

Logic and Set Theory

January 27, 2018

| | |
|-----------------|---|
| <i>CONTENTS</i> | 2 |
|-----------------|---|

Contents

| | |
|--------------------------------|----------|
| 0 Miscellaneous | 3 |
| 1 Propositional logic | 4 |
| 2 Syntactic implication | 6 |

0 Miscellaneous

Some introductory speech

1 Propositional logic

Let P denote a set of *primitive proposition*, unless otherwise stated, $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$.

Definition. The *language* or *set of propositions* $L = L(P)$ is defined inductively by:

- (1) $p \in L \ \forall p \in P$;
- (2) $\perp \in L$, where \perp is read as 'false';
- (3) If $p, q \in L$, then $(p \implies q) \in L$. For example, $(p_1 \implies L)$, $((p_1 \implies p_2) \implies (p_1 \implies p_3))$.

Note that at this point, each proposition is only a finite string of symbols from the alphabet $(,), \implies, \perp, p_1, p_2, \dots$ and do not really mean anything (until we define so).

By *inductively define*, we mean more precisely that we set $L_1 = P \cup \{\perp\}$, and $L_{n+1} = L_n \cup \{(p \implies q) : p, q \in L_n\}$, and then put $L = L_1 \cup L_2 \cup \dots$

Each proposition is built up *uniquely* from 1) and 2) using 3). For example, $((p_1 \implies p_2) \implies (p_1 \implies p_3))$ came from $(p_1 \implies p_2)$ and $(p_1 \implies p_3)$. We often omit outer brackets or use different brackets for clarity.

Now we can define some useful things:

- $\neg p$ (not p), as an abbreviation for $p \implies \perp$;
- $p \vee q$ (p or q), as an abbreviation for $(\neg p) \implies q$;
- $p \wedge q$ (p and q), as an abbreviation for $\neg(p \implies (\neg q))$.

These definitions 'make sense' in the way that we expect them to.

Definition. A *valuation* is a function $v : L \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ s.t.

- (1) $v(\perp) = 0$; (2)

$$v(p \implies q) = \begin{cases} 0 & v(p) = 1, v(q) = 0 \\ 1 & \text{else} \end{cases} \quad \forall p, q \in L$$

Remark. On $\{0, 1\}$, we could define a constant \perp by $\perp = 0$, and an operation \implies by $a \implies b = 0$ if $a = 1, b = 0$ and 1 otherwise. Then a valuation is a function $L \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ that preserves the structure $(\perp \text{ and } \implies)$, i.e. a homomorphism.

Proposition. (1) If v, v' are valuations with $v(p) = v'(p) \ \forall p \in P$, then $v = v'$ (on L).

(2) For any $w : P \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$, there exists a valuation v with $v(p) = w(p) \ \forall p \in P$. In short, a valuation is defined by its value on p , and any values will do.

Proof. (1) We have $v(p) = v'(p) \ \forall p \in L_1$. However, if $v(p) = v'(p)$ and $v(q) = v'(q)$ then $v(p \implies q) = v'(p \implies q)$, so $v = v'$ on L_2 . Continue inductively we have $v = v'$ on $L_n \ \forall n$.

(2) Set $v(p) = w(p) \ \forall p \in P$ and $v(\perp) = 0$: this defines v on L_1 . Having defined v on L_n , use the rules for valuation to inductively define v on L_{n+1} so we can extend v to L . \square

Definition. We say p is a *tautology*, written $\models p$, if $v(p) = 1 \forall$ valuations v .
Some examples:

(1) $p \implies (q \implies p)$: a true statement implies by anything. We can verify this by:

| $v(p)$ | $v(q)$ | $v(q \implies p)$ | $v(p \implies (q \implies p))$ |
|--------|--------|-------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |

So we see that this is indeed a tautology;

(2) $(\neg\neg p) \implies p$, i.e. $((p \implies \perp) \implies \perp) \implies p$, called the "law of excluded middle";

(3) $[p \implies (q \implies r)] \implies [(p \implies q) \implies (p \implies r)]$.

Indeed, if not then we have some v with $v(p \implies (q \implies r)) = 1$, $v((p \implies q) \implies (p \implies r)) = 0$. So $v(p \implies q) = 1$, $v(p \implies r) = 0$. This happens when $v(p) = 1$, $v(r) = 0$, so also $v(q) = 1$. But then $v(q \implies r) = 0$, so $v(p \implies (q \implies r)) = 0$.

Definition. For $S \subset L$, $t \in L$, say S *entails* or *semantically implies* t , written $S \models t$ if $v(s) = 1 \forall s \in S \implies v(t) = 1$, for each valuation v .

("Whenever all of S is true, t is true as well.")

For example, $\{p \implies q, q \implies r\} \models (p \implies r)$. To prove this, suppose not: so we have v with $v(p \implies q) = v(q \implies r) = 1$ but $v(p \implies r) = 0$. So $v(p) = 1$, $v(r) = 0$, so $v(q) = 0$, but then $v(p \implies q) = 0$.

If $v(t) = 1$ we say t is true in v or that v is a model of t .

For $S \subset L$, v is a model of S if $v(s) = 1 \forall s \in S$. So $S \models t$ says that every model of S is a model of t . For example, in fact $\models t$ is the same as $\emptyset \models t$.

2 Syntactic implication

For a notion of 'proof', we will need axioms and deduction rules. As axioms, we'll take:

1. $p \implies (q \implies p) \forall p, q \in L$;
2. $[p \implies (q \implies r)] \implies [(p \implies q) \implies (p \implies r)] \forall p, q, r \in L$;
3. $(\neg\neg p) \implies p \forall p \in L$.

Note: these are all tautologies. Sometimes we say they are 3 axiom-schemes, as all of these are infinite sets of axioms.

As deduction rules, we'll take just *modus ponens*: from p , and $p \implies q$, we can deduce q .

For $S \subset L$, $t \in L$, a *proof* of t from S consists of a finite sequence t_1, \dots, t_n of propositions, with $t_n = t$, s.t. $\forall i$ the proposition t_i is an axiom, or a member of S , or there exists $j, k < i$ with $t_j = (t_k \implies t_i)$.

We say S is the *hypotheses* or *premises* and t is the *conclusion*.

If there exists a proof of t from S , we say S *proves* or *syntactically implies* t , written $S \vdash t$.

If $\phi \vdash t$, we say t is a *theorem*, written $\vdash t$.

Example. $\{p \implies q, q \implies r\} \vdash p \implies r$.

we deduce by the following:

- (1) $[p \implies (q \implies r)] \implies [(p \implies q) \implies (p \implies r)]$; (axiom 2)
- (2) $q \implies r$; (hypothesis)
- (3) $(q \implies r) \implies (p \implies (q \implies r))$; (axiom 1)
- (4) $p \implies (q \implies r)$; (mp on 2,3)
- (5) $(p \implies q) \implies (p \implies r)$ (mp on 1,4);
- (6) $p \implies q$; (hypothesis)
- (7) $p \implies r$. (mp on 5,6)

Example. Let's now try to prove $\vdash p \implies p$. Axiom 1 and 3 probably don't help so look at axiom 2; if we make $(p \implies q)$ and $p \implies (q \implies r)$ something that's a theorem, and make $p \implies r$ to be $p \implies p$ then we are done. So we need to take $p = p, q = (p \implies p), r = p$. Now:

- (1) $[p \implies ((p \implies p) \implies p)] \implies [(p \implies (p \implies p)) \implies (p \implies p)]$; (axiom 2)
- (2) $p \implies ((p \implies p) \implies p)$; (axiom 1)
- (3) $(p \implies (p \implies p)) \implies (p \implies p)$; (mp on 1,2)
- (4) $p \implies (p \implies p)$; (axiom 1)
- (5) $p \implies p$. (mp on 3,4)

Proofs are made easier by:

Proposition. (2, deduction theorem)

Let $S \subset L$, $p, q \in L$. Then $S \vdash (p \implies q)$ if and only if $(S \cup \{p\}) \vdash q$.

Proof. Forward: given a proof of $p \Rightarrow q$ from S , add the lines p (hypothesis), q (mp) to obtain a proof of q from $S \cup \{p\}$.

Backward: if we have proof $t_1, \dots, t_n = q$ of q from $S \cup \{p\}$. We'll show that $S \vdash (p \Rightarrow t_i) \forall i$, so $p \Rightarrow t_n = q$.

If t_i is an axiom, then we have $\vdash t_i \Rightarrow (p \Rightarrow t_i)$, so $\vdash p \Rightarrow t_i$;

If $t_i \in S$, write down $t_i, t_i \Rightarrow (p \Rightarrow t_i), p \Rightarrow t_i$ we get a proof of $p \Rightarrow t_i$ from S ;

If $t_i = p$: we know $\vdash (p \Rightarrow p)$, so done;

If t_i obtained by mp: in that case we have some earlier lines t_j and $t_j \Rightarrow t_i$.

By induction, we may assume $S \vdash (p \Rightarrow t_j)$ and $S \vdash (p \Rightarrow (t_j \Rightarrow t_i))$.

Now we can write down $[p \Rightarrow (t_j \Rightarrow t_i)] \Rightarrow [(p \Rightarrow t_j) \Rightarrow (t_i)]$ by axiom 2, $p \Rightarrow (t_j \Rightarrow t_i), p \Rightarrow t_j \Rightarrow (p \Rightarrow t_i)$ (mp), $p \Rightarrow t_j, p \Rightarrow t_i$ (mp) to obtain $S \vdash (p \Rightarrow t_i)$.

These are all of the cases. So $S \vdash (p \Rightarrow q)$. \square

This is why we chose axiom 2 as we did – to make this proof work.

Example. To show $\{p \Rightarrow q, q \Rightarrow r\} \vdash (p \Rightarrow r)$, it's enough to show that $\{p \Rightarrow q, q \Rightarrow r, p\} \vdash r$, which is trivial by mp.

Now, how are \vdash and \models related? We are going to prove the *completeness theorem*: $S \vdash t \iff S \models t$.

This ensures that our proofs are sound, in the sense that everything it can prove is not absurd ($S \vdash t$ then $S \models t$), and are adequate, i.e. our axioms are powerful enough to define every semantic consequence of S , which is not obvious ($S \models t$ then $S \vdash t$).

Proposition. (3)

Let $S \subset L, t \in L$. Then $S \vdash t \implies S \models t$.

Proof. Given a valuation v with $v(s) = 1 \forall s \in S$, we want $v(t) = 1$.

We have $v(p) = 1 \forall p$ axiom as our axioms are all tautologies (proven earlier); $v(p) = 1 \forall p \in S$ by definition of v ; also if $v(p) = 1$ and $v(p \Rightarrow q) = 1$, then also $v(q) = 1$ (by definition of \Rightarrow). So $v(p) = 1$ for each line p of our proof of t from S . \square

We say $S \subset L$ consistent if $S \not\vdash \perp$. One special case of adequacy is: $S \models \perp \implies S \vdash \perp$, i.e. if S has no model then S inconsistent, i.e. if S is consistent then S has a model. This implies adequacy: given $S \models t$, we have $S \cup \{\neg t\} \models \perp$, so by our special case we have $S \cup \{\neg t\} \vdash \perp$, i.e. $S \vdash ((\neg t) \Rightarrow t)$ by deduction theorem, so $S \vdash \neg\neg t$. But $S \vdash ((\neg\neg t) \Rightarrow t)$ by axiom 3, so $S \vdash t$ (mp).

Theorem. (4)

Let $S \subset L$ be consistent, then S has a model.

The idea is that we would like to define valuation v by $v(p) = 1 \iff p \in S$, or more sensibly, $v(p) = 1 \iff S \vdash p$.

But maybe $S \not\vdash p_3, S \not\vdash \neg p_3$, but a valuation maps half of L to 1, so we want to 'grow' S to contain one of p or $\neg p$ for each $p \in L$, while keeping consistency.

Proof. Claim: for any consistent $S \subset L$, $p \in L$, $S \cup \{p\}$ or $S \cup \{\neg p\}$ consistent.
Proof of claim. If not, then $S \cup \{p\} \vdash \perp$ and $S \cup \{\neg p\} \vdash \perp$, then $S \vdash (p \implies \perp)$ (deduction theorem), i.e. $S \vdash \neg p$, so $S \vdash \perp$ contradiction.

Now L is countable as each L_n is countable, so we can list L as t_1, t_2, \dots . Put $S_0 = S$; set $S_1 = S_0 \cup \{t_1\}$ or $S_0 \cup \{\neg t_1\}$ so that S_1 is consistent. Then set $S_2 = S_1 \cup \{t_2\}$ or $S_1 \cup \{\neg t_2\}$ so that S_2 is consistent, and continue likewise. Set $\bar{S} = S_0 \cup S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots$. Then $\bar{S} \supset S$, and \bar{S} is consistent (as each S_n is, and each proof is finite). $\forall p \in L$, we have either $p \in \bar{S}$ or $(\neg p) \in \bar{S}$. Also, \bar{S} is *deductively closed*, meaning that is $\bar{S} \vdash p$ then $p \in \bar{S}$: if $p \notin \bar{S}$ then $(\neg p) \in \bar{S}$, so $\bar{S} \vdash p$, $\bar{S} \vdash (\neg p)$ so $\bar{S} \vdash \perp$ contradiction.

Define $v : L \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ by $p \rightarrow 1$ if $p \in \bar{S}$, 0 otherwise. Then v is a valuation: $v(\perp) = 0$ as $\perp \notin \bar{S}$; for $v(p \implies q)$:

If $v(p) = 1$, $v(q) = 0$: We have $p \in \bar{S}$, $q \notin \bar{S}$, and want $v(p \implies q) = 0$, i.e. $(p \implies q) \notin \bar{S}$. But if $(p \implies q) \in \bar{S}$ then $\bar{S} \vdash q$ contradiction;

If $v(q) = 1$: have $q \in \bar{S}$, and want $v(p \implies q) = 1$, i.e. $(p \implies q) \in \bar{S}$. But $\vdash q \implies (p \implies q)$ so $\bar{S} \vdash (p \implies q)$;

If $v(p) = 0$: have $p \notin \bar{S}$, i.e. $(\neg p) \in \bar{S}$ and want $(p \implies q) \in \bar{S}$. So we need $(p \implies \perp) \vdash (p \implies q)$, i.e. $p \implies \perp, p \vdash q$ (deduction theorem). Thus it's enough to show that $\perp \vdash q$. But $(\neg \neg q) \implies q$, and $\vdash (\perp \implies (\neg \neg q))$ (axiom 3 and 1 – to see the second one, write \neg explicitly using \implies and \perp), so $\vdash (\perp \implies q)$, i.e. $\perp \vdash q$. \square

Remark. Sometimes this is called 'completeness theorem'. The proof used P being countable to get L countable; in fact, result still holds if P is uncountable (see chapter 3).

By remark before theorem 4, we have

Corollary. (5, adequacy)

Let $S \subset L$, $t \in L$. Then if $S \models t$ then $S \vdash t$.

And hence,

Theorem. (6, completeness theorem)

Let $S \subset L$, $t \in L$. Then $S \vdash t \iff S \models t$.

Some consequences:

Corollary. (7, compactness theorem)

Let $S \subset L$, $t \in L$ with $S \models t$. Then \exists finite $S' \subset S$ with $S' \models t$.

This is trivial if we replace \models by \vdash (as proofs are finite).

Special case for $t = \perp$: If S has no model then some finite $S' \subset S$ has no model. Equivalently,

Corollary. (7', compactness theorem, equivalent form)

Let $S \subset L$. If every finite subset of S has a model then S has a model.

This is equivalent to corollary 7 because $S \models t \iff S \cup \{\neg t\}$ has no model and $S' \models t \iff S' \cup \{\neg t\}$ has no model.

Corollary. (8, decidability theorem)

There is an algorithm to determine (in finite time) whether or not, for a given finite $S \subset L$ and $t \in L$, we have $S \vdash t$.

This is highly non-obvious; however it's trivial to decide if $S \models t$ just by drawing a truth table, and $\models \iff \vdash$.