

Section 1.4

12. a) Since $0 + 1 > 2 \cdot 0$, we know that $Q(0)$ is true.
 b) Since $(-1) + 1 > 2 \cdot (-1)$, we know that $Q(-1)$ is true.
 c) Since $1 + 1 \not> 2 \cdot 1$, we know that $Q(1)$ is false.
 d) From part (a) we know that there is at least one x that makes $Q(x)$ true, so $\exists x Q(x)$ is true.
 e) From part (c) we know that there is at least one x that makes $Q(x)$ false, so $\forall x Q(x)$ is false.
 f) From part (c) we know that there is at least one x that makes $Q(x)$ false, so $\exists x \neg Q(x)$ is true.
 g) From part (a) we know that there is at least one x that makes $Q(x)$ true, so $\forall x \neg Q(x)$ is false.
31. In each case we just have to list all the possibilities, joining them with \vee if the quantifier is \exists , and joining them with \wedge if the quantifier is \forall .
 a) $Q(0, 0, 0) \wedge Q(0, 1, 0)$ b) $Q(0, 1, 1) \vee Q(1, 1, 1) \vee Q(2, 1, 1)$
 c) $\neg Q(0, 0, 0) \vee \neg Q(0, 0, 1)$ d) $\neg Q(0, 0, 1) \vee \neg Q(1, 0, 1) \vee \neg Q(2, 0, 1)$
35. a) As we saw in Example 13, this is true, so there is no counterexample.
 b) Since 0 is neither greater than nor less than 0, this is a counterexample.
 c) This proposition says that 1 is the only integer—that every integer equals 1. If is obviously false, and any other integer, such as -111749 , provides a counterexample.
43. A conditional statement is true if the hypothesis is false. Thus it is very easy for the second of these propositions to be true—just have $P(x)$ be something that is not always true, such as “The integer x is a multiple of 2.” On the other hand, it is certainly not always true that if a number is a multiple of 2, then it is also a multiple of 4, so if we let $Q(x)$ be “The integer x is a multiple of 4,” then $\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$ will be false. Thus these two propositions can have different truth values. Of course, for some choices of P and Q , they will have the same truth values, such as when P and Q are true all the time.
45. Both are true precisely when at least one of $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ is true for at least one value of x in the domain (universe of discourse).

Section 1.5

28. a) true (let $y = x^2$) b) false (no such y exists if x is negative) c) true (let $x = 0$)
 d) false (the commutative law for addition always holds) e) true (let $y = 1/x$)
 f) false (the reciprocal of y depends on y —there is not one x that works for all y) g) true (let $y = 1 - x$)
 h) false (this system of equations is inconsistent)
 i) false (this system has only one solution; if $x = 0$, for example, then no y satisfies $y = 2 \wedge -y = 1$)
 j) true (let $z = (x + y)/2$)
31. As we push the negation symbol toward the inside, each quantifier it passes must change its type. For logical connectives we either use De Morgan’s laws or recall that $\neg(p \rightarrow q) \equiv p \wedge \neg q$.
- a)
- $$\begin{aligned}\neg \forall x \exists y \forall z T(x, y, z) &\equiv \exists x \neg \exists y \forall z T(x, y, z) \\ &\equiv \exists x \forall y \neg \forall z T(x, y, z) \\ &\equiv \exists x \forall y \exists z \neg T(x, y, z)\end{aligned}$$
- b)
- $$\begin{aligned}\neg(\forall x \exists y P(x, y) \vee \forall x \exists y Q(x, y)) &\equiv \neg \forall x \exists y P(x, y) \wedge \neg \forall x \exists y Q(x, y) \\ &\equiv \exists x \neg \exists y P(x, y) \wedge \exists x \neg \exists y Q(x, y) \\ &\equiv \exists x \forall y \neg P(x, y) \wedge \exists x \forall y \neg Q(x, y)\end{aligned}$$
- c)

$$\begin{aligned}
& \neg \forall x \exists y (P(x, y) \wedge \exists z R(x, y, z)) \equiv \exists x \neg \exists y (P(x, y) \wedge \exists z R(x, y, z)) \\
& \equiv \exists x \forall y \neg (P(x, y) \wedge \exists z R(x, y, z)) \\
& \equiv \exists x \forall y (\neg P(x, y) \vee \neg \exists z R(x, y, z)) \\
& \equiv \exists x \forall y (\neg P(x, y) \vee \forall z \neg R(x, y, z)) \\
\text{d)} \quad & \neg \forall x \exists y (P(x, y) \rightarrow Q(x, y)) \equiv \exists x \neg \exists y (P(x, y) \rightarrow Q(x, y)) \\
& \equiv \exists x \forall y \neg (P(x, y) \rightarrow Q(x, y)) \\
& \equiv \exists x \forall y (P(x, y) \wedge \neg Q(x, y))
\end{aligned}$$

39. a) Since the square of a number and its additive inverse are the same, we have many counterexamples, such as $x = 2$ and $y = -2$.
- b) This statement is saying that every number has a square root. If x is negative (like $x = -4$), or, since we are working in the domain of the integers, x is not a perfect square (like $x = 6$), then the equation $y^2 = x$ has no solution.
- c) Since negative numbers are not larger than positive numbers, we can take something like $x = 17$ and $y = -1$ for our counterexample.

Section 1.6

12. Applying Exercise 11, we want to show that the conclusion r follows from the five premises $(p \wedge t) \rightarrow (r \vee s)$, $q \rightarrow (u \wedge t)$, $u \rightarrow p$, $\neg s$, and q . From q and $q \rightarrow (u \wedge t)$ we get $u \wedge t$ by modus ponens. From there we get both u and t by simplification (and the commutative law). From u and $u \rightarrow p$ we get p by modus ponens. From p and t we get $p \wedge t$ by conjunction. From that and $(p \wedge t) \rightarrow (r \vee s)$ we get $r \vee s$ by modus ponens. From that and $\neg s$ we finally get r by disjunctive syllogism.

19. a) This is the fallacy of affirming the conclusion, since it has the form “ $p \rightarrow q$ and q implies p .”
- b) This reasoning is valid; it is modus tollens.
- c) This is the fallacy of denying the hypothesis, since it has the form “ $p \rightarrow q$ and $\neg p$ implies $\neg q$.”

20. a) This is invalid. It is the fallacy of affirming the conclusion. Letting $a = -2$ provides a counterexample.
- b) This is valid; it is modus ponens.

29. We can set this up in two-column format. The proof is rather long but straightforward if we go one step at a time.

Step	Reason
1. $\exists x \neg P(x)$	Premise
2. $\neg P(c)$	Existential instantiation using (1)
3. $\forall x (P(x) \vee Q(x))$	Premise
4. $P(c) \vee Q(c)$	Universal instantiation using (3)
5. $Q(c)$	Disjunctive syllogism using (4) and (2)
6. $\forall x (\neg Q(x) \vee S(x))$	Premise
7. $\neg Q(c) \vee S(c)$	Universal instantiation using (6)
8. $S(c)$	Disjunctive syllogism using (5) and (7), since $\neg \neg Q(c) \equiv Q(c)$
9. $\forall x (R(x) \rightarrow \neg S(x))$	Premise
10. $R(c) \rightarrow \neg S(c)$	Universal instantiation using (9)
11. $\neg R(c)$	Modus tollens using (8) and (10), since $\neg \neg S(c) \equiv S(c)$
12. $\exists x \neg R(x)$	Existential generalization using (11)

Section 1.7

11. To disprove this proposition it is enough to find a counterexample, since the proposition has an implied universal quantification. We know from Example 10 that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. If we take the product of the irrational number $\sqrt{2}$ and the irrational number $\sqrt{2}$, then we obtain the rational number 2. This counterexample refutes the proposition.

27. We must prove two conditional statements. First, we assume that n is odd and show that $5n + 6$ is odd (this is a direct proof). By assumption, $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k . Then $5n + 6 = 5(2k + 1) + 6 = 10k + 11 = 2(5k + 5) + 1$. Since we have written $5n + 6$ as 2 times an integer plus 1, we have showed that $5n + 6$ is odd, as desired. Now we give an proof by contraposition of the converse. Suppose that n is not odd—in other words, that n is even. Then $n = 2k$ for some integer k . Then $5n + 6 = 10k + 6 = 2(5k + 3)$. Since we have written $5n + 6$ as 2 times an integer, we have showed that $5n + 6$ is even. This completes the proof by contraposition of this conditional statement.

42. We show that each of these is equivalent to the statement (v) n is odd, say $n = 2k + 1$. Example 1 showed that (v) implies (i) , and Example 8 showed that (i) implies (v) . For $(v) \rightarrow (ii)$ we see that $1 - n = 1 - (2k + 1) = 2(-k)$ is even. Conversely, if n were even, say $n = 2m$, then we would have $1 - n = 1 - 2m = 2(-m) + 1$, so $1 - n$ would be odd, and this completes the proof by contraposition that $(ii) \rightarrow (v)$. For $(v) \rightarrow (iii)$, we see that $n^3 = (2k + 1)^3 = 8k^3 + 12k^2 + 6k + 1 = 2(4k^3 + 6k^2 + 3k) + 1$ is odd. Conversely, if n were even, say $n = 2m$, then we would have $n^3 = 2(4m^3)$, so n^3 would be even, and this completes the proof by contraposition that $(iii) \rightarrow (v)$. Finally, for $(v) \rightarrow (iv)$, we see that $n^2 + 1 = (2k + 1)^2 + 1 = 4k^2 + 4k + 2 = 2(2k^2 + 2k + 1)$ is even. Conversely, if n were even, say $n = 2m$, then we would have $n^2 + 1 = 2(2m^2) + 1$, so $n^2 + 1$ would be odd, and this completes the proof by contraposition that $(iv) \rightarrow (v)$.