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FOR SO MANY INDIVIDUALS

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In [2], Tarski introduces the numerical quantifiers. These are expressions $(\exists_k x)$ which mean "there are at least k individuals x such that", where k is any nonnegative integer. Thus $(\exists_1 x)$ is the ordinary quantifier $(\exists x)$. The numerical quantifiers may be defined in terms of the ordinary quantifier and identity as follows:

$$(\exists_0 x) A \text{ for } A \to A$$
$$(\exists_{k+1} x) A \text{ for } (\exists_k x) (\exists y) (-(x = y) \& A \& A(y/x)),$$

where y is the first variable which does not occur in A and A(t/x) is the result of substituting a term t for all free occurrences of x in A.

Because of their definability, the numerical quantifiers have rarely been considered on their own account. However, in this paper I consider a predicate logic without identity which is enriched with numerical quantifiers as primitive. In section 1, I present the syntax and semantics for this logic; and in sections 2 and 3, I establish its completeness.

1. The Logic L.

Syntax

Formulas These are constructed in the usual way from relation letters of given degree, (individual) constants, (individual) variables, the truth-functional connectives v and -, the quantifier (x) and the quantifiers $(\exists_k x), k = 2, 3, \ldots$. We use $(\exists_0 x) A$ to abbreviate $A \rightarrow A$ and $(\exists_1 x) A$ to abbreviate $(\exists x) A$, i.e. -(x) - A. Also we suppose that there are a denumerable number of individual variables and at least one predicate letter. Axioms (where $k = 2, 3, \ldots$, and $l = 1, 2, \ldots$)

- 1. All tautologous formulas
- 2. (x) $A \rightarrow A(t/x)$, t free for x in A
- 3. (x) $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow ((x) A \rightarrow (x) B)$
- 4. $A \rightarrow (x) A$, x not free in A
- 5. $(\exists_k x) A \rightarrow (\exists_l x) A, l \leq k$
- 6. $(\exists_k x) \land \longleftrightarrow \lor_{i=0}^k (\exists_i x) (\land \& B) \& (\exists_{k-i} x) (\land \& -B)$

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7. (x) $(A \to B) \to ((\exists_k x) A \to (\exists_k x) B)$ 8. $(\exists_k x) A \to (\exists_k y) A(y/x)$, y free for x in A and not free in A

Rules of Inference

Modus Ponens. From $A, A \rightarrow B$ infer B. Generalisation. From A infer (x)A.

Semantics

A structure **u** for a language **2** consists of:

- (a) a non-empty domain $|\mathfrak{A}|$
- (b) an assignment of an *n*-adic relation $\mathfrak{A}(R)$ on $|\mathfrak{A}|$ to each *n*-th place relation letter in \mathfrak{L}
- (c) an assignment of an element $\mathfrak{A}(a)$ of $|\mathfrak{A}|$ to each constant in \mathfrak{E} .

We may extend our language \mathfrak{L} to a language \mathfrak{L}' by adding each element of $|\mathfrak{A}|$ as a constant to \mathfrak{L} . We may then define the truth of a sentence (i.e. closed formula) of \mathfrak{L}' in the usual manner. The clause for $(\exists_k x), k = 2, 3, \ldots$, is:

 $(\exists_k x) A$ is true in \mathfrak{A} if and only if cord $\{a \in |\mathfrak{A}| : A(a/x)\} \ge k$.

Validity and modelhood etc. can then be defined in the usual manner.

2 A Preliminary Result. We say that a theory T has the Henkin property if whenever $(\exists x) A(x) \in T$ then $A(a) \in T$ for some constant a. (I use A(x) for a formula with at most one free variable x. A(t) is then A(x)(t/x)).

Fix on a consistent and complete theory T with the Henkin property and in a language **2**. As in the standard Henkin completeness proof for the predicate calculus it suffices to construct a canonical model **21** for T. However, we cannot simply let the domain of **21** be the set C of constants in **2**. Firstly because several constants may correspond to one individual; and secondly because one constant may correspond to several individuals.

We say constants a and b are indistinguishable, $a \sim b$, if for each formula $A(x), A(a) \leftrightarrow A(b) \epsilon T$. Clearly, \sim is an equivalence relation. So to overcome the first difficulty we can let the elements of \mathfrak{A} be equivalence classes [a] with respect to \sim .

We say A(x) defines [a] if [a] is the one and only member of C/\sim such that $A(a) \in T$. Now [a] corresponds to several individuals if some formula A(x) defines [a] and $(\exists_k x) A(x) \in T$ for some k > 1. So put

 $d([a]) = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if no } A(x) \text{ defines } [a] \\ k \text{ if } k \text{ is the greatest number such that for some } A(x), \\ A(x) \text{ defines } [a] \text{ and } -(\exists_{k+1} x) A(x) \epsilon T \\ \omega \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Then d([a]) gives the number of individuals corresponding to [a]. Then we may overcome the second difficulty by letting d([a]) individuals correspond to each [a]. Put

$$N(A(x)) = \sum d([a]), \text{ for } [a] \text{ such that } A(a) \in T.$$

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Then N(A(x)) gives the number of individuals "satisfying" A(x). Therefore we require the following lemma:

Lemma. For k > 0, $N(A(x)) \ge k$ if and only if $(\exists_k x) A(x) \in T$.

Proof. By induction on k.

 $k = 1 \Longrightarrow$. Suppose $N(A(x)) \ge 1$. Then clearly for some a, $A(a) \in T$. But then by axiom-scheme 2, $(\exists x) A(x) \in T$.

 \Leftarrow . Suppose $(\exists x) \land (x) \in T$. Since T has the Henkin property, $\land (a) \in T$ for some constant a. So $N(\land(x)) \ge 1$. $k > 1 \Longrightarrow$. Suppose $N(\land(x)) \ge k$ i.e.

 $\sum d([a])$, for [a] such that $A(a) \in T \ge k$. We distinguish two cases:

Case 1 A(x) defines some [a]. So $d([a]) \ge k$. But then by the definition of d some B(y) defines [a] and $(\exists_k y) B(y) \in T$. For by axiom-scheme 5, if $-(\exists_k y) B(y) \in T$ then $-(\exists_l y) B(y) \in T$ for all l > k. Let z be a variable which does not occur in A(x) or B(y). Then $(z) (B(z) \to A(z)) \in T$. For otherwise $(\exists z) (B(z) \& -A(z)) \in T$ and so by the Henkin property $B(b) \& -A(b) \in T$ for some b. But then not $a \sim b$ and B(y) does not define [a], contrary to assumption. Now $(\exists_k z) B(z) \in T$ by axiom-scheme 8. So $(\exists_k z) A(z) \in T$ by axiom-scheme 7. Hence $(\exists_k x) A(x) \in T$, by axiom-scheme 8 again.

Case 2 A(x) defines no [a]. Then there are distinct [a] and [b] such that A(a), $A(b) \in T$. So there is a formula B(y) such that $B(a) \in T$ and $B(b) \notin T$. Let $X = \{[a] : A(a) \in T\}$, $Y = \{[a] : A(a) \& B(a) \in T\}$ and $Z = \{[a] : A(a) \& -B(a) \in T\}$. Then it is easy to see that $\{Y, Z\}$ is a partition of X. So card X =card Y +card Z and card Y, card Z > 0. Hence there are integers l, m > 0 such that $l, m < k, l + m = k, N(A(z) \& B(z)) \ge l$ and $N(A(z) \& -B(z)) \ge m$, where z is a variable not in A(x) or B(y).

By the induction hypothesis, $(\exists_1 z) (A(z) \& B(z)), (\exists_m z) (A(z) \& -B(z)) \epsilon$ T. So by axiom-scheme 7, $(\exists_k z) A(z) \epsilon T$. Therefore $(\exists_k x) A(x) \epsilon T$ by axiom-scheme 8.

 \Leftarrow . Suppose $(\exists_k x) A(x) \in T$. Again we distinguish two cases:

Case 1 A(x) defines some [a]. Then by axiom-scheme 5, it should be clear that $d([a]) \ge k$. So $N(A(x)) \ge k$.

Case 2 A(x) defines no [a]. $A(a) \in T$ for some a by the Henkin property. So there are distinct [a] and [b] such that $A(a), A(b) \in T$. So $A(a) \& B(a), A(b) \& -B(b) \in T$ for some formula B(y). By axiom-scheme 8, $(\exists_k z) A(z) \in T, z$ not in A(x) or B(y), and by axiom-scheme 6, $(\exists_i z) (A(z) \& B(z)), (\exists_{k-i} z) (A(z) \& -B(z)) \in T$ for some $i = 0, 1, \ldots, k$. Now $(\exists_1 z) (A(z) \& B(z)), (\exists_1 z) (A(z) \& -B(z)) \in T$. So by axiom-scheme 2 we may suppose $0 \le i \le k$. But then by the induction hypothesis $N(A(z) \& B(z)) \ge i$ and $N(A(z) \& -B(z)) \ge k - i$. Hence $N(A(x)) \ge N(A(z)) \ge k$.

3 Completeness. Let $D = \{\langle [a], l \rangle : 0 \leq l < d ([a]) \}$. Extend the language **2** of T to **2'** by adding the elements of D as constants. The *canonical* structure **1** for **2'** is then defined as follows:

- (a) $|\mathfrak{A}| = D$
- (b) $\mathfrak{U}(R) = \{\langle \langle [a_1], l \rangle, \ldots, \langle [a_n], l \rangle \rangle \in D^n : Ra_1 \ldots a_n \in T \}$ for each relation R in \mathfrak{L} of degree n
- (c) $\mathfrak{U}(e) = e$ for $e \in D$ and $\mathfrak{U}(a) = \langle [a], 0 \rangle$ for a in \mathfrak{L} .

If A is a sentence of \mathfrak{L}' , let A' be any sentence of \mathfrak{L} obtained by replacing each constant $\langle [a], l \rangle$ in A by a.

Theorem (On the Canonical Model). For any sentence A of \mathfrak{L}' , A is true in \mathfrak{A} if and only if $A' \in T$.

Proof. By induction on the length of A. We consider only the main case when $A = (\exists_k x) A(x)$. Now $(\exists_k x) A(x)$ is true in **A**

- iff cord {([a], l) $\epsilon D : A(\langle [a], l \rangle)$ is true in $\mathfrak{A} \ge k$ (by semantical clause for $(\exists_k x)$)
- iff card $\{\langle [a], l \rangle \in D : A'(a) \in T\} \ge k$ (by the induction hypothesis)
- iff $N(A'(x)) \ge k$ (by the definitions of d and D)
- iff $(\exists_k x) A'(x) \epsilon T$ (by the lemma).

Since our logic contains the ordinary predicate logic we know that every consistent set of sentences is contained in a consistent and complete theory with the Henkin property. So by standard methods we can obtain such results as the following.

Corollary 1 (Completeness) A is a theorem of \mathbf{g} if and only if A is valid. Corollary 2 Every consistent set of sentences has a model.

Finally, it is worth noting the connection between this and [1]. The uniform monadic predicate logic with numerical quantifiers is isomorphic, syntactically and semantically, to S5n. P(x) corresponds to p and $(\exists_k x)$ to M_k . On the other hand, the predicate logics with several variables introduce something new, as do the modal logics weaker than S5n.

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