

PART I: Propositional Calculus

1. The language of propositional calculus

... is a very coarse language with limited expressive power

... allows you to break a complicated sentence down into its subclauses, but not any further

... will be refined in PART II *Predicate Calculus*, the true language of 1st order logic

... is nevertheless well suited for entering formal logic

1.1 Propositional variables

- all mathematical disciplines use variables, e.g. x, y for real numbers or z, w for complex numbers or α, β for angles etc.
- in logic we introduce variables p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots for sentences (*propositions*)
- we don't care what these propositions say, only their *logical properties* count, i.e. whether they are *true* or *false* (when we use *variables* for real numbers, we also don't care about *particular* numbers)

1.2 The alphabet of propositional calculus

consists of the following symbols:

the propositional variables $p_0, p_1, \dots, p_n, \dots$

negation \neg - the unary connective *not*

four binary connectives $\rightarrow, \wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow$
implies, and, or and if and only if respectively

two punctuation marks (and)
left parenthesis and right parenthesis

This alphabet is denoted by \mathcal{L} .

Note that these are *abstract symbols*.

Note also that we use \rightarrow , and not \Rightarrow .

1.3 Strings

- A **string (from \mathcal{L})**

is any finite sequence of symbols from \mathcal{L} placed one after the other - no gaps

- **Examples**

- (i) $\rightarrow p_1 \neg ()$
- (ii) $((p_0 \wedge p_1) \rightarrow \neg p_2)$
- (iii) $)) \neg) p_3 2$

- The **length** of a string is the number of symbols in it.

So the strings in the examples have length 4, 10, 5 respectively.

(A propositional variable has length 1.)

- we now single out from all strings those which make grammatical sense (*formulas*)

1.4 Formulas

The notion of a **formula of \mathcal{L}** is defined (*recursively*) by the following rules:

I. every propositional variable is a formula

II. if the string A is a formula then so is $\neg A$

III. if the strings A and B are both formulas then so are the strings

$(A \rightarrow B)$ read A *implies* B

$(A \wedge B)$ read A *and* B

$(A \vee B)$ read A *or* B

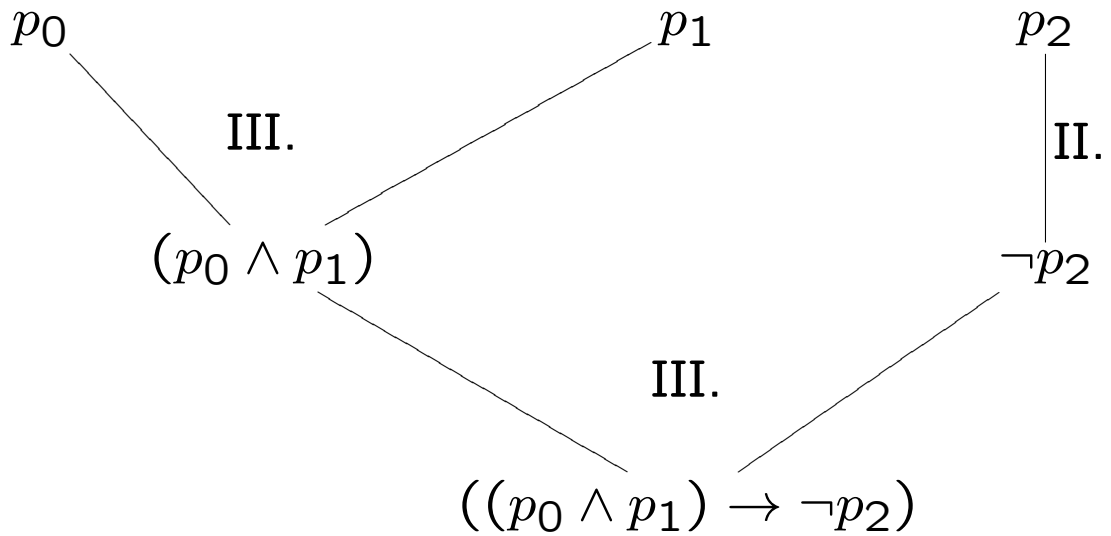
$(A \leftrightarrow B)$ read A *if and only if* B

IV. Nothing else is a formula,
i.e. a string ϕ is a formula if and only if ϕ can be obtained from propositional variables by finitely many applications of the *formation rules* II. and III.

Examples

- the string $((p_0 \wedge p_1) \rightarrow \neg p_2)$ is a formula (Example (ii) in 1.3)

Proof:



□

- Parenttheses are important, e.g. $(p_0 \wedge (p_1 \rightarrow \neg p_2))$ is a different formula and $p_0 \wedge (p_1 \rightarrow \neg p_2)$ is no formula at all
- the strings $\rightarrow p_{17}()$ and $)\neg)p_{32}$ from Example (i) and (iii) in 1.3 are no formulas - this follows from the following Lemma:

Lemma *If ϕ is a formula then*

- *either ϕ is a propositional variable*
- *or the first symbol of ϕ is \neg*
- *or the first symbol of ϕ is $($.*

Proof: Induction on $n :=$ the length of ϕ :

$n = 1$: then ϕ is a propositional variable - any formula obtained via formation rules (II. and III.) has length > 1 .

Suppose the lemma holds for all formulas of length $\leq n$.

Let ϕ have length $n + 1$

$\Rightarrow \phi$ is not a propositional variable ($n + 1 \geq 2$)

\Rightarrow either ϕ is $\neg\psi$ for some formula ψ - so ϕ begins with \neg

or ϕ is $(\psi_1 \star \psi_2)$ for some $\star \in \{\rightarrow, \wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow\}$ and some formulas ψ_1, ψ_2 - so ϕ begins with $($. \square

The unique readability theorem

*A formula can be constructed in only one way:
For each formula ϕ **exactly one** of the following holds*

(a) ϕ is p_i for some unique $i \in \mathbb{N}$;

(b) ϕ is $\neg\psi$ for some **unique** formula ψ ;

(c) ϕ is $(\psi\star\chi)$ for some **unique** pair of formulas ψ, χ and a **unique** binary connective $\star \in \{\rightarrow, \wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow\}$.

Proof: Problem sheet #1.