Twist-Valued Models for Three-valued Paraconsistent Set Theory

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Abstract

Boolean-valued models of set theory were introduced by Scott and Solovay in 1965 (and independently by Vopěnka in the same year), offering a natural and rich alternative for describing forcing. The original method was adapted by Takeuti, Titani, Kozawa and Ozawa to lattice-valued models of set theory. After this, Löwe and Tarafder proposed a class of algebras based on a certain kind of implication which satisfy several axioms of \( \text{ZF} \). From this class, they found a specific three-valued model called \( \mathbb{PS}_3 \) which satisfies all the axioms of \( \text{ZF} \), and can be expanded with a paraconsistent negation \( * \), thus obtaining a paraconsistent model of \( \text{ZF} \). We observe here that \( (\mathbb{PS}_3,*) \) coincides (up to language) with da Costa and D’Ottaviano logic \( \text{J3} \), a three-valued paraconsistent logic that have been proposed independently in the literature by several authors and with different motivations: for instance, it was reintroduced as \text{CLU} \text{NS}, \text{LF} \text{I1} and \text{MPT}, among others.

We propose in this paper a family of algebraic models of \( \text{ZFC} \) based on a paraconsistent three-valued logic called \( \text{LPT0} \), another linguistic variant of \( \text{J3} \) and so of \( (\mathbb{PS}_3,*) \) introduced by us in 2016. The semantics of \( \text{LPT0} \), as well as of its first-order version \( \text{QLPT0} \), is given by twist structures defined over arbitrary complete Boolean agebras. From this, it is possible to adapt the standard Boolean-valued models of (classical) \( \text{ZFC} \) to an expansion of \( \text{ZFC} \) by adding a paraconsistent negation. This paraconsistent set theory is based on \( \text{QLPT0} \), hence it is a paraconsistent expansion of \( \text{ZFC} \) characterized by a class of twist-valued models.

We argue that the implication operator of \( \text{LPT0} \) considered in this paper is, in a sense, more suitable for a paraconsistent set theory than the implication of \( \mathbb{PS}_3 \); indeed, our implication allows for genuinely inconsistent sets (in a precise sense, \( \| (w \approx w) \| = \frac{1}{2} \) for some \( w \)). It is to be remarked that our implication does not fall under the definition of the so-called ‘reasonable implication algebras’ of Löwe and Tarafder. This suggests that ‘reasonable implication algebras’ are just one way to define a paraconsistent set theory, perhaps not the most appropriate.

Our twist-valued models for \( \text{LPT0} \) can be easily adapted to provide twist-valued models for \( (\mathbb{PS}_3,*) \); in this way twist-valued models generalize Löwe and Tarafder’s three-valued \( \text{ZF} \) model, showing that all of them (including \( (\mathbb{PS}_3,*) \)) are, in fact, models of \( \text{ZFC} \) (not only of \( \text{ZF} \)). This offers more options for investigating independence results in paraconsistent set theory.
1 On models of set theory: Gödel shrinks, Cohen expands

The interest for – and the overall knowledge about – models for set theory changed dramatically after the famous invention (or discovery) of Paul Cohen’s methods of forcing. Cohen was able to show that the notion of cardinal number is elastic and relative, in contrast with the methods of “inner models” that Gödel used. Gödel has shown that, by shrinking the totality of sets in a model, they would turn to be ‘well-behaved’. As a consequence, the constructible sets could not be used to prove the relative consistency of the negation of the Axiom of Choice (AC) or of the Continuum Hypothesis (CH). Paul J. Cohen, on the contrary, had the idea of reverting the paradigm, and instead of cutting down the sets within models, found a way to expand a countable standard model into a standard model in which CH or AC can be false, doing this in a minimalist but controlled fashion. Cohen elements are ‘bad-behaved’, but finely guided so as to make ‘logical space’ for the independence of AC and CH.

As Dana Scott puts in the forward of Bell’s book [1], “Cohen’s achievement lies in being able to expand models (countable, standard models) by adding new sets in a very economical fashion: they more or less have only the properties they are forced to have by the axioms (or by the truths of the given model).” Cohen’s methods, however, are not easy, being regarded by some researchers as somewhat lengthy and tedious – but were the only tool available until the Boolean-valued models of set theory put forward by Scott and Solovay (and independently by Vopěnka) in 1965 offered a more natural and rich alternative for describing forcing. This does not discredit the brilliant idea of Cohen, who did not have the machinery of Boolean-valued models available at his time.

What is a Boolean-valued model? The intuitive idea is to pick a suitable Boolean algebra \( \mathcal{A} \), and define the set of all \( \mathcal{A} \)-valued sets in \( M \), generalizing the familiar \( \{0, 1\} \) valued models. Then add to the language one constant symbol for each element of the model. After this, define a map \( \varphi \mapsto [\varphi]^\mathcal{A} \) from the sentences in \( S \) to \( \mathcal{A} \) which obey certain equations so that it should assign 1 to all the axioms of ZFC.

The resulting structure \( M_\mathcal{A} \) will not be a standard model of ZFC, because it will consist of “relaxed sets” somehow similar to fuzzy sets, and not sets properly. If we take an arbitrary sentence about sets (for instance, “does \( Y \) is a member of \( X \)” ?) and ask whether it holds in \( M_\mathcal{A} \), then the answer may be neither plain “yes” nor “no”, but some element of the Boolean algebra \( \mathcal{A} \) meaning the “degree” to which \( Y \) is a member of \( X \). However, \( M_\mathcal{A} \) will satisfy ZFC, and to turn \( M_\mathcal{A} \) into an actual model of ZFC with certain desired properties it is sufficient to take a suitable quotient of \( M_B \) that eliminates the elements of fuzziness.

Boolean-valued models not only avoid tedious details of Cohen’s original construction, but permit a great generalization by varying on any Boolean algebra.

2 Losing unnecessary weight: the role of alternative set theories

It is a well-known historical fact that the discovery of the paradoxes in set theory and in the foundations of mathematics was the fuse that fired the revolution in contemporary set theory around its efforts to attempt to rescue Cantor’s naive theory from triviality. The usual culprit was the Principle of (unrestricted) Abstraction, also known as the Principle of
Comprehension. Unrestricted abstraction allows sets to be defined by arbitrary conditions, and this freedom combined with the axiom of extensionality, leads to a contradiction, which by its turn leads to triviality in the sense that “everything goes”, when the laws of the underlying logic obey the standard principles that comprise the so-called “classical” logic.

But there is a way out from this maze. Paraconsistent set theory is the theoretical move to maintain the freedom of defining sets, while stripping the theory of unnecessary principles so as to avoid triviality, a disastrous consequences of contradictions involving sets in ZF.

This philosophical maneuver is in frank opposition to traditional strategies, which deprive the freedom of set theory so appreciated by Cantor, by maintaining the underlying logic and weakening the Principle of Abstraction.

An analogy may be instructive. The basic goal of reverse mathematics is to study the relative logical strengths of theorems from ordinary non-set theoretic mathematics. To this end, one tries to find the minimal natural axiom system $A$ that is capable of proving a theorem $T$.

In a perhaps vague, but illuminating analogy, paraconsistent logic tries to find the minimal natural principles that are capable of permitting us to reason in generic circumstances, even in the undesired circumstances of contradictions.

This does not mean that contradictions are necessarily real: $\square$ gives a formal system and a corresponding intended interpretation, according to which true contradictions are not tolerated. Contradictions are, instead, epistemically understood as conflicting evidence. There are indeed many cases of contradictions in reasoning, but the classical principle *Ex Contradictione Quodlibet*, or Principle of Explosion, is neither used in mathematics in general; it is not, therefore, a characteristic of good reasoning, and has to be abandoned.

Some people may be mislead by thinking that *Reductio ad Absurdum*, which is a useful and robust rule of inference, would be lost by abandoning the Principle of Explosion. This is not so: even if discarding such a principle, proofs by *Reductio ad Absurdum* get unaffected, as long as one can define a strong negation. This is achieved in many paraconsistent logics, in particular in all the logics of the family of the Logics of Formal Inconsistency (LFI), see $\square$ $\square$ $\square$. Reasoning does not necessarily require the full power of *Ex Contradictione Quodlibet*, because contradictions reached in a *Reductio* proof are not really used to cause any deductive explosion; what is used is the manipulation of negation.

3 Expanding Cohen’s expansion: twist-valued models

Boolean-valued models were adapted by Takeuti, Titani, Kozawa and Ozawa to lattice-valued models of set theory, with applications to quantum set theory and fuzzy set theory (see $\square$ $\square$ $\square$ $\square$ $\square$). The guidelines of these constructions were taken by L"owe and Tarafder in $\square$ in order to obtain a three-valued model (in the form of a lattice-valued model) for a paraconsistent set theory based on ZF. They propose a class of algebras based on a certain kind of implication, called *reasonable implication algebras* (see Section $\square$ which satisfy several axioms of ZF. From this class, they found an specific three-valued model which satisfies all the axioms of ZF, and it can be expanded to an
algebra \((\mathbb{P}_3, *)\) with a paraconsistent negation \(*\), obtaining so a paraconsistent model of 
\(\text{ZF}\). As we discuss in Section 9, the logic \((\mathbb{P}_3, *)\) is the same as the logic \(\text{MPT}\) introduced 
in [13], and coincides up to language with the logic \(\text{LPT}0\) adopted in the present paper. 
Here, we will introduce the notion of twist-valued models for a paraconsistent set theory 
\(\text{ZFLPTO}\) based on \(\text{QLPT0}\), a first-order version of \(\text{LPT0}\). Our models, defined for any 
complete Boolean algebra \(A\), constitute a generalization of the Boolean-valued models for 
set theory, at the same time generalizing Löwe and Tarafder’s three-valued model. Indeed, 
in Section 9 the model of \(\text{ZF}\) based on \((\mathbb{P}_3, *)\) will be generalized to twist-valued models 
over an arbitrary complete Boolean algebra, obtaining so a class of models of \(\text{ZFC}\). The 
structure over \((\mathbb{P}_3, *)\) will constitute a particular case, by considering the two-element 
complete Boolean algebra. As a consequence of this, it follows that Löwe and Tarafder’s 
three-valued structure is, indeed, a model of \(\text{ZFC}\).

Twist-structure semantics have been independently proposed by M. Fidel [15] and 
D. Vakarelov [25], in order to semantically characterize the well-known Nelson logic. A 
twist structure consists of operations defined on the cartesian product of the universe of a 
lattice, \(L \times L\) so that the negative and positive algebraic characteristics can be treated 
separately. In terms of logic, a pair \((a, b)\) in \(L \times L\) is such that \(a\) represents a truth-value 
for a formula \(\varphi\) while \(b\) corresponds to a truth-value for the negation of \(\varphi\). That is, \(a\) is a 
positive value for \(\varphi\) while \(b\) is a negative value for it, thus justifying the name ‘twist 
structures’ given for this kind of algebras. This strategy is especially useful for obtaining 
semantical characterizations for non-standard logics. As a limiting case, a Boolean algebra 
turns out being a particular case of twist structures when there is no need to give separate 
attention to negative and positive algebraic characteristics, since the latter are uniquely 
obtained from the former by the dualizing Boolean complement \(\sim\). In this case, every 
pair \((a, b)\) is of the form \((a, \sim a)\), hence the second coordinate is redundant. Our proposal 
is based on models for \(\text{ZF}\) based on twist structures, thus the sentences of the language of 
\(\text{ZF}\) will be interpreted as pairs \((a, b)\) in a suitable twist structure, such that the supremum 
\(a \lor b\) is always 1, but the infimum \(a \land b\) is not necessarily equal to 0. This corresponds to the 
validity of the third-excluded middle for the non-classical negation of the underlying logic, 
while the explosion law \(\varphi \land \sim \varphi \rightarrow \psi\) is not valid in general in the underlying paraconsistent 
logic \(\text{LPT0}\). A somewhat related approach was proposed by Libert in [16]: he proposes 
models for a naive set theory in which the truth-values are pairs of sets \((A, B)\) of a universe 
\(U\) such that \(A \cup B = U\) where \(A\) and \(B\) represent, respectively, the extension and the 
anti-extension of a set \(a\). However, besides this similarity, our approach is quite different: 
we are interesting in giving paraconsistent models for \(\text{ZFC}\) and not in new models for 
Naive set theory.

It is important to notice that there exists in the literature several approaches to para-
consistent set theory, under different perspectives. In particular, we propose in [6] a 
paraconsistent set theory based on several \(\text{LFI}\)s, but that approach differs from the one 
in the present paper. First, in the previous paper the systems were presented axiomatically, 
by means of suitable modifications of \(\text{ZF}\). Moreover, in that logics a consistency 
predicate \(C(x)\) was considering, with the intuitive meaning that ‘\(x\) is a consistent set’. 
On the other hand, in the present paper a model for standard \(\text{ZFC}\) will be presented 
instead of a Hilbert calculus for a modified version of \(\text{ZF}\). We will return to this point in 
Section 10.

As mentioned above, twist structures over a Boolean algebra generalize Boolean alge-
bras, and are by their turn generalized by the \emph{swap structures} introduced in [7, Chapter 6] 
a previous notion of swap structures was given in [5]). Swap structures are non-
deterministic algebras defined over the three-fold Cartesian product \( A \times A \times A \) of a given Boolean algebra so that in a triple \((a, b, c)\) the first component \(a\) represents the truth-value of a given formula \(\varphi\) while \(b\) and \(c\) represent, respectively, possible values for the paraconsistent negation \(\neg \varphi\) of \(\varphi\), and for the consistency \(\circ \varphi\) of \(\varphi\).

Swap structures are committed to semantics with a non deterministic character, while twist structures are used when the semantics are deterministic (or truth-functional). Definition 4.6 below shows how the definition of twist structures for the three-valued logic \(LFI_1\) introduced in [10, Definition 9.2] can be adapted to \(LPT_0\).

As noted in Section 7 the three-valued logic \((\mathbb{P}_3, \ast)\) used in [22] already appears in [13] under the name \(MPT\), and it is equivalent to \(LPT_0\) and also to \(LFI_1\). Variants of this logic have been independently proposed by different authors at different motivations in several occasions (for instance, as the well-known da Costa and D’Ottaviano’s logic \(J_3\)). The naturalness of this logic is reflected by the fact that the three-valued algebra of \(LPT_0\) (see Definition 4.2 below) is equivalent, up to language, to the algebra underlying Łukasiewicz three-valued logic \(L_3\). The only difference is that in the former the set of distinguished (or designated) truth values is \(\{1, \frac{1}{2}\}\) instead of \(\{1\}\), and this is why \(LPT_0\) is paraconsistent while \(L_3\) is paracomplete.

Twist-valued models work beautifully as enjoying many properties similar to Boolean-valued models (when restricted to pure \(ZF\)-languages). Such similarities lead to a natural proof that \(ZFC\) is valid w.r.t. twist-valued models, as our central Theorem 8.21 shows. This paper deals with a paraconsistent set theory named \(ZF_{LPT_0}\), defined by using as the underlying logic a first-order version of \(LPT_0\), called \(QLPT_0\), proposed in [12] under the form of \(QLFI_1\) (that is, by replacing the strong negation \(\sim\) by the consistency operator \(\circ\)).

The paraconsistent character of twist-valued models as regarding \(ZF_{LPT_0}\) as rival of \(ZFC\) is emphasized. Despite having some limitative results, as much as Löwe and Tarafder’s model, \(ZF_{LPT_0}\) has a great potential as generator of models for paraconsistent set theory. A subtle, but critical advantage of our models is that the implication operator of \(LPT_0\) is much more suitable for a paraconsistent set theory than the one of \(\mathbb{P}_3\). Indeed, our models allow for inconsistent sets, and this is of paramount importance, as we argue below. Moreover, as pointed out above, our models generalize the three-valued model based on \(\mathbb{P}_3\), since they can be defined for any complete Boolean algebra. In this way, we have several models at our disposal, and in principle this can be used to investigate independence results in paraconsistency set theory.

Albeit Boolean-valued models and their generalization in the form of twist-valued models are naturally devoted to study independence results, this paper does not tackle this big questions yet. The paper, instead, is dedicated to clarifying such models while establishing their basic properties.

4 The logic \(LPT_0\)

In this section the logic \(LPT_0\) will be briefly discussed, including its twist structures semantics. From now on, if \(\Sigma'\) is a propositional signature then, given a denumerable set \(\mathcal{V} = \{p_1, p_2, \ldots\}\) of propositional variables, the propositional language generated by \(\Sigma'\) from \(\mathcal{V}\) will be denoted by \(L_{\Sigma'}\). The paraconsistent logics considered in this paper belong to the class of logics known as \emph{logics of formal inconsistency}, introduced in [9] (see also [8, 7]).
Definition 4.1. Let $L = \langle \Sigma', \vdash \rangle$ be a Tarskian, finitary and structural logic defined over a propositional signature $\Sigma'$, which contains a negation $\neg$, and let $\circ$ be a (primitive or defined) unary connective. The logic $L$ is said to be a logic of formal inconsistency (LFI) with respect to $\neg$ and $\circ$ if the following holds:

(i) $\varphi, \neg \varphi \not\vdash \psi$ for some $\varphi$ and $\psi$;

(ii) there are two formulas $\varphi$ and $\psi$ such that

(ii.a) $\circ \alpha, \varphi \not\vdash \psi$;

(ii.b) $\circ \alpha, \neg \varphi \not\vdash \psi$;

(iii) $\circ \varphi, \varphi, \neg \varphi \vdash \psi$ for every $\varphi$ and $\psi$.

Recall the logic $\text{MPT0}$ presented in [7] as a linguistic variant of the logic $\text{MPT}$ introduced in [13].

Definition 4.2. (Modified Propositional logic of Pragmatic Truth $\text{MPT0}$, [7, Definition 4.4.51]) Let $\text{MPT0} = \langle M, D \rangle$ be the three-valued logical matrix over $\Sigma = \{ \land, \lor, \to, \neg, \sim \}$ with domain $M = \{1, \frac{1}{2}, 0\}$ and set of designated values $D = \{1, \frac{1}{2}\}$ such that the operators are defined as follows:

| $\land$ | $1$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
|---------|-----|---------------|-----|
| $1$     | $1$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
| $0$     | $0$ | $0$ | $0$ |

| $\lor$ | $1$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
|---------|-----|---------------|-----|
| $1$     | $1$ | $1$ | $1$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
| $0$     | $0$ | $1$ | $0$ |

| $\to$ | $1$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
|---------|-----|---------------|-----|
| $1$     | $1$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
| $0$     | $0$ | $1$ | $1$ |

| $\sim$ | $1$ | $0$ |
|---------|-----|-----|
| $1$     | $0$ | $0$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| $0$     | $1$ | $0$ |

| $\neg$ | $1$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
|---------|-----|---------------|-----|
| $1$     | $0$ | $0$ | $0$ |
| $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $\frac{1}{2}$ | $0$ |
| $0$     | $1$ | $0$ | $0$ |

The logic associated to the logical matrix $\text{MPT0}$ is called $\text{MPT0}$. The three-valued algebra underlying $\text{MPT0}$ will be called $\text{A\text{PT0}}$.

Observe that $x \to y = \sim x \lor y$ for every $x, y$. Recall that, by definition, the consequence relation $\vdash_{\text{MPT0}}$ of $\text{MPT0}$ is given as follows: for every $\Gamma \cup \{ \varphi \} \subseteq L_\Sigma$, $\Gamma \vdash_{\text{MPT0}} \varphi$ iff, for every homomorphism $v : L_\Sigma \rightarrow M$ of algebras over $\Sigma$, if $v[\Gamma] \subseteq D$ then $v(\varphi) \in D$.

From [7] a sound and complete Hilbert calculus for $\text{MPT0}$, called $\text{LPT0}$, can be defined. This calculus is an axiomatic extension of a Hilbert calculus for classical propositional logic $\text{CPL}$ over the signature $\Sigma_c = \{ \land, \lor, \to, \sim \}$. From now on, $\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$ will be an abbreviation for the formula $(\varphi \to \psi) \land (\psi \to \varphi)$.

Definition 4.3. (The calculus $\text{LPT0}$, [7, Definition 4.4.52]) The Hilbert calculus $\text{LPT0}$ over $\Sigma$ is defined as follows:

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1To be rigorous, in [7, Theorem 4.4.56] an additional axiom schema is required: $\neg \sim \varphi \to \varphi$. However, it is easy to prove that this axiom is derivable from the others, by using MP.
Axiom Schemas:

(Ax1) \( \varphi \rightarrow (\psi \rightarrow \varphi) \)

(Ax2) \( (\varphi \rightarrow (\psi \rightarrow \gamma)) \rightarrow ((\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \rightarrow (\varphi \rightarrow \gamma)) \)

(Ax3) \( \varphi \rightarrow (\psi \rightarrow (\varphi \land \psi)) \)

(Ax4) \( (\varphi \land \psi) \rightarrow \varphi \)

(Ax5) \( (\varphi \land \psi) \rightarrow \psi \)

(Ax6) \( \varphi \rightarrow (\varphi \lor \psi) \)

(Ax7) \( \psi \rightarrow (\varphi \lor \psi) \)

(Ax8) \( (\varphi \rightarrow \gamma) \rightarrow ((\psi \rightarrow \gamma) \rightarrow ((\varphi \lor \psi) \rightarrow \gamma)) \)

(Ax9) \( \varphi \lor (\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \)

(TND) \( \varphi \lor \neg \varphi \)

(exp) \( \varphi \rightarrow (\neg \varphi \rightarrow \psi) \)

(TND) \( \varphi \lor \neg \varphi \)

(dneg) \( \neg \neg \varphi \leftrightarrow \varphi \)

(neg\lor) \( \neg (\varphi \lor \psi) \leftrightarrow (\neg \varphi \land \neg \psi) \)

(neg\land) \( \neg (\varphi \land \psi) \leftrightarrow (\neg \varphi \lor \neg \psi) \)

(neg \rightarrow) \( \neg (\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \leftrightarrow (\varphi \land \neg \psi) \)

Inference rule:

(MP) \( \frac{\varphi \quad \varphi \rightarrow \psi}{\psi} \)

It is worth noting that axioms (Ax1)-(Ax9), (TND) and (exp), together with (MP), constitute an adequate Hilbert calculus for classical propositional logic CPL in the signature \( \Sigma_c = \{\land, \lor, \rightarrow, \neg\} \). Moreover, (Ax1)-(Ax9) plus (MP) is an adequate Hilbert calculus for classical positive propositional logic CPL\(^+\) in the signature \( \Sigma_{cp} = \{\land, \lor, \rightarrow\} \).

**Theorem 4.4.** ([7, Theorem 4.4.56]) The logic LPT0 is sound and complete w.r.t. the matrix logic of MPT0: \( \Gamma \vdash_{\text{LPT0}} \varphi \iff \Gamma \models_{\text{MPT0}} \varphi \), for every \( \Gamma \cup \{\varphi\} \subseteq \mathcal{L}_\Sigma \).

The latter result can be extended to twist-structures semantics, as shown in [10]. Indeed, LPT0 coincides (up to signature) with LFI\(_{\circ}\), an LFI defined over the signature \( \Sigma_o = \{\land, \lor, \rightarrow, \neg, \circ\} \) such that the consistency operator \( \circ \) is defined as

| \( \circ \) | 0 | 1 |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
In $\text{LFI}_0$ the strong negation $\sim$ is defined as $\sim \varphi = \text{def} \varphi \rightarrow \bot$ such that $\bot \varphi = \text{def} (\varphi \land \neg \varphi) \land \varphi$. On the other hand, the consistency operator $\circ$ is defined in $\text{LPT}_0$ as $\circ \varphi = \text{def} \sim (\varphi \land \neg \varphi)$. The twist-structures semantics for $\text{LFI}_0$ introduced in [10] Definition 4.5. Let $\mathcal{A} = \langle A, \land, \lor, \rightarrow, \sim, 0, 1 \rangle$ be a Boolean algebra\footnote{In this paper the symbol $\sim$ will be used for denoting the strong negation of $\text{LPT}_0$ as well as for denoting the classical negation and its semantical interpretation (the Boolean complement in a Boolean algebra). The context will avoid possible confusions.} The twist domain generated by $\mathcal{A}$ is the set $T_\mathcal{A} = \{(z_1, z_2) \in A \times A : z_1 \lor z_2 = 1 \}$. 

**Definition 4.6.** Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a Boolean algebra. The twist structure for $\text{LPT}_0$ over $\mathcal{A}$ is the algebra $T_\mathcal{A} = (T_\mathcal{A}, \bar{\land}, \bar{\lor}, \bar{\rightarrow}, \bar{\sim}, \bar{\top})$ over $\Sigma$ such that the operations are defined as follows, for every $(z_1, z_2), (w_1, w_2) \in T_\mathcal{A}$:

(i) $(z_1, z_2) \bar{\land} (w_1, w_2) = (z_1 \land w_1, z_2 \lor w_2)$;
(ii) $(z_1, z_2) \bar{\lor} (w_1, w_2) = (z_1 \lor w_1, z_2 \land w_2)$;
(iii) $(z_1, z_2) \bar{\rightarrow} (w_1, w_2) = (z_1 \rightarrow w_1, z_1 \land w_2)$;
(iv) $\bar{\sim}(z_1, z_2) = (\sim z_1, z_1)$;
(v) $\bar{\top}(z_1, z_2) = (z_2, z_1)$.

By recalling that the consistency operator $\circ$ is defined in $\text{LPT}_0$ as $\circ \varphi = \text{def} \sim (\varphi \land \neg \varphi)$, it follows that $\bar{\delta}(z_1, z_2) = (\sim(z_1 \land z_2), z_1 \land z_2)$.\footnote{This is why in [10] Definition 9.2 clause (v) was replaced by this clause defining $\bar{\delta}$.}

**Definition 4.7.** The logical matrix associated to the twist structure $T_\mathcal{A}$ is $\mathcal{MT}_\mathcal{A} = (T_\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{D}_\mathcal{A})$ where $\mathcal{D}_\mathcal{A} = \{(z_1, z_2) \in T_\mathcal{A} : z_1 = 1 \} = \{(1, a) : a \in A \}$. The consequence relation associated to $\mathcal{MT}_\mathcal{A}$ will be denoted by $\models_{T_\mathcal{A}}$. Let $\mathcal{M}_{\text{LPT}_0} = \{\mathcal{MT}_\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{A}$ is a Boolean algebra\} be the class of twist models for $\text{LPT}_0$. The twist-consequence relation for $\text{LPT}_0$ is the consequence relation $\models_{\text{LPT}_0}$ associated to $\mathcal{M}_{\text{LPT}_0}$, namely: $\Gamma \models_{\text{LPT}_0} \varphi$ iff $\Gamma \models_{T_\mathcal{A}} \varphi$ for every Boolean algebra $\mathcal{A}$.

**Remark 4.8.** In [10] Theorem 9.6 it was shown that $\text{LPT}_0$ is sound and complete w.r.t. twist structures semantics, namely: $\Gamma \vdash_{\text{LPT}_0} \varphi$ iff $\Gamma \vdash_{\text{LPT}_0} \varphi$, for every set of formulas $\Gamma \cup \{\varphi\}$. On the other hand, if $\mathcal{A}_2$ is the two-element Boolean algebra with domain $\{0, 1\}$ then $T_{\mathcal{A}_2}$ consists of three elements: $(1, 0), (1, 1)$ and $(0, 1)$. By identifying these elements with $1, \frac{1}{2}$ and $0$, respectively, then $T_{\mathcal{A}_2}$ coincides with the three-valued algebra $\mathcal{A}_{\text{PT}_0}$ underlying the matrix $\mathcal{M}_{\text{PT}_0}$ (recall Definition 1.2). Moreover, $\mathcal{MT}_{\mathcal{A}_2}$ coincides with $\mathcal{M}_{\text{PT}_0}$. Taking into consideration Theorem 1.4 this situation is analogous to the semantical characterization of $\text{CPL}$ w.r.t. Boolean algebras: it is enough to consider the two-element Boolean algebra $\mathcal{A}_2$. 

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be a real number and $\text{def} \in L_0(\varepsilon)$ be the least integer such that $\varepsilon \in L_0(\varepsilon)$.
5 The logic QLPT0

A first-order version of LPT0, called QLPT0, was proposed in [12] under the equivalent (up to language) form of QLFI1. For convenience, we reproduce here the main features of QLPT0.

Definition 5.1. Let \( \text{Var} = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots\} \) be a denumerable set of individual variables. A first-order signature \( \Theta \) for QLPT0 is given as follows:

- a set \( C \) of individual constants;
- for each \( n \geq 1 \), a set \( F_n \) of function symbols of arity \( n \),
- for each \( n \geq 1 \), a nonempty set \( P_n \) of predicate symbols of arity \( n \).

The sets of terms and formulas generated by a signature \( \Theta \) will be denoted by \( \text{Ter}(\Theta) \) and \( \text{For}(\Theta) \), respectively. The set of closed formulas (or sentences) and the set of closed terms (terms without variables) over \( \Theta \) will be denoted by \( \text{Sen}(\Theta) \) and \( \text{CTer}(\Theta) \), respectively. The formula obtained from a given formula \( \varphi \) by substituting every free occurrence of a variable \( x \) by a term \( t \) will be denoted by \( \varphi[x/t] \).

Definition 5.2. Let \( \Theta \) be a first-order signature. The logic QLPT0 is obtained from LPT0 by adding the following axioms and rules:

**Axioms Schemas:**

- \((Ax\exists)\) \( \varphi[x/t] \rightarrow \exists x \varphi \), if \( t \) is a term free for \( x \) in \( \varphi \)
- \((Ax\forall)\) \( \forall x \varphi \rightarrow \varphi[x/t] \), if \( t \) is a term free for \( x \) in \( \varphi \)
- \((Ax\neg\exists)\) \( \neg \exists x \varphi \leftrightarrow \forall x \neg \varphi \)
- \((Ax\neg\forall)\) \( \neg \forall x \varphi \leftrightarrow \exists x \neg \varphi \)

**Inference rules:**

- \((\exists\text{-In})\) \( \varphi \rightarrow \psi \)
  \( \exists x \varphi \rightarrow \psi \), where \( x \) does not occur free in \( \psi \)
- \((\forall\text{-In})\) \( \varphi \rightarrow \psi \)
  \( \varphi \rightarrow \forall x \psi \), where \( x \) does not occur free in \( \varphi \)

The consequence relation of QLPT0 will be denoted by \( \vdash_{\text{QLPT0}} \).

6 Twist structures semantics for QLPT0

In [12] a semantics of first-order structures based on twist structures for LFI1 was proposed for QLFI1. That semantics will be briefly recalled here, adapted to QLPT0. From now on, only complete Boolean algebras will be considered.

\footnote{That is, by taking \( \odot \) instead of \( \sim \) as a primitive connective.}
Notation 6.1. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a complete Boolean algebra. Let $\mathcal{MT}_A$ be the logical matrix associated to a twist structure $T_A$ for LPT0, and let $\Theta$ be a first-order signature (see Definition 5.1). A (first-order) structure over $\mathcal{MT}_A$ and $\Theta$ (or a QLPT0-structure over $\Theta$) is pair $\mathfrak{A} = \langle U, I_A \rangle$ such that $U$ is a nonempty set (the domain or universe of the structure) and $I_A$ is an interpretation function which assigns:

- an element $I_A(c)$ of $U$ to each individual constant $c \in C$;

- a function $I_A(f) : U^n \to U$ to each function symbol $f$ of arity $n$;

- a function $I_A(P) : U^n \to T_A$ to each predicate symbol $P$ of arity $n$.

Notation 6.2. From now on, we will write $c^A$, $f^A$ and $P^A$ instead of $I_A(c)$, $I_A(f)$ and $I_A(P)$ to denote the interpretation of an individual constant symbol $c$, a function symbol $f$ and a predicate symbol $P$, respectively.

Definition 6.3. Given a structure $\mathfrak{A}$ over $\mathcal{MT}_A$ and $\Theta$, an assignment over $\mathfrak{A}$ is any function $\mu : Var \to U$.

Definition 6.4. Given a structure $\mathfrak{A}$ over $\mathcal{MT}_A$ and $\Theta$, and given an assignment $\mu : Var \to U$ we define recursively, for each term $t$, an element $[t]^A_\mu$ in $U$ as follows:

- $[c]^A_\mu = c^A$ if $c$ is an individual constant;

- $[x]^A_\mu = \mu(x)$ if $x$ is a variable;

- $[f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)]^A_\mu = f^A([t_1]^A_\mu, \ldots, [t_n]^A_\mu)$ if $f$ is a function symbol of arity $n$ and $t_1, \ldots, t_n$ are terms.

Definition 6.5. Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be a structure over $\mathcal{MT}_A$ and $\Theta$. The diagram language of $\mathfrak{A}$ is the set of formulas $For(\Theta_U)$, where $\Theta_U$ is the signature obtained from $\Theta$ by adding, for each element $a \in U$, a new individual constant $\bar{a}$.

Definition 6.6. The structure $\tilde{\mathfrak{A}} = \langle U, I_{\tilde{\mathfrak{A}}} \rangle$ over $\Theta_U$ is the structure $\mathfrak{A}$ over $\Theta$ extended by $I_{\tilde{\mathfrak{A}}}(\bar{a}) = a$ for every $a \in A$.

It is worth noting that $s^{\tilde{\mathfrak{A}}} = s^A$ whenever $s$ is a symbol (individual constant, function symbol or predicate symbol) of $\Theta$.

Notation 6.7. The set of sentences or closed formulas (that is, formulas without free variables) of the diagram language $For(\Theta_U)$ is denoted by $Sen(\Theta_U)$, and the set of terms and of closed terms over $\Theta_U$ will be denoted by $Ter(\Theta_U)$ and $CTer(\Theta_U)$, respectively. If $t$ is a closed term we can write $[t]^A_\mu$ instead of $[t]^A_{\mu}$, for any assignment $\mu$, since it does not depend on $\mu$.

Notation 6.8. From now on, if $z \in T_A$ then $(z)_1$ and $(z)_2$ (or simply $z_1$ and $z_2$) will denote the first and second coordinates of $z$, respectively.

Definition 6.9 (QLPT0 interpretation maps). Let $\mathfrak{A}$ be a complete Boolean algebra, and let $\mathfrak{A}$ be a structure over $\mathcal{MT}_A$ and $\Theta$. The interpretation map for QLPT0 over $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathcal{MT}_A$ is a function $[\ ]^A : Sen(\Theta_U) \to T_A$ satisfying the following clauses (using Notation 6.8 in clauses (iv) and (v)):

(i) $[P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)]^A = P^A([t_1]^A, \ldots, [t_n]^A)$, if $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is atomic;
Definition 6.11. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a complete Boolean algebra, and let $\mathfrak{A}$ be a structure over $\mathcal{MT}_A$ and $\Theta$. Given an assignment $\mu$ over $\mathfrak{A}$, the extended interpretation map $[\cdot]_{\mu}^{\mathfrak{A}} : \text{For}(\Theta_U) \to T_A$ is given by $[\varphi]_{\mu}^{\mathfrak{A}} = [\varphi[x_1/\mu(x_1), \ldots, x_n/\mu(x_n)]]^A$, provided that the free variables of $\varphi$ occur in $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$.

Definition 6.12. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a complete Boolean algebra, and let $\mathfrak{A}$ be a structure over $\mathcal{MT}_A$ and $\Theta$. Given a set of formulas $\Gamma \cup \{\varphi\} \subseteq \text{For}(\Theta_U)$, $\varphi$ is said to be a semantical consequence of $\Gamma$ w.r.t. $(\mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{MT}_A)$, denoted by $\Gamma \models_{(\mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{MT}_A)} \varphi$, if the following holds: if $[\gamma]_{\mu}^{\mathfrak{A}} \in D$, for every formula $\gamma \in \Gamma$ and every assignment $\mu$, then $[\varphi]_{\mu}^{\mathfrak{A}} \in D$, for every assignment $\mu$.

Definition 6.13 (Semantical consequence relation in QLPT0 w.r.t. twist structures). Let $\Gamma \cup \{\varphi\} \subseteq \text{For}(\Theta)$ be a set of formulas. Then $\varphi$ is said to be a semantical consequence of $\Gamma$ in QLPT0 w.r.t. first-order twist structures, denoted by $\Gamma \models_{\text{QLPT0}} \varphi$, if $\Gamma \models_{(\mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{MT}_A)} \varphi$ for every pair $(\mathfrak{A}, \mathcal{MT}_A)$.

Theorem 6.14 (Adequacy of QLPT0 w.r.t. first-order twist structures (\cite{12}). For every set $\Gamma \cup \{\varphi\} \subseteq \text{For}(\Theta)$: $\Gamma \models_{\text{QLPT0}} \varphi$ if and only if $\Gamma \models_{\text{QLPT0}} \varphi$\footnote{As observed above, in \cite{12} the logic QLF11 was analyzed instead of QLPT0. However, both logics are equivalent, the only difference being the use of $\circ$ instead of $\sim$ as primitive connective. The adaptation of the adequacy result for QLF11, given in \cite{12} to the logic QLPT0 is straightforward.}.

In Remark 6.8 was observed that $T_A$, the twist structure for LPT0 defined over the two-element Boolean algebra $\mathbb{B}_2$, coincides (up to names) with the three-valued algebra $\mathcal{A}_{PT0}$ underlying the matrix $\mathcal{M}_{PT0}$ and, moreover, $\mathcal{MT}_{\mathbb{B}_2}$ coincides with the three-valued characteristic matrix $\mathcal{M}_{PT0}$ of LPT0. In \cite{12} it was proven that QLPT0 can be characterized by first-order structures defined over $\mathcal{M}_{PT0}$\footnote{Once again, it is worth observing that the result obtained in \cite{12} concerns the logic QLF11 instead of QLPT0.}.

Remark 6.10. A partial order can be naturally introduced in $T_A$ as follows: $z \preceq w$ iff $z_1 \leq w_1$ and $z_2 \geq w_2$. It is easy to see that, with this order, $T_A$ is a complete lattice (since $\mathcal{A}$ is a complete Boolean algebra), in which

\[
\bigwedge_{i \in I} z_i = \bigwedge_{i \in I}(z_i)_1, \bigvee_{i \in I}(z_i)_2,
\]

and

\[
\bigvee_{i \in I} z_i = \bigvee_{i \in I}(z_i)_1, \bigwedge_{i \in I}(z_i)_2.
\]

Note that $1 =_{def} (1, 0)$ and $0 =_{def} (0, 1)$ are the top and bottom elements of $T_A$, respectively. These considerations justify the definition of the interpretation of the quantifiers given in Definition 6.9(iv) and (v).

Recall the notation stated in Definition 6.5. The interpretation map can be extended to arbitrary formulas as follows:

(ii) $[\# \varphi]^{A} = \# [\varphi]^{A}$, for every $\# \in \{\neg, \sim\}$;

(iii) $[\varphi \# ]^{A} = [\varphi]^{A} \# [\psi]^{A}$, for every $\# \in \{\wedge, \vee, \rightarrow\}$;

(iv) $[\forall x \varphi]^{A} = (\bigwedge_{a \in U}([\varphi[x/a]]^{A})_1, \bigvee_{a \in U}([\varphi[x/a]]^{A})_2)$;

(v) $[\exists x \varphi]^{A} = (\bigvee_{a \in U}([\varphi[x/a]]^{A})_1, \bigwedge_{a \in U}([\varphi[x/a]]^{A})_2)$. 


Theorem 6.15 (Adequacy of QLPT0 w.r.t. first-order structures over $\mathcal{M}_{PT0}$ ([12])). For every set $\Gamma \cup \{\varphi\} \subseteq For(\Theta)$: $\Gamma \models_{\Theta} \forall x \in \mathbb{V} \varphi$ iff $\Gamma \models_{(\mathcal{A},\mathcal{M}_{PT0})} \varphi$ for every structure $\mathcal{A}$ over $\Theta$ and $\mathcal{M}_{PT0}$.

Remark 6.16. It is worth observing that Theorem 6.15 constitutes a variant of the adequacy theorem of first-order $J3$ w.r.t. first-order structures given in [14]. Indeed, both logics are the same (up to language), and the semantic structures are the same, up to presentation.

7 Twist-valued models for set theory

As mentioned before, a three-valued model for a paraconsistent set theory based on lattice-valued models for ZF, as a non-classical variant of the well-known Scott-Solovay-Vopěnka Boolean-valued models for ZF, was proposed by Löwe and Tarskider in [18]. Specifically, they introduce a three-valued logic called $\mathbb{PS}_3$ which can be expanded with a paraconsistent negation $\neg$ (which they denote by $*$) and then a model for ZF is constructed over the three-valued algebra $\mathbb{PS}_3$, as well as over its expansion ($\mathbb{PS}_3, \neg$), along the same lines as the traditional Boolean-valued models. It is known that the logic ($\mathbb{PS}_3, \neg$), introduced in [13] as MPT, coincides up to language with LPT0. We will return to this point in Section 8.

In this section, a twist-valued model for a paraconsistent set theory $\mathbb{ZF}_{LPT0}$ based on QLPT0 will be defined, for any complete Boolean algebra $\mathcal{A}$. It will be shown that this models constitute a generalization of the Boolean-valued models for set theory, as well as of Löwe-Tarskider’s three-valued model. Our constructions, as well as the proof of their formal properties, are entirely based on the exposition of Boolean-valued models given in the book [1], which constitutes a fundamental reference to this subject.

Consider the first order signature $\Theta_{ZF}$ for set theory ZF which consists of two binary predicates $\in$ (for membership) and $\approx$ (for identity). The logic $\mathbb{ZF}_{LPT0}$ will be defined over the first-order language $\mathcal{L}$ generated by $\Theta_{ZF}$ based on the signature of QLPT0, that is: the set of connectives is $\Sigma = \{\land, \lor, \neg, \approx\}$, together with the quantifiers $\forall$ and $\exists$ and the set $\text{Var} = \{v_1, v_2, \ldots\}$ of individual variables. As usual, $\text{dom}(f)$ and $\text{ran}(f)$ will thenote the domain and image (or rank) of a given function $f$.

Definition 7.1. Let $\mathcal{A}$ be a complete Boolean algebra, and let $\alpha$ be an ordinal number. Define, by transfinite recursion on $\alpha$, the following:

$$V^T_{\alpha} = \{x : x \text{ is a function and } \text{ran}(x) \subseteq T_{\alpha} \text{ and } \text{dom}(x) \subseteq V^T_{\alpha} \text{ for some } \xi < \alpha\};$$

$$V^T_{\alpha} = \{x : x \in V^T_{\alpha} \text{ for some } \alpha\}.$$

The class $V^T_{\alpha}$ is called the twist-valued model over the complete Boolean algebra $\mathcal{A}$.

Definition 7.2. Expand the language $\mathcal{L}$ by adding a constant $\bar{u}$ to each element $u$ of $V^T_{\alpha}$, obtaining a language denoted by $\mathcal{L}(T_{\mathcal{A}})$. The fragments of $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathcal{L}(T_{\mathcal{A}})$ without the connective $\neg$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{L}_p$ and $\mathcal{L}_p(T_{\mathcal{A}})$, respectively. They will be called the pure ZF-languages. Observe that $\mathcal{L}(T_{\mathcal{A}})$ and $\mathcal{L}_p(T_{\mathcal{A}})$ are proper classes. Finally, a formula $\varphi$ in $\mathcal{L}_p$ is called restricted if every occurrence of a quantifier in $\varphi$ is of the form $\forall x (x \in y \rightarrow \ldots)$ or $\exists x (x \in y \land \ldots)$, or if it is proved to be equivalent in ZFC to a formula of this kind.

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**Notation 7.3.** By simplicity, and as it is done with Boolean-valued models, we will identify the element \( u \) of \( V^{T_A} \) with its name \( \overline{u} \) in \( L(T_A) \), simply writing \( u \). Moreover, if \( \varphi \) is a formula in which \( x \) is the unique variable (possibly) occurring free, we will write \( \varphi(u) \) instead of \( \varphi[x/u] \) or \( \varphi[x/\overline{u}] \).

**Remark 7.4** (Induction principles). Recall that, from the regularity axiom of \( ZF \), the sets \( V_\alpha = \{ x : x \subseteq V_\xi \text{ for some } \xi < \alpha \} \) are definable for every ordinal \( \alpha \). Moreover, in \( ZF \) every set \( x \) belongs to some \( V_\alpha \). Since \( \text{rank}(x) < \text{rank}(y) \) is well-founded, it induces a principle of induction on \( \text{rank} \):

Let \( \Psi \) be a property over sets. Assume, for every set \( x \), the following: if \( \Psi(y) \) holds for every \( y \) such that \( \text{rank}(y) < \text{rank}(x) \) then \( \Psi(x) \) holds. Hence, \( \Psi(x) \) holds for every \( x \).

From this, the following **Induction Principle** (IP) holds in \( V^{T_A} \) (similar to the one for Boolean-valued models):

Let \( \Psi \) be a property over individuals in \( V^{T_A} \). Assume, for every \( x \in V^{T_A} \), the following: if \( \Psi(y) \) holds for every \( y \in \text{dom}(x) \) then \( \Psi(x) \) holds. Hence, \( \Psi(x) \) holds for every \( x \in V^{T_A} \).

Both induction principles are fundamental tools in order to prove properties in \( V^{T_A} \).

**Definition 7.5.** Define by induction on the complexity in \( L(T_A) \) a mapping \( [\cdot]^{V^{T_A}} \) (or simply \( [\cdot] \)) assigning to each closed formula in \( L(T_A) \) a value in \( T_A \) as follows:

\[
[u \epsilon v] = \bigvee_{x \in \text{dom}(v)} (v(x) \land [x \approx u])
\]

\[
[u \approx v] = \bigwedge_{x \in \text{dom}(u)} (u(x) \Rightarrow [x \epsilon v]) \land \bigwedge_{x \in \text{dom}(v)} (v(x) \Rightarrow [x \epsilon u])
\]

\[
[\phi \# \psi] = [\phi] \# [\psi] \quad \text{for } \# \in \{\land, \lor, \Rightarrow\}
\]

\[
[\forall x \varphi(x)] = \bigwedge_{u \in V^{T_A}} [\varphi(u)] = (\bigwedge_{u \in V^{T_A}} [\varphi(u)]_1, \bigvee_{u \in V^{T_A}} [\varphi(u)]_2)
\]

\[
[\exists x \varphi(x)] = \bigvee_{u \in V^{T_A}} [\varphi(u)] = (\bigvee_{u \in V^{T_A}} [\varphi(u)]_1, \bigwedge_{u \in V^{T_A}} [\varphi(u)]_2).
\]

\([\varphi]^{V^{T_A}} \) is called the **twist truth-value** of the sentence \( \varphi \in L(T_A) \) in the twist-valued model \( V^{T_A} \) over the complete Boolean algebra \( A \).
**Remark 7.6.** Observe that $V^TA$ can be seen as a structure for QLPT0 over $MT_A$ and $\Theta_{ZF}$ in a wide sense, given that its domain is a proper class. Under this identification, the twist truth-value $[[\varphi]]^VTA$ of the sentence $\varphi$ in $V^TA$ is exactly the value assigned to $\varphi$ by the interpretation map for QLPT0 over $V^TA$ and $MT_A$ (recall Definition 6.9). In this case we assume that the mappings $(\cdot \approx \cdot)^VT_A$ and $(\cdot \approx \cdot)^VT_A$ are as in Definition 7.3.

Recall the notion of semantical consequence relation in QLPT0 (see Definitions 6.12 and 6.13). This motivates the following:

**Definition 7.7.** A sentence $\varphi$ in $L(T_A)$ is said to be valid in $V^TA$, which is denoted by $V^TA \models \varphi$, if $[[\varphi]]^VTA \in D_A$.

The semantical notions introduced above can easily be generalized to formulas with free variables. Recall from Notation 7.3 that $\overline{\pi}$ is identified with $u$ in $V^TA$. Then:

**Definition 7.8.** Let $\varphi$ be a formula in $L$ whose free variables occur in $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$. Given a twist-valued model $V^TA$ and an assignment $\mu : Var \rightarrow V^TA$, the twist truth-value of $\varphi$ in $V^TA$ and $\mu$ is defined as follows: $[[\varphi]]^VTA_\mu = [[\varphi[x_1/\mu(x_1), \ldots, x_n/\mu(x_n)]]]^VTA$. The formula $\varphi$ is valid in $V^TA$ if $[[\varphi]]^VTA_\mu \in D_A$ for every $\mu$.

**Definition 7.9.** $ZF_{LPT0}$ is the logic of the class of twist-valued models, seen as QLPT0-structures over the signature $\Theta_{ZF}$. That is, $ZF_{LPT0}$ is the set of formulas of $L$ which are valid in every twist-valued model $V^TA$.

## 8 Boolean-valued models versus twist-valued models

In this section, the relationship between twist-valued models and Boolean-valued models will be briefly analyzed. It will be shown that these models enjoy similar properties than the Boolean-valued models (when restricted to pure ZF-languages). These similarities will be fundamental in order to prove that ZFC is valid w.r.t. twist-valued models (see Theorem 8.21 below).

The following basic results for twist-valued models are analogous to the corresponding ones for Boolean-valued models obtained in [1, Theorem 1.17]. All these results will be proven by using the Induction Principle (IP) (recall Remark 7.3). From now on we assume that the reader is familiar with the book [1].

**Lemma 8.1.** Let $A$ be a complete Boolean algebra, and let $u \in V^TA$. Then $[u \in u] = 0$.

*Proof.* Assume the inductive hypothesis $[y \in y] = 0$ for every $y \in dom(u)$. Note that

$$[u \epsilon u] = \bigvee_{y \in dom(u)} (u(y) \land [y \approx u])_1.$$

Let $y \in dom(u)$. Then

$$(u(y))_1 \land [y \approx u]_1 \leq (u(y))_1 \land \bigwedge_{x \in dom(u)} ((u(x))_1 \rightarrow [x \epsilon y]_1)$$

$$\leq (u(y))_1 \land ((u(y))_1 \rightarrow [y \epsilon y]_1)$$

$$\leq [y \epsilon y]_1 = 0.$$

Then $(u(y))_1 \land [y \approx u]_1 = 0$ for every $y \in dom(u)$, hence $[u \in u] = 0$. \qed
Theorem 8.2. Let \( \mathcal{A} \) be a complete Boolean algebra, and let \( u, v, w \in \mathbf{V}^{T \mathcal{A}} \). Then:

(i) \([u \approx u]_1 = 1\).
(ii) \(u(x)_1 \leq [x \epsilon u]_1\), for every \( x \in \text{dom}(u) \).
(iii) \([u \approx v]_1 = [v \approx u]_1\).
(iv) \([u \approx v]_1 \land [v \approx w]_1 \leq [u \approx w]_1\).
(v) \([u \approx v]_1 \land [u \epsilon w]_1 \leq [v \epsilon w]_1\).
(vi) \([v \approx w]_1 \land [u \epsilon v]_1 \leq [u \epsilon w]_1\).
(vii) \([u \approx v]_1 \land \lceil \varphi(u) \rceil \leq \lceil \varphi(v) \rceil_1\) for every formula \( \varphi(x) \) in \( \mathcal{L}_p(T_\mathcal{A}) \).

Proof. The proof of items (i)-(vi) is analogous to the proof of the corresponding items found in \([1\] Theorem 1.17\. The proof of item (vii) is easily done by induction on the complexity of \( \varphi(x) \) by observing that: the proof when \( \varphi \) is atomic uses Lemma 8.1 for \( \varphi = (x \epsilon x) \), and items (i)-(vi) for the other cases. For complex formulas the result follows easily by induction hypothesis.

\[
[\exists y((u \approx y) \land \varphi(y))]_1 = \bigvee_{x \in \text{dom}(u)} ([u \approx y]_1 \land [\varphi(y)]_1) \\
\leq \lceil \varphi(u) \rceil_1 = [u \approx u]_1 \land [\varphi(u)]_1 \\
\leq [\exists y((u \approx y) \land \varphi(y))]_1.
\]

Lemma 8.3. Let \( \mathcal{A} \) be a complete Boolean algebra. Then, for every formula \( \varphi(x) \) in \( \mathcal{L}_p(T_\mathcal{A}) \) and every \( u \in \mathbf{V}^{T \mathcal{A}} \): \([\exists y((u \approx y) \land \varphi(y))]_1 = [\varphi(u)]_1\).

Proof. It follows from Theorem 8.2 items (i), (iii) and (viii). Indeed,

\[
[\exists y((u \approx y) \land \varphi(y))]_1 = \bigvee_{x \in \text{dom}(u)} ((u(x))_1 \land [\varphi(x)]_1) \\
\leq [\varphi(u)]_1 = [u \approx u]_1 \land [\varphi(u)]_1 \\
\leq [\exists y((u \approx y) \land \varphi(y))]_1.
\]

Notation 8.4. The following notation from \([1\] will be adopted from now on:

\[
\exists x \in u \varphi(x) =_{\text{def}} \exists x(x \epsilon u \land \varphi(x)); \\
\forall x \in u \varphi(x) =_{\text{def}} \forall x(x \epsilon u \rightarrow \varphi(x)).
\]

Theorem 8.5. Let \( \mathcal{A} \) be a complete Boolean algebra. Then, for every formula \( \varphi(x) \) in \( \mathcal{L}_p(T_\mathcal{A}) \) and every \( u \in \mathbf{V}^{T \mathcal{A}} \):

\[
[\exists x \in u \varphi(x)]_1 = \bigvee_{x \in \text{dom}(u)} ((u(x))_1 \land [\varphi(x)]_1)
\]

and

\[
[\forall x \in u \varphi(x)]_1 = \bigwedge_{x \in \text{dom}(u)} ((u(x))_1 \rightarrow [\varphi(x)]_1)
\]

Proof. The proof is similar to that for \([1\] Corollary 1.18\), taking into account Theorem 8.2 and Lemma 8.3.

Recall that a complete Boolean algebra \( \mathcal{A}' \) is a complete subalgebra of the complete Boolean algebra \( \mathcal{A} \) provided that \( \mathcal{A}' \) is a subalgebra of \( \mathcal{A} \) and \( \bigvee_{\mathcal{A}'} X = \bigvee_{\mathcal{A}} X \) and \( \bigwedge_{\mathcal{A}'} X = \bigwedge_{\mathcal{A}} X \) for every \( X \subseteq |\mathcal{A}'| \). Analogously, we say that a twist-structure \( T_{\mathcal{A}'} \) is a complete subalgebra of the twist-structure \( T_\mathcal{A} \) if \( T_{\mathcal{A}'} \) is a subalgebra of \( T_\mathcal{A} \) and \( \bigvee_{T_{\mathcal{A}'}} X = \bigvee_{T_\mathcal{A}} X \) and \( \bigwedge_{T_{\mathcal{A}'}} X = \bigwedge_{T_\mathcal{A}} X \) for every \( X \subseteq |T_{\mathcal{A}'|} \), recalling Remark 6.10.
Proposition 8.6. If $A'$ is a complete subalgebra of $A$ then $T_{A'}$ is a complete subalgebra of $T_A$.

Proof. If follows from Definition 4.6 and Remark 6.10.

Theorem 8.7. Let $A$ be a complete subalgebra of the complete Boolean algebra $A$. Then:
(i) $V^{T_{A'}} \subseteq V^{T_A}$.
(ii) for every $u, v \in V^{T_{A'}}$: $[u \epsilon w]^{V^{T_{A'}}} = [u \epsilon v]^{V^{T_A}}$, and $[u \approx v]^{V^{T_{A'}}} = [u \approx v]^{V^{T_A}}$.

Corollary 8.8. Suppose that $A'$ is a complete subalgebra of $A$. Then, for any restricted formula $\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ in $L_p$ (recall Definition 7.2) and for every $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in T_{A'}$: $[\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)]^{V^{T_{A'}}} = [\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)]^{V^{T_A}}$.

Proof. The proof is analogous to that for [1, Corollary 1.21].

Remark 8.9. Recall from Remark 4.8 that $T_{A_2}$, the twist structure for $LPT_0$ defined over the two-element Boolean algebra $A_2$, coincides (up to names) with the three-valued algebra $A_{PT_0}$ underlying the matrix $M_{PT_0}$, where 1, $\frac{1}{2}$ and 0 are identified with $(1,0)$, (1,1) and (0,1), respectively. Hence, the twist-valued structure $V^{T_{A_2}}$ will be denoted by $V^{A_{PT_0}}$. Since $A_2$ is a complete subalgebra of any complete Boolean algebra $A$, then $V^{A_{PT_0}}$ is a complete subalgebra of $V^{T_A}$, for any $T_A$. By Theorem 8.7, $[u \epsilon v]^{V^{A_{PT_0}}} = [u \epsilon v]^{V^{T_A}}$ and $[u \approx v]^{V^{A_{PT_0}}} = [u \approx v]^{V^{T_A}}$ for every $u, v \in V^{A_{PT_0}}$ and every $T_A$. As happens with the Boolean-valued model $V^{A_2}$, the twist-valued model $V^{A_{PT_0}}$ is, in some sense, isomorphic to the standard universe $V$, as it will be shown in Theorem 8.13 below.

Definition 8.10. Define by transfinite recursion on the well-founded relation $y \in x$ the following, for each $x \in V$: $\hat{x} = \{ \{y, 1\} : y \in x \}$.

It is clear that $\hat{x} \in V^{A_{PT_0}}$ and so $\hat{x} \in V^{T_A}$ for every $T_A$. Hence, if $\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ is a restricted formula in $L_p$ and $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in V$ then $[\varphi(\hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n)]^{V^{A_{PT_0}}} = [\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)]^{V^{T_A}}$ for every $T_A$, by Corollary 8.8.

Lemma 8.11. Let $\varphi(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a formula in $L_p$, and let $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbf{V}$. Then, $[\varphi(\hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n)]^{V^{A_{PT_0}}} \in \{0, 1\}$.

Proof. The result is proven by induction on the complexity of $\varphi$.

Corollary 8.12. Let $\varphi(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ be a restricted formula in $L_p$, and let $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbf{V}$. Then, $[\varphi(\hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n)]^{V^{T_A}} \in \{0, 1\}$ for every $A$.

Proof. It follows by Lemma 8.11 and by Corollary 8.8.

Theorem 8.13.
(i) For every $x \in V$ and $u \in V^{T_A}$: $[u \epsilon \hat{x}] = \bigvee_{y \in x} [u \approx \hat{y}]$.
(ii) For $x, y \in V$:

$x \in y$ holds in ZFC iff $V^{T_A} \models (\hat{x} \epsilon \hat{y})$ for every $A$;
$x = y$ holds in ZFC iff $V^{T_A} \models (\hat{x} \approx \hat{y})$ for every $A$.
Hence (an application of Theorem 8.2(vii) as follows: be treated analogously to the proof of [1, Theorem 1.23(v)]. In addition, the use of the (v) In order to adapt the proof of [1, Theorem 1.23(v)] it should benoted that, if

(iii) The function $x \mapsto \hat{x}$ is one-to-one from $V$ to $V^{A_{PTO}}$.

(iv) For every $u \in V^{A_{PTO}}$ there is a (unique) $x \in V$ such that $V^A \models (u \approx \hat{x})$ for all $A$.

(v) For every formula $\varphi(v_1, \ldots, v_n)$ in $L_p$ and every $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in V$:

$$\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \text{ holds in ZFC iff } V^{A_{PTO}} \models \varphi(\hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n).$$

In addition if $\varphi$ is restricted (recall Definition 7.2) then, for every $x_1, \ldots, x_n \in V$:

$$\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n) \text{ holds in ZFC iff } V^A \models \varphi(\hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n), \text{ for every } A.$$

Proof. It follows by an easy adaptation of the proof of [1, Theorem 1.23]. The only points to be considered are the following:

(i) Note that $1 \wedge a = a$ for every $a \in |T_A|$. Then, the adaptation of the proof of this item is immediate.

(ii) Both assertions are simultaneously proven by induction on $rank(y)$ (see Remark 7.4), where the induction hypothesis is: for every $z$ with $rank(z) < rank(y)$, $x \in z$ iff $V^A \models (\hat{x} \epsilon \hat{z})$ for every $x$ and $A$: $x = z$ iff $V^A \models (\hat{x} \approx \hat{z})$ for every $x$ and $A$; and $z \epsilon x$ iff $V^A \models (\hat{z} \epsilon \hat{x})$ for every $x$ and $A$. For the first assertion, Corollary 8.12 should be used. For the second assertion, note that $1 \rightarrow a = a$ for every $a \in |A|$. Hence $([\hat{x} \approx \hat{z}]^V)^1 = \bigwedge_{y \epsilon x} (\hat{y}^V)^{V^A}_1 \wedge \bigwedge_{y \epsilon z} (\hat{y}^x)^{V^A}_1$.

(iii) It follows from (ii).

(iv) By adapting the proof of [1, Theorem 1.23(iv)], at some point of the proof the set $v = \{y \in V : u(x) = 1 \text{ and } ([x \approx \hat{y}]^{V^A})_1 = 1, \text{ for some } x \in dom(u)\}$ of $V$ must be considered.

(v) In order to adapt the proof of [1, Theorem 1.23(v)] it should be noted that, if $\emptyset \neq X \subseteq |A_{PTO}|$ is such that $\bigvee_{A_{PTO}} X = 1$, then $1 \in X$. From this, the inductive step $\varphi = \exists x \psi$ can be treated analogously to the proof of [1, Theorem 1.23(v)]. In addition, the use of the Leibniz rule (see [1, Theorem 1.17(vii)]) at this point of the proof can be adapted here to an application of Theorem 8.12(vii) as follows:

$$1 = ([\psi(x, \hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n])^{V^{A_{PTO}}}_1 \wedge ([x \approx \hat{y}]^{V^{A_{PTO}}}_0 \leq ([\psi(\hat{y}, \hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n])^{V^{A_{PTO}}}_1.$$

Hence $([\psi(\hat{y}, \hat{x}_1, \ldots, \hat{x}_n])^{V^{A_{PTO}}}_1 = 1$, and the rest of the proof follows from here. \hfill \Box

Now it will be shown the Maximum Principle of Boolean-valued models (see [1, Lemma 1.27]) is also valid in twist-valued models. The adaptation to our framework of the proof of this result found in [1] is straightforward.

**Definition 8.14.** Let $A$ be a complete Boolean algebra. Given sets $E = \{a_i : i \in I\} \subseteq |A|$ and $F = \{u_i : i \in I\} \subseteq V^A$, the twist mixture of $F$ with respect to $E$ is the element $u = \sum_{i \in I} a_i \otimes u_i$ of $V^A$ defined as follows:

$$dom(u) = \bigcup_{i \in I} dom(u_i),$$

---

It is worth observing that the definition of the second coordinate of $u(z)$ will be irrelevant.
\[ u(z) = \left( \bigvee_{i \in I} (a_i \land \lceil z \epsilon u_i \rceil_1), \sim \bigvee_{i \in I} (a_i \land \lceil z \epsilon u_i \rceil_1) \right), \text{for every } z \in \text{dom}(u). \]

**Lemma 8.15** (Mixing Lemma). Let \( \{a_i : i \in I\} \subseteq \mathcal{A} \) and \( \{u_i : i \in I\} \subseteq V^{T_A} \), and let \( u = \sum_{i \in I} a_i \circ u_i \). Suppose that, for every \( i, j \in I \), \( a_i \land a_j \leq \lceil u_i \approx u_j \rceil_1 \). Then \( a_i \leq \lfloor u \approx u_i \rfloor_1 \) for every \( i \in I \).

**Proof.** It can be proved by a straightforward adaptation of the proof of \([1, \text{Lemma 1.25}]\), taking into account Theorem \([8.2]\) items (ii), (iii) and (vii). \qed

The next fundamental result shows that the set of pure ZF-sentences validated by each twist-valued structure \( V^{T_A} \) is a Henkin theory:

**Lemma 8.16** (The Maximum Principle). Let \( \mathcal{A} \) be a complete Boolean algebra. Then, for every formula \( \varphi(x) \) in \( \mathcal{L}_p(T_A) \), there is \( u \in V^{T_A} \) such that

\[ \exists x \varphi(x) \models_1 \lceil \varphi(u) \rceil_1. \]

In particular, if \( V^{T_A} \models \exists x \varphi(x) \) then \( V^{T_A} \models \varphi(u) \) for some \( u \in V^{T_A} \).

**Proof.** The proof is obtained by a straightforward adaptation of the proof of \([1, \text{Lemma 1.27}]\). The collection \( X = \{\lceil \varphi(u) \rceil : u \in V^{T_A}\} \) is a set, since \( T_A \) is a set. By the Axiom of Choice, there is an ordinal \( \alpha \) and a set \( \{u_\xi : \xi < \alpha\} \subseteq V^{T_A} \) such that \( X = \{\lceil \varphi(u_\xi) \rceil : \xi < \alpha\} \), hence \( \exists x \varphi(x) \models \bigvee_{\xi < \alpha} \lceil \varphi(u_\xi) \rceil_1 \). For each \( \xi < \alpha \) let \( a_\xi = \lceil \varphi(u_\xi) \rceil_1 \land \bigvee_{\eta < \xi} \lceil \varphi(u_\eta) \rceil_1 \), and let \( u = \sum_{\xi < \alpha} a_\xi \circ u_\xi \). By the Mixing Lemma \([8.15]\) and by Theorem \([8.2]\) items (ii) and (vii) it follows that \( \exists x \varphi(x) \models_1 \lceil \varphi(u) \rceil_1 \). \qed

**Corollary 8.17.** Let \( \varphi(x) \) be a formula in \( \mathcal{L}_p(T_A) \) such that \( V^{T_A} \models \exists x \varphi(x) \). Then:

(i) For any \( v \in V^{T_A} \) there exists \( u \in V^{T_A} \) such that \( \lceil \varphi(u) \rceil_1 = 1 \) and \( \lceil \varphi(v) \rceil_1 = \lfloor u \approx v \rfloor_1 \).

(ii) Let \( \psi(x) \) be a formula in \( \mathcal{L}_p(T_A) \) such that \( V^{T_A} \models \varphi(u) \) implies that \( V^{T_A} \models \psi(u) \), for every \( u \in V^{T_A} \). Then \( V^{T_A} \models \forall x (\varphi(x) \rightarrow \psi(x)) \).

**Proof.** Is an easy adaptation of the proof of \([1, \text{Corollary 1.28}]\), taking into account Lemma \([8.16]\) and Theorem \([8.2]\) items (ii) and (vii). \qed

The notion of core for a Boolean-valued set (see \([1]\)) can be easily adapted to twist-valued sets:

**Definition 8.18.** Let \( u \in V^{T_A} \). A core for \( u \) is a set \( v \subseteq V^{T_A} \) such that: (i) \( \lfloor x \epsilon u \rfloor_1 = 1 \) for every \( x \in v \); and (ii) for every \( y \in V^{T_A} \) such that \( \lceil y \epsilon u \rceil_1 = 1 \), there is a unique \( x \in v \) such that \( \lfloor x \approx y \rfloor_1 = 1 \).

**Lemma 8.19.** Any \( u \in V^{T_A} \) has a core.

**Proof.** Is an easy adaptation of the proof of \([1, \text{Lemma 1.31}]\). \qed

Let \( \emptyset \) be the empty element of \( V^{T_A} \). As happens with Boolean-valued models, if \( u \in V^{T_A} \) is such that \( V^{T_A} \models \sim (u \approx \emptyset) \) then, by the Maximum Principle, any core of \( u \) is nonempty.

**Corollary 8.20.** Let \( u \in V^{T_A} \) such that \( V^{T_A} \models \sim (u \approx \emptyset) \), and let \( v \) be a core for \( u \). Then, for any \( x \in V^{T_A} \) there exists \( y \in v \) such that \( \lfloor x \approx y \rfloor_1 = \lfloor x \epsilon u \rfloor_1 \).
Proof. Is follows from Corollary 8.17.

From the results obtained above, one of the main results of the paper can be established:

**Theorem 8.21.** All the axioms (hence all the theorems) of ZFC, when restricted to pure ZF-languages \( \mathcal{L}_p(T_A) \) (recall Definition 7.2), are valid in \( V^{T_A} \), for every \( A \).

**Proof.** It is a relatively easy (but arduous) adaptation of the proof of [1, Theorem 1.33], taking into account the auxiliary results obtained within this section, which are similar to the ones required in [1].

9 Twist-valued models for \((\mathbb{P}_3, \neg)\)

In this section the three-valued model for set theory introduced by Löwe and Tarafder in [18] will be extended to a class of twist-valued models.

As observed in Section 7, the three-valued logic \((\mathbb{P}_3, \neg)\) (denoted as \((\mathbb{P}_3, *)\) in [18]) was already considered in [13] under the name MPT. Indeed, this logic has been independently proposed by different authors at several times, and with different motivations. For instance, the same logic was proposed in 1970 by da Costa and D’Ottaviano’s as \(J_3\). It was reintroduced in 2000 by Carnielli, Marcos and de Amo as \(LFI_1\) and by Batens and De Clerq as the propositional fragment of the first-order logic \(CLuNs\), in 2014. As observed by Batens, this logic was firstly proposed by Karl Scütte in 1960 under the name \(\Phi_v\) (see [7] for details and specific references). Each of the three-valued algebras above is equivalent, up to language, to the three-valued algebra of Lukasiewicz three-valued logic \(L_3\). Hence, these logics are equivalent to \(L_3\) with \(\{1, \frac{1}{2}, 0\}\) as designated values. Moreover, as it was shown by Blok and Pigozzi in [2], the class of algebraic models of \(J_3\) (and so the class of twist structures for \(LPT_0\)) coincides with the algebraic models of Lukasiewicz’s three-valued logic \(L_3\). More remarks about these three-valued equivalent logics can be found in [7], Chapters 4 and 7.

As shown in [13, p. 407], the implication \(\Rightarrow\) given by

| \(\Rightarrow\) | 1 | \(\frac{1}{2}\) | 0 |
|-----------|---|------------|---|
| 1         | 1 | 1         | 0 |
| \(\frac{1}{2}\) | 1 | 1         | 0 |
| 0         | 1 | 1         | 1 |

(which is the same implication \(\Rightarrow\) of \(\mathbb{P}_3\) and the primitive implication of MPT) can be defined in the language of \(LFI_1\) (hence in the language of \(LPT_0\)) as follows: \(\varphi \Rightarrow \psi =_{def} \neg \neg(\varphi \Rightarrow \psi)\). From this, it is easy to adapt Definition 4.6 of twist-structures for \(LPT_0\) to \((\mathbb{P}_3, \neg)\) (see Definition 9.1 below). Hence, the logic \((\mathbb{P}_3, \neg)\) will be considered as defined over the signature \(\Sigma_{\Rightarrow} = \{\land, \lor, \Rightarrow, \neg\}\). As observed in [13, pp. 395 and 407], the strong negation \(\sim\) can be defined as \(\sim \varphi =_{def} \varphi \Rightarrow \neg(\varphi \Rightarrow \varphi)\), while \(\varphi \Rightarrow \psi =_{def} \sim \varphi \lor \psi\).

**Definition 9.1.** Let \(A\) be a complete Boolean algebra, and let \(T_A\) as in Definition 4.5. The twist structure for \((\mathbb{P}_3, \neg)\) over \(A\) is the algebra \(T_A^\sim = (T_A, \hat{\land}, \hat{\lor}, \hat{\Rightarrow}, \hat{\neg})\) over \(\Sigma_{\Rightarrow}\) such that the operations \(\hat{\land}, \hat{\lor}, \hat{\Rightarrow}\) and \(\hat{\neg}\) are defined as in Definition 4.6 and \(\hat{\Rightarrow}\) is defined as follows, for every \((z_1, z_2), (w_1, w_2) \in T_A^\sim\):

\[\Rightarrow = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z_1 \lor \neg z_2 = w_1 \lor w_2 \\ \frac{1}{2} & \text{if } z_1 \land \neg z_2 = w_1 \land w_2 \\ 0 & \text{if } z_1 \land \neg z_2 = \neg(w_1 \Rightarrow w_2) \end{cases}\]

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8As mentioned in Section 8, \(LFI_1\) is another presentation of this logic.
\[(z_1, z_2) \Rightarrow (w_1, w_2) = (z_1 \rightarrow w_1, z_1 \land \neg w_1).\]

By considering (as mentioned above) \(\neg\) and \(\rightarrow\) as derived connectives in \(T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast\), it is clear that \(\sim(z_1, z_2) = (\neg z_1, z_1)\) and \((z_1, z_2) \Rightarrow (w_1, w_2) = (z_1 \rightarrow w_1, z_1 \land \neg w_2)\). Hence, the original operations of Definition 9.2 can be recovered in \(T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast\).

As it will be discussed below, we will adopt a technique different to the one used in [18] in order to show the satisfaction of ZFC in the twist-valued models based on \(T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast\). However, it is interesting to observe that a nice property of \((P_3, \sim)\) is preserved by any \(T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast\). Indeed, in [18] the following notion of reasonable implication algebras was proposed in order to provide suitable lattice-valued for ZF:

**Definition 9.2.** An algebra \(\mathcal{A} = \langle A, \land, \lor, \Rightarrow, 0, 1 \rangle\) is an reasonable implication algebra if the reduct \(\langle A, \land, \lor, 0, 1 \rangle\) is a complete lattice with bottom 0 and top 1, and \(\Rightarrow\) is a binary operator satisfying the following, for every \(z, w, u \in A\):

- \((P_1)\) \(z \land w \leq u\) implies that \(z \leq (w \Rightarrow u)\);
- \((P_2)\) \(z \leq w\) implies that \((u \Rightarrow z) \leq (u \Rightarrow w)\);
- \((P_3)\) \(z \leq w\) implies that \((w \Rightarrow u) \leq (z \Rightarrow u)\).

**Proposition 9.3.** For every complete Boolean algebra \(\mathcal{A}\), the twist structure \(T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast\) for \((\mathcal{P}_3, \neg)\) is a reasonable implication algebra such that \(0 = (0, 1)\) and \(1 = (1, 0)\).\(^9\)

*Proof.* Let \((z_1, z_2), (w_1, w_2), (u_1, u_2) \in T_{\mathcal{A}}\).

- \((P_1)\): Assume that \((z_1, z_2) \land (w_1, w_2) \leq (u_1, u_2)\). That is, \((z_1 \land w_1, z_2 \lor w_2) \leq (u_1, u_2)\). Then \(z_1 \land w_1 \leq u_1\) and \(z_2 \lor w_2 \geq u_2\). From \(z_1 \land w_1 \leq u_1\) it follows that \(z_1 \leq w_1 \rightarrow u_1\). Besides, since \(z_1 \lor z_2 = 1\) then \(\sim z_2 \leq z_1 \leq w_1 \rightarrow u_1\). Hence \(z_2 \geq \sim(w_1 \rightarrow u_1) = w_1 \land \sim u_1\). From this, \((z_1, z_2) \leq (w_1 \rightarrow u_1, w_1 \land \sim u_1) = (w_1, w_2) \Rightarrow (u_1, u_2)\).

- \((P_2)\): Assume that \((z_1, z_2) \leq (w_1, w_2)\). Then \(z_1 \leq w_1\), hence \(u_1 \rightarrow z_1 \leq u_1 \rightarrow w_1\) and so \(u_1 \land \sim z_1 = \sim(u_1 \rightarrow z_1) \geq \sim(u_1 \rightarrow w_1) = u_1 \land \sim w_1\). This means that \((u_1, u_2) \Rightarrow (z_1, z_2) \leq (u_1, u_2) \Rightarrow (w_1, w_2)\).

- \((P_3)\): It is proved analogously, but now taking into account that \(z_1 \leq w_1\) implies that \(w_1 \rightarrow u_1 \leq z_1 \rightarrow u_1\). \(\square\)

Now, the three-valued model of set theory presented in [18] will be generalized to twist-valued models over any complete Boolean algebra. The structure \(V_{T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast}\) is defined as the structure \(V_{T_{\mathcal{A}}}^\ast\) given in Definition 7.1. This does not come as a surprise, given that the domain of \(T_{\mathcal{A}}\) and \(T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast\) is the same, the set \(T_{\mathcal{A}}\). However, \(V_{T_{\mathcal{A}}}^\ast\) and \(V_{T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast}\) are different as first-order structures, namely, the way in which the formulas are interpreted. The only difference, besides using different implications in the underlying logics, will be in the form in which the predicates \(\epsilon\) and \(\approx\) are interpreted. Thus, the twist truth-value \([\varphi]_{V_{T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast}}\) of a sentence \(\varphi\) in \(V_{T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast}\) will be defined according to the recursive clauses in Definition 7.5 with the following difference: any occurrence of the operator \(\sim\) must be replaced by the operator \(\Rightarrow\). Note that the clause interpreting \(\sim \varphi\) is now derived from the others, taking into account the observation after Definition 9.1.\(^9\)

\(^9\)To be rigorous, the \(\sim\)-less reduct of \(T_{\mathcal{A}}^\ast\) expanded with 0 and 1 is a reasonable implication algebra.
In Theorem 9.4 below it is stated that every twist-valued structure $V^{T_A^*}$ is a model of $\text{ZFC}$. This constitutes a generalization of [18 Corollary 11]. Indeed, instead of taking just a three-valued model (generated by the two-element Boolean algebra), we obtain a class of models, one for each complete Boolean algebra. Moreover, we also prove that these generalized models (including, of course, the original Löwe-Tarafder model) satisfy, in addition, the Axiom of Choice.

The proof of validity of $\text{ZF}$ given in [18 Corollary 11] is strongly based on the particularities of the three-valued algebra of $(\mathbb{P}_S, \sim)$ [19]. This forces us to adapt, to this setting, the proof for twist-valued models over $\mathcal{T}_A$ given in the previous sections (which, by its turn, is adapted from the proof for Boolean-valued sets). Such adaptations from $\mathcal{T}_A$ to $\mathcal{T}_A^*$ are immediate, and all the results and definitions proposed in the previous sections work fine for $\mathcal{T}_A^*$. Hence, we obtain the second main result of the paper:

**Theorem 9.4.** All the axioms (hence all the theorems) of $\text{ZFC}$, when restricted to pure $\text{ZF}$-languages $\mathcal{L}_p(\mathcal{T}_A)$, are valid in $V^{T_A^*}$, for every $\mathcal{A}$.

**Remark 9.5.** Observe that, in [18 Corollary 11], it was proved that $\mathbb{P}_S$ is a model of $\text{ZF}$, not of $\text{ZFC}$. Thus, Theorem 9.4 improves the above mentioned result in two ways: it is generalized to arbitrary Boolean algebras and, in addition, it proves that the Axiom of Choice $\text{AC}$ is also satisfied by all that models, including the original three-valued structure $\mathbb{P}_S$.

### 10 ZF$_{LPT_0}$ as a paraconsistent set theory

After proving that the two classes of twist-valued models proposed here are models of $\text{ZFC}$, in this section the paraconsistent character of both classes of models will be investigated. It will be shown that twist-valued models over $\mathcal{T}_A$ (that is, over the logic $\text{LPT}_0$) are “more paraconsistent” than the ones over $\mathcal{T}_A^*$ (that is, defined over $(\mathbb{P}_S, \sim)$).

Recall from Theorem 8.2(i) that $[u \approx u] \in D_A$ for every $u$ in every twist-valued model $V^{T_A}$. The interesting fact of $\text{ZF}_{LPT_0}$ is that it allows “inconsistent” sets, that is, elements of $V^{T_A}$ such that the value of $(u \not\approx u)$ is also designated. Observe that $1 = (1, 0)$, $\frac{1}{2} = (1, 1)$ and $0 = (0, 1)$ are defined in every $\mathcal{T}_A$. Since $z \in D_A$ iff $z = (1, a)$ for some $a \in A$ it follows that $\frac{1}{2} \leq z$ for every $z \in D_A$ (recalling the partial order for $\mathcal{T}_A$ considered in Remark 6.10).

**Proposition 10.1.** There exists $u \in V^{T_A}$ such that $[u \approx u] = \frac{1}{2}$.

**Proof.** Let $w$ be any element of $V^{T_A}$, and let $u = \{\langle w, \frac{1}{2} \rangle\}$. Since $[w \approx w] \in D_A$ then $[w \in u] = w(w) \wedge [w \approx w] = \frac{1}{2} \wedge [w \approx w] = \frac{1}{2}$. From this, $[u \approx u] = u(w) \rightarrow [w \in u] = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$. $\square$

From the last result it can be proven that $\text{ZF}_{LPT_0}$ is strongly paraconsistent, in the sense that there is a contradiction which is valid in the logic:

**Corollary 10.2.** Let $\sigma = \forall x (x \approx x)$. Then $V^{T_A} \models \sigma \wedge \neg \sigma$.

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10For instance, the fact that expressions like $[u \approx v] \Rightarrow [u \in w]$ can only take either the value $0$ or $1$ is used several times in [18]. Observe that, in $\mathcal{T}_A^*$, the value of $z \Rightarrow w$ is always of the form $(a, \sim a)$ for some $a \in |A|$. Hence $[u \approx v]^{V^{T_A^*}}$ is always of the form $(a, \sim a)$ for some $a \in |A|$. 

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Proof. Let $V^{TA}$ be a twist-valued model for $ZF_{LPT_0}$. As observed above, $\frac{1}{2} \leq z$ for every $z \in D_A$. By Theorem S.2(i), $[v \approx v] \in D_A$ for every $v$ in $V^{TA}$ and so $\frac{1}{2} \leq [v \approx v]$ for every $v$, that is, $\frac{1}{2} \leq [\forall x(x \approx x)]$, by Definition T.5. On the other hand, $[\forall x(x \approx x)] \leq [u \approx u] = \frac{1}{2}$, for $u$ as in Proposition 10.1. This shows that $[\sigma] = [\forall x(x \approx x)] = \frac{1}{2}$ and so $[\neg \sigma] = \neg \neg [\sigma] = \frac{1}{2}$. Hence $[\sigma \land \neg \sigma] = [\sigma] \land [\neg \sigma] = \frac{1}{2}$, a designated value. □

Since the extensionality axiom of $ZF$ is satisfied by every twist-valued model $V^{TA}$ for $ZF_{LPT_0}$, $[u \approx v] \in D_A$ iff $u$ and $v$ have the same elements, that is: for every $w$ in $V^{TA}$, $[w \in u] \in D_A$ iff $[w \in v] \in D_A$. However, nothing guarantees that $u$ and $v$ will have the same ‘non-elements’, namely: it could be possible that $[-(w \in u)] \in D_A$ but $[-(w \in v)] \notin D_A$, for some $w$ in $V^{TA}$, even when $[u \approx v] \in D_A$. Given such $w$, consider the property $\varphi(x) := \neg(w \in x)$, meaning that “$w$ is a non-element of $x$”. Then, this situation shows that $V^{TA} \not\models ((u \approx v) \land \varphi(u)) \rightarrow \varphi(v)$, which constitutes a violation of the Leibniz rule for the equality predicate $\approx$ in $ZF_{LPT_0}$.

**Theorem 10.3.** The formula $\varphi(x) := \neg(w \in x)$ is such that the Leibniz rule fails for it in every $V^{TA}$, namely: $V^{TA} \not\models \forall x \forall y((x \approx y) \land \varphi(x) \rightarrow \varphi(y))$.

**Proof.** Let $V^{TA}$ be a twist-valued model for $ZF_{LPT_0}$, and let $\emptyset$ be the empty element of $V^{TA}$. Observe that $w = \{(w, 1), \emptyset\}$, $u = \{(w, 1), \frac{1}{2}\}$ and $v = \{(w, 1)\}$ belong to every model $V^{TA}$. Now, $[\emptyset \in w] = \emptyset(w) \land [\emptyset \approx \emptyset] = 1 \land 1 = 1$. From this, $[w \approx w] = w(\emptyset) \rightarrow [\emptyset \in w] = 1 \land 1 = 1$ and so $[w \in u] = u(w) \land [w \approx w] = \frac{1}{2} \land \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$. On the other hand, $[w \in v] = v(w) \land [w \approx w] = 1 \land 1 = 1$. This implies that $[u \approx v] = (u(w) \rightarrow [w \in v] \land [v \in w] \rightarrow [w \in u]) = (\frac{1}{2} \land 1) \land (1 \land 1) = \frac{1}{2}$.

But $[\varphi(u)] = [\neg(w \in u)] = \neg \neg [w \in u] = \neg \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ and $[\varphi(v)] = [\neg(w \in v)] = \neg \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$. Thus, $[((u \approx v) \land \varphi(u)) \rightarrow \varphi(v)] = (\frac{1}{2} \land \frac{1}{2}) \rightarrow 0 = 0$, which implies that $V^{TA} \not\models \forall x \forall y((x \approx y) \land \varphi(x) \rightarrow \varphi(y))$. □

It is important to observe that the failure of the Leibniz rule in $V^{TA}$ shown in Theorem 10.3 does not contradict Theorem S.2(viii): indeed, what Theorem S.2(viii) states is the validity of the Leibniz rule in $V^{TA}$ for every formula $\varphi(x)$ in the pure $ZF$-language $L_p(TA)$. On the other hand, the formula $\varphi(x)$ found in Theorem 10.3 which violates the Leibniz rule in $V^{TA}$ contains an occurrence of the paraconsistent negation $\neg$, that is, it does not belong to $L_p(TA)$. In that example, two sets which are equal have different ‘non-elements’, where ‘non’ refers to the paraconsistent negation $\neg$.

Besides the failure of the Leibniz rule for the full language, $ZF_{LPT_0}$ does not validate the so-called bounded quantification properties.

**Definition 10.4.** For any formula $\varphi$ and every $u \in V^{TA}$, the **universal bounded quantification property** $UBQ^u_\varphi$ and the **existential bounded quantification property** $EBQ^u_\varphi$ are defined as follows:

$$(UBQ^u_\varphi) \quad [\forall x(x \in u \rightarrow \varphi(x))]_1 = \bigwedge_{x \in \text{dom}(u)}((u(x))_1 \rightarrow \varphi(x))$$

$$(EBQ^u_\varphi) \quad [\exists x(x \in u \land \varphi(x))]_1 = \bigvee_{x \in \text{dom}(u)}((u(x))_1 \land \varphi(x))_1$$

By simplicity, formulas on the left-hand side of $UBQ^u_\varphi$ and $EBQ^u_\varphi$ will be written as $[\forall x \in u \varphi(x)]_1$ and $[\exists x \in u \varphi(x)]_1$, respectively.

By adapting the proof of [1] Corollary 1.18 it can be proven the following:
Theorem 10.5. For any negation-free formula \( \varphi \) (i.e., \( \varphi \in \mathcal{L}_p(T_A) \)) and every \( u \in V^{TA} \), the bounded quantification properties \( \text{UBQ}_\varphi^u \) and \( \text{EBQ}_\varphi^u \) hold in \( V^{TA} \).

However, for formulas containing the paraconsistent negation the latter result does not holds in general:

**Proposition 10.6.** There is \( u \in V^{TA} \) and formulas \( \varphi(x) \) and \( \psi(x) \) such that the bounded quantification properties \( \text{UBQ}_\varphi^u \) and \( \text{EBQ}_\varphi^u \) fail in \( V^{TA} \).

**Proof.** It is enough to prove the failure of \( \text{EBQ}_\varphi^u \) given that the failure of \( \text{UBQ}_\varphi^u \) is obtained from it by using \( \psi(x) := \neg \varphi(x) \) and the duality between infimum and supremum through the Boolean complement \( \sim \).

Thus, let \( V^{TA} \) and let \( w = \{ \langle \emptyset, 1 \rangle \} \), \( v = \{ \langle w, \frac{1}{2} \rangle \} \), \( y = \{ \langle w, 1 \rangle \} \) and \( u = \{ \langle y, 1 \rangle \} \).

Let \( \varphi(x) := \neg (w \in x) \). As in the proof of Theorem 10.3 it can be proven that \( [v \approx y] = [\varphi(v)] = \frac{1}{2} \) and \( [\varphi(y)] = 0 \). Hence \( \forall_{x \in \text{dom}(u)}([u(x)]_1 \land [\varphi(x)]_1) = [u(y)]_1 \land [\varphi(y)]_1 = 0 \) while \( \exists_{x \in u} \varphi(x) \). But \( \exists_{x \in u} \varphi(x)_1 = \exists_{x \in u} \varphi(x)_1 = \exists_{x \in u} \varphi(x) \). This means that \( \exists_{x \in u} \varphi(x)_1 = 1 \neq 0 = \exists_{x \in \text{dom}(u)}([u(x)]_1 \land [\varphi(x)]_1) \).

It is worth noting that the limitations of \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \) pointed out above (namely, the Leibniz rule and the bounded quantification property for formulas containing the paraconsistent negation) are also present in L"owe-Tarafder's model \( \text{1.8.} \)

As mentioned in Section 3 in [6] was presented a family of paraconsistent set theories based on diverse LFIs, such that the original \( \text{ZF} \) axioms were slightly modified in order to deal with a unary predicate \( C(x) \) representing that ‘the set \( x \) is consistent’. The consistency connective \( \circ \) is primitive in \( \text{mbC} \), but it is definable as \( \circ \varphi := (\varphi \land \neg \varphi) \) in any axiomatic extension of \( \text{mbC} \) which proves the schema (ciw): \( \circ \varphi \lor (\varphi \land \neg \varphi) \) such as \( \text{LPT0} \). In the same way, the consistency predicate \( C(x) \) can be expressed, in extensions of \( \text{ZFmbC} \), in terms of a formula of \( \text{ZFmbC} \) without using the predicate \( C \), and the same happens with the inconsistency predicate \( \neg C(x) \). For instance, \( \text{ZFmCi} \) is based on \( \text{mCi} \), an extension of \( \text{mbC} \) in which \( \neg \circ \varphi \) is equivalent to \( \varphi \land \neg \varphi \). Thus, \( \neg C(x) \) was defined to be equivalent to \( (x \approx x) \lor (x \approx x) \) in \( \text{ZFmCi} \). From this, \( \neg C(x) \) is equivalent to \( \neg \circ (x \approx x) \) in \( \text{ZFmCi} \). Given that \( \text{LPT0} \) is an extension of \( \text{mCi} \), if a consistency predicate for sets were added to the language of \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \) then it seems reasonable to require the equivalence between \( \neg C(x) \) and \( \neg \circ (x \approx x) \) in \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \). But \( \circ C(x) \) is derivable \( \text{ZFmCi} \), so it would be valid in \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \) (indeed, the proof in \( \text{ZFmCi} \) of \( \circ C(x) \) given in [6] Proposition 3.10) holds in \( \text{QLPT0} \), assuming the axioms for \( C \) from \( \text{ZFmCi} \). From this \( C(x) \leftrightarrow \circ (x \approx x) \) would be also derivable in \( \text{QLPT0} \) and so it would be valid in \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \) expanded with a suitable predicate \( C \) denoting ‘consistency for sets’. This motivates the following:

**Definition 10.7.** Define in \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \) the consistency predicate for sets, \( C(x) \), as follows: \( C(x) \triangleq C(x) \).

According to the previous discussion, \( C(x) \) should be equivalent to \( \circ (x \approx x) \) in \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \). But \( \circ \varphi \) is equivalent to \( \neg (\varphi \land \neg \varphi) \) in \( \text{LPT0} \), and \( (x \approx x) \) is valid in \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \), hence \( C(x) \) should be equivalent to \( \neg (x \approx x) \) in \( \text{ZF}_{LPT0} \), which justifies Definition 10.7.

**Proposition 10.8.** The consistency predicate \( C(x) \) is non-trivial: there exist \( v, w \in V^{TA} \) such that \( [C(v)] = 1 \) and \( [C(w)] = 0 \). Moreover, \( [C(u)] \neq \frac{1}{2} \) for every \( u \in V^{TA} \).
Proof. Let $V^{T_A}$ be a twist-valued model for $\text{ZF}_\text{LPT0}$, and consider $v = \{(\emptyset, 1)\}$ and $w = \{\langle \emptyset, \frac{1}{2} \rangle\}$ in $V^{T_A}$. It is easy to see that $[C(v)] = 1$ and $[C(w)] = 0$. On the other hand, for every $u$ in $V^{T_A}$ it is the case that $[C(u)] = \sim z$ for $z = \sim(u \approx u)]$. Hence $[C(u)] = (\sim z_1, z_1) \neq \frac{1}{2}$, for every $u$.

Finally, we can show now that twist-valued models over $T_A$ (that is, over the logic LPT0) are “more paraconsistent” than the ones over $T_A^*$ (that is, defined over $(\text{QLPT0}, \neg)$).

Indeed, as we have seen, $\text{ZF}_\text{LPT0}$ allow us to define in every twist-valued model $V^{T_A}$ an “inconsistent set”, namely $u$, such that $(u \approx u) \wedge \sim(u \approx u)$ holds. In fact, any $u = \{\langle w, \frac{1}{2} \rangle\}$ is such that $[u \approx u] = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$. The difference, of course, rests on the nature of the implication operator considered in each case: in $(\text{QLPT0}, \neg)$ the value of $(u \approx u)$ is always 1, since $\frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = 1$. Hence, $(u \approx u)$ always gets the value 0. The same holds in any model over reasonable implicative algebras considered by L"owe and Tarafder (see [18 Proposition 1]).

10.1 Discussion: $\text{ZF}_\text{LPT0}$ and the failure of the Leibniz rule

At first sight, having a (paraconsistent) set theory as $\text{ZF}_\text{LPT0}$ in which the Leibniz rule is not satisfied for every formula $\varphi(x)$ that represents a property could seem to be a bit disappointing. After all, $\text{ZF}$ is defined as a first-order theory with equality, which presupposes the validity of the Leibniz rule.

The Leibniz rule states that the equality predicate preserves logical equivalence, namely:

$$(a \approx b) \rightarrow (\varphi(a) \leftrightarrow \varphi(b)) \text{ for every formula } \varphi(x) \text{ (clearly this can be generalized to formulas with } n \geq 1 \text{ free variables, assuming } \wedge_{i=1}^{n}(a_i \approx b_i)).$$

In first-order theories based on classical logic, such as $\text{ZF}$, it is enough to require that this property holds for every atomic formula, and so the general case is proven by induction on the complexity of $\varphi$. Of course this proof cannot be reproduced in QLPT0, since $\neg$ is not congruential: $\varphi(a) \leftrightarrow \varphi(b)$ does not imply $\neg \varphi(a) \leftrightarrow \neg \varphi(b)$ in general (and this is the key step in the proof by induction). The solution is requiring the validity of the Leibniz rule for every $\varphi$ from the beginning, adjusting accordingly the class of interpretations for QLPT0 expanded with equality (see [12]). However, the situation for $\text{ZF}_\text{LPT0}$ is quite different: because of the extensionality axiom, the definition of the interpretation of the equality predicate depends strongly on the interpretation of the membership predicate. In fact, the interpretation of both predicates is simultaneously defined by transfinite recursion, according to Definition [7.6].

The validity of the Leibniz rule, in the case of Boolean-set models for ZFC, is proven as a theorem. The simultaneous definition of the equality and membership predicates is designed to fit exactly the requirements of the extensionality axiom: two individuals (sets) are identical provided that they have the same elements. From this, it is proven by induction of the complexity of $\varphi(x)$ that $[u \approx v] \wedge [\varphi(u)] \leq [\varphi(v)]$ in every Boolean-valued model. As we have seen in Theorem [5.2 vii], the same holds in twist-valued models w.r.t. the first coordinate, namely: $[u \approx v] \wedge [\varphi(u)] \leq [\varphi(v)]$. But then, it is required that this property just holds for ‘classical’ formulas, that is, formulas $\varphi$ without occurrences of the paraconsistent negation $\neg$. The explanation for this fact is simple, from the technical point of view: assuming that the property above holds for $\varphi$ then, when considering $\neg \varphi$, the value of $[\neg \varphi(u)]$ is $[\varphi(u)]_2$, and we don’t have enough information about the relationship between $[\varphi(u)]_2$, and $[\varphi(v)]_2$. The example given in the proof of Theorem [10.3] shows that it is impossible to satisfy the Leibniz rule in $\text{ZF}_\text{LPT0}$.
for formulas containing the paraconsistent negation, hence this is an unsolvable problem with the current definitions.

Within the present approach, paraconsistent situations such as the existence of ‘inconsistent’ sets \( u \) satisfying \( \neg (u \approx u) \) or the existence of a set being simultaneously an element and a non-element of another set seems to be irreconcilable with the fulfillment of the Leibniz rule for formulas behind the ‘classical’ language. Because of this, the predicate \( \approx \) in \( \text{ZF}_{\text{LPT0}} \) should be considered as representing ‘indiscernibility by pure \( \text{ZF} \)-properties’, exactly as happens with Boolean-valued models for \( \text{ZF} \). In this manner \( (u \approx v) \) implies that, besides having the same elements, \( u \) and \( v \) have, for instance, the same ‘non*-elements’, where ‘non’ stands for the classical negation \( \sim \).

Instead of being regarded as discouraging, the fact that \( (u \approx v) \) does not necessarily imply that \( u \) and \( v \) have the same ‘non-elements’ (for ‘non’ the paraconsistent negation \( \neg \)) can be seen as an auspicious property, because it can be a way to circumvent undesirable consequences of ‘non-elements’, as it happens with the well-known Hempel’s Ravens Paradox: evidence, differently from proof, for instance, has its own idiosyncratic properties. This point, however, will be left for further discussion.

### 11 Concluding remarks

In this paper, we introduce a generalization of Boolean-valued models of set theory to a class of algebras represented as twist-structures, defining a class of models for \( \text{ZFC} \) that we called twist-valued models. This class of algebras characterizes a three-valued paraconsistent logic called \( \text{LPT} \), which was extensively studied in the literature of paraconsistent logics under different names and signatures as, for example, as the well-known da Costa and D’Ottaviano’s logic \( \text{J3} \) and as the logic \( \text{LFI1} \) (cf. [3]). As it was shown by Blok and Pigozzi in [2], the class of algebraic models of \( \text{J3} \) (hence, the class of twist structures for \( \text{LPT0} \)) coincides with the algebraic models of Lukasiewicz three-valued logic \( \text{L}_3 \).

With small changes, in Section 9 the twist-valued models for \( \text{LPT0} \) were adapted in order to obtain twist-valued for \( (\text{PS}_3, \sim) \), the three-valued paraconsistent logic studied by Löwe and Tarafder in [18] as a basis for paraconsistent set theory. Thus, their three-valued algebraic model of \( \text{ZF} \) was extended to a class of twist-valued models of \( \text{ZF} \), each of them defined over a complete Boolean algebra. In addition, it was proved that these models (including the three-valued model over \( (\text{PS}_3, \sim) \)) satisfy, in addition, the Axiom of Choice. Moreover, it was shown that the implication operator \( \rightarrow \) of \( \text{LPT0} \) is, in a sense, more suitable for a paraconsistent set theory than the one \( \Rightarrow \) of \( \text{PS}_3 \): it allows inconsistent sets (i.e., \( [(u \approx w)] = \frac{1}{2} \) for some \( w \), see Proposition 10.1). It is worth noting that \( \rightarrow \) does not characterize a ‘reasonable implication algebra’ (recall Definition 9.2): indeed, \( 1 \land \frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{2} \) but \( 1 \not\leq \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \). This shows that reasonable implication algebras are just one way to define a paraconsistent set theory, not the best.

Despite having the same limitative results than Löwe-Tarafder’s model (that is, the debatable failure of Leibniz rule and the bounded quantification property for formulas containing the paraconsistent negation, recall Section 10) we believe that \( \text{ZF}_{\text{LPT0}} \) has a great potential as a paraconsistent set theory. In particular, the formal properties and the axiomatization of \( \text{ZF}_{\text{LPT0}} \) deserve to be further investigated, especially towards the
problem of the validity of independence results in paraconsistent set theory.

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