

cse371/mat371
LOGIC

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LECTURE 10

Chapter 10

Predicate Automated Proof Systems

Part 1: Predicate Languages

Part 2: Proof System **QRS**

Part 3: Proof of Completeness Theorem for **QRS**

Chapter 10

Part 1: Predicate Languages

Predicate Languages

Predicate Languages are also called **First Order Languages**

The same applies to the use of terms for **Propositional** and **Predicate Logic**

Propositional and **Predicate Logics** called **Zero Order** and **First Order Logics**, respectively and we will use both terms equally

We usually work with **different predicate languages**, depending on what applications we have in mind

All **predicate languages** have some **common features**, and we begin with these

Predicate Languages Components

Propositional Connectives

Predicate Languages extend a notion of the **propositional languages** so we define the set **CON** of their propositional connectives as follows

The set **CON** of **propositional connectives** is a **finite** and **non-empty** and

$$CON = C_1 \cup C_2$$

where C_1, C_2 are the sets of **one** and **two arguments** connectives, respectively

Parenthesis

As in the propositional case, we adopt the signs (and) for our parenthesis., i.e. we define a set **PAR** as

$$PAR = \{ (,) \}$$

Predicate Languages Components

Quantifiers

We adopt two quantifiers; the **universal quantifier** denoted by \forall and the **existential quantifier** denoted by \exists , i.e. we have the following set \mathbf{Q} of quantifiers

$$\mathbf{Q} = \{\forall, \exists\}$$

In a case of the **classical logic** and the logics that **extend it**, it is possible to adopt only **one quantifier** and to **define the other** in terms of it and propositional connectives

Such definability is **impossible** in a case of some non-classical logics, for example the **intuitionistic logic**

But even in the case of **classical logic** the **two quantifiers** express better the common intuition, so we adopt the both of them

Predicate Languages Components

Variables

We assume that we always have a **countably infinite** set *VAR* of variables, i.e. we assume that

$$\text{card}VAR = \aleph_0$$

We denote variables by x, y, z, \dots , with indices, if necessary.
we often express it by writing

$$VAR = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$$

Note

Predicate Languages Components

The set **CON** of **propositional connectives** defines a **propositional part** of the **predicate logic language**

Observe that what really **differ** one **predicate language** from the other is the **choice of additional symbols** added to the symbols just described

These **additional symbols** are: **predicate symbols**, **function symbols**, and **constant symbols**

A **particular** predicate language is **determined** by specifying these **additional sets of symbols**

They are defined as follows

Predicate Languages Components

Predicate symbols

Predicate symbols **represent relations**

Any predicate language must have **at least one** predicate symbol

Hence we assume that any predicate language contains a **non empty, finite** or **countably infinite** set

P

of **predicate symbols**, i.e. we assume that

$$0 < \text{card}\mathbf{P} \leq \aleph_0$$

We denote predicate symbols by P, Q, R, \dots , with indices, if necessary

Each predicate symbol $P \in \mathbf{P}$ has a positive integer $\#P$ assigned to it; when $\#P = n$ we **call** P an **n-ary** (n - place) **predicate (relation) symbol**

Predicate Languages Components

Function symbols

We assume that any predicate language contains a **finite (may be empty) or countably infinite set F of function symbols**

I.e. we assume that

$$0 \leq \text{card}F \leq \aleph_0$$

When the set F is **empty** we say that we deal with a **language without functional symbols**

We denote functional symbols by f, g, h, \dots with **indices**, if necessary

Similarly, as in the case of predicate symbols, each **function symbol** $f \in F$ has a positive integer $\#f$ assigned to it; if $\#f = n$ then f is called an **n -ary** (n - place) **function symbol**

Predicate Languages Components

Constant symbols

We also assume that we have a **finite** (may be empty) or **countably infinite set**

C

of **constant symbols**

i.e. we assume that

$$0 \leq \text{card}\mathbf{C} \leq \aleph_0$$

The elements of **C** are **denoted** by c, d, e, \dots , with indices, if necessary

We often express it by putting

$$\mathbf{C} = \{c_1, c_2, \dots\}$$

When the set **C** is **empty** we say that we deal with a language **without constant symbols**

Alphabet of Predicate Languages

Sometimes the **constant symbols** are defined as **0-ary function symbols**, i.e. we have that

$$\mathbf{C} \subseteq \mathbf{F}$$

We single them out as a separate set for our convenience

We assume that all of the above sets of symbols are **disjoint**

Alphabet

The union of all of above disjoint sets of symbols is called the **alphabet** \mathcal{A} of the **predicate language**, i.e. we **define**

$$\mathcal{A} = \mathit{VAR} \cup \mathit{CON} \cup \mathit{PAR} \cup \mathbf{Q} \cup \mathbf{P} \cup \mathbf{F} \cup \mathbf{C}$$

Predicate Languages Notation

Observe, that once the set of **propositional connectives** is **fixed**, the **predicate language** is determined by the sets **P, F** and **C**

We use the **notation**

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

for the **predicate language** \mathcal{L} **determined** by **P, F, C**

If there is no danger of confusion, we may **abbreviate** $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ to just \mathcal{L}

If the set of **propositional connectives** involved is not fixed, we also use the notation

$$\mathcal{L}_{CON}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

to denote the **predicate language** \mathcal{L} **determined** by **P, F, C** and the set of propositional connectives **CON**

Predicate Languages Notation

We sometimes allow the **same symbol** to be used as an **n-place relation symbol**, and also as an **m-place one**; no confusion should arise because the different uses can be told apart easily

Example

If we write $P(x, y)$, the symbol P denotes **2-argument** predicate symbol

If we write $P(x, y, z)$, the symbol P denotes **3-argument** predicate symbol

Similarly for **function symbols**

Two more Predicate Language Components

Having defined the **alphabet** we now complete the formal **definition of the predicate language** by defining **two more** components:

the set T of all **terms** and

the set \mathcal{F} of all **well formed formulas**

of the **language** $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$

Set of Terms

Terms

The set T of **terms** of the **predicate language** $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ is the **smallest** set

$$T \subseteq \mathcal{A}^*$$

meeting the conditions:

1. any variable is a **term**, i.e. $\mathbf{VAR} \subseteq T$
2. any constant symbol is a **term**, i.e. $\mathbf{C} \subseteq T$
3. if f is an n -**place function symbol**, i.e. $f \in \mathbf{F}$ and $\#f = n$ and $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in T$, then $f(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) \in T$

Terms Examples

Example 1

Let $f \in \mathbf{F}$, $\#f = 1$, i.e. f is a 1-place function symbol

Let x, y be variables, c, d be constants, i.e.

$x, y \in \mathbf{VAR}$, $c, d \in \mathbf{C}$

Then the following expressions are terms:

$x, y, f(x), f(y), f(c), f(d), f(f((x))), f(f(y)), f(f(c)), f(f(d)), \dots$

Example 2

Let $\mathbf{F} = \emptyset$, $\mathbf{C} = \emptyset$

In this case terms consists of variables only, i.e.

$$T = \mathbf{VAR} = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$$

Terms Examples

Directly from the **Example 2** we get the following

REMARK

For any predicate language $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$, the set T of its **terms** is always **non-empty**

Example 3

Let $f \in \mathbf{F}, \#f = 1, g \in \mathbf{F}, \#g = 2, x, y \in \mathbf{VAR}, c, d \in \mathbf{C}$

Some of the **terms** are the following:

$$f(g(x, y)), f(g(c, x)), g(f(f(c)), g(x, y)), \\ g(c, g(x, f(c))), g(f(g(x, y)), g(x, f(c))) \dots$$

Terms Notation

From time to time, the logicians are and we may be **informal** about **how we write terms**

Example

If we **denote** a **2- place** function symbol g by $+$, we **may write** $x + y$ instead $+(x, y)$

Because in this case we can think of $x + y$ as an unofficial way of designating the **"real" term** $+(x, y)$

Atomic Formulas

Before we define the **set of formulas**, we need to define one more set; the set of **atomic**, or **elementary** formulas

Atomic formulas are the **simplest formulas** as the **propositional variables** were in the case of **propositional languages**

Atomic Formulas

Definition

An **atomic formula** of a **predicate language** $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ is any element of \mathcal{A}^* of the form

$$R(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$$

where $R \in \mathbf{P}$, $\#R = n$ and $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in T$

I.e. R is **n-ary relational symbol** and t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are **any terms**

The set of all **atomic formulas** is denoted by \mathcal{AF} and is defined as

$$\mathcal{AF} = \{R(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n) \in \mathcal{A}^* : R \in \mathbf{P}, t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n \in T, n \geq 1\}$$

Atomic Formulas Examples

Example 1

Consider a language $\mathcal{L}(\emptyset, \{P\}, \emptyset)$, for $\#P = 1$

Our language

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\emptyset, \{P\}, \emptyset)$$

is a language **without** neither **functional**, nor **constant** symbols, and with one, **1-place predicate** symbol P

The set of **atomic formulas** contains all formulas of the form $P(x)$, for x any variable, i.e.

$$A\mathcal{F} = \{P(x) : x \in VAR\}$$

Atomic Formulas Examples

Example 2

Let now consider a **predicate language**

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\{f, g\}, \{R\}, \{c, d\})$$

for $\#f = 1, \#g = 2, \#R = 2$

The language \mathcal{L} has **two functional symbols**: 1-place symbol f and 2-place symbol g , one 1-place **predicate symbol** R , and two **constants**: c, d

Some of the **atomic formulas** in this case are the following.

$$R(c, d), R(x, f(c)), R((g(x, y)), f(g(c, x))),$$

$$R(y, g(c, g(x, f(d)))) \dots$$

Set of Formulas Definition

Now we are ready to define the set \mathcal{F} of all **well formed formulas** of any **predicate language** $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$

Definition

The set \mathcal{F} of all **well formed formulas**, called shortly **set of formulas**, of the language $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ is the smallest set meeting the following **four conditions**:

1. Any **atomic formula** of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ is a **formula**, i.e.

$$A \in \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$$

2. If A is a formula of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$, ∇ is an one argument **propositional connective**, then ∇A is a **formula** of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$, i.e. the following **recursive condition** holds

$$\text{if } A \in \mathcal{F}, \nabla \in \mathbf{C}_1 \text{ then } \nabla A \in \mathcal{F}$$

Set of Formulas Definition

3. If A, B are **formulas** of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ and \circ is a two argument **propositional connective**, then $(A \circ B)$ is a **formula** of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$, i.e. the following **recursive condition** holds

If $A \in \mathcal{F}, \nabla \in C_2$, then $(A \circ B) \in \mathcal{F}$

4. If A is a **formula** of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$ and x is a **variable**, $\forall, \exists \in \mathbf{Q}$, then $\forall xA, \exists xA$ are **formulas** of $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$, i.e. the following recursive condition holds

If $A \in \mathcal{F}, x \in \text{VAR}, \forall, \exists \in \mathbf{Q}$, then $\forall xA, \exists xA \in \mathcal{F}$

Scope of the Quantifier

Another important notion of the **predicate language** is the notion of **scope of a quantifier**

It is defined as follows

Definition

Given formulas $\forall xA$, $\exists xA$, the formula A is said to be in the **scope of the quantifier** \forall , \exists , respectively.

Example 3

Let \mathcal{L} be a language of the previous **Example 2** with the set of connectives $\{\cap, \cup, \Rightarrow, \neg\}$, i.e. let's consider

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{\{\cap, \cup, \Rightarrow, \neg\}}(\{f, g\}, \{R\}, \{c, d\})$$

for $\#f = 1$, $\#g = 2$, $\#R = 2$

Some of the formulas of \mathcal{L} are the following.

$$R(c, d), \exists y R(y, f(c)), \neg R(x, y),$$

$$(\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$$

$$(R(c, d) \cap \forall z R(z, f(c))),$$

Scope of Quantifiers

The formula $R(x, f(c))$ is in **scope of the quantifier \exists** in the formula

$$\exists x R(x, f(c))$$

The formula $(\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$ is **not in scope of any quantifier**

The formula $(\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$ is in **scope of quantifier \forall** in the formula

$$\forall y (\exists x R(x, f(c)) \Rightarrow \neg R(x, y))$$

Predicate Language Definition

Now we are ready to define formally a **predicate language**

Let $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{F}$ be the **alphabet**, the set of **terms** and the set of **formulas** as already defined

Definition

A **predicate language** \mathcal{L} is a triple

$$\mathcal{L} = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{T}, \mathcal{F})$$

As we have said before, the language \mathcal{L} is determined by the **choice of the symbols** of its **alphabet**, namely of the choice of **connectives, predicates, functions**, and **constant symbols**

If we want specifically mention these **choices**, we write

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{CON}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C}) \text{ or } \mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

Chapter 10

Part 2: Gentzen Style Proof System for Classical Predicate Logic

The System **QRS**

The System **QRS**

Let \mathcal{F} be a set of formulas of a **predicate language**

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C}) = \mathcal{L}_{\{\cap, \cup, \Rightarrow, \neg\}}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C})$$

for $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C}$ countably infinite sets of **predicate, functional, and constant symbols**, respectively

The **rules of inference** of the system **QRS** operate, as in the propositional case, on **finite sequences of formulas**, i.e. on elements of \mathcal{F}^*

We will denote, as previously the sequences of formulas by Γ, Δ, Σ , with indices if necessary

Rules of Inference of **QRS**

The system **QRS** consists of two **axiom schemas** and eleven **rules of inference**

The **rules of inference** form **two groups**

First group is similar to the propositional case and contains propositional connectives rules:

(\cup) , $(\neg\cup)$, (\cap) , $(\neg\cap)$, (\Rightarrow) , $(\neg\Rightarrow)$, $(\neg\neg)$

Second group deals with the **quantifiers** and consists of four rules:

(\forall) , (\exists) , $(\neg\forall)$, $(\neg\exists)$

Logical Axioms of **RS**

We adopt as **logical axioms** of **QRS** any sequence of formulas which contains a **formula** and **its negation**, i.e any sequence

$$\Gamma_1, A, \Gamma_2, \neg A, \Gamma_3$$

$$\Gamma_1, \neg A, \Gamma_2, A, \Gamma_3$$

where $A \in \mathcal{F}$ is any **formula**

We denote by **LA** the set of all **logical axioms** of **QRS**

Proof System **QRS**

Formally we define the system **QRS** as follows

$$\mathbf{QRS} = (\mathcal{L}_{\{\cap, \cup, \Rightarrow, \neg\}}(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{C}), \mathcal{F}^*, \mathbf{LA}, \mathcal{R})$$

where the set \mathcal{R} of inference rules contains the following rule

$(\cup), (\neg\cup), (\cap), (\neg\cap), (\Rightarrow), (\neg\Rightarrow), (\neg\neg), (\forall), (\exists), (\neg\forall), (\neg\exists)$

and **LA** is the set of all logical axioms defined on previous slide

Literals in QRS

Definition

Any **atomic** formula , or a **negation** of atomic formula is called a **literal**

We form, as in the propositional case, a special subset

$$LT \subseteq \mathcal{F}$$

of formulas, called a **set of all literals** defined now as follows

$$LT = \{A \in \mathcal{F} : A \in \mathcal{AF}\} \cup \{\neg A \in \mathcal{F} : A \in \mathcal{AF}\}$$

The elements of the set $\{A \in \mathcal{F} : A \in \mathcal{AF}\}$ are called **positive literals**

The elements of the set $\{\neg A \in \mathcal{F} : A \in \mathcal{AF}\}$ are called **negative literals**

Sequences of Literals

We denote by

$$\Gamma', \Delta', \Sigma' \dots$$

finite sequences (empty included) formed out of **literals** i.e

$$\Gamma', \Delta', \Sigma' \in LT^*$$

We will denote by

$$\Gamma, \Delta, \Sigma \dots$$

the elements of \mathcal{F}^*

Connectives Inference Rules of QRS

Group 1

Disjunction rules

$$(\cup) \frac{\Gamma', A, B, \Delta}{\Gamma', (A \cup B), \Delta}$$

$$(\neg\cup) \frac{\Gamma', \neg A, \Delta ; \Gamma', \neg B, \Delta}{\Gamma', \neg(A \cup B), \Delta}$$

Conjunction rules

$$(\cap) \frac{\Gamma', A, \Delta ; \Gamma', B, \Delta}{\Gamma', (A \cap B), \Delta}$$

$$(\neg\cap) \frac{\Gamma', \neg A, \neg B, \Delta}{\Gamma', \neg(A \cap B), \Delta}$$

where $\Gamma' \in LT^*$, $\Delta \in \mathcal{F}^*$, $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$

Connectives Inference Rules of QRS

Group 1

Implication rules

$$(\Rightarrow) \frac{\Gamma', \neg A, B, \Delta}{\Gamma', (A \Rightarrow B), \Delta}$$

$$(\neg \Rightarrow) \frac{\Gamma', A, \Delta : \Gamma', \neg B, \Delta}{\Gamma', \neg(A \Rightarrow B), \Delta}$$

Negation rule

$$(\neg\neg) \frac{\Gamma', A, \Delta}{\Gamma', \neg\neg A, \Delta}$$

where $\Gamma' \in LT^*$, $\Delta \in \mathcal{F}^*$, $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$

Quantifiers Inference Rules of QRS

Group 2: Universal Quantifier rules

$$(\forall) \frac{\Gamma', A(y), \Delta}{\Gamma', \forall x A(x), \Delta} \qquad (\neg\forall) \frac{\Gamma', \neg\forall x A(x), \Delta}{\Gamma', \exists x \neg A(x), \Delta}$$

where $\Gamma' \in LT^*$, $\Delta \in \mathcal{F}^*$, $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$

The variable y in rule (\forall) is a **free individual variable** which **does not appear** in **any formula** in the conclusion, i.e. in **any formula** in the sequence $\Gamma', \forall x A(x), \Delta$,

The variable y in the rule (\forall) is called the **eigenvariable**

The condition: the variable y **does not appear** in **any formula** in the conclusion of (\forall) is called the **eigenvariable condition**

All occurrences] of y in $A(y)$ of the rule (\forall) are fully indicated

Quantifiers Inference Rules of QRS

Group 2: Existential Quantifier rules

$$(\exists) \frac{\Gamma', A(t), \Delta, \exists xA(x)}{\Gamma', \exists xA(x), \Delta} \qquad (\neg\exists) \frac{\Gamma', \neg\exists xA(x), \Delta}{\Gamma', \forall x\neg A(x), \Delta}$$

where $t \in T$ is an arbitrary term, $\Gamma' \in LT^*$, $\Delta \in \mathcal{F}^*$, $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$

Note that $A(t), A(y)$ denotes a formula obtained from $A(x)$ by writing the term t or y , respectively, in place of all occurrences of x in A

QRS Decomposition Trees

Given a formula $A \in \mathcal{F}$, we define its **decomposition tree** \mathcal{T}_A in a similar way as in the propositional case

Observe that the inference rules of **QRS** can be divided in two groups: **propositional connectives rules**

$$(\cup), (\neg\cup), (\cap), (\neg\cap), (\Rightarrow), (\neg\Rightarrow)$$

and **quantifiers rules**

$$(\forall), (\exists), (\neg\forall), (\neg\exists)$$

We define the **decomposition tree** in the case of the **propositional rules** and the rules $(\neg\forall)$, $(\neg\exists)$ in the exactly the same way as in the **propositional case**

QRS Decomposition Trees

The case of the rules (\forall) and (\exists) is more complicated, as the rules contain the **specific conditions** under which they are **applicable**

To define the way of **decomposing** the sequences of the form $\Gamma', \forall xA(x), \Delta$ or $\Gamma', \exists xA(x), \Delta$, i.e. to deal with the rules (\forall) and (\exists)

we assume that **all terms** form a **one-to one sequence**

$$ST \quad t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n, \dots$$

Observe, that by the definition, all free variables are terms, hence **all free variables appear** in the sequence **ST** of all terms

QRS Decomposition Trees

Let Γ be a sequence on the tree in which the first **indecomposable formula** has \forall as its **main connective**

It means that Γ is of the form

$$\Gamma', \forall x A(x), \Delta$$

We write a sequence

$$\Gamma', A(y), \Delta$$

below it on the tree, i.e. **as its child**,

where the variable y fulfills the following condition

C1: y is the **first free variable** in the sequence **ST** of terms such that y **does not appear** in **any formula** in $\Gamma', \forall x A(x), \Delta$

Observe, that the condition **C1** corresponds to the **restriction** put on the application of the rule (\forall)

QRS Decomposition Trees

Let now first **indecomposable formula** in Γ has \exists as its **main connective**

It means that Γ is of the form

$$\Gamma', \exists xA(x), \Delta$$

We e write a sequence

$$\Gamma', A(t), \Delta, \exists xA(x)$$

as **its child**,

where the term t fulfills the following conditions

C2: t is the **first term** in the sequence **ST** of all terms such that the formula $A(t)$ **does not appear** in **any sequence on the tree** which is placed **above** $\Gamma', A(t), \Delta, \exists xA(x)$

QRS Decomposition Trees

Observe that the sequence **ST** of all terms is **one-to-one** and by the conditions **C1** and **C1** we **always chose the first** appropriate term (variable) from the sequence **ST**

Hence the decomposition tree definition **guarantees** that the **decomposition process** is also **unique** in the case of the **quantifier rules** (\forall) and (\exists)

From all above, and we conclude the following.

Uniqueness Theorem

For any formula $A \in \mathcal{F}$, its decomposition tree \mathcal{T}_A is **unique**

Moreover, by definition we have that

If \mathcal{T}_A is **finite** and **all its leaves** are axioms, then \mathcal{T}_A is a proof of A in **QRS**, i.e. $\vdash A$

If \mathcal{T}_A is **finite** and contains a **non-axiom leaf** or is **infinite**, then $\not\vdash A$

Examples of Decomposition Trees

In all the examples below, the formulas $A(x), B(x)$ represent **any formulas**

But as there is **no indication** about their **particular components**, so they are treated as **indecomposable formulas**

The decomposition tree of the formula A representing the **de Morgan Law**

$$(\neg \forall x A(x) \Rightarrow \exists x \neg A(x))$$

is constructed as follows

Examples of Decomposition Trees

Here is the \mathcal{T}_A

$$(\neg\forall xA(x) \Rightarrow \exists x\neg A(x))$$

$$| (\Rightarrow)$$

$$\neg\neg\forall xA(x), \exists x\neg A(x)$$

$$| (\neg\neg)$$

$$\forall xA(x), \exists x\neg A(x)$$

$$| (\forall)$$

$$A(x_1), \exists x\neg A(x)$$

where x_1 is a first free variable in the sequence ST such that x_1 does not appear in $\forall xA(x), \exists x\neg A(x)$

$$| (\exists)$$

$$A(x_1), \neg A(x_1), \exists x\neg A(x)$$

where x_1 is the first term (variables are terms) in the sequence ST such that $\neg A(x_1)$ does not appear on a tree above $A(x_1), \neg A(x_1), \exists x\neg A(x)$

Examples of Decomposition Trees

The above tree \mathcal{T}_A ended with one leaf being axiom, so it represents a proof in **QRS** of the **de Morgan Law**

$$(\neg\forall xA(x) \Rightarrow \exists x\neg A(x))$$

i.e. we have proved that

$$\vdash (\neg\forall xA(x) \Rightarrow \exists x\neg A(x))$$

The decomposition tree \mathcal{T}_A for a formula

$$A = (\forall xA(x) \Rightarrow \exists xA(x))$$

is constructed as follows

Examples of Decomposition Trees

$$(\forall xA(x) \Rightarrow \exists xA(x))$$

$$| (\Rightarrow)$$

$$\neg\forall xA(x), \exists xA(x)$$

$$| (\neg\forall)$$

$$\neg\forall xA(x), \exists xA(x)$$

$$\exists x\neg A(x), \exists xA(x)$$

$$| (\exists)$$

$$\neg A(t_1), \exists xA(x), \exists x\neg A(x)$$

where t_1 is the first term in the sequence ST, such that $\neg A(t_1)$ does not appear on the tree above $\neg A(t_1), \exists xA(x), \exists x\neg A(x)$

$$| (\exists)$$

$$\neg A(t_1), A(t_1), \exists x\neg A(x), \exists xA(x)$$

where t_1 is the first term in the sequence ST, such that $A(t_1)$ does not appear on the tree above $\neg A(t_1), A(t_1), \exists x\neg A(x), \exists xA(x)$

Examples of Decomposition Trees

The above tree also ended with the only leaf being the **axiom**, hence we have proved that

$$\vdash (\forall xA(x) \Rightarrow \exists xA(x))$$

We know that the the inverse implication

$$(\exists xA(x) \Rightarrow \forall xA(x))$$

in **not a tautology** of predicate language (with formal semantics yet to come!)

Let's now look at its **decomposition tree** T_A

Examples of Decomposition Trees

$$\mathbf{T}_A$$
$$\exists xA(x)$$
$$| (\exists)$$
$$A(t_1), \exists xA(x)$$

where t_1 is the first term in the sequence ST, such that $A(t_1)$ does not appear on the tree above $A(t_1), \exists xA(x)$

$$| (\exists)$$
$$A(t_1), A(t_2), \exists xA(x)$$

where t_2 is the first term in the sequence ST, such that $A(t_2)$ does not appear on the tree above $A(t_1), A(t_2), \exists xA(x)$, i.e. $t_2 \neq t_1$

$$| (\exists)$$
$$A(t_1), A(t_2), A(t_3), \exists xA(x)$$

where t_3 is the first term in the sequence ST, such that $A(t_3)$ does not appear on the tree above $A(t_1), A(t_2), A(t_3), \exists xA(x)$, i.e. $t_3 \neq t_2 \neq t_1$

$$| (\exists)$$

Examples of Decomposition Trees

We repeat the procedure

| (\exists)

$A(t_1), A(t_2), A(t_3), A(t_4), \exists xA(x)$

where t_4 is the first term in the sequence ST, such that $A(t_4)$ does not appear on the tree above $A(t_1), A(t_2), A(t_3), A(t_4), \exists xA(x)$, i.e. $t_4 \neq t_3 \neq t_2 \neq t_1$

| (\exists)

.....

| (\exists)

.....

Obviously, the above decomposition tree is **infinite**, what proves that

$\not\vdash \exists xA(x)$

Examples of Decomposition Trees

We construct now a **proof** in **QRS** of the quantifiers **distributivity law**

$$(\exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x)) \Rightarrow (\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x)))$$

and show that the proof in **QRS** of the inverse implication

$$((\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x)) \Rightarrow \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x)))$$

does not exist, i.e. that

$$\not\vdash ((\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x)) \Rightarrow \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x)))$$

The decomposition tree \mathbf{T}_A of the first formula is the following

Examples of Decomposition Trees

T_A

$$(\exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x)) \Rightarrow (\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x)))$$

| (\Rightarrow)

$$\neg \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x)), (\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x))$$

| ($\neg \exists$)

$$\forall x \neg(A(x) \wedge B(x)), (\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x))$$

| (\forall)

$$\neg(A(x_1) \wedge B(x_1)), (\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x))$$

where x_1 is a first free variable in the sequence ST such that x_1 does not appear in

$$\forall x \neg(A(x) \wedge B(x)), (\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x))$$

| ($\neg \wedge$)

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), (\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x))$$

\wedge (\wedge)

Examples of Decomposition Trees

$$\bigwedge (n)$$

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), \exists x A(x)$$

$$| (\exists)$$

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), A(t_1), \exists x A(x)$$

$$| (\exists)$$

....

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), \dots A(x_1), \exists x A(x)$$

axiom

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), \exists x B(x)$$

$$| (\exists)$$

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), B(t_1), \exists x B(x)$$

$$| (\exists)$$

...

$$| (\exists)$$

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), \dots B(x_1), \exists x B(x)$$

axiom

where t_1 is the first term in the sequence ST, such that $A(t_1)$ does not appear on the tree above $\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), A(t_1), \exists x A(x)$

Examples of Decomposition Trees

Observe, that it is possible to choose eventually a term $t_i = x_1$, as the formula $A(x_1)$ **does not appear** on the tree above

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), \dots A(x_1), \exists x A(x)$$

By the definition of the sequence **ST**, the variable x_1 is placed somewhere in it, i.e. $x_1 = t_i$, for certain $i \geq 1$

It means that after i **applications** of the step (\exists) in the decomposition tree, we will get a leaf

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_1), \dots A(x_1), \exists x A(x)$$

which is an **axiom**

Examples of Decomposition Trees

All leaves of the above tree \mathbf{T}_A are axioms, what means that we proved

$$\vdash_{QRS} (\exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x)) \Rightarrow (\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x))).$$

We construct now, as the last example, a decomposition tree \mathbf{T}_A of the formula

$$((\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x)) \Rightarrow \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x))).$$

Examples of Decomposition Trees

\mathbf{T}_A

$$((\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x)) \Rightarrow \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x)))$$

| (\Rightarrow)

$$\neg(\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x)) \vee \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x))$$

| ($\neg\wedge$)

$$\neg\exists xA(x), \neg\exists xB(x), \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x))$$

| ($\neg\exists$)

$$\forall x\neg A(x), \neg\exists xB(x), \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x))$$

| (\forall)

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg\exists xB(x), \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x))$$

| ($\neg\exists$)

$$\neg A(x_1), \forall x\neg B(x), \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x))$$

| (\forall)

Examples of Decomposition Trees

| (\forall)

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_2), \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$$

By the reasoning similar to the reasonings in the previous examples we get that $x_1 \neq x_2$

| (\exists)

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_2), (A(t_1) \cap B(t_1)), \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$$

where t_1 is the first term in the sequence ST such that $(A(t_1) \cap B(t_1))$ does not appear on the tree above $\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_2), (A(t_1) \cap B(t_1)), \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$. Observe, that it is possible that $t_1 = x_1$, as $(A(x_1) \cap B(x_1))$ does not appear on the tree above. By the definition of the sequence ??, x_1 is placed somewhere in it, i.e. $x_1 = t_i$, for certain $i \geq 1$.

For simplicity, we assume that $t_1 = x_1$ and get the sequence:

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_2), (A(x_1) \cap B(x_1)), \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$$

\bigwedge (n)

Examples of Decomposition Trees

$$\bigwedge(n)$$
$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_2),$$
$$A(x_1), \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$$

Axiom

$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_2),$$
$$B(x_1), \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$$
$$| (\exists)$$
$$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_2), B(x_1),$$
$$(A(x_2) \cap B(x_2)), \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$$

see COMMENT

$$\bigwedge(n)$$

COMMENT: where $x_2 = t_2$ ($x_1 \neq x_2$) is the first term in the sequence ST, such that

$(A(x_2) \cap B(x_2))$ does not appear on the tree above

$\neg A(x_1), \neg B(x_2), (B(x_1), (A(x_2) \cap B(x_2))), \exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$. We assume that $t_2 = x_2$ for the reason of simplicity.

Examples of Decomposition Trees

$$\bigwedge(n)$$
 $\neg A(x_1),$ $\neg A(x_1),$ $\neg B(x_2),$ $\neg B(x_2),$ $B(x_1), A(x_2),$ $B(x_1), B(x_2),$ $\exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$ $\exists x(A(x) \cap B(x))$ $| (\exists)$ *Axiom* \dots $| (\exists)$ *infinite branch*

Examples of Decomposition Trees

The above decomposition tree T_A contains an infinite branch what means that

$$\not\models_{QRS} ((\exists xA(x) \wedge \exists xB(x)) \Rightarrow \exists x(A(x) \wedge B(x))).$$