

Interpreting Propositional Logic (Part 1)

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January 23, 2012

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- A couple of problems with doing this:
 - ① The validity of a complex PL sentence is always dependent on the validity of its component atomic PL sentences. But we can't always know whether all the atomic sentences are true or false!
 - ② The syntax of PL is recursive, so a PL sentence can be arbitrarily large. Given any two PL sentences S and T , we can always form $\neg S$, $S \wedge T$, $T \rightarrow S$, etc.

Overview

- To handle problem 1 above, we'll need to consider every possible way things could be.
- That is, given that we can't always know the truth value of each atomic proposition, we need to devise a scheme for discover what the truth value of a complex proposition *would be* just in case we *did* know what the truth values of all its component atomic propositions were.

Enumerating the Possibilities I

- To that end, we look at the simplest case: a single atomic proposition (call it A). Since A is a proposition, it must have a truth value, and so we know there are only two ways things could be (call them w_1 and w_2):

	A
w_1	T
w_2	F

Here, the **truth assignments** w_1 and w_2 capture all the possible truth values for A : either A is true (w_1) or else it is false (w_2).

Enumerating the Possibilities II

- The next most complicated case is a situation with two atomic propositions A and B . Now we have to consider four separate cases:

	A	B
w_1	T	T
w_2	T	F
w_3	F	T
w_4	F	F

In this case, both A and B could be true (or false) and A could be true with B false or vice versa.

- This is an instance of a general pattern: each time we consider another atomic proposition, the number of ways things could be doubles. That is, for a sentence of PL containing n atomic propositions, there are 2^n ways things could be.

Example I

- More concretely:
 - (1)
 - a. Pastor Ingqvist likes lutefisk.
 - b. Evelyn likes Powdermilk Biscuits.
 - c. Florian likes Walleye.

Example II

Let L be the proposition expressed by (1a), P the proposition expressed by (1b), and W the proposition expressed by (1c). Then there are $2^3 = 8$ possible truth assignments:

	L	P	W
w_1	T	T	T
w_2	T	T	F
w_3	T	F	T
w_4	T	F	F
w_5	F	T	T
w_6	F	T	F
w_7	F	F	T
w_8	F	F	F

Example III

- Suppose we happen to know that Evelyn does indeed like Powdermilk Biscuits and Florian really likes Walleye but that Pastor Ingqvist actually can't stand lutefisk. Then the truth assignment w_5 corresponds to how things are in the real world.
- But more generally, we'd like to know what *would have* happened in the other cases.

A Process for Computing Truth I

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- We also know that although there are infinitely many possible complex propositions, there are only finitely many *ways* of connecting atomic propositions to form complex ones (namely, five: \neg , \wedge , \vee , \rightarrow , and \leftrightarrow).
- So dealing with problem 2 above just means saying what each of the connectives does to the truth values of the proposition(s) (atomic or complex) it is connecting.

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- What fundamental motivating principle of semantics does this scheme remind you of?

Truth Table for \neg

- Negating a proposition toggles (reverses) its truth value. (Since negation operates on a single proposition, it is called a **unary connective**.)
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- That is, if a proposition P is true (false), then $\neg P$ is false (true).
- We capture this fact in the **truth table** for negation (shown in Table 1).

φ	$(\neg\varphi)$
T	F
F	T

Table 1: Truth table for negation.

This truth table says that for a given (atomic or complex) PL sentence φ , every truth assignment that assigns T for φ also assigns F for $\neg\varphi$ and vice versa.

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- Negation in PL is used to represent the English usages of negation found in *not*, *it is not the case that*, etc.
- To see if this interpretation of negation corresponds with our intuitions about how language and reasoning interact, consider

(2) Clint sees Myrtle.

Let M be the proposition expressed by (2). Then without knowing *whether* M is true or not, we know that *if* M is true then *Clint does not see Myrtle* (i.e., $\neg M$) is false. Likewise, if M is false, then $\neg M$ must be true.

Exercise 1

Given an argument that depends on four distinct atomic propositions, how many possible truth assignments are there for those atomic propositions?

Exercise 2

Assume that a certain argument is based on only four atomic propositions: A, B, C and D . Write out all the possible truth assignments that argument could have.

Exercise 3

Let S be a sentence of PL. To know the truth value of $(\neg S)$, do we have to know what the truth value of S is? Why or why not?