

Honors Logic, Lecture 02

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Seven Symbols

Classical Models

Entailment

Negation

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- This is kind of weird in English; we usually put negations in the predicate not at sentence level.
- There was a version of English occasionally spoken in the 90s that used "Not" after a sentence as a sentential negation, but this was a passing fad, and never became standard.

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- Again, this is a sentential connective.
- English has this, but it is probably more common to use it between predicates.
- Note that we'll use the term 'conjunction' exclusively for 'and'; in grammar books it is any term that connects two sentences.

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- Once again, it is a purely sentential connective.
- It is **inclusive** disjunction; we don't have a dedicated symbol for exclusive disjunction, though we could define one.
- This is a stipulative definition, but I think it's actually the right one for natural language disjunction. Though I'll leave that argument for class, not slides.

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- Most linguists/logicians/philosophers think it is a really bad translation of English “if”, though some think it is right.
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- We are about to get to what \supset stipulatively means.

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- This is sometimes shortened in writing to "iff". The pronunciations of this shortening are dire; better to say "if-and-only-if".
- Again, we're going to give it a stipulative definition.

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- And “entails” here means that whenever all the elements of Γ are true (in a model of the salient kind), A is true as well.
- This is sometimes called “model-theoretic entailment”.

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- That's to indicate which kinds of models are in play.
- When there is no subscript, just be a bit careful about which model we're using.

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- That is, $\Gamma \vdash A$ means that there is a proof of A given the premises in Γ .
- Just what a proof is becomes **really** context sensitive.
- It turns both on what logic we’re talking about, and what proof system for that logic we’re talking about.

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Priority

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- I'm not 100% sure of the sociological claim here.
- FWIW, I'm one of the minority (or perhaps not minority) that doesn't.
- But in this book, we're very much starting with \models .

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Inputs

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- So the inputs are sentences in a particular language.

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- You're possibly familiar with recursive definitions from other parts of math.
- They have a base case, and a rule for generating more.
- E.g., 0 is a number (that's the base), and if n is a number, then $n + 1$ is a number (that's the rule).

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- These are propositional variables.
- We'll write them as p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots
- We assume there are a countable infinity of them.
- Does everyone know what "countable infinity" means?
If not, we'll stop and go over it.

Building rule

If A and B are sentences (of arbitrary complexity), then so are:

- $\neg A$; $(A \wedge B)$, $(A \vee B)$, $(A \supset B)$, $(A \equiv B)$.

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If A and B are sentences (of arbitrary complexity), then so are:

- $\neg A$; $(A \wedge B)$, $(A \vee B)$, $(A \supset B)$, $(A \equiv B)$.
- When it is clear, we omit the outermost parentheses.
E.g., we'll write $p_0 \wedge p_1$ as a sentence although strictly speaking it is not.

That's all clause

- Why isn't this table a number? How do we know it isn't?

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- Answer, it isn't generated by adding 1 to a number, and that's the only way to generate numbers.

That's all clause

- Why isn't this table a number? How do we know it isn't?
- Answer, it isn't generated by adding 1 to a number, and that's the only way to generate numbers.
- We can do the same thing to rule out some things as sentences.

Rules

A valuation function for classical propositional logic is any function defined over these sentences (and nothing else) that satisfies the clauses on the next three slides.

- For any $i \in \mathbb{N}$, $v(p_i) \in \{0, 1\}$.

Boolean Rules

For any A, B :

- $v(\neg A) = 1$ if $v(A) = 0$, and $v(\neg A) = 0$ otherwise.

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- $v(A \vee B) = 1$ if $v(A) = 1$ or $v(B) = 1$, and $v(A \vee B) = 0$ otherwise.

Conditional Rules

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For any A, B :

- $v(A \supset B) = 1$ if $v(A) = 0$ or $v(B) = 1$, and $v(A \supset B) = 0$ otherwise.
- $v(A \equiv B) = 1$ if $v(A) = v(B)$, and $v(A \equiv B) = 0$ otherwise.

Worksheet

We'll leave the slides for a bit and go over some worked examples.

Seven Symbols

Classical Models

Entailment

Definition

- $\Gamma \models A$ just in case whenever every sentence in Γ gets value 1, so does A .

Working Out

- Assume Γ has finitely many elements. (The infinite case turns out to be the same, but it's messier.)

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- Assume Γ has finitely many elements. (The infinite case turns out to be the same, but it's messier.)
- Then there are k different sentence letters in $\Gamma \cup \{A\}$.
- So there are 2^k different v that are seeded by the assignment of each of these letters to 0 or 1.

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- If any do, argument is invalid (in classical propositional logic).
- If none do, argument is valid (in classical propositional logic).

A Worked Example

$$A \models (A \supset B) \supset A \models A$$

- How many sentence letters?

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$$A \models (A \supset B) \supset A \models A$$

- How many sentence letters?
- How many v to check?

$$v(A) = 1, v(B) = 1$$

- $v(A) = 1,$

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- $v(A) = 1,$
- $v(A \supset B) = 1,$

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- $v(A) = 1,$
- $v(A \supset B) = 1,$
- So $v((A \supset B) \supset A) = 1).$

$$v(A) = 1, v(B) = 1$$

- $v(A) = 1$,
- $v(A \supset B) = 1$,
- So $v((A \supset B) \supset A) = 1$.
- So this is a case where Γ gets value 1, and so does A .
No problem

$$v(A) = 1, v(B) = 0$$

- $v(A) = 1,$

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- $v(A) = 0$,
- $v(A \supset B) = 1$,
- So $v((A \supset B) \supset A) = 0$.
- So this is a case where Γ gets value 0, so it can't be a problem.

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- So $v((A \supset B) \supset A) = 0$.
- So this is a case where Γ gets value 0, so it can't be a problem.

Summary

There is no case where all of Γ is 1 and A is false, so valid.

Another worked example

$$A \models (A \supset B) \supset B \models A$$

- This one is not valid; can you find the v that's a problem.

The Counterexample

- $v(A) = 0, v(B) = 1.$

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- $v(A) = 0, v(B) = 1.$
- Then $v(A \supset B) = 1.$

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- $v(A) = 0, v(B) = 1.$
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The Counterexample

- $v(A) = 0, v(B) = 1$.
- Then $v(A \supset B) = 1$.
- So $v((A \supset B) \supset B) = 1$.
- But $v(A) = 0$.

A Familiar Example

- $A \vee B, \neg B \models A$

$$v(A) = 1, v(B) = 1$$

- $v(A \vee B) = 1$, but $v(\neg B) = 0$, so not all of Γ is 1.

$$v(A) = 1, v(B) = 0$$

- $v(A \vee B) = 1$, and $v(\neg B) = 0$, so all of Γ is 1.

$$v(A) = 1, v(B) = 0$$

- $v(A \vee B) = 1$, and $v(\neg B) = 0$, so all of Γ is 1.
- But $v(A) = 1$, so it's not a counterexample.

$$v(A) = 0, v(B) = 1$$

- $v(A \vee B) = 1$, but $v(\neg B) = 0$, so not all of Γ is 1.

$$v(A) = 0, v(B) = 0$$

- $v(A \vee B) = 1$, so not all of Γ is 1.

Summary

There is no case where **both** premises are 1, and conclusion is 0, so it is valid.

Last Example for Today

$$A \supset B, B \models A$$

- Can you find the counterexample?

Counterexample

$$v(A) = 0, v(B) = 1.$$

- Clearly that makes second premise 1 and conclusion 0.

Counterexample

$$v(A) = 0, v(B) = 1.$$

- Clearly that makes second premise 1 and conclusion 0.
- And reading off the rule for \supset , first premise is 1 as well.

For Next Time

- We'll look at how to use tableau to do proofs, which is much quicker than this when $k > 2$.

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- We'll look at how to use tableau to do proofs, which is much quicker than this when $k > 2$.
- And we'll talk about how these formal sentences relate to English/other natural language expressions.