

A proposition is anything that is true or false. In mathematics, we are concerned with propositions which are true or false solely because of their logical structure. Propositions which are true solely because of their logical structure are called analytic.

In creating our logical language, we must do specify 3 groups of things; our logical axioms, our primitive propositions, and our rules of inference.

But before we introduce these, it is necessary to introduce some notation for describing our language. This notation is not a formal part of our system but is used to talk about it.

Greek letters - $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta, \epsilon, \zeta, \eta, \theta, \iota, \kappa, \lambda, \mu, \nu, \xi, \omicron, \pi, \rho, \sigma, \tau, \upsilon, \phi, \chi, \psi, \omega$ will be used as names of unspecified propositions.

Latin letters will be used as names of unspecified entities (individuals).

Quotations will be used to refer to the name of a proposition.
Eg. Europe contains six letters.

Contexts are used to refer to the specific context of a propositional expression.

Eg. If we use ϕ for 'Jones is away' and ψ for 'Smith is ill', then $\phi \equiv \neg \psi$ is 'Jones is away \equiv Smith is ill'.

A propositional function is produced by replacing an entity in a proposition by a variable, eg. if 'the apple is red' is replaced by x , the propositional function ' x is red' is produced.

We are now prepared to introduce our quantifiers.

The first, $\neg(\phi \wedge \psi)$ is a method of statement composition to produce a new proposition out of two old ones. $\neg(\phi \wedge \psi)$ is the joint denial of ϕ and ψ , and is true only in the case both ϕ and ψ are false.

$$\neg(\phi \wedge \psi)$$

T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	T
F	T	F

The second primitive $\lceil(x)\rceil$ is a method of turning a propositional function into a proposition. It is the universal quantifier and is used to assert a propositional function for all the values of its variable.

Eg $\lceil(x)(x \text{ is red})\rceil$ assert everything is red.

The third primitive $\lceil(x \in \beta)\rceil$ means almost the same as being in β , usually done in mathematics. In the case where β is a class, it means x is a member of β ; if β is not a class, it means equates β .

We are now prepared to introduce some more notation necessary for describing our primitive propositions.

Tautology:
To determine whether a statement is tautologous, we only need to see if it is true for all possible truth values of the atomic propositions compounded to form it.

Eg

$$\lceil((\emptyset \downarrow (\emptyset \downarrow \emptyset)) \downarrow ((\emptyset \downarrow \emptyset) \downarrow \emptyset))\rceil$$

T	F	T	F	T	T	F	T	F	T
F	F	F	T	F	T	F	T	F	F

The Closure of a formula (proposition or prop function) is obtained by applying whatever quantifiers are necessary (in alphabetic order) to turn the formula into a proposition. The closure of a proposition is the proposition.

Eg. The closure of the prop function $(x < y \equiv y > x)$ is $(y)(x)(x < y \equiv y > x)$ and is true

The closure of the prop function $(z)(x > z)$ is $(x)(z)(x > z)$ and is false.

Stratification In my last speech I mentioned Russell's contradiction. Some sets are ^{not} members of themselves, e.g. the set of all dogs is not a dog; and some sets are members of themselves, e.g. the set of all not-dogs. Now consider the set of all sets that are not members of themselves. Is it a member of itself? If it is a member of itself, then it cannot be a member of itself; and if it is ^{not} a member of itself, it must be a member of itself.

We need a way in which we can, in general, eliminate all the classes which will lead us to such troubles. Stratification is such a method. We will call a formula stratified if it is

possible to put numerals from the variables (the same numeral for all occurrences of the same variable) in such a way that the ' \in ' come to be flanked

always by consecutive ascending numerals.

Eg.

$$(x) ((x \in x) \downarrow ((z) ((y \in z) \downarrow (x \in y))))$$

is stratified and we can put

$$(4) ((3 \in 4) \downarrow ((5) ((4 \in 5) \downarrow (3 \in 4))))$$

The occurrence of a variable x is free if x is not bound to a quantifier.

Some handy abbreviations

statement composition

$$\Gamma \sim \emptyset \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma (\emptyset \downarrow \emptyset) \Gamma$$

$$\Gamma (\emptyset, \gamma) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma (\sim \emptyset \downarrow \sim \gamma) \Gamma$$

$$\Gamma (\emptyset \vee \gamma) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma \sim (\emptyset \downarrow \gamma) \Gamma$$

$$\Gamma (\emptyset \supset \gamma) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma (\sim \emptyset \vee \gamma) \Gamma$$

$$\Gamma (\emptyset \equiv \gamma) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma ((\emptyset \supset \gamma), (\gamma \supset \emptyset)) \Gamma$$

existential quantification

$$\Gamma (\exists \alpha) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma \sim (\alpha) \sim \Gamma$$

misc concerning membership

$$\Gamma (f \tilde{\in} \eta) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma \sim (f \in \eta) \Gamma$$

$$\Gamma (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n \in \eta) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma (f_1 \in \eta, f_2 \in \eta, \dots, f_n \in \eta) \Gamma$$

identity

$$\Gamma (f = \eta) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma (\alpha) (\alpha \in f, \equiv, \alpha \in \eta) \Gamma$$

$$\Gamma (f \neq \eta) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma \sim (f = \eta) \Gamma$$

abstraction

$$\Gamma (\beta \in \hat{\alpha} \emptyset) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma (\exists \gamma) (\beta \in \gamma, (\alpha) (\alpha \in \gamma \supset \emptyset)) \Gamma$$

$$\Gamma (\hat{\alpha} \emptyset \in f) \Gamma \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \Gamma (\exists \beta) (\beta = \hat{\alpha} \emptyset, \beta \in f) \Gamma$$

universal & null classes

$$\forall \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \hat{x} (x = x)$$

$$\wedge \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \hat{x} (x \neq x)$$

Axioms

We will use the assertion sign, \vdash , to mean that the closure of the formulae following it is an axiom or theorem, depending on the situation.

We will use an infinite number of axioms, those described as follows.

- *100 $\text{cf } \phi \text{ is tautologous, } \vdash \phi$
- *101 $\vdash \ulcorner (\alpha) (\phi \supset \psi) \supset . (\alpha) \phi \supset (\alpha) \psi \urcorner$
- *102 $\text{cf } \alpha \text{ is not free in } \phi, \vdash \ulcorner \phi \supset (\alpha) \phi \urcorner$
- *103 $\text{cf } \phi' \text{ is like } \phi \text{ except for containing free occurrences of } \alpha' \text{ whenever } \phi \text{ contains free occurrences of } \alpha, \text{ then } \vdash \ulcorner (\alpha) \phi \supset \phi' \urcorner$
- *200 $\text{cf } \phi \text{ has no free variables beyond } \alpha, \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n, \text{ and is formed from a stratified formula by restricting all bound variables to elements,}$
 $\vdash \ulcorner \beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_n \in V. \supset . \phi \in V \urcorner$
- *201 $\text{cf } \phi \text{ is atomic, and } \phi' \text{ is formed from } \phi \text{ by putting } \alpha' \text{ for an occurrence of } \alpha, \text{ then } \vdash \ulcorner \alpha = \alpha'. \supset . \phi \supset \phi' \urcorner$
- *202 $\text{cf } \beta \text{ is not } \alpha \text{ nor free in } \phi,$
 $\vdash \ulcorner (\exists \beta) (\alpha) (\alpha \in \beta. \equiv . \alpha \in V. \phi) \urcorner$

Rule of inference - modus ponens

*104

of $\lceil \phi \supset \psi \rceil$ and ϕ are
theorems, so is ψ .