Proofs

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December 22, 2018

Abstract

This article is a Z Notation specification for proofs and proof checking. It has been type checked by fUZZ. The definitions that appear here are taken from Lemmon's book, $Beginning\ Logic$. The purpose of this specification is to guide the development of a proof checker aimed at Z specifications

1 Introduction

For a long time I have thought that it would be extremely useful to be able to write formal proofs concerning the mathematical objects defined in Z specifications. There are some very mature proof assistants available. I know something about Coq, but unfortunately it's style of proof is very different from that one finds in mathematical papers.

A Coq proof consists of applications of so-called *tactics*. Each tactic represents a higher level aggregate of deductions. This makes sense for a proof assistant since its job is to help the user discover proofs. Tactics are like macros and as such they alleviate the user from much low-level tedium. However, the analog of a macro in normal mathematical writing is a lemma. Perhaps tactics are more useful for proving formal properties of programming languages where the mathematical objects of interest are complex, but finite, recursive structures.

While a proof assistant might make sense is some contexts, proper development of a mathematical paper consists of a gradual introduction of concepts and lemmas leading to the main results. The proofs should, in some sense, write themselves. The focus of a mathematical paper should be on explanation and clarity. The proofs should be easy to read. I'd therefore really like something that would let me write and check natural looking proofs.

In contrast to Coq, the style of proof presented by Lemmon is very clear and explicit. However, the task of checking such a proof could easily be delegated to a program, much the same way that $f_{\rm UZZ}$ type checks Z. In fact Lemmon makes that point that, although there is no mechanical way to discover proofs, they can be mechanically checked.

I believe that the kernel of a proof checker could be very small. It is basically an engine driven by a set of deduction rules. The engine simply needs to check that each

deduction rule gets applied correctly. Even if it turns out that writing such an engine is too much work, the exercise of developing at least a simple version should give me a greater appreciation of tools like Coq and enable me to use them more productively.

My plan of attack is to formalize the concept of proof as described by Lemmon, starting with the propositional calculus, and then move on to predicate calculus.

2 Propositions

The propositional calculus defines a set of formal statements or propositions without being concerned about the subject matter described by those statements. The only restriction on these statements is that, in any given context, they possess a truth value of either true or false.

A proposition is also referred to as a well-formed formula or wff for short. This terminology stems from the traditional development of the propositional calculus in terms of a language of sentences over an alphabet with rules that prescribe when a given sentence is well-formed. However, here we will dispense with the language viewpoint, and its associated parsing issues, and move directly to the end result of parsing, namely the creation of abstract syntax trees or ASTs for short. This approach corresponds to Lemmon's Chapter 1. He returns to the issue of formal languages in Chapter 2.

2.1 *Prop*

Z notation has a convenient mechanism for specifying the structure of ASTs, namely that of free types. My first impulse was to use that mechanism to define propositions. However, the problem with free types is that they are it closed in the sense that all ways of constructing members of a free type must be specified when the free type is defined. Lemmon's book gradually introduces ways of constructing propositions, so in the interest of following his development of the subject as closely as possible, I won't define propositions that way.

On closer examination of free types in Z, it will be observed that they are merely syntactic sugar for introducing a new given set along with an exhaustive set of constructors for its elements. The constraint expressing the condition that the constructors are exhaustive is equivalent to saying that the domains of the constructors partition the set of propositions.

Therefore, given any subset of constructors, one can define the corresponding set of propositions that can be constructed from them. This allows new constructors to be gradually introduced. I'll take that approach.

Let *Prop* denote the set of all propositions.

[Prop]

2.2 *Prop Var*

Separating of the form of a statement from its content with respect to any given subject matter is accomplished by the use of *propositional variables*. A propositional variable stands for an arbitrary statement that is either true or false. Let *PropVar* denote the set of all propositional variables.

```
| Prop Var : \mathbb{P} Prop
```

2.3 P \propP, Q \propQ, R \propR, S \propS, and T \propT

Traditionally, arbitrary statements are represented by single letters such as P, Q, R, S, and T which represent distinct propositions.

$$\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline P,Q,R,S,T: Prop Var\\\hline \hline & disjoint \ensuremath{\langle \{P\}, \{Q\}, \{R\}, \{S\}, \{T\}\rangle}\\\hline \ensuremath{} \\\hline \ensuremath{} \\\hline$$

2.4 PropLetter

Let *PropLetter* denote the set of all proposition letters.

$$PropLetter == \{P, Q, R, S, T\}$$

2.5 '\propPrime

Typical propositions contain a small number of distinct statements, in which case the letters can be used. If more statements occur then the letters are decorated with one or more primes, e.g. P', Q''. Appending a prime to a propositional variable is an injection from Prop Var to Prop Var.

$$| \quad _' : Prop Var \rightarrowtail Prop Var$$

Example. P' and Q'' are propositional variables.

$$P' \in Prop Var$$

 $Q'' \in Prop Var$

A propositional variable is either a letter or is primed.

$$\langle PropLetter, ran(_') \rangle$$
 partition $PropVar$

2.6 - \notProp and Negation

Let A be a proposition. Let -A denote the negation of A.

$$| -: Prop \rightarrowtail Prop$$

Example. -P is a negation.

$$-\mathbf{P} \in \mathit{Prop}$$

Let *Negation* denote the set of all negations.

$$Negation == ran -$$

2.7 & \andProp and Conjunction

Let A and B be propositions. Let A & B denote the *conjunction* of A and B. The conjunction A & B is said to have A and B as its *conjuncts*.

$$_\&_: Prop \times Prop \longrightarrow Prop$$

Let Conjunction denote the set of all conjunctions.

$$Conjunction == ran(_\&_)$$

2.8 v \orProp and Disjunction

Let A and B be propositions. Let $A \lor B$ denote the disjunction of A and B. The disjunction $A \lor B$ is said to have A and B as its disjuncts.

$$| \quad v_- : Prop \times Prop \longrightarrow Prop$$

Let Disjunction denote the set of all disjunctions.

$$Disjunction == ran(v_{\perp})$$

$\mathbf{2.9} \longrightarrow \texttt{\lambda}$ mpliesProp and Conditional

Let A and B be propositions. Let $A \to B$ denote the *conditional* of A and B. The conditional $A \to B$ is said to have A as its *antecedent* and B as its *consequent*.

$$| _ \longrightarrow _ : Prop \times Prop \longrightarrow Prop$$

Let *Conditional* denote the set of all conditionals.

$$Conditional == ran(_ \longrightarrow _)$$

2.10 \leftrightarrow \equivProp and Biconditional

Let A and B be propositions. Let $A \longleftrightarrow B$ denote the biconditional of A and B.

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|} \hline - \longleftrightarrow _ : Prop \times Prop \rightarrowtail Prop \\ \hline \hline \forall A, B : Prop \bullet \\ A \longleftrightarrow B = (A \longrightarrow B) \& (B \longrightarrow A) \end{array}$$

Let Biconditional denote the set of all biconditionals.

$$Biconditional == ran(_ \leftrightarrow _)$$

3 Proofs

Lemmon has a nice way of presenting proofs. Here's an example.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \mathbf{1} \ P \longrightarrow Q, P \vdash Q \\ & 1 & (1) & P \longrightarrow Q & A \\ & 2 & (2) & P & A \\ & 1,2 & (3) & Q & 1,2 \ \mathrm{MPP} \end{array}$$

A proof consists of a *sequent* to be proved and a finite sequence of one or more *lines*. The lines are labelled by consecutive natural numbers, starting at 1.

The sequent contains a, possible empty, sequence of assumptions followed by a conclusion. The sequence of lines that follow show how the conclusion is derived from the assumptions using various rules of derivation.

Each line of the argument contains an inference.

Each line contains a proposition and the application of the proof rule used to add it to the proof. A proof rule is either an assumption or a derivation. The rule of assumption allows the addition of any proposition. The rules of derivation allow the addition of a conclusion derived from premises that have been previously added. A premise is therefore either an assumption or the conclusion of a previous deduction. Every line of the proof can therefore be traced back to a finite, possibly empty, set of assumptions upon which it ultimately depends.

3.1 Sequent and $\vdash \$ \sequent

A sequent consists of a sequence of assumptions and a conclusion. Let Sequent denote the set of all sequents.

Sequent ______assumptions : seq Prop conclusion : Prop

Let \vdash denote the binary operator that takes assumptions and a conclusion and forms a sequent.

3.2 RuleOfDerivation

Let *RuleOfDerivation* denote the set of applications of rules of derivation. In the preceding example, A and MPP are names of rules of derivation.

[Rule Of Derivation]

3.3 Deduction

A deduction consists of a proposition, an application of a rule of derivation that justifies the proposition, and a finite, possibly empty, set of assumptions on which the proposition depends. Let *Deduction* denote the set of all deduction.

```
\_Deduction \_\_
assumptions : \mathbb{F} \mathbb{N}_1
prop : Prop
rule : RuleOfDerivation
```

3.4 Deduction Tuple

Let *DeductionTuple* denote the tuple formed by the components of a deduction.

```
DeductionTuple == \mathbb{F} \mathbb{N}_1 \times Prop \times RuleOfDerivation
```

3.5 tuple \deductionTuple

Let tuple denote the function that maps a deduction to its tuple.

```
tuple == (\lambda \ Deduction \bullet (assumptions, prop, rule))
```

Remark. The mapping from deductions to tuples is a bijection.

```
tuple \in Deduction \rightarrowtail Deduction Tuple
```

3.6 prop \deductionProp

Let prop denote the function that maps a deduction tuple to its prop component.

```
prop == \{ Deduction \bullet (assumptions, prop, rule) \mapsto prop \}
```

3.7 Argument

An argument is a finite sequence of deductions. Let Argument denote the set of all arguments.

```
Argument == seq DeductionTuple
```

3.8 ArgumentDeduction

When determining the soundness of an argument, we need to check of the soundness of each deduction. Each deduction within an argument is uniquely identified by its line number. Let *ArgumentDeduction* denote the set of all arguments and valid line numbers in them.

```
ArgumentDeduction
argument: Argument
lineNumber: \mathbb{N}_1
Deduction
lineNumber \in dom\ argument
argument(lineNumber) = (assumptions, prop, rule)
```

- The deduction is identified by its line number within the argument.
- The deduction has a tuple of components.

3.9 SoundDeduction

A deduction within an argument is sound if it adheres to one of the rules of derivation. The rules of derivation will be described below. Let *SoundDeduction* denote the set of all sound deductions.

```
SoundDeduction: \mathbb{P} ArgumentDeduction
```

3.10 SoundArgument

An argument is sound precisely when all of its deductions are sound. Let *SoundArgument* denote the set of all sound arguments.

```
SoundArgument : \mathbb{P} Argument
```

3.11 sequent \deductionSequent

Every deduction in an argument defines a sequent. Let sequent denote the mapping from deductions to sequents.

```
sequent : ArgumentDeduction \longrightarrow Sequent
\forall ArgumentDeduction \bullet
sequent(\theta ArgumentDeduction) =
assumptions \uparrow (argument ; prop) \vdash prop
```

3.12 ArgumentProvesSequent

A sound argument proves a sequent if the final deduction of the argument defines the given sequent. Let ArgumentProvesSequent denote this situation.

```
ArgumentProvesSequent ArgumentDeduction s: Sequent argument \in SoundArgument lineNumber = \#argument s = sequent(\theta ArgumentDeduction)
```

3.13 *Proof*

A proof is a sequent and a sound argument whose last deduction proves the sequent. Let *Proof* denote the set of proofs.

```
Proof: Sequent \leftrightarrow SoundArgument
Proof = \{ ArgumentDeduction \mid \\ (lineNumber = \#argument \land \\ argument \in SoundArgument) \bullet \\ sequent(\theta ArgumentDeduction) \mapsto argument \}
```

3.14 A \ruleA

Let A denote the rule of assumption. The rule of assumption is used to introduce an arbitrary assumption at any point in the argument.

```
A: Rule Of Derivation
```

3.15 RuleOfAssumptionDetail

A deduction uses the rule of assumption A in an argument is sound if it introduces some arbitrary proposition P and it depends only on itself. Let RuleOfAssumptionDetail denote the set of all deductions, along with their details, that use the rule of assumption soundly.

```
Rule Of Assumption Detail Argument Deduction P: Prop assumptions = \{line Number\} prop = P rule = A
```

- The deduction depends only on itself.
- \bullet The deduction introduces an arbitrary proposition P.
- The deduction is justified by the rule of assumption A.

3.16 RuleOfAssumption

Let RuleOfAssumption denote the set of all deductions that use the rule of assumption with the detail hidden.

 $RuleOfAssumption \cong RuleOfAssumptionDetail \upharpoonright ArgumentDeduction$

The rule of assumption is sound.

 $RuleOfAssumption \subset SoundDeduction$

3.17 MPP \ruleMPP

Let MPP denote the MPP rule. The MPP rule is used to deduce the consequent of a conditional given its antecedent. The rule specifies the conditional and antecedent as its premises.

 $MPP: \mathbb{N}_1 \times \mathbb{N}_1 \longrightarrow RuleOfDerivation$

3.18 RuleOfMPPDetail

A deduction that uses the rule MPP(i,j) in an argument is sound if i and j are lines that precede it, the proposition on line i is an implication, the proposition on line j is the antecedent of the implication, the proposition of the proof line is the consequent of the implication, and the proof line's assumptions is the union of the assumptions of lines i and j. Let RuleOfMPPDetail denote the set of all deductions, along with their detail, that use the rule of MPP soundly.

```
RuleOfMPPDetail \_
ArgumentDeduction
i, j : \mathbb{N}_1
Deduction_1
Deduction_2
P, Q : Prop
rule = MPP(i, j)
i < lineNumber \land j < lineNumber
argument(i) = (assumptions_1, P \longrightarrow Q, rule_1)
argument(j) = (assumptions_2, P, rule_2)
assumptions = assumptions_1 \cup assumptions_2
prop = Q
```

- The rule of derivation is MPP which specifies the premise line numbers i of a conditional and j of its antecedent.
- The line numbers of the conditional and its antecedent must precede the deduction in the argument.
- Line number i contains a conditional of the form $P \to Q$.
- Line number j contains the antecedent P of the conditional.
- The deduction depends on the union of the assumptions that the premises depend on.
- The deduction introduces the consequent Q as the conclusion of the premises.

3.19 *RuleOfMPP*

Let *RuleOfMPP* denote the set of all deductions that use the rule of MPP with the detail hidden.

 $RuleOfMPP \cong RuleOfMPPDetail \upharpoonright ArgumentDeduction$

The rule of MPP is sound.

 $RuleOfMPP \subset SoundDeduction$

3.20 argument₁

Let $argument_1$ denote the argument defined by proof 1.

$$\begin{array}{l} argument_1 == \\ \{1 \mapsto (\{1\}, P \to Q, A), \\ 2 \mapsto (\{2\}, P, A), \\ 3 \mapsto (\{1, 2\}, Q, MPP(1, 2))\} \end{array}$$

Example. $argument_1$ is an argument.

 $argument_1 \in Argument$

Example. Line 3 of proof 1 corresponds to the following deduction tuple.

$$(\{1,2\}, Q, MPP(1,2)) \in DeductionTuple$$

3.21 $proof_2$

Here is Lemmon's proof 2.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \mathbf{2} & -\mathrm{Q} \longrightarrow (-\mathrm{P} \longrightarrow \mathrm{Q}), -\mathrm{Q} \vdash -\mathrm{P} \longrightarrow \mathrm{Q} \\ & 1 & (1) & -\mathrm{Q} \longrightarrow (-\mathrm{P} \longrightarrow \mathrm{Q}) & \mathrm{A} \\ & 2 & (2) & -\mathrm{Q} & \mathrm{A} \\ & 1,2 & (3) & -\mathrm{P} \longrightarrow \mathrm{Q} & 1,2 \ \mathrm{MPP} \end{array}$$

Let $sequent_2$ denote the sequent of this proof.

$$sequent_2 == \langle -Q \longrightarrow (-P \longrightarrow Q), -Q \rangle \vdash -P \longrightarrow Q$$

Let argument₂ denote the argument of this proof.

$$argument_2 == \{1 \mapsto (\{1\}, -Q \to (-P \to Q), A), 2 \mapsto (\{2\}, -Q, A), 3 \mapsto (\{1, 2\}, -P \to Q, MPP(1, 2))\}$$

Let *proof*₂ denote this proof.

$$proof_2 == (sequent_2, argument_2)$$

Example. proof₂ is a proof.

$$proof_2 \in Proof$$

4 The Curry-Howard Correspondence

The Curry-Howard Correspondence is an interpretation of propositions and proofs in terms of types. To each proposition there correspondences a type. The inhabitants of the type that corresponds to a proposition are proofs of that proposition. The logical connectives that build up propositions correspond to type constructors.

To illustrate the correspondence, consider the implication logical connective $P \Rightarrow Q$. It corresponds to the type constructor $P \rightarrow Q$. A proof f of $P \Rightarrow Q$ corresponds to a function that maps any proof of P to some proof of Q.

Of course, $P \to Q$ is not a type in Z. It is a subset of the type $\mathbb{P}(P \times Q)$. Nevertheless, we'll press on and pretend that it is a Z type for now.

The rules of derivation correspond to the construction of a proof from assumptions. For example the rule of MPP corresponds to function application. Consider $Proof_1$. It corresponds to the following.

```
CHProof1[P, Q]
f: P \longrightarrow Q
x: P
y: Q
y = f(x)
```