A PARADOX OF LEWIS'S STRICT IMPLICATION

BY TANG TSAO-CHEN

The postulates for Lewis's strict implication are nine in number,* namely,

[11.1]	$pq \dashv qp$
[11.2]	$pq \rightarrow p$
[11.3]	p -3 pp
[11.4]	$(pq)r \dashv p(qr)$
[11.5]	p \dashv \sim $(\sim p)$
[11.6]	$p \dashv q.q \dashv r: \dashv .p \dashv r$
[11.7]	$p.p \dashv q$: $\dashv .q$
[19.01]	$\Diamond pq \dashv \Diamond p$
[20.01]	$(\exists p,q)\colon \sim (p \dashv q). \sim (p \dashv \sim q).$

By the operations of substitution, adjunction, and inference, a body of theorems is obtained. But the following theorem, which is a paradox of the strict implication, is not explicitly mentioned in Lewis's book.

Any two of the first eight postulates are such that each is deducible from the other, if $p \rightarrow q$ be interpreted as 'p is deducible from q.'

In order to prove this theorem we assume the following eight theorems.†

1.
$$p \sim p = q \sim q$$

$$0 = q \sim q$$

^{*} The references are to Symbolic Logic, by Lewis and Langford, 1932.

[†] For the proof of these theorems see the paper, The theorem "p- $\exists q \cdot = pq = p$ " and Huntington's relation between Lewis's strict implication and Boolean algebra, by Tang Tsao-Chen in this Bulletin, vol. 42 (1936), pp. 743-746.

$$p \sim p = 0$$

3.
$$p0 = 0$$
 Def.
$$i = \sim \diamondsuit 0$$

Def.
$$i = \sim \diamondsuit 0$$

$$4. \qquad pq \rightarrow p. = .i$$

5.
$$p \rightarrow p. = .i$$

6.
$$p \rightarrow q. \rightarrow .i$$

7.
$$p \rightarrow q$$
. $= :i \cdot p \rightarrow q$

8.
$$p \rightarrow q. = .pq = p.$$

Note that the Theorems 4 and 5 are particular cases of the following theorem.

9. If $p \rightarrow q$ is asserted, then $p \rightarrow q \cdot = i$.

[Hyp.]
$$p \rightarrow q$$
 (1)

$$[(1), 8.] pq = p (2)$$

[12.11]
$$pq = p \cdot = pq = p$$
 (3)

[(2), (3)]
$$pq = p. = .p = p$$
 (4)

$$[11.03, 12.7] p = p. = .p - 3p (5)$$

$$[(4), (5), 5.] pq = p. = .i (6)$$

$$[(6), 8.] p \rightarrow q. = .i$$

From the above theorem it is very easy to prove the following theorem.

10. If $p \rightarrow q$ and $r \rightarrow s$ are both asserted, then

$$p \dashv q. \dashv .r \dashv s \tag{1}$$

and

$$r \dashv s. \dashv .p \dashv q.$$
 (2)

[Hyp.]
$$p \dashv q$$
 (3)

[(3), 9.]
$$p \dashv q. = .i$$
 (4)

$$[Hyp.] r \to s (5)$$

$$[(5), 9.] r \exists s. = .i (6)$$

$$[(4), (6)] p \exists q. = .r \exists s (7)$$

$$[11.03] (7) = (1)(2) (8)$$

$$[(7), (8)] (1)(2) (9)$$

$$[11.2] (1)(2) \exists (1) (10)$$

$$[12.17] (1)(2) \exists (2) (11)$$

[(9), (10)] (1)

[(9), (11)] (2).

The paradox stated above is a particular case of Theorem 10, and therefore requires no further proof.

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THE BETTI NUMBERS OF CYCLIC PRODUCTS

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- 1. Introduction. In a recent paper† M. Richardson has discussed the symmetric product of a simplicial complex and has obtained explicit formulas for the Betti numbers of the two-and three-fold products. Acting on a suggestion of Lefschetz, we define a more general type of topological product and apply Richardson's methods to compute the Betti numbers of a certain one of these, the "cyclic" product.
- 2. Basis for m-Cycles of General Products. Let S be a topological space and G a group of permutations on the numbers $1, \dots, n$. The product of S with respect to G, G(S), is the set of all n-tuples (P_1, \dots, P_n) of points of S, where $(P_{i_1}, \dots, P_{i_n})$ is to be regarded as identical with (P_1, \dots, P_n) if and only if the permutation $(\frac{1}{i_1 \dots i_n})$ is an element of G. A neighborhood of (P_1, \dots, P_n) is the set of all points (Q_1, \dots, Q_n) for which Q_i belongs to a fixed neighborhood of P_i . It is not difficult to verify that the

[†] M. Richardson, On the homology characters of symmetric products, Duke Mathematical Journal, vol. 1 (1935), pp. 50-69. We shall refer to this paper as R.