Gibbard ●○○○	Lewis Extras 000000000 00	Refs			
•	Gibbard [5] argues that if the indicative conditional $(\leadsto)$ satisfies <i>import-export</i> (and a few other assumptions), then it is logically equivalent to the material conditional $(\supset)$ .				
•	• I will begin by rehearsing Gibbard's informal argument. Then, I will provide a rigorous, axiomatic proof of a more general "collapse theorem" for the indicative.				
•	• Suppose the indicative satisfies <i>import-export</i> . (IE) $A \leadsto (B \leadsto C)$ is <i>logically equivalent</i> to $(A \& B) \leadsto C$ .				
•	<ul> <li>If ¬¬¬ satisfies (IE), then (i) is equivalent to (ii).</li> <li>(i) (A ⊃ C) ¬¬¬ (A ¬¬¬ C).</li> <li>(ii) ((A ⊃ C) &amp; A) ¬¬¬ C.</li> </ul>				
•	Substitutivity of logical equivalents (in antecedents of indicatives) implies that (ii) [and $\therefore$ (i)] is equivalent to (iii). (iii) $(A \& C) \leadsto C$ .				
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• Here's our weak background theory (independent axioms).
$(1) \vdash (p \& q) \to p.$
$(2) \vdash (p \& q) \leadsto q.$
(3) If $p \Vdash q$ and $p \Vdash r$ , then $p \Vdash q \& r$ .
(4) If $p \Vdash q$ and $q \Vdash p$ , then $\vdash p \leadsto r$ if and only if $\vdash q \leadsto r$ .
(5) If $\vdash p \rightarrow q$ , then $p \Vdash q$ .
(6) If $\vdash p \rightsquigarrow q$ , then $\vdash p \rightarrow q$ .
(7) $\vdash p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r)$ if and only if $\vdash (p \& q) \rightarrow r$ .
• The $\leadsto$ fragment of this background theory is <i>very</i> weak. (1)–(7) do <i>not</i> imply <i>any</i> of the following three principles.
• If $\vdash p$ and $\vdash p \leadsto q$ , then $\vdash q$ .
$\bullet \vdash p \leadsto (q \leadsto p).$
$\bullet \vdash (p \leadsto (q \leadsto r)) \leadsto ((p \leadsto q) \leadsto (p \leadsto r)).$

Gibbard

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Gibbard ○●○○		Lewis Extras 000000000 00	Refs
	•	So, if (iii) is a logical truth (as Gibbard supposes), then (i) and (ii) are too. Finally, suppose the indicative is at least as strong as the material conditional. That is, suppose (generally) that $p \leadsto q$ entails $p \supset q$ . Then, (i) entails (iv). (iv) $(A \supset C) \supset (A \leadsto C)$ .	
	•	Hence, (iv) is (also) a logical truth. So, $A \supset C$ entails $A \leadsto C$ . Therefore, in general, $p \leadsto q$ entails $p \supset q$ and $p \supset q$ entails $p \leadsto q$ . That is, in general, $\leadsto$ and $\supset$ are logically equivalent.	
	•	Let $\mathscr{L}$ be a sentential (object) language containing atoms 'A', 'B',, and two <i>logical</i> connectives '&' and ' $\rightarrow$ '.	
	•	${\mathscr L}$ also contains another binary connective ' $\leadsto$ ', which is meant to be interpreted as the English indicative.	
	•	$\mathscr{L}$ 's metalanguage contains metavariables $p, q, \ldots$ and two meta-linguistic relations: $\Vdash$ and $\vdash$ . ' $\vdash$ ' is interpreted as <i>single premise deducibility</i> (or <i>entailment</i> ). ' $\vdash$ ' is interpreted as the property of <i>theoremhood</i> (or <i>logical truth</i> ).	
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• Finally, consider this --- import-export axiom schema.

Lewis

Gibbard ○○○●

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(8)  $\vdash p \leadsto (q \leadsto r)$  if and only if  $\vdash (p \& q) \leadsto r$ .

**Theorem 1**. The schemata (1)–(8) are independent; and, given the background theory (1)-(7), (8) holds if and only if

(9) 
$$p \rightarrow q \Vdash p \rightsquigarrow q$$
 and  $p \rightsquigarrow q \Vdash p \rightarrow q$ .

**Theorem 2.** Axioms (1)-(8) do *not* entail collapse of  $\rightsquigarrow$  to  $\supset$ . Even if we add *modus ponens* (MP) to (1)-(8), we do **not** get

$$(10) \vdash ((p \leadsto q) \leadsto p) \leadsto p.$$

That is, *Peirce's Law* is *not* implied by (1)–(8) + (MP). So, classicality is inessential to Gibbardian collapse.

**Theorem 3.** (1)–(8) + (MP) *do* imply that the indicative conditional collapses to a conditional that is at least as strong as the intuitionistic conditional: (1)–(8) + (MP) imply

(MP) If 
$$\vdash p$$
 and  $\vdash p \leadsto q$ , then  $\vdash q$ .

$$(11) \vdash p \leadsto (q \leadsto p).$$

$$(12) \vdash (p \leadsto (q \leadsto r)) \leadsto ((p \leadsto q) \leadsto (p \leadsto r)).$$

Modus ponens for  $\rightarrow$  does not follow from (1)-(7) either! So,

modus ponens is irrelevant to Gibbardian collapse!

- obscures the crucial role of (probabilistic) import-export.
- I will adopt an *algebraic* approach. This will also allow us to derive the strongest possible Lewisian triviality result.
- Moreover, I will explain why these Lewisian triviality results all depend (implicitly) on (probabilistic) import-export.
- My presentation will mirror the way in which I presented my generalization of Gibbard's "collapse theorem."
- I will begin with a very weak probabilistic background theory for ..... Then, I will show that, relative to this background theory, probabilistic import-export is equivalent to the condition that leads to Lewisian triviality.

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Two New(ish) Triviality Results for Indicatives

statements expressed *via* truth-functional connectives, *plus* a (possibly non-truth-functional) indicative connective ....

• Let  $Pr(\cdot)$  be a probability function over a Boolean algebra of

 Our background theory is the following single equational axiom schema [1, 12], sometimes called "The Equation."

(I)  $\Pr(p \rightsquigarrow q) = \Pr(q \mid p) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\Pr(p \& q)}{\Pr(p)}$ , provided  $\Pr(p) > 0$ .

- The background theory (I) is *very* weak. That is, (I) *alone* does not entail any Lewisian trivialities for  $Pr(\cdot)$  and  $\leadsto$ .
- It is only when we combine (I) with the following *import-export* schema that we are led to Lewisian trivialities.

(II)  $Pr(p \rightsquigarrow (q \rightsquigarrow r)) = Pr((p \& q) \rightsquigarrow r)$ , provided Pr(p & q) > 0.

• Given (I), (II) is equivalent to the following (very strong) equational axiom schema (see Extras #16 for a proof of this equivalence). I will call (III) "The Resilient Equation" [11].

(III)  $Pr(p \rightsquigarrow q \mid x) = Pr(q \mid p \& x)$ , provided Pr(p & x) > 0.

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Lewis

Lewis

- Lewis's original triviality results [9, 8] and all subsequent results of this kind [6, 10] are derived *via x*-instances of (III).
  - Lewis used the instances x := a and  $x := \neg a$  of (III) to derive his original triviality result [9]. Milne [10] used the instance  $x := p \supset q$ . More on these below. And, see [6] for a survey.
- A natural question is: What is *the strongest* triviality result that can be derived from (III), *via* instantiations of x?
- Using my decision procedure for Pr-calculus [4], I was able to determine the algebraic content of the conjunction of all (in a sense to be made precise shortly) x-instances of (III).
- Then, I was able to show that one only needs three *x*-instances of (III) to derive this *strongest* triviality result.
- Let's get more precise. Without loss of generality, consider the algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  generated by the three ("atomic") statements  $\{P, Q, P \leadsto Q\}$ . We can visualize the family of probability functions  $Pr(\cdot)$  over  $\mathcal{B}$  via a stochastic truth-table (STT).

Lewis

P	Q	$P \leadsto Q$	Pr(·)
T	T	T	а
T	T	F	b
T	F	T	С
T	F	F	d
F	T	T	e
F	T	F	f
F	F	T	g
F	F	F	h

- So as to maximize generality, we assume  $\{P, Q, P \leadsto O\}$  are logically independent. In this way, we assume nothing about the *logical* relationship(s) between  $P \leadsto Q$ , P, and Q.
- Each of the  $2^8 = 256$  propositions  $x \in \mathcal{B}$  is then assigned a probability by  $Pr(\cdot)$  in the usual way — by adding up the probability masses of the states which feature in *x*'s DNF.
- In this way, we can write down algebraic equations (in terms of  $a, \ldots, h$ ) for each of the x-instances of (III). This allows us to determine the precise algebraic content of (III).

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$$(III^{\mathcal{B}}) \operatorname{Pr}(P \leadsto Q \mid x) = \operatorname{Pr}(Q \mid P \& x), \operatorname{provided} \operatorname{Pr}(P \& x) > 0.$$

- This rendition (III<sup>B</sup>) makes it clear that (the universally quantified) x ranges over the 256 propositions in  $\mathcal{B}$ . As it happens, there are 191 instances of (III<sup>B</sup>) which do not (by probability theory alone) violate Pr(P & x) > 0.
- The following theorem was verified [2, 4] by determining necessary and sufficient algebraic conditions for the joint satisfaction of all 191 of these equational constraints (III<sup>B</sup>).

**Theorem 4** ([2]). Provided that 
$$Pr(P \& Q) > 0$$
 and  $Pr(P \& \neg Q) > 0$ , (III<sup>B</sup>)  $\iff Pr(P \& (Q \equiv (P \leadsto Q))) = 1$ .

• Luckily, the same result can be reached using *only three* of the 191 instances of ( $III^B$ ). I will now go through that simpler proof of Theorem 4 ( $\Rightarrow$ ). We proceed in three stages.

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• **Stage 1**. The  $\neg Q$ -instance of (III $^{\mathcal{B}}$ ).

$$(\coprod_{\neg Q}^{\mathcal{B}}) \Pr(P \leadsto Q \mid \neg Q) = \Pr(Q \mid P \& \neg Q), \text{ provided } \Pr(P \& \neg Q) > 0.$$

• Algebraically,  $(III_{\neg O}^{\mathcal{B}})$  is equivalent to

$$\Pr(P \leadsto Q | \neg Q) = \frac{\Pr((P \leadsto Q) \& \neg Q)}{\Pr(\neg Q)} = \frac{c + g}{c + d + g + h} = 0 = \Pr(Q | P \& \neg Q)$$

• Assuming  $Pr(P \& \neg Q) > 0$ , this equation will be true *iff* c + g = 0. Thus, c = g = 0, which yields this *revised* STT:

P	Q	$P \leadsto Q$	Pr(·)
T	T	T	а
T	T	F	b
T	F	T	0
T	F	F	d
F	T	T	e
F	T	F	f
F	F	T	0
F	F	F	h

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• Stage 2. The  $P \supset Q$ -instance of  $(III^{\mathcal{B}})$ .

$$(\coprod_{P\supset Q}^{\mathcal{B}}) \operatorname{Pr}(P \rightsquigarrow Q \mid P\supset Q) = \operatorname{Pr}(Q \mid P \& (P\supset Q)), \text{ if } \operatorname{Pr}(P \& Q) > 0.$$

• Algebraically,  $(III_{P\supset O}^{\mathcal{B}})$  is equivalent to

$$\Pr(P \leadsto Q | P \supset Q) = \frac{\Pr((P \leadsto Q) \& (P \supset Q))}{\Pr(P \supset Q)} = \frac{a + e}{a + b + e + f + h} = 1 = \Pr(Q | P \& (P \supset Q))$$

• Assuming Pr(P & Q) > 0, this equation will be true *iff* b + f + h = 0. So, b = f = h = 0, and our STT becomes:

P	Q	$P \leadsto Q$	Pr(·)
T	T	T	а
T	T	F	0
T	F	T	0
T	F	F	d
F	T	T	e
F	T	F	0
F	F	T	0
F	F	F	0

• Stage 3. The  $\top$ -instance of (III $^{\mathcal{B}}$ ).

$$(\coprod_{\pm}^{\mathcal{B}}) \Pr(P \rightsquigarrow O \mid \top) = \Pr(O \mid P \& \top)$$
, provided  $\Pr(P \& \top) > 0$ .

• Algebraically,  $(III_{\pm}^{\mathcal{B}})$  — which is just  $(I^{\mathcal{B}})$  — is equivalent to

$$\Pr(P \leadsto Q) = a + e = \frac{a}{a + d} = \frac{\Pr(P \& Q)}{\Pr(P)} = \Pr(Q \mid P)$$

• Since Pr(P) > 0, this holds *iff*  $a^2 + ad + ae + de - a = 0$ . Since  $Pr(P \& \neg Q) = d > 0$ , we have e = 0 and  $a, d \in (0, 1)$ . *Final* STT:

P	Q	$P \leadsto Q$	Pr(·)
T	T	T	$a \in (0,1)$
T	T	F	0
T	F	T	0
T	F	F	1 – a
F	T	T	0
F	T	F	0
F	F	T	0
F	F	F	0

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- So, assuming Pr(P & O) > 0 and  $Pr(P \& \neg O) > 0$ , (III<sup>B</sup>) implies that exactly two states have non-zero probability:  $P \& O \& (P \leadsto O)$  and  $P \& \neg O \& \neg (P \leadsto O)$ . OED.
- No stronger constraint can be derived from (III $^{\mathcal{B}}$ ); and, at *least two instances* of ( $III^{\mathcal{B}}$ ) are required for the result [2].
- Algebraically, it is easy to see exactly *how much* stronger our result is than previous results. Our result implies that the six probability masses b, c, e, f, g and h are all zero.
  - Lewis [9] relies on the two instances ( $III_O^B$ ) and ( $IIII_{\neg O}^B$ ), which only imply that the four masses b, c, f and g are zero. As a result. Lewis's results do not imply (e.a.) that Pr(P) = 1.
  - Milne [10] relies on the single instance ( $III_{P \supset O}^{\mathcal{B}}$ ), which only implies that the three masses b, f and h are zero. As a result, he obtains *neither* Pr(P) = 1 *nor*  $Pr(Q) = Pr(P \rightsquigarrow Q)$ .
- It's hard to think of *any* models that (generally) satisfy (III). Here's one.  $Pr(\cdot)$  is an *indicator function*, and  $p \rightsquigarrow q \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} q$ .

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- Given our background theory (I), (II)  $\iff$  (III).
- Proof of  $\Rightarrow$ . Assuming (I) and (II), prove (III).

① 
$$Pr(x \rightsquigarrow (p \rightsquigarrow q)) = Pr(p \rightsquigarrow q \mid x), \text{ if } Pr(p \& x) > 0$$
 (I)

③ 
$$Pr((p \& x) \leadsto q) = Pr(q \mid p \& x), \text{ if } Pr(p \& x) > 0$$
 (I)

(III) 
$$\therefore \Pr(p \leadsto q \mid x) = \Pr(q \mid p \& x), \text{ if } \Pr(p \& x) > 0$$
 ①, ②, ③

• Proof of  $\Leftarrow$ . Assuming (III) and (I), prove (II). [Note: (III)  $\Rightarrow$  (I).]

⑤ 
$$Pr(q \leadsto r \mid p) = Pr(r \mid p \& q), \text{ if } Pr(p \& q) > 0$$
 (III)

⑥ 
$$Pr(r \mid p \& q) = Pr((p \& q) \leadsto r), \text{ if } Pr(p \& q) > 0$$
 (I)

(II) 
$$\therefore \Pr(p \rightsquigarrow (q \rightsquigarrow r)) = \Pr((p \& q) \rightsquigarrow r), \text{ if } \Pr(p \& q) > 0 \quad \textcircled{4}, \textcircled{5}, \textcircled{6}$$

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• If he is right, we have a counterexample to both (8) and (II).

• The triviality results of Gibbard and Lewis seem to suggest

• Stephan Kaufmann [7] describes a possible counterexample to both (8) and (II). Here is (my rendition of) his example.

up with intuitive counterexamples to either (8) or (II).

that import-export is problematic. But, it is difficult to come

Suppose that the probability that a given match ignites if

struck is low, and consider a situation in which it is very

a camp fire, where it ignites without being struck. Now,

consider the following two indicative conditionals.

(a) If the match will ignite, then it'll ignite if struck.

• According to Kaufmann, while (b) is clearly necessarily

(even logically) true, (a) is not. Indeed, Kaufmann even claims that the probability of (a) should be less than 1.

(b) If the match is struck and it'll ignite, then it'll ignite.

likely that the match is *not* struck but instead is tossed into

Extras

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