Proofs—and what they're good for

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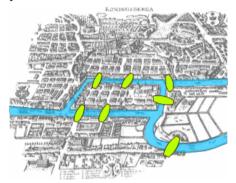
My aim: To explain the nature of **proof**, from the perspective of a **normative pragmatic account of meaning**, using the tools of **proof theory**.

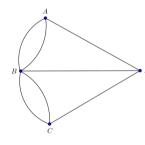
1. MOTIVATION

Example proof (1): Every drink (in our fridge) is either a beer or a lemonade $(\forall x)(Dx \rightarrow (Bx \lor Lx))$. So either every drink is a beer, or some drink is a lemonade $(\forall x)(Dx \rightarrow Bx) \lor (\exists x)(Dx \land Lx)$. Why? Take an arbitrary drink. If it's a lemonade, we have the conclusion that some drink is a lemonade. If we don't have that conclusion, then that arbitrary drink is a beer, and so, all the drinks are beers.

Example proof (2): Consider the bridges in Königsberg (depicted below).

It is not possible to walk a circuit through Königsberg, crossing each bridge exactly once.





Why? Any bridge takes you from one landmass (A,B,C,D) to another. In any circut, you must leave a landmass as many times as you arrive. So if you are not to repeat a bridge, each landmass must have an even number of bridges entering and exiting it. Here, each landmass has an odd number of bridges, so a circuit is impossible.

My focus will be on *categorical* proofs from premises to a conclusion. In particular, my focus today will be on categorical proofs of a very special kind—proofs in *first order predicate logic*, where the central concepts used are the logical notions of conjunction, disjunction, negation, the (material) conditional, the quantifiers, and identity. But what I say here will apply to proof using the features of other concepts.

Puzzles about proof: How can proofs expand our knowledge, when the conclusion is already present (implicitly) in the premises? ¶ How can we be ignorant of a conclusion which actually already follows from what we already know? ¶ What grounds the necessity in the connection between premises and conclusion?

2. BACKGROUND

Positions collect together assertions and denials [X : Y].

Assertions and denials are moves in a communicative practice. I can deny what you assert. We can assert or deny the same thing. We can also retract assertions and denials. I can try on assertion or denial hypothetically (suppose p — then q...)

Asserting or denying involves taking a stand on some matter.

Assertion and denial *clash*.

The **bounds** on positions:

- *Identity*: [A : A] is out of bounds.
- Weakening: If [X : Y] is out of bounds so are [X,A : Y] and [X : A,Y]
- Cut: If [X,A:Y] and [X:A,Y] are out of bounds, so is [X:Y]

A position that is *out of bounds* fails to successfully take a stand.

Definitions come in a number of flavours. One is obvious:

Explicit Definition: Define a concept by showing how you can compose this concept out of more primitive concepts.

(x is a square $=_{df} x$ is a rectangle \wedge all sides of x are equal in length)

Concepts given an explicit definition are *sharply delimited* (contingent on accepting the definition, of course). Logical concepts like conjunction, disjunction, negation, the (material) conditional, the quantifiers, and identity are similarly sharply delimited, but they *cannot* be given explicit definition. (They are *used* in giving explicit definitions.)

Definition through a rule for use: Define a concept by showing it could be added to one's vocabulary, giving rules for interpreting assertions and denials involving that concept.

 $[X, A \land B : Y]$ is out of bounds if and only if [X, A, B : Y] is out of bounds.

$$X, A \land B \vdash Y \text{ iff } X, A, B \vdash Y$$

$$X \vdash A \supset B, Y \text{ iff } X, A \vdash B, Y$$

$$X, \neg A \vdash Y \text{ iff } X \vdash A, Y$$

$$X \vdash A \lor B, Y \text{ iff } X \vdash A, B, Y$$

 $X \vdash (\forall x)Fx$, $Y \text{ iff } X \vdash Fa$, Y (where a is not present in X, Y)

The concepts introduced in this way are *uniquely defined* (if you and I follow the same rule, our usages are intertranslatable) and they *conservatively extend* the original vocabulary (if a position was safe before we added the concept, it's still safe afterwards).

They play useful dialogical roles. (e.g. Once we have conjunction, I can disagree with your assertion of A and B without disagreeing with A or disagreeing with B). They are subject-matter-neutral. To use Brandom's terms, the new concepts $make\ explicit$ some of what was previously merely implicit.

3. WHAT PROOFS ARE

Consider a tiny proof, consisting of a single step of modus ponens:

If it's Friday, I'm in Melbourne. It's Friday. So, I'm in Melbourne.

Here, we have two assertions (the premises), a connecting *therefore* and another assertion (the conclusion).

This proof crucially uses the *conditional*. If we mean " \supset ", then we have $A \supset B \vdash A \supset B$ iff $A \supset B$, $A \vdash B$.

And hence, a position in which I assert "If it's Wednesday, I'm in Sydney" and "It's Wednesday" but I deny "I'm in Sydney" is out of bounds. So, "I'm in Sydney" is undeniable, and the assertion makes explicit what was previously implicit.

A proof of $X \vdash Y$ shows that the position [X : Y] is out of bounds, by way of the defining rules of the concepts used in *X* and *Y*.

In this sense, proofs are analytic.

(Proofs can be solely assertions, or they could mix assertions and denials.)

A proof of A, $B \vdash C$, D can be understood as a proof of C from the position [A, B : D], or a refutation of A, from the position [B : C, D].

4. HOW PROOFS WORK

Proofs make explicit the positions that are out of bounds.

Observation 1: Our ability to specify consequence far outstrips our ability to recognise it. We have no idea if the position

[Peano Arithmetic : Goldbach's Conjecture]

is out of bounds or not. This is not a bug—it is a feature. The logical concepts are expressive. They give us the means to say things (think things, explore things) whose significance we continue to work out.

It is straightforward to verify whether a putative proof is a proof. It is not straightforward to find a proof of something that *has* a proof.

Are we logically omniscient?

Suppose $PA \vdash GC$ and we know PA. Do we know GC?

In a very weak sense, yes. It is a logical consequence of what we know. It is *implicitly present* in what we know. Denying GC is inconsistent (with PA). But this inconsistency is not transparent to us.

In another sense, the answer is no. Even if I believe GC (for inconclusive reasons), that may not count as knowledge if that belief is acquired in the wrong way. (By testimony, by misunderstanding, by inappropraite generalisation, by my mistaken proof.) Different accounts of knowledge will assess this case differently, but if the ground (or source) of the epistemic state plays some role in whether it counts as knowledge, then this is a place where logical omniscience can break down.

In this (hypothetical) case, there is evidence, in the sense of a proof from PA to GC, but if we do not posess it, and use it to ground our belief in GC, this proof is epistemically inert.

Observation 2: Proofs preserve truth. The definition of proof does not involve truth. However, given plausible (minimal) assumptions about the nature of truth, it follows that if there is a proof for $X \vdash A$, Y then if each member of X is true and each member of Y is not true, then A is true.

Observation 3: Proofs transfer warrant (and transfer justification). The definition of proof does not involve warrant. However, given plausible (less minimal) assumptions about the nature of warrant, it follows that if there is a proof for $X \vdash A$, Y then given (conclusive) warrant for each member of X and (conclusive) warrant against each member of Y, we have (conclusive) warrant for A.

Caveat: matters are subtle when it comes to defeasible warrant. Consider the lottery paradox, where for any ticket we have defeasible reason to believe, that this ticket will not win, but we also have reason to believe that some ticket will win.

$$[(\exists x)(Tx \land Wx), (\forall x)(Tx \equiv x = t_1 \lor x = t_2 \lor \cdots \lor x = t_{1000000}) : Wt_1, Wt_2, Wt_3, ..., Wt_{1000000}]$$

This position is out of bounds, but each particular component of the position is highly likely.

Observation 4: Achilles and the Tortoise. Consider the exchange between Achilles and the Tortoise.

- "Well, now, let's take a little bit of the argument in that First Proposition-just two steps, and the conclusion drawn from them. Kindly enter them in your note-book. And in order to refer to them conveniently, let's call them A, B, and Z:
- Things that are equal to the same are equal to each other.

 The two sides of this Triangle are things that are equal to
- (B)

the same.

(Z) The two sides of this Triangle are equal to each other.

Readers of Euclid will grant, I suppose, that Z follows logically from A and B, so that any one who accepts A and B as true, must accept Z as true?"

"Undoubtedly! The youngest child in a High School—as soon as High Schools are invented, which will not be till some two thousand years letter, will grant that."

"And if some reader had not yet accepted A and B as true, he might still accept the sequence as a valid one, I suppose?

"No doubt such a reader might exist. He might say 'I accept as true the Hypothetical Proposition that, if A and B be true, Z must be true; but, I don't accept A and B as true.' Such a reader would do wisely in abandoning Euclid, and taking to football."

"And might there not also be some reader who would say 'I accept A and B as true, but I don't accept the Hypothetical'?"

"Certainly there might. He, also, had better take to football."

"And neither of these readers," the Tortoise continued, "is as yet

under any logical necessity to accept Z as true?"

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"Quite so," Achilles assented.

"Well, now, I want you to consider me as a reader of the second kind, and to force me, logically, to accept Z as true."

"A tortoise playing football would be—"Achilles was beginning

"—an anomaly, of course," the Tortoise hastily interrupted. "Don't wander from the point. Let's have Z first, and football afterwards!"

"I'm to force you to accept Z, am I?" Achilles said musingly. "And your present position is that you accept A and B, but you don't accept the Hypothetical—"

"Let's call it C." said the Tortoise

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(C) If A and B are true, Z must be true."

"That is my present position," said the Tortoise.

"Then I must ask you to accept C."

"I'll do so," said the Tortoise, "as soon as you've entered it in that note-book of yours. What else have you got in it?"

"Only a few memoranda," said Achilles, nervously fluttering the leaves: "a few memoranda of—of the battles in which I have distinguished myself!"

"Plentv of blank leaves, I see!" the Tortoise cheerily remarked. "We

"Plenty of blank leaves, I see!" the Tortoise cheerily remarked. "We shall need them all!" (Achilles shuddered.) "Now write as I dictate:—

Things that are equal to the same are equal to each other.

The two sides of this Triangle are things that are equal to the (A) (B)same.

(C) If A and B are true, Z must be true.

(Z) The two sides of this Triangle are equal to each other."

"You should call it D, not Z," said Achilles. "It comes next to the other three. If you accept A and B and C, you must accept Z."

"And why must I?"

Lewis Caroll "What the Tortoise Said to Achilles," Mind 4:14 (1895), 278-280

We have A, $B \vdash Z$. This does *not* mean that anyone who accepts A and Bmust accept Z. (When faced with Z, you may withdraw A or B.)

But Z is undeniable in any context where A and B are asserted. To deny it Z to use if in a way that deviates from its defining rule. That is enough to defuse the paradox.