#### Intuitionistic logic

#### Motivation for intuitionistic logic

- As hinted earlier, proof by contradiction (RAA) is contentious.
- As shown before, (RAA) is interderivable with the law of the excluded middle

$$\overline{A \vee \neg A} \ LEM.$$

We shall now see an example why LEM (and therefore RAA) is contentious.

#### Motivation for intuitionistic logic

**Proposition.** There exist two irrational numbers a, b such that  $a^b$  is rational.

### Constructivism

- The proof we have seen is deemed to be not constructive.
- An attack on the law of the excluded middle was launched by the famous mathematician-logician L.E.J. Brouwer in the early 1900's.
- Brouwer's mathematics and logics are called intuitionistic.

In this context, the traditional non-constructive mathematics and logics are called **classical**.

### Heyting interpretation

- The idea in constructive logic is that we can only consider a statement to be true if we have a proof for it.
- This idea is made precise by Heyting's interpretation of proofs:

### Heyting interpretation

- A proof of  $A \wedge B$  is a pair  $(\Phi, \Psi)$  where  $\Phi$  is a proof of A and  $\Psi$  is a proof of B.
- A proof of  $A \lor B$  is a proof of A or a proof of B.
- A proof of  $A \rightarrow B$  is a method for turning a proof of A into a proof of B.
- A proof of  $\forall x.A$  is a method for turning any witness t, into a proof of A[t/x].
- A proof of  $\exists x.A$  consists of a witness t and a proof  $\Phi$  of A[t/x].

# ND and Heyting interpretation

The gist of the Heyting interpretation is captured by the natural deduction rules **minus RAA**:

# ND and Heyting interpretation: $\wedge$



Given a proof  $\Phi$  of A and a proof  $\Psi$  of B, we have a proof of  $A \wedge B$ .

Given a proof  $\Phi$  of  $A \wedge B$ , we have a proof of A and a proof of B.

So, to have a proof of  $A \wedge B$  is to have a proof of A and a proof of B.

# ND and Heyting interpretation: $\rightarrow$



Given a method  $\Phi$  for turning a proof of A into a proof of B, we have a proof of  $A \rightarrow B$ .



Given a proof  $\Phi$  of  $A \rightarrow B$ , we have a method for turning any proof  $\Psi$  of A into a proof of B.

So, to have a proof of  $A \rightarrow B$  is to have a method for turning any proof of A into a proof of B.

# ND and Heyting interpretation: $\forall$

Given a proof of *A* for an arbitrary x(i.e., a method for proving A[t/x] for any *t*), we have a proof of  $\forall x.A$ .



 $\frac{\dot{A}}{4} \forall i$ 

Given a proof of  $\forall x.A$ , we have a method for proving of A[t/x] for any t.

(Warning: the side conditions are omitted in the above presentation of the rules.) So, to have a proof of  $\forall x.A$  is to have a method for proving A[t/x] for any t.

# ND and Heyting interpretation: V



Given a proof of  $\Phi$  of A (or of B), we have a proof of  $A \lor B$ .

Given a proof  $\Phi$  of  $A \lor B$  and methods  $\Psi_1$  resp.  $\Psi_2$  for turning proofs of A resp. B into proofs of C, we have a proof of C.

# The disjunction property

Introduction and elimination rules for V do not imply the disjunction property, which states that

if  $\vdash A \lor B$ , then  $\vdash A$  or  $\vdash B$ .

- To see this, note that in classical propositional logic, we have neither  $\vdash p$  nor  $\vdash \neg p$  for an atomic formula p.
- But the disjunction property holds for intuitionistic logic, as we shall see later.

# ND and Heyting interpretation: ∃



Given a proof  $\Phi$  of A[t/x] for some witness t, we have a proof of  $\exists x.A$ .



Given a proof  $\Phi$  of A[t/x], and a method for turning a proof of A (for arbitrary x) into a proof of B, we get a proof of B.

(Warning: the side conditions are omitted in the above presentation of the rules.)

# The existence property

Introduction and elimination rules for ∃ do not imply the existence property, which states that

if  $\vdash \exists x.A$ , then  $\vdash A[t/x]$  for some t.

But the existence property holds for intuitionistic logic.

## Ex falso quodlibet

The elimination rule for  $\perp$  is contentious, but not as contentious as *RAA*. (As seen earlier, *RAA* implies  $\perp e$ ; the converse is false, as we shall see.)



This rule is allowed in intuitionistic logic, but not in minimal logic.

# Summary of ND for IL

For simplicity, we shall focus on propositional logic.



#### **Alternative version**



### **Semantics of IL?**

- $\Gamma \vdash A$  is provable in ND for **classical** propositional logic iff  $\Gamma \models A$  in the sense of the truth-table semantics.
- The absence of *RAA* from IL suggests that IL proves fewer judgments Γ ⊢ A, and is therefore incomplete w.r.t. the truth-table semantics.
- Is there a semantics w.r.t. which IL is complete?

# Kripke models of IL

Remarkably, a variation of Kripke models for modal logic also works for IL. Three changes are enough:

- 1. The accessibility relation R is a **preorder**, i.e. reflexive and transitive. We shall write  $\leq$  instead of R.
- 2. The labelling function is required to be **monotonic**, i.e.  $L(x) \subseteq L(y)$  whenever  $x \leq y$ .
- 3. We shall need to change the forcing semantics of implication.

### **Heuristic motivation**

- An idealized mathematician (traditionally called the "creative subject") explores the possible worlds.
- The preorder can be seen to describe (branching) time: x < y means that world y is later than world x.</p>
- The mathematician can only move forward in time; along the way, she discovers true facts.
- If she knows a fact to be true at world x, she also knows it to be true in any later world. (That explains why the labelling function is monotonic.)

## **Kripke models for IL**

**Definition.** A **(Kripke) model** of propositional IL consists of

- 1. a set W, whose elements are called **worlds**;
- 2. a preorder  $\leq$  on W;
- 3. a monotonic labelling function  $L: W \rightarrow P(Atoms)$ .

### Semantics of $\land$ , $\lor$ , $\bot$

The semantics of  $\land$ ,  $\lor$ ,  $\perp$ , and of atomic formulæ, is the same as in basic modal logic:

### Semantics of $\rightarrow$

- One can know  $A \rightarrow B$  to be true without knowing whether A or B are true.
- However, it does not suffice to look only at the present world: one must know that no later discovery can make  $A \rightarrow B$  false.

This motivates the following semantics of  $\rightarrow$ :

 $x \Vdash A \to B$  iff for all y with  $x \leq y$ , if  $y \Vdash A$ then  $y \Vdash B$ .

# Semantics of $\rightarrow$ : discussion

Let x be a world, and let p and q be atomic formulæ.

- 1. If q is true at x, then  $x \Vdash p \to q$ .
- 2. If p is true and q is false at x, then  $x \not\models p \rightarrow q$ .
- 3. If both p and q are false at x, we must look into the future.

### Semantics of ¬

As before, we define

$$\neg A = (A \to \bot).$$

#### Thus

 $x \Vdash \neg A$  iff for all y with  $x \leq y$  we have  $y \not \vdash A$ .

That is, we know  $\neg A$  if A never becomes true.

### **Double negation**

**Lemma.** In every Kripke model for IL, it holds for every world x that

 $x \Vdash \neg \neg A$ 

if and only if

for all  $y \ge x$  there is a  $z \ge y$  such that  $z \Vdash A$ .

**Proof.** See lecture.

# Some non-valid formulæ

The following formulæ, which are valid in classical logic, are not valid in IL:

1. 
$$\neg \neg p \rightarrow p$$

2.  $p \lor \neg p$ 3.  $\neg (p \land q) \rightarrow (\neg p \lor \neg q)$ 4.  $(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow (\neg p \lor q)$ .