

## Reduction of logics to the primitive logic

By Katuzi ONO

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### Introduction

Main conclusion of my work [2] has been the following: *Any logic belonging to J-series (the intuitionistic logic LJ, the minimal logic LM, and the positive logic LP, each without assuming Peirce's rule) or to K-series (the classical logic LK, the minimal logic LN, and the positive logic LQ which are stronger than LJ, LM and LP by Peirce's rule, respectively) can be faithfully interpreted in the primitive logic LO (the sub-logic of the intuitionistic logic LJ having the logical constants, implication and universal quantification, only). I call here any logic L a sub-logic of another logic L\* if and only if every logical constant of L is a logical constant of L\* and every proposition expressible in terms of the logical constant of L is provable in L if and only if it is provable in L\*.*

Faithful interpretation of the intuitionistic logic LJ and the classical logic LK in the primitive logic LO can be realized by  $\mathfrak{R}$ -transform  $\mathfrak{A}^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$  of any proposition  $\mathfrak{A}$  with respect to an  $n$ -ary relation  $\mathfrak{R}$ .  $\mathfrak{A}^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$  can be defined recursively as follows ( $\xi$  stands for a sequence of  $n$  distinct variables, none of them is assumed to occur free in  $\mathfrak{F}$  and  $\mathfrak{G}$ ):

$\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \equiv (\xi)((\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi))$  for any elementary formula  $\mathfrak{F}$ ,

$$(\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G})^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \equiv (\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}^{[\mathfrak{R}]}),$$

$$((t)\mathfrak{F})^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \equiv (t)\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]},$$

$$(\mathfrak{F} \wedge \mathfrak{G})^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \equiv (\xi)((\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{G}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi))) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)),$$

$$(\mathfrak{F} \vee \mathfrak{G})^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \equiv (\xi)((\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow ((\mathfrak{G}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi))),$$

$$((\exists t)\mathfrak{F})^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \equiv (\xi)((t)(\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)),$$

$$(\neg \mathfrak{F})^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \equiv \mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \rightarrow (\xi)\mathfrak{R}(\xi).$$

Now, we can prove the following theorem:  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in LJ if and only if  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in LO, assuming that  $R$  is an  $n$ -ary relation symbol having no occurrence in  $\mathfrak{A}$  for some  $n$  ( $n \geq 1$ ).  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in LK if and only if  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in LO, assuming that  $R$  is a 0-ary relation symbol i. e. proposition symbol having no occurrence in  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

In my paper [2], I have stated this theorem in weaker form, namely, only for sufficiently large  $n$  for **LJ**. Moreover, the proof in [2] has been incomplete for **J**-series logics, because two erroneous formulas (erroneous in case of **J**-series logics) has been employed in the proof<sup>1)</sup>.

Main purpose of the present paper is to give theorems in stronger form for **J**- and **K**-series logics in general together with their corrected complete proofs.

In my paper [3], I have mentioned that any formal system having just one primitive notion (a single-word vocabulary) and standing on any one of **J**- or **K**-series logics can be interpreted more simply in a formal system having the same vocabulary and standing on the primitive logic **LO**. In showing this, I have employed essentially the same erroneous formulas of [2] (erroneous for **J**-series logics). In my work [4], I have described a method to reduce any vocabulary consisting of a finite number of words (primitive notions) to a single-word vocabulary, expecting that systems having single-word vocabularies are easier to deal with according to the conclusion of my work [3]. In reality, however, the merit of these two works seem to fade away in some cases even when we reformulate them so to avoid fallacious reasonings in them. In the case of **J**-series logics, the device of [3] for introducing new logical constants causes an interesting problem.

In my work [5], I have relied also on the result of my paper [3], so I have to reformulate it anyway. Essentially, however, the conclusion of [5] can be kept true. I will remark only a few words on the subject in the present paper, because a detailed description of taboo theory is expected to appear in the nearest future.

(1) **Preparations.**

The following notations used in my work [2] are also useful in the present paper :

$$\mathfrak{F}^n \equiv (\xi)((\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)),$$

$$\mathfrak{F} \wedge \mathfrak{G} \equiv (\xi)((\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{G} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi))) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)),$$

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1) In (4.11 R) of [2] (p. 350), I have mentioned that

$$\mathfrak{A}^R \wedge \mathfrak{B}^R \equiv \mathfrak{A}^R \wedge \mathfrak{B}^R,$$

$$\mathfrak{A}^R \vee \mathfrak{B}^R \equiv \mathfrak{A}^R \vee \mathfrak{B}^R,$$

$$(\exists t) \mathfrak{A}^R \equiv (\exists t) \mathfrak{A}^R$$

are all provable in **LP** as well as in **LQ**. This does not hold generally in **LP** except for the first formula if  $R$  is an  $n$ -ary relation symbol ( $n > 1$ ). I owe to my young colleagues M. Ohta and K. Kawada in finding out this mis-reasoning.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{F} \vee \mathfrak{G} &\equiv (\xi)((\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow ((\mathfrak{G} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi))), \\ (\exists t)\mathfrak{F}(t) &\equiv (\xi)((t)(\mathfrak{F}(t) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)), \\ \rightarrow \mathfrak{F} &\equiv \mathfrak{F} \rightarrow (\xi)\mathfrak{R}(\xi) \quad \text{or} \quad \wedge \equiv (\xi)\mathfrak{R}(\xi). \end{aligned}$$

Clearly,  $\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$  is  $\mathfrak{F}^{\mathfrak{R}}$  for any elementary proposition  $\mathfrak{F}$ ,  $(\mathfrak{F} \wedge \mathfrak{G})^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$  is  $\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \wedge \mathfrak{G}^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$ ,  $(\mathfrak{F} \vee \mathfrak{G})^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$  is  $\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]} \vee \mathfrak{G}^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$ ,  $((\exists t)\mathfrak{F}(t))^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$  is  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{F}(t)^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$ , and  $(\rightarrow \mathfrak{F})^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$  is  $\rightarrow \mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$ .

For any proposition  $\mathfrak{F}$ , the proposition  $\mathfrak{F}^{\mathfrak{R}}$  is called the  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closure of  $\mathfrak{F}$ . In any logic equivalent to or stronger than the primitive logic **LO**, any proposition  $\mathfrak{F}$  implies its  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closure  $\mathfrak{F}^{\mathfrak{R}}$  always. Any proposition  $\mathfrak{F}$  is called  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed if and only if its  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closure  $\mathfrak{F}^{\mathfrak{R}}$  implies  $\mathfrak{F}$  itself. Accordingly, any proposition  $\mathfrak{F}$  is equivalent to its  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closure  $\mathfrak{F}^{\mathfrak{R}}$  if and only if it is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. Hence, we can express any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed proposition in the form  $\mathfrak{F}^{\mathfrak{R}}$ .

We can also easily see that any elementary formula of the form  $R(\xi)$  is  $R$ -closed for any relation symbol  $R$  (including the case where the same variable occurs in different places of  $\xi$ ), that  $\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed whenever  $\mathfrak{G}$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed, and that  $(t)\mathfrak{F}(t)$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed if  $\mathfrak{F}(u)$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed for any variable  $u$  whatever. Accordingly, propositions of the forms  $\mathfrak{F}^{[\mathfrak{R}]}$ ,  $\mathfrak{F} \wedge \mathfrak{G}$ ,  $\mathfrak{F} \vee \mathfrak{G}$ ,  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{F}$ , and  $\rightarrow \mathfrak{F}$  (or  $\wedge$ ) are all  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. Also, we can see easily that any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed proposition is deducible from  $(\xi)\mathfrak{R}(\xi)$ .

Taking  $\rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$  as  $\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \wedge$ , the intuitionistic logic **LJ** can be characterized by the following inference rules:

- F.**  $\mathfrak{A}$  is deducible from  $\mathfrak{A}$  itself.
- I\*.**  $\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}$  is deducible if  $\mathfrak{B}$  is deducible from  $\mathfrak{A}$ .
- I.**  $\mathfrak{A}$  is deducible from  $\mathfrak{B}$  and  $\mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ .
- C\*.**  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B}$  is deducible from  $\mathfrak{A}$  and  $\mathfrak{B}$ .
- C.**  $\mathfrak{A}$  as well as  $\mathfrak{B}$  is deducible from  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B}$ .
- D\*.**  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$  is deducible from  $\mathfrak{A}$  as well as from  $\mathfrak{B}$ .
- D.**  $\mathfrak{A}$  is deducible from  $\mathfrak{B} \vee \mathfrak{C}$ ,  $\mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ , and  $\mathfrak{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ .
- U\*.**  $(t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  is deducible if  $\mathfrak{A}(u)$  is deducible for any variable  $u$  whatever.
- U.**  $\mathfrak{A}(u)$  is deducible from  $(t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$ .
- E\*.**  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  is deducible from  $\mathfrak{A}(u)$ .
- E.**  $\mathfrak{B}$  is deducible from  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  and  $(t)(\mathfrak{A}(t) \rightarrow \mathfrak{B})$ , assuming that  $t$  does not occur in  $\mathfrak{B}$ .
- N.**  $\mathfrak{A}$  is deducible from  $\wedge$ .

The classical logic **LK** admits further Peirce's rule:

- P.**  $\mathfrak{A}$  is deducible from  $(\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ .

The positive logic **LP** admits the inference rules **F**, **I\***, **I**, **C\***, **C**, **D\***, **D**, **U\***, **U**, **E\***, and **E** without assuming the propositional constant  $\wedge$  (nor the

logical constant  $\rightarrow$ ). The positive logic **LQ** admits further the inference rule **P**.

The minimal logic **LM** and **LN** admit the same inference rules of **LP** and **LQ**, respectively, but the propositional constant  $\wedge$  (hence also the negation notion) is assumed in them.

In the primitive logic **LO**, we can prove that *the newly defined logical constants  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\wedge}$ ,  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\vee}$ ,  $(\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\exists})$ , and  $\rightarrow$  (or  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\wedge}$ ) together with the original logical constants of **LO** satisfy all the inference rules of **LJ** for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed propositions. They satisfy further the inference rule **P** for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed propositions, if  $\mathfrak{R}$  is a 0-ary relation i. e. a proposition.*

Speaking more precisely, we can prove that *the following inference rules hold in the primitive logic **LO** (see my work [2].):*

**C\*R.**  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\wedge} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$  is deducible from  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$  and  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$ .

**CR.** Any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$  is deducible from  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\wedge} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$ . Any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$  is deducible from  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\wedge} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$ .

**D\*R.**  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\vee} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$  is deducible from  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$  as well as from  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$ .

**DR.** Any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$  is deducible from  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\vee} \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{C}}$ ,  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}} \rightarrow \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$ , and  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{C}} \rightarrow \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$ .

**E\*R.**  $(\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\exists}t)\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}(t)$  is deducible from  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}(u)$ .

**ER.** Any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$  is deducible from  $(\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\exists}t)\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}(t)$  and  $(t)\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}(t) \rightarrow \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$ , assuming that  $t$  does not occur in  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$ .

**NR.** Any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$  is deducible from  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\wedge}$  i. e.  $(\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\xi})\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}(\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\xi})$ .

**PR.** For any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$  and  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}$ ,  $\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$  is deducible from  $(\overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}} \rightarrow \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{B}}) \rightarrow \overset{\mathfrak{R}}{\mathfrak{A}}$  if  $\mathfrak{R}$  is a 0-ary relation i. e. a proposition.

For any inference rule **X**, let us denote by  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{X}}(\overset{\circ}{\wedge}, \overset{\circ}{\wedge})$ , by  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{X}}(\overset{\circ}{\vee}, \overset{\circ}{\vee})$  by  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{X}}(\overset{\circ}{\exists})$ ,  $(\overset{\circ}{\exists})$ , and by  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{X}}(\overset{\circ}{\wedge}, \overset{\circ}{\wedge})$  the inference rule, possibly valid or not valid, obtained on replacing  $\wedge, \vee, (\exists)$ , and  $\overset{\circ}{\wedge}$  of **X** by  $\overset{\circ}{\wedge}, \overset{\circ}{\vee}, (\overset{\circ}{\exists})$ , and  $\overset{\circ}{\wedge}$ , respectively. Then, **C\*R**, **CR**, **D\*R**, **DR**, **E\*R**, **ER**, and **NR** point out that  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{C}}(\overset{\circ}{\wedge}, \overset{\circ}{\wedge})$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{C}}(\overset{\circ}{\wedge}, \overset{\circ}{\wedge})$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{D}}(\overset{\circ}{\vee}, \overset{\circ}{\vee})$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{D}}(\overset{\circ}{\vee}, \overset{\circ}{\vee})$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{E}}(\overset{\circ}{\exists}), (\overset{\circ}{\exists})$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{E}}(\overset{\circ}{\exists}), (\overset{\circ}{\exists})$ , and  $\overset{\circ}{\mathbf{N}}(\overset{\circ}{\wedge}, \overset{\circ}{\wedge})$  hold for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed propositions in any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LO**, if  $\mathfrak{R}$  is an  $n$ -ary relation ( $n \geq 0$ ). The inference rule **P** holds for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed propositions in any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LO**, if  $\mathfrak{R}$  is a 0-ary relation i. e. a proposition. Also the inference rules **F**, **I\***, **I**, **U\***, **U**, **C\***, **C**, **D\***, **D**, **E\***, and **E** hold for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed propositions in any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LP**, and the inference rule **N** holds for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed propositions in any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LJ**, though it is not always true that  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}} \overset{\circ}{\vee} \overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{B}}$ ,  $\rightarrow \overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}$ , and  $(\overset{\circ}{\exists}t)\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}(t)$  are all  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed for any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{B}}$ , and  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}(u)$  for any  $u$  whatever. (It is sure that  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}} \rightarrow \overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{B}}$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}} \overset{\circ}{\wedge} \overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{B}}$ , and  $(t)\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}(t)$  are all  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed if  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{B}}$ , and  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}(u)$  for any  $u$  whatever are  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. It is sure in any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LQ** that  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}} \overset{\circ}{\vee} \overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{B}}$  and  $(\overset{\circ}{\exists}t)\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}(t)$  are  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed if  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}$ ,  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{B}}$ , and  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}(u)$  for whatever  $u$  are  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. It is not sure even in **LK** that  $\rightarrow \overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed for any  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\overset{\circ}{\mathfrak{A}}$ .)

We can now prove the following lemma :

LEMMA 1. *In any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LP**,  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B}$  is equivalent to  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge_{\mathfrak{R}} \mathfrak{B}$  if  $\mathfrak{A}$  and  $\mathfrak{B}$  are both  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed,  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$  is equivalent to  $\mathfrak{A} \vee_{\mathfrak{R}} \mathfrak{B}$  if  $\mathfrak{A}$ ,  $\mathfrak{B}$ , and  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$  are all  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed, and  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  is equivalent to  $(\exists t)_{\mathfrak{R}}\mathfrak{A}(t)$  if  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. In any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LJ**,  $\neg\mathfrak{A}$  is equivalent to  $\neg_{\mathfrak{R}}\mathfrak{A}$  if  $\neg\mathfrak{A}$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed (or, if we assume that  $\wedge$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed). Here we assume that  $\mathfrak{R}$  is an  $n$ -ary relation ( $n \geq 0$ ).*

PROOF. Let  $\mathfrak{R}$  be any  $n$ -ary relation ( $n \geq 0$ ). Now, let **L** be any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LP**.

At first, let us assume that  $\mathfrak{A}$  and  $\mathfrak{B}$  are both  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. Then, we can prove easily in **L** that  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B}$  is also  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. Because  $\wedge$  satisfies **C\*** and **C** as well as  $\wedge_{\mathfrak{R}}$  satisfies **C\***( $\wedge, \wedge$ ) and **C**( $\wedge, \wedge$ ) for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\mathfrak{A}$ ,  $\mathfrak{B}$ , and  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B}$  the proposition  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B}$  is equivalent to  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge_{\mathfrak{R}} \mathfrak{B}$  in **L**.

Next, let us assume that  $\mathfrak{A}$ ,  $\mathfrak{B}$ , and  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$  are all  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. Then,  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$  is equivalent to  $\mathfrak{A} \vee_{\mathfrak{R}} \mathfrak{B}$ , because **I** holds in **L**,  $\vee$  satisfies **D\*** and **D**, and  $\vee_{\mathfrak{R}}$  satisfies **D\***( $\vee, \vee$ ) and **D**( $\vee, \vee$ ) for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed propositions  $\mathfrak{A}$ ,  $\mathfrak{B}$ , and  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$ .

Lastly, let us assume that  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  and  $\mathfrak{A}(u)$  for whatever variable  $u$  are  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed. Then,  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  is equivalent to  $(\exists t)_{\mathfrak{R}}\mathfrak{A}(t)$ , because **I** holds in **L**,  $(\exists)$  satisfies **E\*** and **E**, and  $(\exists)_{\mathfrak{R}}$  satisfies **E\***( $(\exists)$ ,  $(\exists)_{\mathfrak{R}}$ ) and **E**( $(\exists)$ ,  $(\exists)_{\mathfrak{R}}$ ) for any  $\mathfrak{A}(u)$  and  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed  $\mathfrak{B}$ .

Now, let **L** be any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LJ** and let us assume that  $\mathfrak{A}$  and  $\neg\mathfrak{A}$  are  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed (or,  $\mathfrak{A}$  and  $\wedge$  are  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed). Then,  $\neg\mathfrak{A}$  is equivalent to  $\neg_{\mathfrak{R}}\mathfrak{A}$ , because **I\*** and **I** hold in **L**,  $\neg$  satisfies **N**,  $\neg_{\mathfrak{R}}$  satisfies **N**( $\neg, \neg_{\mathfrak{R}}$ ) for  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed proposition  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

In any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LQ**,  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed if  $\mathfrak{A}$  (or  $\mathfrak{B}$ ) is so. This can be shown in my way of practical description (see [6]) as follows :

- A)  $\mathfrak{A}^{\mathfrak{R}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ .
- $\in$ )  $(\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B})^{\mathfrak{R}} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} / \mathbf{I}^*$ .
- $\in A$ )  $(\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B})^{\mathfrak{R}}$  i. e.  $(\xi)((\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi))$ .
- $\in b$ )  $(\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} / \mathbf{I}^*$ .
- $\in bA$ )  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}$ .
- $\in bb$ )  $\mathfrak{A}$  i. e.  $(\xi)(\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) / \mathbf{I}^*, \mathbf{U}^*$ .
- $\in bbA$ )  $\forall \xi : \mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)$ . (' $\forall$ :' stands for ' $\forall!$ ' in [6].)
- $\in bbb$ )  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi) / \mathbf{I}^*$ .
- $\in bbbA$ )  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$ .
- $\in bbbb$ )  $\mathfrak{A} / \in bA, \in bbbA; \mathbf{I}$ .
- $\in bbb\in$ )  $\mathfrak{R}(\xi) / \in bbA, \in bbbb; \mathbf{I}$ .

- $\in bbc$ )  $(\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}(\xi) / \in A; \mathbf{U}$ .
- $\in bb\in$ )  $\mathfrak{R}(\xi) / \in bbb, \in bbc; \mathbf{I}$ .
- $\in bc$ )  $\mathfrak{A} / A, \in bb; \mathbf{I}$ .
- $\in b\in$ )  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} / \in bc; \mathbf{D}^*$ .
- $\in \in$ )  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} / \in b; \mathbf{P}$ .

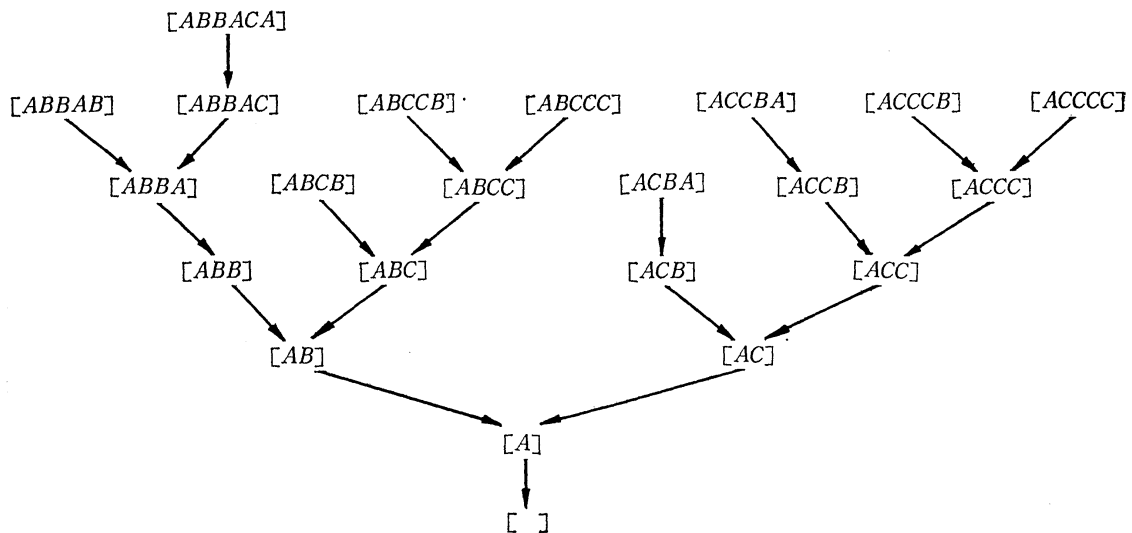
Quite similarly, we can prove that, in any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LQ**,  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed if  $\mathfrak{A}(u)$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed for any variable  $u$ . (We prove  $((\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t) \rightarrow \mathfrak{A}(u)) \rightarrow (\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  in place of  $(A \vee B \rightarrow A) \rightarrow A \vee B$  in the above proof.)

Naturally, in any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LM**,  $\neg \mathfrak{A}$  i. e.  $\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow \perp$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed if we assume  $\wedge^n \rightarrow \wedge$ .

Accordingly, we can prove the following lemma:

**LEMMA 2.** In any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LQ**,  $\mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B}$  and  $\mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B}$  are equivalent to  $\mathfrak{A} \underset{\mathfrak{R}}{\wedge} \mathfrak{B}$  and  $\mathfrak{A} \underset{\mathfrak{R}}{\vee} \mathfrak{B}$ , respectively, if  $\mathfrak{A}$  and  $\mathfrak{B}$  are both  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed, and  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t)$  is equivalent to  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t) \underset{\mathfrak{R}}{\phantom{}}$  if  $\mathfrak{A}(u)$  is  $\mathfrak{R}$ -closed for whatever variable  $u$ . In any logic stronger than or equivalent to **LJ**,  $\neg \mathfrak{A}$  is equivalent to  $\neg \mathfrak{A} \underset{\mathfrak{R}}{\phantom{}}$  if we assume  $\wedge^n \rightarrow \wedge$ . Here we assume that  $\mathfrak{R}$  is an  $n$ -ary relation ( $n \geq 0$ ).

Before stating theorems on reductions of the logics **LJ** and **LK** to the primitive logic **LO**, I would like to remark here that **LJ** and **LK** can be regarded as Gentzen's **LJ** and **LK**, respectively. In Gentzen's formalism, any proof is described in a tree-form proof-figure having its end-sequent at its bottom. Tree-form proof-figure can be described more exactly by supplying every sequent an index of it. The following example would give a global image of our index system.



Namely, any index is a finite (possibly null) sequence of three kinds of symbols  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ , which is occasionally denoted by a small German letters.

If  $b$  is of the form  $ac$ ,  $a$  is called *equal to or less than*  $b$  according as  $c$  is a null sequence or not. The ordering 'less than' of indices is evidently a partial order.

I will call any non-empty set  $\mathbf{T}$  of indices a *tree* if and only if  $\mathbf{T}$  satisfies the following conditions:

**T1.** For any index of the forms  $cA$ ,  $cB$ , or  $cC$  in  $\mathbf{T}$ ,  $c$  is a member of  $\mathbf{T}$  unless  $cA$ ,  $cB$ , or  $cC$  is the minimum index of  $\mathbf{T}$ .

**T2.** For any  $c$  in  $\mathbf{T}$ , either  $c$  is a maximal index of  $\mathbf{T}$ , or  $\mathbf{T}$  contains  $cA$  but no  $cB$  nor  $cC$ , or  $\mathbf{T}$  contains  $cB$  and  $cC$  but no  $cA$ .

It follows easily from **T1** that there is a *minimum index* (usually a null sequence) in every tree  $\mathbf{T}$ .

Any set  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  of sequents, each supplied by an index of a tree  $\mathbf{T}$ , is called a (*Gentzen-type*) *proof-figure* if and only if  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  satisfy the following conditions ( $[c]$  denotes the sequent of  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  which is supplied by the index  $c$ ):

**Π T1.** If  $c$  is an maximal index of  $\mathbf{T}$ , the sequent  $[c]$  is fundamental (sequent of the form  $\mathfrak{M} \vdash \mathfrak{M}$ ).

**Π T2.**  $[c]$  is deducible from  $[cA]$  if  $c$  and  $cA$  belong to  $\mathbf{T}$ .  $[c]$  is deducible from  $[cB]$  and  $[cC]$  if  $c$ ,  $cB$ , and  $cC$  belong to  $\mathbf{T}$ .

If  $a$  is the minimum index of  $\mathbf{T}$  and  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  is a proof-figure,  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  is called a (*Gentze-type*) *proof* of the sequent  $[a]$ . If  $c$  is an index of  $\mathbf{T}$  of a proof-figure  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$ , the set of all the sequents  $[b]$  supplied by indices  $b$  equal to or greater than  $c$  can be regarded as a proof of  $[c]$ . The set of all the indices  $b$  of  $\mathbf{T}$  equal to or greater than  $c$  is denoted by  $\mathbf{T}[c]$  and is occasionally called a *sub-tree* of the tree  $\mathbf{T}$ . Naturally,  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  is a tree, and the proof of  $[c]$  is denoted by  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}(c)]$ .

Now, I will prove the following lemma:

**LEMMA 3.** Let  $\mathbf{T}$  be any tree containing two indices  $b$  and  $c$ . Then, one of  $\mathbf{T}(b)$  and  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  is included in the other if they have a common index.

**PROOF.** Let  $\mathbf{T}$  be a tree, and let  $b$  and  $c$  be two indices in it. Let us further assume that  $\mathbf{T}(b)$  and  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  have a common index. Then, we can find out at least one minimal common index  $d$  of these two sub-trees of  $\mathbf{T}$ . If  $d$  were neither equal to  $b$  nor equal to  $c$ , it would be expressed in the forms  $d'A$ ,  $d'B$ , or  $d'C$ .  $d'$  would be less than  $d$  and  $d'$  would be a common index of  $\mathbf{T}(b)$  and  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  according to **T1**. Hence,  $d$  must be either equal to  $b$  or equal to  $c$ . Consequently, either  $\mathbf{T}(b)$  is included in  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  or  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  is included in  $\mathbf{T}(b)$ .

I will call any inference of the following two kinds

$$1) \quad \alpha: \Gamma, (\exists t)\mathfrak{F}(t) \vdash \Delta, \quad \alpha A: \Gamma, \mathfrak{F}(u) \vdash \Delta,$$

$$2) \quad \alpha: \Gamma \vdash \Delta, (t)\mathfrak{F}(t), \quad \alpha A: \Gamma \vdash \Delta, \mathfrak{F}(u).$$

a *u-inference* depending on its proper variable  $u$ .

The following lemma can be checked without difficulty.

LEMMA 4. Let  $\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}^*$  be a transformation of propositions satisfying the following conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} (\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow \mathfrak{G})^* &\equiv \mathfrak{F}^* \rightarrow \mathfrak{G}^*, & (\neg \mathfrak{F})^* &\equiv \neg \mathfrak{F}^*, \\ (\mathfrak{F} \wedge \mathfrak{G})^* &\equiv \mathfrak{F}^* \wedge \mathfrak{G}^*, & ((t)\mathfrak{F})^* &\equiv (t)\mathfrak{F}^*, \\ (\mathfrak{F} \vee \mathfrak{G})^* &\equiv \mathfrak{F}^* \vee \mathfrak{G}^*, & ((\exists t)\mathfrak{F})^* &\equiv (\exists t)\mathfrak{F}^*. \end{aligned}$$

Then, any inference is transformed into a right inference except for  $u$ -inferences with respect to any variable  $u$ .

I will call  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  a  $u$ -tree if and only if the last inference of  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}(c)]$  is a  $u$ -inference of the type from  $[cA]$  to  $[c]$ . Any proof-figure  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  (or any proof  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  of a sequent) is called *normal* if and only if every free variable  $u$  having a  $u$ -tree does not occur outside of  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}(c)]$  for any  $u$ -tree  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  of it. Accordingly, in any normal proof-figure, any free variable  $u$  in it has at most one  $u$ -tree.

LEMMA 5. If any sequent is provable in Gentzen's **LJ** or **LK**, it has a normal cut-free proof of it.

PROOF. Let  $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$  be any provable sequent in Gentzen's **LJ** or **LK**. Then, according to Gentzen's cut-elimination theorem (see [1]),  $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$  is provable by a cut-free proof  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  having  $\Gamma \vdash \Delta$  as  $[a]$  for the minimum index  $a$  of  $\mathbf{T}$ . If there is a free variable  $u$  which occurs outside of  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}(c)]$  for a  $u$ -tree  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  of  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$ , we transform the figure as follows.

According to Lemma 3, we can find out for any free occurrence of  $u$  in a sequent  $[b]$  of  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  the smallest  $u$ -tree  $\mathbf{T}[c]$  in so far as there is a  $u$ -tree containing  $b$ . Let us denote the function  $b$  to  $c$  by  $c = |b|$ . Then,  $|b|$  is surely less than  $b$ , because  $u$  does not occur in the sequent  $[|b|]$ .

Now, we replace every free occurrence of  $u$  in the sequent  $[b]$  by the variable  $u_{|b|}$  in so far as  $|b|$  is defined, where variables of the form  $u_{|b|}$  denote new variables mutually distinguished by their indices  $|b|$ . The variable  $u$  in  $[b]$  remains unchanged if  $|b|$  is not defined.

Let us denote by  $\Pi^*[\mathbf{T}]$  the transformed figure of  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$ . Then, we assert that  $\Pi^*[\mathbf{T}]$  is a cut-free proof of  $[a]$  in which the number of variables  $w$  occurring outside of  $\Pi^*[\mathbf{T}(c)]$  for some  $w$ -tree  $\mathbf{T}(c)$  of  $\Pi^*[\mathbf{T}]$  is less than the number of such kind of free variables in  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$ .

To show this, we remark at first that any fundamental sequent is transformed into a fundamental sequent. Next,  $[a]$  is invariant by the transformation. For,  $a$  is the minimum index of  $\mathbf{T}$ , so  $|a|$  is not defined. Thirdly, any  $u$ -inference from  $[cA]$  to  $[c]$  is transformed into a right  $u$ -inference, because  $u$  does not occur in  $[c]$ . Lastly, any inference from  $[cA]$  to  $[c]$  or from  $[cB]$  and  $[cC]$  to  $[c]$  other than  $u$ -inferences is transformed into a right inference of the same type according to Lemma 4, because  $[c]$  and  $[cA]$  (or,  $[c]$ ,  $[cB]$ ,



and  $[cC]$ ) undergo the same transformation satisfying the conditions of Lemma 4. For,  $|c| = |cA|$  (or,  $|c| = |cB| = |cC|$ ) holds in these cases.

Now, I will show that *neither  $u$  nor variables of the form  $u_{|b|}$  occur outside of  $\Pi^*[T(c)]$  for any  $u$ - or  $u_{|b|}$ -tree  $T(c)$* . For, there is no  $u$ -tree in  $\Pi^*[T(c)]$ , and  $u_{|b|}$  occurs only in  $\Pi^*[T(|b|)]$  for the  $u_{|b|}$ -tree  $T(|b|)$  which does not include any other  $u_{|b|}$ -trees.

Since  $\Pi[T]$  is assumed to be cut-free and any inference of the proof-figure  $\Pi^*[T]$  is of the same type as the corresponding inference of  $\Pi[T]$ , *the proof-figure  $\Pi^*[T]$  is also cut-free*.

Thus, we have a cut-free proof  $\Pi^*[T]$  of  $[a]$  in which the number of free variables  $w$  occurring outside of  $\Pi^*[T(c)]$  for a  $w$ -tree  $T(c)$  of  $\Pi^*[T]$  is less than the number of such kind of free variables in  $\Pi[T]$ . Hence, after a finite number of steps of the same kind, we can attain a normal cut-free proof of  $[a]$ .

## (2) Reductions.

**THEOREM 1.** *Any proposition  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in **LJ** if and only if its  $R$ -transform  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in **LO** for any  $n$ -ary relation symbol  $R$  which does not occur in  $\mathfrak{A}$  ( $n \geq 1$ ).*

**PROOF.** Let  $\mathfrak{A}$  be any proposition and  $R$  be any  $n$ -ary relation symbol which does not occur in  $\mathfrak{A}$  ( $n \geq 1$ ). Then, any elementary formula of the form  $R(\xi)$  can be expressed in the form  $R(\xi', x)$  (including the case where  $\xi'$  is a null sequence).

I will show at first that  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in **LJ** if  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in **LO**. Namely, let us assume that  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in **LO**. Then,  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  must be also provable in **LJ**, because **LO** is a sub-logic of **LJ**.

Now, I will call any proposition of the form  $(\zeta)(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta))$  an  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formula if and only if  $\mathfrak{F}(\zeta)$  is a sub-formula of  $\mathfrak{A}$  and  $x$  does not occur in  $\mathfrak{F}(\zeta)$ . ( $\zeta$  denotes a sequence of distinct variables. We call here any formula a sub-formula for itself and any formula of the form  $\mathfrak{H}(t)$  a sub-formula of  $(x)\mathfrak{H}(x)$  as well as of  $(\exists x)\mathfrak{H}(x)$  for any variable  $t$ .)

It should be remarked here that *any proposition of the form  $(\zeta)(\mathfrak{F}(\zeta)^R \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}(\zeta))$  is deducible from  $(\zeta)(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta))$  in **LJ***. We describe the proof in my way of practical description (see [6]) in the following:

- A)  $(\zeta)(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta))$ .
- $\in$ )  $(\zeta)(\mathfrak{F}(\zeta)^R \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}(\zeta)) / \mathbf{I}^*, \mathbf{U}^*$ .
- $\in A$ )  $\forall \zeta : \mathfrak{F}(\zeta)^R$  i. e.  $(\mu)((\mathfrak{F}(\zeta) \rightarrow R(\mu)) \rightarrow R(\mu))$ .
- $\in b$ )  $(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta)) / A ; \mathbf{U}$ .
- $\in c$ )  $(x)((R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta)) \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}(\zeta)) / \mathbf{I}^*, \mathbf{U}^*$ .
- $\in cA$ )  $\forall x : R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta)$ .

- $\in cb)$   $(\mathfrak{F}(\zeta) \rightarrow R(\xi', x)) \rightarrow R(\xi', x) / \in A; \mathbf{U}$ .
- $\in cc)$   $\mathfrak{F}(\zeta) \rightarrow R(\xi', x) / \in cA; \mathbf{C}$ , Def. of  $\equiv$ .
- $\in cd)$   $R(\xi', x) / \in cb, \in cc; \mathbf{I}$ .
- $\in ce)$   $R(\xi', x) \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}(\zeta) / \in cA; \mathbf{C}$ , Def. of  $\equiv$ .
- $\in c\in)$   $\mathfrak{F}(\zeta) / \in cd, \in ce; \mathbf{I}$ .
- $\in \epsilon)$   $\mathfrak{F}(\zeta) / \in b, \in c; \mathbf{E}$ , Assumption that  $x$  does not occur in  $\mathfrak{F}(\zeta)$ .

For any sub-formula  $\mathfrak{B}$  of  $\mathfrak{A}$ , we can deduce  $\mathfrak{B}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{B}$  from a certain number of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas. Lemma 1 makes it possible to prove this by structural induction.

Namely, let us assume at first that  $\mathfrak{B}$  is an elementary formula of the form  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta)$ . Then,  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta)^{[R]}$  is  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta)^R$ , which is surely deducible from  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta)$ . Accordingly,  $\mathfrak{B}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{B}$  i. e.  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta)^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\eta)$  is deducible from  $(\zeta)(\mathfrak{F}(\zeta)^R \rightarrow \mathfrak{F}(\zeta))$ , so also from the  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formula  $(\zeta)(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta))$ .

Next, let us assume that  $\mathfrak{B}$  is a composite proposition of the forms  $\mathfrak{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}$ ,  $\mathfrak{C} \wedge \mathfrak{D}$ , or  $\mathfrak{C} \vee \mathfrak{D}$  and that  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{C}$  and  $\mathfrak{D}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{D}$  are deducible from the sets  $\Gamma$  and  $\Delta$  of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas, respectively. Then,  $(\mathfrak{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D})^{[R]} \equiv (\mathfrak{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D})$  is deducible from the set  $\Gamma \cup \Delta$  of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas, because  $(\mathfrak{C} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D})^{[R]}$  is  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]} \rightarrow \mathfrak{D}^{[R]}$ .  $(\mathfrak{C} \wedge \mathfrak{D})^{[R]} \equiv (\mathfrak{C} \wedge \mathfrak{D})$  is also deducible from the set  $\Gamma \cup \Delta$  of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas, because  $(\mathfrak{C} \wedge \mathfrak{D})^{[R]}$  is  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]} \wedge \mathfrak{D}^{[R]}$  which is equivalent to  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]} \wedge \mathfrak{D}^{[R]}$  for the  $R$ -closed propositions  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]}$  and  $\mathfrak{D}^{[R]}$  according to Lemma 1.  $(\mathfrak{C} \vee \mathfrak{D})^{[R]} \equiv (\mathfrak{C} \vee \mathfrak{D})$  is deducible from the set of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas

$$\Gamma \cup \Delta \cup \{(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{C} \vee \mathfrak{D})\}.$$

For,  $(\mathfrak{C} \vee \mathfrak{D})^{[R]}$  is  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]} \vee \mathfrak{D}^{[R]}$  which is equivalent to  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]} \vee \mathfrak{D}^{[R]}$  for the  $R$ -closed propositions  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]}$  and  $\mathfrak{D}^{[R]}$  according to Lemma 1, since it can be deduced from the above set of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas that  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]} \vee \mathfrak{D}^{[R]}$  i. e.  $\mathfrak{C} \vee \mathfrak{D}$  is also  $R$ -closed. Anyway, in all of these cases,  $\mathfrak{B}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{B}$  is deducible from a certain number of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas.

If we assume that  $\mathfrak{B}$  is  $\neg \mathfrak{C}$  and that  $\mathfrak{C}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{C}$  is deducible from the set  $\Gamma$  of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas, then  $\mathfrak{B}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{B}$  i. e.  $(\neg \mathfrak{C})^{[R]} \equiv \neg \mathfrak{C}$  is also deducible from the set of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas

$$\Gamma \cup \{(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \neg \mathfrak{C})\}.$$

For,  $(\neg \mathfrak{C})^{[R]}$  is  $\neg \mathfrak{C}^{[R]}$  which is equivalent to  $\neg \mathfrak{C}^{[R]}$ , hence also to  $\neg \mathfrak{C}$ , under the assumption  $\Gamma$  according to Lemma 1, since it can be deduced from the above set of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas that  $\neg \mathfrak{C}$  is also  $R$ -closed.

Now, let us assume that  $\mathfrak{B}$  is a formula of the forms  $(t)\mathfrak{C}(t)$  or  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{C}(t)$  and that  $\mathfrak{C}(u)^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{C}(u)$  is deducible from the set  $\Gamma(u)$  of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas of the form  $(\zeta)(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta, u))$ . Then,  $((t)\mathfrak{C}(t))^{[R]} \equiv (t)\mathfrak{C}(t)$  is deducible from  $\Gamma$ , because  $((t)\mathfrak{C}(t))^{[R]}$  is  $(t)(\mathfrak{C}(t))^{[R]}$ . Here,  $\Gamma$  denotes the set of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas  $(\zeta)(t)(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta, t))$  for every proposition of the form  $(\zeta)(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta, u))$  in  $\Gamma(u)$ .

$((\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t))^{[R]} \equiv (\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t)$  is deducible from the set of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas

$$\Gamma \cup \{(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv (\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t))\}$$

according to Lemma 1, since  $((\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t))^{[R]}$  i. e.  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t)^{[R]}$  is equivalent to  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t)$  under the assumption  $\Gamma$  and  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t)$  is proved to be equivalent to  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t)$  by assuming that  $(\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t)$  is  $R$ -closed, so by assuming  $(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv (\exists t)\mathfrak{G}(t))$ . Anyway, also in these cases,  $\mathfrak{B}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{B}$  is deducible from a certain number of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas.

Thus, we have shown that  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]} \equiv \mathfrak{A}$  is deducible from a set  $\Sigma$  of  $\mathfrak{A}$ -formulas in **LJ**. Because  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is assumed to be provable in **LJ**,  $\mathfrak{A}$  must be deducible from  $\Sigma$  in **LJ**. Hence, according to Lemma 5, there must be a normal cut-free proof  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  of the sequent  $\Sigma \vdash \mathfrak{A}$ .

Let us now list up all the free variables  $w$  occurring at least once in a part of the form  $R(\xi', w)$  of propositions in  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$ . Then, for any listed variable  $w$  there is one and only one  $w$ -tree  $\mathbf{T}(c)$ , because  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  is a normal cut-free proof of  $\Sigma \vdash \mathfrak{A}$  in which  $R$  occurs only in propositions of the form  $(\zeta)(\exists x)R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta)$  for  $\mathfrak{F}(\zeta)$  containing no  $R$  in  $\Sigma$ . Let us denote the function  $w$  to  $c$  by  $c = |w|$ . Then, for any listed variable  $w$ ,  $\mathbf{T}(|w|)$  contains the index  $|w|A$  and  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  contains an inference of the form

$$|w| : \Gamma, (\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\eta)) \vdash \Delta,$$

$$|w|A : \Gamma, R(\xi', w) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\eta) \vdash \Delta.$$

Thus, we can associate to every listed free variable  $w$  one and only one formula  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta)$  in the sequent  $[|w|]$ . I will denote the function  $w$  to  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta)$  by  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta) = R[w]$ .

Now, we transform  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  by the following rule: Delete every proposition in any sequent of  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  which has any part of the form  $R(\xi', x)$  for a bound variable  $x$ , and replace every part of the form  $R(x', w)$  of any other proposition in  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  for a free variable  $w$  ( $w$  is surely listed!) by the proposition  $R[w]$ .

For the proof-figure  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$ , for any sequent  $[b]$  for any sequence  $\Gamma$  of propositions, and for any proposition  $\mathfrak{G}$  in  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$ , let us denote the figure, the sequent, the sequence of propositions, and the proposition obtained by the above replacement from  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$ ,  $[b]$ ,  $\Gamma$  and  $\mathfrak{G}$  by  $\Pi^*[\mathbf{T}]$ ,  $[b]^*$ ,  $\Gamma^*$ , and  $\mathfrak{G}^*$ , respectively. Then, I assert that  $\Pi^*[\mathbf{T}]$  is a right proof-figure in **LJ**.

To show this, I will remark at first that any sequent  $[c]$  in  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  for a maximal index  $c$  of  $\mathbf{T}$  has no proposition containing a part of the form  $R(\xi', x)$  for a bound variable  $x$ . For,  $[c]$  must be a fundamental sequent of the form  $\mathfrak{M} \vdash \mathfrak{N}$  if  $c$  is a maximal index of  $\mathbf{T}$ . Because  $\Pi[\mathbf{T}]$  is cut-free, there must be a proposition among the propositions in  $\Sigma \vdash \mathfrak{A}$  having a sub-formula of the forms  $\mathfrak{M} \rightarrow \mathfrak{N}$ ,  $\mathfrak{N} \rightarrow \mathfrak{M}$ , or  $\neg \mathfrak{M}$ . However, this is impossible for any  $\mathfrak{M}$

having a part of the form  $R(\xi', x)$  for a bound variable  $x$ , because  $\Sigma$  consists of propositions of the form  $(\zeta)(\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\zeta))$  for  $\mathfrak{F}(\zeta)$  with no occurrence of  $R$  and the proposition  $\mathfrak{A}$  with no occurrence of  $R$ . Accordingly,  $[c]^*$  is also a fundamental sequent.

It can be easily checked by making use of Lemma 4 that *any inference of the form  $[b]$  from  $[bA]$  as well as any inference of the form  $[b]$  from  $[bB]$  and  $[bC]$  except for such  $b$  satisfying  $b = |w|$  for any listed variable  $w$  is transformed into a right inference  $[b]^*$  from  $[bA]^*$  or  $[b]^*$  from  $[bB]^*$  and  $[bC]^*$  of the same type.*

For any listed free variable  $w$ , the inference

$$\begin{aligned} |w| : \Gamma, (\exists x)(R(\xi', x) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\eta)) \vdash \Delta, \\ |w| A : \Gamma, R(\xi', w) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\eta) \vdash \Delta \end{aligned}$$

is transformed into

$$\begin{aligned} |w| : \Gamma^* \vdash \Delta^*, \\ |w| A : \Gamma^*, \mathfrak{F}(\eta) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\eta) \vdash \Delta^*, \end{aligned}$$

which forms a right inference in **LJ** because  $\mathfrak{F}(\eta) \equiv \mathfrak{F}(\eta)$  is provable in it.

Consequently,  $\Pi^*[\mathbf{T}]$  is a right proof-figure of the transformed sequent of  $\Sigma \vdash \mathfrak{A}$  which is surely  $\vdash \mathfrak{A}$ . Thus,  $\vdash \mathfrak{A}$  is provable in Gentzen's **LJ**.

Conversely, let us assume that  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in **LJ**. Then,  $\mathfrak{A}$  must be provable by making use of inference rules **F**, **I\***, **I**, **U\***, **U**, **C\***, **C**, **D\***, **D**, **E\***, **E**, and **N**. Accordingly,  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  must be provable if it is admitted to use **F**, **I\***, **I**, **U\***, **U**, **C\*R**, **CR**, **D\*R**, **DR**, **E\*R**, **ER**, and **NR** as inference rules for  $R$ -transforms of propositions. On the other hand, any inference of this kind is admitted in **LO** for  $R$ -closed propositions in **LO** as has been remarked before, and the  $R$ -transforms of propositions are surely  $R$ -closed. Hence,  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in **LO**.

**THEOREM 2.** *Any proposition  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in **LK** if and only if  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in **LO** for any proposition symbol (0-ary relation symbol)  $R$  which does not occur in  $\mathfrak{A}$ .*

**PROOF.** Let  $\mathfrak{A}$  be any proposition and  $R$  be any proposition symbol which does not occur in  $\mathfrak{A}$ .

I will prove at first that  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in **LK** if  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in **LO**. Because **LK** can be regarded as a logic stronger than **LO**, the proposition  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  is provable in **LK**. On the other hand, we can prove by virtue of Lemma 2 that  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  and  $\mathfrak{A}$  are mutually equivalent if we assume  $\wedge^{[R]} \equiv R$ . However, we can easily prove this in **LK**, so  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in **LK**.

Next, let us assume conversely that  $\mathfrak{A}$  is provable in **LK**. Then,  $\mathfrak{A}$  must be provable by making use of inference rules **F**, **I\***, **I**, **U\***, **U**, **C\***, **C**, **D\***, **D**, **E\***,

**E, N, and P.** So,  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  must be provable if it is admitted to use **F, I\*, I, U\*, U, C\*R, CR, D\*R, DR, E\*R, ER, NR, and PR** as inference rules for  $R$ -transforms of propositions. On the other hand, any inference of this kind is admitted for  $R$ -closed propositions in **LO** and the  $R$ -transforms of propositions are surely  $R$ -closed. Hence,  $\mathfrak{A}^{[R]}$  must be provable in **LO**.

The positive logics **LP** and **LQ** can be regarded as sub-logics of **LJ** and **LK**, respectively. Since **LJ** and **LK** can be faithfully interpreted in **LO** as has been shown in the preceding theorems, we see that *the positive logics LP and LQ can be also interpreted faithfully in LO.*

The minimal logics **LM** and **LN** can be regarded as the positive logics **LP** and **LQ**, respectively, when we regard  $\wedge$  as a proposition constant and define  $\neg \mathfrak{F}$  by  $\mathfrak{F} \rightarrow \wedge$ . Hence, we can see also that *LM and LN can be faithfully interpreted in LO.*

**(3) Remarks.**

REMARK 1. If we restrict ourselves to a formal system having the primitive notions  $\{\dots, A_i, \dots\}$  ( $A_i$  being  $n_i$ -ary relation symbol,  $n_i \leq n$ ) and unify these primitive notions into an  $(n+1)$ -ary single relation  $R$  by taking

$$(x_1) \dots (x_n)(A_i(x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}) \equiv R(a_i, x_1, \dots, x_{n_i}, \dots, x_n)),$$

we can give faithful interpretations of logical systems standing on **J-series** logics to a logical system standing on the primitive logic **LO**. In this case, any elementary proposition of the original system can be regarded as  $R$ -closed and  $\wedge, \vee, (\exists),$  and  $\neg$  behave exactly as *conjunction, disjunction, existential quantification,* and *negation* of the intuitionistic logic **LJ**, respectively.

I have adopted this device in my work [2]. Although it was not necessary to introduce the device for reducing **J-series** logics to **LO**, we can make use of this method to adjust the theory of my work [5] for **J-series** logics.

If we define proposition  $\mathfrak{F}$  by  $\mathfrak{F} \equiv (\xi)R(\xi)$  and define  $\wedge, \vee, (\exists),$  and  $\neg$  in **LO**, we can not regard every elementary proposition of the original system  $R$ -closed. However,  $\wedge, \vee, (\exists),$  and  $\neg$  behave exactly as *conjunction, disjunction, existential quantification,* and *negation* of the classical logic **LK** with respect to propositions constructed from  $\mathfrak{F}$ -transforms of elementary propositions of the original system.

REMARK 2. In my work [3], I have described a way of defining logical constants  $\wedge, \vee, (\exists),$  and  $\neg$  for any formal system having just one primitive notion  $R$ . In fact, we can define these logical constants so that they satisfy the inference rules of **LJ**. However, I am not yet certain about that these logical constants really behave just as the corresponding logical constants of

**LJ.**

For example, let us suppose a formal system **SA** having  $\in_0$  as its sole primitive notion and standing on the primitive logic **LO**. If we define  $\in$ ,  $\wedge$ ,  $\vee$ ,  $(\exists)$ , and  $\wedge$  by

$$\begin{aligned}x \in y &\equiv x \in_0 y, \\ \mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B} &\equiv (x)(y)((\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{B} \rightarrow x \in_0 y)) \rightarrow x \in_0 y), \\ \mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} &\equiv (x)(y)((\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow x \in_0 y) \rightarrow ((\mathfrak{B} \rightarrow x \in_0 y) \rightarrow x \in_0 y)), \\ (\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t) &\equiv (x)(y)((t)(\mathfrak{A}(t) \rightarrow x \in_0 y) \rightarrow x \in_0 y), \\ \wedge &\equiv (x)(y)x \in_0 y,\end{aligned}$$

we would have a formal system which behave similarly as the formal system **SJ** having  $\in$  as its sole primitive notion and standing on the intuitionistic logic **LJ**. However, **SA** might be stronger than **SJ**. It must be an interesting problem to decide whether **SA** is really stronger than **SJ** or not.

On the other hand, we would have a formal system **SB** which behave just as the formal system **SK** having  $\in$  as its sole primitive notion and standing on the classical logic **LK**, if we define  $\in$ ,  $\wedge$ ,  $\vee$ ,  $(\exists)$ , and  $\wedge$  by

$$\begin{aligned}x \in y &\equiv ((x \in_0 y \rightarrow (u)(v)u \in_0 v) \rightarrow (u)(v)u \in_0 v), \\ \mathfrak{A} \wedge \mathfrak{B} &\equiv ((\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow (\mathfrak{B} \rightarrow (u)(v)u \in_0 v)) \rightarrow (u)(v)u \in_0 v), \\ \mathfrak{A} \vee \mathfrak{B} &\equiv ((\mathfrak{A} \rightarrow (u)(v)u \in_0 v) \rightarrow \mathfrak{B}), \\ (\exists t)\mathfrak{A}(t) &\equiv ((t)(\mathfrak{A}(t) \rightarrow (u)(v)u \in_0 v) \rightarrow (u)(v)u \in_0 v), \\ \wedge &\equiv (u)(v)u \in_0 v.\end{aligned}$$

REMARK 3. In my work [4], I have described a way of unifying a finite number of primitive notions into a single one, deeming that any formal system having just one primitive notion has certain superiority according to my work [3]. However, it is still dubious as mentioned in the previous remark whether such system can boast to have such superiority in establishing formal theories standing on the intuitionistic predicate logic **LJ**. The device itself is naturally valid.

Mathematical Institute  
Nagoya University

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