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Examples

Logic and Computation I Part 3a. Formal Arithmetic

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Examples

Logic and Computation I

- Part 1. Introduction to Theory of Computation
- Part 2. Propositional Logic and Computational Complexity
- Part 3. First Order Logic and Decision Problems
- Part 3a. Formal Arithmetic

Part 3a. Schedule (subject to change)

- Nov.21, (6) Presburger arithmetic
- Nov.26, (7) Peano arithmetic
- Nov.28, (8) Gödel's first incompleteness theorem
- Dec. 3, (9) Gödel's second incompleteness theorem
- Dec. 5, (10) Second order logic
- Dec.10, (11) Second order arithmetic

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Second order logic

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Examples

Second order logic: Introduction

- In first-order logic (FO), quantifiers ∀ and ∃ range over the elements of a structure.
- To describe "first-order logic", the Tarski School often uses the term "elementary" (e.g., elementary equivalence), in which elementary also means "by means of the elements".
- Second-order logic (SO) enables us to use quantifiers over <u>relations</u> and <u>functions</u> on the elements.
- Especially, **monadic second-order logic (MSO)** uses quantification over the sets of elements. There are many MSO theories which are expressive and yet decidable.

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Examples

- In the following, we only consider the quantifiers over relations.
- Consider a first-order language \mathcal{L} and an *n*-ary relation symbol $R \ (\notin \mathcal{L})$. For a formula $\varphi(R) \in \mathcal{L} \cup \{R\}$, by considering R as variable R, we can introduce formulas with second order quantifiers such as $\forall R\varphi(R)$ and $\exists R\varphi(R)$.
- Then, for a structure \mathcal{A} in \mathcal{L} , the satisfiability of $\forall R\varphi(R)$ and $\exists R\varphi(R)$ is determined as follows.

Definition 4.1

Consider a first-order language \mathcal{L} and an *n*-ary relation symbol $\mathbb{R} \ (\notin \mathcal{L})$. For a formula $\varphi(\mathbb{R}) \in \mathcal{L} \cup \{\mathbb{R}\}$, the satisfiability of $\forall R\varphi(R)$ and $\exists R\varphi(R)$ in a structure \mathcal{A} of \mathcal{L} is defined as follows.

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{A} &\models \forall R \varphi(R) \Leftrightarrow \text{for any } \dot{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq A^n, (\mathcal{A}, \dot{\mathrm{R}}) \models \varphi(\mathrm{R}) \text{ holds.} \\ \mathcal{A} &\models \exists R \varphi(R) \Leftrightarrow \text{there exists } \dot{\mathrm{R}} \subseteq A^n \text{ such that } (\mathcal{A}, \dot{\mathrm{R}}) \models \varphi(\mathrm{R}) \end{split}$$

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- In the following, we do not strictly distinguish among the relation variable R, relation \dot{R} , and relation constant (symbol) R.
- The concepts of free and bound variables can be introduced for second-order formulas as those in first-order formulas.
- The problem is how to define the domain of second-order variables.
- In the above interpretation, we use "any R ⊆ Aⁿ" to mean that all the subsets of Aⁿ. A structure with such an interpretation is called a standard structure of second-order logic.
- However, this interpretation is not rigorous, since it leaves to the meta-standpoint what are all the subsets of A^n are.
- In fact, it is impossible to formalize this interpretation as we will explain soon.

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Examples

Theorem 4.2 (Gödel)

The validity of (M)SO in terms of standard structures is not axiomatizable (CE), hence not decidable.

Proof.

- Assume MSO were axiomatized. We can define second-order Peano Arithmetic PA₂ by adding arithmetic axioms to MSO. In a model (M,S) of PA₂, any subset of the first-order domain M belongs to the second-order domain $S = \mathcal{P}(M)$.
- Then, let N be the minimum subset of M containing 0 and closed under +1. This is isomorphic to \mathbb{N} , and exists in the second-order domain S.
- Since induction for $\varphi(x) \equiv x \in \mathbb{N}$ holds in (M, S), \mathbb{N} must agree with the whole M. Thus, M is isomorphic to \mathbb{N} .
- Therefore, the unique model for PA_2 is $\mathbb{N} \cup \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$, which implies that there is no sentence independent from PA_2 . This condradicts with Gödel's first incompleteness theorem.

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Examples

- L. Henkin introduced a **general structure** of second-order logic, whose second-order part varies similarly to the first-order logic domain. In other words, such a logic can be regarded as two-sorted first-order logic.
- Such a logic captures the same theorems as first-order logic, e.g., the completeness theorem.
- For simplicity, we only consider **monadic second-order logic** (**MSO**), which restricts second-order variables to unary relations, namely subsets of the first-order domain.
- The monadic second-order variables (also called **set variables**) are denoted by X, Y, Z, \ldots , and the atomic formula X(t) is also written as $t \in X$.
- We define the general structure of monadic second-order logic as follows.

Definition 4.3

A general structure of monadic second-order logic $\mathcal{B} = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{S})$ consists of first-order logic structure \mathcal{A} and set $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{P}(A)$. The set quantifiers range over \mathcal{B} as follows.

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{B} &\models \forall X \varphi(X) \Leftrightarrow \text{for any } S \in \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{B} \models \varphi(S) \text{ holds,} \\ \mathcal{B} &\models \exists X \varphi(X) \Leftrightarrow \text{there exists } S \in \mathcal{S} \text{ such that } \mathcal{B} \models \varphi(S). \end{split}$$

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Examples

- A general structure can also be viewed as a first-order structure with two domains (A and S) (or split into two domains).
- The formalization is almost the same as first-order logic, just by preparing two kinds of variables. Therefore, fundamental theorems such as the completeness theorem can be proved in a similar way.
- Henkin assumed that the general structure should satisfy certain amounts of comprehension axiom and axiom of choice. Comprehension axiom asserts that for a formula φ(x) with no free occurrence of X, ∃X∀x(x ∈ X ↔ φ(x)), i.e., the set {x : φ(x)} exists in the second-order domain. Note that if φ(x) contains a second-order quantifier ∀Y (or ∃Y), the range of the variable Y already includes the set {x : φ(x)} to be defined. Although such comprehension axiom does not lead to contradiction, we often restrict the use of second-order quantifiers in the principal formula φ(x) of the comprehension axiom.
- Similarly, there are various versions of the axiom of choice, and it is desirable to assume only what is necessary for the discussion (- Remove unnecessary hypotheses by Occam's razor).

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Examples

Theorem 4.4 (Completeness theorem of MSO)

An MSO formula is provable from appropriate comprehension and other axioms in two-sorted first-order system if and only if it is true in any general structure that satisfies those axioms.

This theorem can be proved in the same way as in first-order logic. It can also be generalized to higher-order logics. In fact, Henkin's proof for the completeness theorem of first-order logic was made with such a generalization scheme.

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Examples

MSO examples and Lecture 03-04

- We consider a first-order language of finitely many relation symbols and constants.
- The (quantifier) rank of a formula measures the entanglement of quantifiers appearing in it. For example, the rank of $\forall y(\forall x \exists y(x = y) \land \forall z(z > 0))$ is 3.
- By $\mathcal{A} \equiv_n \mathcal{B}$, we mean structures \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} satisfy the same formulas with rank $\leq n$.
- Given an \mathcal{A} and n, there is the **Scott-Hintikka sentence** $\varphi_{\mathcal{A}}^n$ of rank n such that $\mathcal{B} \models \varphi_{\mathcal{A}}^n \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{B} \equiv_n \mathcal{A}$.
- By $\mathcal{A} \simeq^n \mathcal{B}$, we mean that player II has a winning strategy in $\mathrm{EF}_n(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B})$, where n is the round of the game.
- **EF theorem** For all $n \ge 0$, $\mathcal{A} \equiv_n \mathcal{B}$ iff $\mathcal{A} \simeq^n \mathcal{B}$.
- Corollary $\mathcal{A} \equiv \mathcal{B}$ iff $\mathcal{A} \simeq^n \mathcal{B}$ for all $n \ge 0$.

– Example

• First-order logic FO cannot distinguish ($\mathbb{Q}, <$) and ($\mathbb{R}, <$).

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Examples

Example 1: MSO is more expressive than FO

In MSO, let π be the following formula (rank 4) which expresses "a bounded set $X(\neq \emptyset)$ has a least upper bound".

 $\forall X (\exists x \in X \land \exists y \forall x \in X (x \le y) \rightarrow$

 $\exists z (\forall x \in X (x \leq z) \land \forall y (\forall x \in X (x \leq y) \rightarrow z \leq y))).$

 π holds not only for the standard structure of $(\mathbb{R},<),$ but also for any general structure of $(\mathbb{R},<).$

• As for (\mathbb{Q} , <), π holds meaninglessly in special general structures with second-order domains consisting of unbounded sets and finite sets.

 π does not hold in structures with second-order domain containing a set with an irrational supremum.

 \bullet $(\mathbb{Q},<)$ and $(\mathbb{R},<)$ are distinguishable by MSO (in the standard structures).

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Examples

– Example 2: MSO is more expressive than FO

- FO can not express the parity (even or odd) of the length of a finite linear order. In fact, a sentence with rank m can not distinguish linear orders with length $\geq 2^m$ (Lecture 03-05).
- MSO can express the parity (even or odd) of the length of a finite linear order. First we put

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{succ}(x,y) \equiv (x < y) \land \forall z (z \leq x \lor y \leq z) \\ & \operatorname{succ2}(x,y) \equiv \exists z (\operatorname{succ}(x,z) \land \operatorname{succ}(z,y)). \\ & \text{In addition, } \operatorname{first}(x) \equiv \neg \exists y \ \operatorname{succ}(y,x), \ \text{and} \ \operatorname{last}(x) \equiv \neg \exists y \ \operatorname{succ}(x,y). \\ & \text{Finally, we define } \sigma \ \text{as the following formula} \end{split}$$

 $\exists X (\exists x \in X(\operatorname{first}(x)) \land \exists z \not \in X(\operatorname{last}(z)) \land \forall u, v(u \in X \land \operatorname{succ2}(u, v) \to v \in X))$

which means "there is a set X that does not reach the last by skipping every other points from the start". So it expresses that the length is even (in the standard structure).

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Examples

- Example 3: SO is more expressive than MSO

 \bullet The MSO theory of $(\mathbb{N},x+1,0)$ is decidable due to Büchi. (We will study this result in the next semester.)

 \bullet The SO theory of $(\mathbb{N},x+1,0)$ is not, since addition m+n=k is defined by

 $\forall R([R(0,m) \land \forall x, y(R(x,y) \rightarrow R(x+1,y+1))] \rightarrow R(n,k),$

and multiplication can be defined in a similar way, which means that first-order arithmetic is embedded into the theory.

Exercise

Show that multiplication is definable in a second-order theory of $(\mathbb{N},x+1,0),$ and prove that this theory is undecidable.

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Examples

The relations between arithmetic theories are summarized as follows.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathsf{FO}(\mathbb{N},S(x))\subset & \mathsf{FO}(\mathbb{N},S(x),+)\subset & \mathsf{FO}(\mathbb{N},S(x),+,\cdot) \\ & & & & & & \\ & & \mathsf{MSO}(\mathbb{N},S(x))\subset & \mathsf{MSO}(\mathbb{N},S(x),+) \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \mathsf{SO}(\mathbb{N},S(x)) \end{array}$$

Here, S(x) denotes x + 1, and $FO(\mathbb{N}, S(x))$ is the FO theory of $(\mathbb{N}, S(x))$. Similarly for $MSO(\mathbb{N}, S(x))$, etc. $A \subset B$ is the usual set inclusion, $A \Subset B$ a relation via a formula translation, $A \Subset^* B$ a formula translation with coding.

 $S1S = MSO(\mathbb{N}, S(x))$ is decidable.

Büchi (1960)'s proof relied on ω -automata with a Büchi condition, which accept an infinite word if a final state appears infinitely many times during reading the input.

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Examples

Definition 3.32 for Lindström's theorem

- The essence of logic is the relation between sentences and models, " $\mathcal{A} \models_{\mathsf{S}} \varphi$ ".
- By a logic, we mean a set S of sentences together with a function Mod_S such that for each sentence φ ∈ S, Mod_S(φ) intends to represent {A : A ⊨_S φ}.
- Logic S is said to be weaker than logic S' $(S \leq S')$ iff for any $\varphi \in S$, there exists some $\varphi' \in S'$ such that $Mod_S(\varphi) = Mod_{S'}(\varphi')$. Obviously, $FO \leq MSO \leq SO$.
- We say the (countable) compactness theorem holds for logic S iff for any countable U ⊂ S, if ∩{Mod_S(φ) : φ ∈ U} = Ø, then there exists a finite V ⊂ U such that ∩{Mod_S(φ) : φ ∈ V} = Ø.
- We say the (countable) downward Löwenheim-Skolem theorem holds for logic S iff for any countable U ⊂ S, if ∩{Mod_S(φ) : φ ∈ U} contains an infinite structure A, then it has a countably infinite structure B.
- The compactness theorem and the downward ${\rm LS}$ theorem hold for FO, but they fail for MSO and SO.
- Surprisingly, Lindström has shown that FO is the strongest logic that satisfies are both the compactness theorem and the downward LS theorem. 15/21

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Examples

We consider a language of finitely many relational symbols and constants, without functional symbols.

Definition 3.21

Let \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} be structures in \mathcal{L} . A partial function $f : A \to B$ is a **partial** isomorphism if $\mathcal{A} \upharpoonright \text{dom}(f)$ and $\mathcal{B} \upharpoonright \text{range}(f)$ are isomorphic via f.

Definition 3.22 (Ehrenfeucht-Fraïssé games)

Let \mathcal{A}_0 , \mathcal{A}_1 be structures in \mathcal{L} and n be a natural number. In an *n*-round **EF** game, $\operatorname{EF}_n(\mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1)$, player I (Spoiler) and player II (Duplicator) alternately choose from A_i (i = 0, 1) following the rules described below, and the winner is determined according to the winning condition.

- **Rules**: if I chooses $x_i \in A_j$ (j = 0, 1), II chooses $y_i \in A_{1-j}$.
- Winning conditions: If the correspondence $x_i \leftrightarrow y_i$ chosen by the players up to n rounds determines a partial isomorphism of \mathcal{A}_0 and \mathcal{A}_1 , then II wins.



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Examples

Definition 3.23

 $\mathcal{A}\simeq^n\mathcal{B}$ if player II has a winning strategy in $\mathrm{EF}_n(\mathcal{A},\mathcal{B})$.

The (quantifier) rank of a formula measures the entanglement of quantifiers appearing in it.

Definition 3.24

 $\mathcal{A} \equiv_n \mathcal{B}$ if \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} satisfy the same formulas with rank $\leq n$.

Theorem 3.27 (EF Theorem)

 $\text{For all } n \geq 0 \text{, } (\mathcal{A}, \vec{a}) \simeq^n (\mathcal{B}, \vec{b}) \Leftrightarrow (\mathcal{A}, \vec{a}) \equiv_n (\mathcal{B}, \vec{b}).$

• Corollary 3.30 The following are equivalent.

- (1) For any n, there exist $\mathcal{A} \in K$ and $\mathcal{B} \notin K$ such that $\mathcal{A} \equiv_n \mathcal{B}$.
- (2) K is not an elementary class (K cannot be defined by a first-order formula).

We extend the play of the EF game to infinity (ω -round), denoted as $EF_{\omega}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B})$. We write $\mathcal{A} \simeq^{\omega} \mathcal{B}$ if player II has a winning strategy in $EF_{\omega}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B})$.

• Corollary 3.31 Suppose \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} are countable. Then, $\mathcal{A} \simeq^{\omega} \mathcal{B} \iff \mathcal{A} \simeq \mathcal{B}$. 17 / 21

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Examples

Theorem 3.33 (Lindström's theorem)

For logic S such that $FO \leq S$, the following are equivalent. (1) Compactness theorem and downward LS theorem holds for S. (2) S \leq FO.

Proof. (2) \Rightarrow (1) is obvious since (2) implies S = FO. To show $(1) \Rightarrow (2)$, assume S \leq FO does not hold. There exists some $\varphi \in$ S such that $Mod_S(\varphi)$ is not defined by a first-order sentence. That is, for any $n \in \omega$, there exist $\mathcal{A} \in Mod_{\mathsf{S}}(\varphi)$ and $\mathcal{B} \in Mod_{\mathsf{S}}(\neg \varphi)$ such that $\mathcal{A} \equiv_{n} \mathcal{B}$, or equivalently $\mathcal{A} \simeq^n \mathcal{B}$ by the EF theorem. We express this condition as a logical expression θ_n of S for each n (so that $\theta_{n+1} \to \theta_n$). Namely, $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \sigma) \models_S \theta_n$ means that " $\mathcal{A} \models_S \varphi$ and $\mathcal{B} \models_{\mathsf{S}} \neg \varphi$ and σ is player II's winning strategy in $\mathrm{EF}_n(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B})$ ". Since this holds for all $n \in \omega$, by the compactness theorem, $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \sigma) \models_{\mathsf{S}} \{\theta_n : n \in \omega\}$ holds, and thus σ is a winning strategy in $\mathrm{EF}_{\omega}(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B})$. Moreover, $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \sigma)$ can be selected countable by downward LS theorem. Therefore, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B} are isomorphic, which contradicts with $\mathcal{A} \in Mod_{S}(\varphi)$ and $\mathcal{B} \in \mathrm{Mod}_{\mathsf{S}}(\neg \varphi)$. Thus $\mathsf{S} < \mathsf{FO}$. 18 / 21

Examples of logic

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Examples

Infinitary logic $\mathcal{L}_{\omega_1,\omega}$: allowing countable disjunctions and conjunctions, but including only finitely many free variables.

FO(Q_1): adding the quantifier Q_1 to the first-order logic. $Q_1 x \varphi(x)$ means "there are uncountably many x that satisfy $\varphi(x)$ ".

WMSO: Second-order quantifiers range over finite sets only.

Table:	The	compactness	and	downward	LS	property	for	various	logic
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Logic	Compactness	Downward LS property	
FO	0	0	•
WMSO	×	\bigcirc	
MSO, SO	×	×	
$FO(Q_1)$	0	×	
$\mathcal{L}_{\omega_1,\omega}$	×		E + 4 E + E - ∽ 9

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Examples

Summary

- Second-order logic allows quantifiers over relations and functions on a domain.
- A general structure $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{S})$, where $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{P}(A)$. A standard structure $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}(A))$.
- Theorem (Gödel): The validity of (M)SO in terms of standard structures is not axiomatizable (CE), hence not decidable.
- MSO has set variables ranging over subsets of the first-order domain.
- Completeness theorem of MSO: An MSO formula is provable from appropriate comprehension and other axioms in two-sorted first-order system if and only if it is true in any general structure that satisfies those axioms.
- \bullet Lindström theorem: FO is the strongest logic that satisfies both the compactness theorem and the downward $\rm LS$ theorem.
- Further reading

Second-order and Higher-order Logic. From *Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy*, https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/logic-higher-order/

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Examples

Thank you for your attention!

