

# Predicates and Quantifiers

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# Definition: Variable and Predicate

Let the declarative statement:

*“ $x$  is greater than 3”.*

- This declarative statement is neither true nor false because the value of  $x$  is not specified. Therefore this declarative statement is not a proposition.
- In this declarative statement,
  - the **variable**  $x$  is the subject of the statement,
  - “is greater than 3” is the **predicate** that refers to a property that the subject of the statement can have.

# Definition: Propositional Function

Let again the declarative statement:

*“ $x$  is greater than 3”.*

We denote this declarative statement by  $P(x)$  where

- $x$  is the variable,
- $P$  is the predicate “is greater than 3”.

The declarative statement  $P(x)$  is said to be the value of the **propositional function**  $P$  at  $x$ .

Once a value has been assigned to the variable  $x$ , the declarative statement  $P(x)$  becomes a proposition and has a truth value, true or false.

# Examples of Propositional Functions

Let the set of integers  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ .

Let  $P(x)$ , the propositional function “ $x > 3$ ”.

- If no value has been assigned to  $x$ , this propositional function has no truth value.
- $P(-3)$  is “ $-3 > 3$ ” which is a false proposition.
- $P(5)$  is “ $5 > 3$ ” which is a true proposition.
- $P(y) \wedge \neg P(0)$  is not a proposition because the variable  $y$  has no value yet.
- $P(5) \wedge \neg P(0)$  is “ $(5 > 3) \wedge \neg(0 > 3)$ ” which is a true proposition.

# Definition: Quantification

Assigning values to a variable is one method to transform a propositional function into a proposition.

**Quantification** is another method to transform a propositional function into a proposition. Quantification expresses the extent to which a predicate is true over a range of elements. The area of logic that deals with predicates and quantifiers is called the **predicate calculus**.

We will study two types of quantification:

- the universal quantification,
- the existential quantification.

# Definition: Universe of Discourse

Many mathematical statements assert that a property is true for all values of a variable in a particular domain, called the **universe of discourse** (or **domain of discourse**).

In a propositional function  $P(x)$ , the universe of discourse specifies the possible values of the variable  $x$  and must always be provided when a universal quantifier is used.

# Definition: Universal Quantification

## Definition

The **universal quantification** of  $P(x)$  is the proposition:

*“ $P(x)$  for all values of  $x$  in the universe of discourse.”*

The notation  $\forall x P(x)$  denotes the universal quantification of  $P(x)$ . The symbol  $\forall$  is the **universal quantifier**. We read the proposition  $\forall x P(x)$  as “for all  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ ” or “for every  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ .”

Remarks:

An element in the universe of discourse for which  $P(x)$  is false is called a **counterexample** of  $\forall x P(x)$ .

If the universe of discourse is empty, then  $\forall x P(x)$  is true for any propositional function  $P(x)$  because there are no elements  $x$  in the empty universe of discourse for which  $P(x)$  is false.

# Universe of Discourse of Finite Dimension

When all the elements in the universe of discourse can be listed — say  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  — it follows that the universal quantification  $\forall x P(x)$  is the same as the conjunction

$$P(x_1) \wedge P(x_2) \wedge \cdots \wedge P(x_n)$$

because this conjunction is true if and only if  $P(x_1), P(x_2), \dots, P(x_n)$  are all true.

Example: Let the universe of discourse be  $U = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . Then

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



# Definition: Existential Quantification

## Definition

The **existential quantification** of  $P(x)$  is the proposition:

*“there exists an element  $x$  in the universe of discourse such that  $P(x)$ .”*

The notation  $\exists x P(x)$  denotes the existential quantification of  $P(x)$ . The symbol  $\exists$  is the **existential quantifier**. We read the proposition  $\exists x P(x)$  as “there exists an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ” or “there is an  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ” or “there is at least one  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ” or “for some  $x$ ,  $P(x)$ .”

If the universe of discourse is empty, then  $\exists x P(x)$  is false for any propositional function  $P(x)$  because there are no elements  $x$  in the empty universe of discourse for which  $P(x)$  is true.

# Universe of Discourse of Finite Dimension

When all the elements in the universe of discourse can be listed — say  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  — it follows that the existential quantification  $\exists x P(x)$  is the same as the disjunction

$$P(x_1) \vee P(x_2) \vee \cdots \vee P(x_n)$$

because this disjunction is true if and only if at least one of  $P(x_1), P(x_2), \dots, P(x_n)$  is true.

Example: Let the universe of discourse be  $U = \{1, 2, 3\}$ . Then

$$\exists x P(x) \equiv P(1) \vee P(2) \vee P(3).$$

# Definition: Uniqueness Quantification

## Definition

The **uniqueness quantification** of  $P(x)$  is the proposition:

*“there exists a unique  $x$  in the universe of discourse such that  $P(x)$ .”*

The notation  $\exists!x P(x)$  denotes the uniqueness quantification of  $P(x)$ . The symbol  $\exists!$  is the **uniqueness quantifier**. We read the proposition  $\exists!x P(x)$  as “there exists a unique  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ” or “there is exactly one  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ ” or “there is one and only one  $x$  such that  $P(x)$ .”

We can avoid the use of uniqueness quantification with the following logical equivalences:

$$\begin{aligned}\exists!x P(x) &\equiv \exists x(P(x) \wedge \forall y(P(y) \rightarrow (y = x))) \\ &\equiv \exists x \forall y (P(y) \leftrightarrow (y = x))\end{aligned}$$

# Precedence of Quantifiers

The quantifiers  $\forall$  and  $\exists$  have higher precedence than all logical operators from propositional calculus.

For example,  $\forall x P(x) \vee Q(x)$  means  $(\forall x P(x)) \vee Q(x)$ , not  $\forall x(P(x) \vee Q(x))$ .

Operator	Precedence
()	-1
$\forall, \exists$	0
$\neg$	1
$\wedge$	2
$\vee$	3
$\rightarrow$	4
$\leftrightarrow$	5

Don't make the assumption that precedence of quantifiers and logical operators are well known. Put parentheses instead to make it clear.

# Definitions: Bound and Free Variables

- If a quantifier is used on the variable  $x$ , then this variable is **bound**.
- An occurrence of a variable that is not bound by a quantifier or set equal to a particular value is said to be **free**.
- When all the variables that occur in a propositional function are bound or set to a particular value, then the propositional function is a proposition.

# Examples of Bound and Free Variables

- Let  $P(x, y)$ , the propositional function “ $x + y = 0$ ”.
- The logical variables  $x$  and  $y$  are free and we cannot evaluate the truth value of  $P(x, y)$ .
- If the value 3 is set to  $x$ , then  $x$  is no longer a free variable, but  $P(3, y)$  is still a propositional function because  $y$  is still a free variable.
- If we apply the universal quantification to the variable  $y$ , the propositional function  $\forall y P(3, y)$  is now a proposition. Both variables  $x$  and  $y$  are no longer free and the truth value of the proposition is false.

# Negating Quantified Expressions

The negation of a quantifier changes the universal quantifier into the existential quantifier and vice versa.

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

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

These rules for negations for quantifiers are called **De Morgan's laws for quantifiers**.