

Example 7: Using the theorem of deduction prove that the formula $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x))$ is a theorem.

We apply the reverse of the theorem of deduction:

$$\begin{aligned} & \vdash (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x)) \quad ==> \\ & (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \vdash ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x)) \quad ==> \\ & (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)), (\forall x)A(x) \vdash (\forall x)B(x) \end{aligned}$$

We prove that $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)), (\forall x)A(x) \vdash (\forall x)B(x)$ using the definition of a deduction building the sequence $(f1, f2, \dots, f8)$ of predicate formulas:

$$f1: (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$$

$$f2: (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow (A(y) \rightarrow B(y)) \text{ ---- axiom A4, } x \text{ is instantiated with } y\text{-term}$$

$$f1, f2 \vdash_{mp} f3 = A(y) \rightarrow B(y)$$

$$f4: (\forall x)A(x)$$

$$f5: (\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow A(y) \text{ ---- axiom A4, } x \text{ is instantiated with } y\text{-term}$$

$$f4, f5 \vdash_{mp} f6 = A(y)$$

$$f3, f6 \vdash_{mp} f7 = B(y)$$

$$f7 \vdash_{gen} f8 = (\forall x)B(x) \text{ ---- axiom A5}$$

$(f1, \dots, f8)$ is the deduction of $(\forall x)B(x)$ from the hypothesis $(\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x))$ and $(\forall x)A(x)$.

Using this deduction and applying twice the theorem of deduction we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} & (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)), (\forall x)A(x) \vdash (\forall x)B(x) \quad ==> \\ & (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \vdash (\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x) \quad ==> \\ & \vdash (\forall x)(A(x) \rightarrow B(x)) \rightarrow ((\forall x)A(x) \rightarrow (\forall x)B(x)) \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have proved that the initial formula is a theorem.

The Skolem normal forms without quantifiers are obtained by eliminating the universal quantifiers.

$$A_1^{Sq} = (\neg p(x) \vee q(x)) \wedge p(y) \wedge \neg q(a) = A_1^C \text{ (clausal form)}$$

$$A_2^{Sq} = (\neg p(x) \vee q(x)) \wedge p(y) \wedge \neg q(f(x)) = A_2^C$$

$$A_3^{Sq} = (\neg p(x) \vee q(x)) \wedge p(y) \wedge \neg q(g(x, y)) = A_3^C$$

Example 8: Transform into prenex normal form, Skolem normal form and clausal normal form the formula: $U = (\exists x)(\forall y)P(x, y) \vee (\exists z)(\neg Q(z) \vee (\forall u)(\exists t)R(z, u, t))$

$$U^P = (\exists x)(\forall y)(\exists z)(\forall u)(\exists t)(P(x, y) \vee \neg Q(z) \vee R(z, u, t))$$

$$U^S = (\forall y)(\forall u)(P(a, y) \vee \neg Q(f(y)) \vee R(f(y), u, g(y, u))), \text{ where:}$$

$$[x \leftarrow a], [z \leftarrow f(y)], [t \leftarrow g(y, u)], a = \text{Skolem constant}, f, g = \text{Skolem functions}$$

$$U^{Sq} = P(a, y) \vee \neg Q(f(y)) \vee R(f(y), u, g(y, u)) = U^C$$

Theorem 3 (Church 1936):

The problem of validity of a first-order formula is *undecidable*, but is *semi-decidable*. If a procedure P is used to check the validity of a formula we have the following situations:

- if a formula A is valid, then P ends with the corresponding answer.
- if the formula A is not valid, then P ends with the corresponding answer or P may never stop.

Theorem of deduction: if $X \cup \{A\} \vdash B$ then $X \vdash (A \rightarrow B)$, is used in theorem proving.

Refutation theorem: if $X \cup \{\neg A\}$ is inconsistent then $X \vdash A$.

This theorem is used in proof methods such as: resolution, semantic tableaux method, called *refutation proof methods*.

Theorem of soundness and completeness states the equivalence between the “logical consequence” concept and “syntactic consequence” concept.

Let Γ be a set of first-order formulas and γ a first-order formula.

- *completeness:* if $\Gamma \models \gamma$ then $\Gamma \vdash \gamma$.
- *soundness:* if $\Gamma \vdash \gamma$ then $\Gamma \models \gamma$.

A particular case of this theorem is the following result:

“A formula is a tautology if and only if it is a theorem in first-order logic.”