

A LEMMA FOR NEGATIONLESS PROPOSITIONAL LOGICS AND ITS APPLICATIONS

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(To Professor Kiyoshi Noshiro on the occasion of his 60th birthday.)

In this note, we treat the positive sentential logic **LPS** and the primitive sentential logic (the positive implicational calculus of Hilbert) **LOS**¹⁾. **LOS** has ‘implication’ as the only logical symbol and is a subsystem of **LPS**. **LPS** can be formulated as follows:

Proposition letters: p, q, r, \dots ; or p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots

Logical symbols: \rightarrow, \vee and \wedge .

Formation rule: as usual.

Axiom schemata:

- A 1. $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A),$
- A 2. $(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow ((A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)) \rightarrow (A \rightarrow C)),$
- A 3. $A \rightarrow A \vee B, \quad B \rightarrow A \vee B,$
- A 4. $(A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow ((B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow (A \vee B \rightarrow C)),$
- A 5. $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow A \wedge B),$
- A 6. $A \wedge B \rightarrow A, \quad A \wedge B \rightarrow B.$

Inference rule: *Modus Ponens*.

To the system **LPS** or **LOS**, by adding Peirce’s law:

- A 7. $((A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A,$

we obtain the corresponding ‘classical’ logic, which is denoted by **LQS**¹⁾ or **LOQS**, respectively.

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¹⁾ The reference notation **LOS** to the primitive sentential logic is found in Ono [7] where it is called the sentence-logical part of the primitive logic. Church [1] refers to **LOS** and **LPS** by P^+ and P^P , respectively. As for the primitive logic **LO**, the intuitionistic positive logic **LP** and the classical positive logic **LQ**, see Ono [6]. cf. also Curry [2] and Lorenzen [3] as to the positive logics.

Now, we take the ordinary valuation $v(A)$ for the formulae on the values $\{0, 1\}$:

$$v(A \rightarrow B) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } v(A) \geq v(B), \\ 1 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

$$v(A \vee B) = \min(v(A), v(B)),$$

$$v(A \wedge B) = \max(v(A), v(B)).$$

Throughout this paper, let p_1, \dots, p_n be distinct letters and A be such a formula that no letters other than p_1, \dots, p_n occur in A . Given an n -tuple $v(p_1), \dots, v(p_n)$ of values of p_1, \dots, p_n , denote, as convention, the letters assigned the value 0 by r_1, \dots, r_u , the rest by s_1, \dots, s_v . Then, the following lemma holds for **LPS** and **LOS**.

LEMMA. *For the given n -tuple $v(p_1), \dots, v(p_n)$ of values of the letters p_1, \dots, p_n ,*

$$r_1, \dots, r_u, s_1 \rightarrow s_2, s_2 \rightarrow s_3, \dots, s_v \rightarrow s_1 \vdash A^2)$$

or

$$r_1, \dots, r_u, s_1 \rightarrow s_1, s_2 \rightarrow s_3, \dots, s_v \rightarrow s_1 \vdash A \rightarrow s_1,$$

according as $v(A)$ is 0 or 1.

Let A be a formula of **LPS** in which no letters other than p_1, \dots, p_n occur. Then, we consider the following problem:

*How much logical information Γ can we deduce A from in **LPS**?*

Of course, we can always deduce A from p_1, \dots, p_n in systems of negationless propositional logics.

Now, we restrict the entity of information to such types as p or $p \rightarrow q$. Then, we understand that $\{p\}$ is more (stronger) than $\{q \rightarrow p\}$ and also $\{q, q \rightarrow p\}$ than $\{p\}$ as information (as assumptions). Can we weaken the assumptions $\{r_1, \dots, r_u, s_1 \rightarrow s_2, \dots, s_v \rightarrow s_1\}$ to $\{r_{n_1}, \dots, r_{n_i}, r_{m_1} \rightarrow r_{m_2}, \dots, r_{m_j} \rightarrow r_{m_1}, s_1 \rightarrow s_2, \dots, s_v \rightarrow s_1\}$, where $\{r_{n_1}, \dots, r_{n_i}, r_{m_1}, \dots, r_{m_j}\} = \{r_1, \dots, r_u\}$, $i \geq 0$ and $i + j = u$, in the lemma? It is impossible, in general. For, take p as A and 0 as the value of p , then we would have $p \rightarrow p \vdash p$, which contradicts

²⁾ Throughout this paper, we use ' $\Gamma \vdash A$ ' to express 'A is deducible from Γ ' in a system of logic which is arbitrary or clear from context, or in a system of logic specially noticed.

to the consistency of **LPS**. As a nontrivial counter example, one may take the sentence $r_1 \wedge r_2 \wedge (s_1 \rightarrow s_2) \wedge (s_2 \rightarrow s_1)$. In this respect, $\{r_1, \dots, r_u, s_1 \rightarrow s_2, \dots, s_v \rightarrow s_1\}$ in the lemma is the least information which deduces A in general. That is; our lemma gives not only a sufficient condition but also a necessary condition to solve ‘how much?’ of the above problem.

This suggests that one may gain a normal form of the propositions in the positive logic. Indeed, we can obtain a *normal form theorem* in **LQS**, by making use of this fact and the fact that **LQS** is complete in the following sense: every formula A in **LQS** is provable in it if A takes identically the value 0.

As another corollary to the lemma for **LPS** (or **LOS**), we obtain a direct proof³⁾ of the *completeness* of **LQS** (resp. **LOQS**), by making use of the following⁴⁾: $p \rightarrow A, (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow A \vdash A$ in **LOQS** (*a fortiori*, in **LQS**). This is another proof of Curry’s one who established the completeness theorem for **LQS** (in his notation, HC) by reformulating the system in Gentzen’s style formalism and using the cut-elimination theorem (see Curry [2], p. 224 also p. 182).

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The proof of the lemma.

We prove the lemma for **LPS** by the induction on the number of logical symbols occurring in A (i.e. on the length of A). It will be shown in such a manner that the proof as to the case for **LOS** is automatically contained as a part. However, the latter can be carried out more easily, since the implication \rightarrow is the only logical symbol in **LOS**. For brevity, we may simply write Γ the assumptions $\{r_1, \dots, r_u, s_1 \rightarrow s_2, \dots, s_v \rightarrow s_1\}$ below.

BASIS. There are no logical symbols in A , i.e. A is p_i . Then by the definition of Γ , we see trivially

$$\Gamma \vdash p_i \quad \text{or} \quad \Gamma \vdash p_i \rightarrow s_1,$$

according as $v(p_i)$ is 0 or 1.

INDUCTION STEP. There are three cases according to \rightarrow, \vee or \wedge be the outermost logical symbol of A .

³⁾ After giving the proof, the author found, in Church [1], an exercise which asks to show the completeness of **LOQS** (in his notation, P_B^f) with hint. He uses a selected letter different from p_1, \dots, p_n and establishes an analogue of our lemma in **LOQS**, that is, by making use of Peirce’s law. In this respect, our proof seems more cleancut.

⁴⁾ See Ono [6], Footnote 15, p. 341, and also cf. Church [1], **12.8**, p. 86.

Case 1. Let A be $B \rightarrow C$.

Subcase 1.1: $v(B \rightarrow C)=0$. In this case, $v(C)=0$ or $v(B)=1$. When $v(C)=0$, we have $\Gamma \vdash C$ as the hypothesis of the induction. Then we easily see $\Gamma \vdash B \rightarrow C$. When $v(B)=1$, we have

$$\Gamma \vdash B \rightarrow s_1$$

as the hypothesis of the induction. Now, let us assume B . Then we have s_1 . Hence, we have successively s_2, \dots, s_v , since $s_1 \rightarrow s_2, \dots, s_{v-1} \rightarrow s_v$ are in Γ . So, we have $\Gamma, B \vdash p_1, \dots, p_n$. As is easily seen, $p_1, \dots, p_n \vdash C$ holds in the positive logics. Thus, it follows that $\Gamma, B \vdash C$ holds. The latter implies $\Gamma \vdash B \rightarrow C$ by the deduction theorem.

Subcase 1.2: $v(B \rightarrow C)=1$. In this case, $v(B)=0$ and $v(C)=1$. We wish to show $\Gamma \vdash (B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow s_1$. Assume $B \rightarrow C$. By the hypothesis of the induction, we have

$$\Gamma \vdash B \quad \text{and} \quad \Gamma \vdash C \rightarrow s_1.$$

Using these successively, we see $\Gamma, B \rightarrow C \vdash s_1$. Therefore, it holds that

$$\Gamma \vdash (B \rightarrow C) \rightarrow s_1.$$

Case 2. Let A be $B \vee C$.

Subcase 2.1: $v(B \vee C)=0$. In this case, $v(B)=0$ or $v(C)=0$. By the hypothesis of the induction, $\Gamma \vdash B$ or $\Gamma \vdash C$, respectively. In each case, holds $\Gamma \vdash B \vee C$.

Subcase 2.2: $v(B \vee C)=1$. In this case, $v(B)=1$ and $v(C)=1$. Hence, we have simultaneously $\Gamma \vdash B \rightarrow s_1$ and $\Gamma \vdash C \rightarrow s_1$ as the hypothesis of the induction. Then it holds that

$$\Gamma \vdash B \vee C \rightarrow s_1,$$

since $B \vee C \rightarrow s_1$ is deducible from the formulae $B \rightarrow s_1, C \rightarrow s_1$.

Case 3. Let A be $B \wedge C$.

Subcase 3.1: $v(B \wedge C)=0$. In this case, $v(B)=0$ and $v(C)=0$. As the hypothesis of the induction, we have $\Gamma \vdash B$ and $\Gamma \vdash C$ simultaneously. Then, it follows immediately that $\Gamma \vdash B \wedge C$.

Subcase 3.2: $v(B \wedge C)=1$. In this case, holds at least one of $v(B)=1, v(C)=1$.

Then by the hypothesis of the induction, we see

$$\Gamma \vdash B \rightarrow s_1 \quad \text{or} \quad \Gamma \vdash C \rightarrow s_1.$$

On the other hand, $B \wedge C \vdash B$ and $B \wedge C \vdash C$. Therefore, we have $\Gamma, B \wedge C \vdash s_1$ in any case, and hence $\Gamma \vdash B \wedge C \rightarrow s_1$.

Thus, the proof of the lemma is established.

A normal form of the negationless propositions.

We give a principal normal form of the formulae A in **LQS**. For the purpose, let the letters occurring in A be exactly p_1, \dots, p_n .

In the first place, by the lemma, we see

*)
$$\bigvee_{v(A)=0} (r_1 \wedge \dots \wedge r_u \wedge (s_1 \rightarrow s_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (s_v \rightarrow s_1)) \rightarrow A$$

is provable in LPS.

where $\bigvee_{v(A)=0}$ means the disjunction of all members $r_1 \wedge \dots \wedge r_u \wedge (s_1 \rightarrow s_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (s_v \rightarrow s_1)$ depending on the n -tuples of values of p_1, \dots, p_n for which A takes the value 0. In fact, let A take the value 0 for a given n -tuple $v(p_1), \dots, v(p_n)$ of values of the letters p_1, \dots, p_n . Then, by the lemma, $r_1, \dots, r_u, s_1 \rightarrow s_2, \dots, s_v \rightarrow s_1 \vdash A$, i.e. $r_1 \wedge \dots \wedge r_u \wedge (s_1 \rightarrow s_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (s_v \rightarrow s_1) \vdash A$ holds. It follows that $(r_1 \wedge \dots \wedge r_u \wedge (s_1 \rightarrow s_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (s_v \rightarrow s_1)) \rightarrow A$ is provable in **LPS**. Hence, we have *).

Coversely, $A \rightarrow \bigvee_{v(A)=0} (r_1 \wedge \dots \wedge r_u \wedge (s_1 \rightarrow s_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (s_v \rightarrow s_1))$ takes identically the value 0. For, if A takes the value 0 for any given n -tuple $v(p_1), \dots, v(p_n)$, then the corresponding disjunctive member $r_1 \wedge \dots \wedge r_u \wedge (s_1 \rightarrow s_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (s_v \rightarrow s_1)$ also takes the value 0 by the convention for $\{r_1, \dots, r_u\}$ and $\{s_1, \dots, s_v\}$. Hence, by making use of the completeness of **LQS**, this is provable in **LQS**.

Now, we say that A is equivalent to B in **LQS**, if both the formulae $A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow A$ are theorems of **LQS**. We have obtained the following:

THEOREM. *Let A be any formula in **LQS** and p_1, \dots, p_n be the letters occurring in A . Then A is equivalent to the formula*

**)
$$\bigvee_{v(A)=0} (r_1 \wedge \dots \wedge r_n \wedge (s_1 \rightarrow s_2) \wedge \dots \wedge (s_v \rightarrow s_1))$$

*in **LQS**.*

Thus, any proposition A in the positive logics is rewritten in the form **) (which can be uniquely determined to within the order of its disjunctive members) in **LQS**, by using only the letters occurring in A . Therefore, the latter is competent for the principal normal form of the negationless propositions.

By the above result, we can say **LQS** is also *notationally complete* in the following sense: each of the 2^{2^n-1} possible positive propositional functions of n -variables p_1, \dots, p_n can be represented by a formula in these letters⁵⁾.

Notice: Of course, we cannot express the propositions by so-called *disjunctive* (or *conjunctive*, either) *principal normal form in LQS*. On the other hand, our normal form theorem is not true for the classical sentential logic **LKS**. In this sense, the theorem gives a characterization of **LQS**.

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⁵⁾ See e.g. Kleene [5], p. 135.