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Formal systems, Proof Calculus (of a theory) is given by:

- 1. a *language*
- 2. a set of axioms
- 3. a set of *deduction rules*

ad 1. The definition of a **language** of the system consists of:

- an *alphabet* (a non-empty set of symbols), and
- a grammar (defines in an inductive way a set of well-formed formulas - WFF)

Proof calculi:Example of a

language: FOPL

 logical symbols: (countable set of) individual variables x, y, z, ... connectives ¬, ^, ^v, ⊃, ≡ quantifiers ∀, ∃
 special symbols (of arity n) predicate symbols (Pa On Pa

predicate symbols Pⁿ, Qⁿ, Rⁿ, ... **functional symbols** fⁿ, gⁿ, hⁿ, ... constants a, b, c, – functional symbols of arity 0

3. auxiliary symbols (,), [,], ...

Grammar:

1. terms

each constant and each variable is an atomic term

if $t_1, ..., t_n$ are terms, f^n a functional symbol, then $f^n(t_1, ..., t_n)$ is a (functional) term

2. atomic formulas

if $t_1, ..., t_n$ are terms, P^n predicate symbol, then $P_n(t_1, ..., t_n)$ is an *atomic (well-formed) formula*

3. composed formulas

Let A, B be well-formed formulas. Then $\neg A$, $(A^{\vee}B)$, $(A \supset B)$, $(A \supseteq B)$, $(A \equiv B)$, are well-formed formulas. Let A be a well-formed formula, x a variable. Then $\forall xA$, $\exists xA$ are well-formed formulas.

4. Nothing is a WFF unless it so follows from 1.-3.

Proof calculi

Ad 2. The set of axioms is a chosen subset of the set of WFF.

- The axioms are considered to be basic (*logically true*) formulas that are not being proved.
- Example: $\{p^{\vee} \neg p, p \supset p\}.$

Ad 3. The deduction rules are of a form: A₁,...,A_m |- B₁,...,B_m

Enable us to prove theorems (provable formulas) of the calculus. We say that each B_i is derived (inferred) from the set of assumptions A₁,...,A_m.

• Examples: $p \supset q, p \models q$ (modus ponens) $p \supset q, \neg q \models \neg p$ (modus tollendo tollens) $p^{\uparrow}q \models p, q$ (conjunction elimination)

Proof calculi

- A proof of a formula A (from logical axioms of the given calculus) is a sequence of formulas (proof steps) B₁,..., B_n such that:
 - $A = B_n$ (the proved formula A is the last step)
 - each B_i (i = 1,...,n) is either
 - an axiom or
 - B_i is derived from the previous B_j (j=1,...,i-1) using a deduction rule of the calculus.
- A formula A is provable by the calculus, denoted
 A, if there is a proof of A in the calculus. Provable formulas are theorems (of the calculus).

A Proof from Assumptions

- A (direct) proof of a formula A from assumptions A₁,...,A_m is a sequence of formulas (proof steps) B₁,...,B_n such that:
 - $A = B_n$ (the proved formula A is the last step)
 - each B_i (i=1,...,n) is either
 - an axiom, or
 - an *assumption* A_k ($1 \le k \le m$), or
 - B_i is derived from the previous B_j (j=1,...,i-1) using a rule of the calculus.
- A formula A is is provable from A_1, \dots, A_m , denoted $A_1, \dots, A_m \mid -A$, if there is a proof of A from A_1, \dots, A_m .

A Proof from Assumptions

• An indirect proof of a formula A from assumptions $A_1,...,A_m$ is a sequence of formulas (proof steps) $B_1,...,B_n$ such that:

• each B_i (i=1,...,n) is either

- an axiom, or
- an **assumption** A_k ($1 \le k \le m$), or
- an assumption ¬A of the indirect proof (formula A that is to be proved is negated)
- B_i is derived from the previous B_j (j=1,...,i-1) using a rule of the calculus.
- Some B_k contradicts to B_l , i.e., $B_k = \neg B_l$ ($k \in \{1,...,n\}, l \in \{1,...,n\}$)

if |- A (provable) then |= A (logically true)



A Complete Calculus: if |= A then |-A

- Each logically valid formula is provable in the calculus.
- The set of theorems = the set of logically valid formulas (the red sector of the previous slide is empty).
- Sound and complete calculus:
 - |= A iff |- A
 - Provability and logical validity coincide in FOPL (1st-order predicate logic)
- There are sound and complete calculi for the FOPL, e.g.: Hilbert-like calculi, Gentzen calculi, natural deduction, resolution method, ...

Semantics

- A semantically correct (sound) logical calculus serves for proving logically valid formulas (tautologies). In this case the
 - axioms have to be logically valid formulas (true under all interpretations), and the
 - deduction rules make it possible to prove logically valid formulas. For this reason the rules are either truth-preserving in general or preserving truth in an interpretation, i.e., A₁, ...,A_m |- B₁,...,B_m can be read as follows:
 - if all the formulas A_1, \ldots, A_m are logically valid formulas, then B_1, \ldots, B_m are logically valid formulas.

The Theorem of Deduction

 In a sound proof calculus the following Theorem of Deduction should be valid:

Theorem of deduction. A formula ϕ is provable from assumptions A_1, \dots, A_m , iff the formula $A_m \supset \phi$ is provable from A_1, \dots, A_{m-1} .

In symbols:

 $A_1,\ldots,A_m \mid - \phi \text{ iff } A_1,\ldots,A_{m-1} \mid - (A_m \supset \phi).$

 In a sound calculus meeting the Deduction Theorem the following implication holds:

If $A_1, \dots, A_m \mid -\phi$ then $A_1, \dots, A_m \mid =\phi$.

If the calculus is sound and complete, then provability coincides with logical entailment:

 $A_1,\ldots,A_m \mid - \phi \text{ iff } A_1,\ldots,A_m \mid = \phi.$

The Theorem of Deduction

If the calculus is sound and complete, then provability coincides with logical entailment:

 $A_1,\ldots,A_m \mid - \phi \text{ iff } A_1,\ldots,A_m \mid = \phi.$

Proof. If the Theorem of Deduction holds, then

 $\begin{array}{l} A_1, \dots, A_m \mid - \phi \text{ iff } \mid - (A_1 \supset (A_2 \supset \dots (A_m \supset \phi) \dots)). \\ \mid - (A_1 \supset (A_2 \supset \dots (A_m \supset \phi) \dots)) \text{ iff } \mid - (A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_m) \supset \phi. \end{array}$

If the calculus is sound and complete, then

$$- (A_1^{\wedge} ...^{\wedge} A_m) \supset \phi \text{ iff } |= (A_1^{\wedge} ...^{\wedge} A_m) \supset \phi.$$

= $(A_1^{\wedge} ...^{\wedge} A_m) \supset \phi \text{ iff } A_1^{\vee} ...^{\vee} A_m |= \phi.$

 The first equivalence is obtained by applying the Deduction Theorem *m*-times, the second is valid due to the soundness and completeness, the third one is the semantic equivalence.

Properties of a calculus: axioms

- The set of axioms of a calculus is non-empty and decidable in the set of WFFs (otherwise the calculus would not be reasonable, for we couldn't perform proofs if we did not know which formulas are axioms).
- It means that there is an *algorithm* that for any WFF ϕ given as its input answers in a finite number of steps an output Yes or NO on the question whether ϕ is an axiom or not.
- A finite set is trivially decidable. The set of axioms can be infinite. In such a case we define the set either by an algorithm of creating axioms or by a finite set of **axiom** schemata.
- The set of axioms should be *minimal,* i.e., each axiom is independent of the other axioms (not provable from them).

Properties of a calculus: deduction rules, consistency

- The set of deduction rules enables us to perform proofs mechanically, considering just the symbols, abstracting of their semantics. Proving in a calculus is a syntactic method.
- A natural demand is a syntactic consistency of the calculus.
- A *calculus is consistent* iff there is a WFF ϕ such that ϕ is not provable (*in an inconsistent calculus everything is provable*).
- This definition is equivalent to the following one: a calculus is consistent iff a formula of the form A $^{-}\neg$ A, or \neg (A \supset A), is not provable.
- A calculus is syntactically consistent iff it is sound (semantically consistent).

Properties of a calculus: (un)decidability

- There is another desirable property of calculi. To illustrate it, let's raise a question: having a formula ϕ , does the calculus decide ϕ ?
- In other words, **is there an algorithm** that would answer in a finite number of steps Yes or No, having ϕ as input and answering the question whether ϕ is logically valid or no? If there is such an algorithm, then the calculus is **decidable**.
- If the calculus is complete, then it proves all the logically valid formulas, and the proofs can be described in an algorithmic way.
- However, in case the input formula ϕ is not logically valid, the algorithm does not have to answer (in a finite number of steps).
- Indeed, there is no decidable 1st order predicate logic calculus, i.e., the problem of logical validity is not decidable in the FOPL.
- (the consequence of Gödel Incompleteness Theorems)

Provable = logically true? Provable from ... = logically entailed by ...?

The relation of provability (A₁,...,A_n |- A) and the relation of logical entailment (A₁,...,A_n |= A) are distinct relations.

 Similarly, the set of theorems |- A (of a calculus) is generally not identical to the set of logically valid formulas |= A.

• The former is syntactic and defined within a calculus, the latter is independent of a calculus, it is semantic.

 In a sound calculus the set of theorems is a subset of the set of logically valid formulas.

In a sound and complete calculus the set of theorems is identical with the set of formulas.

"pre-Hilbert" formalists

"Mathematics is a game with symbols"

A simple system S: Constants: ♣,♥ Predicates: ♠ Axioms of S: (1) ∀x (♠x ⊃ ♠x)
(2) ∃x ♠x ⊃ ♠ (3) ♠♥ Inference rules: MP (modus ponens), E∀ (general quantifier elimination), I∃ (existential quantifier insertion)

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Theorem: ♠ ♣
Proof: ♠♥ (axiom 3)
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\exists x \blacklozenge x(I\exists)

◆ \blacklozenge (axiom 2 and MP)

◆ \blacklozenge ⊃ \blacklozenge \clubsuit (axiom 1 and E \forall)

◆ \blacklozenge (MP)
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It is impossible to develop mathematics in such a purely formalist way. Instead: use only finitist methods (Gödel: impossible as well)

Historical background

- The reason why proof calculi have been developed can be traced back to the end of 19th century. At that time *formalization methods* had been developed and various *paradoxes* arose. All those paradoxes arose from the assumption on the existence of *actual infinities*.
- To avoid paradoxes, David Hilbert (a significant German mathematician) proclaimed the program of formalisation of mathematics. The idea was simple: to avoid paradoxes we will use only finitist methods:

• First:

- start with a decidable set of certainly (logically) true formulas,
- use truth-preserving rules of deduction, and
- infer all the logical truths.

Second,

- begin with some sentences true in an area of interest (interpretation),
- use truth-preserving rules of deduction, and
- infer all the truths of this area.
- In particular, he intended to axiomatise in this way mathematics, in order to avoid paradoxes.

Historical background

- Hilbert supposed that these goals can be met.
- Kurt Gödel (the greatest logician of the 20th century) proved the completeness of the 1st order predicate calculus, which was expected. He even proved the strong completeness:

if SA |= T then SA |- T (SA - a set of assumptions).

- But Hilbert wanted more: he supposed that all the truths of mathematics can be proved in this mechanic finite way. That is, that a theory of arithmetic (e.g. Peano) is complete in the following sense:
 - each formula is in the theory *decidable*, i.e., the theory proves either the formula or its negation, which means that all the formulas true in the intended interpretation over the set of natural numbers are provable in the theory:
- Gödel's theorems on incompleteness give a surprising result: there are true but not provable sentences of natural numbers arithmetic. Hence Hilbert program is not fully realisable.

Natural Deduction $Calculus_{A,A \rightarrow A}$

Deduction Rules:

• conjunction: A, B |- A $^{\wedge}$ B (IC) A $^{\wedge}$ B |- A, B (EC) • disjunction: A |- A $^{\vee}$ B or B |- A $^{\vee}$ B (ID) A $^{\vee}$ B, \neg A |- B or A $^{\vee}$ B, \neg B |- A (ED) • Implication: B |- A \supset B (II) A \supset B, A |- B (EI, modus ponens MP) • equivalence: A \supset B, B \supset A |- A \equiv B (IE) A \equiv B |- A \supset B, B \supset A (EE)

Calculus quantifiers

• General quantifier: $A(x) = \forall x A(x)$

The rule can be used only if formula A(x) is not derived from any assumption that would contain variable x as free. $\forall xA(x) \mid - A(x/t) \in \forall$

Formula A(x/t) is a result of correctly substituting the term t for the variable x (no collision of variables).

Existential quantifier A(x/t) |- ∃xA(x) I∃ ∃xA(x) |- A(x/c) E∃

where c is a constant **not used** in the language as yet. If the rule is used for distinct formulas, then a different constant has to be used. A more general form of the rule is:

$\begin{array}{ll} \forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n \; \exists x \; \mathsf{A}(x, \, y_1, \dots, y_n) \mid - & \forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n \; \mathsf{A}(x \; / \; f(y_1, \dots, y_n), \\ y_1, \dots, y_n) & & & & & & & & \\ \end{array}$

(notes)

- 1. In the natural deduction calculus an indirect proof is often used.
- 2. Existential quantifier elimination has to be done in accordance with the rules of Skolemisation in the general resolution method.
- 3. Rules derivable from the above:
 - $A(x) \supset B$ |- $\forall x A(x) \supset B$, x is not free in B
 - $A \supset B(x)$ | $A \supset \forall x B(x)$, x is not free in A
 - $A(x) \supset B$ |- $\exists x A(x) \supset B$, x is not free in B
 - $\mathbf{A} \supset \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x})$ |- $\mathbf{A} \supset \exists \mathbf{x} \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x})$
 - $\mathbf{A} \supset \forall \mathbf{x} \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x}) \mid \mathbf{A} \supset \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x})$
 - $\exists x A(x) \supset B \mid A(x) \supset B$

Another useful rules and theorems of propositional logic (try to prove them):

Introduction of negation: Elimination of negation: Negation of disjunction: Negation of conjunction: Negation of implication: Tranzitivity of implication **Transpozition:** $A \supset B \mid - \neg B \supset \neg A TR$ *Modus tollens*: $A \supset B, \neg B \mid \neg A$ MT

$$A \mid - \neg \neg A \quad IN$$

$$\neg \neg A \mid - A \in EN$$

$$\neg (\mathbf{A}^{\vee} \mathbf{B}) | - \neg \mathbf{A}^{\wedge} \neg \mathbf{B} \qquad \mathbf{ND}$$

$$\neg (\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{A}} \mathbf{B}) | - \neg \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{V}} \neg \mathbf{B} \qquad \mathsf{NK}$$

$$\neg (\mathbf{A} \supset \mathbf{B}) \mid - \mathbf{A}^{\wedge} \neg \mathbf{B} \qquad \mathbf{NI}$$

ion:
$$A \supset B, B \supset C \mid -A \supset C$$
 TI

Natural Deduction: Examples

$A \supset B, \neg B \mid - \neg A$ Modus Tollens

Proof:

- 1. $A \supset B$ assumption
- 2. $\neg B$ assumption
- 3. A assumption of the indirect proof
- 4. B MP: 1, 3 contradicts to 2., hence \Box . $\neg A$ O.E.D

Natural Deduction: Examples Theorem 2: $C \supset D \mid - \neg C^{\vee} D$

Proof:

- 1. $C \supset D$ assumption 2. $\neg(\neg C \lor D)$ assumption of indirect proof 3. $\neg(\neg C \lor D) \supset (C \land \neg D)$ de Morgan (see the next example) 4. $C \land \neg D$ MP 2,3 5. C EC 46. $\neg D$ EC 4 7. D MP 1, 5 contradicts to 6, hence
- 8. $\neg C \lor D$ (assumption of indirect proof is not true)Q.E.D.

Proof of an implicative formula If a formula *F* is of an implicative form:

$\mathbf{A}_1 \supset \{\mathbf{A}_2 \supset [\mathbf{A}_3 \supset ... \supset (\mathbf{A}_n \supset \mathbf{B}) ...]\} (*)$

• then according to the Theorem of Deduction the formula *F* can be proved in such a way that the formula *B* is proved from the assumptions A₁, A₂, A₃, ..., A_n.

The technique of branch proof from hypotheses

- Let the proof sequence contain a disjunction: $D_1 \lor D_2 \lor \dots \lor D_k$
- We introduce hypotheses D_i ($1 \le i \le k$). If a formula F can be proved from each of the hypotheses D_i , then F is proved.
- Proof (of the validity of branch proof):
 - a) Theorem 4: $[(p \supset r)^{(q \supset r)} \supset [(p^{(q \supset r)}) \supset r]$
 - b) The rule II (implication introduction): **B** $|-A \supset B$

The technique of branch proof from hypotheses

Theorem 4:

$[(p \supset r)^{\wedge} (q \supset r)] \supset [(p^{\vee} q) \supset r]$

1. $[(p \supset r)^{*} (q \supset r)]$ 2. $(p \supset r)$ 3. $(q \supset r)$ 4. $p^{\vee}q$ 5. $(p \supset r) \supset (\neg p^{\vee}r)$ 6. $\neg p^{\vee}r$ 7. $\neg r$ 8. $\neg p$ 9. q10. r11. r assumption EK: 1 EK: 1 assumption *Theorem 2* MP: 2.5. assumption of the indirect proof ED: 6.7. ED: 4.8. MP: 3.9. – contra 7., hence Q.E.D

The technique of branch proof from hypotheses

Theorem 3:

$(\neg A^{\wedge} \neg B) \supset \neg (A^{\vee} B)$ de Morgan law

Proof:

```
(¬A ^ ¬B)
A <sup>∨</sup>B
1.
2.
3.
4.
                                                                assumption
                                                                assumption of the indirect proof
         ¬A
                                                                EC 1.
                                                                EC 1.
         \neg B
                                                                hypothesis: contradicts to 3
hypothesis: contradicts to 4.
         5.1.
                       Α
         5.2.
                       R
         A \supset \neg (A^{\vee} B)
5.
                                                                П
6.
         B \supset \neg (A^{\vee} B)
                                                                П
7.
     [\mathsf{A} \supset \neg(\mathsf{A}^{\vee}\mathsf{B})]^{\wedge}[\mathsf{B} \supset \neg(\mathsf{A}^{\vee}\mathsf{B})]
                                                                IC 5,6
         (A^{\vee}B) \supset \neg(A^{\vee}B)
8.
                                                                Theorem 4
9.
         ¬(A <sup>∨</sup> B)
                                                                MP 2, 8:
                                                                                           Q.E.D.
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Natural Deduction: examples $A \supset C, B \supset C \models (A^{\vee} B) \supset C$

Proof:

	1. $A \supset C$ 2 $\neg A \lor C$	assumption Theorem 2	
	3. $B \supset C$	assumption	
	4. ¬B [∨] C	Theorem 2	
	5. A ^v B	assumption	
	6. ¬C	assumption of indirect proof	
	7. ¬B	ED 4, 6	
	8. ¬A	ED 2, 6	
9. ¬A ^ ¬BIC 7, 8			
10. $(\neg A \land \neg B) \supset \neg (A \lor B)$ Theorem 3 (de Morgan) 11. $\neg (A \lor B)$ MP 9. 10 contradicts to 5, hence			
	12. C	(assumption of indirect proof is not true) Q.E.D.	

Natural Deduction: examples Some proofs of FOPL theorems

1) $|-\forall x [A(x) \supset B(x)] \supset [\forall xA(x) \supset \forall xB(x)]$

Proof:

1. $\forall x [A(x) \supset B(x)]$ 2. $\forall x A(x)$ 3. $A(x) \supset B(x)$ 4. A(x)5. B(x)6. $\forall x B(x)$ assumption assumption E∀:1 E∀:2 MP:3,4 I∀:5 Q.E.D.

Natural Deduction: examples

- According to the Deduction Theorem we prove theorems in the form of implication by means of the proof of consequent from antecedent:
 - $\forall x [A(x) \supset B(x)] \mid [\forall x A(x) \supset \forall x B(x)] \text{ iff}$
- $\forall x \ [A(x) \supset B(x)], \ \forall x A(x) \mid \ \forall x B(x)$

Natural Deduction: examples $2) = \forall x A(x) = \exists x \neg A(x)$ (De Morgan rule)

Proof:

 $\Rightarrow: 1. \neg \forall x A(x)$ assumption 2. $\neg \exists x \neg A(x)$ assumption of indirect proof 3.1. $\neg A(x)$ hypothesis 3.2. $\exists x \neg A(x)$ $\exists : 3.1$ 4. $\neg A(x) \supset \exists x \neg A(x)$ II: 3.1, 3.2 5. A(x) MT: 4,2 6. $\forall x A(x)$ Z \forall :5 contradicts to:1 Q.E.D. \leftarrow : 1. $\exists x \neg A(x)$ assumption 2. $\forall x A(x)$ assumption of indirect proof 3. ¬A(c) E∃:1 4. A(c) E∀:2 contradicts to:3 Q.E.D.

examples

Note: In the proof sequence we can introduce a hypothetical assumption H (in this case 3.1.) and derive conclusion C from this hypothetical assumption H (in this case 3.2.). As a regular proof step we then must introduce implication H ⊃ C (step 4.).

 According to the Theorem of Deduction this theorem corresponds to two rules of deduction:

 $\neg \forall x A(x) \mid - \exists x \neg A(x) \\ \exists x \neg A(x) \mid - \neg \forall x A(x) \end{vmatrix}$

Natural Deduction: A(x) (De Morgan rule)

Proof:

- ⇒: 1. $\neg \exists x A(x)$ assumption 2.1. A(x) hypothesis 2.2. $\exists x A(x) Z \exists : 2.1$ 3. A(x) $\supset \exists x A(x) Z \exists : 2.1, 2.2$ 4. $\neg A(x)$ MT: 3,1 5. $\forall x \neg A(x)$ Z $\forall : 4$ Q.E.D. $\Leftarrow :$ 1. $\forall x \neg A(x)$ assumption 2. $\exists x A(x)$ assumption of indirect proof 3. A(c) E \exists : 2 4. $\neg A(c)$ E $\forall : 1$ contradictss to: 3
 - Q.E.D.
- According to the Theorem of Deduction this theorem (3) corresponds to two rules of deduction:
 ¬∃x A(x) |- ∀x ¬A(x), ∀x ¬A(x) |- ¬∃x A(x)

Existential quantifier elimination

Note: In the second part of the proofs ad (2) and (3) the rule of existential quantifier elimination (E3) has been used.

This rule is not truth preserving: the formula $\exists x A(x) \supset A(c)$ is not logically valid (cf. Skolem rule in the resolution method: the rule is satifiability preserving).

There are two ways of its using correctly:

- In an indirect proof (satisfiability!)
- As a an intermediate step that is followed by Introducing B again
- The proofs ad (2) and (3) are examples of the former (indirect proofs). The following proof is an example of the latter:

4) $|-\forall x [A(x) \supset B(x)] \supset [\exists x A(x) \supset \exists x B(x)]$

Proof:

- 1. $\forall x [A(x) \supset B(x)]$ assumption
- 2. $\exists x A(x)$ assumption
- 3. A(a) E∃: 2
- 4. A(a) \supset B(a) $E \forall$: 1
- 5. B(a) MP: 3,4
- 6. $\exists x B(x) | \exists : 5$

Q.E.D.

Note: this is another example of a correct using the rule E3.

5) [- $\forall x [A^{\vee} B(x)] \equiv A^{\vee} \forall x B(x)$, where A does not contain variable x free

Proof:

⇒:	1.	$\forall x [A^{\vee} B(x)]$ assumption		
	2.	$A^{\vee} B(x) E \forall: 1$		
3.	A [∨] ¬A	axiom		
3.1.	А	1. hypothesis		
3.2.	$A^{\vee} \forall x B$	(x) ZD: 3.1		
4.1.	$\neg A$	2. hypothesis		
4.2.	B(x)	ED: 2, 4.1		
4.3.	$\forall x B(x)$	I∀: 4.2		
4.4.	$A^{\vee} \forall x B$	(x) ID: 4.3.		
5.	$[A \supset (A^{\vee} \forall x B(x))]^{\wedge} [\neg A \supset (A^{\vee} \forall x B(x))] II + IC$			
6.	(A [∨] ¬A)	$rightarrow (A^{\vee} \forall x B(x))$ theorem + MP 5		
7.	_A [°] ∀xB	(x) MP 6, 3		
Q.E.D.				

5) $|-\forall x [A^{\vee} B(x)] \equiv A^{\vee} \forall x B(x)$, where A does not contain variable x free

Proof:

 \leftarrow :1. A $\vee \forall x B(x)$ Assumption, disjunction of hypotheses 2.1. A 1. hypothesis 2.2. $A^{\vee} B(x) ID$: 2.1 2.3. $\forall x [A^{\vee} B(x)] | \forall : 2.2$ 3. $A \supset \forall x [A \lor B(x)]$ 4.1. $\forall x B(x)$ 2. hypothesis 4.2. B(*x*) E∀: 3.1 4.3. A ^v B(x)ID: 3.2 4.4. $\forall x [A^{\vee} B(x)] | \forall : 3.3$ 5. $\forall \mathbf{x} \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x}) \supset \forall \mathbf{x} [\mathbf{A}^{\vee} \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x})] \parallel 4.1., 4.4.$ 6. $[A^{\vee} \forall x B(x)] \supset \forall x [A^{\vee} B(x)]$ Theorem, IC, MP – 3, 5 7. $\forall x [A^{\vee} B(x)] MP 1, 6Q.E.D.$

6) $|-(A(x) \supset B) \supset (\forall xA(x) \supset B)$

Proof:

1. A(x) ⊃ B2. $\forall xA(x)$ 3. A(x)5. B

assumption assumption E∀: 2 MP: 1,2 Q.E.D.

This theorem corresponds to the rule:

 $A(x) \supset B \mid - \forall x A(x) \supset B$