

Logical Consequence: Semantics

1 Truth Assignments

DEFINITION 1 (TRUTH ASSIGNMENT)

A **truth assignment** (i.e. an **interpretation**) is a function which takes a schema as input (including the atomic sentences “ p ”, “ q ”, “ r ”, ...) and assigns that schema to exactly one truth value.

If v is a truth assignment, it must satisfy these rules (for all A and B):

$$\begin{aligned}v(-A) = \top & \text{ iff } v(A) = \perp \\v(A \cdot B) = \top & \text{ iff both } v(A) = \top \text{ and } v(B) = \top \\v(A \vee B) = \top & \text{ iff either } v(A) = \top \text{ or } v(B) = \top \\v(A \supset B) = \top & \text{ iff either } v(A) = \perp \text{ or } v(B) = \top \\v(A \equiv B) = \top & \text{ iff } v(A) = v(B)\end{aligned}$$

Informally: truth assignments are “ways the world could be.”

Formally: truth assignments are just rows in a truth table.

The definition above can be formulated equally well in terms of which schemata v assigns \perp . For instance: $v(A \supset B) = \perp$ iff both $v(A) = \top$ and $v(B) = \perp$.

EXERCISE 2

Fill in the blanks:

$$\begin{aligned}v(-A) = \perp & \text{ iff} \\v(A \cdot B) = \perp & \text{ iff} \\v(A \vee B) = \perp & \text{ iff} \\v(A \supset B) = \perp & \text{ iff} \\v(A \equiv B) = \perp & \text{ iff}\end{aligned}$$

OBSERVATION: What's the point of all this? Now you have *three* ways to determine when a complex TF-schema A is true:

- (1) Write down a truth table for A (tedious).
- (2) Use the equivalences from the previous handout or write the schema in disjunctive normal form.
- (3) Determine what truth assignments make A true.

EXAMPLE 3

When is the schema " $\neg(p \vee (q \supset p))$ " true? That is, under what interpretations of " p " and " q " is this schema true? Using the rules above, we reason as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} v(\neg(p \vee (q \supset p))) = \top & \text{ iff } v(p \vee (q \supset p)) = \perp \\ & \text{ iff } \text{both } v(p) = \perp \text{ and } v(q \supset p) = \perp \\ & \text{ iff } \text{both } v(p) = \perp \text{ and } v(q) = \top \text{ and } v(p) = \perp \\ & \text{ iff } \text{both } v(p) = \perp \text{ and } v(q) = \top \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the schema " $\neg(p \vee (q \supset p))$ " is true when both " p " is false and " q " is true; otherwise, the schema is false.

When is the schema false? Well:

$$\begin{aligned} v(\neg(p \vee (q \supset p))) = \perp & \text{ iff } v(p \vee (q \supset p)) = \top \\ & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p) = \top \text{ or } v(q \supset p) = \top \\ & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p) = \top \text{ or } v(q) = \perp \text{ or } v(p) = \top \\ & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p) = \top \text{ or } v(q) = \perp \end{aligned}$$

Hence the schema is false when either " p " is true or " q " is false; otherwise, it is true. Notice this is consistent with our previous answer.

EXERCISE 4

Try out “ $\neg(p \cdot (p \supset q)) \vee \neg q$ ”:

$$v(\neg(p \cdot (p \supset q)) \vee \neg q) = \top \quad \text{iff}$$

2 Satisfiability

DEFINITION 5 (SATISFIABILITY)

When a schema A is given the value \top under *at least one* truth assignment, we say A is satisfiable. Otherwise, we say A is unsatisfiable.

EXAMPLE 6

“ $\neg(p \vee (q \supset p))$ ” is satisfiable: at least one interpretation makes it true, viz. one where $v(p) = \perp$ and $v(q) = \top$.

EXAMPLE 7

“ $\neg(p \supset q) \cdot \neg(q \supset p)$ ” is unsatisfiable:

$$\begin{aligned} v(\neg(p \supset q) \cdot \neg(q \supset p)) = \top & \quad \text{iff} \quad \text{both } v(\neg(p \supset q)) = \top \text{ and } v(\neg(q \supset p)) = \top \\ & \quad \text{iff} \quad \text{both } v(p \supset q) = \perp \text{ and } v(q \supset p) = \perp \\ & \quad \text{iff} \quad \text{both } v(p) = \top \text{ and } v(q) = \perp, \text{ and moreover} \\ & \quad \quad \text{both } v(q) = \top \text{ and } v(p) = \perp \end{aligned}$$

But this can never happen: v can only assign “ p ” to *one* truth value (similarly for “ q ”). So “ $\neg(p \supset q) \cdot \neg(q \supset p)$ ” is unsatisfiable. (Weird, huh?)

3 Validity

DEFINITION 8 (VALIDITY)

When a schema A is true under *every* truth assignment, we say A is **valid**, or that A is a **tautology**.

NOTATION: If A is valid, we may write “ $\models A$ ” to indicate this. If A is *not* valid (i.e. if A is false on some truth assignment), we may write “ $\not\models A$ ” instead.

WARNING: $\not\models A$ does *not* mean $\models \neg A$. For instance, let $A = “p”$.

EXAMPLE 9

“ $p \vee (p \supset q)$ ” is valid:

$$\begin{aligned} v(p \vee (p \supset q)) = \top & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p) = \top \text{ or } v(p \supset q) = \top \\ & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p) = \top \text{ or } v(p) = \perp \text{ or } v(q) = \top \end{aligned}$$

But this will always happen: v must *always* assign “ p ” to *some* truth value. So, “ $p \vee (p \supset q)$ ” is valid. (Weird, huh?)

4 Implication

DEFINITION 10 (IMPLICATION)

We say A **implies** B (or A **entails** B) if and only if every truth assignment v where $v(A) = \top$ is also a truth assignment where $v(B) = \top$. That is, A implies B if and only if there is no truth assignment v where $v(A) = \top$ but $v(B) = \perp$.

If A implies B , A is a **premise** and B is a **conclusion**.

NOTATION: We write “ $A \models B$ ” to mean “ A implies B .” When A *doesn't* imply B , we write “ $A \not\models B$.”

WARNING: $A \not\models B$ does *not* mean $A \models \neg B$. For instance, let $A = \text{“}p\text{”}$ and $B = \text{“}q\text{”}$.

COMMENT: There are two ways to show that $A \models B$ using truth assignments:

- (i) **Going Forward**: Supposing $v(A) = \top$, show it must be that $v(B) = \top$.
- (ii) **Going Backward**: Supposing $v(B) = \perp$, show it must be that $v(A) = \perp$.

EXAMPLE 11 (GOING FORWARD)

$p \cdot (q \vee r) \models (p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)$:

Suppose $v(p \cdot (q \vee r)) = \top$. We know that:

$$\begin{aligned} v(p \cdot (q \vee r)) = \top & \text{ iff } \text{both } v(p) = \top \text{ and } v(q \vee r) = \top \\ & \text{ iff } \text{both } v(p) = \top \text{ and either } v(q) = \top \text{ or } v(r) = \top \end{aligned}$$

So $v(p) = \top$, and either $v(q) = \top$ or $v(r) = \top$. We want to show from this that $v((p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)) = \top$. But:

$$\begin{aligned} v((p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)) = \top & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p \cdot q) = \top \text{ or } v(p \cdot r) = \top \\ & \text{ iff } \text{either both } v(p) = \top \text{ and } v(q) = \top \text{ or else} \\ & \quad \text{both } v(p) = \top \text{ and } v(r) = \top \end{aligned}$$

So we must show that either $v(p) = v(q) = \top$, or $v(p) = v(r) = \top$, given what we already know about v . We already know that $v(p) = \top$, and we know that either $v(q) = \top$ or $v(r) = \top$.

- **Suppose that** $v(q) = \top$. Since we know that $v(p) = \top$, we can infer from this that both $v(p) = \top$ and $v(q) = \top$. Hence, $v((p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)) = \top$.
- **Suppose instead** $v(r) = \top$. Again, since we know that $v(p) = \top$, we can infer that both $v(p) = \top$ and $v(r) = \top$. Hence, $v((p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)) = \top$.

So either way, we have $v((p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)) = \top$. □

EXAMPLE 12 (GOING BACKWARD)

$p \cdot (q \vee r) \models (p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)$: (same problem)

Suppose $v((p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)) = \perp$. We know that:

$$\begin{aligned} v((p \cdot q) \vee (p \cdot r)) = \perp & \text{ iff } \text{both } v(p \cdot q) = \perp \text{ and } v(p \cdot r) = \perp \\ & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p) = \perp \text{ or } v(q) = \perp, \text{ and moreover} \\ & \text{either } v(p) = \perp \text{ or } v(r) = \perp \end{aligned}$$

So either $v(p) = \perp$ or $v(q) = \perp$. Furthermore, either $v(p) = \perp$ or $v(r) = \perp$. We want to show from this that $v(p \cdot (q \vee r)) = \perp$. But:

$$\begin{aligned} v(p \cdot (q \vee r)) = \perp & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p) = \perp \text{ or } v(q \vee r) = \perp \\ & \text{ iff } \text{either } v(p) = \perp \text{ or} \\ & \text{both } v(q) = \perp \text{ and } v(r) = \perp \end{aligned}$$

So we must show that either $v(p) = \perp$, or else both $v(q) = \perp$ and $v(r) = \perp$. Apart from the above, we know (trivially) that either $v(p) = \top$ or $v(p) = \perp$.

- **Suppose** $v(p) = \perp$. Then we can infer that either $v(p) = \perp$ or both $v(q) = \perp$ and $v(r) = \perp$. So $v(p \cdot (q \vee r)) = \perp$.
- **Suppose** $v(p) = \top$. Since we know that either $v(p) = \perp$ or $v(q) = \perp$, we can infer $v(q) = \perp$. Similarly, since we know that either $v(p) = \perp$ or $v(q) = \perp$, we can infer $v(r) = \perp$. So both $v(q) = \perp$ and $v(r) = \perp$. But from this, we can infer that either $v(p) = \perp$ or both $v(q) = \perp$ and $v(r) = \perp$. So $v(p \cdot (q \vee r)) = \perp$.

So either way, we have $v(p \cdot (q \vee r)) = \perp$. □

COMMENT: Showing that $A \not\models B$ is less systematic. To show $A \not\models B$, one must find a *counter-example*, i.e. an interpretation where A is true but B is false.

EXAMPLE 13 (COUNTER-EXAMPLE)

$p \supset q \not\models (p \vee r) \supset q$. Consider the following truth assignment:

$$\begin{aligned} v(p) &= \perp \\ v(q) &= \perp \\ v(r) &= \top \end{aligned}$$

According to this truth assignment, $v(p \supset q) = \top$. But $v(p \vee r) = \top$, since $v(r) = \top$, and yet $v(q) = \perp$. So $v((p \vee r) \supset q) = \perp$. Hence, $p \supset q \not\equiv (p \vee r) \supset q$.

5 Generalized Implication

DEFINITION 14 (GENERALIZED IMPLICATION)

Let A_1, \dots, A_n, B all be schemata. We say that A_1, \dots, A_n **imply** B if and only if every truth assignment v where $v(A_1) = v(A_2) = \dots = v(A_n) = \top$, is also a truth assignment where $v(B) = \top$. If A_1, \dots, A_n imply B , we write $A_1, \dots, A_n \models B$.

LEMMA 15

$A_1, \dots, A_n \models B$ if and only if $(A_1 \cdot (A_2 \cdot (A_3 \cdot \dots \cdot A_n) \dots)) \models B$ (i.e. if and only if the iterated conjunction of A_1, \dots, A_n implies B).

6 Equivalence

DEFINITION 16 (EQUIVALENCE)

We say that A and B are **equivalent** if and only if A and B are given the same truth value for any truth assignment. That is, A and B are equivalent if and only if for every truth assignment v , $v(A) = v(B)$.

NOTATION: We sometimes write “ $A \models B$ ” to mean “ A is equivalent to B .” But we also sometimes write “ $A \Leftrightarrow B$.”

LEMMA 17

$A \models B$ if and only if both $A \models B$ and $B \models A$.

REMARK: Although the notation ‘ \models ’ is suggestive, we cannot just *assume* that this Lemma is true. We must prove it. Thankfully, the proof isn’t that complex.

► **PROOF:**

(“only if” part)

Suppose $A \not\models B$. Then for every truth assignment v , $v(A) = v(B)$. So if $v(A) = \top$, then $v(B) = \top$; hence $A \models B$. Similarly, if $v(B) = \top$, then $v(A) = \top$; hence $B \models A$. \square

(“if” part)

Suppose $A \models B$ and $B \models A$. If $v(A) \neq v(B)$, then either $v(A) = \top$ and $v(B) = \perp$, or vice versa. But if $v(A) = \top$ and $v(B) = \perp$, then $A \not\models B$, contrary to supposition. Similarly, if $v(B) = \top$ and $v(A) = \perp$, then $B \not\models A$, again contrary to supposition. So it can't be that $v(A) \neq v(B)$. Thus $A \models B$. \square

7 Implication vs. Conditional

Logical implication “ \models ” isn't the same as the conditional “ \supset .” For one, “ $A \supset B$ ” is a schema, whereas “ $A \models B$ ” is a relation between schemata. For another, if “ $A \models B$ ” is true, then so is “ $A \supset B$ ”; but even if “ $A \supset B$ ” is true, it doesn't follow that “ $A \models B$ ” is true. Consider:

“If Mal is the captain of Serenity, then he is a good captain.”

This may be true, but it's not as though “Mal is the captain of Serenity” *logically implies* “Mal is a good captain.” It is logically possible, after all, that Mal is a bad captain, even if he is captain of Serenity. Similarly,

“If Joey studies, then he'll pass.”

may be *just so happen* to be true (because Joey happens to be a smart fellow), but it's certainly possible to imagine a scenario where Joey studies but doesn't pass. Thus, one should never read “ $A \supset B$ ” as “ A *implies* B ” or “ A *entails* B .” Similar remarks hold about reading the *material biconditional* “ $A \equiv B$ ” as “ A is equivalent to B .”

Despite all that, ‘ \models ’ and ‘ \supset ’ *do* have a close connection to one another.

THEOREM 18 (DEDUCTION THEOREM)

Let A and B be schemata. Then $A \models B$ if and only if $\models (A \supset B)$.

THEOREM 19 (GENERALIZED DEDUCTION THEOREM)

More generally, if A_1, \dots, A_n, B are schemata, then $A_1, \dots, A_n \models B$ if and only if $A_1, \dots, A_{n-1} \models (A_n \supset B)$.

COMMENT: What the Deduction Theorem shows is that there's still a strong connection between logical implication and the material conditional. The theorem says that " A implies B " if and only if " $A \supset B$ " is *valid*, i.e. if and only if " $A \supset B$ " is a *logical truth*. So while the material conditional doesn't *express* implication, there's a sense in which the material conditional still *indicates* it. This is what Goldfarb is referring to with the use/mention distinction for logical entailment.