

One step is enough

David Ripley
Monash University
davewripley@gmail.com

Abstract

The recent development and exploration of mixed metainferential logics is a breakthrough in our understanding of nontransitive and nonreflexive logics. Moreover, this exploration poses a new challenge to theorists like me, who have appealed to similarities to classical logic in defending the logic ST, since some mixed metainferential logics seem to bear even more similarities to classical logic than ST does. There is a whole ST-based hierarchy, of which ST itself is only the first step, that seems to become more and more classical as each level. I think this seeming is misleading: for certain purposes, anyhow, metainferential hierarchies give us no reason to move on from ST. ST is indeed only the first step on a grand metainferential adventure; but one step is enough. This paper aims to explain and defend that claim. Along the way, I take the opportunity also to develop some formal tools and results for thinking about metainferential logics more generally.

Keywords: metainferences, paradox, nontransitive

The recent development and exploration of mixed metainferential logics (for example in [Barrio et al., 2019, 2020b; Pailos, 2019, 2020; Scambler, 2020]) is a breakthrough in our understanding of nontransitive and nonreflexive logics. Moreover, this exploration poses a new challenge to theorists like me, who have appealed to similarities to classical logic in defending the logic ST (for example in [Ripley, 2015]), since some mixed metainferential logics seem to bear even more similarities to classical logic than ST does. There is a whole ST-based hierarchy, of which ST itself is only the first step, that seems to become more and more classical as each level. I think this seeming is misleading: for certain purposes, anyhow, metainferential hierarchies give us no reason to move on from ST. ST is indeed only the first step on a grand metainferential adventure; but one step is enough. This paper aims to explain and defend that claim. Along the way, I take the opportunity also to develop some formal tools and results for thinking about metainferential logics more generally.

In [section 1](#), I present the logic ST, and give a brief picture of some usual motivations for it. [Section 2](#) lays out a picture of metainferences at all levels, and proves some general results about metainferential logics. Then, [section 3](#) returns to ST, now in metainferential-hierarchy form, and presents the ST hierarchy of [Pailos, 2020]. Finally, [section 4](#) turns to the objection from [Pailos, 2020; Scambler, 2020] and attempts to answer it.

1 ST

1.1 Language

Where not otherwise specified, I'm working with a propositional language \mathcal{L} built on countably many atomic sentences, using the connectives \neg , \wedge , \vee , \top , and \perp , of arities 1, 2, 2, 0, 0 respectively, and intended as negation, conjunction, disjunction, verum, and falsum respectively.¹ For now, I use $\phi, \psi, \theta, \dots$ for arbitrary sentences, and $\Gamma, \Delta, \Sigma, \dots$ for sets of sentences. This is a simple and familiar language, and it is enough for present purposes.

1.2 Models

Models are usual three-valued valuations on the strong Kleene scheme (see for example [Beall and van Fraassen, 2003, Ch. 8; Priest, 2008, Ch. 7]):

Definition 1. The *value algebra* \mathfrak{B} is the set $\{1, .5, 0\}$ equipped with the following operations $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \top, \perp$, of arities 1, 2, 2, 0, 0, respectively:

$$\begin{aligned}\neg x &\text{ is } 1 - x \\ x \wedge y &\text{ is } \min(x, y) \\ x \vee y &\text{ is } \max(x, y) \\ \top &\text{ is } 1 \\ \perp &\text{ is } 0\end{aligned}$$

A *model* is a homomorphism $\mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$. The set of all models is \mathfrak{M} .

I'll also have use for the subset of models that don't use the value .5:

Definition 2. A *2-valued model* is a model \mathfrak{m} such that for every $\phi \in \mathcal{L}$, $\mathfrak{m}(\phi) \in \{1, 0\}$. The set of 2-valued models is \mathfrak{M}_2 .

By combining these definitions, you can see that \mathfrak{M}_2 is the set of ordinary 2-valued Boolean valuations; it's handy to know that these are all in \mathfrak{M} .

1.3 Consequence via counterexamples

We can use these models to specify consequence relations by setting up a counterexample relation. I'll be looking at a few different consequence relations, built from different counterexample relations, all dealing with the same language \mathcal{L} and the sets of models \mathfrak{M} and \mathfrak{M}_2 . So it'll be handy to have some general definitions.

Definition 3. An *inference* $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ is a pair of sets of sentences: *premises* Γ and *conclusions* Δ .² A *consequence relation* is a set of inferences; an inference is *valid according to* a consequence relation iff it is a member of the consequence relation.

¹I think of this language as an algebra, as in [Dunn and Hardegree, 2001, §4.3, 4.4], and do not distinguish between the algebra itself and its carrier set, using the symbol \mathcal{L} for both and trusting in context and the reader's generosity.

²I will use usual sequent-style abbreviations without further comment, so for example $[\Gamma, \Gamma', \phi \succ \cdot]$ is the inference $[\Gamma \cup \Gamma' \cup \{\phi\} \succ \emptyset]$. For discussion of SET-SET and other frameworks, see for example [Humberstone, 2012, §1.21; Shoesmith and Smiley, 1978, Chs. 1, 2].

Note that the definition of ‘consequence relation’ here is very general, imposing no conditions at all on such a set.

Definition 4. A *counterexample relation* is a relation between models and inferences. Given a counterexample relation X , a model \mathfrak{m} , and an inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$, I write $\mathfrak{m}[[X][\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ to mean that X relates \mathfrak{m} to $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$. Given a counterexample relation X , an inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ is *X-valid* (also written $\models^X [\Gamma \succ \Delta]$) iff there is no model \mathfrak{m} such that $\mathfrak{m}[[X][\Gamma \succ \Delta]$.

This much works even for very strange choices of counterexample relation; and much of this paper develops tools for working with arbitrary counterexample relations. But it’s sometimes nice to restrict attention to ‘mixed’ counterexample relations:³

Definition 5. Given $P, C \subseteq \{1, .5, 0\}$, the counterexample relation PC relates a model \mathfrak{m} to an inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ iff $\mathfrak{m}[\Gamma] \subseteq P$ and $\mathfrak{m}[\Delta] \cap C = \emptyset$.⁴

If you are comfortable with the idea of a *designated value*,⁵ you can think of this as a slight generalization: we have a set P of *premise-designated* values and a possibly distinct set C of *conclusion-designated* values. Then we count a model as a counterexample to an inference iff the model premise-designates all the premises of the inference without conclusion-designating any of the conclusions.

I’ll focus on two particular choices for these sets of designated values: the set $S = \{1\}$ and the set $T = \{1, .5\}$.⁶ With just these two sets of values, we get four mixed consequence relations for this language and these models: $\models^{SS}, \models^{TT}, \models^{TS}, \models^{ST}$. The first two of these don’t need the idea of mixed consequence, since they use the same standard of designation for premises and conclusions; these two are better-known as the consequence relations of the logics $K3$ and LP , respectively.⁷ However, \models^{TS} and \models^{ST} really do make use of the flexibility of mixed consequence.

1.4 2-valued counterexamples

Let’s restrict our attention for a moment to 2-valued models. The following [definition 6](#) is used only within this subsection:

³Mixed consequence relations (that is, consequence relations based on mixed counterexample relations) have been studied in many forms. For early sources, see for example [Frankowski, 2004; Humberstone, 1988; Malinowski, 1990] and [Girard, 1987, Ch. 3], which itself points to [Schütte, 1960; Tait, 1966]. There are definite connections to ‘Strawson-entailment’, so-named in [von Fintel, 1999] after [Strawson, 1952, pp. 68–69, 176–177] (see [Sharvit, 2017] for more on Strawson entailment, and see footnote 1 in [Chemla et al., 2017] for more on the connection to mixed consequence). Some more recent applications involve particular attention to theories of vagueness (for example [Cobreros et al., 2012; Smith, 2008, §5.2; Zardini, 2008]) or semantic properties such as truth and validity (for example [Barrio et al., 2020a; Cobreros et al., 2013; Meadows, 2014; Nicolai and Rossi, 2017; Ripley, 2012]). More recently still, there has been an explosion of work on general frameworks for understanding such consequence relations: see [Blasio et al., 2017; Chemla and Égré, 2019a,b; Chemla et al., 2017; French and Ripley, 2019a,b; Wintein, 2016].

⁴By $\mathfrak{m}[\Gamma]$, I mean $\{\mathfrak{m}(\gamma) \mid \gamma \in \Gamma\}$.

⁵as explored for example in [Dunn and Hardegree, 2001, Ch. 7] or [Wójcicki, 1988, Ch. 3]

⁶These letters are for ‘strict’ and ‘tolerant’, and are taken from [Cobreros et al., 2012], where they are used ever so slightly differently.

⁷See again [Beall and van Fraassen, 2003, Ch. 8; Priest, 2008, Ch. 7] for these.

Definition 6. Given a counterexample relation X , an inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ is X -2-valid (also written $\models_2^X [\Gamma \succ \Delta]$) iff there is no 2-valued model \mathbf{m} such that $\mathbf{m} \Vdash X [\Gamma \succ \Delta]$.

Since 2-valued models never use the value .5, the difference between S and T disappears for these models. And so \models_2^{SS} , \models_2^{TT} , \models_2^{TS} , and \models_2^{ST} are all the exact same consequence relation.

The consequence relation they all are is the usual consequence relation of classical propositional logic. This is because 2-valued models are usual Boolean valuations, and a 2-valued counterexample (in any of these four senses) to an inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ is a model that takes all sentences in Γ to the value 1 and all sentences in Δ to the value 0, which is the usual notion of a classical counterexample.

In what follows, it will be useful to be able to appeal to these 2-valued classical counterexamples. But rather than doing so by way of the mixed counterexample relations SS, TT, TS, ST, and in so doing needing to have a special definition of validity, as in [definition 6](#), I will rather introduce a fifth counterexample relation—one that is not a mixed counterexample relation, but is rather just the ordinary notion of a Boolean counterexample.

Definition 7. The counterexample relation CL relates a model \mathbf{m} to an inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ iff: \mathbf{m} is 2-valued, $\mathbf{m}[\Gamma] \subseteq \{1\}$, and $\mathbf{m}[\Delta] \subseteq \{0\}$.

CL is not a mixed counterexample relation: to determine whether a model is a CL counterexample to an inference, we need to know more than just the values the model assigns to sentences that occur in the inference. We need to know in addition whether the model is a 2-valued model, and this involves knowing about the values it assigns to every sentence in \mathcal{L} , not just those sentences that actually occur in the inference.

When a model is indeed a 2-valued model, it is a CL counterexample to an inference iff it is an SS counterexample iff it is a TT counterexample iff it is a TS counterexample iff it is an ST counterexample to that inference. So the CL counterexample relation captures restriction to 2-valued models, and it also captures the agreement of our four mixed counterexample relations over that restricted set of models.

1.5 Upshots

In this subsection, I record a few ideas it'll be handy to know as we go forward.

1.5.1 CL, ST, vagueness, truth

One important thing to note about \models^{ST} is that it is exactly the same consequence relation as \models^{CL} . That is, $\models^{ST} [\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ iff $\models^{CL} [\Gamma \succ \Delta]$. Although ST and CL are two very different counterexample relations, these two counterexample relations determine the same consequence relation.

It is this combination of sameness and difference that underlies applications of ST to paradoxes of vagueness and truth.⁸ Most of this paper leaves these applications to one side, but it's worth briefly introducing them here, to make clearer what some of the motivations are for exploring ST and its relatives.

⁸See for example [[Cobrerros et al., 2012, 2013](#); [Ripley, 2013b](#)].

In formulating logical theories of both vagueness and truth, the strong Kleene models I'm using here, or corresponding models for richer languages, have often proved fruitful.⁹ However, these models are often associated with consequence relations weaker than \models^{CL} ,¹⁰ and this has served as the basis for a number of objections to the resulting theories.¹¹

However, by using ST counterexamples, these objections can be avoided. Theories of vagueness and truth based on strong Kleene models proceed by imposing certain restrictions on these models, corresponding to intuitive constraints such as tolerance in the case of vagueness or transparency in the case of truth. But since \models^{ST} validates every CL-valid inference while taking account of all strong Kleene models, these restricted classes of models only validate *more* inferences; they continue to validate all CL-valid inferences. So the resulting consequence relations for vagueness and truth come out to be *stronger* than \models^{CL} . Any objections to the use of strong Kleene models that are based on invalidating classically-valid inferences do not apply to ST.¹²

1.5.2 Transparent truth and cut

Let's look in just a tiny bit more detail at how this strategy can be used to offer a consequence relation for transparent truth. For this subsection, I'm officially talking about a first-order language with a truth predicate T and a special term $\langle\phi\rangle$ for each formula ϕ , although the details of this don't really matter.¹³ A consequence relation for this language includes *transparent truth* iff ϕ and $T\langle\phi\rangle$ are interchangeable everywhere, even as subformulas of some other formula, without affecting the validity of any inference. A strong Kleene model for this language is a *transparent model* iff ϕ and $T\langle\phi\rangle$ are always assigned the same value by the model. One way to give consequence relations with transparent truth is by restricting attention to transparent models.

Given certain assumptions, in such languages we can often form paradoxical sentences, for example a liar sentence λ that is $\neg T\langle\lambda\rangle$. If we have such a sentence, however, then there can be no transparent 2-valued models.¹⁴ If a model assigns the value 1 to λ , then by transparency it would have to assign 1 to $T\langle\lambda\rangle$ and so 0 to $\neg T\langle\lambda\rangle$, which is just λ again; so this doesn't work. If a model assigns the value 0 to λ , then by transparency it would have to assign 0 to $T\langle\lambda\rangle$ and so 1 to $\neg T\langle\lambda\rangle$, which is just λ again; so this doesn't work either. But if the model is 2-valued, there is no other value for λ to receive. So if we restrict our attention to the set of transparent 2-valued models, we are

⁹For example in [Haack, 1978, Ch. 11; Halbach and Horsten, 2006; Körner, 1966, Ch. III; Kremer, 1988; Priest, 2013; Ripley, 2013c; Scott, 1975; Tappenden, 1993; Tye, 1994].

¹⁰There are three usual candidates: the two here called \models^{SS} and \models^{TT} , and the intersection of these two. See [Blamey, 2002] for in-depth exploration of this intersection (in a different language), and [Chemla and Égré, 2019b] for discussion of intersections of mixed consequence relations more generally.

¹¹For example in [Haack, 1974, Ch. 6], [Keefe, 2000, pp. 103ff], [Terzian, 2015], [Williamson, 1994, p. 109ff].

¹²This is roughly the dual of the central argument of [Ripley, 2013b]. There, I defend classical logic against objections from tolerant vagueness and transparent truth, proceeding proof-theoretically. Here, I'm sketching a way to defend tolerant vagueness and transparent truth against objections from classical logic, proceeding model-theoretically.

¹³There are a number of ways to achieve such naming devices; see [Dittrich, 2020; Kremer, 1988; Ripley, 2012] for three different options that work in this kind of setting.

¹⁴See [Gupta, 1982] for ways to achieve transparent 2-valued models by avoiding such sentences.

restricting our attention to the empty set—and no models means no counterexamples, so every inference comes out valid. This total consequence relation does indeed feature transparent truth, but that’s about the only nice thing you can say about it.

On the other hand, even in the presence of paradoxical sentences of all kinds, there are many transparent models; it’s just that none of them are 2-valued. Indeed, for any model \mathbf{m} at all, there are transparent models that differ from \mathbf{m} only in their handling of the truth predicate.¹⁵ Any mixed consequence relation over these transparent models includes transparent truth. Let’s focus for a moment on the following notion:

Definition 8. A model is an STT counterexample to an inference iff: it is transparent and it is an ST counterexample to that inference.

Since all STT counterexamples to an inference are also ST counterexamples to that inference, \models^{STT} validates every inference that \models^{ST} does. That is, \models^{STT} validates every classically-valid inference.¹⁶ However, as it is built on transparent models, \models^{STT} also includes a transparent truth predicate, even in the presence of paradoxical sentences of all kinds. So \models^{STT} occupies an interesting position among logical approaches to truth: it is nonclassical enough in its models to achieve transparency, but it does this without invalidating any classically valid inferences.

But the pressure generated by the paradoxes is always vented somewhere. In this case, it’s here: \models^{STT} is not closed under the rule of cut. That is, there are Γ, Δ , and ϕ with $\models^{\text{STT}} [\Gamma \succ \Delta, \phi]$ and $\models^{\text{STT}} [\phi, \Gamma \succ \Delta]$, but with $\not\models^{\text{STT}} [\Gamma \succ \Delta]$. In particular, let λ be a liar sentence as above, and let $\Gamma = \Delta = \emptyset$. As we saw, λ must receive the value .5 in any transparent model. So there is no STT counterexample to either $[\succ \lambda]$ or $[\lambda \succ]$, and thus $\models^{\text{STT}} [\succ \lambda]$ and $\models^{\text{STT}} [\lambda \succ]$. But every transparent model is an STT counterexample to $[\succ]$; and as there are such models, $\not\models^{\text{STT}} [\succ]$.

How can \models^{STT} maintain the validity of all classically valid inferences while not being closed under such a classical-seeming principle as cut? Well, because instances of cut are not inferences. They are a different kind of thing: metainferences. The failure of \models^{STT} to be closed under cut is one motivation, then, for studying metainferences.

2 Higher levels

For this section, you can forget entirely about the details of our language \mathcal{L} and our models \mathfrak{M} . I will lay out one particular way of thinking of metainferences, metametainferences, and so on, but I will do this assuming only that we have some set of sentences and some set of models. In the next section, we’ll have use again for the propositional language \mathcal{L} and the strong Kleene models \mathfrak{M} , but there is a bunch of structure worth seeing that does not depend at all on which language or which models we have in mind,

¹⁵For demonstration that such models exist, see for example [Kripke, 1975; Martin and Woodruff, 1976; Scott, 1975], all of which demonstrate this fact in similar ways. [Scott, 1975, p. 4] includes an interesting historical paragraph (although frustratingly without citations), concluding: “The problem of priority is not very acute: Fitch started in the mid-thirties and gets the main credit”. Other useful discussions include [Field, 2008, Chs. 3, 4, 16; Leitgeb, 1999; Visser, 1984]. Note also [Brady, 1971; Skolem, 1960, 1963], which are closely related.

¹⁶Above, I pointed out that \models^{ST} matches \models^{CL} in our propositional language; that remains true in this first-order language. See for example [Ripley, 2012, 2013a].

and that structure is the topic of this section. This material follows [Barrio et al., 2020b; Pailos, 2020; Scambler, 2020] in many places. But I hope the extra generality provides a useful perspective.¹⁷

2.1 Metaⁿinferences, metaⁿcounterexamples, metaⁿconsequence

The *levels* are $\ell = \{-1\} \cup \mathbb{N}$; throughout, variables i, j, k, m, n range over levels. From here forward, I will use ϕ, ψ, \dots for minferences of all levels, and Γ, Δ, \dots for sets of minferences. (That means I'll be using Γ, Δ, \dots for metaⁿconsequence relations and full consequence relations as well as for the components of minferences, since sets of minferences play both roles.)

Definition 9. A meta⁻¹inference is a sentence. A metaⁿ⁺¹inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ is a pair of sets of metaⁿinferences: *premise metaⁿinferences* Γ and *conclusion metaⁿinferences* Δ . \mathbf{M}_n is the set of all metaⁿinferences, and \mathbf{M} is $\bigcup_{n \in \ell} \mathbf{M}_n$. The members of \mathbf{M} are the *minferences*.¹⁸

Definition 9 has the consequence that a meta⁰inference is an inference.¹⁹ For examples at higher levels, $[[\succ \phi] \succ [\phi \succ \phi, \psi], [\psi \succ \psi]]$ is a meta¹inference (with one premise inference and two conclusion inferences),

$$[[[\succ \phi] \succ [\phi \succ \phi, \psi], [\psi \succ \psi]], [[\psi \succ \psi], [\phi \succ] \succ [\succ \psi]]] \succ [[\phi, \psi \succ \phi, \psi] \succ [\phi \succ \psi]]$$

is a meta²inference (with two premise meta¹inferences and one conclusion meta¹inference), and so on. That last example is awful to parse, I know. It wasn't that easy to type, either. Fortunately, nothing in this paper is actually going to require you to parse things like that, so we're ok.

Definition 10. A metaⁿconsequence relation is a subset of \mathbf{M}_n , and a *full consequence relation* is a subset of \mathbf{M} . Given a full consequence relation Σ and a level n , the metaⁿconsequence relation $\Sigma(n)$ is $\Sigma \cap \mathbf{M}_n$. All of these are *consequence relations*.

Definition 11. A metaⁿcounterexample relation is a relation between models and \mathbf{M}_n . A *full counterexample relation* is a relation between models and \mathbf{M} . Given a full counterexample relation X and a level n , the metaⁿcounterexample relation $X(n)$ is the restriction of X in its codomain to \mathbf{M}_n .²⁰ All of these are *counterexample relations*. Given

¹⁷This section consists, largely unavoidably I'm afraid, of a flurry of definitions and very simple proofs of facts interrelating them. There is as yet no standard way of approaching this material, so a lot still has to be done from scratch.

¹⁸'Metainference' appears to be a relatively settled name for what I'm here calling 'meta¹inferences', so I needed a different name for the general collection. Note also that this definition joins [Scambler, 2020] in extending the SET-SET framework to all levels, in contrast with [Barrio et al., 2020b; Pailos, 2020], which restrict their attention to metaⁿ⁺¹inferences with a single conclusion metaⁿinference when $n \geq 0$.

¹⁹Even the small existing literature here is already not uniform in its level numbering. My level numbering here agrees with [Pailos, 2020], and differs from [Barrio et al., 2020b; Scambler, 2020]. The numbering I'm using has the nice consequence that meta¹inferences are what are elsewhere called 'metainferences', meta²inferences are 'metametainferences', etc.

²⁰That is, I will treat a full counterexample relation indifferently as on the one hand a relation between models and \mathbf{M} and on the other a function with *dependent type* $(n : \ell) \rightarrow \mathbf{M}_n$. For more on dependent types, see for example [Martin-Löf, 1984; Weirich, 2014].

a counterexample relation X , a model \mathbf{m} , and a minference μ , I write $\mathbf{m} \llbracket X \rrbracket \mu$ to mean that X relates \mathbf{m} to μ .

It's important to keep [definitions 10](#) and [11](#) clearly distinguished.²¹ This is because much of the work to be done focuses on counterexample relations, but the applications to be made of this work involve mainly consequence relations. The ideas are not totally separate, however; they do relate to each other in a useful way. Given a counterexample relation and a collection of models, we can determine a consequence relation. Since I'm holding our collection of models fixed, we can talk simply of the consequence relation determined by a given counterexample relation:

Definition 12. Given a meta ^{n} counterexample relation X , the meta ^{n} consequence relation $C(X)$ is the set $\{\mu \in \mathbf{M}_n \mid \text{there is no model } \mathbf{m} \text{ with } \mathbf{m} \llbracket X \rrbracket \mu\}$. Given a full counterexample relation X , the full consequence relation $C(X)$ is the set $\{\mu \in \mathbf{M} \mid \text{there is no model } \mathbf{m} \text{ with } \mathbf{m} \llbracket X \rrbracket \mu\} = \bigcup_{n \in \mathcal{L}} C(X(n))$.

This determination is not invertible. Multiple distinct meta ^{n} counterexample relations can determine the same meta ^{n} consequence relation, and multiple distinct full counterexample relations can determine the same full consequence relation. (We've already met an example of the first sort: ST and CL are distinct meta⁰counterexample relations, and as we've already seen, $C(\text{ST}) = C(\text{CL})$. Later, we will come to the best-known example of the second sort.) This is one reason it is important to stay focussed mainly on counterexample relations rather than consequence relations. Consequence relations simply are not carrying enough information on their own; the extra fineness of grain provided by counterexample relations plays an important role.

2.2 Lifting and lowering

It will be useful to explore relations between levels. The following operations of *lifting* and *lowering* on counterexample relations come in for heavy use:

Definition 13 (Lifting). Given a meta ^{n} counterexample relation X , its lifting $\uparrow X$ is the meta ^{$n+1$} counterexample relation such that for any model \mathbf{m} and any meta ^{$n+1$} inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$, we have $\mathbf{m} \llbracket \uparrow X \rrbracket [\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ iff: $\mathbf{m} \llbracket X \rrbracket \delta$ for all $\delta \in \Delta$ but there is no $\gamma \in \Gamma$ with $\mathbf{m} \llbracket X \rrbracket \gamma$.

Definition 14 (Lowering). Given a meta ^{$n+1$} counterexample relation X , its lowering $\downarrow X$ is the meta ^{n} counterexample relation such that for any model \mathbf{m} and any meta ^{$n-1$} inference μ , we have $\mathbf{m} \llbracket \downarrow X \rrbracket \mu$ iff $\mathbf{m} \llbracket X \rrbracket [\succ \mu]$.

We also have that lowering is a retraction (aka a left inverse) of lifting:

Fact 15. For any meta ^{n} counterexample relation X , we have $X = \downarrow \uparrow X$.

²¹[[Pailos, 2020](#)] speaks of 'consequence relations', but I'm not entirely sure in what sense. Full counterexample relations correspond most directly to [[Scambler, 2020](#)]'s 'logics'. (My level numbering, however, agrees with [[Pailos, 2020](#)]'s, and differs from [[Scambler, 2020](#)]'s by one: in [[Scambler, 2020](#)], sentences are at level 0, where as here, they are at -1 .)

Proof. For any model \mathbf{m} and meta^{*n*}inference μ , we have $\mathbf{m} \llbracket \downarrow \uparrow \mathbf{X} \rrbracket \mu$ iff $\mathbf{m} \llbracket \uparrow \mathbf{X} \rrbracket [\succ \mu]$. This obtains iff $\mathbf{m} \llbracket \mathbf{X} \rrbracket \mu$ but there is no $\gamma \in \emptyset$ with $\mathbf{m} \llbracket \mathbf{X} \rrbracket \gamma$, which is to say it obtains iff $\mathbf{m} \llbracket \mathbf{X} \rrbracket \mu$. \square

However, the lowering operation is not injective, and so it has no full inverse; in particular, it is not always the case that $\uparrow \downarrow \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}$. For example, consider ST. \downarrow ST relates a model \mathbf{m} to a meta⁻¹inference (which is to say a sentence) ϕ iff ST relates that model to $[\succ \phi]$; this holds iff $\mathbf{m}(\phi) = 0$. And so $\uparrow \downarrow$ ST relates a model \mathbf{m} to a meta⁰inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ iff $\mathbf{m}(\delta) = 0$ for all $\delta \in \Delta$ and $\mathbf{m}(\gamma) \neq 0$ for all $\gamma \in \Gamma$. This is not ST but TT.²²

2.2.1 Coherence

With these notions of lifting and lowering in hand, we can ask how the different levels of a full counterexample relation relate to each other. Two ideas will be needed: *downward coherence* and *n-upward coherence*.

Definition 16. A full counterexample relation \mathbf{X} is *downward coherent* iff for all levels n , $\mathbf{X}(n) = \downarrow \mathbf{X}(n+1)$.²³

Definition 17. A full counterexample relation \mathbf{X} is *n-upward coherent* iff for all levels $m \geq n$, $\mathbf{X}(m+1) = \uparrow \mathbf{X}(m)$.

That is, a full counterexample relation is downward coherent iff whenever we consider its restriction to two adjacent levels, the lower level is the lowering of the upper one. And it is *n*-upward coherent iff whenever we consider its restriction to two adjacent levels of at least level n , the upper level is the lift of the lower one. The reason for the n in the notion of *n*-upward coherence, and its absence in the notion of downward coherence, is just that the particular full counterexample relations to be considered here are all downward coherent, but many are only *n*-upward coherent for certain n . (Some aren't *n*-upward coherent for any n .) But more on that when we get to it.

2.2.2 Determining full counterexample relations

By [definition 11](#), any full counterexample relation determines a meta^{*n*}counterexample relation immediately, by restriction. With lifting and lowering in hand, we can go the other way, taking any meta^{*n*}counterexample relation to determine a full counterexample relation in a natural way as well:²⁴

Definition 18. For $\circ \in \{\uparrow, \downarrow\}$, let $\circ^0 \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}$, and let $\circ^{i+1} \mathbf{X} = \circ^i \circ \mathbf{X}$. Then a meta^{*n*}counterexample relation \mathbf{X} *determines* the full counterexample relation $\hat{\mathbf{X}}$ as follows:

²²Indeed, in general for a mixed counterexample relation PC, we have $\uparrow \downarrow \text{PC} = \text{CC}$, for the same reason. For the generalization of this to all levels, see [fact 24](#).

²³[[Scambler, 2020](#), pp. 359–361] discusses ‘the Eqs. 2–3 equivalence’, which is closely related. But there is a difference: the Eqs. 2–3 equivalence applies to full consequence relations rather than full counterexample relations, and while a downward coherent full counterexample relation always determines a full consequence relation obeying the Eqs. 2–3 equivalence, there are non-downward coherent full counterexample relations that do so as well.

²⁴Compare [[Scambler, 2020](#), Defn. 16], which is less general but aimed at what I take to be a similar idea.

- for $k \geq n$, $\widehat{X}(k) = \uparrow^{k-n} X$, and
- for $k \leq n$, $\widehat{X}(k) = \downarrow^{n-k} X$.²⁵

Fact 19. Any full counterexample relation determined by a metaⁿ counterexample relation is downward coherent.

Proof. Take a \widehat{X} determined by some metaⁿ counterexample relation X . We need to show that for any m , $\widehat{X}(m) = \downarrow(\widehat{X}(m+1))$. There are two cases:

- $m \geq n$: In this case, $\widehat{X}(m) = \uparrow^{m-n} X$. By [fact 15](#), $\uparrow^{m-n} X = \downarrow \uparrow^{m-n} X$. And $\downarrow \uparrow^{m-n} X = \downarrow \uparrow^{(m+1)-n} X = \downarrow \widehat{X}(m+1)$.
- $m < n$: In this case, $\widehat{X}(m) = \downarrow^{n-m} X$. Since $n - m \geq 1$, this is $\downarrow \downarrow^{n-(m+1)} X$. And $\downarrow \downarrow^{n-(m+1)} X = \downarrow \widehat{X}(m+1)$.

□

Fact 20. Any full counterexample relation determined by a metaⁿ counterexample relation is n -upward coherent.

Proof. Take a full counterexample relation \widehat{X} determined by a metaⁿ counterexample relation X . We need to show that for any $m \geq n$, $\widehat{X}(m+1) = \uparrow(\widehat{X}(m))$. We have $\widehat{X}(m+1) = \uparrow^{(m+1)-n} X = \uparrow \uparrow^{m-n} X = \uparrow \widehat{X}(m)$. □

Fact 21. For any n , if a full counterexample relation X is both downward coherent and n -upward coherent, then it is determined by its n th layer $X(n)$.

Proof. We need to show for all m that $X(m) = [X(n)](m)$. There are two cases:

- $m \geq n$: In this case, $[X(n)](m) = \uparrow^{m-n}(X(n))$. Since X is n -upward coherent, this is $X(m)$.
- $m < n$: In this case, $[X(n)](m) = \downarrow^{n-m}(X(n))$. Since X is downward coherent, this is $X(m)$.

□

Corollary 22. A full counterexample relation is determined by its n th layer iff it is downward coherent and n -upward coherent.

Proof. Summing up [facts 19, 20](#) and [21](#). □

Let a full counterexample relation be *principal* iff it is determined by some metaⁿ counterexample relation, for some n . Then I will only directly consider two non-principal full counterexample relation in this paper: what I will later introduce as ST_ω and TS_ω . All other full counterexample relations to be considered here are principal, and so downward coherent and n -upward coherent, at least for some n .

Note that a meta⁰ counterexample relation X , on its own, says nothing at all about validity of metaⁿ inferences for $n \neq 0$. Despite this, there is a tendency to move quickly

²⁵These clauses overlap when $k = n$, but in this case they also agree, so no harm done.

from X to \hat{X} , at least for some purposes. For example, [Scambler, 2020, p. 360, notation changed] says, “[A]bsent any other reasons for suspicion one should probably take \hat{X} to be what someone has in mind if they only specify X ”. I don’t think this tendency is warranted. Most of the time, when someone has specified a meta^0 counterexample relation (which is to say an ordinary counterexample relation), they do not have the world of all higher inferences, full counterexample relations, etc, in mind at all. They are often just focussed on validity for meta^0 inferences (which is to say inferences). In what follows, I will look at particular meta^n counterexample relations X in part via the full counterexample relations \hat{X} they determine, and I’ll specify particular principal full counterexample relations by meta^n counterexample relations that determine them. But I’ll still try to be careful about the distinction.

2.2.3 Climbing by slashing

The lift operation \uparrow determines a meta^{n+1} counterexample relation from a meta^n counterexample relation by applying that meta^n counterexample relation uniformly to premise meta^n inferences and conclusion meta^n inferences. But, corresponding to [definition 5](#), we can also determine a meta^{n+1} counterexample relation from two possibly distinct meta^n counterexample relations, one for premise meta^n inferences and the other for conclusion meta^n inferences:

Definition 23. Given meta^n counterexample relations P and C , the meta^{n+1} counterexample relation P/C is determined as follows: for any model \mathbf{m} and meta^{n+1} inference $[\Gamma \succ \Delta]$, we have $\mathbf{m} \Vdash P/C \Vdash [\Gamma \succ \Delta]$ iff: for all $\delta \in \Delta$ we have $\mathbf{m} \Vdash C \Vdash \delta$ and there is no $\gamma \in \Gamma$ with $\mathbf{m} \Vdash P \Vdash \gamma$.

Fact 24. For any meta^n counterexample relations X, P, C , we have $\uparrow X = X/X$, and $\downarrow(P/C) = C$.

Proof. Unraveling [definitions 13, 14](#) and [23](#). □

2.3 Moving to consequence relations

While some of the work to follow involves only counterexample relations, some also involves the consequence relations they determine, and it’s useful to have a few tools here as well.

2.3.1 Lowering consequence relations

Lowering does not require the fine grain of counterexample relations; we can lower consequence relations directly, in a way that agrees with lowering for counterexample relations.

Definition 25. Given a meta^{n+1} consequence relation Σ , let $\downarrow \Sigma$ be the meta^n consequence relation $\{\mu \in \mathbf{M}_n \mid [\succ \mu] \in \Sigma\}$.

Fact 26. For any meta^{n+1} counterexample relation X and meta^n inference μ , we have $C(\downarrow X) = \downarrow C(X)$.

Proof. Combining [definitions 12, 14](#) and [25](#). □

However, the same is not possible for lifting. This is because there can be metaⁿcounterexample relations X and Y with $C(X) = C(Y)$ but $C(\uparrow X) \neq C(\uparrow Y)$. Indeed, we have already met such: $C(ST) = C(CL)$, but $C(\uparrow ST) \neq C(\uparrow CL)$.²⁶ So there cannot be any operation \uparrow on consequence relations such that in general $\uparrow C(X) = C(\uparrow X)$. Lifting depends on information carried by a counterexample relation that is lost in the move to the consequence relation it determines.

2.3.2 Agreement

I'll be occupied in what follows with the situation where two distinct full counterexample relations determine the same metaⁿconsequence relation, or when they determine the same full consequence relation.

Definition 27. Full counterexample relations X, Y *agree at level n* (written $X \approx_n Y$) iff $C(X(n)) = C(Y(n))$. They *agree fully* (written $X \approx Y$) iff $C(X) = C(Y)$.

Fact 28. If X and Y are downward coherent and $X \approx_n Y$, then $X \approx_m Y$ for all $m \leq n$.

Proof. It suffices to show that $X \approx_{n-1} Y$, assuming $n \geq 0$. Since both are downward coherent, $X(n-1) = \downarrow X(n)$ and $Y(n-1) = \downarrow Y(n)$. So $C(X(n-1)) = C(\downarrow X(n))$, which by [fact 26](#) is $\downarrow C(X(n))$, and similarly $C(Y(n-1)) = \downarrow C(Y(n))$. As $C(X(n)) = C(Y(n))$, then $C(X(n-1)) = C(Y(n-1))$. □

So as long as we're dealing with downward coherent counterexample relations, agreement *at level n* suffices for agreement *up to and including level n* .

There is no corresponding fact involving n -upward coherence. Note the involvement of [fact 26](#) in the above proof, and recall that this has no analog for lifting instead of lowering. Indeed, \widehat{ST} and \widehat{CL} are 0-upward coherent (since determined by meta⁰counterexample relations), and $\widehat{ST} \approx_0 \widehat{CL}$, but $\widehat{ST} \not\approx_1 \widehat{CL}$.²⁷

3 The ST_n and TS_n hierarchies

Enough generalities. Let's return now to our propositional language \mathcal{L} and strong Kleene models \mathfrak{M} , and turn to the central idea of [[Pailos, 2020](#); [Scambler, 2020](#)]: the ST_n and TS_n hierarchies of counterexample relations. This proceeds by mixing at every level.

Definition 29.

- ST_{-1} relates a model \mathfrak{m} to a meta⁻¹inference (sentence) ϕ iff $\mathfrak{m}(\phi) = 0$
- TS_{-1} relates a model \mathfrak{m} to a meta⁻¹inference (sentence) ϕ iff $\mathfrak{m}(\phi) \neq 1$
- ST_{n+1} is TS_n/ST_n

²⁶This follows from [facts 31](#) and [42](#), to come.

²⁷As in [footnote 26](#), this follows from [facts 31](#) and [42](#).

◦ TS_{n+1} is ST_n/TS_n

This captures ST and TS, since $ST_0 = ST$ and $TS_0 = TS$, but it goes much farther, giving ST-like and TS-like metaⁿcounterexample relations for every n .²⁸

3.1 Exploring both hierarchies

Here, I present some fact about these hierarchies.

First, note that lowering brings us back down them:

Fact 30. $ST_n = \downarrow ST_{n+1}$ and $TS_n = \downarrow TS_{n+1}$.

Proof. By [fact 24](#). □

But lifting does not bring us up; it does not even bring us to a place that agrees on consequence:

Fact 31. For all n , $\widehat{ST}_n \not\approx_{n+1} \widehat{ST}_{n+1}$ and $\widehat{TS}_n \not\approx_{n+1} \widehat{TS}_{n+1}$.²⁹

Proof. By [fact 24](#), $\uparrow ST_n = ST_n/ST_n$ and $\uparrow TS_n = TS_n/TS_n$. So for the first claim, it suffices to give a metaⁿ⁺¹inference in $C(TS_n/ST_n(n+1))$ but not in $C(ST_n/ST_n(n+1))$; and for the second, it suffices to give a metaⁿ⁺¹inference in $C(TS_n/TS_n(n+1))$ but not in $C(ST_n/TS_n(n+1))$.

Let ϕ be an atomic sentence. Let $\phi_{-1} = \phi$ and $\phi_{k+1} = [\succ\phi_k]$. Let $(\neg\phi)_{-1} = \neg\phi$ and $(\neg\phi)_{k+1} = [\succ(\neg\phi)_k]$. Note by induction on k that for all k : every model is a TS_k meta^kcounterexample to at least one of $\phi_k, (\neg\phi)_k$, and any model \mathbf{m} with $\mathbf{m}(\phi) = .5$ is not an ST_k meta^kcounterexample to either of $\phi_k, (\neg\phi)_k$. Since ϕ is atomic, there are plenty of such models.

Now let $\mu_{k+1} = [\phi_k, (\neg\phi)_k \succ]$; by the above, μ_{k+1} is in both $C(TS_n/ST_n(n+1))$ and $C(TS_n/TS_n(n+1))$, but not in either of $C(ST_n/ST_n(n+1))$ or $C(ST_n/TS_n(n+1))$. □

This in turn assures us that all levels of these hierarchies are distinct:

Corollary 32. if $i < j$ and $i < k$, then $\widehat{ST}_i \not\approx_j \widehat{ST}_k$ and $\widehat{TS}_i \not\approx_j \widehat{TS}_k$.

Proof. Suppose $\widehat{ST}_i \approx_j \widehat{ST}_k$. By [fact 19](#) both \widehat{ST}_i and \widehat{ST}_k are downward coherent, and so by [fact 28](#), $\widehat{ST}_i \approx_{i+1} \widehat{ST}_k$. By [fact 24](#), $\widehat{ST}_k(i+1) = ST_{i+1}$, so $\widehat{ST}_i \approx_{i+1} \widehat{ST}_{i+1}$. This contradicts [fact 31](#). The same argument works on the TS side of the hierarchy. □

In addition to the members of these hierarchies, we can use them to specify two additional full counterexample relations.

Definition 33. ST_ω is the full counterexample relation such that $ST_\omega(n) = ST_n$. TS_ω is the full counterexample relation such that $TS_\omega(n) = TS_n$.

²⁸[[Scambler, 2020](#)] names the ST_n hierarchy after T, and the TS_n hierarchy after S, with some justice. I don't do that here mainly to try to limit the potential confusion from the fact that my level numbering is different. So each of my ST_n s is [[Scambler, 2020](#)]'s T_{n+1} , which in turn corresponds to [[Pailos, 2020](#)]'s CM_n .

²⁹See also [[Pailos, 2020](#), Thm. 5.5] and [[Scambler, 2020](#), Lemma 22].

Unlike all the other full counterexample relations in this paper, these two full counterexample relations are *not* principal; they are not determined by any metaⁿcounterexample relation, for any n . If they were, by [fact 20](#), they would be n -upward coherent, but they are not:

Fact 34. ST_ω and TS_ω are downward coherent, and they are not n -upward coherent for any n .

Proof. Downward coherence is from [fact 24](#) and [definition 29](#). To see that they are not n -upward coherent, choose any n and suppose ST_ω to be n -upward coherent. This implies that $\uparrow ST_n = ST_{n+1}$, which contradicts [fact 31](#). \square

To explore these hierarchies more fully, I'll use the following ordering on strong Kleene models:

Definition 35. Let \sqsubseteq be the smallest partial order on $\{1, .5, 0\}$ such that $.5 \sqsubseteq 1$ and $.5 \sqsubseteq 0$. For models \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{m}' , let $\mathbf{m} \sqsubseteq \mathbf{m}'$ iff for all sentences ϕ , we have $\mathbf{m}(\phi) \sqsubseteq \mathbf{m}'(\phi)$.

Fact 36. If $\mathbf{m}(\phi) \sqsubseteq \mathbf{m}'(\phi)$ for all atomic sentences ϕ , then $\mathbf{m} \sqsubseteq \mathbf{m}'$.

Proof. By induction on sentence formation, noting that all connectives are monotonic wrt \sqsubseteq ; that is, for any $u, u', v, v' \in \{1, .5, 0\}$:

- if $u \sqsubseteq u'$, then $\neg u \sqsubseteq \neg u'$;
- if $u \sqsubseteq u'$ and $v \sqsubseteq v'$, then $u \wedge v \sqsubseteq u' \wedge v'$; and
- the same goes, mutatis mutandis, for \vee, \top, \perp .

\square

Fact 37. If $\mathbf{m} \sqsubseteq \mathbf{m}'$, then: if \mathbf{m} is an ST_n metaⁿcounterexample to a metaⁿinference μ , then so is \mathbf{m}' ; and if \mathbf{m}' is a TS_n metaⁿcounterexample to a metaⁿinference μ , then so is \mathbf{m} .³⁰

Proof. By induction on n . \square

Corollary 38. If $\mathbf{m} \sqsubseteq \mathbf{m}'$, then: if \mathbf{m} is an ST_ω counterexample to a minference μ , then so is \mathbf{m}' ; and if \mathbf{m}' is a TS_ω counterexample to a minference μ , then so is \mathbf{m} .

Finally, note the relation to CL and 2-valued models. We know that a 2-valued model is a CL meta⁰counterexample to a meta⁰inference μ iff it is an ST meta⁰counterexample to μ iff it is a TS meta⁰counterexample to μ . This relationship extends to all levels:

Fact 39. Take any 2-valued model \mathbf{m} and any metaⁿinference μ . Then $\mathbf{m} \llbracket \widehat{CL}(n) \rrbracket \mu$ iff $\mathbf{m} \llbracket ST_n \rrbracket \mu$ iff $\mathbf{m} \llbracket TS_n \rrbracket \mu$.

Proof. Induction on n , noting that $\widehat{CL}(n+1) = \widehat{CL}(n)/\widehat{CL}(n)$. \square

³⁰Compare [\[French and Ripley, 2019b, Fact 1\]](#), [\[Scambler, 2020, Lemma 20\]](#).

3.2 The TS hierarchy

I won't linger on the TS hierarchy, except to point out one striking thing about it: as we climb the hierarchy, a single model grows in importance for determining consequence. And at the limit TS_ω , we can forget about all other models altogether.

Fact 40. *Let $\mathbf{m}_{.5}$ be the model such that $\mathbf{m}_{.5}(\phi) = .5$ for every atomic sentence ϕ . If \mathbf{m} is a TS_n metaⁿcounterexample to a metaⁿinference μ , then $\mathbf{m}_{.5}$ is as well. If \mathbf{m} is a TS_ω counterexample to a minference μ , then $\mathbf{m}_{.5}$ is as well.*

Proof. By [fact 36](#), $\mathbf{m}_{.5} \sqsubseteq \mathbf{m}$. The result follows from this by [fact 37](#). □

Corollary 41. *For any $m \leq n$, a meta^minference is \widehat{TS}_n valid iff the single model $\mathbf{m}_{.5}$ is not a \widehat{TS}_n counterexample to it. For any m , a meta^minference is TS_ω valid iff $\mathbf{m}_{.5}$ is not a TS_ω counterexample to it.*

3.3 The ST hierarchy

Here, I look in particular at the ST_n s and ST_ω , drawing out facts that apply only on this side of the hierarchy.

Fact 42 ([\[Scambler, 2020, Lemma 21\]](#)). *For any n : $\widehat{ST}_n \approx_n \widehat{CL}$*

Proof. We need to show that $C(ST_n) = C(\widehat{CL}(n))$.

LTR: Any $\widehat{CL}(n)$ metaⁿcounterexample to a metaⁿinference is also an ST_n metaⁿcounterexample to it, by [fact 39](#).

RTL: Take any ST_n metaⁿcounterexample \mathbf{m} to a metaⁿinference. Consider any model \mathbf{m}' such that for all atomic sentences ϕ : $\mathbf{m}'(\phi) \in \{1,0\}$ and if $\mathbf{m}(\phi) \in \{1,0\}$ then $\mathbf{m}'(\phi) = \mathbf{m}(\phi)$. By [fact 36](#), $\mathbf{m} \sqsubseteq \mathbf{m}'$, and so by [fact 37](#), \mathbf{m}' is a ST_n metaⁿcounterexample to the same metaⁿinference. Since for all atomic ϕ , we have $\mathbf{m}'(\phi) \in \{1,0\}$, we can show by induction on ψ that for all sentences ψ we have $\mathbf{m}'(\psi) \in \{1,0\}$; that is, \mathbf{m}' is 2-valued. Since \mathbf{m}' is 2-valued and an ST_n metaⁿcounterexample, it is also a $\widehat{CL}(n)$ metaⁿcounterexample, by [fact 39](#). □

Corollary 43. *For any m, n : $\widehat{ST}_n \approx_{\min(m,n)} \widehat{ST}_m$*

Proof. Wlog, let $m \leq n$. By [fact 42](#) we have $\widehat{ST}_m \approx_m \widehat{CL}$ and $\widehat{ST}_n \approx_n \widehat{CL}$. Since \widehat{ST}_n and \widehat{CL} are downward coherent by [fact 19](#), then by [fact 28](#) we have $\widehat{ST}_n \approx_m \widehat{CL}$. And since \approx_m is symmetric and transitive, this gives $\widehat{ST}_m \approx_m \widehat{ST}_n$. □

Corollary 44 ([\[Scambler, 2020, Thm. 23\]](#)). $ST_\omega \approx \widehat{CL}$

Proof. Immediate from [fact 42](#). □

So we have $C(ST_\omega) = C(\widehat{CL})$; ST_ω gives us exactly the same full consequence relation as \widehat{CL} does. Despite this matching, the underlying models remain very different. ST_ω uses the full space of strong Kleene models, while \widehat{CL} ignores all but the two-valued models. As a result, ST_ω inherits the flexibility provided by strong Kleene models. For

example, just as we saw for ST_0 in [section 1.5.2](#), ST_ω too can be nontrivially extended to a first-order language with a transparent truth predicate, and now while maintaining the validity of every \widehat{CL} valid inference at all levels.

4 An objection to ST

The existence of the ST_n hierarchy, and perhaps especially of ST_ω , has been seen to pose a challenge to advocates of ST. Since ST is just ST_0 , why stop there? In particular, if we’re seeking agreement with classical logic, why wouldn’t we want to pursue the additional agreement with \widehat{CL} achieved by higher levels of this hierarchy, or even the total agreement achieved by ST_ω ?

Something like this objection to ST has been pressed by those who have explored this hierarchy. Here’s [[Pailos, 2019](#), emphasis both removed and added, notation changed]:³¹

Non-classical theories of truth pursue two conflicting desiderata. On the one hand, they search for a paradox-free transparent truth predicate. On the other hand, *they want to retain as much classical logic as possible*. . . . Thus, though it might be argued that ST seems to do much better than the other inferential non-classical solutions to paradoxes—precisely because it resolves paradoxes while ‘mutilating’ less classical logic than the other non-classical theories, ST_1 *seems to work even better than* ST. ST_1 retains every classically valid inference, as ST does, but, moreover, it recovers every classically valid metainference—while ST loses Cut (and many other classically valid metainferences) (19).

And here is [[Scambler, 2020](#), notation changed]:

[T]he proponent of logics like [ST] as solutions to the paradoxes faces some difficult questions. First, they must say whether or not they mean to generalize their view to higher finite levels. If they don’t, they must explain why the ‘more classical logic is better’ line of thought. . . is misguided (368).³²

As someone who has defended ST and some of its relatives as providing valuable approaches to paradoxes,³³ I was initially pulled by this kind of objection. But I’ve come to think that that was a mistake, and in this section I explain why.

4.1 What’s being objected to

First, it’s important to clarify the target of the objection. The counterexample relations ST and \widehat{ST} are distinct: the first says only when a model is a counterexample

³¹See also the concluding section of [[Pailos, 2020](#)].

³²This passage as written talks about \widehat{ST} , not ST. I’ve substituted ST because I think this is a typo, since it’s not clear what it would mean to ‘generalize \widehat{ST} to higher levels’. After all, \widehat{ST} is already a full consequence relation. ([[Scambler, 2020](#)] uses ‘ T_1 ’ for \widehat{ST} and ‘ T_1 ’ for ST, so it would be a small typo.)

³³in for example [[Cobreros et al., 2013](#); [Ripley, 2013a](#)]

to a meta⁰inference, while the second says when a model is a counterexample to a meta^ℓinference for any level ℓ . As far as I know, nobody has so far put forward any endorsement of \widehat{ST} , only of ST. And as I’ve pointed out above, an advocate of ST as a useful meta⁰counterexample relation has thereby taken on no commitments at all regarding metaⁿcounterexample relations for $n \geq 1$.

The quoted passages, however, seem to assume that any advocate of ST in fact means to advocate \widehat{ST} as well. They then try to push for adopting $\widehat{ST}_1, \widehat{ST}_2, \dots$, or perhaps implicitly ST_ω instead of \widehat{ST} , on the grounds that these full counterexample relations agree with \widehat{CL} at higher and higher levels. But the assumption is unwarranted, and this means that the objection fails immediately as an objection to ST. After all, $ST = \widehat{ST}_1(0) = \widehat{ST}_2(0) = \dots = ST_\omega(0)$. So one thing all these full counterexample relations agree on is that ST gives the correct story for meta⁰counterexamples. So if, say, ST_ω is correct, then the advocate of ST turns out to be *right*: ST_ω goes beyond ST, but they match perfectly everywhere ST has anything to say. The disagreements between the full counterexample relations under consideration are all at higher levels, where ST makes no pronouncements.

The real objection here, then, is not to ST at all, but to \widehat{ST} —and again, as far as I know, nobody has yet endorsed \widehat{ST} for any purpose. However, the objection is still worth thinking through, to see if it perhaps gives a good reason not to endorse \widehat{ST} . In the rest of this paper, I argue that it does not; any hypothetical or future advocates of \widehat{ST} should not be swayed by this objection.

4.2 Why be classical?

One initial reason to be suspicious of the objection is that it relies on the claim that ‘more classical logic is better’. But nobody should seek to be classical just for classicality’s sake. Classical logic has had detractors for as long as it has existed, and many of those detractors have had very good reasons for their worries. It’s true that classical logic gained a certain sort of hegemonic status in some philosophical communities in the late 20th century, but that moment (fortunately) seems to be past us now.³⁴

Classical logic is an inheritance we’ve received, not a goal we’re aiming for. Like any cultural inheritance, it contains many different strands: its two-valued model theory, its Boolean model theory, various proof systems, philosophical commitments to bivalence or noncontradiction (which themselves take various forms), multiple distinct second- and higher-order formulations, and so on. We might well want to hold to some of these while abandoning others. The objection in question, though, depends on a very particular understanding of ‘classical logic’: \widehat{CL} . It also depends on a very particular understanding of what ‘more classical logic’ is: full agreement with $C(\widehat{CL}(\ell))$ for higher and higher levels ℓ . We need to ask whether the reasons often given in support of ‘classical logic’ fit with these very particular understandings, and—so understood—whether they fit with the idea that ‘more classical logic is better’. In fact, I know of no defense of classical logic that does.

³⁴For useful remarks written while that moment was ongoing, see for example [Routley et al., 1982, Introduction, Plumwood, 1993; Priest, 1989].

Most applications of classical logic, and so most defenses of it, are based on one of two aspects of it: its two-valued model theory,³⁵ or its meta⁰consequence relation. For an example of the first kind of defense, consider [Williamson, 1994, p. 186, emphasis in original]:

[C]lassical semantics and logic are vastly superior to the alternatives in simplicity, power, past success, and integration with other theories in other domains. It would not be wholly unreasonable to insist on these grounds alone that bivalence *must* somehow apply to vague utterances. . .

(‘Classical semantics’ here means specifically familiar 2-valued model theory, on my reading of this passage.) And for an example of the second kind of defense, consider [Smith, 2008, p. 223]:

[M]y definition yields a classical consequence relation, and this is important. . . An important constraint on a definition of validity is that it counts intuitively valid forms of reasoning as valid—and the classically valid inference forms are all *prima facie* paradigms of valid reasoning. . .

Arguments for classical logic that proceed in either of these ways, though, cannot fit with Pailos’s and Scambler’s objections. This is because these objections focus on similarities between \widehat{ST}_1 or ST_ω and \widehat{CL} that are not shared with \widehat{ST} . But the use of two-valued models distinguishes \widehat{CL} alone out of these: all of \widehat{ST} , \widehat{ST}_1 , and ST_ω make use of the full range of strong Kleene models. So no argument for \widehat{CL} based on two-valued models could fit the bill for Pailos and Scambler, since \widehat{ST}_1 and ST_ω are not any more similar to \widehat{CL} on this count than \widehat{ST} is. All three are equally dissimilar from \widehat{CL} in this regard.

A focus on the meta⁰consequence relation determined also cannot distinguish any of these, as they all yield the exact same meta⁰consequence relation. So no argument for \widehat{CL} based on its meta⁰consequence relation could fit the bill for Pailos and Scambler either, since \widehat{ST}_1 and ST_ω are again not any more similar to \widehat{CL} on this count than \widehat{ST} is. The consequence relations $C(\widehat{CL}(0))$, $C(\widehat{ST}(0))$, $C(\widehat{ST}_1(0))$, and $C(ST_\omega(0))$ are all identical.³⁶

Existing defenses of classical logic, then, do not at all fit with the idea that ‘more classical logic is better’, where ‘more classical logic’ is understood as full agreement with $C(\widehat{CL}(\ell))$ for higher and higher levels ℓ . So what *would* it take to support \widehat{CL} in a way that fits with Pailos’s and Scambler’s objections? To be compatible with the objection’s focus on consequence relations, such support should be based on consequence

³⁵Although I focus on two-valued models here, work on Boolean-valued models as in [Bell, 2011, Ch. 1] plays out the same for present purposes; note that the three-valued models used throughout this paper are not Boolean.

³⁶This focus on the resulting meta⁰consequence relation is present in a number of defenses of ST, for example [Ripley, 2013a, p. 156]:

[Classicality] is the core of the advantages of the ST approach over [nonclassical approaches to truth]. There is no need, from an ST-based perspective, ever to criticize (on logical grounds) any classically-valid inference. As such, there is no need for the ‘classical recapture’ that so exercises many non-classical theorists.

(Thanks to an anonymous referee for pointing out this quotation.)

relations, and not on particular selections of models. And to tell the difference between \widehat{ST} and \widehat{ST}_1 or ST_ω , such support must consider metaⁿinferences for $n \geq 1$. For example, someone might argue that all meta¹inferences of the form $[[\Gamma \succ \Delta, \phi], [\phi, \Gamma \succ \Delta] \succ [\Gamma \succ \Delta]]$ ought to be validated. As all such meta¹inferences are valid in $C(\widehat{CL})$, in $C(\widehat{ST}_1)$, and in $C(ST_\omega)$, but not all in $C(\widehat{ST})$, a defense of \widehat{CL} on *these* grounds would fit with the objection.³⁷

While such a defense of \widehat{CL} would indeed fit with the objections I'm considering here, it would do more than this: it would replace them entirely. An argument for the validity of a minference that is invalid in \widehat{ST} is just directly an objection to \widehat{ST} , already, on its own. There's no need for any detour via closeness to \widehat{CL} . The argumentative situation around any such objection to \widehat{ST} , then, should turn purely on how well-supported the validity of that minference is or isn't. The 'more classical logic is better' objection pressed by Pailos and Scambler simply falls by the wayside.

To sum up this subsection: the objection to \widehat{ST} under consideration only works if we have reason to seek similarity to $C(\widehat{CL})$. We have reason to seek similarity to $C(\widehat{CL})$ only insofar as we have reason to think that $C(\widehat{CL})$ is getting things right. But existing reasons for thinking that 'classical logic' is getting things right aren't about \widehat{CL} or $C(\widehat{CL})$ at all. Moreover, most such reasons focus either on 2-valued models or on $C(CL)$,³⁸ and so either tell against \widehat{ST} , \widehat{ST}_1 , and ST_ω all equally; or else support all of \widehat{CL} , \widehat{ST} , \widehat{ST}_1 , and ST_ω equally. Either way, this puts no pressure on a hypothetical advocate of \widehat{ST} to adopt \widehat{ST}_1 or ST_ω instead.

4.3 Obeying higher minferences

Even if the objection pressed by Pailos and Scambler fails, however, it might seem that there is an easy objection to \widehat{ST} in the area, one that doesn't turn on similarity to \widehat{CL} at all, but instead simply looks directly at plausible-seeming meta^ℓinferences for $\ell \geq 1$. For example, consider meta¹inferences of the form $[[\phi \succ \psi], [\psi \succ \rho] \succ [\phi \succ \rho]]$. These meta¹inferences are all in $C(\widehat{CL})$, $C(\widehat{ST}_1)$, and $C(ST_\omega)$, but not all in $C(\widehat{ST})$. For example, where p, q, r are distinct atomic sentences, $[[p \succ q], [q \succ r] \succ [p \succ r]]$ is not in $C(\widehat{ST})$. If we had good reason to prefer counterexample relations that validate such meta¹inferences, then, we would have good reason to prefer \widehat{ST}_1 or ST_ω to \widehat{ST} .

At first blush, it might seem like we obviously have such good reason. After all, the metainferences in question seems to be a particularly simple form of 'transitivity' of consequence: they seem to say that if $[\phi \succ \psi]$ is valid and $[\psi \succ \rho]$ is valid, then $[\phi \succ \rho]$ is valid. And *that* is widely considered a minimal requirement for anything like a sensible meta⁰consequence relation.³⁹ So it can seem we have a direct argument against \widehat{ST} and for \widehat{ST}_1 or ST_ω , based on meta¹inferences like these. If simple transitivity is a

³⁷I'll return to a similar idea in a moment, in [section 4.3](#).

³⁸not $C(\widehat{CL})$!

³⁹This is called 'simple transitivity' in [\[Weir, 2015\]](#), which, even while arguing against other commonly-accepted forms of transitivity, has "I am sympathetic to the idea that... simple transitivity... should be incorporated in any genuine notion of logical consequence" (100).

desideratum, and \widehat{ST}_1 and ST_ω have it while \widehat{ST} lacks it, then this gives a reason to adopt one of the former two over the latter.

In this case, though, appearances are misleading. Simple transitivity is one thing, and meta¹inferences of the form $[[\phi \succ \psi], [\psi \succ \rho]] \succ [\phi \succ \rho]$ are quite another. The former is a property of meta⁰consequence relations; some are simply transitive while others are not. The latter are meta¹inferences, syntactic objects. The ‘direct argument’ above depends on conflating the two, and so it simply fails. In particular, $C(\widehat{ST}(0))$ —which is just $C(ST)$ —is simply transitive; after all, it is the familiar meta⁰consequence relation of classical logic.⁴⁰

We should close, then, by thinking about one more relationship between adjacent levels: the relationship that, where it obtains, *would* connect meta¹inferences like $[[\phi \succ \psi], [\psi \succ \rho]] \succ [\phi \succ \rho]$ to simple transitivity.

Definition 45. A metaⁿconsequence relation Σ_n obeys a metaⁿ⁺¹consequence relation Σ_{n+1} iff for every $[\Gamma \succ \phi] \in \Sigma_{n+1}$, either there is some $\gamma \in \Gamma$ with $\gamma \notin \Sigma_n$ or $\phi \in \Sigma_n$.

A full consequence relation Σ is *self-obeying at level n* iff $\Sigma(n)$ obeys $\Sigma(n+1)$.

A full counterexample relation X is *self-obeying at level n* iff $C(X)$ is, and *self-disobeying at level n* otherwise.

Interlude on definition 45 Note that this definition uses only single-conclusion minferences. This is important! The property arrived at by generalizing this to multiple conclusions is too strong for my purposes. This interlude clarifies the situation, I hope. First, here’s the stronger property we might consider:

Definition 46. A metaⁿconsequence relation Σ_n *strongly obeys* a metaⁿ⁺¹consequence relation Σ_{n+1} iff for every $[\Gamma \succ \Delta] \in \Sigma_{n+1}$, either there is some $\gamma \in \Delta$ with $\gamma \notin \Sigma_n$ or there is some $\delta \in \Delta$ with $\delta \in \Sigma_n$.

A full consequence relation Σ is *strongly self-obeying at level n* iff $\Sigma(n)$ obeys $\Sigma(n+1)$.

[Scambler, 2020, p. 367] says that a full consequence relation that is strongly self-obeying at all levels is ‘closed under its own laws’. However, this is *not* connected to ‘closure’ in the ordinary sense. A *closure operation* C on a partially ordered set $\langle S, \leq \rangle$ is an operation $C : S \rightarrow S$ such that for all $x, y \in S$, we have $C(x) \leq C(y)$ iff $x \leq C(y)$.⁴¹ Given such an operation, an $x \in S$ is *closed* iff $x = C(x)$.

Now, consider the following two very small full consequence relations: $\Sigma_a = \{[\succ p, q], p\}$, and $\Sigma_b = \{[\succ p, q], q\}$. These are strongly self-obeying at every level. And consider also $\Sigma_c = \{[\succ p, q]\}$; this is not strongly self-obeying at level -1 . However:

Fact 47. *If we consider full consequence relations as ordered by \subseteq , then any closure operation C on full consequence relations such that Σ_a and Σ_b are both closed is also such that Σ_c is closed as well.*

⁴⁰Indeed, $C(ST)$ has much stronger transitivity properties as well, as can be seen by the same reasoning. For discussion of some of these properties, see [Ripley, 2017].

⁴¹See for example [Davey and Priestley, 2002, Ch. 7].

Proof. Since Σ_a and Σ_b are closed, they are $C(\Sigma_a)$ and $C(\Sigma_b)$, respectively. And since $\Sigma_c \subseteq C(\Sigma_a)$ and $\Sigma_c \subseteq C(\Sigma_b)$, then as C is a closure operation we have $C(\Sigma_c) \subseteq C(\Sigma_a)$ and $C(\Sigma_c) \subseteq C(\Sigma_b)$; that is, $C(\Sigma_c) \subseteq C(\Sigma_a) \cap C(\Sigma_b)$. That is to say, $C(\Sigma_c) \subseteq \Sigma_a \cap \Sigma_b = \Sigma_c$. And (again, since C is a closure operation) we also have $\Sigma_c \subseteq C(\Sigma_c)$. So $\Sigma_c = C(\Sigma_c)$; that is, Σ_c is closed. \square

So the property of being strongly self-obeying at every level cannot be understood as the property of being closed under *any* closure operation on full consequence relations, at least if we're considering them as being ordered by \subseteq . By contrast, being self-obeying at every level *is* the property of being closed under the following operation:

$$C(\Sigma) = \bigcap \{ \Sigma' \mid \Sigma' \text{ is self-obeying at every level and } \Sigma \subseteq \Sigma' \}$$

(This works for self-obedience but not strong self-obedience because the former but not the latter is itself closed under intersections.) The language of being ‘closed’, then, fits with self-obedience, not with strong self-obedience.⁴² By way of transition back to the main thread of the text, note that the following [fact 48](#) would be false for strong self-obedience, as $C(\widehat{\text{CL}})$, for example, is self-obeying but not strongly self-obeying at level -1 .

End interlude.

Fact 48. *If a full counterexample relation X is n -upward coherent, then X is self-obeying at level m for all $m \geq n$.*

Proof. Suppose that for a particular meta ^{$m+1$} inference $[\Gamma \succ \phi]$, that $\Gamma \subseteq C(X(m))$ and $\phi \notin C(X(m))$; it suffices for the claim to show that some model is a X meta ^{$m+1$} counterexample to $[\Gamma \succ \phi]$. Since X is n -upward coherent, we have that $\uparrow X(m) = X(m+1)$, so to be a meta ^{$m+1$} counterexample to $[\Gamma \succ \phi]$ is to be a meta ^{m} counterexample to ϕ without being a meta ^{m} counterexample to any $\gamma \in \Gamma$. But since $\Gamma \subseteq C(X(m))$, no model is a meta ^{m} counterexample to any $\gamma \in \Gamma$; and as $\phi \notin C(X(m))$, some model is a meta ^{m} counterexample to ϕ . \square

Interestingly, even though as we've seen $\widehat{\text{ST}}_n$ is not m -upward coherent for $m < n$, it's still the case that $\widehat{\text{ST}}_n$ is fully self-obeying.

Fact 49. *For all m, n , $\widehat{\text{ST}}_n$ is self-obeying at level m .*

Proof. Since $\widehat{\text{ST}}_n$ is n -upward coherent by [fact 20](#), by [fact 48](#) $\widehat{\text{ST}}_n$ is self-obeying at m for all $m \geq n$. For $m < n$, however, we have $\widehat{\text{ST}}_n \approx_m \widehat{\text{CL}}$ and $\widehat{\text{ST}}_n \approx_{m+1} \widehat{\text{CL}}$, by [facts 28](#) and [42](#). By [facts 20](#) and [48](#), $\widehat{\text{CL}}$ is self-obeying at every level, and so self-obeying at m . But since being self-obeying at m is just a matter of which minferences are validated at levels m and $m+1$, this means that $\widehat{\text{ST}}_n$ is self-obeying at m as well. \square

⁴²Relatedly, [Cobros et al., 2013, p. 849] defines ‘metainferences’ as ‘principles under which a consequence relation might (or might not) be closed’; this closure-based way of thinking is sensible enough for the single-conclusion meta¹inferences considered there, but does not easily extend to multiple-conclusion minferences.

Corollary 50. *For all m , ST_ω is self-obeying at m .*

But this only goes so far. In particular, it depends on the agreement with \widehat{CL} . Recall [section 1.5](#), however; in the intended applications of these strong Kleene models, the aim is to explore restricted classes of models for which \widehat{ST} and \widehat{CL} no longer agree, for applications at least to vagueness and truth.

Rather than developing full theories of vagueness or truth here, it's enough for present purposes to see how things play out if we choose some particular atomic sentence λ and develop new counterexample relations that in effect restrict our models to those models \mathbf{m} for which $\mathbf{m}(\lambda) = .5$:

Definition 51. Given a counterexample relation X , let $X\lambda$ be the counterexample relation such that a model \mathbf{m} is a $X\lambda$ counterexample to a minference μ iff both \mathbf{m} is a X counterexample to μ and $\mathbf{m}(\lambda) = .5$.

It is immediate that there are no $\widehat{CL}\lambda$ counterexamples to any minference (since any such counterexample would need to both be 2-valued and to assign the value $.5$ to λ), and so $C(\widehat{CL}\lambda)$ is the set of all minferences. So we can really just forget about $\widehat{CL}\lambda$.

Let's look, though, at what happens to the ST_n hierarchy. First, $C(\widehat{ST}_\ell\lambda(0))$ is no longer simply transitive, for $\ell \geq 0$; nor is $C(ST_\omega)$. For example, for atomic sentences p, q , distinct from each other and from λ , these meta⁰consequence relations contain $[p \succ \lambda]$ and $[\lambda \succ q]$, but not $[p \succ q]$. If simple transitivity is a desideratum, this is a problem—but it is again a problem shared equally by $\widehat{ST}\lambda$, $\widehat{ST}_1\lambda$, and $ST_\omega\lambda$. Moreover, none of $C(\widehat{ST}\lambda)$, $C(\widehat{ST}_1\lambda)$, or $C(ST_\omega\lambda)$ is self-obedient at level -1 , since all contain λ and $[\lambda \succ \perp]$, but none contains \perp . If self-obedience is a desideratum, this is again a problem—and again, it is a problem shared equally by $\widehat{ST}\lambda$, $\widehat{ST}_1\lambda$, and $ST_\omega\lambda$.

There are some interesting differences, however. We have that $C(\widehat{ST}_1\lambda)$ and $C(ST_\omega\lambda)$ contain $[[p \succ \lambda], [\lambda \succ q]] \succ [p \succ q]$, while $C(\widehat{ST}_0\lambda)$ does not contain this meta¹inference. With considerations of self-obedience to the fore, this difference matters: it provides an example showing that $C(\widehat{ST}_1\lambda)$ is self-disobeying at level 0.

Indeed, as [[Scambler, 2020](#), Thms. 29, 30] show, for all $m < n$, $\widehat{ST}_n\lambda$ is self-disobeying at level m , and $ST_\omega\lambda$ is self-disobeying at all levels. We also know by [facts 20](#) and [48](#) that for all $m \geq n$, $\widehat{ST}_n\lambda$ is self-obeying at level m . Climbing up the ST hierarchy thus pushes self-obedience farther and farther off into higher levels, until at the limit, ST_ω pushes self-obedience out of reach entirely.

What to make of this? Again, $\widehat{CL}\lambda$ is off the table, because it's the empty counterexample relation. We're supposing that the set of meta⁰inferences common to $C(\widehat{ST}\lambda)$, $C(\widehat{ST}_1\lambda)$, and $C(ST_\omega\lambda)$ is a good story about meta⁰inferential validity, and trying to think about what to make of the higher-level differences. Here, if self-obedience is a desideratum for counterexample relations, then $\widehat{ST}\lambda$ outperforms the others. None of these are self-obedient at level -1 ; unlike $\widehat{ST}_1\lambda$ and $ST_\omega\lambda$, however, \widehat{ST} is self-obedient at all other levels. Any reason to treat self-obedience as a desideratum, then, is a reason to prefer $\widehat{ST}\lambda$ to these other counterexample relations. Whether or not there is such a reason is something for future work to consider.

Conversely, any reason to treat validating $[[p \succ q], [q \succ r] \succ [p \succ r]]$ as a desideratum would be a reason to prefer $\widehat{ST}_1 \lambda$ or $\widehat{ST}_\omega \lambda$ to $\widehat{ST} \lambda$. But the desire for simple transitivity provides no such reason, as none of these counterexample relations determines a simply transitive consequence relation.

5 Conclusion

The study of minferences, and mixed consequence relations on them, reveals a great deal of new texture in what seemed to be relatively familiar ground. In this paper, I've tried to develop a set of relatively useful and relatively general tools for exploring this texture. I've also showed how to apply these tools to the TS_n and ST_n hierarchies and tried to answer an objection to \widehat{ST} due to [Pailos, 2020; Scambler, 2020], as well as a related objection based on simple transitivity. Finally, I've looked at the status of self-obedience, and pointed out that that if we want a full counterexample relation that matches $ST \lambda$ at level 0 and is as self-obedient as possible, $\widehat{ST} \lambda$ seems to be the way to go.

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