

Fitch's Paradox Beyond Verificationism

A Puzzle for Closure and Some Modally Qualified Principles

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1. Fitch's Paradox

According to strong verificationism, all truths are known.

$$(sVER) p \rightarrow Kp$$

According to weak verificationism, all truths are possibly known.

$$(wVER) p \rightarrow \Diamond Kp$$

Both sVER and wVER are false. sVER is false because there are true but unknown propositions. And wVER is false because, given that there are true but unknown propositions, wVER entails sVER.

Proof: Suppose wVER. Let p be true but unknown. Then $p \wedge \neg Kp$ entails $\Diamond K(p \wedge \neg Kp)$. But suppose $K(p \wedge \neg Kp)$. Since knowledge distributes over conjunction, knowing a conjunction entails knowing each conjunct, so $Kp \wedge K\neg Kp$. But knowledge is factive. So $Kp \wedge \neg Kp$. Contradiction. Therefore $\neg \Diamond K(p \wedge \neg Kp)$, and so $\neg(p \wedge \neg Kp)$, or equivalently, $p \rightarrow Kp$.

Fitch's Paradox: wVER collapses into sVER. This is surprising!

Observation: Nothing in the formal result depends on verificationist ideas. What matters is only that the modal operator (in the verificationism case, the knowledge operator) has certain properties.

Present aim: Show that Fitch's Paradox has implications for a wide-range of principles. I'll be focusing on the closure principle.

2. Strong and Weak Closure

According to strong closure, you know everything that follows from your knowledge:

$$(sCLO) \text{ If you know } p, \text{ and } p \text{ entails } q, \text{ then you know } q.$$

sCLO appears very strong. One consequence of it is that if you know anything at all, then you know all theorems of logic and mathematics.

According to weak closure, it's possible to know everything that follows from your knowledge:

$$(wCLO) \text{ If you know } p, \text{ and } p \text{ entails } q, \text{ then it is possible for you to know } q.$$

Read ' Kp ' as 'you know that p '.

Read ' $\Diamond p$ ' as ' p is logically possible'.

For example, that I have exactly 100,000 hairs on my head (supposing it is true) is presumably unknown. That I have exactly 100,000 hairs on my head and I don't know it is unknowable.

More precisely: Distribution is the assumption that $K(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (Kp \wedge Kq)$ and factivity is the assumption that $Kp \rightarrow p$.

See Fitch 1963. For details (and a strengthening of the result) see Facts 1 and 2 in the Appendix.

More on these properties later.

Hart (1979, p.164) calls Fitch's Paradox an "unjustly neglected gem".

Formally, this can be captured by the rule of inference RM: $p \rightarrow q / Kp \rightarrow Kq$. See e.g. Hintikka 1970 and Schaffer 2007.

Call this RM $^\Diamond$: $p \rightarrow q / Kp \rightarrow \Diamond Kq$.

wCLO appears very weak. It doesn't have the consequence that you know all theorems of logic and mathematics.

A Fitch-style argument: If you think that sCLO is false, then you think that there's some p and q such that p entails q , you know p , but you fail to know q . Presumably you can know of some p and q , that $p \wedge \neg Kq$. But $p \wedge \neg Kq$ entails $q \wedge \neg Kq$. So by wCLO, $\Diamond K(q \wedge \neg Kq)$. Contradiction.

Upshot: wCLO entails that it's impossible for you to know $p \wedge \neg Kq$ whenever p entails q . But:

1. I know $p \vee \neg p$, from which the truth of the twin prime conjecture follows. Presumably I can also know that I don't know whether the twin prime conjecture is true.
2. From any p , it follows that $p \vee q \vee r \vee \dots$. But you can know that you don't know this disjunction by knowing that you don't even grasp it.
3. Lois Lane knows that Superman can fly, from which it follows that Clark Kent can fly. Yet she's arguably able to know that she doesn't know that Clark Kent can fly.

So: To the extent that it's possible to know, of *some* p and q (where p entails q) that $p \wedge \neg Kq$, wCLO should be rejected.

See Fact 3 in the Appendix. See also Salow manuscript.

That is, given wCLO, $\neg \Diamond K(p \wedge \neg Kq)$, whenever p entails q . This can be understood as the claim that, necessarily, given that you have any knowledge, you can't know that you're not omniscient.

Note: The claim *isn't* that wCLO collapses into sCLO.

3. An Even Weaker Closure Principle?

Why should we go for wCLO? The most familiar kind of closure principle states that you know everything that you *know* follows from your knowledge:

(CLO) If you know p and you know that p entails q , then you know q .

We can generalize this. Consider:

... if S knows p , competently deduces q , and thereby comes to believe q , while retaining knowledge of p throughout, then S knows q . (Hawthorne 2004, p.34)

... if S knows that P is true and knows that P implies Q , then, evidentially speaking, this is enough for S to know that Q is true. (Dretske 2005, p.27)

For any agent who is able to apply the relevant deductive rules to the premise that p , if she knows that p , and q is an obvious logical consequence of p , then she is in a position to know that q . (Das and Salow 2018, p.7)

There are broadly two strategies: strengthen the antecedent or weaken the consequent. Here's a generalized closure schema that captures all of these qualifications:

(GCLO) If you know p , and p entails q , and the set of conditions in X obtain, then it is possible for you to know q .

wCLO modifies SCLO by weakening the consequent whereas GCLO modifies SCLO both by weakening the consequent and strengthening the antecedent.

Question: Does GCLO collapse into wCLO?

Answer: No. Let p be the proposition that no one will deduce anything and let q be the proposition that I will not deduce anything. Then while it's possible for me to know p and know q , I couldn't come to know q on the basis of *deducing* it from p , for necessarily, if I were to make this deduction, I wouldn't know that no one will deduce anything. But the pair of propositions $p \wedge \neg Kq$ and $q \wedge \neg Kq$ makes wCLO false and GCLO true, so the latter doesn't always collapse into the former.

Say that a proposition p is *X-pathological* if and only if knowing p is incompatible with satisfying the conditions in X .

Claim: Whenever $\Diamond(Kp \wedge X)$, GCLO entails wCLO. GCLO does not collapse into wCLO only when p is X-pathological.

Question: What's the X needed to make all Fitch-propositions of the form $p \wedge \neg Kq$ X-pathological?

Answer: A condition that explicitly restricts against all and only Fitch-propositions?

Pessimism: Suppose you think that $K(p \wedge \neg Kq)$ is incompatible with 'competently deducing' $q \wedge \neg Kq$ from $p \wedge \neg Kq$. The proposal is that necessarily, if you competently deduce $q \wedge \neg Kq$ from $p \wedge \neg Kq$, then $\neg K(p \wedge \neg Kq)$. But why think this? Here's what appears to be the most plausible suggestion:

(*) If Kp and $D(q \wedge \neg Kq, p \wedge \neg Kq)$ then $\neg K\neg Kq$.

Since $K(p \wedge \neg Kq)$ entails Kp and $K\neg Kq$, if knowing p and making the relevant deduction guarantees $\neg K\neg Kq$, then you couldn't deduce $q \wedge \neg Kq$ from $p \wedge \neg Kq$ while knowing $p \wedge \neg Kq$.

Unfortunately (*) is problematic. For either $\neg K\neg Kq$ entails $\Diamond Kq$ or it doesn't. But:

1. If $\neg K\neg Kq$ doesn't entail $\Diamond Kq$, then GCLO fails for unrelated reasons.

Why? If $\neg K\neg Kq$ but $\neg \Diamond Kq$, then merely restricting against Fitch-propositions won't be enough to salvage GCLO, since it's assumed that Kp and the conditions in X are satisfied, but yet $\neg \Diamond Kq$.

Sometimes the set of conditions in X is explicitly left vague. See e.g. David and Warfield 2008 and Immerman 2020. The set of conditions is meant to be supplied by specific versions of closure.

Therefore wCLO isn't the *weakest* form of closure. I only call it 'weak closure' to draw the parallel between closure principles and verificationist principles.

To be explicit: This pair of propositions makes GCLO true by making its antecedent (necessarily) false.

Formally: p is X-pathological iff $\neg \Diamond(Kp \wedge X)$.

See Fact 4 in the Appendix.

Compare: $p \rightarrow \Diamond Kp$, provided p isn't a Fitch-proposition. Though see e.g. Dummett 2001 and Douven 2005.

I'll abbreviate 'competent deduction of q from p ' as $D(q, p)$.

Note that q itself isn't assumed to be a Fitch-proposition.

2. If $\neg K\neg Kq$ does entail $\Diamond Kq$, then (*) violates a putative circularity constraint, namely, that the set of conditions in X shouldn't itself rely on an instance of GCLO to guarantee that all Fitch-propositions are X -pathological.

Why? If $\Diamond Kq$ whenever $\neg K\neg Kq$, then (*) entails that whenever you know p and competently deduce $q \wedge \neg Kq$ from $p \wedge \neg Kq$, then $\Diamond Kq$. But this is an instance of GCLO, so it fails the non-circularity constraint.

This example assumed that the condition is competent deduction, but nothing essentially depended on that assumption. So: Either there's reason to be pessimistic about a principled condition guaranteed to be incompatible with $K(p \wedge \neg Kq)$, or GCLO fails for other reasons.

Challenge: Is there a non-circular, independently motivated condition that makes all Fitch-propositions pathological?

4. On Other Modally Qualified Principles

This style of Fitch-argument generalizes. Most straightforwardly:

(KK) If you know p , then you know that you know p .

(EQUIV) If you know p , and p and q are logically equivalent, then you know q .

These principles, in their strongest forms, look implausible.

When the formal language is suitably amended, the argument bears on principles including:

(TESTIMONY) If I know p , and I tell you that p , then you know p .

(RECALL) If you know p at time t , then you know p at time t' , where $t < t'$.

Fitch's Paradox relies on the modal operator O satisfying:

(DISTRIBUTION) $O(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (Op \wedge Oq)$

(NEG-INFALLIBILITY) $O\neg Op \rightarrow \neg Op$

The knowledge operator satisfies NEG-INFALLIBILITY because knowledge is factive. But NEG-INFALLIBILITY also follows from the combination of:

(D) $Op \rightarrow \neg O\neg p$

(4) $Op \rightarrow OOp$

Upshot: Any operator O that distributes over conjunction, if O is factive, or if O satisfies D and 4, the corresponding principles will be subject to the arguments here. The analogue of the knowledge principles for belief, justification, rationality, and evidence, insofar as these operators obey DISTRIBUTION and NEG-INFALLIBILITY, are also within the scope of this Fitch-style argument.

Presumably if you're interested in whether GCLO is true, it would be inappropriate for you to rely on an instance of the principle to ban all Fitch-propositions that would be problematic for GCLO.

We can replace $D(q \wedge \neg Kq, p \wedge \neg Kq)$ with some generic condition x for a generalized version of the argument.

Maybe: It also shouldn't vindicate verificationism!

I'll be omitting the details of these proofs because they're similar in style to the ones in the Appendix. See also Liu 2020 and San 2020.

For instance, if knowledge requires belief, couldn't you know p without knowing that you know p by failing to have beliefs about your knowledge? See e.g. McHugh 2010 and Greco 2014 for qualified version of KK.

In particular, we'll need to index knowledge to particular agents and times. On these principles, see especially Fraser and Hawthorne 2015.

Proof: By 4, $Op \rightarrow OOp$. By D, $OOp \rightarrow \neg O\neg Op$. Putting these together, $Op \rightarrow \neg O\neg Op$. By contraposition, $O\neg Op \rightarrow \neg Op$.

5. A Puzzle?

How did we get here? In the verificationism case, we started out with *SVER* which is obviously unpalatable, then moved to *WVER*. But that entails *SVER*, so this move is unavailable. In the closure case, we started out with *SCLO* which also (at least) appears unpalatable, then moved to *WCLO*. But that entails that it's impossible to know $p \wedge \neg Kq$ whenever p entails q , so this move also appears unavailable. Nor does the retreat to *GLCO* fare better.

Option 1: Reject one of the premises for Fitch's Paradox. For obvious reasons this blocks all such arguments. But what should we give up? Factivity? Distribution? Classical Logic?

Option 2: Accept *SCLO*. In the verificationism case, *SVER* is very, very bad. How bad is *SCLO*? Maybe not as bad. In fact, if propositions are coarse-grained sets of possible worlds, *DISTRIBUTION* entails *SCLO*. So maybe let's just go with *SCLO* (and *KK*, *EQUIV*...) and explain away the putative counterexamples.

Option 3: Accept that no version of closure is true. This appears unattractive:

... the idea that no version of [the closure principle] is true strikes me, and many other philosophers, as one of the least plausible ideas to come down the philosophical pike in recent years... (Feldman 1995, p.478)

Of course, even if no version of closure is true, it's perfectly consistent to think that some version of it *typically* holds.

Lesson: Fitch's Paradox isn't just a puzzle for verificationism – the issues associated with it are of much more general importance.

Appendix

We will work with a propositional language extended with two unary modal operators, K and \Box . We abbreviate n iterations of K as K^n and $\neg\Box\neg$ as \Diamond . A modal logic is a set of sentences which contains all tautologies of propositional logic and is closed under modus ponens and uniform substitution. We introduce the following axiom schemas and rule of inference:

(NEGATIVE-INFALLIBILITY_K) $K\neg Kp \rightarrow \neg Kp$

(DISTRIBUTION_K) $K(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (Kp \wedge Kq)$

(K_□) $\Box(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow (\Box p \rightarrow \Box q)$

(4_□) $\Box p \rightarrow \Box\Box p$

(RN_□) From p , infer $\Box p$.

There is a large literature on this. See e.g. the collection of essays in Salerno 2009. For a defense, see in particular Williamson 2000.

As Soames 1987 shows, on certain views according to which propositions are coarse-grained sets of possible worlds, assuming that entailment is captured by the subset relation, if knowledge distributes over conjunction, then *SCLO* holds. *Proof.* Notice that $p \subseteq q$ iff $p \wedge q = p$. For suppose $p \subseteq q$. Then $p \wedge q = p \cap q = p$. Now suppose $p \wedge q = p$. Then $p \cap q = p$, so $p \subseteq q$. But let $p \subseteq q$ and consider Kp . Since $p \subseteq q$ iff $p \wedge q = p$, it follows that $K(p \wedge q)$. Distributing, Kp and Kq , so in particular, Kq . See also especially Stalnaker 1984.

Notable closure-deniers include Dretske 1970 and Nozick 1981.

For background, see for instance Chellas 1980.

We will let L contain $\text{NEGATIVE-INFALLIBILITY}_K$, DISTRIBUTION_K , and κ_\square and be closed under RN_\square . In the appendix we prove some relevant facts about L that are referenced in the main text.

Fact 1. If L contains $p \rightarrow \Diamond Kp$, then L contains $p \rightarrow Kp$.

Proof. Suppose L contains $p \rightarrow \Diamond Kp$. By uniform substitution, $(p \wedge \neg Kp) \rightarrow \Diamond K(p \wedge \neg Kp)$. Assume, for contradiction, $K(p \wedge \neg Kp)$. Then by DISTRIBUTION_K , $Kp \wedge K\neg Kp$, from which $Kp \wedge \neg Kp$ follows by $\text{NEGATIVE-INFALLIBILITY}_K$. But $\neg(Kp \wedge \neg Kp)$, so $\neg K(p \wedge \neg Kp)$. By RN_\square , $\neg \Diamond K(p \wedge \neg Kp)$. Therefore $\neg(p \wedge \neg Kp)$, which is equivalent to $p \rightarrow Kp$.

Fact 2. If L contains $p \rightarrow \Diamond Kp$, then L contains $p \rightarrow K^n p$.

Proof. We proceed by induction. For the base case, let $n = 1$. Then L contains $p \rightarrow Kp$ by Fact 1. For the inductive step, suppose L contains $p \rightarrow K^i p$. This is equivalent to $\neg(p \wedge \neg K^i p)$. By uniform substitution, $\neg(Kp \wedge \neg K^{i+1} p)$. By $\text{NEGATIVE-INFALLIBILITY}_K$, $\neg(Kp \wedge K\neg K^{i+1} p)$ and by DISTRIBUTION_K , $\neg K(p \wedge \neg K^{i+1} p)$. By RN_\square , $\neg \Diamond K(p \wedge \neg K^{i+1} p)$ so $\neg(p \wedge \neg K^{i+1} p)$, which is equivalent to $p \rightarrow K^{i+1} p$.

SCLO and WCLO can be captured by the rules of inference:

(RM_K) From $p \rightarrow q$, infer $Kp \rightarrow Kq$.

(RM_K^\Diamond) From $p \rightarrow q$, infer $Kp \rightarrow \Diamond Kq$.

Fact 3. If L is closed under RM_K^\Diamond but not RM_K , then L contains $\neg \Diamond K(p \wedge \neg Kq)$.

Proof. Consider a pair of propositions p and q such that L contains $p \rightarrow q$ but not $Kp \rightarrow Kq$. Then L contains $(p \wedge \neg Kq) \rightarrow (q \wedge \neg Kq)$. By RM_K^\Diamond , $K(p \wedge \neg Kq) \rightarrow \Diamond K(q \wedge \neg Kq)$. But $\neg \Diamond K(q \wedge \neg Kq)$. Therefore L contains $\neg K(p \wedge \neg Kq)$, so by RN_\square , L contains $\neg \Diamond K(p \wedge \neg Kq)$.

GCLO can be captured by the following rule of inference, where X is some set of conditions:

(G-RM_K^\Diamond) From $p \rightarrow q$, infer $(Kp \wedge X) \rightarrow \Diamond Kq$.

Fact 4. If L does not contain $\neg \Diamond (Kp \wedge X)$, then L is closed under G-RM_K^\Diamond iff L is closed under RM_K^\Diamond .

Proof. The right-to-left direction is trivial. We prove the left-to-right direction. Let L contain $p \rightarrow q$, and suppose L is closed under G-RM_K^\Diamond but not RM_K^\Diamond . Then Kp but $\neg \Diamond Kq$ for some p and q . But by G-RM_K^\Diamond , L contains $(Kp \wedge X) \rightarrow \Diamond Kq$, which is equivalent to $\neg \Diamond Kq \rightarrow \neg(Kp \wedge X)$ so by RN_\square and κ_\square , L contains $\square \neg \Diamond Kq \rightarrow \square \neg (Kp \wedge X)$. Since $\neg \Diamond Kq$ is equivalent to $\square \neg Kq$, by 4_\square , $\square \square \neg Kq$ and therefore $\square \neg \Diamond Kq$. Therefore $\square \neg (Kp \wedge X)$, which is equivalent to $\neg \Diamond (Kp \wedge X)$.

Hintikka (1970, p.142) writes that RM_K is "apparently difficult to avoid in one's epistemic logic" while Rosenkranz (2021, p.58), writes that RM_K "should be taken to fail" because of its strength.

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