# S (for Syllogism) Revisited "The Revolution Devours its Children" 

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## Introduction

In 1978, the authors began a paper, "S (for Syllogism)," henceforth [S4S], intended as a philosophical companion piece to the technical solution [SPW] of the Anderson-Belnap P-W problem. [S4S] has gone through a number of drafts, which have been circulated among close friends. Meanwhile other authors have failed to see the point of the semantics which we introduced in [SPW]. It will accordingly be our purpose here to revisit that semantics, while giving our present views on syllogistic matters past, present and future, especially as they relate to not begging the question via such dubious theses as $A \rightarrow A$. We shall investigate in particular a paraconsistent attitude toward such theses.

Which arguments are valid? This has been the central question of logic. "Reasoning is an argument in which, certain things being laid down, something other than these necessarily comes about through them," said Aristotle. ${ }^{1}$ The emphasis is ours. "He who repeats himself does not reason," as Strawson [STR] correctly notes. The fallacy of concluding what one has assumed is almost universally condemned. Some of the rubrics under which it is condemned are the following: circular reasoning, begging the question, petito principii.

What, we ask, is the formal counterpart of this well-known fallacy? Is it not just $A \rightarrow A$ itself? ${ }^{2}$ Why then is $A \rightarrow A$ equally universally approved? One reason is that the principle is (mis)identified as the Law of Identity.

[^0]Laws are solemn things. This holds doubly for Laws of Logic. And it is not for us, we mostly agree, to tinker with solemn things.

Wait a minute. Surely the law of identity is that $A$ is $A$, whatever the type or category of $A$. With this law, rightly so called, we have no quarrel. Rather the point of the traditional complaint is that, just because $A$ is $A$, it cannot properly be said to follow from itself. It occurs to us to allow $A$ to follow improperly from itself, paraconsistently. Meanwhile, let us become more Aristotelian.

## 1 Vindicating Aristotle

Logic was invented by Aristotle, noted Kant. He added that it had not afterwards been able to advance a single step. In the two centuries since Kant, logic has been symbolized and made mathematical; by common consent, it has advanced many steps. It will be our purpose here to undermine this consent; and insofar as it lies within us, to restore what Kant perceived.

Aristotle was the father of many sciences. Again and again in the modern era further progress has been possible only when the dead hand of Aristotelian dogma has been lifted from the throat of, say, astronomy. (Who any more would wish to hold immutable what is in and above the sphere of the moon?) True, Logic came late to the arena in which Aristotle was (or anyway was accused of being) a blithering idiot.

Accusation came nonetheless and (eventually) in force. We shall not recall or add to it. Rather it will be for us to dwell on what Aristotle saw, by way of founding logic. What he saw was that premisses combine to produce a conclusion validly. The Granddaddy of these valid arguments is the so-called syllogism in BARBARA. Since we agree with Anderson and Belnap's [ENT1] that implication is the Heart of Logic, we write down the pure implicational basis of this syllogism. (We use mnemonics from Curry's Combinatory Logic, henceforth CL.)

$$
\text { Ax } B . \quad(C \rightarrow D) \rightarrow((A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow(A \rightarrow D))
$$

$B$ respects the convention that, in stating syllogisms, the major premiss comes first. There is another implicational principle that looks very much like it, namely

$$
\text { Ax } B^{\prime} . \quad(A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow((C \rightarrow D) \rightarrow(A \rightarrow D))
$$

So easy is it to confuse these principles that they are known indifferently in some texts as "syllogism". ${ }^{3}$ This is a sound intuition. But except in the presence of some further assumptions that will not be made here, $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ are different (and non-equivalent) principles. ${ }^{4}$

It is crashingly clear how the premisses of $B$ combine to produce its conclusion. The rubric is
(a) The $2^{\text {nd }}$ implies the $3^{\text {rd }}$;
(b) The $1^{\text {st }}$ implies the $2^{\text {nd }}$. So
(c) The $1^{\text {st }}$ implies the $3^{\text {rd }}$.
$B^{\prime}$ is just the same, save that premisses (a) and (b) are switched. And both testify to the same root insight, which we identify as the traditional

Dictum de omni. Implication is transitive. ${ }^{5}$
Readers familiar with the $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{W}$ problem may at this point complain that we have left out an axiom. You still need, they may insist

$$
\operatorname{Ax} I . \quad A \rightarrow A
$$

Maybe they are right, for reasons into which we shall delve below. For now, we view Ax $I$ as just too crude. It is not reasoning to argue in a circle, concluding what one has assumed. It is not reasoning to beg the question. It is not reasoning to commit petitio principii.

Petitio principii is represented, in every system of logic that it has been the custom to take seriously, by the theorem scheme Ax $I$. [ENT] waxes almost rhapsodic on the point (in which, it must be wryly confessed, we have sometimes joined it; to oneself, however, all is forgiven). According to [ENT, 8], $A \rightarrow A$ is the "archetypal form of inference," the "trivial foundation of all reasoning". More than that, $[\mathrm{ENT}]$ confers upon $A$ the honorific status of being (logically) necessary iff $A$ follows from $A \rightarrow A$; for the necessitive $\square A$ is defined as $(A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A$.

[^1][ENT] claimed to present the logic of relevance and necessity. In large measure the claim is true. Yet for 2000 years logic has been only peripherally involved with relevance or necessity as such. What the tradition that dates from Aristotle has been concerned with centrally is syllogistic reasoning; and, especially, the role of the middle term in separating the valid from the invalid arguments. What assures relevance, traditionally, is that a good argument goes through a middle term. So viewed, it is not so hard to find where irrelevance attacks, producing the most common fallacies.

Fallacies of relevance creep in when one has got confused about the role and function of the middle term. For example, there might be no way of decently providing a middle term at all-fallacies ad hominem or ad baculum have this character. Or, by being vague or ambiguous, one might convince oneself that one has a middle term when one doesn't. If one equivocates about $B$, then a purported argument from $A$ to $C$ through $B$ might not really go through $B$ at all. (In the traditional lingo, this is the fallacy of four terms.) Finally one might have a middle term, and an unambiguous one, while appealing nonetheless to an argument form that is simply invalid (e.g., IAI in the first figure). ${ }^{6}$

The purported ubiquity of $B \rightarrow B$, then, as the grounding principle of logic, would seem to hark back to the shared content which alone undergirds the validity of a good argument. Most conspicuously, taking our Ax $B$ as paradigmatic, the "middle term" $B$ of $B \rightarrow C$ must be the same $B$ as that of $A \rightarrow B$. (This is the Law of Identity in its wholesome " $B$ is $B$ " form.) Of course $B \rightarrow B$ also harks back, in these days of triumph for Gentzen-style consecution calculi, to the ubiquity of $B \vdash B$ as the axiom for such systems. So far has (apparent) fallacy emerged victorious!

## 2 Implicational logics

We concentrate for the moment on pure implicational logics, built up freely from a countable stock of atoms (for which we use ' $p$ ', etc.) under the single binary connective $\rightarrow$. The class of all formulas (for which we use ' $A$ ', etc.) will be $F[\rightarrow]$, which when clear in context we abbreviate simply as ' $F$ '. As stated above, for ease in reading formulas we may omit parentheses by associating $\rightarrow$ 's to the right.

In order to turn the Dictum de omni into a System, we take $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ as

[^2]Axiom Schemes for a pure $\rightarrow$ logic, which we call $S$ (for syllogism). ${ }^{7}$ To get some theorems we need a Rule. As we have said before (though from drafts of [S4S] with increasing hesitation), these days the one rule you can trust is the modus ponens principle $\rightarrow \mathrm{E}$. Using $\Rightarrow$ metalogically, we write this as

$$
\mathrm{Ru} \rightarrow E . \quad A \rightarrow C \Rightarrow(A \Rightarrow C)
$$

to mean that if $A \rightarrow C$ is a theorem then if $A$ is a theorem then $C$ is a theorem.

Ah, but maybe we should not be so trusting. $\rightarrow \mathrm{E}$ as just stated looks like an instance of the question-begging $D \rightarrow D$. Thanks to a metavaluations argument of Dwyer, we may replace $\rightarrow \mathrm{E}$ with prefixing, suffixing and transitivity rules directly derived from the $S$ axioms, namely

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Ru } B . & (C \rightarrow D) \Rightarrow(A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow(A \rightarrow D) \\
\text { Ru } B^{\prime} . & (A \rightarrow C) \Rightarrow(C \rightarrow D) \rightarrow(A \rightarrow D) \\
\text { Ru } B B . & (C \rightarrow D) \Rightarrow((A \rightarrow C) \Rightarrow(A \rightarrow D))
\end{array}
$$

When convenient, we shall think of $B B^{\prime}$ as formulated with these $D$ wyer rules. (See [SPW].)

## 3 Implicational antitheorems and Powers' problem

$S_{\rightarrow}$ may be formulated with axiom schemes $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ just above, with $\rightarrow \mathrm{E}$ or the Dwyer rules.

We turn now to a problem posed by Larry Powers in [ALP]. Consider again $A \rightarrow A$. [PCM. Powers' Conjecture, and Martin's $1^{\text {st }}$ theorem.] No instances of Ax $I$ are theorems of S. In [SPW], [JSL], [SENT] and elsewhere.

Martin's theorem is quite beyond the familiar sorts of independence results in propositional logic. To show an axiom scheme $Y$ independent of the remaining axioms $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ for a system, it suffices in common parlance to show that some instance of $Y$ is not derivable from the $X$ 's. A simple

[^3]3 -valued matrix will do this trick for $S$, validating $B B^{\prime}$ and $\rightarrow E$ but rejecting the instance $p \rightarrow p$ of $I$, where $p$ is a propositional atom. But there is an elementary argument, due in principle to Tarski, that no finite matrix similarly rejects all instances of $I$.

We are at the heart of the Heart of Logic, in the pure theory of $\rightarrow$. We are often told that valid argument is just a matter of form. Symbolized, this means that the good guys are not only good themselves, but so also are all their (substitution) instances. The bad guys differ. This has tricky consequences for the translation exercises in elementary logic classes. The job there is to separate the (logical) sheep from the (bad) goats. To identify a (good) sheep, it suffices to find some theorem of which the candidate argument can be construed as an instance. But this doesn't work for goats. If we wish to be recalcitrant, every argument with one premiss may be taken to boil down to $p \rightarrow q$, letting $p$ stand in for the premiss and a distinct $q$ for the conclusion. And logic would be futile if we were allowed to take all arguments as invalid (since $p \rightarrow q$ is bad).

Are there not some arguments that are always bad, just as much to be condemned for their form as the good arguments are to be commended? Outside of pure $\rightarrow$ logic, even truth-functionalists will agree that this sometimes happens, for example in

SC. Snow is white, or it's not. Therefore, coal is black, and it's not.
When more fully formalized, ${ }^{8}$ SC finds the counterpart

$$
\mathrm{SC}^{\prime} . \quad(p \vee \sim p) \rightarrow(q \wedge \sim q)
$$

$\mathrm{SC}^{\prime}$ is reprehensible even to classical logicians, as the negation of a truthfunctional tautology.

Some terminology is here in order. A formula $A$ of logic L will be universally valid just in case $A$ and all its substitution instances are theorems of L . We will say that $A$ is potentially valid iff some instance of $A$ is a theorem; and potentially invalid iff some instance of $A$ is a non-theorem. Finally, and most significantly for now, we'll call $A$ universally invalid iff no instances of $A$ are theorems. We moreover call the universally invalid formulas antitheorems of L .

Since logics are in general closed under substitution, the universal validity of a formula $A$ comes ordinarily to the same thing as the theoremhood

[^4]of $A$. For the same reason, $A$ is potentially invalid (normally) iff $A$ is a non-theorem of L . But it is a different kettle of fish to call $A$ potentially valid. It is well-known that the intuitionist logic H of [HEY] rejects
$$
\text { XM. } \quad p \vee \sim p
$$

Similarly, relevant logics like R reject
DS. $\quad p \wedge(\sim p \vee q) \rightarrow q$
These formulas, although non-theorems (and rightly so, say those philosophers who despise them) are only potentially invalid in their respective systems. To see that XM is also potentially valid for H , just substitute $q \wedge \sim q$ for $p$. And in DS for R , put in $p$ for $q$.

And now we will see that potential validity is the usual situation for all formulas in the positive parts of many famous logics. Recall our discussion above. Let a positive formula be one built up from atoms by $\rightarrow$ (and perhaps other connectives from among $\wedge, \vee, \leftrightarrow$, etc.). Then [Anti-antitheorem theorem for $2_{+}$] All positive classical formulas $A$ are potentially valid.

Positive sentential formulas are satisfied classically just by assigning T to all their variables. Since a substitution instance is wanted, pick a theorem (say $p \rightarrow p$ ) to substitute uniformly for all the atoms of $A$. The result will be a theorem, equivalent to $p \rightarrow p$ itself. So, classically, there are no ineluctably bad positive arguments. There are only bad instances of potentially good arguments. Nor is classical logic the only offender. The real point of the little argument just concluded is that there is a theorem t of 2 which is an idempotent under all positive operations. We took t , for our little argument, as $p \rightarrow p$. And the idempotence of the t so chosen just means that it is logically equivalent, in 2 , to each of $\mathrm{t} \rightarrow \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t} \wedge \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t} \vee \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{t} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{t}$. We can make the same choice, with the same result, in the positive part $H_{\vdash}$ of the intuitionist logic H of [HEY]; or of the relevant positive logics $\mathrm{R}_{+}$and $\mathrm{E}_{+}$of [ENT].

## 4 The quest for a Minimal logic

We pause for another definition. A system L is lax iff every formula of L is potentially valid. We have just observed (and bewailed) that laxity is endemic among positive logics - even the best known relevant ones like $\mathrm{R}_{\rightarrow}$ and $E_{+}$. But relevant logics are themselves the outcome of the search for a
minimal logic-a search that perhaps reached its zenith in the 1950's. It was then that Moh Shaw-Kwei in [TNV] and Church in [WTI] published their versions of what came to be known as $\mathrm{R}_{\rightarrow}$. While in 1956 Ackermann introduced in [BSI] what Anderson and Belnap reformulated (e. g., in [FOE]) as E (of entailment).

Is there a minimal implicational logic? Curry may be taken to have suggested that there is not. But Anderson and Belnap were (apparently) on the other side of the question. ${ }^{9}$ They proposed the following criterion for minimality.
(ABC). If $A \rightarrow C$ and $C \rightarrow A$ are both theorems, then $A$ and $C$ are the same formula.

The BB'IW system $\mathrm{T}_{\rightarrow}$ of [ENT1] was an initial candidate to satisfy (ABC). But, letting t again be $p \rightarrow p$ as above, Belnap quickly dashed this hope by proving in $\mathrm{T}_{\rightarrow}$ both of

1. $(\mathrm{t} \rightarrow \mathrm{t}) \rightarrow(\mathrm{t} \rightarrow(\mathrm{t} \rightarrow \mathrm{t}))$ and
2. $(\mathrm{t} \rightarrow(\mathrm{t} \rightarrow \mathrm{t})) \rightarrow(\mathrm{t} \rightarrow \mathrm{t})$,
whence $\mathrm{t} \rightarrow \mathrm{t}$ and $\mathrm{t} \rightarrow(\mathrm{t} \rightarrow \mathrm{t})$ are a pair A, $C$ that refute (ABC). ${ }^{10}$
Nothing daunted, Anderson and Belnap proposed the $B B^{\prime} I$ system of pure $\rightarrow$ calculus as an (ABC) candidate. ${ }^{11}$ They were correct.
[ABCM. Anderson-Belnap Conjecture, and Martin's $2^{\text {nd }}$ theorem.] For no two distinct formulas $A$ and $B$ of $\mathrm{F}[\rightarrow]$ are both $A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow A$ theorems of $B B^{\prime} I$.

In [SPW], [JSL], [SENT] and elsewhere.

## 5 Implicational theories

Let L (officially, $\mathrm{L}[\rightarrow]$ ) be an implicational logic. We define

$$
\mathrm{D}<\mathrm{L} . \quad A<\mathrm{L} C==_{\mathrm{df}} \mathrm{~L} \vdash A \rightarrow C
$$

[^5]That is, $<_{\mathrm{L}}$ is the entailment relation according to L . Clearly $<_{B B^{\prime}}$ is transitive, while $<_{B B^{\prime} I}$ is moreover reflexive. Let $x$ be any set of formulas. We call $x$ an (Implicational) L-Theory (ILT) iff it is closed under $<\mathrm{L}$. I. e.,

$$
\text { DILT. } \quad x \in I L T \quad \text { iff } \quad \forall A \forall C(A<\mathrm{L} C \Rightarrow A \in x \Rightarrow C \in x)
$$

Let $x$, y be sets of formulas. We define

$$
\text { D } \circ . \quad x \circ y=\{C: \exists A(A \rightarrow C \in x \text { and } A \in y)\}
$$

That is, as an operation on sets of formulas o is what Powers in [ALP] called modus ponens product (and which we sometimes call fusion), taking major premises from its left argument and minor premises from its right argument. More than that, Powers also saw that closing the axioms of $B B^{\prime} I$ under $\circ$ both produces and exhausts the $B^{\prime} I$ theorems! Put otherwise and in general, any implicational logic L formulated with $\rightarrow E$ as sole rule has as its set of theorems LT the smallest subset of $F$ satisfying
(i) $A$ is an axiom of $\mathrm{L} \Rightarrow A \in \mathrm{LT}$
(ii) $x \subseteq \mathrm{LT} \& y \subseteq \mathrm{LT} \Rightarrow x \circ y \subseteq \mathrm{LT}$
[PO. (Prefixing Observation).] Suppose $\mathrm{L}[\rightarrow]$ is a logic closed under the prefixing rule Ru $B$. Then if $x \in I L T$ and $y \subseteq F$, we have $x \circ y \in I L T$. Let $x$ be an implicational L-theory. We must show $x \circ y \in I L T$, where $y$ is any set of formulas. Suppose $C<_{\mathrm{L}} D$ and $C \in x \circ y$. By D $\circ$ there is an $A \in y$ such that $A \rightarrow C \in x$. Because $C<_{\mathrm{L}} D$, we have by Ru $B$ that $A \rightarrow C<_{\mathrm{L}} A \rightarrow D$. Accordingly $A \rightarrow D \in x$, whence $D \in x \circ y$. Done! The prefixing observation PO is more than enough to show that very many implicational logics L, certainly including $S$, are such that the class ILT of their theories is closed under the fusion operation $\circ$.

## 6 Combinators and formula sets

We continue to develop Powers' observations, building on his [ALP]. Let us simply identify the "combinator" $B$ with the set of all instances of $A x B$. Similarly identify $B^{\prime}$ with the instances of $\operatorname{Ax} B^{\prime}$ and $I$ with all $A \rightarrow A$. Show as in [IFM] that the 1-step reduction rules of Combinatory Logic then hold, as full set-theoretic equalities, for all sets $x, y$, and $z$ of formulas from $F[\rightarrow]$. That is, dropping ' $\circ$ ' for simple juxtaposition and associating to the
left, we quickly verify the following facts:

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
\text { Fact } B . & B x y z=x(y z) \\
\text { Fact } B^{\prime} . & B^{\prime} x y z=y(x z) \\
\text { Fact } I . & I x=x
\end{array}
$$

Monotonicity. $\quad x \supseteq y \Rightarrow x z \supseteq y z$, and $y \supseteq z \Rightarrow x y \supseteq x z^{12}$

In a nutshell, on the $B B^{\prime}$ and $B B^{\prime} I$ fragments of CL , the [IFM] Fools Model is perfect. ${ }^{13}$

## $7 \quad$ Are S and $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{W}$ the SAME system?

We became interested in $S$ on account of Powers' Conjecture. Yet this conjecture arose out of his desire to solve the $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{W}$ problem. Powers saw that there was minimal interaction between the $I$ axioms and the syllogistic $B$ and $B^{\prime}$ in actually deriving theorems in $B B^{\prime} I$. (It may be that Belnap already grasped this lack of interaction in formulating and working on (ABC) for the system.) It accordingly occurs to us to ask whether, at root, the systems are conceptually distinct.

We shall see that, conceptually, provable $S$ implications express a kind of proper $<$ relation, which is perhaps sensibly mated with $\mathrm{a} \leqslant$ from $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{W}$. It perhaps behooves us to take a thorough-going relational view of both systems, distinguishing them not by their $\rightarrow$ 's but by their $\vdash$ 's. If we say $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{W} \vdash A \rightarrow \mathrm{C}$, we mean $A \leqslant C$; if $S \vdash A \rightarrow C$, then $A<C$. And we now reserve $<$ for the balance of this paper for $<_{S}$; and $\leqslant$ for $<_{P--W} .{ }^{14}$.

[^6]
## 8 Semantical ingredients for Martin's theorems

We saw above that $S$-theories are closed under $\circ$. We view them henceforth as a structure

$$
\mathrm{IST}=\langle I S T, \supseteq, \circ\rangle
$$

where IST is the set of implicational $S$-theories, $\supseteq$ is superset, and $\circ$ is defined by D 。.

All this sets up an operational semantics for $B B^{\prime} I$. The intuition is that the points of this semantics are just $B B^{\prime} I$ theories. A $B B^{\prime} I$ model structure (henceforth, $S \mathrm{~ms}$ ) will be a triple $K=\langle K, \supseteq, \circ\rangle$, where $K$ is a non-empty set; $\supseteq$ is a binary relation on $K$, and $\circ$ is a binary operation on $K$ (which we indicate by simple juxtaposition, associating to the left). We impose the following postulates, for all $x, y, z \in K$ :

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
\text { p } B . & x y z \supseteq x(y z) \\
\text { p } B^{\prime} . & x y z \supseteq y(x z) \\
\text { p } I . & x \supseteq x \\
\text { p } \supseteq . & y \supseteq z \Rightarrow x \supseteq y \Rightarrow x \supseteq z \\
\text { p } \circ & y \supseteq z \Rightarrow x y \supseteq x z, \text { and } x \supseteq y \Rightarrow x z \supseteq y z
\end{array}
$$

The $B, B^{\prime}$ and $I$ postulates reflect the (Curry-style) reduction rules for the combinators that have the corresponding axioms as their types (in the vocabulary of [CL1]). Intuitively, $\supseteq$ is the superset relation on theories, whence $p \supseteq$ records that superset is transitive. A final intuitive hook is that - is the modus ponens product operation on theories defined by $\mathrm{D} \circ$.

We seem to have taken a giant step back from the smooth facts of section 6. And why have we called our frames $S \mathrm{~ms}$, when we have set them up for the supersystem $B B^{\prime} I$ of $\mathrm{S}[\rightarrow]$ ? Patience, gentle reader, patience! We have already suggested in section 7 that, deep down, $S$ and $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{W}$ are the same system. For Powers first noted and Dwyer more smoothly proved, ${ }^{15}$ [PDF. Powers-Dwyer Fact.] Let $A$ and $C$ be distinct formulas of $F$. Then $A<C$ iff $A \leqslant C$. Left to right is obvious. For the converse, define with Dwyer

[^7]a metavaluation $v: F \rightarrow 2$ by
$$
v(p)=0 \text { if } p \text { is an atom }
$$
$$
v(D \rightarrow E)=1 \text { iff (i) } D<E \text { or } D=E \text {, and (ii) } v(D) \leqslant v(E) .
$$

The ' $=$ ' in (i) applies iff $D$ and $E$ are exactly the same formula. Show then by deductive induction, for all $D$ and $E$ in $F[\rightarrow]$, that if $B B^{\prime} I \vdash D \rightarrow E$ then $v(D \rightarrow E)=1 . .^{16}$. Since the fact assumes $A \leqslant C$ for distinct $A$ and $C$, (i) then enforces $A<C$. Done! We have the immediate
[PDF Corollary.] A set $x$ of $\rightarrow$ formulas is a $B B^{\prime}$-theory iff $x$ is a $B B^{\prime} I$ theory. So IST is indifferently the set of all $B B^{\prime}$-theories and of all $B B^{\prime} I$ theories. Note too
[STM Theorem.] IST is an Sms. All the postulates but p $B$ and p $B^{\prime}$ are clearly OK by $\mathrm{D} \circ$ and properties of $\supseteq$. As for $\mathrm{p} B^{\prime}$, recall that our postulates are being asserted of $S$-theories $x$. So $x \supseteq \mathrm{~B}^{\prime} \circ x$ in this case, since closure under $\leqslant$ is imposed on theories. ${ }^{17}$. Two applications of Monotonicity then produce $x y z \supseteq \mathrm{~B}^{\prime} x y z$, while $B^{\prime} x y z=y(x z)$ by Fact $B^{\prime}$ for any formula sets. This shows that $x y z \supseteq y(x z)$ for $S$-theories $x, y, z$. Note that the inclusion can not in general be reversed. A similar argument verifies p $B$ as well, ending the proof. We now complete our operational semantical story for $B B^{\prime} I$ by adding some interpretative machinery. Let $K$ be an $S \mathrm{~ms}$. Any function $I: F \times K \rightarrow 2$ is a possible interpretation in $K$, assigning either 1 (true) or 0 (false) to each formula $A$ at each point $x$ in $K$. Where $I$ is a possible interpretation fixed in context, let us write simply ' $A a$ ' for $I(A, a)=1$, and ' $\sim A a$ ' for $I(A, a)=0$. Then a possible interpretation $I$ is moreover an interpretation if it satisfies two further conditions, a hereditary condition $H$ and a truth condition $\mathrm{T} \rightarrow$, for all $a, b \in K$ and $B, C \in F$ :

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
\text { H. } & a \supseteq b \Rightarrow C b \Rightarrow C a \\
\mathrm{~T} \rightarrow . & {[B \rightarrow C] a=\forall b \in K(B b \Rightarrow C(a \circ b))}
\end{array}
$$

The heredity condition H may be restricted to propositional variables $p$, since an easy induction using $\mathrm{T} \rightarrow$ and Monotonicity then establishes it for all the $B \rightarrow C$ as well. Check out the intuition behind H. If theory $a$ is a

[^8]supertheory of theory $b$, then any $C$ in $b$ is most certainly in $a$ also.
$\mathrm{T} \rightarrow$ is the nub of the matter. Suppose $B \rightarrow C \in a$ and $B \in b$. Then, by $\mathrm{D} \circ$, we expect $C \in a \circ b$. This is the idea from left to right. From right to left suppose that whenever $B \in b$ then $C \in a \circ b$. Surely $B \in[B, \infty)$, the principal theory containing $B$ and all that $B$ entails. So, the thought goes, $C \in a \circ[B, \infty)$, which if luck is with us is the set of all $D$ such that $B \rightarrow D \in a$. Luck is with us; so in particular $B \rightarrow C \in a$, as desired.

We are merely sketching ideas here, to make them plausible. (Again as Belnap once noted, in Philosophy that counts as a proof. ) But we are doing Logic, which is less forgiving. We complete the interpretative story thus, on interpretation $I$ in $K$ :

$$
\text { Ent } I . \quad B \text { I-entails } C=\forall a \in K(B a \Rightarrow C a)
$$

Ent $K . \quad B K$-entails $C=B I$-entails $C$ on every interpretation $I$ in $K$
Ent $S . \quad B S$-entails $C=B K$-entails $C$ in every $S \mathrm{~ms} K$
[Soundness theorem for $B B^{\prime} I$.] $A \leqslant C \Rightarrow A S$-entails $C$. Formulate $B B^{\prime} I$ with $\operatorname{Ax} B$, Ax $B^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ax} I$ and the Dwyer rules Ru $B, \operatorname{Ru} B^{\prime}, \operatorname{Ru} B B$. Pick an arbitrary interpretation $I$ in any $S \mathrm{~ms} K$. Check that each antecedent of an axiom $I$-entails its consequent. Show that this property is preserved under the Dwyer rules. Since $I$ and $K$ are arbitrary, the axioms yield $S$ entailments and the rules preserve this property. Done! For completeness we appeal to the STM theorem, recalling that IST is an $S \mathrm{~ms}$. We define a canonical interpretation $C I$ by setting, for each $S$-theory $x$ and formula $A$,

$$
C I(A, x)=1 \text { iff } A \in x
$$

Evidently the canonical interpretation respects the heredity condition $\mathbf{H}$ (since in IST the $\supseteq$ relation really is superset). It also respects $\mathrm{T} \rightarrow$, since the intuitions we were courting just above may now be established as formal facts. We conclude [Completeness theorem for BB'I. ] $A S$-entails $C \Rightarrow A \leqslant$ $C$. Assume that $A S$-entails $C$. In particular $A C I$-entails $C$ on the canonical interpretation in IST. I. e., $\forall x \in \operatorname{IST}(A \in x \Rightarrow C \in x)$. Let $[A, \infty)=\{D: A \leqslant D\}$. Instantiating, $A \in[A, \infty) \Rightarrow C \in[A, \infty)$. But $A \in$ the $S$-theory $[A, \infty)$ by Ax $I$. So $C \in[A, \infty)$. I. e., $A \leqslant C$, ending the proof.

## 9 The Semantics turns Paraconsistent

Readers who skimmed through the proofs just offered did not miss much. While perhaps caviar to the general, they are direct and straightforward, and entirely in the spirit of similar developments in [RLR]. We may assume moreover that we have been working in a wholly classical metalogic, with ' $\Rightarrow$ ' in definitions and proofs simply taken as classical material $\supset$.

In this section, which we beg you not to skim, we set out the semantical thinking that was a direct ingredient into Martin's theorems. We appealed in the last section to a theory

$$
[A, \infty)=\{C: A \leqslant C\} .
$$

$[A, \infty)$ is the principal $B B^{\prime} I$-theory determined by $A$. It contains $A$, by Ax $I$. But there is another principal theory not far off. $(A, \infty)$. We define

$$
(A, \infty)=\{C: A<C\} .
$$

Where $A$ is any formula, $(A, \infty)$ is the principal $B B^{\prime}$-theory determined by $A$. Question: Is $A$ in its own principal $B B^{\prime}$-theory $(A, \infty)$ ? Answer: Never! (Apply Martin's $1^{\text {st }}$ theorem.)

Our notation takes off from that for intervals on the real line. We distinguish the open interval $(m, \infty)$, which does not contain $m$, from the halfclosed $[m, \infty)$, of which $m$ is the initial member.) While Powers' conjecture was open, it was possible that, for some $A$,

$$
\diamond . \quad(A, \infty)=[A, \infty) .
$$

The input of the semantics into Martin's [SPW] proof lies in showing that $\diamond$ never happens. Equivalent to Section 3's PCM is the generalized negated equality

PCM'. For all $A$ we have $(A, \infty) \neq[A, \infty)$.
It is PCM' that may be most conveniently viewed as the lemma for the semantic proof of PCM. ${ }^{18}$ Our purpose here is to lay bare some of the philosophical background for that lemma. The idea is to separate the formulas properly entailed by a formula $A$ from those that are entailed by or identical

[^9]with $A$. Since this distinction can always be made, the key conjectures were true.

The first thought was to turn $\mathrm{T} \rightarrow$ above into two truth-conditions, one for weak truth (of the $\leqslant$ variety) and the other for strong truth (the same for $<)$. It turned out that these conditions can be combined if we switch the metalogic from 2 to the semi-relevant logic RM3, which has a 3 -valued characteristic matrix. ${ }^{19}$ Add $1 / 2$ to 0 and 1 above, and make $1 / 2$ its own negation. A nice thing about RM3 is that it has a characteristic 3 point matrix, whose $\wedge$ and $\vee$ tables may be read off the following Hasse diagram. ${ }^{20}$

The characteristic matrix TNF for RM3:


The $\rightarrow$ and $\sim$ tables for RM3 are just the following:

| $\rightarrow$ | 1 | $1 / 2$ | 0 |  | $\sim$ |  |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 | 0 | 0 |  | $* 1$ | 0 |
| $* 1 / 2$ | 1 | $1 / 2$ | 0 |  | $* 1 / 2$ | $1 / 2$ |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 1 |

Both T and N count as designated elements in TNF (originally due to Sobociński in [Sob52]). Note also that the value of $\sim p$ is just that of $p \rightarrow 1 / 2$

An interpretation $I$ in an $\operatorname{Sms} K=\langle K, \supseteq, \circ\rangle$ now assigns one of these 3 values to every formula $A$ at every point $x$ in $K$. A formula $B$ is strongly true at $x$ on $I$ just in case $I(B, x)=1$; weakly true, if $I(B, x) \neq 0$. Particularly delicate is the case where $I(B, x)=1 / 2$, a sort of crossover point from falsity to truth. For the hereditary condition H, when reinterpreted in this RM3 way, refuses to linger at $1 / 2$. Suppose $x \neq y$, where $I(B, x)=1 / 2$. Then if $y \supseteq x$, then $I(B, y)=1$; while if $x \supseteq y$, then $I(B, y)=0$.

[^10]Australasian Journal of Logic (16:3) 2019, Article no. 1

Similarly, the truth-conditions $\mathrm{T} \rightarrow$ and the $S$-entailment were reinterpreted in the 3 -valued way. It sufficed to create a new canonical interpretation, and to show that every formula $A$ was assigned the boundary value $1 / 2$ on this interpretation, at its own principal theory $(A, \infty)$. Since $1 / 2 \rightarrow 1 / 2=1 / 2$ in the characteristic matrix for RM3, the result is that all the $A \rightarrow A$ turn out weakly but not strongly true. And PCM' was proved.

## 10 Adding Inferential Negation

We now extend $F[\rightarrow]$ to a language $F[\rightarrow, \mathrm{f}]$, by adding the constant f to the formation apparatus. This enables an inferential definition of negation (as Bull once suggested that an idea going back to C. S. Peirce be applied here).

$$
\mathrm{D} \sim . \quad \sim A={ }_{\mathrm{df}} A \rightarrow \mathrm{f}
$$

We are not certain that the minimal syllogistic negation defined by $\mathrm{D} \sim$ is the one that we shall eventually want for $S$. But we expect that we shall at least wish the transposition and related properties that this definition engenders. We get immediately from $\operatorname{Ax} B$ and $A x B^{\prime}$

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Th } B \sim . & \sim C \rightarrow(A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow \sim A \\
\text { Th } B^{\prime} \sim . & (A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow \sim C \rightarrow \sim A
\end{array}
$$

In view of Martin's $1^{\text {st }}$ theorem, it makes sense to extend $S$ with the following new axioms

$$
\operatorname{Ax} \sim I . \quad \sim(A \rightarrow A)
$$

We call the resulting system $B B^{\prime} \sim I$, and note the following pleasant result.
[Conservative extension theorem for $\mathrm{BB}^{\prime} \sim \mathrm{I}$. ] Let $A$ be a formula in our original vocabulary $F[\rightarrow]$. Then $A$ is theorem of $B B^{\prime} \sim I$ iff $A$ is already a theorem of $B B^{\prime}$. Right to left is trivial. For the converse, suppose for reductio that $A$ is not a theorem of $B B^{\prime}$, but that it has nonetheless a proof $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ in $B B^{\prime} \sim I$. Some of the $A_{i}$ in this proof must be of the form (in primitive notation) $(C \rightarrow C) \rightarrow \mathrm{f}$, since otherwise $A$ would already be provable in $B B^{\prime}$. Since $A$ is a non-theorem of $B B^{\prime}$, there is a strong logical matrix $\mathrm{M}=\langle M, \rightarrow, D\rangle$ and an interpretation $I$ in M that refutes A-i.e., $I(A) \notin$ the designated set $D$ of matrix elements. Enlarge M to a new matrix $\mathrm{M}^{\prime}=\left\langle M^{\prime}, \rightarrow^{\prime}, D^{\prime}\right\rangle$. $M^{\prime}$ is $M$ with additional elements T and F .

For all $a, b \in M$, we require $a \rightarrow^{\prime} b=a \rightarrow b$. Moreover $\rightarrow^{\prime}$ is subject to the rigorous compactness condition that, for all $a$ in $M^{\prime}, \mathrm{F} \rightarrow^{\prime} a=a \rightarrow^{\prime} \mathrm{T}=\mathrm{T}$; while otherwise $a \rightarrow^{\prime} \mathrm{F}=\mathrm{T} \rightarrow^{\prime} a=\mathrm{F}$. (The effect is to make T a matrix Top element and F a Bottom element, isolated from the original matrix elements in $M$.) It is readily observed as in [CPL] that, since M is a strong matrix for $B B^{\prime}$, so also is $\mathrm{M}^{\prime}$, setting $D^{\prime}=D \cup\{\mathrm{~T}\}$. Extending $I$ to an interpretation $I^{\prime}$ with $I^{\prime}(\mathrm{f})=\mathrm{T}$, all of $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ are designated on $I^{\prime}$, by straightforward deductive induction. Since $A_{n}=A$, this is a contradiction. Even our minimal negation produces some welcome metatheorems. The antitheorem $A \rightarrow A$ of $\mathrm{S}[\rightarrow]$ has been transmuted into the axiom $\sim(A \rightarrow A)$ of $B B^{\prime} \sim I$. Other antitheorems are quick to follow. For example, by substitution in the theorem scheme $\mathrm{B}^{\prime} \mathrm{B}^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{B}^{\prime} \mathrm{B}^{\prime}\right)$, we have
(1) $(A \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B) \rightarrow(A \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \rightarrow B$

As an instance of $\mathrm{Ax} \sim 1$, we get
(2) $\sim((A \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B)) \rightarrow A \rightarrow A \rightarrow B)$.

Applying modus tollens to (1) and (2), justified by your choice of Th $B \sim$ or Th $B^{\prime} \sim$,

$$
\text { (3) } \sim(A \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B)
$$

signalling the antitheoremhood of the Cl principle in $S$.
Life gets interesting when we throw in Ax $I$ as another primitive principle. Now we become explicitly contradictory, since $\mathrm{Ax} \sim I$ remains. Can we live with this? We believe that we can. For we have seen the $I$ axiom as on the border between valid inference and fallacy. $A \rightarrow A$, in a certain sense, is both. It is what happens when one takes the directed $<$ of an honest entailment as an equality.

Save for $A \rightarrow A$, the antitheorems of $B B^{\prime}$ remain antitheorems in $B B^{\prime} I$. So in what we call $B B^{\prime} I \sim I$, the $\sim C I$ theorem (3) continues to signal that no instances of $A \rightarrow(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow B$ are syllogistically OK. That is, explicit inconsistency is restricted to the troublesome $A \rightarrow A$. As it should be!

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Topics 100a 25-27, as translated by W. A. Pickard-Cambridge in [RWA]. Essentially the same remark may be found in the Prior Analytics at 24b 18-20.
    ${ }^{2}$ We use upper-case letters like 'A' as syntactical variables for formulas; and lower-case ones like 'p' for atoms. Some of our readers, alas, will have been Quinized; they may think it important where the quotation marks go. We follow in principle the conventions of Curry's [FML]. Perhaps because he was once dogged by Quine on use-mention issues, Curry is the most careful logician we've known on such matters.

[^1]:    ${ }^{3}$ We adopt the contemporary $\lambda$ - CL (Lambda calculus-Combinatory Logic) convention that $\rightarrow$ 's associate to the right. Thus we may henceforth write $B^{\prime}$ as $(A \rightarrow C) \rightarrow(C \rightarrow$ $D) \rightarrow A \rightarrow D$, etc. This conflicts, alas, with the leftward style of our mentors.
    ${ }^{4}$ If there is a choice, an Aristotelian preference should go to $B$ over $B^{\prime}$. Alas, this trivializes the [SPW] proof of Martin's theorem. It cannot be right thus to make a hard and suggestive problem trivial.

[^2]:    ${ }^{6}$ IAI Example: I: Some Mammals are Cats. A: All Dogs are Mammals. SO, I: Some Dogs are Cats. Given that the premises are TRUE but the conclusion is FALSE, something is WRONG here!

[^3]:    ${ }^{7} S$ here is not a CL mnemonic. When careful we call it $\mathrm{S}[\rightarrow]$, adopting in principle Restall's [ISL] convention on primitive particles. We may also call $\mathrm{S}[\rightarrow]$ simply $B B^{\prime}$, for its axioms.

[^4]:    ${ }^{8}$ For spotting the goats, full formalization is practiced in the texts!

[^5]:    ${ }^{9}$ For Curry, cf. his [CGT]. Anderson introduced $\mathrm{T}_{\rightarrow}$ in [ESM]. Cf. [ENT1], 94f.
    ${ }^{10}$ Could it be, the reader might hope, that the positive fragment $T_{+}$of the [ENT] system of ticket entailment isn't lax? Exercise: Although t above is not $\mathrm{T}_{+}$idempotent, refute that hope anyway!
    ${ }^{11}$ Following Belnap (though he long denied it), this system was called P-W in [SPW]. [ENT1] calls it $\mathrm{T}_{\rightarrow-\mathrm{W}}$, in introducing the (ABC) conjecture. We stick to $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{W}$ as the name of the pure $\rightarrow$ fragment $B B^{\prime} I$.

[^6]:    ${ }^{12}$ It is even more obvious that $x=y \Rightarrow x z=y z$, and $y=z \Rightarrow x y=x z$.
    ${ }^{13}$ This extends to all of BCl , which is the fragment $\mathrm{LL}[\rightarrow]$ of the Linear Logic of Girard [GLL].
    ${ }^{14}$ There is a bonus in removing further parentheses, on the convention that $\rightarrow$ binds more strongly than $<$ or $\leqslant$. Note that we only use the relational symbols to indicate that some $\rightarrow$ statement is a theorem

[^7]:    ${ }^{15}$ A referee finds Dwyer's smooth argument the nicest thing in the paper. We like it too. It was communicated by Dwyer to Meyer back in 1974, when we were both at Pittsburgh. Thanks, Robin! And, if ANYONE knows where you are, PLEASE GET IN TOUCH!

[^8]:    ${ }^{16} \mathrm{PDF}$ is independent of Martin's theorems. But the ' $=$ ' clause under (i) takes up the slack in verifying AxI. Check the cases, involving delicate interplay between syntactic (i) and semantic (ii) in verifying $B$ and $B^{\prime}$
    ${ }^{17} B^{\prime}$ here is simply the set of all suffixing axioms, which is not itself an $S$-theory

[^9]:    ${ }^{18}$ Since the essence of the [SPW] proof lies in adroit symbol-pushing, Martin was long aware that a more directly syntactical treatment also delivers PCM. See his [FM] with Fine, which extended the PCM result to $S[\rightarrow \wedge]$ a decade ago. But bringing $\vee$ also under the tent has proved recalcitrant.

[^10]:    ${ }^{19} \mathrm{RM} 3$ is a wonderful logic, good for everything from showing relevant arithmetic nontrivial (take that, Gödel!) to solving the P-W problem (for years the Fermat's Last Theorem of relevant logics).

    20 "Make the RM3 matrix explicit," said the referee, "to keep things self-contained." Recall that adding $A \rightarrow(A \rightarrow A)$ and $A \vee(A \rightarrow B)$ as new axiom schemes produces RM3 from the relevant logic R of $[\mathrm{ENT}]$. Some readers may be more familiar with the RM3 truth values $1,1 / 2$ and 0 as ' T ' ' N ' and ' F ' respectively.

