# CS1231 Part 3 - The Logic of Quantified Statements

Based on lectures by Terence Sim and Aaron Tan

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These notes are not endorsed by the lecturers, and I have modified them (often significantly) after lectures. They are nowhere near accurate representations of what was actually lectured, and in particular, all errors are almost surely mine.

### 1 Predicates and quantified statements

A **predicate** is a sentence that contains a finite number of values and becomes a statement when specific values are substituted for the variables.

The **domain** of a predicate variable is the set of all values that may be substituted in place of the variable.

The **truth set** of a predicate P(x), where x has a domain D, is the set of all elements of D that make P(x) true when they are substituted for x. The truth set of P(x) is denoted

$$\{x \in D \mid P(x)\}$$

### 1.1 The universal quantifier

The symbol  $\forall$ , denoted "for all", is called the **universal quantifier**.

Let Q(x) be a predicate and D the domain of x. A **universal statement** is a statement of the form

$$\forall x \in D, Q(x)$$

It is defined to be true iff Q(x) is true for every x in D, and it is defined to be false iff Q(x) is false for at least one x in D.

A value for x for which Q(x) is false is called a **counterexample**.

The **method of exhaustion** proves that a universal statement is true by exhausting all cases or proving that the statement is true for each element in the domain.

#### 1.2 The existential quantifier

The symbol  $\exists$ , denoted "there exists", is called the **existential quantifier**.

Let Q(x) be a predicate and D the domain of x. An **existential statement** is a statement of the form

$$\exists x \in D \text{ such that } Q(x)$$

It is defined to be true iff Q(x) is true for at least one x in D, and it is false iff Q(x) is false for all x in D.

Furthermore, the symbol  $\exists$ ! is used to denote "there exists a unique" or "there is one and only one".

#### 1.3 Universal conditional statements

The universal conditional statement comes in the form of:

$$\forall x$$
, if  $P(x)$  then  $Q(x)$ 

### 1.3.1 Equivalent forms of universal and existential statements

Given a statement  $\forall x \in U$ , if P(x) then Q(x), we can narrow the domain U to be the domain D consisting of all values of the variable x that make P(x) true:

$$\forall x \in U$$
, if  $P(x)$  then  $Q(x) \equiv \forall x \in D$ ,  $Q(x)$ 

This works similarly for existential statements.

### 1.4 Implicit quantification

Let P(x) and Q(x) be predicates and supposed the common domain of x is D.

- The notation  $P(x) \implies Q(x)$  means that every element in the truth set of P(x) is in the truth set of Q(x), or, equivalently,  $\forall x, P(x) \to Q(x)$ .
- The notation  $P(x) \iff Q(x)$  means that the truth sets of P(x) and Q(x) are identical, or, equivalently,  $\forall x, P(x) \leftrightarrow Q(x)$

### 1.5 Negations of quantified statements

Negation of a universal statement:

$$\sim (\forall x \text{ in } D, P(x)) \equiv \exists x \text{ in } D \text{ such that } \sim P(x)$$

Negation of an existential statement:

$$\sim (\exists x \text{ in } D \text{ such that } P(x)) \equiv \forall x \text{ in } D, \sim P(x)$$

Negation of universal conditional statements:

$$\sim (\forall x, P(x) \to Q(x)) \equiv \exists x \text{ such that } P(x) \land \sim Q(x)$$

#### 1.6 Variants of universal conditional statements

Consider a statement of the form:  $\forall x \in D$ , if P(x) then Q(x)

- 1. Its contrapositive is:  $\forall x \in D$ , if  $\sim Q(x)$  then  $\sim P(x)$
- 2. Its converse is:  $\forall x \in D$ , if Q(x) then P(x)
- 3. Its inverse is:  $\forall x \in D$ , if  $\sim P(x)$  then  $\sim Q(x)$

## 2 Statements with multiple quantifiers

A statement may have multiple quantifiers, and the meaning of the statement depends on the quantifiers used, and their order within the statement.

### 2.1 Negation of multiply-quantified statements

We can use the equivalencies for the negation of statements with only one quantifier to deduce the negations of multiply quantified statements. For example:

As 
$$\sim (\forall x \text{ in } D, P(x)) \equiv \exists x \text{ in } D \text{ such that } \sim P(x),$$
  
and  $\sim (\exists x \text{ in } D \text{ such that } P(x)) \equiv \forall x \text{ in } D, \sim P(x),$ 

$$\sim (\forall x \text{ in } D, \exists y \text{ in } E \text{ such that } P(x,y)) \equiv \exists x \text{ in } D \text{ such that } \forall y \text{ in } E, \sim P(x,y)$$

As a general rule, to negate a quantified statement, negate all statement variables, and switch all  $\forall$ 's and  $\exists$ 's while maintaining their order.

# 3 Arguments with quantified statements

The rule of **universal instantiation** states that if some property is true of *everything* in the set, then it is true of *any particular thing* in the set. This rule is the fundamental tool for deductive reasoning.

With this, we can obtain the valid form of argument, universal modus ponens:

$$\forall x$$
, if  $P(x)$  then  $Q(x)$   
 $P(a)$  for a particular  $a$ .  
•  $Q(a)$ .

Likewise, we can obtain the valid form of argument, universal modus tollens:

$$\forall x$$
, if  $P(x)$  then  $Q(x)$   
  $\sim Q(a)$ ) for a particular  $a$ .  
 $\bullet \sim P(a)$ 

Furthermore, we can create additional forms of arguments involving universally quantified statements simply through **universal transitivity**:

$$\forall x, P(x) \to Q(x)$$
 
$$\forall x, Q(x) \to R(x)$$
 
$$\bullet \ \forall x, P(x) \to R(x)$$