable is a term
(2) Every constants symbol is a term.

- If $f$ is an n -ary function symbol $(n=1,2, \ldots)$ and $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ are terms, then $f\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$ is also a term.


## Definition (Ground term)

Terms with no variables are called variable-free terms or ground terms.

## Formula

## Definition (Atomic formula)

An atomic formula is an expression of the form $R\left(t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}\right)$ where $R$ is an $n$-ary predicate symbol and $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n}$ are terms.

## Formula

## Definition (Formula)

Formulas.
(1) Every atomic formula is a formula.
(2) If $\alpha, \beta$ are formulas, then so are $(\alpha \wedge \beta),(\alpha \rightarrow \beta),(\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta),(\neg \alpha),(\alpha \vee \beta)$.
(3) If $v$ is a variable and $\alpha$ is a formula, then $((\exists v) \alpha)$ and $((\forall v) \alpha)$ are also formulas.

## Examples

## Example

Let the domain consist of all relational numbers $\mathcal{Q}$.
Again $\varphi(x, y)=(x<y), f(x, y)=x+y$, $g(x, y)=x \div y$ and $a=0, b=1, c=2$ are constants.
(1) $(\varphi(x, y) \wedge \varphi(y, z))$

- $((\exists y)(\varphi(x, y) \wedge \varphi(y, z)))$
- $((\forall x)(\varphi(x, z) \rightarrow((\exists y)(\varphi(x, y) \wedge \varphi(y, z))))$
- $((\forall x)((\forall y)(\varphi(x, y) \rightarrow$
$(\varphi(x, g(f(x, y), c)) \wedge \varphi(g(f(x, y), c), y)))))$
- $\varphi(y, f(y, y))$


## Next Class

- Syntax of Predicate Logic

