

1.2. Predicates, Quantifiers

1.2.1. Predicates. A *predicate* or *propositional function* is a statement containing variables. For instance “ $x + 2 = 7$ ”, “ X is American”, “ $x < y$ ”, “ p is a prime number” are predicates. The truth value of the predicate depends on the value assigned to its variables. For instance if we replace x with 1 in the predicate “ $x + 2 = 7$ ” we obtain “ $1 + 2 = 7$ ”, which is false, but if we replace it with 5 we get “ $5 + 2 = 7$ ”, which is true. We represent a predicate by a letter followed by the variables enclosed between parenthesis: $P(x)$, $Q(x, y)$, etc. An *example* for $P(x)$ is a value of x for which $P(x)$ is true. A *counterexample* is a value of x for which $P(x)$ is false. So, 5 is an example for “ $x + 2 = 7$ ”, while 1 is a counterexample.

Each variable in a predicate is assumed to belong to a *universe (or domain) of discourse*, for instance in the predicate “ n is an odd integer” ‘ n ’ represents an integer, so the universe of discourse of n is the set of all integers. In “ X is American” we may assume that X is a human being, so in this case the universe of discourse is the set of all human beings.¹

1.2.2. Quantifiers. Given a predicate $P(x)$, the statement “for some x , $P(x)$ ” (or “there is some x such that $p(x)$ ”), represented “ $\exists x P(x)$ ”, has a definite truth value, so it is a proposition in the usual sense. For instance if $P(x)$ is “ $x + 2 = 7$ ” with the integers as universe of discourse, then $\exists x P(x)$ is true, since there is indeed an integer, namely 5, such that $P(5)$ is a true statement. However, if $Q(x)$ is “ $2x = 7$ ” and the universe of discourse is still the integers, then $\exists x Q(x)$ is false. On the other hand, $\exists x Q(x)$ would be true if we extend the universe of discourse to the rational numbers. The symbol \exists is called the *existential quantifier*.

Analogously, the sentence “for all x , $P(x)$ ”—also “for any x , $P(x)$ ”, “for every x , $P(x)$ ”, “for each x , $P(x)$ ”—, represented “ $\forall x P(x)$ ”, has a definite truth value. For instance, if $P(x)$ is “ $x + 2 = 7$ ” and the

¹Usually all variables occurring in predicates along a reasoning are supposed to belong to the *same* universe of discourse, but in some situations (as in the so called *many-sorted* logics) it is possible to use different kinds of variables to represent different types of objects belonging to different universes of discourse. For instance in the predicate “ σ is a string of length n ” the variable σ represents a string, while n represents a natural number, so the universe of discourse of σ is the set of all strings, while the universe of discourse of n is the set of natural numbers.

universe of discourse is the integers, then $\forall x P(x)$ is false. However if $Q(x)$ represents “ $(x + 1)^2 = x^2 + 2x + 1$ ” then $\forall x Q(x)$ is true. The symbol \forall is called the *universal quantifier*.

In predicates with more than one variable it is possible to use several quantifiers at the same time, for instance $\forall x \forall y \exists z P(x, y, z)$, meaning “for all x and all y there is some z such that $P(x, y, z)$ ”.

Note that in general the existential and universal quantifiers cannot be swapped, i.e., in general $\forall x \exists y P(x, y)$ means something different from $\exists y \forall x P(x, y)$. For instance if x and y represent human beings and $P(x, y)$ represents “ x is a friend of y ”, then $\forall x \exists y P(x, y)$ means that everybody is a friend of someone, but $\exists y \forall x P(x, y)$ means that there is someone such that everybody is his or her friend.

A predicate can be partially quantified, e.g. $\forall x \exists y P(x, y, z, t)$. The variables quantified (x and y in the example) are called *bound* variables, and the rest (z and t in the example) are called *free* variables. A partially quantified predicate is still a predicate, but depending on fewer variables.

1.2.3. Generalized De Morgan Laws for Logic. If $\exists x P(x)$ is false then there is no value of x for which $P(x)$ is true, or in other words, $P(x)$ is always false. Hence

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

On the other hand, if $\forall x P(x)$ is false then it is not true that for every x , $P(x)$ holds, hence for some x , $P(x)$ must be false. Thus:

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

These two rules can be applied in successive steps to find the negation of a more complex quantified statement, for instance:

$$\neg \exists x \forall y p(x, y) \equiv \forall x \neg \forall y P(x, y) \equiv \forall x \exists y \neg P(x, y).$$

Exercise: Write formally the statement “for every real number there is a greater real number”. Write the negation of that statement.

Answer: The statement is: $\forall x \exists y (x < y)$ (the universe of discourse is the real numbers). Its negation is: $\exists x \forall y \neg (x < y)$, i.e., $\exists x \forall y (x \not< y)$. (Note that among real numbers $x \not< y$ is equivalent to $x \geq y$, but formally they are different predicates.)