Now we can close the gap in the left-hand side by conjunction elimination.

$$\frac{\overline{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}}{\underbrace{B \land C \ true}_{B \ true}} \land E_L \qquad \underbrace{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}_{A \supset (B \land C) \ true} \lor u$$

$$\frac{\overline{A \supset B \ true}}{A \supset B \ true} \supset I^w \qquad A \supset C \ true$$

$$\frac{(A \supset B) \land (A \supset C) \ true}{(A \supset (B \land C)) \supset ((A \supset B) \land (A \supset C)) \ true} \supset I^u$$

The right premise of the conjunction introduction can be filled in analogously. We skip the intermediate steps and only show the final derivation.

$$\frac{\overline{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}}{\underbrace{\frac{B \land C \ true}{B \ true}}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{\frac{B \land C \ true}{A \supset B \ true}}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{B \land C \ true}{\frac{B \land C \ true}{A \supset C \ true}}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{B \land C \ true}{C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{B \land C \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{B \land C \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{(A \supset B) \land (A \supset C) \ true}{(A \supset (B \land C)) \supset ((A \supset B) \land (A \supset C)) \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A \supset (B \land C) \ true}{A \supset C \ true}} \cap A = \underbrace{\frac{A$$

1.3 Disjunction and Falsehood

So far we have explained the meaning of conjunction, truth, and implication. The disjunction "A or B" (written as $A \vee B$) is more difficult, but does not require any new judgment forms.

$$\frac{A \ prop}{A \lor B \ prop} \lor F$$

Disjunction is characterized by two introduction rules: $A \lor B$ is true, if either A or B is true.

$$\frac{A \ true}{A \lor B \ true} \lor I_L \qquad \qquad \frac{B \ true}{A \lor B \ true} \lor I_R$$

Now it would be incorrect to have an elimination rule such as

$$\frac{A \vee B \ true}{A \ true} \vee E_L?$$

because even if we know that $A \vee B$ is true, we do not know whether the disjunct A or the disjunct B is true. Concretely, with such a rule we could derive the

truth of every proposition A as follows:

$$\frac{\frac{\overline{B \supset B \ true}}{W} \lor I_R}{\frac{\overline{B \ true}}{B \supset B \ true} \supset I^u} \lor I_R} \xrightarrow{\overline{A \ true}} \lor I_R} \frac{\overline{A \ true}}{A \ true} \supset I^w}{A \ true} \supset E$$

Thus we take a different approach. If we know that $A \vee B$ is true, we must consider two cases: A true and B true. If we can prove a conclusion C true in both cases, then C must be true! Written as an inference rule:

Note that we use once again the mechanism of hypothetical judgments. In the proof of the second premise we may use the assumption A true labeled u, in the proof of the third premise we may use the assumption B true labeled w. Both are discharged at the disjunction elimination rule.

Let us justify the conclusion of this rule more explicitly. By the first premise we know $A \vee B$ true. The premises of the two possible introduction rules are A true and B true. In case A true we conclude C true by the substitution principle and the second premise: we substitute the proof of A true for any use of the assumption labeled u in the hypothetical derivation. The case for B true is symmetric, using the hypothetical derivation in the third premise.

Because of the complex nature of the elimination rule, reasoning with disjunction is more difficult than with implication and conjunction. As a simple example, we prove the commutativity of disjunction.

$$\vdots \\ (A \lor B) \supset (B \lor A) \ true$$

We begin with an implication introduction.

$$\overline{A \lor B \ true}^{\ u}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$B \lor A \ true$$

$$\overline{(A \lor B) \supset (B \lor A) \ true} \supset I^{u}$$

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At this point we cannot use either of the two disjunction introduction rules. The problem is that neither B nor A follow from our assumption $A \vee B!$ So first we need to distinguish the two cases via the rule of disjunction elimination.

The assumption labeled u is still available for each of the two proof obligations, but we have omitted it, since it is no longer needed.

Now each gap can be filled in directly by the two disjunction introduction rules.

$$\frac{A \lor B \ true}{A \lor B \ true} u \quad \frac{\overline{A \ true}}{B \lor A \ true} \lor I_R \quad \frac{\overline{B \ true}}{B \lor A \ true} \lor I_L$$

$$\frac{B \lor A \ true}{(A \lor B) \supset (B \lor A) \ true} \supset I^u$$

This concludes the discussion of disjunction. Falsehood (written as \perp , sometimes called absurdity) is a proposition that should have no proof! Therefore there are no introduction rules, although we of course have the standard formation rule.

$$\frac{}{\perp prop} \perp F$$

Since there cannot be a proof of $\perp true$, it is sound to conclude the truth of any arbitrary proposition if we know $\perp true$. This justifies the elimination rule

$$\frac{\perp true}{C true} \perp E$$

We can also think of falsehood as a disjunction between zero alternatives. By analogy with the binary disjunction, we therefore have zero introduction rules, and an elimination rule in which we have to consider zero cases. This is precisely the $\pm E$ rule above.

From this is might seem that falsehood it useless: we can never prove it. This is correct, except that we might reason from contradictory hypotheses! We will see some examples when we discuss negation, since we may think of the proposition "not A" (written $\neg A$) as $A \supset \bot$. In other words, $\neg A$ is true precisely if the assumption A true is contradictory because we could derive \bot true.

1.4 Notational Definition

The judgments, propositions, and inference rules we have defined so far collectively form a system of *natural deduction*. It is a minor variant of a system introduced by Gentzen [Gen35]. One of his main motivations was to devise rules that model mathematical reasoning as directly as possible, although clearly in much more detail than in a typical mathematical argument.

We now consider how to define negation. So far, the meaning of any logical connective has been defined by its introduction rules, from which we derived its elimination rules. The definitions for all the connectives are *orthogonal*: the rules for any of the connectives do not depend on any other connectives, only on basic judgmental concepts. Hence the meaning of a compound proposition depends only on the meaning of its constituent propositions. From the point of view of understanding logical connectives this is a critical property: to understand disjunction, for example, we only need to understand its introduction rules and not any other connectives.

A frequently proposed introduction rule for "not A" (written $\neg A$) is

$$\frac{A true}{A true}^{u}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\frac{\perp true}{\neg A true} \neg I^{u}?$$

In words: $\neg A$ is true if the assumption that A is true leads to a contradiction. However, this is not a satisfactory introduction rule, since the premise relies the meaning of \bot , violating orthogonality among the connectives. There are several approaches to removing this dependency. One is to introduce a new judgment, "A is false", and reason explicitly about truth and falsehood. Another employs schematic judgments, which we consider when we introduce universal and existential quantification.

Here we pursue a third alternative: for arbitrary propositions A, we think of $\neg A$ as a syntactic abbreviation for $A \supset \bot$. This is called a *notational definition* and we write

$$\neg A = A \supset \bot$$
.

This notational definition is schematic in the proposition A. Implicit here is the formation rule

$$\frac{A prop}{\neg A prop} \neg F$$

We allow silent expansion of notational definitions. As an example, we prove

that A and $\neg A$ cannot be true simultaneously.

$$\frac{\overline{A \wedge \neg A \text{ true}}}{\neg A \text{ true}} \wedge E_R \frac{\overline{A \wedge \neg A \text{ true}}}{A \text{ true}} \wedge E_L$$

$$\frac{\bot \text{ true}}{\neg (A \wedge \neg A) \text{ true}} \supset I^u$$

We can only understand this derivation if we keep in mind that $\neg A$ stands for $A \supset \bot$, and that $\neg (A \land \neg A)$ stands for $(A \land \neg A) \supset \bot$.

As a second example, we show the proof that $A \supset \neg \neg A$ is true.

$$\frac{\neg A true}{\neg A true} w \qquad \frac{\neg A true}{A true} \cup E$$

$$\frac{\bot true}{\neg \neg A true} \supset I^{w}$$

$$A \supset \neg \neg A true} \supset I^{u}$$

Next we consider $A \vee \neg A$, the so-called "law" of excluded middle. It claims that every proposition is either true or false. This, however, contradicts our definition of disjunction: we may have evidence neither for the truth of A, nor for the falsehood of A. Therefore we cannot expect $A \vee \neg A$ to be true unless we have more information about A.

One has to be careful how to interpret this statement, however. There are many propositions A for which it is indeed the case that we know $A \vee \neg A$. For example, $\top \vee (\neg \top)$ is clearly true because \top true. Similarly, $\bot \vee (\neg \bot)$ is true because $\neg \bot$ is true. To make this fully explicit:

$$\frac{\neg true}{\neg true} \neg I \qquad \frac{\neg true}{\neg \bot true} \supset I^{u} \qquad \frac{\neg \bot true}{\neg \bot true} \lor I_{R}$$

In mathematics and computer science, many basic relations satisfy the law of excluded middle. For example, we will be able to show that for any two numbers k and n, either k < n or $\neg (k < n)$. However, this requires proof, because for more complex A propositions we may not know if A true or $\neg A$ true. We will return to this issue later in this course.

At present we do not have the tools to show formally that $A \vee \neg A$ should not be true for arbitrary A. A proof attempt with our generic proof strategy (reason from the bottom up with introduction rules and from the top down with elimination rules) fails quickly, no matter which introduction rule for disjunction

we start with.

$$\frac{A \ true}{A \ V \neg A \ true} \lor I_L$$

$$\frac{A \ true}{\neg A \ true} \to I_U$$

$$\frac{\bot \ true}{\neg A \ true} \to I_U$$

$$\frac{A \ true}{\neg A \ true} \lor I_L$$

We will see that this failure is in fact sufficient evidence to know that $A \vee \neg A$ is not true for arbitrary A.

1.5 Derived Rules of Inference

One popular device for shortening derivations is to introduce derived rules of inference. For example,

$$\frac{A \supset B \ true}{A \supset C \ true}$$

is a derived rule of inference. Its derivation is the following:

Note that this is simply a hypothetical derivation, using the premises of the derived rule as assumptions. In other words, a derived rule of inference is nothing but an evident hypothetical judgment; its justification is a hypothetical derivation.

We can freely use derived rules in proofs, since any occurrence of such a rule can be expanded by replacing it with its justification.

A second example of notational definition is logical equivalence "A if and only if B" (written $A \equiv B$). We define

$$(A \equiv B) = (A \supset B) \land (B \supset A).$$

That is, two propositions A and B are logically equivalent if A implies B and B implies A. Under this definition, the following become derived rules of inference (see Exercise 1.1). They can also be seen as introduction and elimination rules