

Yet Another Proof of the Strong Equivalence Between Propositional Theories and Logic Programs

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Abstract. Recently, the stable model semantics was extended to a more general syntax beyond the rule form. Cabalar and Ferraris, as well as Cabalar, Pearce, and Valverde, showed that any propositional theory under the stable model semantics can be turned into a logic program. In this note, we present yet another proof of this result. Unlike the other approaches that are based on the logic of here-and-there, our proof uses familiar properties of classical logic, and provides a different explanation of the reduction in terms of classical logic. Based on this idea, we present a prototype implementation of propositional theories under the stable model semantics by calling the answer set solver DLV. Using the same reduction idea, we also note that every first-order formula under the stable model semantics is strongly equivalent to a prenex normal form whose matrix has the form of a logic program.

1 Introduction

Recently, the stable model semantics was extended to a more general syntax, which is beyond the rule form [1, 2]. Ferraris [2] showed that nonmonotone aggregates can be naturally expressed in the extended syntax. On the other hand, Cabalar and Ferraris [3] showed that every propositional theory under the stable model semantics is strongly equivalent [4] to a logic program. They provided two proofs based on the logic of here-and-there, one by syntactic transformation, and the other by constructing a logic program using countermodels of the theory. An approach similar to the first proof was taken in [5], where the authors presented a set of rules for rewriting a propositional theory into a disjunctive logic program. These rules are an extension of the rules for turning a program with nested expressions into a logic program [6], which led to an implementation NLP [7]. The system is essentially a preprocessor to the answer set solver DLV¹ for handling programs with nested expressions.

In this note, we present yet another proof of the theorem on strong equivalence between propositional theories and logic programs. Unlike the other approaches that are based on the logic of here-and-there, our proof is based on an operator that characterizes strong equivalence in terms of classical logic, using an extended signature with two groups of atoms, the original one corresponding to the “there” world, and a group of newly introduced atoms referring to the “here” world. The proof uses familiar properties

¹<http://www.dbai.tuwien.ac.at/proj/dlv/> .

of classical logic, and provides a different explanation of the reduction in terms of classical logic. This not only shows that the reduction is possible, but also tells us how to *generate* strongly equivalent logic programs based on equivalence in classical logic.

The reduction idea has led us to develop a prototype implementation, which we call F2LP,² that computes the stable models of an arbitrary propositional theory. Similar to NLP, the system turns a propositional theory into a disjunctive logic program and calls DLV to compute the stable models.

We also apply the reduction idea to first-order formulas under the new definition of stable model semantics, recently proposed in [8]. We show that any first-order theory under the stable model semantics can be turned into a prenex normal form whose matrix has the form of a logic program. Thus the syntactic difference of arbitrarily nested connectives and quantifiers is not essential between the language proposed in [8] and logic programs. On the other hand, since the prenex normal form may contain existential quantifiers, it is different from a logic program, where all variables are assumed to be universally quantified.

In the next section we review the definition of stable models for arbitrary propositional formulas as well as the definition of strong equivalence for propositional formulas, and present how to find a logic program that is equivalent to a given formula. In Section 3 we present a simpler transformation, and in Section 4 we extend the reduction idea to arbitrary first-order formulas and note that every first-order theory is strongly equivalent to a prenex normal form. In Section 5 we present a prototype implementation of computing the stable models of propositional theories.

2 Reducing propositional formulas to logic programs

We first review the definition of a stable model proposed in [8], by restricting attention to the propositional case. This definition is closely related to the encoding of formulas in equilibrium logic by quantified Boolean formulas given in [9], and is equivalent to the fixpoint definition of a stable model proposed in [2].

Let F be a (propositional) formula and σ a signature consisting of all atoms p_1, \dots, p_n occurring in F . By $SM[F]$ we denote the second-order propositional sentence

$$F \wedge \forall \mathbf{u}((\mathbf{u} < \mathbf{p}) \rightarrow \neg F^*(\mathbf{u})),$$

where \mathbf{p} stands for the tuple p_1, \dots, p_n , \mathbf{u} is a list of n distinct propositional variables u_1, \dots, u_n , and $F^*(\mathbf{u})$ is defined recursively, as follows:

- $p_i^* = u_i$;
- $\perp^* = \perp$;
- $(F \odot G)^* = F^* \odot G^*$, where $\odot \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$;
- $(F \rightarrow G)^* = (F^* \rightarrow G^*) \wedge (F \rightarrow G)$.

We regard $\neg F$ as shorthand for $F \rightarrow \perp$. Note that \neg corresponds to *not* in the logic program syntax. For instance, the rule

$$p \leftarrow \text{not } q$$

² <http://peace.eas.asu.edu/f2lp> .

is identified with the formula

$$\neg q \rightarrow p .$$

The operator $F \mapsto F^*(\mathbf{u})$ replaces each atom with the corresponding propositional variable, and commutes with all propositional connectives except implication. If, in the definition of this operator, we drop the second conjunctive term in the clause for implication, then $F^*(\mathbf{u})$ will turn into the formula $F(\mathbf{u})$ referred to in the definition of circumscription [10, 11]. A model of F is *stable* if it satisfies $\text{SM}[F]$.

According to [12, Section 2.6], a (propositional) formula F is said to be strongly equivalent to a formula G if any formula F' that contains an occurrence of F has the same stable models as the formula G' obtained from F' by replacing that occurrence with G . This condition is more general than the original definition from [4] not only because it is applicable to arbitrary formulas, but also because F is allowed here to be any subformula of F' , not necessarily a “subconjunction.”

Our reduction idea is based on the following proposition from [8], which generalizes the main theorem from [13], telling us that the strong equivalence between the two formulas coincides with the equivalence (in classical logic) between their transformations of an extended signature. Let σ' be a signature consisting of distinct atoms $\{p'_1, \dots, p'_n\}$ that are disjoint from σ , and let \mathbf{p}' stand for the tuple p'_1, \dots, p'_n . Formula $F^*(\mathbf{p}')$ is obtained from $F^*(\mathbf{u})$ by substituting the atoms \mathbf{p}' for the tuple of propositional variables \mathbf{u} . Thus $F^*(\mathbf{p}')$ is a transformation of F whose signature is $\sigma \cup \sigma'$.

Proposition 1 [8, Proposition 5] *Formulas F and G of signature σ are strongly equivalent iff*

$$\mathbf{p}' \leq \mathbf{p} \rightarrow (F^*(\mathbf{p}') \leftrightarrow G^*(\mathbf{p}')) \quad (1)$$

is a tautology.

As usual, a formula F is in *negation normal form* if, for every subformula $G \rightarrow H$ of F , formula G is an atom, and H is \perp . An occurrence of a formula G in a formula F is *positive* if the number of implications in F containing the occurrence of G in the antecedent is even, and *negative* otherwise.

Definition 1. *An implication $F \rightarrow G$ of signature $\sigma \cup \sigma'$ is called a canonical implication if F and G are formulas in negation normal form such that every occurrence of atoms from σ' is positive, and every occurrence of atoms from σ is negative.*

For example,

$$p' \wedge q \rightarrow r$$

is not canonical, while

$$(p' \vee (\neg q \wedge r')) \rightarrow (s' \wedge \neg p) \quad (2)$$

is canonical.

Given a formula F of signature $\sigma \cup \sigma'$, by $R(F)$ we denote the formula of signature σ that is obtained from F by dropping all occurrences of $'$ in F . Note that $R(F)$, where F is a canonical implication, can be identified with a logic program with nested

expressions [6], by identifying ‘ \neg ’ with *not*, ‘ \wedge ’ with ‘;’, and ‘ \vee ’ with ‘;’. For instance, in logic programming notation, when F is (2), $R(F)$ can be written as

$$s, \text{ not } p \leftarrow p ; (\text{ not } q, r) .$$

The following theorem tells us how to obtain a logic program equivalent to a formula.

Theorem 1 *Given a formula F , if G is a conjunction of canonical implications that is equivalent to F^* , then F and $R(G)$ are strongly equivalent.*³

The proof of Theorem 1 uses the observation that

$$\mathbf{p}' \leq \mathbf{p} \rightarrow (F^* \leftrightarrow (R(G))^*) \quad (3)$$

is a tautology. In view of Proposition 1, it follows that F and $R(G)$ are strongly equivalent. The fact that every propositional theory is strongly equivalent to a logic program follows from the fact that every formula F^* can be equivalently rewritten as a conjunction of canonical implications. One way to do this is by forming a conjunctive normal form (CNF) of $F^*(\mathbf{p}')$, and then converting each of its clauses into a canonical implication as follows. Given a clause C of signature $\sigma \cup \sigma'$, by $Tr(C)$ we denote an implication whose antecedent is the conjunction of

- all p' where $\neg p' \in C$, and
- all $\neg p$ where $p \in C$,

and whose consequent is the disjunction of

- all p' where $p' \in C$, and
- all $\neg p$ where $\neg p \in C$.

For instance, if C is $(p' \vee \neg q' \vee r \vee \neg s)$, then $Tr(C)$ is $(q' \wedge \neg r \rightarrow p' \vee \neg s)$. We can take G in the statement of Theorem 1 to be the conjunction of $Tr(C)$ for all clauses C in a conjunctive normal form of F^* . In view of Proposition 1, it follows that every formula is strongly equivalent to a logic program of the form

$$a_1; \dots; a_k; \text{ not } a_{k+1}; \dots; \text{ not } a_l \leftarrow a_{l+1}, \dots, a_m, \text{ not } a_{m+1}, \dots, \text{ not } a_n$$

($0 \leq k \leq l \leq m \leq n$) where all a_i are atoms.

Example 1 $F = (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$.

$$\begin{aligned} ((p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r)^* &= (((p' \rightarrow q') \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow r') \wedge ((p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r) \\ &\leftrightarrow (p' \vee p \vee r') \wedge (\neg q' \vee p \vee r') \wedge (p' \vee \neg q \vee r') \wedge (\neg q' \vee \neg q \vee r') \\ &\quad \wedge (p \vee r) \wedge (\neg q \vee r) . \end{aligned}$$

³ For convenience, we will often drop “ (\mathbf{p}') ” from $F^*(\mathbf{p}')$ when there is no confusion.

Under the assumption that $(p', q', r') \leq (p, q, r)$, the formula can be simplified as

$$(p \vee r') \wedge (p' \vee \neg q \vee r') \wedge (\neg q' \vee r') \wedge (\neg q \vee r) .$$

Applying Tr to each clause yields the following formula G :

$$(\neg p \rightarrow r') \wedge (p' \vee \neg q \vee r') \wedge (q' \rightarrow r') \wedge (\neg r \rightarrow \neg q) . \quad (4)$$

Thus $R(G)$ is

$$(\neg p \rightarrow r) \wedge (p \vee \neg q \vee r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r) \wedge (\neg r \rightarrow \neg q) . \quad (5)$$

In logic programming notation, (5) can be written as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} r \leftarrow not\ p \\ p ; not\ q ; r \\ r \leftarrow q \\ not\ q \leftarrow not\ r . \end{array} \quad (6)$$

Theorem 1 tells us that logic program (6) is strongly equivalent to $(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$.

Example 2 $F = p \rightarrow ((q \rightarrow r) \vee s)$.

$$\begin{aligned} (p \rightarrow ((q \rightarrow r) \vee s))^* &= (p' \rightarrow (((q' \rightarrow r') \wedge (q \rightarrow r)) \vee s')) \wedge (p \rightarrow (q \rightarrow r) \vee s) \\ &\leftrightarrow (\neg p' \vee (((\neg q' \vee r') \wedge (\neg q \vee r)) \vee s')) \wedge (\neg p \vee (\neg q \vee r) \vee s) \\ &\leftrightarrow (\neg p' \vee \neg q' \vee r' \vee s') \wedge (\neg p' \vee \neg q \vee r \vee s') \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg q \vee r \vee s) . \end{aligned}$$

Applying Tr to each clause yields the following formula G :

$$(p' \wedge q' \rightarrow r' \vee s') \wedge (p' \wedge \neg r \rightarrow \neg q \vee s') \wedge (\neg r \wedge \neg s \rightarrow \neg p \vee \neg q) . \quad (7)$$

Thus $R(G)$ is

$$(p \wedge q \rightarrow r \vee s) \wedge (p \wedge \neg r \rightarrow \neg q \vee s) \wedge (\neg r \wedge \neg s \rightarrow \neg p \vee \neg q) . \quad (8)$$

In logic programming notation, (8) can be written as follows:

$$\begin{array}{l} r ; s \leftarrow p, q \\ not\ q ; s \leftarrow p, not\ r \\ not\ p ; not\ q \leftarrow not\ r, not\ s . \end{array} \quad (9)$$

Theorem 1 tells us that logic program (9) is strongly equivalent to formula $p \rightarrow ((q \rightarrow r) \vee s)$.

3 Simpler Transformation

The following observation shows how to disregard some redundancies with the translation introduced in the previous section.

Proposition 2 Let F be a propositional formula of signature σ . Under the assumption $\mathbf{p}' \leq \mathbf{p}$, if F^* is equivalent to $G \wedge H$ where G is a conjunction of canonical implications and H is a formula of signature σ that is entailed by $R(G)$, then F^* is equivalent to $(R(G))^*$.

Example 1' $F = (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$ as in Example 1. Note that in (4), the last implication $(\neg r \rightarrow \neg q)$ is entailed by

$$R((\neg p \rightarrow r') \wedge (p' \vee \neg q \vee r') \wedge (q' \rightarrow r')).$$

Therefore, by Proposition 2, F^* is equivalent to

$$((\neg p \rightarrow r) \wedge (p \vee \neg q \vee r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r))^*.$$

In other words, in view of Proposition 1, F is strongly equivalent to the first three rules of (6).

Example 2' $F = p \rightarrow ((q \rightarrow r) \vee s)$ as in Example 2. Note that in (7), the last implication is entailed by

$$R((p' \wedge q' \rightarrow r' \vee s') \wedge (p' \wedge \neg r \rightarrow \neg q \vee s')).$$

Therefore in view of Proposition 2, F^* is equivalent to

$$((p \wedge q \rightarrow r \vee s) \wedge (p \wedge \neg r \rightarrow \neg q \vee s))^*.$$

In other words, in view of Proposition 1, F is strongly equivalent to the first two rules of (9).

Based on Proposition 2, we consider the following definition that will lead to a smaller translation than relying on F^* .

Definition 2. For any formula F of signature σ , $F^\diamond(\mathbf{u})$ is defined as follows:

- $p_i^\diamond = u_i$;
- $\perp^\diamond = \perp$;
- $(F \vee G)^\diamond = F^* \vee G^*$;
- $(F \wedge G)^\diamond = F^\diamond \wedge G^\diamond$;
- $(F \rightarrow G)^\diamond = (F^* \rightarrow G^*)$.

Note that F^\diamond is different from F^* when we identify F with a conjunction $F_1 \wedge \dots \wedge F_n$ ($n \geq 1$), F^\diamond is

$$F_1^\diamond \wedge \dots \wedge F_n^\diamond$$

where

$$F_i^\diamond = \begin{cases} G^* \rightarrow H^* & \text{if } F_i \text{ is } G \rightarrow H, \\ F_i^* & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The following proposition tells us that, in Theorem 1, F^\diamond can be considered in place of F^* .

Proposition 3 Given a formula F , if G is a conjunction of canonical implications that is equivalent to F° , then F and $R(G)$ are strongly equivalent.

Example 1'' $F = (p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$ as in Example 1. Under the assumption that $(p', q', r') \leq (p, q, r)$,

$$\begin{aligned} F^\circ(p', q', r') &= ((p' \rightarrow q') \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow r' \\ &\leftrightarrow (p \vee r') \wedge (p' \vee \neg q \vee r') \wedge (\neg q' \vee r') \\ &\leftrightarrow (\neg p \rightarrow r') \wedge (p' \vee \neg q \vee r') \wedge (q' \rightarrow r') . \end{aligned}$$

Thus F is strongly equivalent to

$$(\neg p \rightarrow r) \wedge (p \vee \neg q \vee r) \wedge (q \rightarrow r) ,$$

which is the same as in Example 1'.

Example 2'' $F = p \rightarrow ((q \rightarrow r) \vee s)$ as in Example 2. Under the assumption that $(p', q', r', s') \leq (p, q, r, s)$,

$$\begin{aligned} F^\circ(p', q', r', s) &= p' \rightarrow (((q' \rightarrow r') \wedge (q \rightarrow r)) \vee s') \\ &\leftrightarrow (\neg p' \vee \neg q' \vee r' \vee s') \wedge (\neg p' \vee \neg q \vee r \vee s') \\ &\leftrightarrow (p' \wedge q' \rightarrow r' \vee s') \wedge (p' \wedge \neg r \rightarrow \neg q \vee s') . \end{aligned}$$

Thus F is strongly equivalent to

$$(p \wedge q \rightarrow r \vee s) \wedge (p \wedge \neg r \rightarrow \neg q \vee s) ,$$

which is the same as in Example 2'.

Due to lack of space, we do not provide a detailed comparison between our translation method and the others. However, we note that Theorem 1 not only shows that the reduction is possible, but also tells us how to generate strongly equivalent logic programs of preferably smaller size, based on the notion of equivalence in classical logic. This is in contrast with the others based on syntactic rewriting rules under the logic of here-and-there. For instance, given a formula

$$((p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r) \rightarrow r$$

our translation yields the following program:

$$\begin{aligned} q ; r ; \text{not } r \leftarrow p \\ \text{not } p \leftarrow \text{not } q . \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, the following program is obtained according to Section 3 of [5].

$$\begin{aligned} \text{not } p ; r \leftarrow \text{not } q \\ r \leftarrow r \\ q ; r ; \text{not } r \leftarrow p \\ \text{not } p ; r ; \text{not } r \leftarrow \text{not } q . \end{aligned}$$

However, clearly, any translation according to Proposition 3 (or Theorem 1) involves an exponential blowup in size in the worst case. Indeed, it is shown in [5] that there is no polynomial translation from propositional theories to logic programs if we do not introduce new atoms, and that there is one if we allow them.

4 Prenex Normal Form of First-Order Formulas

The translation from an arbitrary propositional theory into a logic program shows that their syntactic difference is not essential, which allows existing answer set solvers to compute the stable models of arbitrary propositional formulas. Can the result be extended to first-order formulas, of which the stable model semantics is presented in [8]?

We begin with a review of the stable model semantics presented in [8], which extends the definition of a stable model reviewed in Section 2 to first-order sentences. Given a first-order sentence F , by $\text{SM}[F]$ we denote the second-order sentence

$$F \wedge \forall \mathbf{u}((\mathbf{u} < \mathbf{p}) \rightarrow \neg F^*(\mathbf{u})),$$

where \mathbf{p} stands for the list of all predicate constants p_1, \dots, p_n occurring in F , \mathbf{u} is a list of n distinct predicate variables u_1, \dots, u_n , and $F^*(\mathbf{u})$ is defined recursively, as follows:

- $p_i(t_1, \dots, t_m)^* = u_i(t_1, \dots, t_m)$;
- $(t_1 = t_2)^* = (t_1 = t_2)$;
- $\perp^* = \perp$;
- $(F \odot G)^* = F^* \odot G^*$, where $\odot \in \{\wedge, \vee\}$;
- $(F \rightarrow G)^* = (F^* \rightarrow G^*) \wedge (F \rightarrow G)$;
- $(QxF)^* = QxF^*$, where $Q \in \{\forall, \exists\}$.

A model of F is *stable* if it satisfies $\text{SM}[F]$. For the definition of strong equivalence extended to first-order formulas, we refer the reader to Section 4 of [8].

Proposition 1 can be extended to the case where F and G are first-order formulas [8, Proposition 5], and F^* can be turned into a prenex normal form. Also, Theorem 1 can be straightforwardly extended to quantifier-free first-order formulas, as follows.

A first-order formula F is in *negation normal form* if, for every subformula $G \rightarrow H$ of F ,

- formula G is an atomic formula, and
- formula H is \perp .

Similarly, signature σ' is obtained from σ by replacing all predicate constants p with p' .

Definition 3. An implication $F \rightarrow G$ of signature $\sigma \cup \sigma'$ is called a *canonical implication* if F and G are formulas in negation normal form such that every occurrence of predicate constants from σ' is positive, and every occurrence of predicate constants from σ is negative.

For any clause C in a CNF of a quantifier-free first order formula, $Tr(C)$ can be extended in a straightforward way. The equality can be placed either in the consequent or the antecedent (properly negated).

Theorem 2 *Any first-order formula under the stable model semantics is strongly equivalent to a prenex normal form whose matrix is a conjunction of implications $F \rightarrow G$ where F and G are formulas in negation normal form.*

The matrix of a prenex normal form indicated in Theorem 2 is in the form of a logic program. Thus, similar to the propositional case, the syntactic difference of arbitrarily nested connectives and quantifiers is not essential between the new language proposed in [8] and logic programs. On the other hand, since the prenex normal form may contain existential quantifiers, it is different from a logic program, where all variables are assumed to be universally quantified. For instance, according to [8], the stable models of formula

$$\exists x p(x) . \tag{10}$$

represent that p is a singleton, as in circumscription. This has no counterpart in logic programs, since their stable models are limited to Herbrand interpretations. For a related discussion, see [14].

5 Implementation

Our implementation, which we call F2LP, turns an arbitrary propositional theory into a logic program and calls DLV to compute its stable models. When the input is already in the syntax of DLV input language, its operation is just as what DLV does. The system is available at

<http://peace.eas.asu.edu/f2lp> .

The ASCII representations of propositional connectives used in the syntax of F2LP are summarized in the following chart:

Symbol	\neg	\wedge	\vee	\rightarrow	\perp	\top
ASCII representation	not	&		->	false	true

Example 1 is written in the syntax of F2LP as follows:

$(p \rightarrow q) \rightarrow r$.

F2LP turns this formula into the following DLV input:

```
r :- not p.
p | r | q_bar :- .
r :- q.
q_bar :- not q.
:- q, q_bar.
```

Note that this program is slightly different from the logic program shown in Example 1' (the first three rules of (6)). This is because DLV, like most other answer set solvers, does not allow negation as failure in the head of a rule. However, it can be simulated by introducing new atoms (Section 4 of [15]). The method replaces the occurrence of $not\ p$ in the head of a rule with a new atom \bar{p} , and adds rules $\bar{p} \leftarrow not\ p$ and $\leftarrow p, \bar{p}$. The stable models of the program correspond to the stable models of the original program by disregarding the presence of the new atoms. In the example above, q_bar is a new atom that is introduced, and the last two rules are added. After F2LP calls DLV to compute the stable models, it removes all occurrences of the new atoms (“_bar”) from the stable models returned by DLV.

Example 2 is written in our syntax as follows:

```
p -> ((q->r) | s).
```

This is turned into the following DLV input by F2LP:

```
r | s :- p, q.
q_bar | s :- p, not r.
q_bar :- not q.
:- q, q_bar.
```

6 Conclusion

Our contributions in this note are as follows. First, we presented a new proof of the theorem on strong equivalence between propositional theories and logic programs. Unlike the other approaches that are based on the logic of here-and-there, our proof relies on familiar properties of classical logic. Due to this fact, our proof indicates how corresponding logic programs can be generated using equivalent transformations in classical logic. Second, using the same reduction idea, we showed that arbitrary first-order formulas under the stable model semantics, recently proposed in [8], can be turned into a prenex normal form whose matrix has the form of a logic program. Third, we presented a prototype implementation for computing the stable models of arbitrary propositional formulas based on the reduction method.

For future work, we plan to investigate how the methods of obtaining minimally equivalent theories in classical logic can be applied to finding minimally equivalent logic programs. Recently, Cabalar *et al.* [16] proposed two notions of minimal logic programs. It would be interesting to see how these ideas are related.

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A Appendix: Proof of Theorem 1

Due to lack of space, we present the proof of Theorem 1 only, which follows immediately from Proposition 1 and the following proposition.

Proposition 4 *Let F be a formula of signature σ and G a conjunction of canonical implications that is equivalent to F^* . Then*

$$\mathbf{p}' \leq \mathbf{p} \rightarrow (F^* \leftrightarrow (R(G))^*)$$

is a tautology.

The proof of Proposition 4 uses the following lemmas.

Lemma 1. *For any formula F of signature σ , the formula*

$$\mathbf{p}' \leq \mathbf{p} \rightarrow (F^*(\mathbf{p}') \rightarrow F)$$

is logically valid.

Proof. By induction. ■

Lemma 2. *Every formula F is equivalent to $R(F^*)$.*

Proof. By induction.

Lemma 3. *For any two formulas F and G of signature $\sigma \cup \sigma'$,*

$$(F \leftrightarrow G) \rightarrow (R(F) \leftrightarrow R(G))$$

is a tautology.

Proof. Assume that $F \leftrightarrow G$ holds for all interpretations of $\sigma \cup \sigma'$. In particular, they contain interpretations I such that $p^I = (p')^I$ for all $p \in \mathbf{p}$. It is clear that for such interpretations I , $F^I = R(F)^I$ and $G^I = R(G)^I$, from which $R(F)^I = R(G)^I$ follows. Since such I range over all interpretations of σ , it follows that $R(F) \leftrightarrow R(G)$. ■

Lemma 4. *Let F be a formula in negation normal form of signature $\sigma \cup \sigma'$ such that every occurrence of atoms from σ' is positive, and every occurrence of atoms from σ is negative. Then*

$$\mathbf{p}' \leq \mathbf{p} \rightarrow (F \leftrightarrow (R(F))^*)$$

is a tautology.

Proof. By induction using Proposition 2 from [8]. ■

Lemma 5. *For any canonical implication F of signature $\sigma \cup \sigma'$,*

$$(\mathbf{p}' \leq \mathbf{p}) \rightarrow ((F \wedge R(F)) \leftrightarrow (R(F))^*)$$

is a tautology.

Proof. By induction using Lemma 4 and the definition of R . ■

Proof of Proposition 4. Assume $\mathbf{p}' \leq \mathbf{p}$ and $F^* \leftrightarrow G$. By Lemma 1, $F^* \rightarrow F$ holds, so it holds that F^* is equivalent to $G \wedge F$. Since F is equivalent to $R(F^*)$ according to Lemma 2, $G \wedge F$ is equivalent to $G \wedge R(F^*)$, which, in turn, is equivalent to $G \wedge R(G)$ according to Lemma 3. by Lemma 5, it follows that $G \wedge R(G)$ is equivalent to $(R(G))^*$. ■

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