This document consists of 3 parts:

- Rapaport, William J. (1978), "An Algebraic Interpretation of Deontic Logic; Part I: Sentential Fragment" (unpublished ms.)
- In the interests of honesty, appended is the negative referee report and rejection letter from the Journal of Symbolic Logic, pointing out some errors.
- 3. A note from a former colleague, Jerzy Pogonowski, then of the Dept. of Lingustics, SUNY Buffalo, and (then and now), Department of Applied Logic, Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznan, Poland (http://www.logic.amu.edu.pl/history.html), suggesting some corrections.

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### I. PHILOSOPHICAL PRELIMINARIES

### 1. Introduction

In this essay, we investigate generalizations of two well-known algebraic structures, the vector space and the module, which arise in logics associated with certain fragments of natural language. While we shall consider certain <u>logical</u> problems from an algebraic viewpoint, we will also be interested in what our results say about the mathematical structure of <u>natural</u> <u>language</u>—in particular, the structure of ethical language.

## 2. Castaneda's Deontic Logic

The crucial feature of ethical language to be examined here is most easily illustrated by considering commands. When the indicative sentence 'It is raining' and the imperative sentence 'Go home!' are combined in a conditional construction, the resulting sentence, 'If it is raining, go home!', appears to be an imperative. (The same phenomenon occurs in erotetic logic—the logic of questions. We shall return to this later.)

While this feature of language has been noted implicitly by some authors (e.g., Rescher 1966, Ch. 3; Harrah 1961: 44), its most explicit statement appears in the writings of

Hector-Neri Castañeda (1974, 1975). Moreover, the analysis of deontic language (the language of ethics) presented by Castañeda makes an attempt to explain this feature in terms of metaphysical theses about language and predication. For these reasons, we shall take his system as the basis for our algebraic interpretation.

It will prove useful to present briefly (though we shall not defend) some of the notions of Castaneda's deontic logic; a more formal presentation appears in Section II.

Many philosophers hold that the units of thinking (and hence of language) are "propositions" and that, variously, there is either no difference or else little or no connection between purely contemplative (or theoretical) thinking and practical thinking (the sort that results in an action by the thinker). Castañeda, on the other hand, believes that, while propositions are indeed the units of contemplative thinking, what he calls "practitions" are the units of practical thinking and that there is a fundamental unity (though not an identity) between these kinds of thinking.

More precisely, a proposition is a truth-valued unit of contemplative thinking, and propositions of the simplest kind are expressed by declarative sentences consisting of a noun phrase (NP) plus a verb phrase (VP) in the indicative mood (Castaneda 1974: 29ff, 109; 1975: 6, 44, 260f).

A practition is the fundamental unit of practical thinking and comes in two varieties: (1) A prescription is the "common structure at the core" of orders, requests, pieces of advice,

entreaties, etc., "that demand of the same agents the same actions in the same circumstances." They are not propositions, and a prescription of the simplest kind is expressed (according to Castañeda) by a NP in the second- or third-person plus an infinitive VP, e.g., 'John to go home'. (2) An intention is the first-person counterpart of a prescription. It, too, is not a proposition and is typically expressed by 'I' plus an infinitive VP. These NP + VP constructions are called practitives. (Castañeda 1974: 40ff, 93f, 109; 1975: 7, 43f, 91ff, 154, 172, 260f.)

The crucial difference between propositions and practitions is in their respective modes of predication. Presumably, the

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propositional copula unites (almost) any subject with (almost) any predicate; the practitional copula unites agents with actions and, moreover, is different from the propositional copula. According to Castaneda, it is "a complex of the ordinary copula and a practitional operator" or "a signal of its practical or causal openness." The ordinary, or propositional, copula "combines the subject and the predicate in a way suitable for possession of truth," while the practitional copula "combines its subject and its predicate in a way suitable for action." (Castaneda 1974: 76, 93f; 1975: 96ff, 170ff, 280ff.)

The units of thinking, be it practical or contemplative, is called a <u>noema.</u> Thus, both propositions and practitions are noemata(Castaneda 1974: 29; 1975: 7).

Finally, a <u>deontic judgment</u> is a proposition formed by applying deontic operators (such as <u>ought</u> or <u>it is permissible that</u>) to a practition. They are, thus, practical noemata(because suitable "for the guidance of conduct") of such forms as 'agent  $\underline{X}$  ought to do  $\underline{A}$ ' or 'it is wrong that  $\underline{X}$  do  $\underline{A}$ '. (Castaneda 1974: 42, 97; 1975: 178f, 204, 261.)

The fundamental principle with which we are presently concerned is:

(P4) Compounds made up of both propositions and practitions not in the scope of deontic properties [i.e., operators] are practitions. (Castaneda 1974: 79; cf. 1974: 37, 80 and 1975: 174, 256.)

Several explanations or partial explanations are offered for

the truth of (P4). First, Castaneda 1974: 29 can be read as suggesting that (P4) is a reflection of the fact that practical thinking "includes" contemplative thinking; but it is not immediately clear how the connection with (P4) might be made.

Second, (P4) might be a consequence of the existence of two modes of predication, though it would need to be argued that the combination of a proposition and a practition yields something which is not capable of having a truth value but is capable of guiding action (cf. Castañeda 1975: 280).

Third, there is Castaneda's explicit explanation:

[T]he mind is presented with propositions. But sometimes the mind is so set that it "marks" or "spots"

. . certain components of those propositions; these "spotted" propositions are practitions, and the mind apprehends them. (Castañeda 1975: 283.)

Thus, if one component of a mixed compound is "spotted", so is the compound. But the nature of "spotting" requires elaboration before this explanation can be complete.

The fourth, and, in my opinion, best explanation begins by considering the abstract possibilities for the nature of mixed compounds: they could be practitions (as in (P4)), propositions, or some third thing. But humans are uninterested in mixed compounds of the latter two types, presumably because humans "are primarily agents in, and only derivatively contemplators of, the universe, [and] are fundamentally concerned with actions" (Castañeda 1975: 112f). The defense of this is, as Castañeda recognizes, another story; but an explanation in

this direction seems to me to offer the best account within his metaphysical framework of all the phenomena involved in the other explanations.

My goal in the present essay is to provide an algebraic interpretation—which, it is hoped, will be of some independent interest—of the sentential fragment of Castañeda's deontic logic. It is expected that the extension of these results to the first-order and modal fragments (i.e., to quantifiers and to deontic operators such as the ought-to-do?) will be relatively straightforward once the groundwork is laid out here.

Once again, let me stress two points. First, the foregoing is not intended as a <u>defense</u> of Castaneda's theory. Second, I believe that his theory is the <u>clearest</u> (though by no means the only) one available for the algebraic-logical investigations that follow.

# II. SYNTAX OF SYSTEM C

Castañeda considers a family of deontic legics, one for each ought-to-do operator. On the sentential level, there are only two connectives, negation and conjunction, but disjunction and material implication can be defined in his system in the usual way. As axioms, he takes all truth-table tautologies. (Castañeda 1974: 109ff; 1975: 260ff.)

For our purposes, we need not be concerned with more than one member of this family of logics, so the system C to be presented here can be considered as a sentential fragment of (any) one, representative member. It will also prove convenient for

the algebraic interpretation to take negation, conjunction, disjunction, and material implication as primitive connectives of C, and to use a somewhat less generous axiom set.

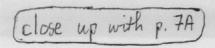
The <u>alphabet</u> of the underlying formal language of C consists of:

- (1) A denumerable set,  $\underline{\mathbf{V}}_{\underline{\mathbf{I}}}$ , of indicative (i.e., "propositional") variables with numerical subscripts:  $\varphi_{i}$ ,  $\varphi_{i}$ , ....
- (2) A denumerable set,  $\underline{V}_{\underline{P}}$ , of pure (i.e., unmixed) practitive variables, with numerical subscripts, which is disjoint from  $\underline{V}_{\underline{I}}$ :

X1, X2, ....

- (3) Three disjoint sets of connectives: A set of internal, indicative connectives,  $\{ \gamma_{\underline{i}}, \wedge_{\underline{i}}, v_{\underline{i}}, \vee_{\underline{i}} \}$ ; a set of internal, practitive connectives,  $\{ \gamma_{\underline{p}}, \wedge_{\underline{p}}, \vee_{\underline{p}}, \vee_{\underline{p}}, \vee_{\underline{p}} \}$ ; and a set of external connectives,  $\{ \wedge_{\underline{e}}, v_{\underline{e}}, \vee_{\underline{e}}, \vee_{\underline{e}} \}$ .
- (4) Parentheses: 8 (, ).

While Castaneda favors conflating the connectives on the grounds that their logical relationships are analogous, the algebraic interpretation will be clearer if we retain the distinctions. (In his terminology, we are doing "sh-logic"; Castaneda 1974: 88; 1975: 101f.) Moreover, it is conceivable that the "deep structure" of our ethical language has these distinctions, and they are conflated only in the "surface structure".



The formation rules are as follows:

- (a) The set <u>WFI</u> of <u>well-formed indicatives</u> (wfis) is the smallest set such that
  - ((i)  $\underline{V}_{\underline{I}} \subseteq \underline{WFI}$ , and
  - (ii) if p,  $\underline{q} \in \underline{WFI}$ , then  $(\neg_{\underline{i}}\underline{p})$ ,  $(\underline{p} \wedge_{\underline{i}}\underline{q})$ ,  $(\underline{p} \vee_{\underline{i}}\underline{q})$ ,  $(\underline{p} \rightarrow_{\underline{i}}\underline{q}) \in \underline{WFI}$ .
- (b) The set WFP of well-formed practitives (wfps) is the smallest set such that

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- (i)  $\underline{V}_{\underline{P}} \in \underline{WFP}$ , and
- (ii) if  $\underline{A}$ ,  $\underline{B} \in \underline{WFP}$ , then  $(\neg \underline{A})$ ,  $(\underline{A} \land \underline{p} \underline{B})$ ,  $(\underline{A} \lor \underline{p} \underline{B})$ ,  $(\underline{A} \lor \underline{p} \underline{B})$ ,  $(\underline{A} \lor \underline{p} \underline{B})$ , and
- (iii) if  $\underline{p} \in \underline{WFI}$  and  $\underline{A} \in \underline{WFP}$ , then  $(\underline{p} \land_{\underline{e}} \underline{A})$ ,  $(\underline{A} \land_{\underline{e}} \underline{p})$ ,  $(\underline{p} \lor_{\underline{e}} \underline{A})$ ,  $(\underline{A} \lor_{\underline{e}} \underline{p})$ ,  $(\underline{p} \lor_{\underline{e}} \underline{A})$ ,  $(\underline{A} \lor_{\underline{e}} \underline{p})$   $\in \underline{WFP}$ .

(We let p, q, ... and  $\underline{A}$ ,  $\underline{B}$ , ... be schematic letters ranging over wfis and wfps, respectively.)

(c) The set <u>WFN</u> of <u>well-formed noemata</u> (wfns) = <u>df</u> <u>WFI v WFP</u>.

Note that <u>WFI</u> and <u>WFP</u> are disjoint. (And we will omit parentheses when no ambiguity results.)

To present the axiom set compactly, we introduce the following notation: lower-case Greek letters  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \ldots$  are variables ranging over schematic letters which, in turn, range over wfns, and non-subscripted connectives are variables ranging over subscripted connectives. Thus, axiom schema A2, below, is really a "super" schema among whose "subschemata" are:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc}
\underline{p} \rightarrow_{\underline{i}} & (\underline{q} & \underline{v}_{\underline{i}} & \underline{p}) \\
\underline{p} \rightarrow_{\underline{e}} & (\underline{A} & \underline{v}_{\underline{e}} & \underline{p}) \\
\underline{A} \rightarrow_{\underline{e}} & (\underline{q} & \underline{v}_{\underline{e}} & \underline{A}) \\
\underline{A} \rightarrow_{\underline{p}} & (\underline{B} & \underline{v}_{\underline{p}} & \underline{A}),
\end{array}$$

etc. The axiom schemata of C (cf. Rasiowa and Sikorski 1963: 168f) are:

(AI) 
$$(\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow [(\beta \rightarrow \gamma) \rightarrow (\alpha \rightarrow \gamma)]$$

(A3) 
$$\beta \rightarrow (\alpha \vee \beta)$$

$$(A4) (x \rightarrow y) \rightarrow [(\beta \rightarrow y) \rightarrow ((x \vee \beta) \rightarrow y)]$$

There is a "super" schematic rule of inference (MP) whose four subschemata are:

# III. ALGEBRAIC INTERPRETATION OF C

### 1. Dominance Algebras

Principle (P4) is analogous to scalar multiplication in vector spaces: the scalar product of a scalar and a vector is always a vector. Thus, propositions play a scalar role, practitions play a vector role. But neither a vector space nor its standard generalization, a module, will do for the algebraic interpretation of C, since vector spaces and modules have only four operations where we will need eleven. Rather, we shall be interested in special cases of what will be called, for reasons to be elaborated upon in Section IV, a "dominance algebra", viz., a system "consisting" of two algebras, one of which is "dominant" over the other (the "recessive" algebra) in the sense that the results of "externally" combining members of the recessive algebra with members of the dominant algebra will be members of the dominant algebra. (Vectors, e.g., are dominant over scalars.)

# DEF 1: (M, R, I, E) is a dominance algebra (over R) iff

- (i) R is an abstract algebra
- (ii) M ≠ Ø
- (iii)  $\underline{I}$  is a non-empty set of "internal" operations such that for all  $\underline{i} \in \underline{I}$ ,  $\underline{i} : \underline{M}^{\underline{n}} \to \underline{M}$  (for  $\underline{n} \in \omega$ )
  - (iv)  $\underline{E}$  is a non-empty set of "external" operations such that for all  $\underline{e} \in \underline{E}$ ,  $\underline{e} : (\underline{R}^{\underline{n}} \times \underline{M}^{\underline{m}}) \cup (\underline{M}^{\underline{m}} \times \underline{R}^{\underline{n}}) \to \underline{M}$  (for  $\underline{m}$ ,  $\underline{n} \in \omega$ ).

Modules (and, hence, vector spaces) are dominance algebras, for  $\langle \underline{M}, \underline{R}, \{+\}, \{.\} \rangle$  is a module over  $\underline{R}$  iff (i)  $\underline{R}$  is a ring (hence,

an abstract algebra), (ii)  $M \neq \emptyset$ , (iii)  $+:M^2 \rightarrow M$  is an internal operation such that  $\langle M, + \rangle$  is an abelian group, and (iv) .:  $(RxM) \rightarrow M$ is an external operation such that r(a+b) = ra + rb, r(sa) = (rs)a, and (r+s)a = ra + sa, for all a,b & M and r,s & R (here and henceforth suppressing the '.' in favor of juxtaposition, for legibility). (Cf. Herstein 1964: 160, and, especially, Solian 1977: 30f; ef. also Sect. IV below.)

The first special case of interest is that of a "Boolean" dominance algebra:

DEF 2: (M, B, I, E) is a Boolean dominance algebra (over B) iff it is a dominance algebra (over B) and B is a Boolean algebra.

For convenience, we will use the following liberal characterization of Boolean algebras (cf. Rasiowa and Sikorski 1963: 71):

DEF 3:  $\langle B, \{+, ., \Rightarrow, -\} \rangle$  is a Boolean algebra iff

- (i) B ≠ Ø
- (ii)  $+: B^2 \to B$ ,  $:: B^2 \to B$ ,  $\Rightarrow: B^2 \to B$ , and  $-: B \to B$  are (internal) operations such that, for all a,b,c & B,
  - (a)  $\underline{a} + \underline{b} = \underline{b} + \underline{a}$
- $(a^{\dagger})$   $\underline{ab} = \underline{ba}$
- (b) a+(b+c) = (a+b)+c (b) a(bc) = (ab)c
- (c) ab+b=b
- $(c!) \quad a(a+b) = a$
- (d) a(b+c) = ab+ac (d') a+bc = (a+b)(a+c)
- (e) a(-a)+b=b (e') (a+(-a))b=b

(f) 
$$a \Rightarrow b = -a+b$$

In the second special case of interest, both constitutive algebras are Boolean:

DEF 4: Let  $\underline{I} = \{\#, X, >, \sim \}$ . Let  $\underline{E} = \{\pm, X, \Rightarrow \}$ .

Then (M, B, I, E) is a double Boolean dominance algebra (over B) iff

- (i)  $\langle B, \{+, ., \Rightarrow, -\} \rangle$  is a Boolean algebra
- (ii) (M, I) is a Boolean algebra
- (iii)  $\pm$ , X,  $\Rightarrow$ : (MxB) $\cup$  (BxM)  $\rightarrow$  M are external operations such that, for all p,q  $\in$  B and A,B  $\in$  M,

(a)  $P \pm \hat{H} = \hat{A} \pm \hat{P}$  (a')  $P \times \hat{A} = \hat{A} \times \hat{P}$ 

(b)  $P^{\pm}(q^{\pm}A) = (p+q)^{\pm}A$  (b')  $P^{\pm}(q^{\pm}A) = (pq)^{\pm}A$   $P^{\pm}(A^{\pm}q) = (p^{\pm}A)^{\pm}q$   $P^{\pm}(A^{\pm}q) = (p^{\pm}A)^{\pm}q$   $P^{\pm}(A^{\pm}q) = (p^{\pm}A)^{\pm}q$   $P^{\pm}(A^{\pm}q) = (p^{\pm}A)^{\pm}q$   $P^{\pm}(A^{\pm}q) = (A^{\pm}p)^{\pm}B$   $P^{\pm}(A^{\pm}p) = (P^{\pm}A)^{\pm}B$   $P^{\pm}(P^{\pm}q) = (P^{\pm}A)^{\pm}B$   $P^{\pm}(P^{\pm}q) = (P^{\pm}A)^{\pm}B$  $P^{\pm}(P^{\pm}q) = (P^{\pm}A)^{\pm}B$   $P^{\pm}(P^{\pm}q) = (P^{\pm}A)^{\pm}B$ 

(c)  $(P \times A) \# A = A$  (c')  $A \times (A \pm P) = A$ 

(A)  $\rho \times (4 \pm A) = (\rho + A) \pm (\rho + A)$   $\rho \times (A \pm A) = (\rho + A) \pm (\rho + A)$   $\rho \times (A \pm A) = (\rho \times A) \pm (\rho + A)$   $\rho \times (\rho \pm B) = (A \times \rho) \pm (A \times B)$   $\rho \times (\rho \pm B) = (A \times \rho) \pm (A \times B)$   $\rho \times (\rho \pm B) = (\rho \times A) \pm (\rho \times B)$   $\rho \times (\rho \pm B) = (\rho \times A) \pm (\rho \times B)$   $\rho \times (\rho \pm A) = (\rho \times A) \pm (\rho \times B)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \times A) \pm (\rho \times B)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \times B)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho + A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$   $\rho \pm (\rho \pm A) = (\rho \pm A) \pm (\rho \pm A)$  $\rho \pm (\rho \pm A$ 

(e)  $\underline{p}(-\underline{p}) \pm \underline{A} = \underline{A}$  (c')  $(\underline{p} + (-\underline{p})) \times \underline{A} = \underline{A}$ 

(f) p ≥ A = -p ± A A ≥ p = ~A ± p A couple of remarks are in order. First, four combinatorially possible equations are missing from this list, viz.,

$$(\underline{AXp}) + \underline{p} = \underline{p}$$

$$\underline{pX(p+A)} = \underline{p}$$

$$(\underline{AX(\sim A)}) + \underline{p} = \underline{p}$$

$$(\underline{A\#(\sim A)}) \underline{Xp} = \underline{p},$$

because each violates the distinction between "scalars" (members of B) and "vectors" (members of M) (cf. n.4).

Second, the items on the second and fourth lines under (d) and (d') are redundant in view of the commutativity of  $\pm$  and  $\underline{X}$ .

## 2. The Lindenbaum Algebra of Noemata

We can transform our formulation of the noematic logic C (cf. n.6) into an algebra by taking algebraic operations corresponding to the connectives of C in a natural way. Thus, the algebra of noemata, C is C in a natural way. Thus, C is C in a natural way. Thus,

Of course, <u>AN</u> is not a double Boolean dominance algebra (DBDA), since, e.g.,  $p \wedge_{\underline{i}} p \neq p$  (for all  $p \in \underline{WFP}$ ). If it were, our task would be over. However,  $(p \wedge_{\underline{i}} p) \leftrightarrow_{\underline{i}} p$  is a theorem of C (where  $p \leftrightarrow_{\underline{i}} q =_{\underline{df}} (p \to_{\underline{i}} q) \wedge_{\underline{i}} (q \to_{\underline{i}} p)$ , and similarly for  $\leftrightarrow_{\underline{p}}, \leftrightarrow_{\underline{e}}$ ).

In order to show the relationship between C and DBDAs, we need to conflate items like p A p with p. This is done by the

following technique due to Lindenbaum (cf. Rasiowa and Sikorski 1963: 209, 245). We first introduce equivalence relations on AN as follows:

DEF 5:  $p = i \neq i$  of  $p \leftrightarrow i \neq i$  a theorem of C.

A =  $p \neq i$  B iff  $A \leftrightarrow p$  B is a theorem of C.

Then, where ' $\leq$ ' is a schematic relation symbol ranging over  $\leq$  and  $\equiv$ ; where  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta$  are schematic letters ranging over wfis and wfps; and where  $\neg$ ,  $\wedge$ ,  $\vee$ ,  $\rightarrow$  are schematic connectives as before, the following hold (as can be shown via A1-A12 and MP):

(E) (i) «= « (ii) if α = β, then β = α (iii) if x = β and β = y, then x = y (iv) if x = β, then ¬x = ¬β (v) if a = B and y = S, then (x xy) = (B x S) (vi) if a = B and y = 8, then (avy) = (B v S) (vii) if a = \beta and y = \delta, then (a-y) = (\beta - \delta) (viii) (x 1 x) = x (viii') ( «v «) = « (ix') ( x y B) = ( B + x ) (ix) (an β) = (βna) (x) «A(pAy)= («AB)AY (x') «v(Bvy) = («vB) vy (xi') «v(«AB) = « (xi) « A ( a v B) = K (xii) an (Bry) = (xnp) v (any) (xii') av (Bny) = (av B) n (avy) (xiii') ( x v 7 x ) 1 B = B (xiii) (xx -x) v B = B (xur) x - B = - x v B

By (i)-(iii),  $\Xi_p$  and  $\Xi_i$  are equivalence relations.

The Lindenbaum algebra for  $\underline{AN}$ ,  $\underline{\mathcal{L}}_{\underline{AN}}$ , is simply the quotient algebra  $\underline{AN}/\underline{\underline{\underline{\underline{\underline{AN}}}}}$ . To construct it, we need the following definitions of, respectively, equivalence classes of wfis and wfps, quotient sets of wfis and wfps, and operations on and between those quotient sets:

DEF 6: 
$$|P| = 4 \{ \underline{q} \in \underline{WFI} : \underline{p} = \underline{1} \underline{q} \}$$

$$|\underline{A}| = 4 \{ \underline{B} \in \underline{WFP} : \underline{A} = \underline{p} \underline{B} \}$$

Before presenting the definition of Lan, we must make sure that these operations are well-defined (i.e., single-valued). Several lemmata, of which the following are representative, can be proved:

LEM 1: If  $p \equiv_{\underline{i}} q$ , then  $q \mid p \mid = q \mid q \mid$ .

proof: If p = i q, then ip = i q, by an instance of (Eiv).

Hence,  $|\neg_{\underline{i}}\underline{p}| = \{\underline{r}\in \underline{WFI}: \neg_{\underline{i}}\underline{p} = \underline{r}\} = \{\underline{r}\in \underline{WFI}: \neg_{\underline{i}}\underline{q} = \underline{i}\}$ 

=  $|\neg_{\underline{i}}q|$ , by instances of (Eii) and (Eiii).

But, by the definition of  $q_{\underline{i}}$ ,  $q_{\underline{i}}|p| = |q_{\underline{i}}p| = |q_{\underline{i}}q|$ 

= 1 | | |

and . That , , , and are well-defined can be proved by lemmata such as this:

LEM 2: If p = q and A = pB, then  $|p| \wedge p = |q| \wedge p$ 

Thus, (Eiv)-(Evii) insure that these operations are well-defined and permit the following definition and theorem:

THM 1: LAN is a DBDA.

proof: (i) Show  $\langle \frac{\text{WFI}}{\underline{z_i}}, \{(\underline{v_i}, \underline{v_i}, \underline{v_i}, \underline{v_i})\}$  is a Boolean

algebra:

Clearly, WFI/s is non-empty. It only needs to be

shown that the operations satisfy (a)-(f) and (a')(e') of the definition of Boolean algebras. Here
we will only show, as a representative, that

satisfies (a'):

Show | p | (1) | q | = | q | (1) | p |:

(ii) That < =, {\varphi}, {\varphi}, \varphi, \varphi, \varphi} is a

Boolean algebra can be shown in a similar fashion.

(iii) Show ( , ( , )

satisfy clauses (a)-(f) and

(a')-(e') of the definition of DBDA:

by def.

(a1) Show 
$$|p| \bigcirc |A| = |A| \bigcirc |p|$$
:
$$|p| \bigcirc |A| = |p \land_{\underline{e}} A|, \text{ by definition}$$

$$= |A \land_{\underline{e}} P|, \text{ by (Eix)}$$

$$= |A| \bigcirc |p|, \text{ by definition.}$$

- (a) Similar to (a').
- (b) Show, e.g., |p| @ (|q| @ |A|) =

  = (|p| @ |q|) @ |A|:

  |p| @ (|q| @ |A|) = |p|@ (|q ve A|), by def.,

  = |p ve (q ve A)|, by def.,

  = |(p ve q) ve A|, by a

  subschema of (Ex'),

  = (|p| @ |q|) @ |A|,

The rest of (b) can be proved similarly.

(b') Similar to (b).

(c) Show (IPI @ IAI) (p) IAI = IAI:

(IPI @ IAI) (p) IAI = IPABA (p) IAI, by def.,

= |(PABA) vp AI, by def.,

= |AI, by (Exi') and (Eix').

It is of interest, though not strictly necessary, to show that  $(|\underline{A}| \bigcirc |\underline{\rho}|) \bigcirc |\underline{\rho}| \neq |\underline{\rho}|$ . (If they were equal, then WFP  $\cap$  WFI  $\neq \emptyset$ .)

Assume, pro tempore, that they are equal. Now,  $(|\underline{A}| \bigcirc |\underline{\rho}|) \bigcirc |\underline{\rho}| = |\underline{A} \wedge_{\underline{\rho}} \underline{\rho}| \bigcirc |\underline{\rho}| =$   $= |(\underline{A} \wedge_{\underline{\rho}} \underline{\rho}) \vee_{\underline{\rho}} \underline{\rho}|$ . If the latter were equal to  $|\underline{p}|$ , then  $(\underline{A} \wedge_{\underline{\rho}} \underline{p}) \vee_{\underline{\rho}} \underline{p}|$ . But neither symbol yields a subschema of  $(\underline{E}xi')$  (which is the relevant equivalence in this case, in the form  $(\underline{A} \wedge \underline{\rho}) \vee_{\underline{\rho}} \underline{p}|$ . Hence, the identities do not hold.

(d)-(f) and (c')-(e') can be proved similarly (and the absence of the other three combinatorially possible equations can be justified, too)

# 3. The Algebra of DBDAs

We now turn to some purely algebraic results about DBDAs. With one small wrinkle, these are quite analogous to standard results about modules in (universal) algebra. 10

Let us consider two DBDAs "over" the same Boolean algebra  $\underline{B}$ :  $\langle \underline{M}, \underline{B}, \underline{I}_{\underline{M}}, \underline{E}_{\underline{M}} \rangle$  and  $\langle \underline{N}, \underline{B}, \underline{I}_{\underline{N}}, \underline{E}_{\underline{N}} \rangle$ . Technically, operations such as  $\underline{\sim}_{\underline{M}}$  in  $\underline{I}_{\underline{M}}$  and  $\underline{\sim}_{\underline{N}}$  in  $\underline{I}_{\underline{N}}$  are distinct, but it should not prove too ambiguous in what follows if we write  $\underline{\sim}$  for both of them (and similarly for the other connectives).

# DEF 10: h:M → N is a homomorphism from M to N iff, for all m,

m1, m2 & M and b & B,

- (i) (a)  $h(\sim m) = \sim h(m)$ 
  - (b)  $\underline{h}(\underline{m}_1 \# \underline{m}_2) = \underline{h}(\underline{m}_1) \# \underline{h}(\underline{m}_2)$
  - (c)  $\underline{h}(\underline{m}_1 \times \underline{m}_2) = \underline{h}(\underline{m}_1) \times \underline{h}(\underline{m}_2)$
  - (d)  $h(\underline{m}_1 > \underline{m}_2) = h(\underline{m}_1) > h(\underline{m}_2)$ , and
- (ii) (a) h(b + m) = b + h(m) (a) h(m + b) = h(m) + b
  - (b)  $\underline{h}(\underline{b} \underline{X} \underline{m}) = \underline{b} \underline{X} \underline{h}(\underline{m})$  (b')  $\underline{h}(\underline{m} \underline{X} \underline{b}) = \underline{h}(\underline{m}) \underline{X} \underline{b}$
  - (c)  $h(b \Rightarrow m) = b \Rightarrow h(m)$  (c')  $h(m \Rightarrow b) = h(m) \Rightarrow b$

# DEF 11: Let M' & M.

Then M' is a sub-DBDA of M iff, for all m' & M' and b & B,

- (i) M' is a subalgebra of M, and
- (ii) (a) b + m' & M' (a') m' + b & M'
  - (b)  $\underline{b} \ \underline{X} \ \underline{m}^{\dagger} \in \underline{M}^{\dagger}$  (b)  $\underline{m}^{\dagger} \ \underline{X} \ \underline{b} \in \underline{M}^{\dagger}$
  - (c)  $b \Rightarrow m^{\dagger} \in M^{\dagger}$  (c)  $m^{\dagger} \Rightarrow b \in M^{\dagger}$

# DEF 12: Let X S M.

Then N is the sub-DBDA generated by X iff N is the smallest sub-DBDA of M such that X  $\leq$  N.

We remark that a standard theorem of universal algebra shows that such an N exists (cf. Grätzer 1968: 34f).

## DEF 13: Let X S M.

Then X generates M freely iff

- (i) X generates M, and
- (ii) for all DBDAs N and for all  $\varphi: X \to N$ , there exists a homomorphism  $\psi: M \to N$  such that, for all  $x \in X$ ,  $\psi(x) = \varphi(x)$ .

With these definitions, the following theorem can be proved using standard universal-algebraic techniques (cf. Grätzer 1968: 163):

THM 2: If M, N are free DBDAs with n free generators  $(\underline{n} \in \omega)$ , then M is isomorphic to N.

Our next goal is to show that Lan is a free DBDA.

- DEF 14: V is a valuation (or interpretation) of AN in ⟨M,B,I,E⟩ iff V:WFN → MuB such that
  - (i)  $V(p) \in B$ ,  $V(A) \in M$ , for all  $p \in WFI$ ,  $A \in WFP$ .

(ii) 
$$V(\underline{\neg}_{\underline{i}}\underline{p}) = -V(\underline{p})$$
  $V(\underline{q})$   $V(\underline{A} \times_{\underline{e}} \underline{p}) = V(\underline{A}) \times V(\underline{p})$ 

$$V(\underline{p} \times_{\underline{i}}\underline{q}) = V(\underline{p}) + V(\underline{q}) \qquad V(\underline{A} \times_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}) = V(\underline{A}) \times V(\underline{B})$$

$$V(\underline{p} \times_{\underline{i}} \underline{q}) = V(\underline{p}) + V(\underline{q}) \qquad V(\underline{A} \times_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}) = V(\underline{A}) \times V(\underline{B})$$

$$V(\underline{p} \times_{\underline{i}} \underline{q}) = V(\underline{p}) + V(\underline{q}) \qquad V(\underline{A} \times_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}) = V(\underline{A}) \times V(\underline{B})$$

$$V(\underline{p} \times_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}) = V(\underline{p}) + V(\underline{A}) \qquad V(\underline{A} \times_{\underline{e}} \underline{p}) = V(\underline{A}) \times V(\underline{p})$$

$$V(\underline{p} \times_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}) = V(\underline{p}) \times V(\underline{A}) \qquad V(\underline{A} \times_{\underline{e}} \underline{p}) = V(\underline{A}) \times V(\underline{p})$$

 $V(\underline{p} \rightarrow_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}) = V(\underline{p}) \Rightarrow V(\underline{A}) \quad V(\underline{A} \rightarrow_{\underline{e}} \underline{p}) = V(\underline{A}) \Rightarrow V(\underline{p})$ 

We remark that this is a "Boolean-valued interpretation", since B and M are Boolean algebras.

Before presenting the next definition, a few heuristic remarks are in order. To mimic precisely the standard interpretation of classical logic in Boolean algebras, the following sort of definition would be used:

Let  $\chi$  be a class of algebras similar to  $\underline{AN}$ . Then  $\chi$   $\equiv_{\chi} \beta$  iff  $V(\kappa) = V(\beta)$  for every valuation V of  $\underline{AN}$  in a member of  $\chi$ .

Then we could say that  $\alpha$  "is Boolean-equivalent to"  $\beta$  ( $\alpha \equiv_{\underline{\beta}} \beta$ ) iff  $\mathcal{K}$  = the class of Boolean algebras. An attempt at this point to provide a general soundness theorem for C (i.e., if  $\alpha \equiv \beta$ , then  $\alpha \equiv_{\underline{\beta}} \beta$ ) would fail, since there would be no way to handle equivalences of the form  $\underline{p} \equiv_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}$  (where  $\underline{p} \equiv_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}$  iff  $\underline{p} \leftrightarrow_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}$  is a theorem of  $\underline{C}$ ), no provisions having been made in the X-algebras for such equivalences.

In general, too, for the particular applications we have in mind, the M and B constituents of the DBDAs will have the same cardinality. Were we to identify them, as the clause " $V(\omega)$  =  $V(\beta)$ " suggests, we would be destroying our definition of a valuation (clause (i)), or, rather, it would mean that we were interpreting AN in a Boolean algebra, not in a DBDA. Thus, we want a clause like " $V(\omega)$  =  $V(\beta)$ ", but weaker. We want  $V(\alpha)$  to "play the same role" in one algebra that  $V(\beta)$  plays in the other (when  $\alpha \in MFI$  and  $\beta \in MFP$ , say). For example, if M and B are isomorphic to the 2-element Boolean algebra, viz.,  $Z = \{1,0\}$ , and M  $\alpha$  B =  $\emptyset$ , then we could take M =  $\{J,N\}$  and B =  $\{T,F\}$ , where J and T "play the same role" as 1. What we need, then is an isomorphism h:M  $\rightarrow$ B such that h(J) = T.

Combining these requirements, the definition we need is:

DEF 15: Let  $\chi$  be a class of algebras similar to  $\underline{AN}$  such that for each  $\langle \underline{M}, \underline{B}, \underline{I}, \underline{E} \rangle \in \chi$ , there is an isomorphism  $\underline{h}:\underline{M} \to \underline{B}$  for which  $\underline{h}(V(\underline{A})) = V(\underline{p})$  iff  $\underline{A} \succeq_{\underline{e}} \underline{p}$  (for all  $\underline{A} \in \underline{WFP}$ ,  $\underline{p} \in \underline{WFI}$ , and valuations V of  $\underline{AN}$  in a member of  $\chi$ ).

Then  $\alpha \equiv_{\chi} \beta$  iff  $V(\alpha) = \begin{cases} V(\beta), & \text{if } \alpha, \beta \text{ are both in } \underline{\text{WFI}} \text{ or both in } \underline{\text{WFP}} \\ \underline{h}(V(\beta)), & \text{if } \alpha \in \underline{\text{WFI}} \text{ and } \beta \in \underline{\text{WFP}} \\ \underline{h}^{-1}(V(\beta)), & \text{if } \alpha \in \underline{\text{WFP}} \text{ and } \beta \in \underline{\text{WFI}} \end{cases}$ 

for all valuations V of  $\underline{\mathtt{AN}}$  in a member of  $\chi$ .

DEF 16:  $\alpha$  is Boolean-equivalent to  $\beta$  ( $\alpha \in \beta$ ) iff  $\alpha \in \beta$  and  $\alpha \in \beta$  an

We then have the following results (the proofs are modeled after those in Dunn):

THM 3 (General Soundness for C): If  $\alpha \in \beta$ , then  $\alpha \in_{\underline{B}} \beta$ .

proof (by induction on length of proof):

Suppose  $\alpha, \beta \in \underline{WFI}$ . Then if  $\alpha \succeq_{\underline{i}} \beta$  by virtue of one of (Ei), (Eviii-xiv), (Eviii'-xiii'), then  $V(\alpha) = V(\beta)$  because of the corresponding postulate for Boolean algebras, viz., DEF 3.ii.a-f, a'-e'. Rules (Eii-vii) preserve Boolean equivalence because of corresponding postulates on identity.

Suppose  $\alpha, \beta \in \underline{WFP}$ . Then  $\alpha = \beta$  implies  $\alpha = \beta$  analogously.

Finally, if  $\alpha \in \underline{WFI}$ ,  $\beta \in \underline{WFP}$ , and  $\alpha \succeq_{\underline{e}} \beta$ , then  $V(\alpha) = \underline{h}(V(\beta))$ ; and if  $\alpha \in \underline{WFP}$ ,  $\beta \in \underline{WFI}$ , and  $\alpha \succeq_{\underline{e}} \beta$ , then  $V(\alpha) = \underline{h}^{-1}(V(\beta))$ , analogously

COROLLARY: LAN is a free DBDA.

proof: The set of free generators will be  $\underline{X} = \{|\underline{A}|: \underline{A} \in \underline{V}_{\underline{P}} \& |\underline{A}| = \{\underline{B} \in \underline{WFP}: \underline{A} = \underline{p} \underline{B}\} \}$ . Let  $\underline{N}$  be a DBDA and let  $\underline{\Psi}: \underline{X} \to \underline{N}$ .

We need to extend  $\Psi$  to a homomorphism  $\Psi: \mathcal{L}_{\underline{AN}} \to \underline{N}$  such that for all  $|\underline{A}| \in \underline{X}$ ,  $\Psi(|\underline{A}|) = \Psi(|\underline{A}|)$ . To do this, we define a function  $V: \underline{WFP} \to \underline{N}$  inductively as follows:

$$V(\underline{A}) =_{\underline{df}} \varphi(|\underline{A}|)$$

$$V(\underline{A} =_{\underline{p}} \underline{A}) =_{\underline{df}} \nabla(\underline{A})$$

$$V(\underline{A} =_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}) =_{\underline{df}} \nabla(\underline{A}) \# V(\underline{B})$$

$$V(\underline{A} =_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}) =_{\underline{df}} \nabla(\underline{A}) \# V(\underline{B})$$

$$V(\underline{A} =_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}) =_{\underline{df}} \nabla(\underline{A}) \times V(\underline{B})$$

$$V(\underline{A} =_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}) =_{\underline{df}} \nabla(\underline{A}) \Rightarrow V(\underline{B}).$$

Next, we define  $\Psi: \mathcal{L}_{\underline{AN}} \to \underline{N}$  such that  $\Psi(|\underline{A}|) = V(\underline{A})$ , for all  $\underline{A} \in \underline{WFP}$ . It suffices to show that  $\Psi$  is well-defined and a homomorphism. We shall merely show a representative portion of the proof of the latter:

 $\Psi(|\underline{A}| \nabla_{\underline{p}} |\underline{B}|) = \Psi(|\underline{A} \nabla_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}|) = V(\underline{A} \nabla_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}) = V(\underline{A}) \# V(\underline{B})$   $= \Psi(|\underline{A}|) \# \Psi(|\underline{B}|). \quad \text{Thus, } \Psi \text{ preserves}$ operations. As for the former, can  $|\underline{A}| = |\underline{B}|$  (i.e., can  $\underline{A} = \underline{B} \text{ in } \underline{B} \text{ without } V(\underline{A}) = V(\underline{B})? \quad \text{Since } V \text{ is a valuation, then}$ by the soundness theorem just proved, the answer is 'No'; so  $\Psi$  is well-defined.

THM 4 (General Completeness for C): If  $\alpha \equiv_B \beta$ , then  $\alpha \equiv \beta$ .

proof: Let  $V_c: \underline{WFN} \to \underline{WFT}/\underline{z}$  be such that  $V_c(\underline{p}) = |\underline{p}|$  and  $V_c(\underline{A}) = |\underline{A}|$ , for all  $\underline{A}, \underline{p} \in \underline{WFN}$ . Then  $V_c$  is the natural homomorphism of  $\underline{AN}$  onto  $\underline{\mathcal{L}}_{\underline{AN}}$ , and it is a valuation.

Assume that  $\alpha \neq \beta$ . We have 3 cases:  $\underline{p} \neq_{\underline{i}} \underline{q}$ ,  $\underline{A} \neq_{\underline{p}} \underline{B}$ ,  $\underline{p} \neq_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}$ .

If  $p \not\equiv_{\underline{i}} q$ , then  $|p| \neq |q|$ ; so  $V_{\underline{c}}(p) \neq V_{\underline{c}}(q)$ , by definition. Hence,  $p \not\equiv_{\underline{B}} q$ .

If A \$ B, then A \$ B, similarly.

If  $p \not\models_{\underline{e}} A$ , then  $V_{\underline{e}}(\underline{p}) \neq \underline{h}(V_{\underline{e}}(\underline{A}))$ , where  $\underline{h}$  is the isomorphism of DEF 15. Hence,  $\underline{p} \not\models_{\underline{B}} \underline{A}$ .

We conclude this section with a representation theorem for "isomorphic" DBDAs, viz., those DBDAs with which we have been concerned (i.e., those (M,B,I,E)s for which M is isomorphic to B).

- DEF 17: A double Boolean dominance algebra of sets consists of a field of sets M, a field of sets B, and operations  $\bigcap_{i=1}^{n}$ ,  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n}$ ,  $\bigcup_{i$ 
  - (i) there exists an isomorphism  $h: \mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ , and
  - (ii) for all meM, be 3,

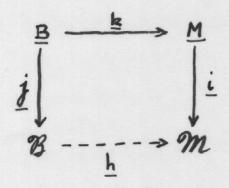
$$b \circ m = h(b) \circ m$$
  $m \circ b = m \circ h(b)$ 

$$\underline{b} \ \mathbf{v}^* \ \underline{m} = \underline{h}(\underline{b}) \ \mathbf{v} \ \underline{m}$$
  $\underline{m} \ \mathbf{v}^* \ \underline{b} = \underline{m} \ \mathbf{v} \ \underline{h}(\underline{b})$ 

$$b \rightarrow^* m = \overline{h(b)} \cup m \qquad \underline{m} \rightarrow^* b = \overline{\underline{m}} \cup \underline{h(b)},$$

where - is the complement operator.

- THM 5: Every (isomorphic) DBDA, (M,B,I,E), is isomorphic to a DBDA of sets, (M,B).
- proof: Since every Boolean algebra is isomorphic to a field of sets, let  $\underline{i}:\underline{M}\to M$ ,  $\underline{j}:\underline{B}\to B$ , be such isomorphisms. Let  $\underline{k}:\underline{B}\to \underline{M}$  be an isomorphism. Let  $\underline{h}=\underline{df}\ \underline{i}\ o\ \underline{k}\ o\ \underline{j}^{-1}:B\to M$ . Thus, the following diagram commutes:



We need to show that clauses (i) and (ii) of DEF 17 are satisfied. Clearly, h is an isomorphism: Let beB, meM, beH, meM. Then, e.g., since  $j^{-1}$ , k, and i are isomorphisms, h(bum) = i o k o  $j^{-1}$ (bum)

= i o k( $j^{-1}$ (b) +  $j^{-1}$ (m)),

= i(k o  $j^{-1}$ (b) # k o  $j^{-1}$ (m))

= i o k o  $j^{-1}$ (b) u i o k o  $j^{-1}$ (m)

= h(b) u h(m).

To satisfy clause (ii), define  $n^*$ ,  $v^*$ ,  $o^*$  such that  $v^* = h(v) \cdot n$ , etc.

Thus,  $\langle \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M} \rangle$  is a DBDA of sets, and  $J: \langle \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{E} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{M} \rangle$ , where  $J|_{\mathbf{B}} = \mathbf{j}$  and  $J|_{\mathbf{M}} = \mathbf{i}$ , is an isomorphism.

A remark on the final sentence of this proof is perhaps in order. Strictly speaking, M is the DBDA and M is the DBDA of sets; thus, strictly, i is the requisite representation-isomorphism. But to thus focus our attention on M (while relegating B to the background) is to do practitional logic. To do true noematic logic, we must give equal status to M and B; i.e., we must consider DBDAs to be "systems" of algebras. We now turn to some further observations along these lines.

### IV. GENERALIZATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

In the previous section, we have presented an algebraic interpretation of the "sentential" fragment of Castaneda's deontic logic (cf. n.6). I hope to report on the first-order and modal extensions in future essays. For the former, we will need a dominance analogue of cylindrical algebras; for the latter, wherein the ought-to-do operator is considered, we will need a dominance analogue of modal cylindrical algebras—with a wrinkle: for the ought-to-do operator forms propositions from practitions. Nevertheless, there are some interesting mathematical generalizations and philosophical implications of the work accomplished thus far.

We may extend the notion of a dominance algebra from a pair to an n-tuple:

DEF 18: An n-fold dominance chain of algebras (DCA) is a (2n+k)tuple  $\langle \underline{A}_1, \dots, \underline{A}_n, \underline{Q}_1, \dots, \underline{Q}_n, \underline{Q}_1^*, \dots, \underline{Q}_k^* \rangle$ , where (for each  $1 \leq \underline{i} \leq \underline{n}$ )  $\underline{A}_{\underline{i}}$  is an algebra with (internal) operations in the

set  $\underline{Q}_{\underline{i}}$ , and (for each  $1 \leq \underline{j} \leq \underline{k} = \frac{n!}{(n-2)!2}$ )  $\underline{Q}_{\underline{j}}^*$  is a set of

(external) operations between the  $\underline{A}_{\underline{i}}$  such that  $\underline{Q}_{1}^* \subseteq \underline{A}_{\underline{i}}^{(\underline{A}_{1} \times \underline{A}_{2}) \cup (\underline{A}_{2} \times \underline{A}_{1})}$ ,  $\underline{Q}_{2}^* \subseteq \underline{A}_{3}^{(\underline{A}_{1} \times \underline{A}_{3}) \cup (\underline{A}_{3} \times \underline{A}_{1})}$ , ...,  $\underline{Q}_{\underline{n}}^* \subseteq \underline{A}_{\underline{n}}^{(\underline{A}_{1} \times \underline{A}_{\underline{n}}) \cup (\underline{A}_{\underline{n}} \times \underline{A}_{1})}$ ,  $\underline{Q}_{\underline{n}+1}^* \subseteq \underline{A}_{3}^{(\underline{A}_{2} \times \underline{A}_{3}) \cup (\underline{A}_{3} \times \underline{A}_{2})}$ , ...,  $\underline{Q}_{\underline{k}}^* \subseteq \underline{A}_{\underline{n}}^{(\underline{A}_{1} \times \underline{A}_{\underline{n}}) \cup (\underline{A}_{\underline{n}} \times \underline{A}_{1})}$ ,  $\underline{Q}_{\underline{n}+1}^* \subseteq \underline{A}_{3}^{(\underline{A}_{2} \times \underline{A}_{3}) \cup (\underline{A}_{3} \times \underline{A}_{2})}$ , ...,  $\underline{Q}_{\underline{k}}^* \subseteq \underline{A}_{\underline{n}}^{(\underline{A}_{1} \times \underline{A}_{\underline{n}}) \cup (\underline{A}_{\underline{n}} \times \underline{A}_{\underline{n}})}$ .

Thus, for any pair of algebras  $\underline{A},\underline{B}$  (where  $\underline{A}$  "precedes"  $\underline{B}$  in the DCA), the result of combining a member of  $\underline{A}$  with a member of  $\underline{B}$ 

by an external operation is a member of B. It is in this sense that we may say that B "dominates" or "is dominant with respect to" A, and A "is recessive with respect to" B.

We can call an <u>n</u>-fold DCA <u>cyclic</u> iff there are also (external) operations from  $(\underline{A_n}x\underline{A_1})\cup(\underline{A_1}x\underline{A_n})$  to  $\underline{A_1}$ . In general, one could "extend" any DCA by adding external "recessive" operations. While such generalizations as these might be of some mathematical interest, they are beyond our present scope.

Now, in view of the closing remark of Section III and in spite of the remark in Section III.1, modules are not clearly dominance algebras (i.e., 2-fold DCAs, with A<sub>1</sub> being a ring and A<sub>2</sub> being the group). Rather, as ordinarily defined (cf. Herstein 1964: 160; but contrast Solian 1977: 30f), they are sets with an "internal" binary operation (specifically, they are groups) and a set of singulary operations (or operators) each of which is of the form: r. (where reA<sub>1</sub>. 14 For our purposes, however, it seems better to regard them as 2-fold DCAs and then to generalize in the direction of DBDAs, since we don't want merely to be talking about the practitional component of C. However, since, for our purposes, the DBDA is only a 2-fold DCA, we can consider it as a more straightforward sort of generalization of a module when convenient (e.g., for proving theorems about free generation, etc.).

To clarify this a bit, there are at least two ways in which to generalize the notion of a module. In the first ("straight-forward") way, we might say that a modular algebra is an algebra with internal operations and a set (with some structure) of singu-

lary operators. In the second way, we have a 2-fold DCA, viz., a pair of algebras, each having internal operations and such that there are external operations between the algebras, with one algebra being dominant. This, as we have seen, generalizes still further to n-fold DCAs.

Such mathematical generalizations might seem empty. However, there are applications of n-fold DCAs, where n>2. Consider the logic of natural language, which has, besides propositions and practitions, also questions (and commands--cf. n.4). As noted in Section I.3, the combinations of such noemata form a dominance chain. It is unclear which dominates which; perhaps recessive operations would have to be considered. But such noemata as

If you shouldn't sing, then should you dance?
You should sing, but should you dance?
Sit down, or would you rather dance?
Go, won't you?

suggest that the algebra of well-formed questions dominates that of WFP, which in turn (as we have seen) dominates that of WFI.

Note that we would <u>not</u> want to consider this as a (3-fold?) <u>modular</u> algebra (whatever that might be), since that would suggest that <u>questions</u> are the fundamental units of thought or language. But we need all three (or four, if we count commands). Nor are we interested in questions <u>primarily</u>, but in all three (or four) structures equally, together with their interactions. So DCAs (<u>perhaps</u> cyclic or even recessive) are (the) appropriate algebraic structures for the mathematical analysis of natural languages.

#### NOTES

1 Part II (first-order fragment) and Part III (modal fragment) are forthcoming. See Sect. IV.

<sup>2</sup>I am referring, here, in part to Aristotle's distinctions between practical wisdom vs. scientific knowledge and pure vs. practical syllogisms (cf. Aristotle, <u>Nicomachean Ethics</u>, VI-VII, esp. 1147a30) and in part to Hume's is-ought distinction (cf. Hume 1739: 469 and discussions in Castaneda 1973, 1974: 128ff, 1975: 11ff; and Searle 1964).

<sup>3</sup>Elsewhere, Castaneda has favored a distinction between two modes of predication within the propositional sphere. It thus <u>appears</u> that his complete theory requires at least three copulas. Cf. Castaneda 1972b, 1975: 324ff.

4There are other noemata; e.g., mandates are expressed by imperative sentences, and questions are expressed by interrogative sentences. While mandates are discussed at length in Castaneda 1974 and 1975, they do not appear in his formal deontic logic, and so we shall ignore them here. But cf. Sect. IV.

5Actions, i.e., other than the action of contemplating.

There is a small but interesting terminological difficulty here. In general, I prefer the term 'propositional logic', but that obviously won't do, because of the presence of practitions. 'Noematic logic' would be better but ultimately less perspicuous than the technically incorrect (since practitions are not sentences) 'sentential logic'.

7Castaneda makes a distinction between (1) an "ought-to-be" operator which transforms indicative sentences (or propositions) into indicatives (or propositions) thus: ought-to-be(John goes home) = John ought to go home, and (2) an "ought-to-do" operator which transforms practitives (or practitions) into indicatives (or propositions) thus: ought-to-do(John to go home) = John ought to go home. Cf. Castaneda 1972a, 1975: 46, 207; Moore 1903; and Sect. IV below.

8Strictly, three different kinds of parentheses: (i, cp, (e, and their right-hand counterparts, can (and perhaps should) be employed; but such distinctions are not crucial to what follows. Alternatively, these distinctions can be made and then uniformly ignored (i.e., tacitly understood) except where ambiguity would threaten.

<sup>9</sup>We could also define  $\underline{p} \cong_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}$  iff  $\underline{p} \leftrightarrow_{\underline{e}} \underline{A}$  is a theorem of  $\underline{C}$ , but this proves to be superfluous for our present purposes. It

close up with p. 31A

is not, however, an idle definition, for some propositions are logically equivalent to some practitions, though they are distinct. Note, too, that the absence of  $\mathbf{x}$  ties in nicely with the absence of the four equations from the definition of DBDA.

10 Cf., e.g., Hartley and Hawkes 1970, Cohn 1965, and Grätzer 1968.

For those readers losing their way through the forest of connectives, it will be useful to recall DEFs 3 and 4.

12 In Castaneda's system, J and T are the designated (truth-like) values for practitions and propositions, respectively. Cf. Castaneda 1974: 84, 89, and Ch. 4.

 $^{13}$ Recall that  $y_{\underline{p}}$  is the set of pure practitive variables; cf. Sect. II.

14 Thus, where meA2 and r. is one of the operators, r.meA2.

Another line of generalization is to a 2-fold dominant-recessive algebra: a pair of algebras  $\langle \underline{A}, \underline{B} \rangle$  together with a set of operations of the form  $\underline{d}:(\underline{A}\underline{x}\underline{B})\cup(\underline{B}\underline{x}\underline{A})\to\underline{B}$  and a set of operations of the form  $\underline{r}:(\underline{A}\underline{x}\underline{B})\cup(\underline{B}\underline{x}\underline{A})\to\underline{A}$ . The  $\underline{d}$  are dominant operations; the  $\underline{r}$  recessive (clearly these terms are arbitrary in this case).

16 But cf. Solian 1977, Ch. 16, "Multimodules".

17 Shorter versions of this paper were presented to the Niagara Linguistics Society, the Mathematical Association of America Seaway Section, and the Association for Symbolic Logic. I am grateful to Randall Dipert and J. Michael Dunn for their

Close up with p. 32

advice and comments, and to the Joint Awards Council/University

Awards Committee of the Research Foundation of SUNY for a

Faculty Research Fellowship.

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DEPARTMENT OF PHILOSOPHY

BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA 94720

November 21, 1978

Professor William J. Rapaport Department of Philosophy State University College Fredonia, NY 14063

Dear Professor Rapaport:

The referee of your paper, "An Algebraic Interpretation of Deontic Logic, Part I: Sentential Fragment" has now reported. Although I have not verified his criticism of specific points, I agree with his general judgment that the paper largely consists of straightforward uses of familiar mathematical results. With regret I conclude that the paper should not be published in JSL and must therefore decline to accept it.

A photocopy of the referee's report is enclosed. It may be of help to you in planning your future work to get this careful and detailed assessment of this part of it.

I enclose the two copies of the manuscript you have sent. Thank you for enclosing a stamped return envelope.

Sincerely yours,

William Craig, Editor JOURNAL OF SYMBOLIC LOGIC

Enclosures

WC/jm

### Referee's report on

An Algebraic Interpretation of Deontic Logic
Part I: Sentential Fragment

The main contribution of this paper is the introduction of the concept of a 'dominance algebra'. These algebras are motivated by problems arising in deontic logic, and hence are of interest to philosophers. However, the paper is mainly mathematical.

The theorems proved about dominance algebras cover only the special case of a 'double Boolean dominance algebra', and even then, all but one concern only a specific DBDA formed from a propositional calculus discussed in the paper. The first result proved about this algebra is just that it is a DBDA. The techniques used in this proof should be familiar to anyone who has studied the Lindenbaum algebra of standard propositional calculus. The paper could be shortened by relegating these straightforward verifications to the reader.

Skipping to the end of the paper, there is a general representation theorem proved for DBDA's. It is an immediate corollary to the Stone representation theorem for Boolean algebras.

The core of the paper is concerned with an algebraic completeness theorem for the calculus considered in the paper. The proofs are all straightforward exercises in working with abstract algebras and equivilance relations defined on them. However, there seems to be a problem with a basic definition which may prevent some of the proofs from being correct.

(First, definition 16 cannot be quite right, because Boolean algebras are not of the correct similarity type to fit the requirements of definition 15. Surely what is intended is that Boolean algebras be considered (in the obvious way) as DBDA's. This is not an important point, but I mention it because the author takes pains to maintain this distinction for special reasons on page 22.)

Definition 15 requires that for any valuation V there is an isomorphism h with the property that  $h(V(\underline{A}))=V(\underline{p})$  iff  $\underline{A} = \underline{p}$ . (1) Let V be the valuation which assigns to every indicative and practitive variable the value  $\underline{l}$  of the appropriate Boolean algebra. Since any isomorphism takes 'greatest element' to greatest element, no mapping h can satisfy (1) since this would imply that all pairs of variables (of the appropriate kind) would be provably 'e-equivilant'; i.e.  $\underline{A} = \underline{p}$ , which is absurd. Furthermore, modification of this definition may run into trouble because there do exist Boolean algebras with no non-trivial automorphisms.

Finally, a trivial mistake occurs in the definition of the set  $\underline{X}$  on page 23: the clause ' $|A| = \{\underline{B} \text{ WFP : } \underline{A} = \underline{p}\underline{B}\}$ ' is redundant, as it is always satisfied according to its definition(which is all it is) on page 15.

Because of the above criticisms I cannot recommend this paper for publication in the Journal of Symbolic Logic.



DEPARTMENT OF LINGUISTICS

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND ADMINISTRATION

A remark concerning your paper "An Algebraic Interpretation of Deontic Logic I have read your paper and I think that one can omit the difficulty occurring in definition 15.

Your gave the definition of to (page 13) and wrote "similarly for top, the case of top is obvious. But the can not be defined in a "similar" way. We can not put not put (x) P = A = af (P = A) re (A = P) because pret and Arep are both wfps and .

Ne is not applicable to two wfps. The only "similar"

(with respect to er; and erp) way to define ere is the following: (\*\*) P== A =of (P== A) Ap (A == P). But = defined by (\*\*) is not an equivalence velation! (cf. note9 and definition 15)

Let us go to page 22. According to the above vemoules, Let us go to page 22. According to the above vemoules, as an equivalence velation). Hence, as far as I can see, as an equivalence velation). Hence, as far as I can see, we do not need anything like definition 15. The proofs we do not need anything like definition 15. The proofs of theorems 3 and 4 work after some obvious correcting the order. I hope that I did not make any unistake in the above reasoning. Sincovely yours,