



Statement Logic

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Logic

The program of logic

- The notion **valid argument**
- Analysis of **analytic truth**
- The notion **logical form**

The entailment relation \Rightarrow

- The entailment relation is a relation between sentences (statements), or between sets of sentences (statements)
- $\{ \text{John is Albanian, Mary is Swedish} \} \Rightarrow \{ \text{John is Albanian and Mary is Swedish} \}$
 - (1) If 'John is Albanian' is true and 'Mary is Swedish' is true, then 'John is Albanian and Mary is Swedish' is true.
- $\{ \text{John is Albanian and Mary is Swedish} \} \Rightarrow \{ \text{John is Albanian, Mary is Swedish} \}$
 - (2) If 'John is Albanian and Mary is Swedish' is true then 'John is Albanian' is true and 'Mary is Swedish' is true.
- $p \Rightarrow q$

If sentence 'p' is true, then sentence 'q' **MUST** be true.

Valid argument

- The entailment relation characterizes **valid arguments**
- A valid argument is an argument which is true **if the premises are true**
- Disjunctive Syllogism (an argument form)
Either Mary left or John was unhappy.
Mary did not leave.

John was unhappy
- { Either Mary left or John was unhappy, Mary did not leave } \Rightarrow { John was unhappy }

Interdisciplinary appeal

- The entailment relation is of interest to semanticists and to logicians.
- The entailment relation tells us something about meaning.
- The entailment relation plays a role in determining what arguments are valid.

Analytic truth

Mary is a tall basketball player \Rightarrow Mary is a basketball player

If sentence 'Mary is a tall basketball player' is true, then the sentence 'Mary is a basketball player' MUST be true.

True in virtue of what?

True in virtue of the meanings of the sentences

- Disjunctive Syllogism

Either Mary left or John was unhappy.

Mary did not leave.

John was unhappy

- Abstract away from the parts of the meaning that are irrelevant

- 'or' (\vee) and 'not' (\neg) are relevant

- $$\begin{array}{l} P \vee Q \\ \neg Q \\ \hline P \end{array}$$

The big Lebowski

Logicians don't care about whether a conclusion is true, only whether it preserves the truth of the premises. A valid argument:

(3) All politicians always tell the truth. Premise 1
 Arnold Schwarzenegger is a politician. Premise 2

Arnold Schwarzenegger always tells the truth. Conclusion

(4) All P are Q Premise 1
 x is P. Premise 2

X is Q. Conclusion

Tautology

A special case of a valid argument is a **tautology**. A tautology is a sentence that has to be true.

In other words, it's a one-sentence valid argument.

Either it's raining or it's not raining.

- **Valid argument:** an argument whose conclusion is true whenever the premises are true.
- **Entailment relation** \Rightarrow : Captures the relation that holds between sentences in a valid argument.
- **Analytic truth:** \Rightarrow holds between sentences in virtue of their meaning and is of interest to both logicians and semanticists.
- We are interested in characterizing the **form** (or logical form) of valid arguments, not just listing arguments



Truth-Functional Connectives

A logical language

We will capture a certain kind of simple valid argument by studying a logical language called **statement logic** which attempts to capture the logical form of arguments whose validity depends on certain words that connect sentences (**sentential connectives**):

...and...	\wedge
...or...	\vee
if...then	\rightarrow
...if and only if...	\leftrightarrow
not ...	\neg

Elements of statement logic

- A(n infinite) set of sentential variables (the arguments we are studying are all valid independently of what the sentences actually are):

$p, q, r, s, t, u, v, \dots$

- The connectives:

$\wedge, \vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow, \neg$

Syntax of statement logic

1. If α is a statement and β is a statement, then $\alpha \wedge \beta$ is a statement.
2. If α is a statement and β is a statement, then $\alpha \vee \beta$ is a statement.
3. If α is a statement and β is a statement, then $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is a statement.
4. If α is a statement and β is a statement, then $\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$ is a statement.
5. If α is a statement, then $\neg\alpha$ is a statement.

Conjunction

Name

Form

Example

Conjunction
and

$P \wedge Q$

Apples are sweet and radishes are bitter.

Truth Table		
P	Q	$P \wedge Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

Disjunction

Name

Form

Example

Disjunction

$P \vee Q$

Apples are sweet or radishes are bitter.

or

Truth Table		
P	Q	$P \vee Q$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

Material Implication

Name

Form

Example

Implication

$P \rightarrow Q$

If apples are sweet then radishes are bitter.

If... then, implies

Truth Table		
P	Q	$P \rightarrow Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

Biconditional

Name

Form

Example

Biconditional

$P \leftrightarrow Q$

Apples are sweet if and only if radishes are bitter.

...if and only if...

Truth Table		
P	Q	$P \leftrightarrow Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	T

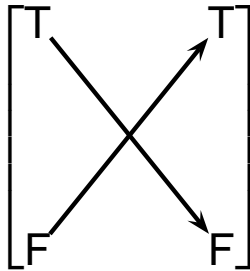
Negation

<u>Name</u>	<u>Form</u>	<u>Example</u>
Negation not	$\neg P$	Apples are not sweet.

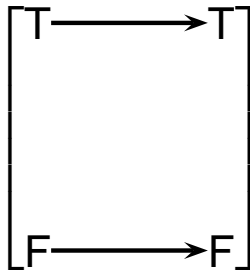
Truth Table	
P	$\neg P$
T	F
F	T

Connectives are Truth Functions

- Negation is one-place function from truth values to truth values.

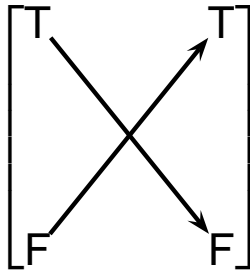


- Other 1 place truth functions

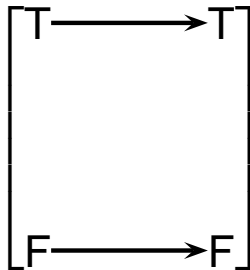


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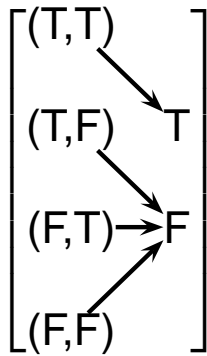
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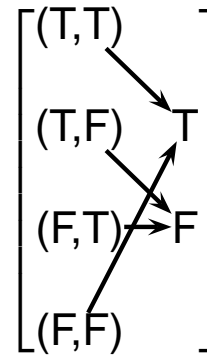
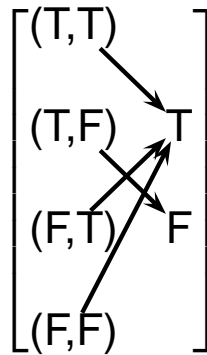
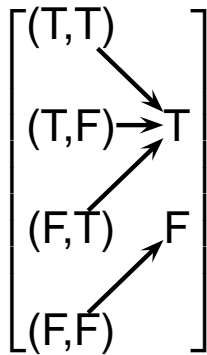
Corresponds to the English construction *It is true that....*

2 place Truth Functions

- Conjunction is a function from pairs of truth values to truth values.



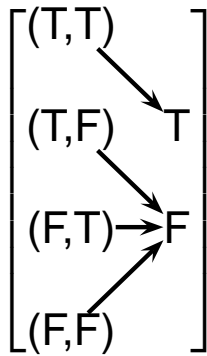
- Other 2 place truth functions



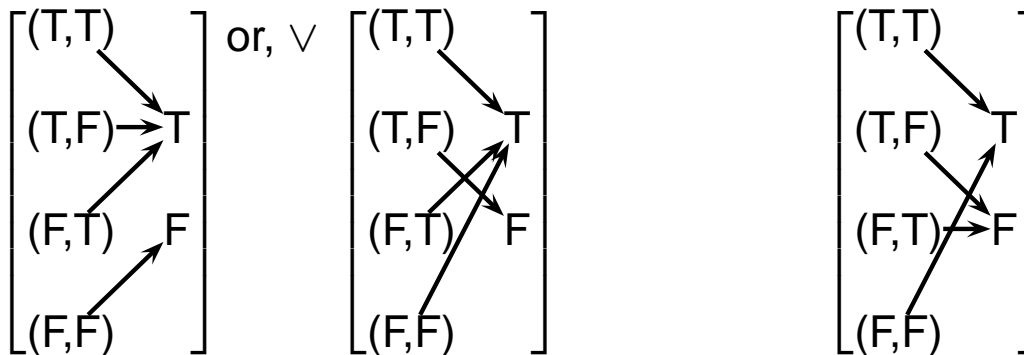
- How many distinct 2-place truth-functions are there?

2 place Truth Functions

- Conjunction is a function from pairs of truth values to truth values.



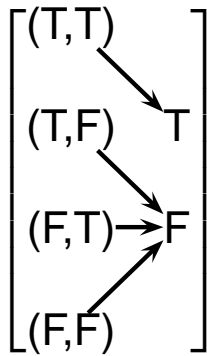
- Other 2 place truth functions



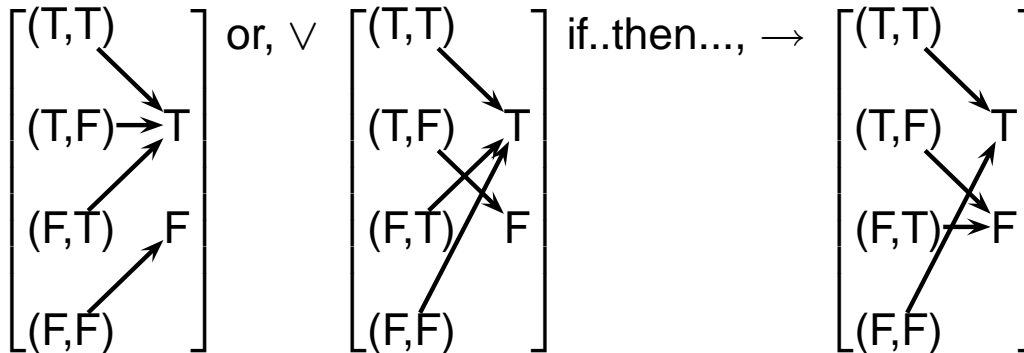
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2 place Truth Functions

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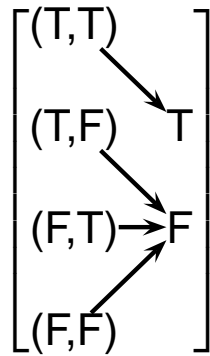
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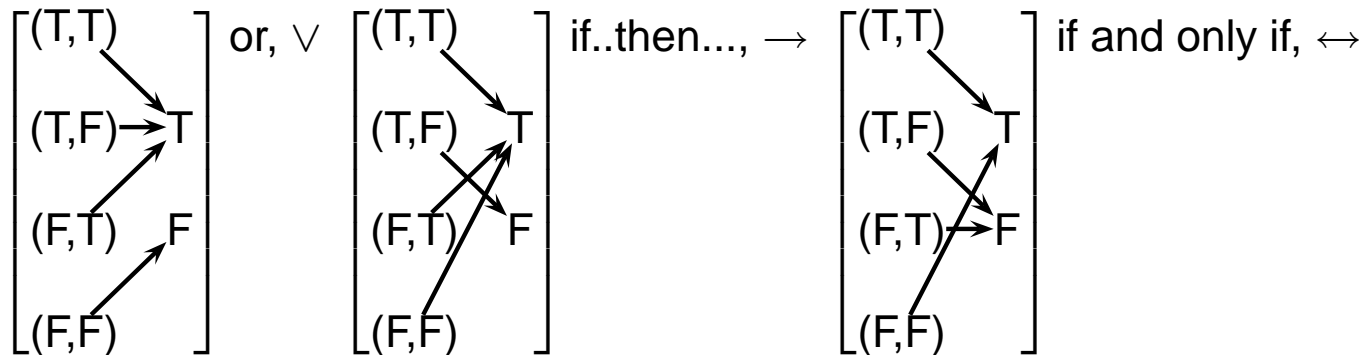
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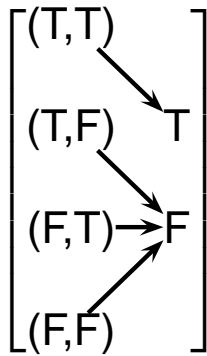
- Other 2 place truth functions



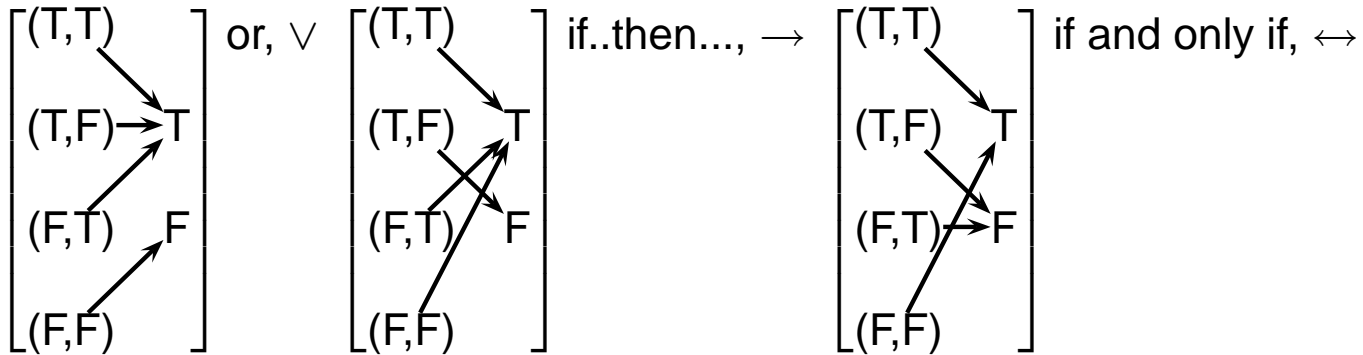
- How many distinct 2-place truth-functions are there?

2 place Truth Functions

- Conjunction is a function from pairs of truth values to truth values.



- Other 2 place truth functions



- How many distinct 2-place truth-functions are there? 16!



Laws for Truth Functional Connectives

Idempotent Laws

1.

$$(a) (P \vee P) \iff P$$

$$(b) (P \wedge P) \iff P$$

$P \vee P$ can always be substituted for P without changing the truth-value!

And vice versa!

Idempotent Laws

1.

$$(a) (P \vee P) \iff P$$

$$(b) (P \wedge P) \iff P$$

$P \vee P$ can always be substituted for P without changing the truth-value!

And vice versa!

Idempotent Laws proved!

Idea: Use truth-tables:

These two columns always have the same values!

The rows exhaust the possibilities.

P	$P \vee P$
T	T
F	F

Associative Laws

2.

(a) $((P \vee Q) \vee R) \iff (P \vee (Q \vee R))$

(b) $((P \wedge Q) \wedge R) \iff (P \wedge (Q \wedge R))$

Associativity for \wedge proved!

These two columns always have the same values!

P	Q	R	$P \wedge Q$	$Q \wedge R$	$(P \wedge Q) \wedge R$	$P \wedge (Q \wedge R)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	F	F	F
T	F	T	F	F	F	F
T	F	F	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	T	F	F	F	F	F
F	F	T	F	F	F	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F

Commutative Laws

3.

$$(a) (P \vee Q) \iff (Q \vee P)$$

$$(b) (P \wedge Q) \iff (Q \wedge P)$$

Distributive Laws

4.

$$(a) \quad ((P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R)) \iff (P \vee (Q \wedge R))$$

$$(b) \quad ((P \wedge Q) \vee (P \wedge R)) \iff (P \wedge (Q \vee R))$$

A Distributive Law proved!

These two columns always have the same values!

P	Q	R	$P \vee Q$	$P \vee R$	$(P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$	$Q \wedge R$	$P \vee (Q \wedge R)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	T	T	F	T
T	F	T	T	T	T	F	T
T	F	F	T	T	T	F	T
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	T	F	F	F	F
F	F	T	F	T	F	F	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

Associativity for \rightarrow disproved!

These two columns do NOT always have the same values!

P	Q	R	$P \rightarrow Q$	$Q \rightarrow R$	$(P \rightarrow Q) \rightarrow R$	$P \rightarrow (Q \rightarrow R)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	T	F	F	F
T	F	T	F	T	F	F
T	F	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	T	T	F	T
F	T	F	T	F	F	F
F	F	T	T	T	F	F
F	F	F	T	T	F	F

5.

$$(a) \quad (P \vee F) \iff P$$

$$(b) \quad (P \vee T) \iff T$$

$$(c) \quad (P \wedge F) \iff F$$

$$(d) \quad (P \wedge T) \iff P$$

Complement Laws

6.

(a) $(P \vee \neg P) \iff T$

(b) $\neg\neg P \iff P$

(c) $(P \wedge \neg P) \iff F$

De Morgan's Laws

7.

$$(a) \quad \neg(P \vee Q) \iff (\neg Q \wedge \neg P)$$

$$(b) \quad \neg(P \wedge Q) \iff (\neg Q \vee \neg P)$$

Conditional Laws

8.

$$(a) (P \rightarrow Q) \iff (\neg P \vee Q)$$

$$(b) (P \rightarrow Q) \iff (\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P)$$

$$(c) (P \rightarrow Q) \iff \neg(Q \wedge \neg P)$$

Biconditional Laws

9.

$$(a) \quad (P \leftrightarrow Q) \iff ((P \rightarrow Q) \wedge (Q \rightarrow P))$$

$$(c) \quad (P \leftrightarrow Q) \iff ((\neg Q \wedge \neg P) \wedge (P \wedge Q))$$



Statement Logic Rules of Inference

Bridging Rules

<u>Name and Abbr.</u>	<u>Form</u>	<u>Example</u>
Modus Ponens (M. T.)	$P \rightarrow Q$ P <hr/> Q	If Fred sang loud, Mary danced. Fred sang loud. <hr/> Mary danced.
Modus Tollens (M. T.)	$P \rightarrow Q$ $\neg Q$ <hr/> $\neg P$	If Fred sang loud, Mary danced. Mary didn't dance. <hr/> Fred didn't sing loud.

Syllogism Rules

<u>Name and Abbr.</u>	<u>Form</u>	<u>Example</u>
Hypothetical Syllogism (H. S.)	$P \rightarrow Q$ $Q \rightarrow R$ <hr/> $P \rightarrow R$	If 3 is bigger than 2 then 3 is bigger than 1. If 3 is bigger than 1 then 3 is bigger than 0. <hr/> If 3 is bigger than 2, then 3 is bigger than 0.
Disjunctive Syllogism (D. S.)	$P \vee Q$ $\neg P$ <hr/> Q	Either the bathroom is here or the bathroom is upstairs. The bathroom is not here. <hr/> The bathroom is upstairs.

Simplification Rules

<u>Name and Abbr.</u>	<u>Form</u>	<u>Example</u>
Simplification (Simp.)	$\frac{P \wedge Q}{P}$	<hr/> <p>Apples are sweet and radishes are bitter. Apples are sweet.</p>

Conjunction Rules

<u>Name and Abbr.</u>	<u>Form</u>	<u>Example</u>
Conjunction (Conj.)	P	Apples are sweet.
	Q	Radishes are bitter.
	<hr/> $P \wedge Q$	<hr/> Apples are sweet and radishes are bitter.

Addition Rules

<u>Name and Abbr.</u>	<u>Form</u>	<u>Example</u>
Addition (Add.)	$\frac{P}{P \vee Q}$	<u>Apples are sweet.</u> Apples are sweet or radishes are bitter.