# The Drinker Paradox and its Dual 

Louis Warren and Hannes Diener and Maarten McKubre-Jordens Department of Mathematics and Statistics University of Canterbury

May 17, 2018


#### Abstract

The Drinker Paradox is as follows. In every nonempty tavern, there is a person such that if that person is drinking, then everyone in the tavern is drinking.


Formally,

$$
\exists x(\varphi \rightarrow \forall y \varphi[x / y]) .
$$

Due to its counterintuitive nature it is called a paradox, even though it actually is a classical tautology. However, it is not minimally (or even intuitionistically) provable. The same can be said of its dual, which is (equivalent to) the well-known principle of independence of premise,

$$
\varphi \rightarrow \exists x \psi \vdash \exists x(\varphi \rightarrow \psi)
$$

where $x$ is not free in $\varphi$.
In this paper we study the implications of adding these and other formula schemata to minimal logic. We show first that these principles are independent of the law of excluded middle and of each other, and second how these schemata relate to other well-known principles, such as Markov's Principle of unbounded search, providing proofs and semantic models where appropriate.

## 1 Introduction

Minimal logic 11 provides, as its name suggests, a minimal setting for logical investigations. Starting from minimal logic, we can get to intuitionistic logic, by adding ex falso quodlibet (EFQ), and to classical logic, by adding double negation elimination (DNE) ${ }^{11}$ Therefore, every statement proven over minimal logic can also be proven in intuitionistic logic and classical logic. In addition, minimal logic has many structural advantages, and is easier to analyse. Of course, there is a price one has to pay for working within a weak framework. The price is that fewer well-known statements are provable outright, which leads to the question how they relate. This is a very similar question to the one considered in constructive reverse mathematics (CRM; [8, 5]), whose aim it is to find some ordering in a multitude of principles, over intuitionistic logic. CRM has been around for some decades now, and some even trace the origins back to Brouwerian counterexamples. Most results in CRM are focused on analysis, where most theorems can be classified into being equivalent to about ten major principles. It is a natural question to ask whether we can find similar results in the absence of EFQ. Previous work by a subset of the authors [6] has investigated the case of propositional schemata, but has left the predicate case

[^0]untouched. Similar work can also be found in [7, 10]. A more detailed approach, but again focused on the propositional case can be found in [9, where it was studied exactly which instances of an axiom scheme are required to prove a given instance of another axiom scheme over minimal logic. In this paper we will make first steps in the predicate case. As is so often the case, the first-order analysis is subtler and technically more difficult to deal with.

For the sake of brevity and readability we have only included non-trivial proofs. The missing proofs, which are in natural deduction style, have been put into an appendix. A version of this paper including that appendix will be made available on arxiv.org under the same title.

## 2 Technical Preliminaries

We will generally follow the notation and definitions found in [11].
An $n$-ary scheme $\operatorname{SCH}\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ is a formula SCH containing $n$ propositional variables $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$. An instance $\operatorname{SCH}\left(\Phi_{1}, \ldots, \Phi_{n}\right)$ is obtained by replacing the variables with formulae $\Phi_{1}, \ldots, \Phi_{n}$. A scheme is derivable in a logical system if every instance is derivable in that system. A scheme is minimal (constructive) (classical) if it is derivable in minimal (intuitionistic) (classical) logic.
Example 1. The law of excluded middle, $\operatorname{LEM}(\Phi):=\Phi \vee \neg \Phi$ is a classical unary scheme.
A logical system can be extended by adding that certain schemata are derivable in the system.
In the case of natural deduction and minimal logic, an extension by LEM is an addition of a deduction rule

$$
\overline{\alpha \vee \neg \alpha} \operatorname{LEM}(\alpha)
$$

for every formula $\alpha$. This produces a subsystem of classical logic.
More general, if a formula $\Phi$ is derivable over minimal (intuitionistic) logic extended by schemata $A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$, then we write

$$
\vdash_{A_{0}+A_{1}+\cdots+A_{n}} \Phi
$$

$\left(\vdash_{i+A_{0}+A_{1}+\cdots+A_{n}} \Phi\right)$. Moreover, if $B$ is an $n$-ary scheme, and for all formulae $\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}$,

$$
\vdash_{A_{0}+A_{1}+\cdots+A_{n}} B\left(\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{n}\right),
$$

then we write

$$
\vdash_{A_{0}+A_{1}+\cdots+A_{n}} B .
$$

Extending a logic by a scheme differs from allowing undischarged assumptions of instances of the scheme. For example, it should follow from LEM that every predicate is decidable. Consider the proof of $\vdash_{\text {LEM }} \forall x(P x \vee \neg P x)$ :

$$
\frac{\overline{P x \vee \neg P x} \text { LEM }}{\forall_{x}(P x \vee \neg P x)} \forall \mathrm{I}
$$

The proof uses LEM $(P x)$. However,

$$
\operatorname{LEM}(P x) \nvdash \forall x(P x \vee \neg P x),
$$

since the rule $\forall \mathrm{I}$ requires that $x$ is not free in any open assumptions. ${ }^{2}$
It is trivial to check that the following holds.

[^1]Proposition 2. Define $\operatorname{DNE}(\Phi):=\neg \neg \Phi \rightarrow \Phi$, and $E F Q(\Phi):=\perp \rightarrow \Phi$. For all (finite) collections of schemata $S$ and $T$,

$$
S \vdash_{i} T \Longleftrightarrow S \vdash_{E F Q} T
$$

and

$$
S \vdash_{c} T \Longleftrightarrow S \vdash_{D N E} T
$$

A preorder $\supset$ may be defined on finite collections of schemata by considering derivability over extensions of minimal logic.
Definition 3. For schemata $A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots, A_{n}$ and $B_{0}, B_{1}, \ldots, B_{m}$, we write

$$
\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots A_{n}\right\} \supset\left\{B_{0}, B_{1}, \ldots B_{m}\right\}
$$

if

$$
\vdash_{A_{0}+A_{1}+\cdots+A_{n}} B_{i}
$$

for $0 \leqslant i \leqslant m$. For simplicity, when $m=0$ we write $\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots A_{n}\right\} \supset B$, and say that $B$ is reducible to $A_{0}, \ldots A_{n}$. Where unambiguous, if $n=0$ we write $A \supset B$.

To demonstrate that $\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots A_{n}\right\} \not \supset B$, we exhibit a Kripke model (see Section 5.3 of [4] for more details on Kripke semantics $\xi^{3}$ ) in which an instance of $B$ does not hold, but where $A_{0}, \ldots A_{n}$ hold for every formula. A full model, as described in [6], is sufficient. A full model is one where we can freely create predicates, as long as they satisfy the usual monotonicity requirements. So it is full in the sense that everything that potentially is the interpretation of a predicate actually is one. In Section 5 we will have to consider non-full models. An intuitionistic Kripke model is one where $\perp$ is never forced at any world. These are exactly the Kripke models that force EFQ.

Proposition 4. If $\vdash_{B_{0}+\cdots+B_{m}} \Phi$, and $\left\{A_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots A_{n}\right\} \supset\left\{B_{0}, B_{1}, \ldots B_{n}\right\}$, then $\vdash_{A_{0}+\cdots+A_{n}} \Phi$.
Proof. Consider a natural deduction proof of $\vdash_{B_{0}+\cdots+B_{m}} \Phi$. For each $k$, replace each instance of the rule $B_{k}$ with a proof of $\vdash_{A_{0}+\cdots+A_{n}} B_{k}$. This produces the required derivation.

We examine relative strengths of a selection of schemata by considering their relations under ' $\supset$ '. The renaming of bound variables in a scheme should not affect its strength. For simplicity of notation, it is therefore assumed that when working a predicate $P x$, any variables other than $x$ which appear in quantifiers are bound in $P x$. We write $P y$ as shorthand for $P x[x / y]$.

## 3 Principles

In addition to DNE, LEM, and EFQ, which are included below for convenience, we examine the following principles as axiom schemata over minimal logic:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{DNE}(A):=\neg \neg A \rightarrow A \\
& \operatorname{EFQ}(A):=\perp \rightarrow A
\end{aligned}
$$

(Ex Falso Quodlibet5)

[^2]$\operatorname{LEM}(A):=A \vee \neg A$
(Law of Excluded Middle ${ }^{6}$ )
$\operatorname{WLEM}(A):=\neg A \vee \neg \neg A$
(Weak Law of Excluded Middle)
$$
\operatorname{DGP}(A, B):=(A \rightarrow B) \vee(B \rightarrow A)
$$
(Dirk Gently's Principle ${ }^{7}$ )
$\mathrm{DP}(P x):=\exists y(P y \rightarrow \forall x P x)$
(Drinker Paradox)
$\mathrm{H} \varepsilon(P x):=\exists y(\exists x P x \rightarrow P y)$
(Schematic Form of Hilbert's Epsilon)
$\operatorname{GMP}(P x):=\forall x \neg P x \rightarrow \exists y \neg P y$
(General Markov's Principle)
$\operatorname{GLPO}(P x):=\forall x \neg P x \vee \exists x P x$
(General Limited Principle of Omniscience)
$\mathrm{GLPO}^{\prime}(P x):=\forall x P x \vee \exists x \neg P x$
(Alternate General Principle of Omniscience)
$\mathrm{DNS}_{\exists}(P x):=\forall x \neg \neg P x \rightarrow \neg \neg \forall x P x$
(Existential Double Negation Shift)
$\mathrm{DNS}_{\forall}(P x):=\neg \neg \exists x P x \rightarrow \exists x \neg \neg P x$
(Universal Double Negation Shift)
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{UD}(P x, Q):=\forall x(P x \vee \exists x Q) \rightarrow \forall x P x \vee \exists x Q \\
& \mathrm{IP}(P x, Q):=(\exists x Q \rightarrow \exists x P x) \rightarrow \exists x(\exists x Q \rightarrow P x) \\
& \text { (Universal Distribution) }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

These principles are all classically derivable. That is, DNE implies all of these principles in the sense of $\supset$.

Principles UD and IP are also stated as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathrm{UD}(P, Q) & \equiv \forall x(P x \vee Q) \rightarrow \forall x P x \vee Q \\
\operatorname{IP}(P, Q) & \equiv(Q \rightarrow \exists x P x) \rightarrow \exists x(Q \rightarrow P x)
\end{aligned}
$$

where $x$ is not free in $Q$. These forms are syntactically equivalent to the definitions above for such $Q$, but the variable freedom condition is not convenient to work with when classifying schemata.

## 4 The Drinker Paradox and Hilbert's Epsilon

The drinker paradox, which was popularised by Smullyan in his book of puzzles [12], is the scheme

$$
\mathrm{DP}(P):=\exists_{y}\left(P y \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x\right) .
$$

[^3]

Figure 1: Kripke countermodel for $\mathrm{DP}(P)$ and $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon(Q)$

Liberally interpreted, it states that (in every nonempty tavern) there exists a person such that if that person is drinking, then everyone (in the tavern) is drinking.

Classically this is true because there is always a last person to be drinking, and it is true for that person. Due to various non-classical interpretations of "there is", however, countermodels may be formed (see below). Notably, the constructivist may object that it is not always clear who is the last to drink- except in the case of a tavern in which the number of patrons is an enumerable positive integer amount.

The drinker paradox can alternatively be stated as

$$
\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P y \rightarrow P x) \square^{8}
$$

The dual of the drinker paradox is the scheme

$$
\mathrm{H} \varepsilon(P):=\exists_{y}\left(\exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P y\right),
$$

or alternatively,

$$
\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P x \rightarrow P y) .
$$

$\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ resembles an axiom scheme form of Hilbert's Epsilon operator [2]. In particular, within a natural deduction proof, from $\exists_{x} P x$ it allows a temporary name for a term satisfying $P$ to be introduced. It is equivalent to Independence of Premise

$$
\operatorname{IP}(P, Q):=(\exists x Q \rightarrow \exists x P x) \rightarrow \exists x(\exists x Q \rightarrow P x)
$$

This does not have the same power as Hilbert's Epsilon operator, however 9
We will now characterise (full Kripke) models in which DP and/or $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ hold, and use these to separate the two schemata. We will ignore models containing disconnected states (i.e. models where there are pairs of states such that every state related to one is unrelated to the other), as these can be examined by the characteristics of the individual components.

First consider a model with states $A \preceq B$ where there is a term $t \in T(B) \backslash T(A)$ (for example Figure 11). Create a predicate $P$ with $A \Vdash P s$ for all $s \in T(A)$ (and take the upwards closure). Now $B \Vdash P t$, so $A \Vdash P s \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x$, so DP fails. Furthermore, create a predicate $Q$ with $B \Vdash Q t$ (and take the upwards closure). Then $B \Vdash \exists_{x} Q x$, but $B \Vdash$ 多 for any $s \in T(A)$. Thus H $\varepsilon$ fails at $A$. Hence any model for either DP or $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ must have the same terms known at every related pair of states. We will from now on consider only these models. Moreover, note that a system with only one term at each state trivially models DP and $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$.

Now consider a model with a branch in it, i.e. there are states $A, B, C$ such that $A \preceq B$, $A \preceq C$, and $B$ is not related to $C$. Assume there are at least two distinct terms understood at

[^4]$A$. Let $t$ be one such term. Then create a predicate $P$ with $B \Vdash P t$, and $C \Vdash P s$ for all terms $s \in T(A): s \neq t$ (and any other states forcing these atomic formulae as required to maintain upwards closure). Certainly neither $B$ nor $C$ force $\forall_{x} P x$, but for every $u \in T(A)$ either $B$ or $C$ forces $P u$, so DP fails at $A$. Furthermore if $u \in T(A)$ then either $B$ or $C$ will fail to force $P u$, but both states force $\exists_{x} P x$, so $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ also fails at $A$. Hence any model for DP or $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ with more than two terms must have no branches, i.e. be totally ordered.


Figure 2: Kripke countermodel for both $\mathrm{DP}(P)$ and $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon(P)$
Consider then a linear model with $n \in \mathbb{N}$ terms. Given a predicate $Q$ if every state forces $Q t$ for every term, or if every state does not force $Q t$ for any term, then both DP and $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ trivially hold (by applying the classical reasoning), so we may suppose that this is not the case. For each term $t$, assign a set $U_{t}=\{A \in \Sigma \mid A \Vdash Q t\}$. By upwards closure (and the assumed linearity), if $t$ and $s$ are terms then either $U_{t} \subseteq U_{s}$ or $U_{s} \subseteq U_{t}$, meaning these sets are totally ordered with respect to the subset relation. There are finitely many of them, so there must be a maximal set $U_{t_{\text {max }}}$ with associated term $t_{\max }$. Suppose a state $A$ forces $Q t_{\max }$. Then $A \notin U_{t_{\max }}$, and so $A \notin U_{s}$ for every term $s$. Thus $A$ forces $Q s$. Hence $Q_{t_{\max }} \rightarrow \forall_{x} Q x$ holds in the model, and so this is a model for DP. A similar argument shows $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ also holds, using sets $V_{t}=\{A \in \Sigma \mid A \Vdash Q t\}$, and in particular the maximal set $V_{t_{0}}$, to show that $\exists_{x} Q x \rightarrow Q_{t_{0}}$ is forced everywhere.

We now know that to separate DP and $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ we require linear models with infinitely many terms.

Proposition 5. HE does not imply DP in intuitionistic logic.
Proof. Consider the (intuitionistic) Kripke model with infinitely many worlds below. In general, $A_{n} \preceq A_{n+1}$ and $A_{n} \Vdash P 0 \ldots P n$.


No state forces $\forall_{x} P x$, but for any term $t \in T\left(A_{0}\right)$ we have $A_{0} \preceq A_{t}$ and $A_{t} \Vdash P t$. Therefore $A_{0} \Vdash \exists_{y}\left(P y \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x\right)$, i.e. DP does not hold in this model. (In fact, this argument works for any state.)

Now consider any predicate $Q x$ in this model. If there is no state forcing $Q t$ for some $t \in \mathbb{N}$, then trivially every state forces $\exists_{x} Q x \rightarrow Q 0$, and it follows that $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ is forced. On the other hand, if there are $i, t \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A_{i} \Vdash Q t$, then choose a pair $i, t$ with minimal $i$. Then, by upwards closure, $\exists_{x} Q x \rightarrow Q t$ is forced by every state. Hence every state forces $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$.

The above model is also a countermodel for $\mathrm{DNS}_{\forall}$. As $\perp P t$ is not forced at any world for any $t, A_{0} \Vdash \forall x \neg \neg P x$. However $A_{0} \Vdash \neg \forall x P x$, so $A \Vdash \operatorname{DNS}_{\forall}(P)$.

Proposition 6. DP does not imply $H \varepsilon$ in intuitionistic logic.
Proof. Consider the (intuitionistic) Kripke system with states $A_{0} \succeq A_{-1} \succeq A_{-2} \succeq \ldots \succeq A_{-\infty}$. Let $T(B)=\mathbb{N}$ for every state $B$. Set $F\left(A_{-\infty}\right)=\emptyset$, and $F\left(A_{-n}\right)=\{P n, P(n+1), P(n+2), \ldots\}$.


Let $t \in T\left(A_{-\infty}\right)$. Then $A_{-(t+1)} \Vdash P$. However, $A_{-(t+1)} \Vdash P(t+1)$, so $A_{-(t+1)} \Vdash \exists_{x} P x$. Therefore $A_{-(t+1)}$ 壮 $\exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P t$. Thus $A_{-\infty} \Vdash \exists_{y}\left(\exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P t\right)$, so $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ does not hold in this model.

Now consider any predicate $Q x$ in this model. If every state forces $\forall_{x} P x$, then trivially they also force $\exists_{y}\left(P y \rightarrow \forall_{x} Q x\right)$. On the other hand, if there are $i, t \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A_{-i} \Vdash Q t$ then choose a pair $i, t$ with minimal $i$ (i.e. maximal $A_{-i}$ ). Then by upwards closure, whenever $Q t$ is forced, $\forall_{x} Q x$ is also forced. Hence every state forces $Q t \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x$, and so also forces $D P$.

In general, if a model contains an infinite sequence of states $A_{0} \preceq A_{1} \preceq \cdots$, then a predicate $P$ can be constructed as in 5 in order to contradict DP. On the other hand if no such sequence exists then every sequence of related states has a maximal element. Following reasoning in 6 shows that DP will hold in such a model.

Conversely, if a model contains an infinite sequence of states $B_{0} \succeq B_{-1} \succeq \cdots$, along with an element $B_{-\infty}$ which precedes every state in the sequence, then $P$ may be constructed as in 6, contradicting $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$.

If, on the other hand, no such states exist, then every set of related states either contains a minimal element or has no lower bound, i.e. every set of states contains its infimum. Let $A$ be
a state in such a model. Now consider

$$
S=\left\{B \in \Sigma \mid A \preceq B \wedge B \Vdash \exists_{x} P x\right\} .
$$

If $S=\emptyset$, then vacuously $A \Vdash \exists_{t} P x \rightarrow P t$ for every term $t$, so $A$ forces $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$. Otherwise, note that $A$ is certainly a lower bound for $S$. By the above assumption, $S$ must have a minimum element $B$. Now $B \Vdash \exists_{x} P x$ so $B \Vdash P t$ for some $t$. By upwards closure, $C \Vdash P t$ for every $C \succeq B$, and so specifically for all $C \in S$. Thus whenever $A \preceq C$ and $C \Vdash \exists_{x} P x$, we have $C \in S$, so $C \Vdash P t$. Then $A \Vdash \exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P t$, and so $A$ forces $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$. Hence $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ is forced by every state, and so holds in this model.

We now have a characterisation for models of DP and $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$. They are the models wherein every state has exactly one term, or otherwise,

- the model is linear, and
- all terms are known at all states, and
- (to model DP) every set of states has a maximal element, and/or
- (to model $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ ) every set of states contains its infimum.

Where $T$ is the set of terms (at every state):

|  | $\|T\|=1$ | $\|T\| \in \mathbb{N}$ | $\|T\| \geq\|\mathbb{N}\|$ |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Branched | DP, H $\varepsilon$ | Neither | Neither |
| Linear | DP, H | DP, H $\varepsilon$ | Indeterminate |
| Linear, $\max \Pi$ ex- <br> ists for all $\Pi \subset \Sigma$ | DP, H $\varepsilon$ | DP, H $\varepsilon$ | DP |
| Linear, $\inf \Pi \in \Pi$ <br> for all $\Pi \subset \Sigma$ | DP, H $\varepsilon$ | DP, H $\varepsilon$ | $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ |
| Both of the two <br> above | DP, H $\varepsilon$ | DP, H $\varepsilon$ | DP, H $\varepsilon$ |

If a model has graph-like connectedness, where all related pairs of states have finitely many states between them (and so finite paths between them), then it cannot fall under the third or fourth rows, and so cannot separate DP and $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$.

The models are evocative of the intuitions. For, recall the "last drinker in the tavern" reason for accepting DP as true; similarly $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ can be justified by pointing to "the first person to drink".

Corollary 7. DP and HE are independent of each other in minimal logic with LEM (and so certainly over decidable predicates).

Proof. Recall the Kripke systems in 6 and 5 Considering them now as minimal Kripke systems, and forcing $\perp$ at every state forces LEM everywhere, but their respective separations still hold.

## 5 Separations without full models

The principle of Universal Distribution is

$$
\mathrm{UD}(P, Q):=\forall x(P x \vee \exists x Q) \rightarrow \forall x P x \vee \exists x Q
$$

Consider a full Kripke model in which all related worlds have the same domain. For a world $A$, if $A \Vdash \forall x(P x \vee \exists x Q)$ then $A \Vdash P t \vee \exists x Q$ for all $t$ in the domain. If $A \Vdash \exists x Q$, then $A \Vdash P t$, and so $A \Vdash \forall x P x$. Therefore this is a model for UD. Hence any full Kripke countermodel for UD must have related worlds with different domains, and so must also be a countermodel to $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ (from the section above).

However, we cannot conclude $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon \supset \mathrm{UD}$, as restriction to full Kripke models does not preserve completeness of Kripke semantics. To see that $\nvdash H \varepsilon \mathrm{UD}(P, Q)$, we require a non-full countermodel to UD in which $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ holds. Therefore, a notion of an axiom scheme holding in a non-full model is needed. For every formula $\Phi$ in the model, $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon(\Phi)$ should be forced. Formulae in the model should be at least closed with respect to the logical operations ' $\rightarrow$ ', ' $\wedge$ ', ' $v^{\prime},{ }^{\prime} \exists^{\prime}$, and ' $\forall^{\prime}$, and ' $\perp$ ' must also be a formula. The constants in the domain of the root world may also appear in formulae, but no others.

Consider the following infinite model:


We have $A \Vdash \operatorname{UD}(P, Q)$.
$\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ holds trivially for propositions. It remains to confirm that $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ holds for all predicates which exist in this model. Predicates are definable by combining ' $P x^{\text {' }}$ and ' $Q x^{\text {}}$, with each other and with propositions, using the binary logical operations. Clearly, combining a predicate with itself in this manner is trivial. The propositions available are only $P 0, Q 0, \perp$, since

$$
\begin{gathered}
\forall x P x \equiv \perp \\
\forall x Q x \equiv \perp \\
\exists x P x \equiv P 0 \\
\exists x Q x \equiv Q 0
\end{gathered}
$$

and $P 0, Q 0, \perp$ are closed under the binary logical operations (with respect to equivalence in this model). First,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P x \rightarrow Q x \equiv Q x \\
& Q x \rightarrow P x \equiv P 0 \\
& P x \vee Q x \equiv P x \\
& P x \wedge Q x \equiv Q x
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, with P0,

$$
\begin{array}{r}
P x \rightarrow P 0 \equiv P 0 \\
P 0 \rightarrow P x \equiv P x \\
P x \vee P 0 \equiv P 0 \\
P x \wedge P 0 \equiv P x \\
Q x \rightarrow Q 0 \equiv P 0 \\
Q 0 \rightarrow Q x \equiv Q x \\
Q x \vee Q 0 \equiv Q 0 \\
Q x \wedge Q 0 \equiv Q x .
\end{array}
$$

With $Q 0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P x \rightarrow Q 0 \\
& \equiv 0 \rightarrow P 0 \\
& P 0 \equiv Q x \\
& P x \vee Q 0 \equiv P 0 \\
& P x \wedge Q 0 \equiv Q x \\
& Q x \rightarrow Q 0 \equiv P 0 \\
& Q 0 \rightarrow Q x \equiv Q x \\
& Q x \vee Q 0 \equiv Q 0 \\
& Q x \wedge Q 0 \equiv Q x
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, with $\perp$,

$$
\begin{array}{r}
P x \rightarrow \perp \equiv \perp \\
\perp \rightarrow P x \equiv P 0 \\
P x \vee \perp \equiv P x \\
P x \wedge \perp \equiv \perp \\
Q x \rightarrow \perp \equiv \perp \\
\perp \rightarrow Q x \equiv P 0 \\
Q x \vee \perp \equiv Q x \\
Q x \wedge \perp \equiv \perp .
\end{array}
$$

Thus, $P x$ and $Q x$ really are the only predicates in this model. $A \Vdash H \varepsilon(P), \mathrm{H} \varepsilon(Q)$, so we have a non-full model for $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ where UD fails.

## 6 From first-order to propositional schemata

Some first-order schemata are infinitary forms of propositional schemata. Viewing universal and existential generalisation as conjunction and disjunction on propositional symbols $A$ and $B$, the drinker paradox becomes

$$
(A \rightarrow(A \wedge B)) \vee(B \rightarrow(A \wedge B))
$$

and so DGP follows. A formal proof requires embedding $A$ and $B$ in a single predicate. For example, over the domain of natural numbers, a predicate $P$ such that

$$
P(0) \leftrightarrow A
$$

$$
P(S n) \leftrightarrow B
$$

gives $\mathrm{DP}(P) \vdash \mathrm{DGP}(A, B)$. However, such an embedding is not possible if the domain contains a single element. It was shown above that DP holds in models with branches if the domain contains only one term, while in [6] it is shown that DGP holds only in v-free models. Therefore there can be no way of deriving instances of DGP from DP without an embedding using two or more elements in the domain.


Figure 3: Kripke countermodel for $\operatorname{DGP}(A, B)$ where $\operatorname{DP}$ holds

Domain is a semantic concept. In order to derive an instance of DGP using DP, we require syntax corresponding to the existence of more than one (distinct) term.

Definition 8. Natural deduction can be extended by adding term names 0 and 1, a unary predicate $D$, and the rules

D0:

$$
\overline{D 0} \mathrm{D} 0
$$

D1:

$$
\overline{\neg D 1} \neg D 1
$$

Dx:

$$
\overline{\forall_{x}(D x \vee \neg D x)} \mathrm{Dx}
$$

$D$ serves to make a weak distinction between the constants named by 0 and 1.10
Minimal (intuitionistic) logic extended by these rules is two-termed minimal (intuitionistic) logic, in which case we write ' $\vdash_{T T}$ ' in place of ' $\vdash$ '.

Semantically, an intuitionistic Kripke model for TT is one in which there are two constants 0 and $1, D 0$ holds at every world, and $D n$ is not forced for $n \neq 0$. For minimal Kripke models, it is also possible instead that there is only one term, and $\perp$ holds everywhere.

In general, given propositional symbols $A$ and $B$, we want to define a predicate $P$ such that $\forall x P x \vdash A \wedge B$ and $\exists x P x \vdash A \vee B$.

We recover

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{DP}((D x \rightarrow A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow B)) \vdash_{E F Q, T T} \operatorname{DGP}(A, B) \\
\mathrm{H} \varepsilon((D x \rightarrow A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow B)) \vdash_{E F Q, T T} \operatorname{DGP}(A, B) \\
\operatorname{DP}((D x \rightarrow \neg \neg A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow \neg A)) \vdash_{T T} \operatorname{WLEM}(A) \\
\mathrm{H} \varepsilon((D x \rightarrow \neg \neg A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow \neg A)) \vdash_{T T} \operatorname{WLEM}(A) \\
\operatorname{GMP}((D x \rightarrow \neg \neg A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow \neg A)) \vdash_{T T} \operatorname{WLEM}(A) \\
\operatorname{DNS}_{\exists}((D x \rightarrow \neg \neg A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow \neg A)) \vdash_{T T} \operatorname{WLEM}(A) .
\end{gathered}
$$

[^5]
## 7 Hierarchy

The preorder from ' $\supset$ ' produces a hierarchy. Arrows labelled with schemes indicate that those schemes must be taken together with the scheme at the tail to produce the scheme at the head.


This hierarchy is complete in the sense the sense that no other unlabelled arrows may be added (see below). Moreover, for arrows labelled with at least one of EFQ, TT, the remaining open questions are if GMP, EFQ $\supset$ UD and/or GMP, EFQ, TT $\supset$ UD.

## 8 Semantics

In addition to the Kripke model analysis presented earlier, the following full models give all possible separations of the schemes under investigation. In cases where models should have TT, we omit labelling $D 0$ on every world for the sake of brevity.

In [6], it is shown that DGP and WLEM hold in all v-free models, EFQ holds in a model if and only if $\perp$ is not forced anywhere, and LEM holds if only one world does not force $\perp$. Revisiting the countermodels (and previously given reasoning) for DP and $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$, we have

is a model for EFQ, TT, $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$, DGP, WLEM, UD, and a countermodel for DP, LEM, DNS $\forall$, while

is a model for EFQ, TT, DP, DGP, WLEM and a countermodel for $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$, LEM.
It is trivial to check that model presented in 5 can be modified as follows, to model both $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ and TT while still being a countermodel to UD.


It is straightforward to check whether a scheme holds or fails in a given finite full model; as only (few and) finitely many upwards closed labellings of worlds are possible, and these may be checked exhaustively. We therefore present the remaining models without comment.

is a model for EFQ, TT, $\mathrm{DNS}_{\forall}, \mathrm{UD}$ and a countermodel for $\mathrm{DP}, \mathrm{H} \varepsilon, \mathrm{DGP}, \mathrm{WLEM}, \mathrm{DNS}_{\exists}$.

is a model for $\mathrm{GLPO}^{\prime}$, LEM and a countermodel for DP, $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$, DGP.

is a model for EFQ, $\mathrm{DP}, \mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ and a countermodel for DGP, WLEM.

is a model for $\mathrm{TT}, \mathrm{DP}, \mathrm{H} \varepsilon, \mathrm{GLPO}^{\prime}$ and a countermodel for DGP.

is a model for EFQ, TT, WLEM, GMP and a countermodel for DP, $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon, \mathrm{DGP}$.

is a model for LEM, WLEM, DGP, $\mathrm{GLPO}^{\prime}$, GMP, DP, $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon, \mathrm{DNS}_{\forall}, \mathrm{DNS}_{\exists}, \mathrm{UD}, \mathrm{EFQ}$ and a countermodel for TT.

is a model for TT, EFQ, DGP, WLEM, $\mathrm{DNS}_{\forall}$ and a countermodel for $\mathrm{DNS}_{\exists}$, UD.

is a model for TT, LEM and a countermodel for EFQ, GMP, UD, $\mathrm{DNS}_{\forall}, \mathrm{DP}, \mathrm{H} \varepsilon$.

is a model for TT, DGP, GMP, GLPO' and a countermodel for EFQ, UD, H $\varepsilon$, DP.

## References

[1] D. Adams. Dirk Gently's Holistic Detective Agency. UK: William Heinemann Ltd.
[2] J. Avigad and R. Zach. The epsilon calculus. In E. N. Zalta, editor, The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy. Metaphysics Research Lab, Stanford University, summer 2016 edition, 2016.
[3] J. L. Bell. Hilbert's $\varepsilon$-operator and classical logic. Journal of Philosophical Logic, 22(1):1-18, 1993.
[4] D. Dalen. Logic and Structure. Universitext (1979). Springer, 2004.
[5] H. Diener. Constructive Reverse Mathematics. Habilitationsschrift, University of Siegen, Germany, 2018.
[6] H. Diener and M. McKubre-Jordens. Paradoxes of material implication in minimal logic. In H. Christiansen, M. López, R. Loukanova, and L. Moss, editors, Partiality and Underspecification in Information, Languages, and Knowledge. Cambridge Scholars Publishing, 2016.
[7] J. Gaspar. Proof interpretations: theoretical and practical aspects. PhD thesis, Technische Universität Darmstadt, October 2011.
[8] H. Ishihara. Reverse mathematics in bishop's constructive mathematics. Philosophia Scientice, Cahier spécial 6:43-59, 2006.
[9] H. Ishihara and H. Schwichtenberg. Embedding classical in minimal implicational logic. Mathematical Logic Quarterly, pages 94-101, 2016.
[10] S. Odintsov. Constructive Negations and Paraconsistency. Trends in Logic. Springer Netherlands, 2008.
[11] H. Schwichtenberg and S. Wainer. Proofs and Computations. Perspectives in Logic. Cambridge University Press, 2011.
[12] R. Smullyan. What is the Name of this Book?: The Riddle of Dracula and Other Logical Puzzles. Pelican books. Penguin Books, 1990.

## Appendix

Proposition 9. DNE $\supset L E M$
Proof.

Proposition 10. $D N E \supset E F Q$
Proof.

$$
\frac{\overline{\neg \neg A \rightarrow A} \operatorname{DNE} \quad \frac{\bar{\perp}}{\neg \neg A} \rightarrow \mathrm{I}}{\frac{A}{\perp \rightarrow A} \rightarrow \mathrm{I}} \rightarrow \mathrm{E}
$$

Proposition 11. $L E M, E F Q \supset D N E$
Proof.

$$
\frac{\overline{A \vee \neg A} \operatorname{LEM} \quad \bar{A} \quad \frac{\overline{\perp \rightarrow A} \mathrm{EFQ} \quad \frac{\overline{\neg \neg A} \quad \overline{\neg A}}{\perp}}{\frac{A}{\neg \neg A \rightarrow A} \rightarrow \mathrm{I}} \rightarrow \mathrm{E}}{\frac{A}{\square}} \rightarrow \mathrm{E}
$$

Proposition 12. $H \varepsilon \supset I P$
Proof.

Proposition 13. $I P \supset H \varepsilon$
Proof.

Proposition 14. $L E M \supset G L P O$
Proof.
$\ni \quad$ Proposition 15. GLPO $\supset L E M$
Proof.

Proposition 16. $D N S_{\forall} \supset W G M P$
Proof.

Proposition 17. $W G M P \supset D N S_{\forall}$
Proof.

Proposition 18. $D P(P)$ is equivalent to $\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P y \rightarrow P x)$
Proof. $(\Longrightarrow)$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{c}
\frac{\frac{P y \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x}{} \quad \frac{\forall_{x} P x}{P y}}{\frac{P x}{P y \rightarrow P x} \rightarrow \mathrm{E}} \rightarrow \mathrm{I} \\
\exists_{y}\left(P y \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x\right) \quad \frac{\mathrm{V}_{x}(P y \rightarrow P x)}{\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P y \rightarrow P x)} \exists \mathrm{I} \\
\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P y \rightarrow P x) \\
\mathrm{E}
\end{array} \\
& \begin{array}{c}
\frac{\frac{\forall_{x}(P y \rightarrow P x)}{P y \rightarrow P x}}{\frac{P \mathrm{E}}{\frac{P x}{P y}} \forall \mathrm{I}} \rightarrow \mathrm{E} \\
\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P y \rightarrow P x) \quad \frac{\forall_{x} P x}{P y \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x} \rightarrow \mathrm{I} \\
\exists_{y}\left(P y \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x\right) \\
\exists_{y}\left(P y \rightarrow{ }_{x} P x\right) \\
\\
\mathrm{E}
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition 19. $H \varepsilon(P)$ is equivalent to $\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P x \rightarrow P y)$
Proof. $(\Longrightarrow)$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \begin{array}{c}
\frac{\exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P y}{} \frac{\overline{P x}}{\exists_{x} P x} \\
\exists \mathrm{I} \\
\frac{\exists_{y}\left(\exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P y\right)}{\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P x \rightarrow P y)} \rightarrow \mathrm{E} \\
\frac{\exists_{x}(P x \rightarrow P y)}{\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P x \rightarrow P y)} \\
\\
\\
\exists \mathrm{I} \\
\mathrm{I}
\end{array} \\
& \frac{\frac{\overline{\forall_{x}(P x \rightarrow P y)}}{\exists_{x} P x}}{\frac{P x \rightarrow P y}{P y}} \nexists \mathrm{E} \quad \overline{P x}, \mathrm{E} \\
& \frac{\exists_{y} \forall_{x}(P x \rightarrow P y) \quad \frac{\frac{P y}{\exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P y} \rightarrow \mathrm{I}}{\exists_{y}\left(\exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P y\right)} \exists \mathrm{I}}{\exists_{y}\left(\exists_{x} P x \rightarrow P y\right)} \exists \mathrm{E}
\end{align*}
$$

Proposition 20. $D N E, L E M, E F Q \supset D P$
Proof. First

Now,

Proposition 21. LEM $\supset W L E M$
Proof.

$$
\overline{\neg A \vee \neg \neg A} \text { LEM }
$$

Proposition 22. $G M P \supset W G M P$
Proof.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\overline{\neg \exists_{x} \neg P x} \quad \frac{\neg \forall_{x} P x \rightarrow \exists_{x} \neg P x}{} \text { GMP } \frac{\neg \forall_{x} P x}{\exists_{x} \neg P x}}{\frac{\perp}{\neg} \rightarrow \mathrm{E}} \\
\frac{\neg \neg \exists_{x} \neg P x}{\neg \forall_{x} P x \rightarrow \neg \neg \exists_{x} \neg P x} \rightarrow \mathrm{I}
\end{gathered}
$$

Proposition 23. $D G P \supset W L E M$
Proof.

Proposition 24. $G L P O^{\prime} \supset L E M$
Proof.

Proposition 25. $G L P O^{\prime} \supset G M P$
Proof.

Proposition 26. $D P \supset U D$
Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\frac{\forall_{x}\left(P x \vee \exists_{x} A\right)}{\exists_{y}\left(P y \rightarrow \forall_{x} P x\right)}}{} \mathrm{DP} & \frac{\overline{P y \vee \exists_{x} A}}{\frac{\forall_{x} P x}{P y} \overline{P y}} \rightarrow \mathrm{E} \\
\hline \forall_{x} P x \vee \exists_{x} A & \forall_{x} P x \vee \exists_{x} A \\
\forall_{x} P x \vee \exists_{x} A \\
\\
& \mathrm{\forall}
\end{array} \\
& \frac{\forall_{x} P x \vee \exists_{x} A}{\forall_{x}\left(P x \vee \exists_{x} A\right) \rightarrow\left(\forall_{x} P x \vee \exists_{x} A\right)} \rightarrow \mathrm{I}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proposition 27. $D P \supset G M P$
Proof.

Proposition 28. $H \varepsilon \supset D N S_{\exists}$
Proof.

Proposition 29. $G L P O \supset D N S_{\exists}$
Proof.

Proposition 30. $G M P \supset D N S_{\exists}$
Proof.

Proposition 31. $G L P O^{\prime} \supset W G M P$
Proof.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\overline{\neg \forall_{x} P x} \quad \overline{\forall_{x} P x}}{\forall_{x} P x \vee \exists_{x} \neg P x} \rightarrow \mathrm{E} & \begin{array}{l}
\frac{\perp}{\neg \exists_{x} \neg P x} \quad \overline{\exists_{x} \neg P x} \\
\text { GLPOA }
\end{array} \frac{\overline{\neg \neg \exists_{x} \neg P x} \rightarrow \mathrm{I}}{\neg \forall_{x} P x \rightarrow \neg \neg \exists_{x} \neg P x} \rightarrow \mathrm{I} \\
\hline \neg \forall_{x} P x \rightarrow \neg \neg \exists_{x} \neg P x & \frac{\neg \neg \exists_{x} \neg P x}{\neg \forall_{x} P x \rightarrow \neg \neg \exists_{x} \neg P x} \rightarrow \mathrm{I} \\
\mathrm{E}
\end{array}
$$

Proposition 32. $D P, E F Q, T T \supset D G P$
Proof. Lemma 1:


Lemma 2:
N


Proposition 33. $D P, T T \supset W L E M$
Proof. Lemma 1:

Lemma 2:
$\stackrel{N}{\infty}$



Proposition 34. $H \varepsilon, E F Q, T T \supset D G P$
Proof. Lemma 1:


Lemma 2:
No


Proposition 35. $H \varepsilon, T T \supset W L E M$
Proof. Lemma 1:


Lemma 2:


Now,


Proposition 36. GMP, TT $\supset W L E M$
Proof. Lemma 1:

Lemma 2:

Lemma 3:

Proposition 37. $D P, L E M \supset G L P O^{\prime}$
Proof.

Proposition 38. $D N S_{\exists}, T T \supset W L E M$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Proof. Lemma 1: }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Lemma 2: }
\end{aligned}
$$

Lemma 3:

Lemma 4:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \xrightarrow{\neg \neg((D x \rightarrow \neg \neg A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow \neg A))}
\end{aligned}
$$

Where $\Phi:=\neg \neg \exists_{x}((D x \rightarrow \neg \neg A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow \neg A)) \rightarrow \exists_{x} \neg \neg((D x \rightarrow \neg \neg A) \wedge(\neg D x \rightarrow \neg A))$,


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Either as a rule, or an axiom scheme. See below for details.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ If we defined LEM as the axiom scheme $\forall \vec{x} P \vec{x} \vee \neg P \vec{x}$, there would be no difference between adding it as a rule or an assumption. This trick is the same as used in [11] page 14] for EFQ and stability.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ While technically speaking the Kripke semantics described in 4 are for the intuitionistic case, we can use them in the minimal one, by not forcing and condition on $\perp$ - that is treating it just like some fixed propositional symbol.
    ${ }^{4}$ Also known as "Stability".
    ${ }^{5}$ Also known as "explosion".

[^3]:    ${ }^{6}$ Also known as the "principle of excluded middle" and as "tertium non datur".
    ${ }^{7}$ The name DGP was introduced in [6], and is a literary reference to the novel [1], whose main character believes in "the fundamental interconnectedness of all things". DGP is otherwise also known as weak linearity.

[^4]:    ${ }^{8}$ For a proof that this is actually an equivalent formulation see the appendix.
    ${ }^{9}$ Milly Maietti has communicated to us the-currently unpublished-result that Hilbert's Epsilon operator implies the drinker paradox. Thus, together with our results in this paper this shows that the operator version of $\mathrm{H} \varepsilon$ is stronger than the scheme version.

[^5]:    ${ }^{10}$ Bell in [3] suggests this "modest 'decidability' condition" in the form of a decidable equality for a single constant $a$, along with a constant $b \neq a$.

