Peter Smith, Introduction to Formal Logic (CUP, 2nd edition)

## Exercises 18: The truth-functional conditional

- (a) Suppose we are working in a PL language where 'P' means Putnam is a philosopher, 'Q' means Quine is a philosopher, etc. Translate the following as best you can:
- (1) If either Quine or Putnam is a philosopher, so is Russell.

$$((Q \lor P) \to R)$$

(2) Only if Putnam is a philosopher is Russell one too.

$$(R \rightarrow P)$$

(3) Quine and Russell are both philosophers only if Sellars is.

$$((Q \land R) \rightarrow S)$$

(4) Russell's being a philosopher is a necessary condition for Quine's being one.

$$(Q \rightarrow R)$$

To say (i) A is a necessary condition for B is to say that you can't have B without having A, so certainly implies (ii) if not-A, then we can't have not-B, or equivalently (ii') if B is to be true, A has to true too and hence implies the corresponding formal wff (iii)  $(B \to A)$  is true.

But does (i) say *more* than (iii)? Arguably so – after all  $(B \to A)$  is true just so long as A is true, and yet it would seem *very* odd to say that when A happens to be true, it is a necessary condition for any old unrelated B! What's gone missing, it seems, in going from (i) to (iii) is the implication of *some* sort of genuine link between A and B. But in the PL language we have, with just a material conditional available, the given translation for (4), or its contrapositive, is the best we can do.

(5) Russell's being a philosopher is a sufficient condition for Quine's being one.

$$(R \rightarrow Q)$$

To say (i) A is a sufficient condition for B is to say that having A true is enough for ensure that B holds as well, so certainly implies (ii) if A is to be true, B has to true too and hence implies the corresponding formal wff (iii) ( $A \rightarrow B$ ) is true. But does (i) say more than (iii)? Surely so – after all ( $A \rightarrow B$ ) is true just so long as B is true, and yet it would seem very odd to say that when B happens to be true, any old unrelated A is sufficient for B! Again, what's gone missing, it seems, in going from (i) to (iii) is the implication of some sort of genuine link between A and B. But in the language we have, with just a material conditional available, the given translation for (5) is also the best we can do.

(6) Putnam is a philosopher if and only if Quine isn't.

$$((\neg Q \to P) \land (P \to \neg Q))$$

The first clause translate the 'if' part, the second clause translates the 'only if' part.

(7) Provided that Quine is a philosopher, Russell is one too.

$$(Q \rightarrow R)$$

It seems that 'provided that A, B' is typically equivalent to 'if A then B'.

(8) Quine is not a philosopher unless Russell is one.

$$(Q \rightarrow R)$$

(8) is surely equivalent to Quine is a philosopher only if Russell is one, and hence the suggested formal rendition.

Now, if not-A unless B goes to the corresponding formal  $(A \to B)$ , plain A unless B should go to  $(\neg A \to B)$ , which is truth-functionally equivalent to  $(A \lor B)$ . That squares with our response to Exercises 10 (a) 9.

(9) Only if either Putnam or Russell is a philosopher are both Quine and Sellars philosophers.
((Q ∧ S) → (P ∨ R))

- (b) Assuming that we are dealing with a suitable PL language. Which of the following arguments ought to come out valid, assuming that ' $\rightarrow$ ' is a reasonably good surrogate for 'if ..., then ...'? Which is tautologically valid?
- (1) P,  $(P \rightarrow Q)$ ,  $(Q \rightarrow R)$   $\therefore$  R

Ought to be valid! Given P and if P then Q we can infer Q by modus ponens. Given if Q then R as well, we can infer R by another modus ponens, getting the conclusion as claimed.

A truth table confirms (1) is tautologically valid.

(2) 
$$\neg R$$
,  $(P \rightarrow R)$ ,  $(Q \rightarrow P)$   $\therefore \neg Q$ 

Ought to be valid! Taking the premisses in the opposite order, given if Q then P and if P then R we of course can infer if Q then R (that's the transitivity of the conditional). And from that and the first premiss  $\neg R$ , our conclusion follows by modus tollens.

A truth table confirms (2) is tautologically valid.

(3) 
$$(P \rightarrow \neg (Q \lor R)), (Q \rightarrow R), (\neg R \rightarrow P) \therefore (P \rightarrow R)$$

This doesn't look like a plausible argument! And it isn't tautologically valid – the line of the truth-table where P := T, Q := F, R := F makes the premisses true and conclusion false.

You'd discover that by a brute truth-table test. But you could also reason as follows. Suppose there is a bad line, making the premisses true and conclusion false (as we suspect there will be!). Then, to make the conclusion false, we will need P := T, and R := F. To make the second premiss true, we will then also need Q := F. So there's nothing else to do but check that this assignment of values to the atoms makes the first and third premisses true too – which it does!

(4) 
$$(P \lor Q), (P \to R), \neg(Q \land \neg R) \therefore R$$

Ought to be valid! The second and third premisses reflect the claims that if P then R and that we can't have Q without also having R. So if we are also given that P or Q, we know that we can conclude R either way.

A truth table confirms (4) is tautologically valid.

(5) 
$$(R \rightarrow (\neg P \lor Q)), (P \land \neg R) : \neg (\neg R \lor Q)$$

This doesn't look like a plausible argument! And it isn't tautologically valid – a line of the truth-table where  $P \coloneqq T$ ,  $R \coloneqq F$  (and Q is either value) makes the premisses true and conclusion false.

You'd discover that by a brute truth-table test. But you could also reason as follows. Suppose there is a bad line, making the premisses true and conclusion false (as we suspect there will be!). Then, to make the second premiss true, we will need P := T, and R := F. But R := F is enough to make the first premiss true and the conclusion false!

(6) 
$$(\neg P \lor Q), \neg (Q \land \neg R) \therefore (P \to R)$$

Ought to be valid! Suppose we are told that (i) either not-P or Q and (ii) not(Q while not-R). Well, then, if P, by (i) we have Q, and from that and (ii) we can rule out not-R, i.e. conclude R.

A truth table confirms (6) is tautologically valid.

(7)  $(P \land \neg R), (Q \rightarrow R) \therefore \neg (P \rightarrow Q)$ 

Ought to be valid! Suppose we are told that (i) P and not-R, (ii) if Q then R, and (iii) if P then Q. Then (i) gives us P, so from (iii) we get Q and then from (ii) we get R, contradicting (i). So (i) and (ii) together must rule out (iii), i.e. show not-(if P then Q).

A truth table confirms (7) is tautologically valid.

(8) 
$$\neg(\neg S \rightarrow (\neg Q \land R)), (P \lor \neg \neg Q), (R \lor (S \rightarrow P)) \therefore (P \rightarrow S)$$

This doesn't look like a plausible argument! And it isn't tautologically valid, as you'd discover by a brute truth-table test.

However, you could also reason as follows. Suppose there is a bad line, making the premisses true and conclusion false (as we suspect there will be!). Then, to make the conclusion false, we will need P := T, and S := F.

But P := T makes the second premiss true, while S := F makes  $(S \to P)$  true and hence makes the third premiss true. So can now just choose values of Q and R to make  $(\neg Q \land R)$  false, and hence make the first premiss true.

- (c) Which of the following are true for all  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  in a PL language and why? Which of the true claims correspond to true claims about the vernacular (bi)conditional?
- (1) If  $\alpha, \beta \vDash \gamma$  then  $\alpha \vDash (\beta \to \gamma)$ .

This is true. Fix on some wffs  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ . If every relevant valuation which makes  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  true makes  $\gamma$  true, then every valuation which makes  $\alpha$  true either doesn't make  $\beta$  true or makes  $\gamma$  true, i.e. every valuation which makes  $\alpha$  true makes  $(\beta \to \gamma)$  true.

And it corresponds to an intuitive truth: given that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  logically entail  $\gamma$ , then  $\alpha$  entails that if you have  $\beta$  then it will be true that  $\gamma$ .

(2) 
$$((\alpha \land \beta) \to \gamma) = (\alpha \to (\beta \to \gamma)).$$

This is true. Take some wffs  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ . You can use a truth-table to confirm that (whatever values those wffs take)  $((\alpha \wedge \beta) \rightarrow \gamma)$  always takes the same value as  $(\alpha \rightarrow (\beta \rightarrow \gamma))$ .

The left-to-right direction corresponds to an intuitive truth. If  $\gamma$  is true given that  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are, then if  $\alpha$  is indeed true, then if  $\beta$  is true as well, then  $\gamma$  will be true. Similarly for the right-to-left direction.

(3) 
$$((\alpha \lor \beta) \to \gamma) \triangleq ((\alpha \to \gamma) \lor (\beta \to \gamma)).$$

It is easy to check that  $((\alpha \vee \beta) \to \gamma) \vDash ((\alpha \to \gamma) \vee (\beta \to \gamma))$ . Indeed we have the stronger claim  $((\alpha \vee \beta) \to \gamma) \vDash ((\alpha \to \gamma) \wedge (\beta \to \gamma))$  (why should we expect that?).

But the converse doesn't hold, i.e.  $((\alpha \to \gamma) \lor (\beta \to \gamma)) \vDash ((\alpha \lor \beta) \to \gamma)$  is false. Just replace  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  with false wffs and  $\beta$  with a true wff, and the left-hand wff will be true, and the right-hand wff false.

(4) If 
$$\vDash (\alpha \to \beta)$$
 and  $\vDash (\beta \to \gamma)$ , then  $\vDash (\alpha \to \gamma)$ .

Obviously true. Take some wffs  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$ . If every valuation makes both  $(\alpha \to \beta)$  and  $(\beta \to \gamma)$  true it will make  $(\alpha \to \gamma)$  true.

But the converse doesn't hold, i.e.  $((\alpha \to \gamma) \lor (\beta \to \gamma)) \vDash ((\alpha \lor \beta) \to \gamma)$  is false. Just replace  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  with false wffs and  $\beta$  with a true wff, and the left-hand wff will be true, and the right-hand wff false.

(5) If 
$$\vDash (\alpha \to \beta)$$
 and  $\vDash (\alpha \to \neg \beta)$ , then  $\vDash \neg \alpha$ .

Obviously true. Take some wffs  $\alpha, \beta$ . If  $\vDash (\alpha \to \beta)$ , then every valuation which makes  $\alpha$  true makes  $\beta$  true. If  $\vDash (\alpha \to \neg \beta)$ , then every valuation which makes  $\alpha$  true makes  $\beta$  false. So no valuation can make  $\alpha$  true (since no valuation can make  $\beta$  and  $\neg \beta$  true). Hence  $\vDash \neg \alpha$ .

And this is again what we should intuitively expect: if it a logical truth both that if  $\alpha$  then  $\beta$  and if  $\alpha$  than  $\neg \beta$ , then it will be a logical truth that  $\alpha$  is false.

- (6)  $\models (\alpha \leftrightarrow \alpha)$
- (7)  $(\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta) \vDash (\beta \leftrightarrow \alpha)$ .
- (8)  $(\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta), (\beta \leftrightarrow \gamma) \vDash (\alpha \leftrightarrow \gamma).$

Three easy results corresponding to three intuitive claims about the logic of the biconditional.

- (9) If  $\vDash \alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$  then  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are tautologically consistent.
  - False! Suppose  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are both contradictions; then  $\models \alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$  but they are not tautologically consistent (no valuation makes them true together).
- (10) If  $\vDash \alpha \leftrightarrow \neg \beta$  then  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are tautologically inconsistent.

True! If  $\vDash \alpha \leftrightarrow \neg \beta$  then every valuation which makes  $\alpha$  true makes  $\beta$  false – hence there is no valuation which makes  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  true together, i.e. they are tautologically inconsistent.

- (d\*) On alternative languages for propositional logic:
- (1) Suppose the language  $PL_1$  has just the connectives  $\rightarrow$  and  $\neg$  (with the same interpretation as before). Show that disjunction and conjunction can be expressed in  $PL_1$ . Conclude that  $PL_1$  has an expressively adequate set of built-in connectives.

This question is starred not because it is difficult or involved, but simply to highlight that here are two (easy!) facts that you ought to know.

- For (1), just note that in PL,  $(\alpha \vee \beta)$  is equivalent to  $(\neg \alpha \to \beta)$  and  $(\alpha \wedge \beta)$  is equivalent to  $\neg(\alpha \to \neg\beta)$ . Now we knew already that any truth-function can be expressed in PL using a wff using conjunction, disjunction and negation. So now we know that truth-function can be expressed in PL using a wff using just the conditional and negation (by replacing each conjunction or disjunction with an equivalent using the conditional and negation). So in fact the limited resources of PL<sub>1</sub> will be enough to express every truth-function.
- (2) Consider too the variant language  $PL_2$  whose only logical constants are  $\rightarrow$  and the absurdity constant  $\bot$ . Show that in  $PL_2$  we can introduce a negation connective so that  $\neg \alpha$  is shorthand for  $(\alpha \rightarrow \bot)$ . Conclude that  $PL_2$  is also expressively adequate.

Check that claim that  $\neg \alpha$  is equivalent to  $(\alpha \to \bot)$ . It then follows from the result in (1) that every truth-function can be expressed by some wff using just the conditional and negation, that (2) every truth-function can be expressed by some wff using just the conditional and the absurdity constant.