What is a Proof?

Jean Gallier and Kurt W.A.J.H.Y. Reillag CIS, Upenn and Hospices de Beaune



Reillag's office



Another office



After a bad proof!



Finally, Reillag (young)

• Formalizing the rules of logic goes back to the Greek.

- Formalizing the rules of logic goes back to the Greek.
- Axioms and Syllogisms (Aristotle, 384 BC-322 BC)
 - All humans are mortal
 - Socrates is a human
 - Socrates is mortal.

- Formalizing the rules of logic goes back to the Greek.
- Axioms and Syllogisms (Aristotle, 384 BC-322 BC)
 - All humans are mortal
 - Socrates is a human
 - Socrates is mortal.
- Modus Ponens: If (P implies Q) holds and P holds, then Q holds.

• Proof by intimidation

- Proof by intimidation
- Proof by seduction

- Proof by intimidation
- Proof by seduction
- Proof by interruption

- Proof by intimidation
- Proof by seduction
- Proof by interruption
- Proof by misconception

- Proof by intimidation
- Proof by seduction
- Proof by interruption
- Proof by misconception
- Proof by obfuscation

- Proof by intimidation
- Proof by seduction
- Proof by interruption
- Proof by misconception
- Proof by obfuscation
- Proof by confusion

- Proof by intimidation
- Proof by seduction
- Proof by interruption
- Proof by misconception
- Proof by obfuscation
- Proof by confusion
- Proof by exhaustion

• Proof by passion

- Proof by passion
- Proof by example

- Proof by passion
- Proof by example
- Proof by vigorous handwaving

- Proof by passion
- Proof by example
- Proof by vigorous handwaving
- Proof by cumbersome notation

- Proof by passion
- Proof by example
- Proof by vigorous handwaving
- Proof by cumbersome notation
- Proof by omission

- Proof by passion
- Proof by example
- Proof by vigorous handwaving
- Proof by cumbersome notation
- Proof by omission
- Proof by funding

- Proof by passion
- Proof by example
- Proof by vigorous handwaving
- Proof by cumbersome notation
- Proof by omission
- Proof by funding
- Proof by personal communication

- Proof by passion
- Proof by example
- Proof by vigorous handwaving
- Proof by cumbersome notation
- Proof by omission
- Proof by funding
- Proof by personal communication
- Proof by metaproof, etc.

Proof by intimidation!





• Cantor (1845-1918) and the birth of set theory



- Cantor (1845-1918) and the birth of set theory
- Paradoxes and the "crisis of foundations".



- Cantor (1845-1918) and the birth of set theory
- Paradoxes and the "crisis of foundations".
- Sets that are too big or defined by self-reference



- Cantor (1845-1918) and the birth of set theory
- Paradoxes and the "crisis of foundations".
- Sets that are too big or defined by self-reference
- Russell's paradox (1902)



- Cantor (1845-1918) and the birth of set theory
- Paradoxes and the "crisis of foundations".
- Sets that are too big or defined by self-reference
- Russell's paradox (1902)
- There is no set of all sets



Truth and Proofs

Truth and Proofs

• Ideally, we would like to know what is truth

Truth and Proofs

- Ideally, we would like to know what is truth
- From the point of view of logic, truth has to do with semantics, i.e., the meaning of statements
Truth and Proofs

- Ideally, we would like to know what is truth
- From the point of view of logic, truth has to do with semantics, i.e., the meaning of statements
- Peter Andrew's motto: ``Truth is elusive''

Truth and Proofs

- Ideally, we would like to know what is truth
- From the point of view of logic, truth has to do with semantics, i.e., the meaning of statements
- Peter Andrew's motto: ``Truth is elusive''
- ``To truth through proof"

Truth and Proofs

- Ideally, we would like to know what is truth
- From the point of view of logic, truth has to do with semantics, i.e., the meaning of statements
- Peter Andrew's motto: ``Truth is elusive''
- ``To truth through proof"
- Provable implies true. Easier to study proofs

Hilbert



David Hilbert (1862-1943)

Hilbert systems have many axioms and few inference rules

- Hilbert systems have many axioms and few inference rules
- The axioms are very unnatural!

- Hilbert systems have many axioms and few inference rules
- The axioms are very unnatural!
- That's because they are chosen to yield the deduction theorem

- Hilbert systems have many axioms and few inference rules
- The axioms are very unnatural!
- That's because they are chosen to yield the deduction theorem
- Unfriendly system for humans.

- Hilbert systems have many axioms and few inference rules
- The axioms are very unnatural!
- That's because they are chosen to yield the deduction theorem
- Unfriendly system for humans.
- Proofs in Hilbert systems are very far from proofs that a human would write



• Gerhard Gentzen (1909-1945)



- Gerhard Gentzen (1909-1945)
- Introduced natural deduction systems and sequent calculi



- Gerhard Gentzen (1909-1945)
- Introduced natural deduction systems and sequent calculi
- Trivial axioms, ``natural rules"



- Gerhard Gentzen (1909-1945)
- Introduced natural deduction systems and sequent calculi
- Trivial axioms, ``natural rules"
- The rules formalize informal rules of reasoning



- Gerhard Gentzen (1909-1945)
- Introduced natural deduction systems and sequent calculi
- Trivial axioms, ``natural rules"
- The rules formalize informal rules of reasoning
- Symmetry of the rules



- Gerhard Gentzen (1909-1945)
- Introduced natural deduction systems and sequent calculi
- Trivial axioms, ``natural rules"
- The rules formalize informal rules of reasoning
- Symmetry of the rules
- Introduction/Elimination



• A proof of a proposition, P, does not depend on any assumptions (premises).

- A proof of a proposition, P, does not depend on any assumptions (premises).
- When we construct a proof, we usually introduce extra premises which are later closed (dismissed, discharged).

- A proof of a proposition, P, does not depend on any assumptions (premises).
- When we construct a proof, we usually introduce extra premises which are later closed (dismissed, discharged).
- Such an ``unfinished" proof is a deduction.

- A proof of a proposition, P, does not depend on any assumptions (premises).
- When we construct a proof, we usually introduce extra premises which are later closed (dismissed, discharged).
- Such an ``unfinished" proof is a deduction.
- We need a mechanism to keep track of closed (discharged) premises (the others are open).

- A proof is a tree labeled with propositions
- To prove an implication, $P \Rightarrow Q$, from a list of premises, $\Gamma = (P_1, \ldots, P_n)$, do this:
- Add P to the list Γ and prove Q from Γ and P.
- When this deduction is finished, we obtain a proof of P ⇒ Q which does not depend on P, so the premise P needs to be discharged (closed).

The axioms and inference rules for *implicational logic* are: Axioms:

 $\frac{\Gamma, P}{P}$

The \Rightarrow -elimination rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma}{P \Rightarrow Q} \qquad \frac{\Delta}{P} \\
Q$$

The \Rightarrow -introduction rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma, P^x}{Q} \qquad x \\
\frac{P \Rightarrow Q}{P}$$

In the introduction rule, the tag x indicates which rule caused the premise, P, to be discharged.

The \Rightarrow -introduction rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma, P^x}{Q} \qquad x \\
\frac{P \Rightarrow Q}{P}$$

In the introduction rule, the tag x indicates which rule caused the premise, P, to be discharged.

Every tag is associated with a unique rule but several premises can be labeled with the same tag and all discharged in a single step.

Examples of Proofs

$$\frac{\frac{P^x}{P}}{p \Rightarrow P} x$$

So, $P \Rightarrow P$ is provable; this is the least we should expect from our proof system!

(b)

(a)



Examples of proofs

(c) In the next example, the two occurrences of A labeled x are discharged simultaneously.

$(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C))^z \qquad A^x$	$(A \Rightarrow B)^y \qquad A^x$
$B \Rightarrow C$	B
C	<u> </u>
$A \Rightarrow$	$\succ C$ y
$(A \Rightarrow B) =$	$\Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow C)$
$(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)) \Rightarrow ((A \Rightarrow C)) = $	$A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow C))$

More Examples of Proofs

(d) In contrast to Example (c), in the proof tree below the two occurrences of A are discharged separately. To this effect, they are labeled differently.

$(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C))^z$	A^x	$(A \Rightarrow B)^y$	A^t
$B \Rightarrow C$		В	
	C	x	
	$A \Rightarrow C$	<i>y</i>	
$(A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow C)$			
$(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C))$	$\Rightarrow ((A =$	$\Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow C))$	~
$A \Rightarrow \Big(\big(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C) \Big) \Big) = C$	$(Z)) \Rightarrow ((Z))$	$A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow C$	$(\mathcal{C}))))$

t



Wow, I landed it! (the proof)

Natural Deduction in Sequent-Style

- A different way of keeping track of open premises (undischarged) in a deduction
- The nodes of our trees are now sequents of the form $\,\Gamma \to P$, with

 $\Gamma = x_1 \colon P_1, \ldots, x_m \colon P_m$

- The variables are pairwise distinct but the premises may be repeated
- We can view the premise P_i as the type of the variable $x_i!$

Natural Deduction in Sequent-Style

The axioms and rules for implication in Gentzen-sequent style:

 $\Gamma, x \colon P \to P$

$$\frac{\Gamma, x \colon P \to Q}{\Gamma \to P \Rightarrow Q} \quad (\Rightarrow\text{-intro})$$
$$\frac{\Gamma \to P \Rightarrow Q \quad \Gamma \to P}{\Gamma \to Q} \quad (\Rightarrow\text{-elim})$$

Redundant Proofs Proof Normalization

$$\frac{((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q)^{x} \qquad (R \Rightarrow R)^{y}}{Q}$$

$$\frac{Q}{((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow Q} \xrightarrow{x} \qquad \frac{R^{z}}{R}$$

$$\frac{(R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow (((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow Q)}{((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow Q} \xrightarrow{y} \qquad \frac{R \Rightarrow R}{R \Rightarrow R}$$

$$((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow Q$$

Redundant Proofs Proof Normalization

 When an elimination step immediately follows an introduction step, a proof can be normalized (simplified)

$$\frac{((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q)^{x} \qquad (R \Rightarrow R)^{y}}{Q}$$

$$\frac{Q}{((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow Q} \qquad x \qquad \frac{R^{z}}{R}$$

$$\frac{R^{z}}{R}$$

Proof Normalization

• A simpler (normalized) proof:

$$\frac{\frac{R^z}{R}}{((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q)^x} \qquad \frac{R^z}{R \Rightarrow R} \qquad z$$

$$\frac{Q}{((R \Rightarrow R) \Rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow Q} \qquad x$$



Where is that simpler proof?
Pointing at a bad proof!



In the sixties, Dag Prawitz gave reduction rules.

- In the sixties, Dag Prawitz gave reduction rules.
- He proved that every proof can be reduced to a normal form (normalization).

- In the sixties, Dag Prawitz gave reduction rules.
- He proved that every proof can be reduced to a normal form (normalization).
- In 1971, he proved that every reduction sequence terminates (strong normalization) and that every proof has a unique normal form.

Propositions as types and proofs as simply-typed lambda terms

$$\Gamma, x \colon P \to x \colon P$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, x \colon P \to M \colon Q}{\Gamma \to \lambda x \colon P \cdot M \colon P \Rightarrow Q} \quad (\Rightarrow\text{-intro})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \to M \colon P \Rightarrow Q \quad \Gamma \to N \colon P}{\Gamma \to MN \colon Q} \quad (\Rightarrow\text{-elim})$$

 Howard (1969) observed that proofs can be represented as terms of the simply-typed lambda-calculus (Church).

- Howard (1969) observed that proofs can be represented as terms of the simply-typed lambda-calculus (Church).
- Propositions can be viewed as types.

- Howard (1969) observed that proofs can be represented as terms of the simply-typed lambda-calculus (Church).
- Propositions can be viewed as types.
- Proof normalization corresponds to lambda-conversion.

- Howard (1969) observed that proofs can be represented as terms of the simply-typed lambda-calculus (Church).
- Propositions can be viewed as types.
- Proof normalization corresponds to lambda-conversion.

- Howard (1969) observed that proofs can be represented as terms of the simply-typed lambda-calculus (Church).
- Propositions can be viewed as types.
- Proof normalization corresponds to lambda-conversion.

• Strong normalization (SN) in the typed lambda-calculus implies SN of proofs.

- Howard (1969) observed that proofs can be represented as terms of the simply-typed lambda-calculus (Church).
- Propositions can be viewed as types.
- Proof normalization corresponds to lambda-conversion.

$$(\lambda x \colon \sigma \cdot M) N \longrightarrow_{\beta} M[N/x]$$

• Strong normalization (SN) in the typed lambda-calculus implies SN of proofs.

Adding the connectives and, or, not

 To deal with negation, we introduce falsity (absurdum), the proposition always false:

• We view $\neg P$, the negation of P, as an abbreviation for $P \Rightarrow \bot$

Rules for and

The \wedge -introduction rule:



The \wedge -elimination rule:



Rules for or

The \lor -introduction rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma}{P} \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma}{Q} \\
\frac{P \lor Q}{P \lor Q} \qquad \qquad \frac{P \lor Q}{P \lor Q}$$

The \lor -elimination rule:

$$\frac{\Gamma}{P \lor Q} \qquad \frac{\Delta, P^x}{R} \qquad \frac{\Lambda, Q^y}{R} \\
\frac{\Lambda, Q^y}{R} \qquad \frac{\Lambda, Q^y}{R} \qquad \frac{\Lambda, Q^y}{R} \\
\frac{\Lambda, Q^y}{R} \qquad \frac{\Lambda, Q^y}{R} \qquad \frac{\Lambda, Q^y}{R} \\
\frac{\Lambda, Q^y}{R} \qquad \frac{\Lambda,$$

Rules for negation

The \neg -introduction rule:

 $\frac{\Gamma, P^x}{\bot} \qquad x \\ \neg P$

The \neg -elimination rule:



The Quantifier Rules

 \forall -introduction:

$$\frac{\Gamma}{\frac{P[u/t]}{\forall tP}}$$

Here, u must be a variable that does not occur free in any of the propositions in Γ or in $\forall tP$; the notation P[u/t] stands for the result of substituting u for all free occurrences of t in P.

 \forall -elimination:

$$\frac{\Gamma}{\forall tP} \\ \frac{P}{P[\tau/t]}$$

Here τ is an arbitrary term and it is assumed that bound variables in P have been renamed so that none of the variables in τ are captured after substitution.

The Quantifier Rules

 \exists -introduction:

$$\frac{\Gamma}{P[\tau/t]}$$
$$\frac{}{\exists t P}$$

As in \forall -elimination, τ is an arbitrary term and the same proviso on bound variables in P applies.

 \exists -elimination:

$$\frac{\frac{\Gamma}{\exists tP}}{C} \qquad \frac{\Delta, P[u/t]^x}{C} \\ \frac{\Delta}{C} \qquad x$$

Here, u must be a variable that does not occur free in any of the propositions in Δ , $\exists tP$, or C, and all premises P[u/t] labeled x are discharged.

The ``Controversial " Rules

The \perp -elimination rule:

 $\frac{\Gamma}{\perp}$ $\frac{\Gamma}{P}$

The proof-by-contradiction rule (also known as reduction ad absurdum rule, for short RAA):

$$\frac{\Gamma, \neg P^x}{\frac{\bot}{P}^x}$$

 \perp -elimination



• The \perp -elimination rule is not so bad.



- The \perp -elimination rule is not so bad.
- It says that once we have reached an absurdity, then everything goes!

$$\neg \neg P \Rightarrow P \qquad \neg P \lor P$$

- The \perp -elimination rule is not so bad.
- It says that once we have reached an absurdity, then everything goes!
- RAA is worse! I allows us to prove double negation elimination and the law of the excluded middle:

$$\neg \neg P \Rightarrow P \qquad \qquad \neg P \lor P$$

- The \perp -elimination rule is not so bad.
- It says that once we have reached an absurdity, then everything goes!
- RAA is worse! I allows us to prove double negation elimination and the law of the excluded middle:

$$\neg \neg P \Rightarrow P \qquad \qquad \neg P \lor P$$

- The \perp -elimination rule is not so bad.
- It says that once we have reached an absurdity, then everything goes!
- RAA is worse! I allows us to prove double negation elimination and the law of the excluded middle:

•
$$\neg \neg P \Rightarrow P$$
 $\neg P \lor P$

• Constructively, these are problematic!

Lack of Constructivity

- The provability of $\neg \neg P \Rightarrow P$ and $\neg P \lor P$ is equivalent to RAA.
- RAA allows proving disjunctions (and existential statements) that may not be constructive; this means that if $A \lor B$ is provable, in general, it may not be possible to give a proof of A or a proof of B
- This lack of constructivity of classical logic led Brouwer to invent intuitionistic logic



That's too abstract, give me something concrete!

A non-constructive proof

- Claim: There exist two reals numbers, a, b, both irrational, such that a^b is rational.
- Proof:We know that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational. Either
- (1) $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is rational; $a = b = \sqrt{2}$, or
- (2) $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is irrational; $a = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}, b = \sqrt{2}$
- In (2), we use $(\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}})^{\sqrt{2}} = 2$
- Using the law of the excluded middle, our claim is proved! But, what is $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$?

Non-constructive Proofs

- The previous proof is non-constructive.
- It shows that *a* and *b* must exist but it does not produce an explicit solution.
- This proof gives no information as to the irrationality of $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$
- In fact, $\sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$ is irrational, but this is very hard to prove!
- A ``better" solution: $a = \sqrt{2}, \ b = \log_2 9$

Existence proofs are often non-constructive

- Fixed-points Theorems often only assert the existence of a fixed point but provide no method for computing them.
- For example, Brouwer's Fixed Point Theorem.
- That's too bad, this theorem is used in the proof of the Nash Equilibrium Theorem!



• LEJBrouwer (1881-1966)



- LEJBrouwer (1881-1966)
- Founder of intuitionism (1907)



- L E J Brouwer (1881-1966)
- Founder of intuitionism (1907)
- Also important work in topology



A. Heyting


A. Heyting

 Arend Heyting (1898-1980)



A. Heyting

- Arend Heyting (1898-1980)
- Heyting algebras (semantics for intuitionistic logic)



Intuitionistic Logic

- In intuitionistic logic, it is forbidden to use the proof by contradiction rule (RAA)
- As a consequence, ¬¬P no longer implies P and ¬P ∨ P is no longer provable (in general)
- The connectives, and, or, implication and negation are independent
- No de Morgan laws

Intuitionistic Logic

- Fewer propositions are provable (than in classical logic) but proofs are more constructive.
- If a disjunction, $P \lor Q$, is provable, then a proof of P or a proof of Q can be found.
- Similarly, if $\exists tP$ is provable, then there is a term, τ , such that $P[\tau/t]$ is provable.
- However, the complexity of proof search is higher.

 Proofs in intuitionistic logic can be represented as certain kinds of lambdaterms.

- Proofs in intuitionistic logic can be represented as certain kinds of lambdaterms.
- We now have conjunctive, disjunctive, universal and existential types.

- Proofs in intuitionistic logic can be represented as certain kinds of lambdaterms.
- We now have conjunctive, disjunctive, universal and existential types.
- Falsity can be viewed as an ``error type"

- Proofs in intuitionistic logic can be represented as certain kinds of lambdaterms.
- We now have conjunctive, disjunctive, universal and existential types.
- Falsity can be viewed as an ``error type"
- Strong Normalization still holds, but some subtleties with disjunctive and existential types (permutative reductions)

• We allow quantification over functions.

- We allow quantification over functions.
- The corresponding lambda-calculus is a polymorphic lambda calculus (first invented by J.Y. Girard, systems F and F-omega, 1971)

- We allow quantification over functions.
- The corresponding lambda-calculus is a polymorphic lambda calculus (first invented by J.Y. Girard, systems F and F-omega, 1971)
- System F was independently discovered by J. Reynolds (1974) for very different reasons.

- We allow quantification over functions.
- The corresponding lambda-calculus is a polymorphic lambda calculus (first invented by J.Y. Girard, systems F and F-omega, 1971)
- System F was independently discovered by J. Reynolds (1974) for very different reasons.
- Later, even richer typed calculi, the theory of construction (Coquand, Huet)

Some rules (or-elim, exists-elim) violate the subformula property

- Some rules (or-elim, exists-elim) violate the subformula property
- This makes searching for proofs very expansive

- Some rules (or-elim, exists-elim) violate the subformula property
- This makes searching for proofs very expansive
- Natural deduction systems are not well suited for (automated) proof search

- Some rules (or-elim, exists-elim) violate the subformula property
- This makes searching for proofs very expansive
- Natural deduction systems are not well suited for (automated) proof search
- Gentzen sequent calculi are much better suited for proof search.



Pelikans Proof Searching

Proof Search (Sequent Calculi)

• A Gentzen sequent is a pair of sets of formulae, $\Gamma \to \Delta$, where

 $\Gamma = \{P_1, \dots, P_m\} \qquad \Delta = \{Q_1, \dots, Q_n\}$

- The intuitive idea is that if all the propositions in Γ hold, then some proposition in Δ should hold.
- The rules of a Gentzen system break the formulae P_i and Q_j into subformulae that may end up on the other side of the arrow

Proof Search (Sequent Calculi)

- $\bullet~{\rm In~intuitionistic~logic,~}\Delta~{\rm has~at~most~one}$ formula
- In classical propositional logic, every search strategy terminates.
- In intuitionistic propositional logic, there is a search strategy that always terminates.
- In first-order logic (classical, intuitionistic), there is no general search procedure that always terminates (Church's Theorem).



Triumph Proof Searching

• For classical propositional logic: truth values semantics ({true, false}).

- For classical propositional logic: truth values semantics ({true, false}).
- For intuitionistic propositional logic: Heyting algebras, Kripke models.

- For classical propositional logic: truth values semantics ({true, false}).
- For intuitionistic propositional logic: Heyting algebras, Kripke models.
- For classical first-order logic: first-order structures (Tarskian semantics).

- For classical propositional logic: truth values semantics ({true, false}).
- For intuitionistic propositional logic: Heyting algebras, Kripke models.
- For classical first-order logic: first-order structures (Tarskian semantics).
- For intuitionistic first-order logic: Kripke models.

• Soundness: Every provable formula is valid (has the value true for all interpretations).

- Soundness: Every provable formula is valid (has the value true for all interpretations).
- A proof system must be sound or else it is garbage!

- Soundness: Every provable formula is valid (has the value true for all interpretations).
- A proof system must be sound or else it is garbage!
- Completeness: Every valid formula is provable.

- Soundness: Every provable formula is valid (has the value true for all interpretations).
- A proof system must be sound or else it is garbage!
- Completeness: Every valid formula is provable.
- Completeness is desirable but not always possible.

Completeness: Good News

Completeness: Good News

• The systems I presented are all sound and complete.

Completeness: Good News

- The systems I presented are all sound and complete.
- Godel (completeness theorem for classical logic)
Completeness: Good News

- The systems I presented are all sound and complete.
- Godel (completeness theorem for classical logic)
- Kripke (completeness theorem for intuitionistic logic)

Completeness: Good News

- The systems I presented are all sound and complete.
- Godel (completeness theorem for classical logic)
- Kripke (completeness theorem for intuitionistic logic)
- Classical Propositional validity: decidable.

Completeness: Good News

- The systems I presented are all sound and complete.
- Godel (completeness theorem for classical logic)
- Kripke (completeness theorem for intuitionistic logic)
- Classical Propositional validity: decidable.
- Intuitionistic Propositional validity: decidable

Complexity of classical prop. validity: co-NP complete (Cook, Karp, 1970)

- Complexity of classical prop. validity: co-NP complete (Cook, Karp, 1970)
- Complexity of intuitionistic prop. validity: P-space complete! (Statman, 1979)

- Complexity of classical prop. validity: co-NP complete (Cook, Karp, 1970)
- Complexity of intuitionistic prop. validity: P-space complete! (Statman, 1979)
- The decision problem (validity problem) for first-order (classical) logic is undecidable (Church, 1936)

- Complexity of classical prop. validity: co-NP complete (Cook, Karp, 1970)
- Complexity of intuitionistic prop. validity: P-space complete! (Statman, 1979)
- The decision problem (validity problem) for first-order (classical) logic is undecidable (Church, 1936)
- Decision problem for intuitionistic logic also undecidable (double negation translation)



Kurt Godel (1906-1978) (Right: with A. Einstein)



Alonzo Church (1903-1995)



 Herbrand's idea: Reduce the provability of a first-order formula to the provability of a quantifier-free conjunction of substitution instances of this formula.

- Herbrand's idea: Reduce the provability of a first-order formula to the provability of a quantifier-free conjunction of substitution instances of this formula.
- Normal forms become crucial: conjunctive normal form (cnf), negation normal form (nnf)

- Herbrand's idea: Reduce the provability of a first-order formula to the provability of a quantifier-free conjunction of substitution instances of this formula.
- Normal forms become crucial: conjunctive normal form (cnf), negation normal form (nnf)
- Nice formulation of Herbrand's Theorem for formulae in nnf due to Peter Andrews

Substitutions, Unification

- Roughly speaking, compound instances are obtained by recursively substituting terms for variables in subformulae.
- It turns out that the crux of the method is to find substitutions so that

$$\sigma(P_i) = \sigma(P_j)$$

• where P_i , P_j are atomic formulae occurring with opposite signs

• Such substitutions are called unifiers

- Such substitutions are called unifiers
- For efficiency reasons, it is important to find most general unifiers (mgu's)

- Such substitutions are called unifiers
- For efficiency reasons, it is important to find most general unifiers (mgu's)
- mgu's always exist. There are efficient algorithms for finding them (Martelli-Montanari, Paterson and Wegman)

- Such substitutions are called unifiers
- For efficiency reasons, it is important to find most general unifiers (mgu's)
- mgu's always exist. There are efficient algorithms for finding them (Martelli-Montanari, Paterson and Wegman)
- Higher-order unification is also of great interest, but undecidable in general!

Some Theorem Provers and Proof Assistants

- Isabelle
- COQ (Benjamin Pierce is writing two books that make use of COQ)
- TPS
- NUPRL
- PVS
- Agda
- Twelf

 One will note that in a deduction (natural or Gentzen sequent style), the same premise can be used as many times as needed.

- One will note that in a deduction (natural or Gentzen sequent style), the same premise can be used as many times as needed.
- Girard (and Lambeck earlier) had the idea to restrict the use of premises (charge for multiple use).

- One will note that in a deduction (natural or Gentzen sequent style), the same premise can be used as many times as needed.
- Girard (and Lambeck earlier) had the idea to restrict the use of premises (charge for multiple use).
- This leads to logics where the connectives have a double identity: additive or multiplicative.

 linear logic, invented by Girard, achieves much finer control over the use of premises.

- linear logic, invented by Girard, achieves much finer control over the use of premises.
- The notion of proof becomes more general: proof nets (certain types of graphs)

- linear logic, invented by Girard, achieves much finer control over the use of premises.
- The notion of proof becomes more general: proof nets (certain types of graphs)
- linear logic can be viewed as an attempt to deal with resources and parallelism

- linear logic, invented by Girard, achieves much finer control over the use of premises.
- The notion of proof becomes more general: proof nets (certain types of graphs)
- linear logic can be viewed as an attempt to deal with resources and parallelism
- Negation is an involution

• From a practical point of view, it is very fruitful to design logics with intented semantics, such as time, concurrency, ...

- From a practical point of view, it is very fruitful to design logics with intented semantics, such as time, concurrency, ...
- Temporal logic deals with time (A. Pnueli)

- From a practical point of view, it is very fruitful to design logics with intented semantics, such as time, concurrency, ...
- Temporal logic deals with time (A. Pnueli)
- Process logic (Manna, Pnueli)

- From a practical point of view, it is very fruitful to design logics with intented semantics, such as time, concurrency, ...
- Temporal logic deals with time (A. Pnueli)
- Process logic (Manna, Pnueli)
- Dynamic logic (Harel, Pratt)

- From a practical point of view, it is very fruitful to design logics with intented semantics, such as time, concurrency, ...
- Temporal logic deals with time (A. Pnueli)
- Process logic (Manna, Pnueli)
- Dynamic logic (Harel, Pratt)
- The world of logic is alive and well!


Searching for that proof!