Foundations of formal proof systems

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How do we define mathematics?

All humans are mortal, Socrates is human, thus Socrate is mortal.

correction : *syntaxic* criterion

$$\frac{-A \Rightarrow B \qquad \vdash A}{\vdash B}$$

The stones to build mathematical proofs

$$\frac{\vdash \forall x. H(x) \Rightarrow M(x)}{\vdash H(s) \Rightarrow M(S)} \qquad \vdash H(S)$$
$$\frac{\vdash M(S)}{\vdash M(S)}$$

A mathematical proof is a *construction*

Birth of modern mathematical logic

Mathematical truth defined through totally objective rules

1872 : The Begriffsschrift of Frege





mechanical verification

proof = tree structure

A century later

Mechanical verification becomes real

First proof system : Automath (1968)



N. G. de Bruijn

Formal proofs are *actually* built.

Today

A modern proof system : Coq

Same principle

More modern formalism

What do we ask from a formalism

Before (informal proofs) : we want the formalism to be expressive (many theorems)

Now (formal proofs) we want also :

Concise proofs

► . . .

Close to our intuition (no spurious syntactical hacking)

This course : study formalisms with these aims in mind

First-order logic - language

A set of variables : x, y, z, \ldots

A set of function symbols : f, g, h, \ldots each function symbol has an arity (number of arguments).

A set of predicate symbols : A, B, C, P, R... each with an arity.

Objects :

- a variable is a term,
- ▶ if f is of arity n and t₁,..., t_n are terms, then f(t₁,..., t_n) is a term.

Propositions :

- if P is of arity n then $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is a (atomic) proposition
- ▶ is A and B are propositions, $A \land B$, $A \lor B$, $A \Rightarrow B$, \bot , $\forall x.A$, $\exists x.B$ are propositions.

Examples (languages of FOL)

Arithmetic (Peano, 1889) Function symbols : $0, S, +, \times$ Predicate symbol : =

Set Theory (Cantor, Russell, Zermelo, Fraenkel...) Predicate symbols : \in , = A theory is :

A language (functions + predicate symbols)

A set of axioms (propositions of the language)

Axioms of arithmetic :

 $\begin{array}{l} \forall x, 0 + x = x & \forall x, 0 \times x = 0 \\ \forall x \ y, S(x) + y = S(x + y) & \forall x \ y, S(x) \times y = y + x \times y \\ \forall x, \neg (0 = S(x)) \\ \forall x \ y, S(x) = S(y) \Rightarrow x = y \\ P(0) \wedge (\forall x, P(x) \Rightarrow P(S(x))) \Rightarrow \forall x, P(x). \\ \forall x, x = x \\ \forall x \ y, P(x) \wedge x = y \Rightarrow P(y). \end{array}$

Truth : natural deduction

 Γ set of propositions

 $\Gamma \vdash A$ A is provable under hypothesises+axioms Γ

$$\frac{A \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash A} (Ax)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \land B}{\Gamma \vdash A \land B} (\land -I) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \land B}{\Gamma \vdash A} (\land -E_1) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \land B}{\Gamma \vdash B} (\land -E_2)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B} (\lor -I_1) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B} (\lor -I_2)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B}{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B} (\lor -I_1) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B} (\lor -I_2)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B}{\Gamma \vdash C} (\lor -E)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \Rightarrow B} (\Rightarrow -I) \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash A \Rightarrow B}{\Gamma \vdash B} (\Rightarrow -E)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash \forall x.A} (\forall -I) \quad \text{if } x \text{ not free in } \Gamma$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \forall x.A}{\Gamma \vdash A[x \setminus t]} (\forall -E)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A[x \setminus t]}{\Gamma \vdash \exists x.A} (\exists -I)$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash B} (\exists -E) \quad \text{if } x \text{ not free in } \Gamma, B$$

$$\frac{\Gamma\vdash\bot}{\Gamma\vdash A} \ (\bot-\mathsf{E})$$

(this gives intuitionistic logic

$$\overline{\Gamma \vdash A \lor \neg A}$$
 (EM)

(this gives classical logic)

Relating correctness and truth : models and semantics

A set \mathcal{U} (universe) For every f of arity n, a function $|f|: \mathcal{U}^n \to \mathcal{U}$ For every P of arity n, a function $|P|: \mathcal{U}^n \to \{0,1\}$ (equivalently $|P| \subset \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{U}^n)$ Given any \mathcal{I} mapping variables x to \mathcal{U} we define $|t|_{\mathcal{I}} \in \mathcal{U}$ by : $|x|_{\mathcal{I}} \equiv \mathcal{I}(x)$ $|f(t_1,\ldots,t_n)|_{\mathcal{I}} \equiv |f|(|t_1|_{\mathcal{I}},\ldots,|t_n|_{\mathcal{I}})$ Given any \mathcal{I} we define $|\mathcal{A}| \in \{0,1\}$ by : $P(t_1,\ldots,t_n)|_{\mathcal{T}} \equiv |P|(|t_1|_{\mathcal{T}},\ldots,|t_n|_{\mathcal{T}})$ $|A \wedge B|_{\mathcal{T}} \equiv |A|_{\mathcal{T}} \wedge |B|_{\mathcal{T}}$ \blacktriangleright similar for \lor . \Rightarrow . \bot ... \blacktriangleright $|\forall x.A|_{\mathcal{T}} \equiv \min_{\alpha \in \mathcal{U}} |A|_{\mathcal{T}: \mathbf{x} \leftarrow \alpha}$ ► $|\exists x.A|_{\mathcal{I}} \equiv \max_{\alpha \in \mathcal{U}} |A|_{\mathcal{I}:x \leftarrow \alpha}$ (this is very much classical logic)

Model of a theory

A model is a triple : \mathcal{U} , interpretation of fs, interpretation of Ps. It is a model of a theory \mathcal{T} if for any $A \in \mathcal{T}$, $|A|_{\mathcal{I}} = 1$ (for any \mathcal{I} since A is closed)

Correctness : If $\Gamma \vdash A$, and $\forall B \in \Gamma$, $|B|_{\mathcal{I}} = 1$, then $|A|_{\mathcal{I}} = 1$. proof : quite straightforward (good exercise)

Coherence : There is no proof of $\mathcal{T} \vdash \bot$ (easy consequence of correctness)

Completeness : If for any model validating Γ , $|A|_{\mathcal{I}} = 1$, then $\Gamma \vdash A$ is provable. proof : more difficult (Gödel's PhD)

Relates correctness with truth

incompleteness : limit of « truth » in math

An extension of first-order logic

Deduction modulo : we add rewrite rules to the language

$$0 + x \vartriangleright x$$

$$S(x) + y \vartriangleright S(x + y)$$

$$0 \times x \vartriangleright 0$$

$$S(x) \times y \vartriangleright y + x \times y$$

we allow reasoning modulo the rewrite rules :

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash \phi}{\Gamma \vdash \psi} \text{ if } \phi =_{R} \psi$$

How to prove 2 + 2 = 4?

Replacing more axioms by rewrite rules

How to ensure $0 \neq 1$?

 $\forall x.0 \neq S(x)$

Add a new predicate symbol EQZ

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{EQZ}(0) & \rhd & \top \\ \mathsf{EQZ}(S(x)) & \rhd & \bot \end{array}$

Exercise : finish the proof Important : avoiding messy rewrite rules $(A \land B \rhd \bot ...)$ Replacing more axioms by rewrite rules(2)

How to ensure
$$\forall x.\forall y.S(x) = S(y) \Rightarrow x = y$$
?
(injectivity of S)
Add a new function symbol pred

$$pred(S(x)) > x$$

 $pred(0) > 0$ (or whatever)

Exercise : finish the proof

A "simple" presentation of Arithmetic

Rules :

$$0 + x > x$$
EQZ(0) \neg $S(x) + y > S(x + y)$ EQZ($S(x)$) \neg $0 \times x > 0$ pred($S(x)$) \neg $S(x) \times y > y + x \times y$ pred(0) \neg

Axioms :

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x.x &= x \\ \forall x.\forall y.x &= y \land P(x) \Rightarrow P(y) \\ P(0) \land (\forall x.P(x) \Rightarrow P(S(x))) \Rightarrow \forall y.P(y) \end{aligned}$$

Cuts in proofs

Another form of dynamics / computation / transformation in proofs

What is a cut?

Prove ∀a.∀b.(a + b)² = a² + b² + 2ab (ends with ∀-intro)
 Deduces ∀b.(3 + b)² = 9 + b² + 6b (use ∀-elim)
 We could have proved (2) directly (following the same scheme as 1)

Logical Cut

An introduction rule followed by the corresponding elimination rule

$$\frac{\frac{\sigma_1}{\Gamma \vdash A}}{\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \land B}{\Gamma \vdash A}} \xrightarrow{(\land -i)} (\land -i)$$

Simplifies to :

 $\frac{\sigma_1}{\Gamma \vdash A}$

exercise : find the simplification for the other logical cuts

Cut Elimination

- Does this process terminate?
- If we have a proof of $\Gamma \vdash A$, can we find a cut-free proof?

Termination : a major point of this course

Cut-free proofs

Why does it matter to us?

In a cut-free proof, there are only axiom rules above elimination rules (or the $\ensuremath{\mathsf{EM}}\xspace)$

If a proof is cut-free, without axiom and constructive, it ends with an introduction rule.

A proof of $\vdash A \lor B$ that is constructive and cut-free ends with $\lor -i1$ of $\lor -i2$.

A proof of $\vdash \exists x.A(x)$ that is constructive and cut-free contains a *witness*.

Lemma : a cut free derivation (proof) of $[] \vdash A$ always ends with an introduction rule.

Proof: by induction over the derivation (could be the length of the derivation, but not necessary).

Let us do a few cases.

Why "natural" deduction?

The ND rules aim at corresponding to actual (human) deduction steps. Indeed :

Coq's formalism includes / extends first-order logic with some rewrite/computation rules.

Proofs are built top-down (goal-driven) and basic tactics correspond to ND rules

Next : : cuts and constructivity in Heyting Arithmetic

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MPRI Benjamin Werner Cuts in Heyting Arithmetic Sept. 2024

Axioms

$$\forall x. x = x$$

 $\forall x. \forall y. x = y \land P(x) \Rightarrow P(y)$
 $P(0) \land (\forall x.P(x) \Rightarrow P(S(x)) \Rightarrow \forall y. P(y)$
 $closed not n = m (\top$

Rewrite rules 0 + X > X $S(x) + y \triangleright S(x+y)$

 $0 \times x \ge 0$

 $pred(S(x)) > x \quad pred(0) > 0$

 $EQZ(S(x)) > \bot$ EQZ(0 \triangleright T A presentation of Heyting Arithmetic

normal object: S(S(O)), ...

ormal atomic proposition and \perp are not atomic)





Cuts in deduction modulo

Previous presentation: new additional rule

we do not want it to interfere with cuts.

We can rather reformulate the rules:

(we do the same for all rules)



(conv) $\frac{I \vdash A}{\Gamma \vdash B}$ if $A =_R B$ $\begin{array}{c} \wedge -i & \overline{\Gamma \vdash A} & \overline{\Gamma \vdash B} \\ \hline & (conv) & \overline{\Gamma \vdash A \land B} \\ \wedge -e & \overline{\Gamma \vdash A' \land B} \\ \hline & \Gamma \vdash A' \\ \end{array}$



Axiomatic Cuts



Equality Cut





"elimination"

σρ

P(t)



Induction Cut (1)







Induction cut (2) σ_0 P(0) $(P(0) \land \forall x P(x) \Rightarrow P(S(x))) \Rightarrow \forall y P(y)$ \forall y.P(y) P(S(t)) σ_0 $(P(0) \land \forall x P(x) \Rightarrow P(S(x))) \Rightarrow \forall y.P(y)$ P(0) σs \forall y.P(y) $\forall x P(x) \Rightarrow P(S(x))$ P(t) $P(t) \Rightarrow P(S(t))$ P(S(t))





Cut Free Proofs

Properties easy: If t is a term without free variables, then $t > S^{n}(0)$

Cut free proofs:

Take A without free variables. Any cut-free proof of A in HA either :

- ends with an introduction
- is refl or t=t (from refl)
- is Leibniz or partial application of L : $\forall y$. $t=y \land P(t) \Rightarrow P(y)$, $u=t \land P(t) \Rightarrow P(u)$
- Is Induction or a partial application of it: $\forall y$. P(y)

by induction over the structure of the proof (somewhat tedious)



A without free variables. A cut-free proof of A in HA is either :

- ends with an introduction
- is refl or t=t (from refl)
- is Leibniz or partial application of L : $\forall y$. $t=y \land P(t) \Rightarrow P(y), u=y \land P(t) \Rightarrow P(u)$
- Is Induction of proof partial application: $\forall y$. P(y)

Constructivity :

- If $\vdash_{HA} A \lor B$, then either $\vdash_{HA} A$ or $\vdash_{HA} B$
- if $\vdash_{HA} \exists x. A(x)$ then we can extract n and a proof of $\vdash_{HA} A(n)$

Consider : $\forall x. \exists y. x=y+y \lor x = S(y+y)$



To make the point of *constructivity*

- ▶ a proof of n=n is 0 (some trivial object)
- a proof of $A \wedge B$ is (can be reduced to) (*a*,*b*) with *a*:A and *b*:B
- a canonical proof of A \vee B is (ε, c) with $\varepsilon=0$ and c:A or $\varepsilon=1$ and c:B
- ▶ a proof of A \Rightarrow B is a computational function f, s.t. if a:A, then f(a): B
- ▶ a canonical proof of $\exists x.A$ is a pair (t,a) s.t. $a: A[x \setminus t]$
- ▶ a proof of \forall x.A is a computational function f, s.t. for all n, f(n): A[x \ n]





Why is arithmetic undecidable?

t=u is decidable

In HA, we can *prove* $\forall x, \forall y, x=y \lor x\neq y$ (which is the good way to state decidability) Let's do it

If A and B are decidable, so are $A \land B$, $A \lor B$, $A \Rightarrow B$ Undecidability comes "only" from the quantifiers Even if for all x, we can determine A(x) or $\neg A(x)$, we do not know

whether $\forall x.A(x)$ is true or not





Let us keep a first-order language (actually arithmetic) We drop the implication \Rightarrow

For every predicate P we add its negation *P (same arity) We *define* the negation of any proposition as:

$$\neg P(t_1, \dots, t_n) \equiv {}^*P(t_1, \dots, t_n)$$
$$\neg (A \lor B) \equiv \neg A \land \neg B$$
$$\neg (A \land B) \equiv \neg A \lor \neg B$$
$$\neg \forall X. A \equiv \exists X. \neg A$$
$$\neg \exists X. A \equiv \forall X. \neg A$$

Now ! Every closed proposition can be viewed as a game ! a game between the mathematician and nature





The game

The mathematician plays when the proposition is:

- A.XE provides an object t, game becomes $A[x \setminus t]$
- chose left or right, game becomes A or B $A \vee B$

Nature plays when the proposition is:

- ► ∀ X. A provides an object t, game becomes $A[x \setminus t]$
- chose left or right, game becomes A or B $A \wedge B$

The game stops when the proposition is atomic $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$

- if $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is true, mathematician wins
- if $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is false, nature wins

A true intuitionistically: mathematician has a winning strategy









Going beyond intuitionistic logic

Remember we have classical logic in sequent calculus by authorizing sequents with several conclusions: $A_1, \ldots, A_n \vdash B_1, \ldots, B_m$

We go to multigames: A_1, \ldots, A_n

idea: mathematician has to "prove" only one A_i

- if nature has to play on at least one A_i , it plays
- if not, mathematician plays on one A_i
- if A_i is $B \vee C$, mathematician can break it without choosing $B \lor C \twoheadrightarrow B, C$
- if A_i is $\exists x.A$, then mathematician can "keep" the existential for another later attempt $\exists x.A \rightarrow \exists x.A, A[x \setminus t]$





Excluded Middle in multi-games

$$A \lor \neg A \twoheadrightarrow A, \neg A$$

Now let us look at A: if $B \wedge C$, then nature plays B or C if $B \vee C$, then nature plays $\neg B$ or $\neg C$ if $\forall x.B$, then nature plays B[x\t] if $\exists x.B$, then nature plays $\neg B[x \setminus t]$

Mathematician wins !

when \vdash A (in classical logic), there is a winning strategy (essentially a termination argument)

see for instance the page of Thierry Coquand about game semantics



mathematician plays ¬ B or ¬ C B or C mathematician plays mathematician plays $\neg B[x t]$ B[x|t]mathematician plays

Links with Curry-Howard for classical logic