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Model

Logic and Foundation I Part 2. First-order logic

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Logic and Foundations I -

- Part 1. Equational theory
- Part 2. First order theory
- Part 3. Model theory
- Part 4. First order arithmetic and incompleteness theorems

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Part 2. Schedule

- Oct. 26, (1) First order logic: formal system GT and structures
- Nov. 2, (2) Gödel's completeness theorem and applications
- Nov. 9, (3) Miscellaneous

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³ [Model construction](#page-25-0)

Today's topics

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Introduction to part 2

- In this part, we will introduce the basics of first-order logic (predicate logic) and investigate properties of mathematical theories in this logic.
- Equational theories in the previous part only dealt with equations, but first-order theories can treat more general expressions involving relational symbols (e.g. \langle) and logical symbols (e.g. ∧, ∀). Most of ordinary mathematical theories can be formalized in first-order logic.
- We will introduce Gentzen-Tait's deductive system GT, and proves the **Completeness** Theorem (that all valid statements are provable) by Henkin's method.
- By this method, the compactness theorem and Löwenheim-Skolem theorem can also be obtained.
- As an application of completeness theorem, we also present the iterpretation of a theory in another theory.

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Model

In part 1, we presented group theory as an equational theory in the symbol set $\mathcal{L}=(\,\textcolor{black}{\bullet}\,,\textcolor{black}{\mathsf{e}},\,\,^{-1}).$

Definition (Recall: lec01-01)

Group theory G_p consists of the following three axioms.

where $x,\,y$ and z are variables, e is a constant, and $^{-1}$ represents a unary function.

Using first-order logic, it may be formalized without the symbols e, $^{-1}$.

\sim Example 1 \longrightarrow

Group theory can be axiomatized in the language $\mathcal{L} = (\bullet)$ as follows:

$$
\begin{cases} (x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z), \\ \exists z (\forall x (z \cdot x = x) \land \forall x \exists y (y \cdot x = z)). \end{cases}
$$

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\sim Example 2 \longrightarrow

Various kinds of continuity of a real functions are expressed as follows.

$$
\circ \ f(x) \text{ is continuous at } x = a
$$

$$
\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \forall x (|x - a| < \delta \to |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon).
$$

 \circ $f(x)$ is continuous (at all points) $\Leftrightarrow \forall a \forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0 \ \forall x (\vert x - a \vert < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon).$

 \circ $f(x)$ is uniformly continuous $\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \,\exists \delta > 0 \,\forall x \forall y (|x - y| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon).$

✒ ✑ Note that $\forall x > 0$ is an abbreviation for $\forall x(x > 0 \to \cdots)$, $\exists x > 0$ is for $\exists x(x > 0 \land \cdots)$.

First order logic

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- Propositional logic is the study of logical connections between propositions expressed by $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \rightarrow$.
- First-order logic is obtained from propositional logic by adding logical symbols ∀, ∃. $\forall x$ expresses "for every element x (of the underlying set)", and $\exists x$ expresses "there exists an element x (of the underlying set)". $\forall x$ is called a universal quantifier, and $\exists x$ is called an existencial quantifier.
- Historically, first-order logic was introduced by D. Hilbert as a downsized system of Russell's type theory to handle mathematical theories in more algebraic way. He then asked whether his formulation is complete (i.e., sufficient to prove all the valid formulas). Gödel answered the question affirmatively in his doctoral thesis.

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Symbols of first-order logic ·

- Common logical symbols of first-order logic
	- **0 propositional connectives**: \neg (not \dots), \wedge (and), \vee (or), \rightarrow (implies),
	- **②** quantifiers: \forall (for all \dots), \exists (there exists \dots).
	- **3** variables: x_0, x_1, \cdots
	- \bullet **equality** = and auxiliary symbols such as parentheses (,).
- Mathematical symbols of a specific theory: function symbols f, \dots ; and relation symbols R, \dots .

Definition

A language (signature, alphabet) $\mathcal L$ of first-order logic is a list or set of function symbols f_i and relational symbols R_i denoted as

✒ ✑

$$
\mathcal{L}=(\mathtt{f}_0,\mathtt{f}_1,\ldots;\mathtt{R}_0,\mathtt{R}_1,\ldots).
$$

If ${\tt f}_i$ is an m_i -ary function symbol (for each $i)$ and ${\tt R}_j$ is an n_j -ary relation symbol (for each j), then $\rho = (m_0, m_1, \ldots; n_0, n_1, \ldots)$ is called a **similarity type** of language \mathcal{L} .

Note that $\mathcal L$ may be uncountable.

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Definition

A structure in language $\mathcal L$ (an $\mathcal L$ -structure) is defined as a non-empty set A equipped with an interpretation of the symbols in \mathcal{L} , denoted as

$$
\mathfrak{A}=(A; f^{\mathfrak{A}}, \cdots, R^{\mathfrak{A}}, \cdots).
$$

- $A = |\mathfrak{A}|$ is called the **domain** (or universe) of the structure \mathfrak{A} , where A is a non-empty.
- For an m -ary function symbol $f \in \mathcal{L}$, $f^{\mathfrak{A}} : A^m \to A$.
- For an *n*-ary relational symbol $R \in \mathcal{L}$, $R^{\mathfrak{A}} \subset A^n$.

A function symbol with no argument (0-ary function) is called a constant. Since a constant plays a special role distinct from a function, they are often treated separately. In such a case, a language $\mathcal L$ may be flexibly written as $(c, \ldots; f, \ldots; R, \ldots)$, and an $\mathcal L$ -structure as $(A; \; \mathrm{c}^{\mathfrak{A}}, \cdots, \mathrm{f}^{\mathfrak{A}}, \cdots, \mathrm{R}^{\mathfrak{A}}, \cdots)$, where $\mathrm{c}^{\mathfrak{A}} \in A.$

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Similarly to the algebraic language (lec01-01), a term of first-order language $\mathcal L$ is a symbol string consisting of variables and function symbols of \mathcal{L} .

A term that includes no variables is called a **closed term**, which indicates an element of the structure determined by the following definition.

Definition (Terms)

The terms of the language $\mathcal L$ are symbol strings defined inductively as follows.

- \bullet variables (and constants in \mathcal{L}) are terms of \mathcal{L} .
- **2** If t_0, \dots, t_{n-1} are terms and f is an n-ary function symbol of L, then $f(t_0, \dots, t_{n-1})$ is a term of \mathcal{L} .

Let $\mathfrak A$ be an $\mathcal L$ -structure. For a term t with no variable, its **value** in a structure $\mathfrak A$, denoted $t^\mathfrak{A}$, is defined inductively as follows.

 $\textbf{0}$ the value of constant c in \mathcal{L} is $\text{c}^\mathfrak{A}.$

 $\textbf{2}$ the value of term $\text{f}(t_0,\cdots,t_{n-1})$ is $\text{f}^\mathfrak{A}(t_1^\mathfrak{A},\cdots,t_{n-1}^\mathfrak{A}).$

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Definition (Formulas)

A formula of language $\mathcal L$ is a sequence of symbols inductively defined as follows. (1) If $s, t, t_0, \cdots, t_{n-1}$ are terms of L, and R is an n-ary relation symbol of L, then

```
s = t and R(t_0, \dots, t_{n-1})
```
are formulas of \mathcal{L} , which are called atomic formulas.

(2) If φ, ψ are formulas of \mathcal{L} , then so are the followings: for any variable x,

 $\neg(\varphi), (\varphi) \wedge (\psi), (\varphi) \vee (\psi), (\varphi) \rightarrow (\psi), \forall x(\varphi), \exists x(\varphi).$

The bracket (and) can be omitted if no confusion might occur.

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• Let $\mathcal{L}_{OR} = (+, \cdot, 0, 1; <)$ be the language of ordered rings, whose similarity type is $\rho = (2, 2, 0, 0, 2)$.

 \sim Example 3 \sim

- The standard structure $\mathfrak{N} = (\mathbb{N}; +, \cdot, 0, 1; <)$ of natural numbers is an \mathcal{L}_{OR} -structure, where $+, \bullet, 0, 1, \lt$ represents usual functions or relation on natural numbers. For example, 1 in the structure is not a constant symbol, but an element of N indicated by constant 1.
- In this language,
	- (1) $(x_0 + 1) \cdot x_2$ is a term.
	- (2) $(x_0 + 1) \cdot x_2 < x_1$ is an atomic formula.

(3) $\forall x_0((x_0+1)\cdot x_2 < x_1) \land \forall x_1 \exists x_3(x_1 \cdot x_2 = x_3)$ is a formula.

✒ ✑ A formula that appears in the process of constructing a formula is called its subformulas. The subformulas of formula (3) in the above example are

- the two atomic subformulas $(x_0 + 1) \cdot x_2 < x_1, x_1 \cdot x_2 = x_3$,
- $\forall x_0((x_0+1)\cdot x_2 < x_1)$, $\exists x_3(x_1 \cdot x_2 = x_3)$, $\forall x_1 \exists x_3(x_1 \cdot x_2 = x_3)$, and the whole formula.

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- In a formula, a variable x is said to be **bound** if it occurs in a subformula of the form $\forall x \varphi(x)$ or $\exists x \varphi(x)$, and otherwise it is said to be free.
- In (3) $\forall x_0((x_0+1)\cdot x_2 < x_1) \wedge \forall x_1 \exists x_3(x_1\cdot x_2 = x_3)$ of Example 3, x_0 and x_3 are bound, x_2 is free, x_1 appears both free and bound.
- Focusing on the free occurrence of some variables (say, x, y) in a formula φ , we write it as $\varphi(x, y)$.
- Then, we write $\varphi(s)$ for the formula obtained from $\varphi(x)$ by substituting a term s into every free occurrence of x .
- If a variable y included in s will be bound in $\varphi(s)$, we replace the bound variable y in φ with a new variable z in advance.
- For example, consider the substitution of $x = s$ for $\forall y \varphi(x, y)$, where s includes y. In such a case, change $\forall y \varphi(x, y)$ with $\forall z \varphi(x, z)$ for the first. Then by substituting $x = s$ for $\forall z \varphi(x, z)$, we obtain $\forall z \varphi(s, z)$. Such a replacement of variables are automatically done to avoid confusion.

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Definition

- A formula φ with no free variables is called a **sentence** or a **closed formula**.
- A formula φ with no quantifiers is called a **quantifier-free** formula or **open formula**. Obviously, any variable in an open formula is free.
- For a formula $\varphi(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ with no free variables unspecified, a sentence of the form $\forall x_1 \forall x_2 \dots \forall x_n \varphi$ is called the universal closure of φ .
- A formula and its universal closure are often identified. For example, $x < x + 1$ is interchangeable with $\forall x(x < x + 1)$.
- Strictly, a theory is a set of sentences. But we may also treat a set of formulas as a theory by replacing each formula with its universal closure.

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Our next goal is to define the concept of truth/false of sentences. First, the truth/false of an atomic sentence (an atomic formula with no variables) is defined as follows.

Definition

Let $\mathfrak A$ be a structure in language $\mathcal L$.

- (1) Let s and t be closed terms. If $s^{\mathfrak{A}}$ and $t^{\mathfrak{A}}$ have the same value, the atomic formula $s = t$ is true in \mathfrak{A} ; otherwise false.
- (2) Let R be an n-ary relation symbol in L, and t_0, \ldots, t_{n-1} be closed terms. If $\mathtt{R}^\mathfrak{A}(t_0^\mathfrak{A},\ldots,t_{n-1}^\mathfrak{A})$ holds, then the atomic formula R(t_0, \ldots, t_{n-1}) is **true** in \mathfrak{A} ; otherwise false.

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Model

In order to determine the true/false of general sentences, we define an expansion of a given \mathcal{L} -structure \mathfrak{A}

Definition

Let $\mathfrak A$ and $\mathfrak B$ be structures in languages $\mathcal L$ and $\mathcal L'$, respectively, and $\mathcal L\subset \mathcal L'.$ Then, $\mathfrak B$ is called an expansion of $\mathfrak A$ or $\mathfrak A$ is called an reduct of $\mathfrak B$ if $|\mathfrak A|=|\mathfrak B|$ and for each symbol f, R of \mathcal{L} , $\mathtt{f}^{\mathfrak{A}}(\vec{x}) = \mathtt{f}^{\mathfrak{B}}(\vec{x})$ and $\mathtt{R}^{\mathfrak{A}}(\vec{x}) \Leftrightarrow \mathtt{R}^{\mathfrak{B}}(\vec{x})$.

Let C be a subset of the domain $A=|\mathfrak{A}|$, and c^* denote a new constant for each element $c\in C.$ Then, put $\mathcal{L}_{C}=\mathcal{L}\cup\{c^{*}:c\in C\}.$ Now, the structure $\mathfrak A$ is expanded to a \mathcal{L}_C -structure \mathfrak{A}_C with constant c^* interpreted as $c.$ In particular, $\mathfrak{A}_\varnothing=\mathfrak{A}.$

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Model

The concept of true/false of a sentence in the structure $\mathfrak A$ is defined via the extended structure $\mathfrak{A}_A.$ For simplicity, we do not distinguish an element a of $|\mathfrak{A}|$ and a constant $a^*.$

Definition (Tarski's truth definition clauses)

The set of true sentences in the structure \mathfrak{A}_4 , denoted $\text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_4)$, is defined inductively by the following Tarski's truth definition clauses.

- For an atomic sentence φ of \mathcal{L}_A , $\varphi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_A) \Leftrightarrow \varphi$ is true in \mathfrak{A}_A ,
- $\bullet \ \neg \varphi \in \mathrm{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A}) \Leftrightarrow \varphi \notin \mathrm{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A}),$
- $\varphi \wedge \psi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A}) \Leftrightarrow \varphi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A})$ and $\psi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A})$,
- $\varphi \vee \psi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A}) \Leftrightarrow \varphi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A})$ or $\psi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A})$,
- $\bullet \varphi \to \psi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A}) \Leftrightarrow \varphi \notin \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A})$ or $\psi \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A})$,
- $\forall x \varphi(x) \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A}) \Leftrightarrow$ for every $a \in A$, $\varphi(a) \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{A})$,
- $\exists x \varphi(x) \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_A) \Leftrightarrow$ there exists $a \in A$ such that $\varphi(a) \in \text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_A)$.

 $\text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_{\text{A}})$ is called the **elementary diagram** of the structure \mathfrak{A} . The set of atomic sentences and negations of atomic sentences included in $\text{Th}(\mathfrak{A}_A)$ is called the **basic diagram**, which is denoted as $Diag(\mathfrak{A})$.

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Definition

If an L-sentence φ belongs to Th(\mathfrak{A}_A), we say φ is true in the structure \mathfrak{A} , written as $\mathfrak{A} \models \varphi$ or $\varphi \in \mathrm{Th}(\mathfrak{A})$. For an L-formula φ , if its universal closure $\forall x_0 \cdots \forall x_{n-1} \varphi$ is true in \mathfrak{A} , we write $\mathfrak{A} \models \varphi$.

Definition

If a set T of sentences in language L is a subset of Th(21), the structure 21 is called a **model** of T, written as $\mathfrak{A} \models T$.

Definition

Let T be a set of sentences in language L, and φ a formula in L. If $\mathfrak{A} \models \varphi$ for any model $\mathfrak A$ of T, we say that φ is a **consequence** of T, written as $T \models \varphi$.

 $T \models \varphi$ represents that a sentence φ holds in a theory T in the ordinary mathematical sense. This relationship can be formalized in a formal deductive system.

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- • A logical deduction system consists of axioms and inference rules. Depending on which one is emphasized, two types of systems are defined.
- A deductive system mainly based on axioms is called the **Hilbert style**, and contrarily one mainly based on inference rules is called the **Gentzen style**.
- In the following, we adopt a Gentzen-style system modified by Tait, called **GT**.
- In GT, treat $\varphi \to \psi$ as an abbreviation for $\neg \varphi \lor \psi$. Then, any formula φ is automatically transformed into the negation normal form, i.e., constructed from atomic formulas or their negations by means of \wedge , \vee , \forall , and \exists . Also, $\neg s = t$ is abbreviated as $s \neq t$.
- To keep the negation normal form, the following replacement rules (De Morgan's laws) are applied wherever possible:

$$
\neg(\varphi \lor \psi) := \neg \varphi \land \neg \psi, \qquad \neg(\varphi \land \psi) := \neg \varphi \lor \neg \psi,
$$

$$
\neg \forall x \varphi := \exists x \neg \varphi, \qquad \neg \exists x \varphi := \forall x \neg \varphi, \qquad \neg \neg \varphi := \varphi.
$$

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Definition

- A finite sequence of formulas $\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_n$ is called a **sequent**.
- All sequents formed by rearranging the elements are regarded as the same.
- A sequent is therefore a multiset rather than a sequence.
- For two sequents Γ (= $\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_n$) and Δ (= ψ_1, \ldots, ψ_m), Γ, Δ denotes the sequent $\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_n, \psi_1, \ldots, \psi_m$.

The sequent $\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_n$ intuitively means $\varphi_1 \vee \cdots \vee \varphi_n$. The Gentzen-Tait system is a deductive system of sequents.

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Definition (Gentzen-Tait system -1/2)

Gentzen-Tait system $GT(T)$ of a theory T has the following axioms and inference rules:

Axioms

- (0) φ (where $\varphi \in T$)
- (1) Law of excluded middle: $\neg \psi, \psi$ (where ψ is an atomic formula)
- (2) Equational axiom: (i) $x = x$, (ii) $x \neq y, y = x$, (iii) $x \neq y, y \neq z, x = z$, (iv) $x_1 \neq y_1, \ldots, x_m \neq y_m, \mathbf{f}(x_1, \ldots, x_m) = \mathbf{f}(y_1, \ldots, y_m),$ (v) $x_1 \neq y_1, \ldots, x_n \neq y_n, R(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \neg R(y_1, \ldots, y_n),$

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Definition (Gentzen-Tait system -2/2)

Inference rules

$$
\frac{\Gamma, \varphi, \psi}{\Gamma, \varphi \vee \psi} \quad (\vee), \quad \frac{\Gamma, \varphi \quad \Gamma, \psi}{\Gamma, \varphi \wedge \psi} \quad (\wedge)
$$
\n
$$
\frac{\Gamma, \varphi(t)}{\Gamma, \exists x \varphi(x)} \quad (\exists), \quad \frac{\Gamma, \varphi(x)}{\Gamma, \forall x \varphi(x)} \quad (\forall)(\Gamma \text{ has no free occurrences of } x)
$$

$$
\frac{\Gamma}{\Delta} \ (\text{weak}^1)(\Gamma \text{ is a subsequence of } \Delta), \quad \frac{\Gamma, \neg A \quad \Gamma, A}{\Gamma} \ (\text{cut})
$$

 1 weakening

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Definition

- A proof tree in the system $GT(T)$ is a finite tree in which each vertex is labelled with a sequent so that a sequent at each top vertex (leaf) is an axiom, and the sequents of adjacent nodes express the inference rule. See the examples below.
- If there is a proof tree rooted at the sequent Γ, we write it as $T \vdash \Gamma$. Such a tree is called a **proof** of $T \vdash \Gamma$ (or a **proof** of Γ in T).
- If $T = \emptyset$ or T is clear from the context, we omit T and write $\vdash \Gamma$.

 \sim Example 4 \sim A proof of $\vdash \neg \varphi \lor (\neg \psi \lor (\varphi \land \psi))$, where φ, ψ are atomic formulas, is following.

$$
\frac{\neg \varphi, \varphi}{\neg \varphi, \varphi, \neg \psi} \text{ (weak)} \frac{\neg \psi, \psi}{\neg \psi, \psi, \neg \varphi} \text{ (weak)}\n\frac{\neg \varphi, \neg \psi, \varphi \land \psi}{\neg \varphi, \neg \psi, \varphi \land \psi} \text{ (A)}\n\frac{\neg \varphi, \neg \psi \lor (\varphi \land \psi)}{\neg \varphi, \neg \psi \lor (\varphi \land \psi)} \text{ (V)}
$$

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For any term t, we have $\vdash t = t$ as follows.

$$
\frac{x = x}{\forall x(x = x)} (\forall)
$$

$$
\frac{t \neq t, t = t}{\forall x(x = x), t = t} (\text{weak}) \frac{t \neq t, t = t}{\exists x(x \neq x), t = t} (\exists)
$$

$$
t = t
$$
 (cut)

 $\sqrt{2}$ Example 5 $\sqrt{2}$

Here, note that $\neg \exists x (x \neq x)$ can be rewritten as $\forall x (x = x)$. Any substitution instance of other equality axioms can also be proven in the same way as Example 5.

✒ ✑ $\sqrt{ }$ Problem $\overline{}$

Consider the case that R is the equality in the equational axiom

$$
x_1 \neq y_1, \ldots, x_n \neq y_n, R(x_1, \ldots, x_n), \neg R(y_1, \ldots, y_n).
$$

Show that the equational axioms (ii) and (iii) can be derived from the above axiom and the equational axiom (i) in Page [21.](#page-20-0)

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Lemma

 $\vdash \neg \varphi, \varphi$ for any formula φ .

Proof. By induction on the construction of φ . If φ is an atomic formula, it is an axiom. If $\varphi \equiv \psi \vee \theta$ then $\neg \varphi \equiv \neg \psi \wedge \neg \theta$ and

$$
\frac{\neg \psi, \psi}{\neg \psi, \psi, \theta} \text{ (weak)} \quad \frac{\neg \theta, \theta}{\neg \theta, \psi, \theta} \text{ (weak)} \n\frac{\neg \psi, \psi, \theta}{\neg \psi, \psi \lor \theta} \text{ (V)} \quad \frac{\neg \theta, \psi, \theta}{\neg \theta, \psi \lor \theta} \text{ (V)} \n\frac{\neg \psi, \psi \land \theta}{\neg \psi \land \neg \theta, \psi \lor \theta} \text{ (A)}
$$

Formulas φ of other forms can be proved in the same way (Exercise).

By this lemma, we can see that in Example 4 in Page [23,](#page-22-0) φ, ψ may not only be atomic formulas but any formulas.

To prepare for a proof of the completeness theorem for GT, we will show several lemmas.

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Lemma (Deduction theorem)

Let T be an L-theory, φ a sentence and Γ be a sequent. Then, $T \cup {\varphi} \vdash \Gamma \Rightarrow T \vdash \neg \varphi, \Gamma.$

Proof.

- Let P be a proof tree of $T \cup \{\varphi\} \vdash \Gamma$. Then let P' be a tree obtained from P by adding the formula $\neg \varphi$ to all the sequents appearing in the proof tree.
- Any inference rule at adjacent vertices remains as the same kind of inference rule. (Note: Since $\neg \varphi$ is a sentence, the condition of the rule (\forall) holds.)
- If a sequent at a leaf of P is an axiom Δ of T , then the corresponding vertex of P' is labelled $\neg \varphi, \Delta$. So, we add a vertex labelled axiom Δ above it so that they satisfy the inference rule (weak).
- If a sequent at a leaf of P is φ , the corresponding sequent of P' is $\neg \varphi, \varphi$, that is, the law of excluded middle. So we put an appropriate proof of it above it. Then let P'' be a tree obtained from P' by doing all these modifications.
- Thus, P'' is a proof tree of $T \vdash \neg \varphi, \Gamma$.

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Model [construction](#page-25-0) Remark on the deduction theorem:

• Be careful of the difference between assuming φ in theory T and assuming $T \vdash \varphi$. Actually, if we assume $T \vdash \varphi$ with $T = ZF$, $\varphi = AC$, this leads to a contradiction.

Definition

T is said to be **inconsistent** if $T \vdash$ (i.e., T proves the empty sequent). Otherwise, T is said to be **consistent**.

Lemma

Let T be a theory and φ asentence. The following hold. (1) If there exists a φ such that $T \vdash \varphi$ and $T \vdash \neg \varphi$, then T is inconsistent. (2) $T \cup {\neg \varphi}$ is inconsistent $\Leftrightarrow T \vdash \varphi$. (3) $T \cup {\neg \varphi}$ is consistent $\Leftrightarrow T \vdash \varphi$ does not hold.

Proof.

- (1) can be obtained by using the inference rule (cut).
- (\Rightarrow) of (2) is nothing but the deduction theorem. To show (\Leftarrow) of (2), assume $T \vdash \varphi$. Then $T \cup \{\neg \varphi\} \vdash \varphi$. Also, $T \cup \{\neg \varphi\} \vdash \neg \varphi$. So by (1), $T \cup \{\neg \varphi\}$ is inconsistent.
- \bullet (3) is the dual of (2).

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Lemma

If T is consistent, $T \cup {\varphi}$ or $T \cup {\neg \varphi}$ are consistent for any sentence φ .

Proof. It is clear from (1) and (3) in the above lemma.

Lemma

Let $T \cup {\exists x \varphi(x)}$ be consistent and c be a new constant. Then $T \cup {\varphi(c)}$ is also consistent in $\mathcal{L}' = \mathcal{L} \cup \{c\}.$

Proof.

- By way of contradiction, assume $T \cup {\varphi(c)}$ ⊢.
- By the deduction theorem, we have $T \vdash \neg \varphi(c)$.
- Now, let x be a variable that does not appear in the proof of $T \vdash \neg \varphi(c)$. If we replace all c with x in the proof, we have a proof of $T \vdash \neg \varphi(x)$.
- If we add an inference rule (\forall) at the root of the proof tree, we have a proof of $T \vdash \forall x \neg \varphi(x)$, that is, $T \vdash \neg \exists x \varphi(x)$.
- Therefore, by (2) of lemma in Page [27,](#page-26-0) $T \cup \{ \exists x \varphi(x) \}$ is inconsistent, which contradicts with our assumption.

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Lemma

- Let $\mathcal L$ be a language. Then there exists a set C of constants not included in $\mathcal L$ and a set H of sentences in $\mathcal{L}' = \mathcal{L} \cup C$ such that for any consistent $\mathcal{L}\text{-}$ theory T , the following hold:
- (1) $T \cup H$ is consistent.
- (2) For each $\mathcal L'$ -sentence $\exists x \varphi(x)$ such that $T \cup H \vdash \exists x \varphi(x)$, there exists ${\mathsf c} \in C$ such that $T \cup H \vdash \varphi(c)$. $T \cup H$ is called the Henkin extension or the Henkinization of T.
	- The above lemma is the core of the proof of Gödel's completeness theorem for GT.
	- In the proof of Birkhoff's completeness theorem, we created a model by dividing the term algebra by the congruence relation.
	- The basic idea to construct a model of first-order logic is the same. But the term algebra of the given language is not sufficient to be the universal structure.
	- So, we extend the language by introducing many new constants called the **Henkin** constants. This extension depends on a language, not a theory.

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Model [construction](#page-25-0) **Proof.** We describe how to construct C and H of the lemma. For each \mathcal{L} -sentence $\exists x \varphi(x)$, we add new constant ${\tt c}_{\exists x \varphi(x)}$, and collect them as C_1 , i.e.,

$$
C_1 = \{\mathtt{c}_{\exists x \varphi(x)} : \exists x \varphi(x) \text{ is an \mathcal{L}-sentence}\}.
$$

For each constant $c_{\exists x \varphi(x)} \in C_1$, we define a sentence of the form $\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \vee \varphi(c_{\exists x \varphi(x)})$ and we collect them as H_1 , i.e.,

$$
H_1=\{\neg \exists x\varphi(x)\vee\varphi(\mathtt{c}_{\exists x\varphi(x)}):\mathtt{c}_{\exists x\varphi(x)}\in C_1\}
$$

From the law of excluded middle $\neg \varphi(x)$, $\varphi(x)$, we have

$$
\frac{\neg \varphi(x), \varphi(x)}{\neg \varphi(x), \neg \exists x \varphi(x), \varphi(x)} \text{ (weak)}\n\frac{\neg \varphi(x), \neg \exists x \varphi(x), \varphi(x)}{\neg \varphi(x), \exists x (\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \lor \varphi(x))} \text{ (3)}\n\frac{\neg \varphi(x), \exists x (\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \lor \varphi(x))}{\forall x \neg \varphi(x), \exists x (\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \lor \varphi(x))} \text{ (4)}
$$

Similarly, from $\exists x \varphi(x)$, $\neg \exists x \varphi(x)$, we have

$$
\exists x \varphi(x), \exists x (\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \lor \varphi(x)).
$$

Applying the inference rule (cut), we obtain

$$
\vdash \exists x (\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \vee \varphi(x)).
$$

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Model [construction](#page-25-0) **Proof (continued).** Since T is consistent, $T \cup {\exists x (\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \lor \varphi(x))}$ is also consistent. Thus by the second lemma in Page 27, $T \cup H_1$ is consistent. Similarly, for each sentence of the form $\exists x \varphi(x)$ in $\mathcal{L}_1 = \mathcal{L} \cup C_1$, we add the constant $c_{\exists x \varphi(x)}$ and collect them as $C_2 \supseteq C_1$; collect the sentences $\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \vee \varphi(c_{\exists x \varphi(x)})$ as $H_2 \supset H_1$:

$$
C_2 = \{ \mathbf{c}_{\exists x \varphi(x)} : \exists x \varphi(x) \text{ is an } \mathcal{L}_1 \text{-}sentence \}.
$$

$$
H_2 = \{ \neg \exists x \varphi(x) \lor \varphi(\mathbf{c}_{\exists x \varphi(x)}) : \mathbf{c}_{\exists x \varphi(x)} \in C_2 \}
$$

For any consistent theory T, $T \cup H_2$ is consistent. By repeating this process, we construct two increasing sequences

$$
C_0 = \varnothing \subseteq C_1 \subseteq C_2 \subseteq \cdots, \quad H_0 = \varnothing \subseteq H_1 \subseteq H_2 \subseteq \cdots
$$

and we set

$$
C=\bigcup_{i\in\mathbb{N}}C_i\text{ and }H=\bigcup_{i\in\mathbb{N}}H_i.
$$

A constant that belongs to C is called a **Henkin constant**, and a sentence that belongs to H is called a **Henkin axiom**.

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Model [construction](#page-25-0) **Proof (continued).** Next we show that C and H constructed above satisfy conditions (1) and (2) of the lemma.

Let T be a consistent \mathcal{L} -theory.

(1) If $T \cup H$ were inconsistent, then the inconsistency results from some finite segment of $T \cup H$, that is, there would exist $i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $T \cup H_i$ were inconsistent. This contradicts the construction of $\{H_i\}$.

(2) Let $\mathcal{L}'=\mathcal{L}\cup C$ and $\exists x\varphi(x)$ be an \mathcal{L}' -sentence. Then $\exists x\varphi(x)$ is an \mathcal{L}_i -sentence of $\mathcal{L} \cup C_i$ for some $i \in \mathbb{N}$. So

$$
\neg \exists x \varphi(x) \lor \varphi(\mathbf{c}_{\exists x \varphi(x)}) \in H_{i+1} \subseteq H.
$$

Now, we assume $T \cup H \vdash \exists x \varphi(x)$. By a simple calculation, we also have $T \cup H \vdash \exists x \varphi(x) \land \neg \varphi(c_{\exists x \varphi(x)})$, $\varphi(c_{\exists x \varphi(x)})$. Then by inference rule (cut), we have

 $T \cup H \vdash \varphi(\mathsf{c}_{\exists x \varphi(x)})$.

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- \leftarrow Homework \longrightarrow
	- **1** Let $\mathcal{L} = \{ \langle \cdot, f \rangle \}$. In the structure $(\mathbb{R}, \langle \cdot, f \rangle)$ of real numbers with ordinary $\langle \cdot, f \rangle$ construct a formula expressing "the function $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$ ". (Cf. Example 2, p.6. Here, you are not allowed to use operations $+,\cdot,-$.)
	- **2** Let (\mathbb{R}, \leq, f) be the same *L*-structure as above. Then, show that there is no formula that expresses " $f(x)$ is differentiable at $x = a$ ".

✒ ✑

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Thank you for your attention!