• Our logical formulas consist of variables and connectives \neg , \land , \lor , \supset .

∃ >

э

- Our logical formulas consist of variables and connectives $\neg,$ $\land,$ $\lor,$ $\supset.$
- A sequent is an expression of the form $A_1, \ldots, A_k \to B_1, \ldots, B_l$, where all A_i , B_j are formulas.

Image: A matrix

- Our logical formulas consist of variables and connectives \neg , \land , \lor , \supset .
- A sequent is an expression of the form $A_1, \ldots, A_k \to B_1, \ldots, B_l$, where all A_i , B_j are formulas.
- We interpret the sequent as $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{k} A_i \supset \bigvee_{j=1}^{l} B_j$.

- Our logical formulas consist of variables and connectives \neg , \land , \lor , \supset .
- A sequent is an expression of the form $A_1, \ldots, A_k \to B_1, \ldots, B_l$, where all A_i , B_j are formulas.
- We interpret the sequent as $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{k} A_i \supset \bigvee_{j=1}^{l} B_j$.
- By convention, empty conjunction is true and empty disjuntion is false, so "→ X" means X and "→" means false.

- Our logical formulas consist of variables and connectives \neg , \land , \lor , \supset .
- A sequent is an expression of the form $A_1, \ldots, A_k \rightarrow B_1, \ldots, B_l$, where all A_i , B_j are formulas.
- We interpret the sequent as $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{k} A_i \supset \bigvee_{j=1}^{l} B_j$.
- By convention, empty conjunction is true and empty disjuntion is false, so "→ X" means X and "→" means false.
- A sequent is defined to be valid or a tautology, if the corresponding formula is.

- Our logical formulas consist of variables and connectives \neg , \land , \lor , \supset .
- A sequent is an expression of the form $A_1, \ldots, A_k \to B_1, \ldots, B_l$, where all A_i , B_i are formulas.
- We interpret the sequent as $\bigwedge_{i=1}^{k} A_i \supset \bigvee_{j=1}^{l} B_j$.
- By convention, empty conjunction is true and empty disjuntion is false, so "→ X" means X and "→" means false.
- A sequent is defined to be valid or a tautology, if the corresponding formula is.
- In the example above, A₁,..., A_k is called *antecedent* and B₁,..., B_l is called *succedent*. They are both referred to as *cedents*.

< ロ > < 同 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ >

• A proof in sequent calculus is a tree (or sometimes directed acyclic graph) of sequents.

< □ > < 同 >

- A proof in sequent calculus is a tree (or sometimes directed acyclic graph) of sequents.
- The root of the tree is called *endsequent* and is the sequent proved by the proof.

- A proof in sequent calculus is a tree (or sometimes directed acyclic graph) of sequents.
- The root of the tree is called *endsequent* and is the sequent proved by the proof.
- Leaves are called *initial sequents* or *axioms* usually we allow only $p \rightarrow p$, where p is a variable.

- A proof in sequent calculus is a tree (or sometimes directed acyclic graph) of sequents.
- The root of the tree is called *endsequent* and is the sequent proved by the proof.
- Leaves are called *initial sequents* or *axioms* usually we allow only $p \rightarrow p$, where p is a variable.
- All sequents except initial sequents must be inferred by one of the inference rules.

- A proof in sequent calculus is a tree (or sometimes directed acyclic graph) of sequents.
- The root of the tree is called *endsequent* and is the sequent proved by the proof.
- Leaves are called *initial sequents* or *axioms* usually we allow only $p \rightarrow p$, where p is a variable.
- All sequents except initial sequents must be inferred by one of the inference rules.
- On next slides, A, B denote formulas and Γ , Δ , etc. denote cedents.

Exchange:left
$$\frac{\Gamma, A, B, \Pi \rightarrow \Delta}{\Gamma, B, A, \Pi \rightarrow \Delta}$$

Exchange:right
$$\frac{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, A, B, \Lambda}{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, B, A, \Lambda}$$

3

<ロト <問ト < 目と < 目と

Exchange:left
$$\frac{\Gamma, A, B, \Pi \rightarrow \Delta}{\Gamma, B, A, \Pi \rightarrow \Delta}$$

Exchange:right
$$\frac{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, A, B, \Lambda}{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, B, A, \Lambda}$$

Contraction:left
$$\frac{A, A, \Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}{A, \Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}$$

$$\mathsf{Contraction:right} \ \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A, A}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A}$$

イロト イヨト イヨト イヨト

3

Exchange:left
$$\frac{\Gamma, A, B, \Pi \rightarrow \Delta}{\Gamma, B, A, \Pi \rightarrow \Delta}$$

Exchange:right
$$\frac{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, A, B, \Lambda}{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, B, A, \Lambda}$$

Contraction:left
$$\frac{A, A, \Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}{A, \Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Contraction:right} & \frac{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, A, A}{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, A} \end{array}$$

Weakening:left
$$\frac{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}{A, \Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}$$

Weakening:right
$$\frac{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, A}$$

<ロト <問ト < 目と < 目と

æ

Exchange:left
$$\frac{\Gamma, A, B, \Pi \to \Delta}{\Gamma, B, A, \Pi \to \Delta}$$
Exchange:right $\frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A, B, \Lambda}{\Gamma \to \Delta, B, A, \Lambda}$ Contraction:left $\frac{A, A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{A, \Gamma \to \Delta}$ Contraction:right $\frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A, A, \Lambda}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A}$ Weakening:left $\frac{\Gamma \to \Delta}{A, \Gamma \to \Delta}$ Weakening:right $\frac{\Gamma \to \Delta}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A}$

All other inference rules are called strong.

Cut rule

$\mathsf{cut}\,\frac{\Gamma\to\Delta,A\quad A,\Gamma\to\Delta}{\Gamma\to\Delta}$

3

Cut rule

$$\mathsf{cut}\,\frac{\Gamma\to\Delta,A\quad A,\Gamma\to\Delta}{\Gamma\to\Delta}$$

A proof in *PK* is *cut free*, if it does not use the cut rule.

イロト イポト イヨト イヨト

э

$$\neg$$
:left $\frac{\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta, A}{\neg A, \Gamma \rightarrow \Delta}$

$$\neg: \mathsf{right} \xrightarrow{A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{\Gamma \to \Delta, \neg A}$$

3

$$\neg: \operatorname{left} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A}{\neg A, \Gamma \to \Delta} \qquad \neg: \operatorname{right} \frac{A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{\Gamma \to \Delta, \neg A}$$
$$\land: \operatorname{left} \frac{A, B, \Gamma \to \Delta}{A \land B, \Gamma \to \Delta} \qquad \land: \operatorname{right} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \qquad \Gamma \to \Delta, B}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \land B}$$

3

▲□▶ ▲圖▶ ▲厘▶ ▲厘▶ →

$$\neg: \operatorname{left} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A}{\neg A, \Gamma \to \Delta} \qquad \neg: \operatorname{right} \frac{A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{\Gamma \to \Delta, \neg A}$$
$$\land: \operatorname{left} \frac{A, B, \Gamma \to \Delta}{A \land B, \Gamma \to \Delta} \qquad \land: \operatorname{right} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \land B}$$

$$\vee:\mathsf{left} \xrightarrow{A, \Gamma \to \Delta} B, \Gamma \to \Delta \qquad \forall:\mathsf{right} \xrightarrow{\Gamma \to \Delta, A, B} \\ \neg \Delta, A \lor B, \Gamma \to \Delta \qquad \forall:\mathsf{right} \xrightarrow{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \lor B}$$

3

_ _

$$\neg : \operatorname{left} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A}{\neg A, \Gamma \to \Delta} \qquad \neg : \operatorname{right} \frac{A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{\Gamma \to \Delta, \neg A}$$
$$\land :\operatorname{left} \frac{A, B, \Gamma \to \Delta}{A \land B, \Gamma \to \Delta} \qquad \land : \operatorname{right} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \qquad \Gamma \to \Delta, B}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \land B}$$
$$\lor :\operatorname{left} \frac{A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{A \lor B, \Gamma \to \Delta} \qquad \lor : \operatorname{right} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \land B}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \land B}$$
$$\lor :\operatorname{left} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \land B}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \lor B}$$
$$\supset :\operatorname{left} \frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \qquad B, \Gamma \to \Delta}{A \lor B, \Gamma \to \Delta} \qquad \supset : \operatorname{right} \frac{A, \Gamma \to \Delta, B}{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \lor B}$$

3

• Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.

イロト イポト イヨト イヨト

э

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal* formulas.

э

Image: A match a ma

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal formulas*.
- In upper sequent, not side formulas are called *auxiliary formulas*. The two auxiliary formulas in cut sequent are called *cut formulas*.

A (1) > A (2) > A

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal formulas*.
- In upper sequent, not side formulas are called *auxiliary formulas*. The two auxiliary formulas in cut sequent are called *cut formulas*.
- Each formula in upper sequents except cut formulas has an *immediate descendant*.

A I > A I > A

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal formulas*.
- In upper sequent, not side formulas are called *auxiliary formulas*. The two auxiliary formulas in cut sequent are called *cut formulas*.
- Each formula in upper sequents except cut formulas has an *immediate descendant*.
 - ► For side formulas it is the corresponding side formula in lower sequent.

- 4 回 ト - 4 回 ト

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal formulas*.
- In upper sequent, not side formulas are called *auxiliary formulas*. The two auxiliary formulas in cut sequent are called *cut formulas*.
- Each formula in upper sequents except cut formulas has an *immediate descendant*.
 - For side formulas it is the corresponding side formula in lower sequent.
 - ► For auxiliary formulas in propositional rules it is the principal formula.

(4 何) トイヨト イヨト

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal formulas*.
- In upper sequent, not side formulas are called *auxiliary formulas*. The two auxiliary formulas in cut sequent are called *cut formulas*.
- Each formula in upper sequents except cut formulas has an *immediate descendant*.
 - ► For side formulas it is the corresponding side formula in lower sequent.
 - ► For auxiliary formulas in propositional rules it is the principal formula.
 - ► For formula A (or B) in weak structural rules it is the formula A (or B) in lower sequent.

(4) (日本)

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal formulas*.
- In upper sequent, not side formulas are called *auxiliary formulas*. The two auxiliary formulas in cut sequent are called *cut formulas*.
- Each formula in upper sequents except cut formulas has an *immediate descendant*.
 - ► For side formulas it is the corresponding side formula in lower sequent.
 - ► For auxiliary formulas in propositional rules it is the principal formula.
 - ► For formula A (or B) in weak structural rules it is the formula A (or B) in lower sequent.
- The *descendant* relation is a reflexive, transitive closure of *immediate descendant* relation.

< □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ >

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal formulas*.
- In upper sequent, not side formulas are called *auxiliary formulas*. The two auxiliary formulas in cut sequent are called *cut formulas*.
- Each formula in upper sequents except cut formulas has an *immediate descendant*.
 - ► For side formulas it is the corresponding side formula in lower sequent.
 - ► For auxiliary formulas in propositional rules it is the principal formula.
 - ► For formula A (or B) in weak structural rules it is the formula A (or B) in lower sequent.
- The *descendant* relation is a reflexive, transitive closure of *immediate descendant* relation.
- The *direct descendant* of a formula is a descendant which is the same formula (in content).

< ロ > < 同 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > <

- Formulas in Λ , Δ , Π , Γ are called *side formulas*.
- Formulas in lower sequent which are not side are called *principal formulas*.
- In upper sequent, not side formulas are called *auxiliary formulas*. The two auxiliary formulas in cut sequent are called *cut formulas*.
- Each formula in upper sequents except cut formulas has an *immediate descendant*.
 - ► For side formulas it is the corresponding side formula in lower sequent.
 - ► For auxiliary formulas in propositional rules it is the principal formula.
 - ► For formula A (or B) in weak structural rules it is the formula A (or B) in lower sequent.
- The *descendant* relation is a reflexive, transitive closure of *immediate descendant* relation.
- The *direct descendant* of a formula is a descendant which is the same formula (in content).
- *C* is an (direct, immediate) *ancestor* of *D*, if *D* is a (direct, immediate) descendant of *C*.

$a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b \lor c$

3

$$\lor:\mathsf{right}\;\frac{a\lor b, \neg a\lor c\to b, c}{a\lor b, \neg a\lor c\to b\lor c}$$

3

$$\forall : \mathsf{left} \begin{array}{c} \underline{a, \neg a \lor c \to b, c} & \underline{b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c} \\ \forall : \mathsf{right} \\ \hline \underline{a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c} \\ \hline \underline{a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b \lor c} \end{array}$$

3

$$\forall : \mathsf{left} \frac{a, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}{\lor : \mathsf{right} \frac{a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}{a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}}$$

3

$$\forall : \mathsf{left} \frac{a, \neg a \to b, c \quad a, c \to b, c}{\forall : \mathsf{left} \frac{a, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}{\forall : \mathsf{right} \frac{a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}{a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}} \frac{b \to b}{b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}$$

3
Example proof

$$\forall : \mathsf{left} \frac{a, \neg a \to b, c \quad \overbrace{a, c \to b, c}^{c \to c}}{\forall : \mathsf{left} \frac{a, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}{\forall : \mathsf{right} \frac{a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}{a \lor b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}} \frac{b \to b}{b, \neg a \lor c \to b, c}$$

3

イロト イヨト イヨト イヨト

Example proof



・ロト ・ 四ト ・ ヨト ・ ヨト … ヨ

Example proof



Subformula property

It can be easily checked that if D is a descendant of C, then C is a subformula of D. This gives the following consequence.

Image: A match a ma

Subformula property

It can be easily checked that if D is a descendant of C, then C is a subformula of D. This gives the following consequence.

Theorem (subformula property)

If P is a cut free PK-proof, then every formula occuring in P is a subformula of a formula in the endsequent of P.

Subformula property

It can be easily checked that if D is a descendant of C, then C is a subformula of D. This gives the following consequence.

Theorem (subformula property)

If P is a cut free PK-proof, then every formula occuring in P is a subformula of a formula in the endsequent of P.

Proof

Since the proof is cut free, all formulas in all sequents except the endsequent have an immediate descendant. Thus, every formula has a descendant in the endsequent.

< ロ > < 同 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > <

Soundness and completeness

Soundness theorem

Every *PK*-provable sequent is valid.

< 47 ▶

Soundness and completeness

Soundness theorem

Every *PK*-provable sequent is valid.

Inversion theorem

Let *I* be any inference rule other than weakening. If *I*'s lower sequent is true under a truth assignment τ , then so are all of *I*'s upper sequents. Likewise, if *I*'s lower sequent is valid, then so are all of *I*'s upper sequents.

Soundness and completeness

Soundness theorem

Every *PK*-provable sequent is valid.

Inversion theorem

Let *I* be any inference rule other than weakening. If *I*'s lower sequent is true under a truth assignment τ , then so are all of *I*'s upper sequents. Likewise, if *I*'s lower sequent is valid, then so are all of *I*'s upper sequents.

Completeness theorem

Every valid sequent has a cut free proof in PK.

- 4 回 ト 4 ヨ ト 4 ヨ ト

Proof length

We distinguish between 'tree-like' and 'dag-like' proofs ('dag' stands for 'directed acyclic graph'). Unless stated otherwise, all proofs are presumed to be tree-like.

Image: A matrix and A matrix

э

Proof length

We distinguish between 'tree-like' and 'dag-like' proofs ('dag' stands for 'directed acyclic graph'). Unless stated otherwise, all proofs are presumed to be tree-like.

For a tree-like proof P, we denote by ||P|| the number of strong inferences in P. For a dag-like proof P, we denote the same quantity by $||P||_{dag}$.

Proof length

We distinguish between 'tree-like' and 'dag-like' proofs ('dag' stands for 'directed acyclic graph'). Unless stated otherwise, all proofs are presumed to be tree-like.

For a tree-like proof P, we denote by ||P|| the number of strong inferences in P. For a dag-like proof P, we denote the same quantity by $||P||_{dag}$.

Theorem

For a given tree-like proof P of sequent $\Gamma \to \Delta$, there is a tree-like proof of $\Gamma' \to \Delta'$ for some $\Gamma' \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\Delta' \subseteq \Delta$ having at most $\|P\|^2$ sequents.

Theorem

Let $\Gamma \to \Delta$ be a valid sequent with *m* occurences of logical connectives. Then there is a tree-like cut free *PK*-proof *P* of $\Gamma \to \Delta$ such that $||P|| < 2^m$.

- 4 回 ト 4 ヨ ト 4 ヨ ト

Theorem

Let $\Gamma \to \Delta$ be a valid sequent with *m* occurences of logical connectives. Then there is a tree-like cut free *PK*-proof *P* of $\Gamma \to \Delta$ such that $||P|| < 2^m$.

Proof (1/2)

The proof is by induction on m. For m = 0 all formulas in Γ , Δ are atomic. Since $\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta$ is valid, there is some variable p which occurs both in Γ and Δ . Thus $\Gamma \rightarrow \Delta$ can be proved with zero strong inferences from the initial sequent $p \rightarrow p$.

< □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ >

Theorem

Let $\Gamma \to \Delta$ be a valid sequent with *m* occurences of logical connectives. Then there is a tree-like cut free *PK*-proof *P* of $\Gamma \to \Delta$ such that $||P|| < 2^m$.

Proof (1/2)

The proof is by induction on m. For m = 0 all formulas in Γ , Δ are atomic. Since $\Gamma \to \Delta$ is valid, there is some variable p which occurs both in Γ and Δ . Thus $\Gamma \to \Delta$ can be proved with zero strong inferences from the initial sequent $p \to p$.

Now let $m \ge 1$. Assume the sequent is of the form $\neg A, \Gamma' \to \Delta$ for some formula A. Then $\Gamma' \to \Delta, A$ is valid, and by induction hypothesis it can be proved in less than 2^{m-1} strong inferences. Using \neg :left, we can thus prove our sequent in less than $2^{m-1} + 1 \le 2^m$ strong inferences.

イロト イポト イヨト イヨト

Proof (2/2)

If the sequent is of the form $\Gamma \to \Delta', \neg A$, we proceed analogously.

3

イロト 不得 トイヨト イヨト

Proof (2/2)

If the sequent is of the form $\Gamma \to \Delta', \neg A$, we proceed analogously.

If the sequent is of the form $A \wedge B, \Gamma' \to \Delta$, we prove $A, B, \Gamma' \to \Delta$ in less than 2^{m-1} strong inferences and finish the proof by using \wedge :left.

< □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ > < □ >

Proof (2/2)

If the sequent is of the form $\Gamma \to \Delta', \neg A$, we proceed analogously.

If the sequent is of the form $A \wedge B, \Gamma' \to \Delta$, we prove $A, B, \Gamma' \to \Delta$ in less than 2^{m-1} strong inferences and finish the proof by using \wedge :left.

If the sequent is of the form $\Gamma \to \Delta', A \land B$, we prove $\Gamma \to \Delta', A$ and $\Gamma \to \Delta', B$, both in less than 2^{m-1} strong inferences. Then we apply \land :right.

Proof (2/2)

If the sequent is of the form $\Gamma \to \Delta', \neg A$, we proceed analogously.

If the sequent is of the form $A \wedge B, \Gamma' \to \Delta$, we prove $A, B, \Gamma' \to \Delta$ in less than 2^{m-1} strong inferences and finish the proof by using \wedge :left.

If the sequent is of the form $\Gamma \to \Delta', A \land B$, we prove $\Gamma \to \Delta', A$ and $\Gamma \to \Delta', B$, both in less than 2^{m-1} strong inferences. Then we apply \land :right.

Other cases are handled analogously by using \lor :left, \lor :right, \supset :left and \supset :right. The inversion theorem implies that we never attempt to prove a sequent which is not valid.

イロト 不得 トイラト イラト 一日

$\frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \quad A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{\Gamma \to \Delta}$

▲日 ▶ ▲圖 ▶ ▲ 臣 ▶ ▲ 臣 ▶ 二 臣

$\frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \quad A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{\Gamma \to \Delta}$

Cut rule does not allow us to prove anything new, but it can allow for shorter proofs. A procedure can be described to turn a proof using cuts into cut free proof.

3

(日)

$$\frac{\Gamma \to \Delta, A \qquad A, \Gamma \to \Delta}{\Gamma \to \Delta}$$

Cut rule does not allow us to prove anything new, but it can allow for shorter proofs. A procedure can be described to turn a proof using cuts into cut free proof.

Cut-elimination theorem

Let P be a dag-like proof of $\Gamma \to \Delta$. Then there is a tree-like cut free proof Q of $\Gamma \to \Delta$ such that $\|Q\| \leq 2^{\|P\|_{dag}}$.

Let \mathfrak{S} be a set of sequents. By \mathfrak{S} -proof we mean a sequent calculus proof which may contain sequents from \mathfrak{S} as initial sequents, in addition to sequents of form $p \to p$.

イロト イヨト イヨト -

Let \mathfrak{S} be a set of sequents. By \mathfrak{S} -proof we mean a sequent calculus proof which may contain sequents from \mathfrak{S} as initial sequents, in addition to sequents of form $p \to p$.

There is no cut free $\{ \rightarrow a \land b \}$ -proof of $\rightarrow a$.

< ロ > < 同 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 > < 0 >

Let \mathfrak{S} be a set of sequents. By \mathfrak{S} -proof we mean a sequent calculus proof which may contain sequents from \mathfrak{S} as initial sequents, in addition to sequents of form $p \to p$.

There is no cut free $\{ \rightarrow a \land b \}$ -proof of $\rightarrow a$. But there is one using cuts:

 $\rightarrow a$

Let \mathfrak{S} be a set of sequents. By \mathfrak{S} -proof we mean a sequent calculus proof which may contain sequents from \mathfrak{S} as initial sequents, in addition to sequents of form $p \to p$.

There is no cut free $\{ \rightarrow a \land b \}$ -proof of $\rightarrow a$. But there is one using cuts:

$$\operatorname{cut} \frac{a \wedge b \to a \longrightarrow a, a \wedge b}{\to a}$$

(日)

Let \mathfrak{S} be a set of sequents. By \mathfrak{S} -proof we mean a sequent calculus proof which may contain sequents from \mathfrak{S} as initial sequents, in addition to sequents of form $p \to p$.

There is no cut free $\{ \rightarrow a \land b \}$ -proof of $\rightarrow a$. But there is one using cuts:

$$\land:\mathsf{right} \frac{a, b \to a}{a \land b \to a} \to a, a \land b$$
$$\mathsf{cut} \frac{ \to a}{a \land b \to a} \to a, a \land b$$

Let \mathfrak{S} be a set of sequents. By \mathfrak{S} -proof we mean a sequent calculus proof which may contain sequents from \mathfrak{S} as initial sequents, in addition to sequents of form $p \to p$.

There is no cut free $\{ \rightarrow a \land b \}$ -proof of $\rightarrow a$. But there is one using cuts:

$$\wedge: \mathsf{right} \underbrace{\frac{a \to a}{a, b \to a}}_{\mathsf{cut}} \underbrace{\frac{a \to a}{a, b \to a}}_{\to a} \to a, a \land b}_{\to a}$$

(日)

Let \mathfrak{S} be a set of sequents. By \mathfrak{S} -proof we mean a sequent calculus proof which may contain sequents from \mathfrak{S} as initial sequents, in addition to sequents of form $p \to p$.

There is no cut free $\{ \rightarrow a \land b \}$ -proof of $\rightarrow a$. But there is one using cuts:

$$\wedge: \operatorname{right} \underbrace{\frac{a \to a}{a, b \to a}}_{\operatorname{cut}} \underbrace{\frac{a \to a}{a, b \to a}}_{\to a} \underbrace{\xrightarrow{a \land b}}_{\to a, a \land b}$$

Free cuts

Let *P* be a \mathfrak{S} -proof and let *I* be a cut inference in *P*. We say that *I*'s cut formulas are *directly descended from* \mathfrak{S} , if they have some direct ancestor in an initial sequent from \mathfrak{S} . A cut *I* is *free* if neither of *I*'s cut formulas are directly descended from \mathfrak{S} . A proof is *free-cut free*, if it contains no free cuts.

Free cuts

Let *P* be a \mathfrak{S} -proof and let *I* be a cut inference in *P*. We say that *I*'s cut formulas are *directly descended from* \mathfrak{S} , if they have some direct ancestor in an initial sequent from \mathfrak{S} . A cut *I* is *free* if neither of *I*'s cut formulas are directly descended from \mathfrak{S} . A proof is *free-cut free*, if it contains no free cuts.

Free-cut elimination theorem

Let S be a sequent and \mathfrak{S} a set of sequents. If $\mathfrak{S} \models S$, then there is a free-cut free \mathfrak{S} -proof of S.

• Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.

Image: A matrix

э

- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:

< A

э

- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:
 - If p is a variable, then p and $\neg p$ are formulas.

- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:
 - If p is a variable, then p and $\neg p$ are formulas.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigwedge \Gamma$ is a formula.

- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:
 - If p is a variable, then p and $\neg p$ are formulas.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigwedge \Gamma$ is a formula.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigvee \Gamma$ is a formula.
- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:
 - If p is a variable, then p and $\neg p$ are formulas.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigwedge \Gamma$ is a formula.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigvee \Gamma$ is a formula.
- If A is a formula, we define \overline{A} recursively:

- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:
 - If p is a variable, then p and $\neg p$ are formulas.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigwedge \Gamma$ is a formula.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigvee \Gamma$ is a formula.
- If A is a formula, we define \overline{A} recursively:

•
$$\overline{\bigwedge \Gamma} = \bigvee \{ \overline{X} : X \in \Gamma \},\$$

- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:
 - If p is a variable, then p and $\neg p$ are formulas.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigwedge \Gamma$ is a formula.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigvee \Gamma$ is a formula.
- If A is a formula, we define \overline{A} recursively:

$$\overline{\underline{\mathsf{N}}\Gamma} = \bigvee \{ \overline{X} : X \in \Gamma \},$$

$$\lor \ \bigvee \Gamma = \bigwedge \{ X : X \in \Gamma \},\$$

- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:
 - If p is a variable, then p and $\neg p$ are formulas.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigwedge \Gamma$ is a formula.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigvee \Gamma$ is a formula.
- If A is a formula, we define \overline{A} recursively:

$$\overline{\Lambda\Gamma} = \bigvee \{ \overline{X} : X \in \Gamma \},$$
$$\overline{\vee\Gamma} = \bigwedge \{ \overline{X} : X \in \Gamma \},$$

$$\blacktriangleright \ \overline{p} = \neg p,$$

- Similar to sequent calculus, commonly used for infinitary logic.
- Formulas are defined recursively as follows:
 - If p is a variable, then p and $\neg p$ are formulas.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigwedge \Gamma$ is a formula.
 - If Γ is a set of formulas, then $\bigvee \Gamma$ is a formula.
- If A is a formula, we define \overline{A} recursively:

$$\overline{\Lambda\Gamma} = \bigvee \{ \overline{X} : X \in \Gamma \},$$
$$\overline{\vee\Gamma} = \bigwedge \{ \overline{X} : X \in \Gamma \},$$

$$\bigvee I = //\{X : X \in$$

$$\triangleright p = \neg p,$$

$$\blacktriangleright \ \overline{\neg p} = p.$$

• Each line in a Tait calculus proof is a set Γ of formulas. We interpret it as the disjunction of the formulas in Γ .

Image: A matrix and A matrix

э

- Each line in a Tait calculus proof is a set Γ of formulas. We interpret it as the disjunction of the formulas in $\Gamma.$
- Similar to sequent calculus, Tait calculus proofs can be tree-like or dag-like.

< 47 ▶

- Each line in a Tait calculus proof is a set Γ of formulas. We interpret it as the disjunction of the formulas in Γ.
- Similar to sequent calculus, Tait calculus proofs can be tree-like or dag-like.
- Initial sets of a proof are sets of the form $\Gamma \cup \{p, \neg p\}$.

- Each line in a Tait calculus proof is a set Γ of formulas. We interpret it as the disjunction of the formulas in Γ.
- Similar to sequent calculus, Tait calculus proofs can be tree-like or dag-like.
- Initial sets of a proof are sets of the form $\Gamma \cup \{p, \neg p\}$.
- There are three rules of inference:

- Each line in a Tait calculus proof is a set Γ of formulas. We interpret it as the disjunction of the formulas in Γ.
- Similar to sequent calculus, Tait calculus proofs can be tree-like or dag-like.
- Initial sets of a proof are sets of the form $\Gamma \cup \{p, \neg p\}$.
- There are three rules of inference:

$$\frac{\Gamma \cup \{A_j\}}{\Gamma \cup \{\bigvee_{i \in I} A_i\}} \qquad (\text{where } j \in I)$$

- Each line in a Tait calculus proof is a set Γ of formulas. We interpret it as the disjunction of the formulas in Γ.
- Similar to sequent calculus, Tait calculus proofs can be tree-like or dag-like.
- Initial sets of a proof are sets of the form $\Gamma \cup \{p, \neg p\}$.
- There are three rules of inference:

$$\begin{array}{c} \displaystyle \frac{\Gamma \cup \{A_j\}}{\Gamma \cup \{\bigvee_{i \in I} A_i\}} \qquad (\text{where } j \in I) \\ \\ \displaystyle \frac{\Gamma \cup \{A_j\} \text{ for all } j \in I}{\Gamma \cup \{\bigwedge_{i \in I} A_i\}} \qquad (\text{there are } |I| \text{ many hypotheses}) \end{array}$$

- Each line in a Tait calculus proof is a set Γ of formulas. We interpret it as the disjunction of the formulas in Γ.
- Similar to sequent calculus, Tait calculus proofs can be tree-like or dag-like.
- Initial sets of a proof are sets of the form $\Gamma \cup \{p, \neg p\}$.
- There are three rules of inference:

$$\begin{array}{c} \displaystyle \frac{\Gamma \cup \{A_j\}}{\Gamma \cup \{\bigvee_{i \in I} A_i\}} & (\text{where } j \in I) \\ \\ \displaystyle \frac{\Gamma \cup \{A_j\} \text{ for all } j \in I}{\Gamma \cup \{\bigwedge_{i \in I} A_i\}} & (\text{there are } |I| \text{ many hypotheses}) \\ \\ \displaystyle \frac{\Gamma \cup \{A\} \quad \Gamma \cup \{\overline{A}\}}{\Gamma} & (\text{the cut rule}) \end{array} \end{array}$$

• In the finitary setting, Tait calculus is isomorphic to sequent calculus.

э

- In the finitary setting, Tait calculus is isomorphic to sequent calculus.
 - Sequent $\Gamma \to \Delta$ corresponds to $\{\overline{A} : A \in \Gamma\} \cup \Delta$.

э

< □ > < 同 > < 回 > < 回 > < 回 >

• In the finitary setting, Tait calculus is isomorphic to sequent calculus.

• Sequent $\Gamma \to \Delta$ corresponds to $\{\overline{A} : A \in \Gamma\} \cup \Delta$.

 Exchange and contraction are not needed when working with sets, weakening is hidden in the definition of axioms.

▲ □ ▶ ▲ □ ▶ ▲ □ ▶

• In the finitary setting, Tait calculus is isomorphic to sequent calculus.

• Sequent $\Gamma \to \Delta$ corresponds to $\{\overline{A} : A \in \Gamma\} \cup \Delta$.

- Exchange and contraction are not needed when working with sets, weakening is hidden in the definition of axioms.
- Length of a proof in sequent calculus corresponds to number of inferences in a Tait calculus proof.

▲ □ ▶ ▲ □ ▶ ▲ □ ▶

• In the finitary setting, Tait calculus is isomorphic to sequent calculus.

• Sequent $\Gamma \to \Delta$ corresponds to $\{\overline{A} : A \in \Gamma\} \cup \Delta$.

- Exchange and contraction are not needed when working with sets, weakening is hidden in the definition of axioms.
- Length of a proof in sequent calculus corresponds to number of inferences in a Tait calculus proof.
- Cut elimination theorem for Tait calculus is called *normalization theorem*. For general infinitary logic it does not hold. However, it holds for logic with formulas of countable length.

・ 同 ト ・ ヨ ト ・ ヨ ト

Thank you for your attention

æ