CHAPTER 1

Logical Theories

To start, we will consider the notion of a *logical theory*; in my mind, it begins with a species (or set) of judgements that can be proposed, asserted, and (if they are evident) known.

1. Judgements of a logical theory

The basic forms of judgement for a logical theory will be P prop and P true; and what is P? It is a member of the species of terms, which are made meaningful in the course of making the judgement P prop ("P is a proposition") evident for a proposition P.

The forms of judgement may be construed as containing *inputs* and *outputs*; an *input* is something which is inspected in the course of knowing a judgement, whereas an *output* is something which is synthesized (or created) in the course of knowing a judgement. The positions of *inputs* and *outputs* in constitute for a judgement form what is called its *mode*, and we color-code it in this presentation for clarity.¹

To each judgement is assigned a meaning explanation, which explicates the knowledge-theoretic content of the judgement. For a judgement \mathcal{J} , a meaning explanation should be in the form:

To know \mathcal{J} is to know...

The meaning of the judgement P prop is, then, as follows:

To know P prop is to know that P is a proposition, which is to know what would count as a direct verification of P.

So if a symbol P is taken to denote a proposition, we must know what sort of thing is to be taken as a direct verification of P, and this is understood as part of the definition of P. A "direct verification" is understood in constrast with an "indirect verification", which is to be thought of as a means or plan for verifying the proposition; these distinctions will be explained in more detail later on. Now,

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¹We will not see any judgements with *outputs* at first, but it will become necessary as soon as we consider judgements about computation, where the reduction of a term is synthesized from the redex. Modes may be used to construe a judgement as having algorithmic content.

the judgement P true ("P is true") is only meaningful in case we know P prop (this is called a presupposition). Then the meaning of P true is as follows:

To know P true is to have a verification of P.

From the (implicit) presupposition P prop, we already know what counts as a verification, so the meaning explanation is well-defined. Note that having a means or plan for verifying P is equivalent to having a (direct) verification; this follows from the fact that one may put into action a plan for verifying P and achieve such a verification, and likewise, it is possible to propound a plan of verification by appeal to an existing verification.

2. Higher-order judgements

The judgements we have described so far are "categorical" in the sense that they are made without assumption or generality.

2.1. Hypothetical judgement. We will need to define a further form of judgement, which is called "hypothetical", and this is the judgement under hypothesis $\mathcal{J}(\mathcal{J}')$, pronounced " \mathcal{J} under the assumption \mathcal{J}' ". Its meaning explanation is as follows:

To know the judgement $\mathcal{J}(\mathcal{J}')$ is to know the categorical judgement \mathcal{J} assuming you know the judgement \mathcal{J}' .

Hypothetical judgement may be iterated, and $\mathcal{J}(\mathcal{J}_1, \mathcal{J}_2)$ will be used as notation for for $\mathcal{J}(\mathcal{J}_2)(\mathcal{J}_1)$.

2.2. General judgement. Another kind of higher order judgement is "general judgement", which is judgement with respect to a variable, $x \in \mathcal{I}$, pronounced "for an arbitrary x, \mathcal{J} ". The meaning explanation for this new judgement is as follows:

To know the judgement $|_x \mathcal{J}$ is, to know $[E/x]\mathcal{J}$ (i.e. the substitution of E for x in the expression \mathcal{J}) for any arbitrary expression E, ²

As far as notation is concerned, the bar symbol binds the least tightly of all the other notations we have considered. Likewise, general judgement may be iterated, and the notation $|x,y|\mathcal{J}$ will be used as notation for $|x|y|\mathcal{J}$.

²Technically, E is qualified as being of the same valence as x, but because we have not developed a formal theory of expressions in this presentation, I choose to ignore this issue.

2.3. Hypothetico-general judgement. When hypothetical judgement is used inside general judgement, as in $|_x A(x) \ true \ (B(x) \ true)$, we term the whole thing a "hypothetico-general" judgement. One thing bears clarifying, which is, Why do we write $P \ true \ (P \ true)$ rather than $|_P P \ true \ (P \ true)$?

The former is really not a single judgement, but rather a *scheme* for judgements, where P is intended to be replaced with a concrete expression by the person asserting the judgements. On the other hand, the latter is itself a single judgement which may be asserted all on its own.

3. Propositions and verifications

Now that we have propounded and explained the minimal system of judgements for a logical theory, let us populate it with propositions. First, we have falsity \bot , and we wish to make \bot prop evident; to do this, we simply state what counts as a direct verification of \bot : there is no direct verification of \bot .

The next basic proposition is trivial truth \top , and to make \top *prop* evident, we state that a direct verification of \top is trivial. The definition of \top thus validates the judgement \top *true* (i.e. that we have a verification of \top ; this is immediate).

Next, let us define conjunction; in doing so, we will make evident the hypothetical judgement $P \wedge Q$ prop (P prop, Q prop); equivalently, we can display this as a rule of inference:³

$$\frac{P \ prop \quad Q \ prop}{P \land Q \ prop}$$

A direct verification of $P \wedge Q$ consists in a verification of P and a verification of Q; this validates the assertion of the judgement $P \wedge Q$ true $(P \ true, Q \ true)$. Because it is a valid inference, we can write it as an inference rule:

$$\frac{P \ true \quad Q \ true}{P \wedge Q \ true}$$

A direct verification of $P \vee Q$ may be got either from a verification of P or one of Q. From this definition we know $P \vee Q$ prop $(P \ prop, Q \ prop)$, or

$$\frac{P \ prop \quad Q \ prop}{P \lor Q \ prop}$$

$$\frac{premise}{conclusion}$$

rather than conclusion (premise). It must be stressed that only evident/known judgements may be written in this way.

³Evident hypothetical judgements are often written as rules, i.e.

The verification conditions of disjunction give rise to two evident judgements $P \vee Q$ true (P true) and $P \vee Q$ true (Q true), which we can write as inference rules:

$$\frac{P \; true}{P \vee Q \; true} \qquad \frac{Q \; true}{P \vee Q \; true}$$

Finally, we must define the circumstances under which $P \supset Q$ is a proposition (i.e. when $P \supset Q$ prop is evident). And we intend this to be under the circumstances that P is a proposition, and also that Q is a proposition assuming that P is true. In other words, $P \supset Q$ prop (P prop, Q prop (P true)), or

$$\frac{P \ prop \quad Q \ prop \ (P \ true)}{P \supset Q \ prop}$$

Now, to validate this judgement will be a bit more complicated than the previous ones. But by unfolding the meaning explanations for hypothetical judgement, proposition-hood and truth of a proposition, we arrive at the following explanation:

To know $P \supset Q$ prop (P prop, Q prop (P true)) is to know what counts as a direct verification of $P \supset Q$ when one knows what counts as a direct verification of P, and, when one has such a verification, what counts as a direct verification of Q.⁴

If the judgement $P \supset Q$ prop (P prop, Q prop (P true)) is going to be made evident, then we must come up with what should count as a direct verification of $P \supset Q$ under the assumptions described above.

And so to have a direct verification of $P \supset Q$ is to have a verification of Q assuming that one has one of P; this is the meaning of implication, and it validates the judgement $P \supset Q$ true $(Q \ true \ (P \ true))$, and may be written as an inference rule as follows:

$$\frac{Q\ true\ (P\ true)}{P\supset Q\ true}$$

4. Judgements for verifications

So far, we have given judgements which define what it means to be a proposition, namely P prop, and thence for each proposition, we have by definition a notion of what should count as a verification of that proposition. And we have a judgement P true, which in its assertion means that one has (a way to obtain) such a verification of P, but we have not considered any judgements which actually refer to the verifications themselves symbolically.

It is a hallmark of Martin-Löf's program to resolve the contradiction between syntax and semantics not by choosing symbols over meanings or meanings over

⁴Note that unless P true, it need not be evident that Q prop; in other words, Q only has to be a proposition if P is true. It would also be acceptable to give a stronger definition to implication, but this is the one accepted by Martin-Löf.

symbols, but by endowing symbols with meaning in the course of knowing the evident judgements. As such, P is a symbol, but when we assert P prop we are saying that we know what proposition P denotes.

A similar thing can be done with verifications themselves, by representing them with symbols in the same way we have done for the propositions. And then, we can consider a judgement such as "M is a verification of P", and in knowing that judgement, we know what verification M is meant to denote. In practice, this judgement has been written in several ways:

| Notation | Pronunciation |
|--|------------------------|
| $M \in P$ | M is an element of P |
| $M\Vdash P$ | M realizes P |
| $P \mathrel{\llcorner} ext \; M \mathrel{\lrcorner}$ | P is witnessed by M |

But they all mean the same thing, so we will choose the notation $M \in P$ and pronounce it "M verifies P". Tentatively, the following defective meaning explanation could be given:

* To know $M \in P$ is to know that M is a verification of P.

But now that we have started to assign expressions to verifications, we must be more careful about differentiating *direct verifications* (which we will call "canonical") from *indirect verifications* (which we will call "non-canonical"). So the domain of expressions must itself be accorded with a notion of reduction to canonical form, and this corresponds with putting into action a plan of verification in order to get a direct (canonical) verification; reduction to canonical form will be represented by a judgement $M \Rightarrow M'$, pronounced "M evaluates to M'".

To know $M \Rightarrow M'$ is to know that M is an expression which reduces to a canonical form M'.

An example of an evident reduction judgement in elementary mathematics would be $3+4 \Rightarrow 7$; note that $3+4 \Rightarrow 1+6$ is, on the other hand, not evident, since this judgement describes reduction to *canonical* form, whereas 1+6 is not a canonical number.

Now, we can correct the previous meaning explanation as follows:

To know $M \in P$ is to know an M' such that $M \Rightarrow M'$ and M' is a canonical (direct) verification of P.

If it is not yet clear why it would have been a mistake to fail to use the notion of reduction to canonical form in the above meaning explanation, consider that each time a proposition is defined, it should be possible to do so without knowing what other propositions exist in the theory. But if we consider non-canonical forms (as would be necessary if we omitted the $M \Rightarrow M'$ premise), then we would have to fix

in advance all the possible non-canonical forms in the computation system in the course of defining each proposition. As such, the open-ended nature of the logic would be destroyed; in a later chapter, the seriousness of this problem will be made even more clear.

The meaning explanation for P prop must be accordingly modified to take into account the computational behavior of expressions:

To know P prop is to know a P' such that $P \Rightarrow P'$ and P' is a canonical proposition, which is to say, that one knows what counts as a canonical verification for P'.

In practice, when it is clear that P is canonical, then we will simply say, "To know P prop is to know what counts as a canonical verification of P". As an example, then, we will update the evidence of the following assertion:

$$P \supset Q \ prop \ (P \ prop, Q \ prop \ (P \ prop))$$

The meaning of this, expanded into spoken language, is as follows:

To know $P \supset Q$ prop (P prop, Q prop (P prop)) is to know what counts as a canonical (direct) verification of $P \supset Q$ under the circumstances that $P \Rightarrow P'$, such that one knows what counts as a canonical verification P', and, if one has such a verification, $Q \Rightarrow Q'$ such that one knows what counts as a canonical verification of Q'.

And the above judgement is evident, since we will say that a canonical verification of $P \supset Q$ is an expression $\lambda x.E$ such that we know the hypothetico-general judgement $|_x E \in Q \ (x \in P)$. This validates the assertion $\lambda x.E \in P \supset Q \ (|_x E \in Q \ (x \in P))$, or, written as an inference rule:

$$\frac{|_x E \in Q \ (x \in P)}{\lambda x. E \in P \supset Q}$$

By the addition of this judgement, we have graduated from a logical theory to a type theory, in the sense of Constructive Mathematics and Computer Programming (Martin-Löf, 1979). In fact, we may dispense with the original P true form of judgement by defining it in terms of the new $M \in P$ judgement as follows:

$$\frac{M \in P}{P \ true}$$