

## A few selected topics

*Non tutto il male vien per nuocere.*<sup>1</sup>

Italian saying.

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<sup>1</sup>*Added in Proof.* “Not all bad things come to hurt you”. Refers to an embarrassing mistake I made in the preceding talk, concerning the example with the tossing of a coin. In the present talk I took the opportunity to clarify the notions of satisfiability/consistency in Łukasiewicz logic which, as I realised also thanks to my own mistakes in the preceding talk, I had not explained clearly enough.

## Clarifications on satisfiability and consistency in $\perp$

Notion	Definition	Description
$\alpha$ is satisfiable	$\exists w$ such that $w(\alpha) = 1$	$\alpha$ is 1-satisfiable
$\alpha$ is consistent	$\exists \beta$ such that $\alpha \not\vdash_{\perp} \beta$	$\alpha$ does not prove smthg.
$\alpha$ is unsatisfiable	$\forall w$ we have $w(\alpha) < 1$	$\alpha$ is not 1-satisfiable
$\alpha$ is inconsistent	$\forall \beta$ we have $\alpha \vdash_{\perp} \beta$	$\alpha$ proves everything
$\alpha$ is strongly unsat.	$\forall w$ we have $w(\alpha) = 0$	$\alpha$ is always false
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*Added in Proof.* The terminology “Strongly unsatisfiable/inconsistent” is not standard. I only used it for ease of exposition. I do not know of a standard terminology for these concepts.

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## Local Deduction Theorem for $\perp$

For any  $\alpha, \beta \in \text{FORM}$ ,

$$\alpha \vdash_{\perp} \beta \quad \text{if, and only if,} \quad \exists n \geq 1 \text{ such that } \vdash_{\perp} \alpha^n \rightarrow \beta.$$

(Recall that  $\alpha^n := \underbrace{\alpha \odot \cdots \odot \alpha}_{n \text{ times}}.$ )

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## Functional completeness

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Is Łukasiewicz logic over 1 variable functionally complete w.r.t. functions  $[0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ ?

Obviously, it cannot be that **all** functions  $[0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  are definable, e.g. because there are non-continuous functions and we saw that the Łukasiewicz connectives are interpreted by continuous operations.

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To make an educated guess at what the answer is, we need to look at more examples. (At the board.)

Notation	Formal semantics
$\perp$	$w(\perp) = 0$
$\neg\alpha$	$w(\neg\alpha) = 1 - w(\alpha)$
$\alpha \vee \beta$	$w(\alpha \vee \beta) = \max\{w(\alpha), w(\beta)\}$
$\alpha \wedge \beta$	$w(\alpha \wedge \beta) = \min\{w(\alpha), w(\beta)\}$
$\alpha \oplus \beta$	$w(\alpha \oplus \beta) = \min\{1, w(\alpha) + w(\beta)\}$

**Table:** Formal semantics of connectives in Łukasiewicz logic.

## Definition

A function  $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is *piecewise linear* if it is continuous, and there is a finite set  $\{L_1, \dots, L_m\}$  of affine linear functions  $L_i: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $L_i(x) = a_i x + b_i$  for  $a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R}$ , such that, for each  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,  $f$  agrees with some  $L_i$  (depending on  $x$ ). If such a function is such that each  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  can be chosen to be integers, then it is called a  $\mathbb{Z}$ -map.

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A piecewise linear function  $[0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

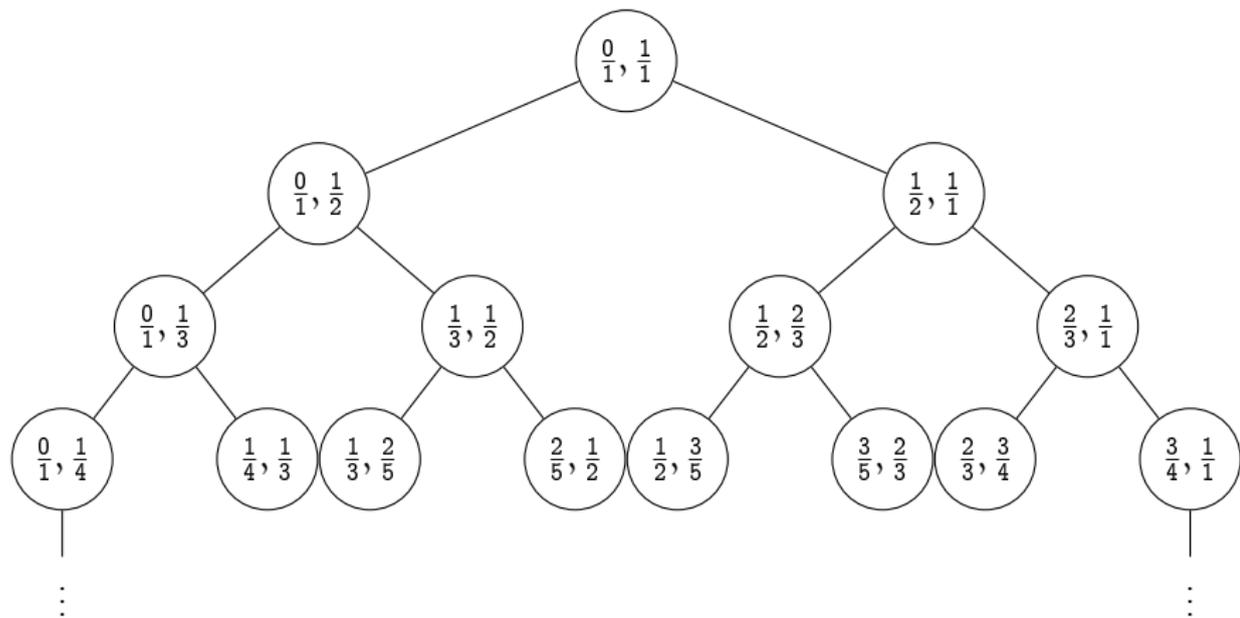
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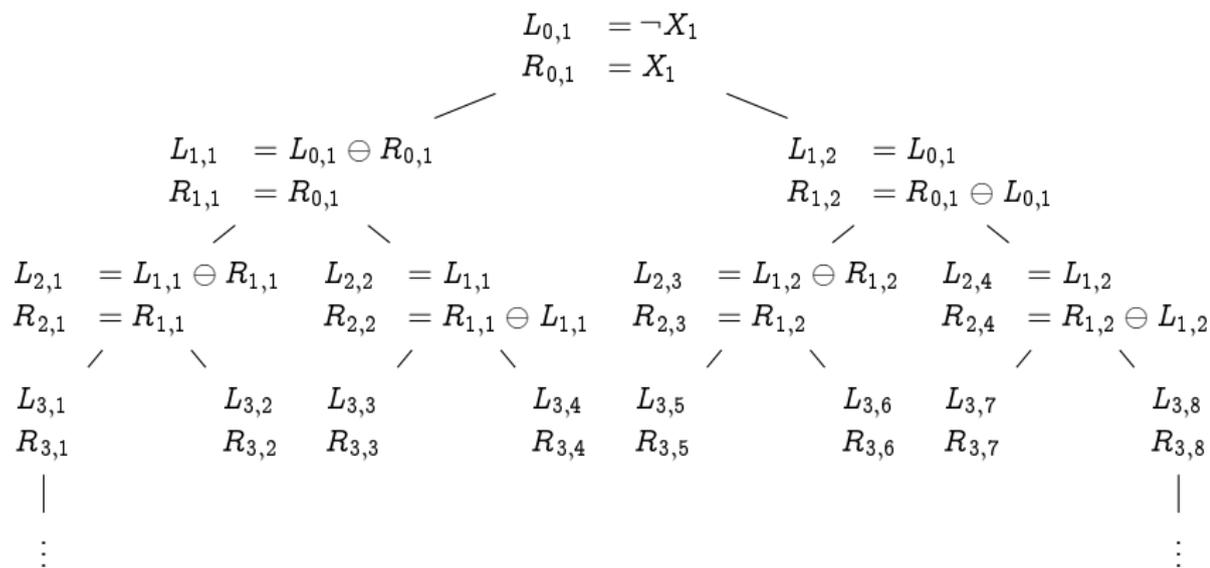
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By appropriate generalisation of the notion of  $\mathbb{Z}$ -maps to functions  $[0, 1]^k \rightarrow [0, 1]$ , the theorem extends to **arbitrary** sets of variables.

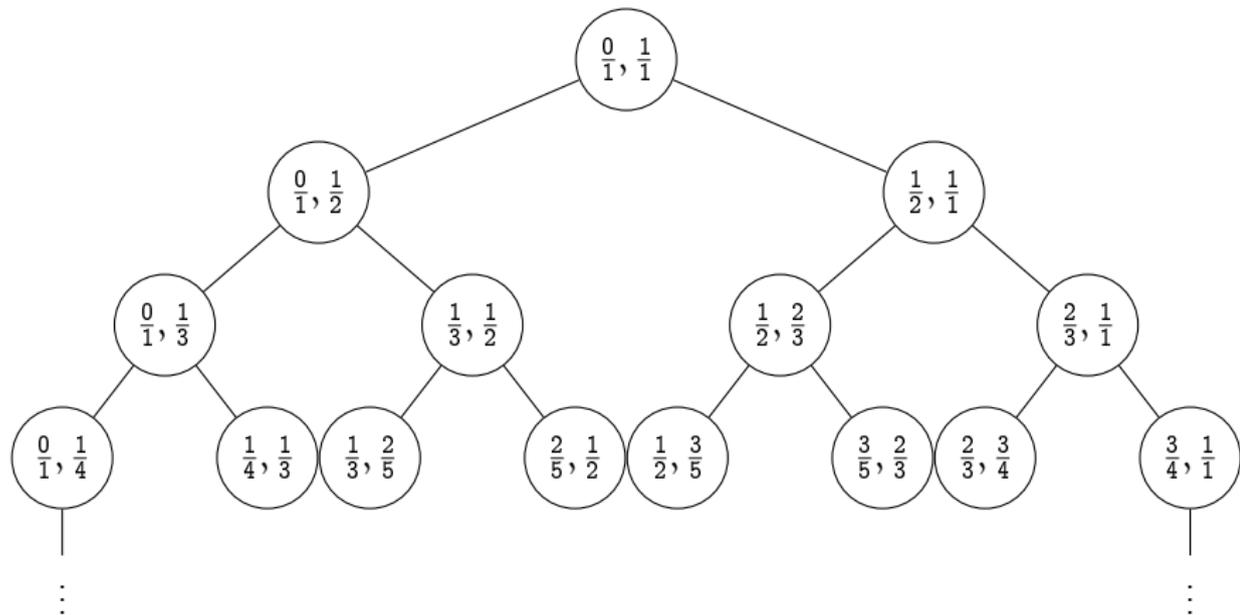


The Farey tree.



The Farey formulæ (related to Schauder bases).

Recall:  $\alpha \ominus \beta = \neg(\alpha \rightarrow \beta)$ ; truncated subtraction.



**Cauchy's Thm.** Every rational number in  $(0, 1)$  occurs, automatically in reduced form, as the mediant of the numbers in some node of the Farey tree exactly once. (*Added in proof.* The mediant of  $\frac{a}{b}$  and  $\frac{c}{d}$  is  $\frac{a+c}{b+d}$ .)



## Where to learn more

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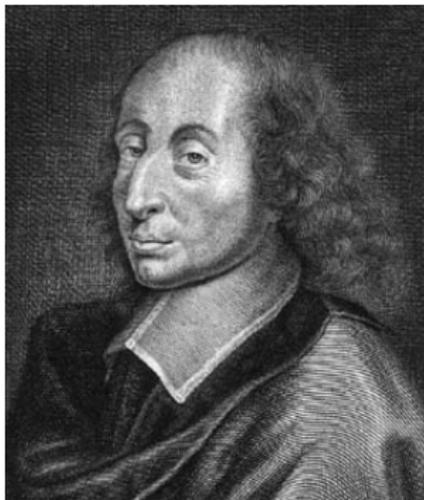
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## Epilogue: Betting on vague propositions, again



Pierre Fermat (1601 – 1665)



Blaise Pascal (1623 – 1662)

Historiographic cliché: Probability theory begins in 1654, with the correspondence between Fermat and Pascal on the *problem of points*, proposed to them by the *Chevalier de Méré* (born Antoine Gombaud).

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ANNÉE 1654.

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LXIX.

FERMAT A PASCAL (').

1654.

(*Œuvres de Pascal*, 1779, IV, p. 41-42.)

MONSIEUR,

Si j'entreprends de faire un point avec un seul dé en huit coups; si nous convenons, après que l'argent est dans le jeu, que je ne jouerai pas le premier coup, il faut, par mon principe, que je tire du jeu  $\frac{1}{8}$  du total pour être désintéressé, à raison dudit premier coup.

Que si encore nous convenons après cela que je ne jouerai pas le second coup, je dois, pour mon indemnité, tirer le 6<sup>me</sup> du restant, qui

## Part of Pascal's reply:

2. Votre méthode est très-sûre et est celle qui m'est la première venue à la pensée dans cette recherche; mais, parce que la peine des combinaisons est excessive, j'en ai trouvé un abrégé et proprement une autre méthode bien plus courte et plus nette, que je voudrois vous pouvoir dire ici en peu de mots: car je voudrois désormais vous ouvrir mon cœur, s'il se pouvoit, tant j'ai de joie de voir notre rencontre. **Je vois bien que la vérité est la même à Toulouse et à Paris.**

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Neither Pascal nor Fermat explicitly bring logic to bear on probability. What does logic have to do with the theory of probability?

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The set  $S$  of all possible outcomes is called the *sample space*. Certain subsets of  $S$  (not necessarily all) are then selected as having special interest for the problem at hand; they form the collection  $\mathcal{E}$  of *events*.

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Thus, returning to Fermat's example, the set consisting of the two sequence of points

1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1    and    6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6

corresponds to an event, because it may be described by a proposition.

There is, however, a second approach to the notion of event that also has a substantial tradition.

It consists in taking **propositions** as the primitive notion, and in defining events as a derived notion.

*An **event** is then whatever may be described by a **proposition**.*

Thus, returning to Fermat's example, the set consisting of the two sequence of points

1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1    and    6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6, 6

corresponds to an event, because it may be described by a proposition. Say,

*"Either one observes, as the outcome of the experiment, the smallest possible point at each throw, or else one observes the largest possible point at each throw."*

Boole on events vs. propositions:

6. Before we proceed to estimate to what extent known methods may be applied to the solution of problems such as the above, it will be advantageous to notice, that there is another form under which all questions in the theory of probabilities may be viewed; and this form consists in substituting for *events* the propositions which assert that those events have occurred, or will occur; and viewing the element of numerical probability as having reference to the *truth* of those *propositions*, not to the oc-

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Keynes on events vs. propositions:

CH. I

FUNDAMENTAL IDEAS

5

4. With the term “event,” which has taken hitherto so important a place in the phraseology of the subject, I shall dispense altogether.<sup>1</sup> Writers on Probability have generally dealt with what they term the “happening” of “events.” In the problems which they first studied this did not involve much departure from common usage. But these expressions are now used in a way which is vague and ambiguous; and it will be more than a verbal improvement to discuss the truth and the probability of *propositions* instead of the occurrence and the probability of *events*.<sup>2</sup>

John Maynard Keynes, *A Treatise on Probability*, p. 5, Cambridge 1920

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To summarise:

*The rôle of logic in the theory of probability is to provide a formal model for the notion of event.*

Let us now turn to probabilities.

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How do we know that these axioms capture our intuitions about probability (if any)?

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Frank P. Ramsey (1903 – 1930)



Bruno de Finetti (1906 - 1985)

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True to her palindromic name, though, Ada also accepts **reverse bets**. That is, she also accepts Blaise's negative stakes  $\sigma_i < 0$ , to the effect that she must hand  $|\sigma_i|\beta(E_i)$  euros to Blaise, with the agreement that  $|\sigma_i|w(E_i)$  euros shall be paid back by Blaise to Ada in the possible world  $w$ .

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Hence, the final balance of Ada's **book**  $\beta: \mathcal{E} \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (\sigma_i \beta(E_i) - \sigma_i w(E_i)) ,$$

where it is understood that money transfers are oriented so that 'positive' means 'Blaise-to-Ada'.

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An assignment of numbers from  $[0, 1]$  to the events in  $\mathcal{E}$  is **coherent** if it is not incoherent.

Now we use the Boole-Keynes idea, and we regard the events in  $\mathcal{E}$  simply as a family of formulæ in classical logic. We can assume without loss of generality that  $\mathcal{E}$  is closed under deduction, i.e. is a theory. Now it makes sense to ask whether an assignment of numbers in  $[0, 1]$  to  $\mathcal{E}$  satisfies Kolmogorov's axioms in the form reviewed above.

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The theorem provides a fundamental operational explanation of Kolmogorov's axioms for finitely additive probabilities.

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The theorem provides a fundamental operational explanation of the axiom for states. It is the beginning of the (nascent) theory of probability of events described by formulæ in a non-classical logic.

Thank you for your attention.