

# Clear Thinking in an Uncertain World: Human Reasoning and its Foundations

## Lecture 2

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But, what is **good thinking**?

- ▶ classical logic (modus ponens, modus tollens, etc.)
- ▶ non-monotonic/default logic
- ▶ closed-world reasoning
- ▶ induction (induction from examples)
- ▶ Abduction (inference to the best explanation)
- ▶ Bayesian inference
- ▶ case-based reasoning/reasoning by analogy
- ▶ fast and frugal heuristics
- ▶ ...

## A Crash Course in Logic

# Classical Logic

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- ▶ *Adjunction*:  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n \vdash P_1 \wedge \dots \wedge P_n$
- ▶ *Noncontradiction*:  $P, \neg P \vdash Q$
- ▶ *Monotonicity 1*:  $P \rightarrow Q \vdash (P \wedge R) \rightarrow Q$
- ▶ *Monotonicity 2*: If  $P \vdash Q$  then  $P, R \vdash Q$

## Reminder: Issues from Lecture 1

- ▶ Cognitive limitations: rationality vs. genius
- ▶ Should we always make logical inferences?: Clutter avoidance
- ▶ Reasoning may lead to revising
- ▶ Foundational problems: Epistemic closure, natural language challenges

# Inference and Reasoning vs. Implication and Consistency

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1. Ann believes that  $P$  is true; Ann believes that  $P \rightarrow Q$  is true;  
So, Ann (ought to, may, should, is rationally required to)  
believes that  $Q$  is true
2.  $P$  is true;  $P \rightarrow Q$  is true; So,  $Q$  is true.

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2.  $P$  is true;  $P \rightarrow Q$  is true; So,  $Q$  is true.

A set of formulas is **inconsistent** if there is no way of making all of the formulas true

1. Ann recognizes that  $\{P, Q, R\}$  are inconsistent
2.  $\{P, Q, R\}$  are inconsistent

# Rationality versus genius

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$A, B, C$  imply  $D$ . Sam believes  $A, B$  and  $C$ . But some does nto realize that  $A, B, C$  imply  $D$ . In fact, it would take a genius to recognize that  $A, B, C \vdash D$ . And Sam, although a rational man, is far from a genius.

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From “It is raining in College Park” to “It is raining in College Park or Lily is at school” is a valid inference. In fact, there are infinitely many such trivial consequences ( $P$ ,  $P \vee Q$ ,  $P \wedge P$ ,  $P \rightarrow P$ ,  $P \vee Q \vee R$ , etc.), but these will just “clutter the mind”.

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Also, if one “looses” the origination of this disjunctive belief, one may be misled to think that there is a special reason to believe Lily is at school or there is a special connection between rain in College Park and Lily being at school.



## Discovering a Contradiction

Sally believes  $A, B, C$  and has just come to realize that  $A, B, C \vdash D$ . Unfortunately, she also believes for very good reasons that  $D$  is false. So she now has reason to stop believing  $A, B$  or  $C$ , rather than a reason to believe  $D$ .

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She concludes that she will become an atheist.

*But although MP gives Ann a reason to believe the conclusion, it does not decide that she will believe it. Instead of believing the conclusion, she may decide to drop her belief in the conditional.*

# Reasoning

“Reasoning is not the conscious rehearsal of argument; it is a process in which antecedent beliefs and intentions are minimally modified, by addition and subtraction, in the interests of explanatory coherence and the satisfaction of intrinsic desires.”  
(G. Harman, pg. 56, “Practical Reasoning”)

## Foundational Problem: Epistemic Closure

*Epistemic Closure EC:* If  $i$  knows that  $P$  and  $i$  knows that  $P$  implies  $Q$ , then  $i$  knows that  $Q$ .

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- (1) The animal I am looking at is a zebra.
- (2) If the animal I am looking at is a zebra, then it is not a mule cleverly disguised to look like a zebra.
- (3) The animal I am looking at is not a mule cleverly disguised to look like a zebra.

S. Luper. *The Epistemic Closure Principle*. Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy:  
<http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/closure-epistemic/>.



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# Ordinary Language Challenges

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$$P \wedge Q \vdash Q \wedge P \quad \text{and} \quad Q \wedge P \vdash P \wedge Q$$

1. John goes drinking and John gets arrested.
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$$P \vee Q, P \not\vdash Q$$

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$$P \rightarrow Q \not\vdash \neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$$

1. If you tutor me in logic, I'll pay you \$50.
2. If you don't tutor me, I won't pay you \$50.

## Ordinary Language Challenges: Gricean Implicature

*He [the speaker] has said that  $p$ ; there is no reason to suppose that he is not observing the maxims, or at least the Cooperative Principle; he could not be doing this unless he thought that  $q$ ; he knows (and knows that I know that he knows) that I can see the supposition that he thinks that  $q$  is required....he intends me to think...that  $q$ ; and so he has implicated  $q$ .*

Cooperative Principle: The speaker intends his contribution to be informative, warranted, relevant and well formed.

H. P. Grice. *Studies in the Way of Words*. Harvard University Press, 1989.

## Domain independence, I

*Secure argument:* Human beings are sensitive to pain. Harry is a human being. So, Harry is sensitive to pain.

*Generalization:*  $X$ 's are  $Y$ .  $A$  is an  $X$ . So  $A$  is  $Y$ .

*Counterexample:* Human beings are evenly distributed over the earth's surface. Harry is a human being. So, Harry is evenly distributed over the earth's surface.

## Domain independence, I

*Secure argument:* There is a fire in my kitchen. My kitchen is in my house. Hence, there is a fire in my house.

*Generalization:*  $X$  is in  $Y$ .  $Y$  is in  $Z$ . So  $X$  is in  $Z$ .

*Counterexample:* There is a pain in my foot. My foot is in my shoe. Hence, there is a pain in my shoe.

## Domain independence, II

All  $A$  are  $B$ .

All  $B$  are  $C$ .

Therefore, all  $A$  are  $C$ .



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“How *not* to think about logical reasoning”

“This *schematic* character of inference patterns is identified with the “domain independence” or “topic neutrality” of logic generally, and many take it to be the principal interest of logic that its law seem independent of subject matter.”

## How to think about logical reasoning

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“In fact, logic is very much domain-independent in the sense that the valid schemata depend on the domain in which one reasons, *with what purpose*.

“We therefore view reasoning as consisting of two stages: first one has to establish the domain about which one reasons and its formal properties (what we will call “reasoning *to* an interpretation”) and only after this initial step has been taken can one’s reasoning be guided by formal laws (what we will call “reasoning *from* an interpretation”).” (pg. 20)

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The set of parameters characterizing a logic can be divided in three subsets:

1. Choice of formal language
2. Choice of a semantics for the formal language
3. Choice of a definition of valid arguments in the language

# Classical Logic “Parameters”

1. *Syntax*: if  $\varphi, \psi$  are sentences, then so are  $\neg\varphi$ ,  $\varphi \wedge \psi$ ,  $\varphi \vee \psi$ , and  $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$
2. *Semantics* (truth-functionality): the truth-value of a sentence is a function of the truth-values of its components only
3. *Semantics* (bivalence): sentences are either true or false, with nothing in-between
4. *consequence*:  $\alpha_1 \dots \alpha_n / \beta$  is valid iff  $\beta$  is true in all models of  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$

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Domains to which classical logic is applicable must satisfy these four assumptions.

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# Non-Truth-Functional Semantics

Intuitionistic logic:

1.  $\varphi \wedge \psi$  means “I have a proof of both  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$ ”
2.  $\varphi \vee \psi$  means “I have a proof of  $\varphi$  or a proof of  $\psi$ ”
3.  $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$  means “I have a construction that transforms a proof of  $\varphi$  into a proof of  $\psi$ ”
4.  $\neg\varphi$  means “Any proof of  $\varphi$  leads to a contradiction”

Clearly,  $\varphi \vee \neg\varphi$  is not valid.

## An Intensional Logic: Deontic Logic

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$O\varphi$  is true provide for  $\varphi$  is true in all *normatively perfect alternatives*.

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Compare:  $p \rightarrow q$  to  $p \rightarrow Oq$ .

## “Common Sense” Reasoning

(1) Bill brought his backpack to class every day of the semester.

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So, [probably] (2) Bill will bring it to the next class.

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(3) Tweety is a bird

So, (4) Tweety flies.

(3.1) Tweety is a penguin.

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$$A \rightarrow B \vdash (A \wedge C) \rightarrow B$$

## Non-Monotonicity

If  $A \vdash B$  holds then  $A, C \vdash B$  also holds.

Conclusions that are reasonable on the basis of specific information can become unreasonable if further information is added. Given the announced schedule for the course, and your previous experience, and that today is Thursday, it is reasonable to conclude that the course will meet in the evening. However upon learning there is an announcement on the website that class is canceled, then it is reasonable to drop this belief. Further, if it is discovered that there was a mistake on the website, then it is reasonable to believe that there will be class.

$A \rightarrow B \vdash (A \wedge C) \rightarrow B$

'If you put sugar in the coffee, then it will taste good' can be true without 'If you put sugar and gasoline in the coffee, then it will taste good' being true.

## Non-monotonic logic: What *should/do* I believe?

Classical consequence relation:  $\varphi \vdash \psi$ :  $\psi$  follows from  $\varphi$  using the rules of logic (there is a derivation of  $\psi$  using propositional logic and  $\varphi$ )

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**Failure on monotonicity:**  $B$ : Tweety is a bird;  $F$ : Tweety flies;  
 $P$ : Tweety is a penguin

$B \vdash F$  but  $B, P \not\vdash F$ .

# Non-monotonic logic

$\varphi \sim \psi$  “If  $\varphi$  then *typically* (*mostly*, etc.)  $\psi$ ”

# Nonmonotonic Reasoning

Left logical equivalence: If  $\vdash \varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$  and  $\varphi \sim \alpha$  then  $\psi \sim \alpha$

Right weakening: If  $\vdash \alpha \rightarrow \beta$  and  $\varphi \sim \alpha$  then  $\varphi \sim \beta$

And: If  $\varphi \sim \alpha$  and  $\varphi \sim \beta$  then  $\varphi \sim (\alpha \wedge \beta)$

Or: If  $\varphi \sim \alpha$  and  $\psi \sim \alpha$  then  $(\varphi \vee \psi) \sim \alpha$



# Monotonicity

**Monotonicity:**  $\varphi \sim \alpha$  then  $\varphi \wedge \psi \sim \alpha$

$C$ : coffee in the cup,  $T$ : the liquid tastes good;  $O$ : oil is in the cup

$C \sim T$  but  $C \wedge O \not\sim T$

But note that  $O \not\sim T$

**Cautious Monotonicity:** If  $\varphi \sim \alpha$  and  $\varphi \sim \beta$  then  $\varphi \wedge \alpha \sim \beta$

**Rational Monotonicity:** If  $\varphi \sim \alpha$  and  $\varphi \not\sim \neg\beta$ , then  $\varphi \wedge \beta \sim \alpha$

## Closed-world reasoning

### *Negation as failure*

Suppose you are interested in whether there are any direct flights from Amsterdam to Cleveland, Ohio.

After searching online at a number of relevant sites (Expedia, Orbitz, KLM, etc.), you do not find any. You conclude that there are *no direct flights between Amsterdam and Cleveland*.

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## Concluding Remarks: Normatives vs. Descriptive

How can/should we incorporate *empirical data* into our *normative* theory of rationality? (reflective equilibrium)

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- ▶ Actual human reasoning falls short of prescriptive standards, so there is room for improvement by suitable education
- ▶ Reasoning rarely happens in real life: we have developed “fast and frugal algorithms” which allow us to take quick decisions which are optimal given constraints of time and energy.

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J. Hintikka. *Inquiry as Inquiry*. Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1999.

Next: More on logic: read Chapter 2 of Stenning and van Lambalgen