# Forcing and the independence of the continuum hypothesis

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#### Abstract

In these notes, intended as the plaintext part of the Flypitch project, we give a complete account of the independence of the continuum hypothesis from ZFC, with special attention paid to comparing the different approaches: generic sets, Boolean-valued models, and double-negation sheaves.

# 1 Preliminaries

## 1.1 First-order logic

## 1.1.1 General logical symbols

**Definition 1.1.** We reserve the following general logical symbols:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \neg & & \text{not} \\ \vee & & \text{or} \\ \wedge & & \text{and} \\ \forall & & \text{for all} \\ \exists & & \text{exists} \\ = & & \text{equals} \\ (,) & & \text{parentheses} \\ (x_i)_{i:\mathbb{N}}, (y_i)_{i:\mathbb{N}}, (z_i)_{i:\mathbb{N}} & \text{variables} \end{array}$$

#### 1.1.2 First-order languages

**Definition 1.2.** A (first-order, one-sorted) language  $\mathcal{L}$  comprises the following data:

- (i) A collection of constant symbols  $Const(\mathcal{L})$ ,
- (ii) a collection of relation symbols  $Rel(\mathcal{L})$ ,
- (iii) a collection of function symbols  $Funct(\mathcal{L})$ , and
- (iv) an assignment of each symbol  $S : \mathsf{Const}(\mathcal{L}) \cup \mathsf{Rel}(\mathcal{L}) \cup \mathsf{Funct}(\mathcal{L})$  to a natural number  $\mathsf{arity}(S) : \mathbb{N}$ .

Whenever we interpret a language on some carrier A, we mean for constants c to be interpreted as elements of  $A^{\operatorname{arity}(c)}$ , relations R to be interpreted as subsets of  $A^{\operatorname{arity}(R)}$ , and for function symbols to be interpreted as functions  $A^{\operatorname{arity}(f)} \to A$ .

- **Example 1.3.** The language of groups comprises a 1-ary constant symbol for the identity and a 2-ary function for group multiplication.
  - The language of rings comprises constant symbols 0 and 1 and 2-ary functions for addition and multiplication.
  - The language of set theory comprises just one 2-ary relation  $\in$ .

## 1.1.3 Terms, formulas, and sentences

**Definition 1.4.** A **term** is a string of symbols defined by structural induction as follows:

- 1. Any variable v is a term.
- 2. Any constant c is a term.
- 3. If  $t_1, \ldots, t_n$  are terms of arities  $a_1, \ldots, a_n$ , then  $(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$  is a term of arity  $a_1 + \cdots + a_n$ .
- 4. If t is a term and f is a function symbol with matching arities, then ft is a term.

Whenever we interpret our language on a carrier A, we mean for terms to be interpreted as functions into A which we can construct by composing existing constants (constant functions), basic functions (i.e. the interpretations of the function symbols), and variables (identity).

#### **Definition 1.5.** A formula is defined by structural induction as follows:

- 1. If  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are terms of the same arity,  $t_1 = t_2$  is a formula.
- 2. If t is a term and R is a relation symbol, and t and R have the same arity, then Rt is a formula.
- 3. If  $\varphi$  is a formula,  $\neg \varphi$  is a formula.
- 4. If  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are formulas, then  $\varphi \vee \psi$  is a formula.
- 5. If  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  are formulas, then  $\varphi \wedge \psi$  is a formula.
- 6. If  $\varphi$  is a formula containing a variable v, then  $\exists v \varphi$  is a formula.
- 7. If  $\varphi$  is a formula containing a variable v, then  $\forall v \varphi v$  is a formula.

**Definition 1.6.** Let  $\varphi$  be a formula containing the variables  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$ . We say that the variable  $x_k$  is **free** if  $x_k$  is not contained in a subformula of the form  $\exists x_k \psi$  or  $\forall x_k \psi$ .

 $x_k$  is **bound** if it is not free.

**Definition 1.7.** A formula is a **sentence** (or **statement**) if it contains no free variables.

We write  $\mathsf{Formulas}(\mathcal{L})$  for all the first-order formulas of  $\mathcal{L}$ , and we write  $\mathsf{Sentences}(\mathcal{L})$  for all the first-order sentences of  $\mathcal{L}$ .

By convention, we always include sentences called true and false.

## 1.1.4 Predicate calculus and provability

Throughout this section, we fix a language  $\mathcal{L}$ .

**Definition 1.8.** A propositional function is a function  $f : \mathsf{Prop}^k \to \mathsf{Prop}$ , for some  $1 < k : \mathbb{N}$  which we define inductively as follows:

- 1. The constant functions to true and false are propositional functions.
- 2. Each projection  $(P_1, \ldots, P_k) \mapsto P_j$  is a propositional function.
- 3. If f and g are propositional functions, so are

$$\neg f, f \land g, f \lor g, f \to g, \text{ and } f \leftrightarrow g,$$

where the operations above are carried out pointwise in Prop.

f is a **tautology** if  $\vdash \forall \vec{p} : \mathsf{Prop}^k, f\vec{p} \leftrightarrow \mathsf{true}$ .

**Definition 1.9.** A propositional combination is a function f: Sentences $(\mathcal{L})^k \to \text{Sentences}(\mathcal{L})^k$ , for some  $1 < k : \mathbb{N}$  which we define inductively as follows:

- 1. Each projection  $(B_1, \ldots, B_k) \mapsto B_j$  is a propositional combination.
- 2. If f and g are propositional combinations, so are

$$\neg f, f \land g, f \lor g, f \to g, \text{ and } f \leftrightarrow g,$$

where the operations are carried out pointwise in  $Sentences(\mathcal{L})$ .

By sending projections to projections and symbols  $(\neg, \land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow)$  to the corresponding operations on Prop, every propositional combination  $f : \mathsf{Sentences}(\mathcal{L})^k \to \mathsf{Sentences}(\mathcal{L})$  can be realized as a propositional function  $\mathbf{r}(f) : \mathsf{Prop}^k \to \mathsf{Prop}$ .

**Definition 1.10.** The **predicate calculus** comprises the following rules for deducing sentences from other sentences. We call deducible sentences **valid**, and write  $\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \varphi$  to mean that the  $\mathcal{L}$ -sentence  $\varphi$  is valid (and to disambiguate from  $\vdash$ , which when used unadorned means "provable in the metatheory).

- (a) (Rule of the propositional calculus) if f is a propositional combination taking k arguments such that  $\mathbf{r}(f)$  is a tautology, then for any k sentences  $A_1, \ldots, A_k$ , the value of the propositional combination  $f(\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_k)$  is a valid sentence.
- (b) (Rule of modus ponens) If A and  $A \to B$  are valid, then B is valid.
- (c) (Rules of equality)
  - (i)  $\forall x, x = x, \forall x \forall y, x = y \land y = x, \text{ and } \forall x \forall y \forall z, x = y \land y = z \rightarrow x = z \text{ are all valid.}$
  - (ii) Let  $\varphi(x)$  be a formula whose only free variable is x. Then

$$\forall x \forall y, (x = y) \rightarrow (\varphi(x) \rightarrow \varphi(y))$$

is valid.

- (d) (Change of variable) If A is a sentence and A' represents A with all instances of a variable x switched to y, then  $A \leftrightarrow A'$  is valid.
- (e) (Rule of specialization " $\forall$ -elimination") Let c be any constant symbol, and let  $\varphi(x)$  be a formula whose only free variable is x. Then  $(\forall x \varphi(x)) \to \varphi(c)$  is valid.
- (f) (" $\neg$ -introduction") If  $\neg A \leftrightarrow (A \rightarrow \mathsf{false})$  is valid.

- (g) (Generalization of constants " $\forall$ -introduction") Let B be a sentence which does not contain the constant c or the variable x. Let  $\varphi(x)$  be some formula such that  $\varphi(x) \to B$  is valid. Then  $\exists x \varphi(x) \to B$  is also valid.
- (h) (de Morgan laws) Let  $\varphi(x)$  have x as its only free variable. Let B be a sentence which does not contain x. Then the following are valid statements:

$$(\neg(\forall x\varphi(x))) \leftrightarrow (\exists x\neg\varphi(x))$$
$$((\forall x\varphi(x)) \land B) \leftrightarrow ((\forall x(\varphi(x) \land B)$$
$$((\exists x\varphi(x)) \land B) \leftrightarrow ((\exists x(\varphi(x) \land B)$$

**Definition 1.11.** Let S be a collection of sentences.

- (i) We say that A is provable from S if there exist finitely many  $B_1, \ldots, B_n : S$  such that  $(B_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge B_n) \to A$  is valid.
- (ii) We say that S is consistent if false is not valid.

Remark 1.12. One may wonder why we work with a type of formulas and not with a collection of Props directly. The problem with this is that everything needs to be typed, and so to reason about a predicate (say " $\in$ ") using Prop, we need some carrier type A such that  $\in$ :  $A \to A \to \text{Prop}$ , so that e.g.  $\in$  satisfies the axioms of set theory. But then what does it mean for some other type B to have an interpretation of  $\in$  and the axioms it satisfies? There then needs to be a separate predicate  $\in_B$ :  $B \to B \to \text{Prop}$  satisfying the same kind of Props as  $\in$ :  $A \to A \to \text{Prop}$ . We could proceed to define a typeclass of such  $(B, \in_B)$ , and we would then be working with models of set theory, but we would lack a way to reason syntactically about the axioms themselves.

## 1.2 Models and satisfiability

For the remainder of this section we fix a language  $\mathcal{L}$ .

**Definition 1.13.** An  $\mathcal{L}$ -theory is a collection of sentences from Sentences( $\mathcal{L}$ ).

**Definition 1.14.** An  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure comprises the following data:

- (i) A carrier type A,
- (ii) an assignment of every  $c : Const(\mathcal{L})$  to a  $c^A : A^{arity(c)}$ ,
- (iii) an assignment of every  $R: Rel(\mathcal{L})$  to a subtype  $R^A: A^{arity(R)} \to Prop$ ,
- (iv) an assignment of every  $f : \mathsf{Funct}(\mathcal{L})$  to a function  $f^A : A^{\mathsf{arity}(f)} \to A$ .

**Definition 1.15.** Let A be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure. Using the data of A being an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure, we can inductively assign to every term t (of arity k and containing n free variables) a **realization**  $\mathbf{r}(t)$ :  $A^n \to A^k$ , as follows:

- 1. If t = v for a variable v,  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathrm{id}_A = \lambda v$ , v.
- 2. If t = c for a constant symbol c,  $\mathbf{r}(t) = A^0 \stackrel{c^A}{\rightarrow} A$ .

In particular, using the next rule, if  $\neg \varphi(c) \rightarrow \mathsf{false}$  is valid, so is  $\exists x \neg \varphi(x) \rightarrow \mathsf{false}$ , so is  $\neg \exists x \neg \varphi(x)$ , and therefore so is  $\forall x \varphi(x)$ .

- 3. If  $t = (t_1, \ldots, t_m)$ , then  $\mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{r}(t_1) \times \cdots \times \mathbf{r}(t_m)$ .
- 4. If  $t = f(t_0)$  for some function symbol f, then  $\mathbf{r}(t) = f^A \circ \mathbf{r}(t_0)$ .

**Definition 1.16.** Let A be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure. Using the data of A being an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure, we can inductively assign to every formula  $\varphi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  (where  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  exhaust the free variables of  $\varphi$ ) a **realization**  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi) : A^n \to \mathsf{Prop}$ , as follows:

- 1. If  $\varphi$  is of the form  $t_1 = t_2$ , then  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$  is  $\mathbf{r}(t_1) = \mathbf{r}(t_2)$  (where symbolic equality is realized as true equality).
- 2. If  $\varphi$  is of the form R(t),  $\mathbf{r}(R(t))$  is  $R^A(\mathbf{r}(t))$ .
- 3. If  $\varphi$  is of the form  $\neg \psi$ , then  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$  is  $\neg \mathbf{r}(\psi)$ .
- 4. If  $\varphi$  is of the form  $\psi \vee \psi'$ , then  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$  is  $\mathbf{r}(\psi) \vee \mathbf{r}(\psi')$ .
- 5. If  $\varphi$  is of the form  $\psi \wedge \psi'$ , then  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$  is  $\mathbf{r}(\psi) \wedge \mathbf{r}(\psi')$ .
- 6. If  $\varphi$  is of the form  $\exists v\psi$ , then  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$  is  $\exists v\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$ .
- 7. If  $\varphi$  is of the form  $\forall v\psi$ , then  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$  is  $\forall v\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$ .

In particular, each sentence  $\varphi$  is sent to a Prop  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi)$ .

**Definition 1.17.** Let A be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure, and let  $\varphi$  be a sentence. We say that A satisfies  $\varphi$ , written

$$A \models \varphi$$
,

if  $\vdash \mathbf{r}(\varphi)$ .

**Definition 1.18.** Let T be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -theory, and let A be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure. We say that A is a **model** of T if for every sentence  $\varphi : T$ ,  $A \models \varphi$ .

**Example 1.19.** (Line graph) The **language of graphs**  $\mathcal{L}_{\mathsf{Graph}}$  comprises a single 2-ary relation symbol E.

The **theory of graphs** Graph comprises the sentence  $\forall x \forall y (E(x,y) \leftrightarrow E(y,x))$ .

The natural numbers  $\mathbb N$  can be viewed as a model of Graph as follows. We realize E as the set

$$(y = \operatorname{succ} x) \vee (x = \operatorname{succ} y) : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \to \mathsf{Prop}$$

which is clearly symmetric.

**Example 1.20.** Let  $\mathbf{Mod}(\mathsf{Graph})$  be the collection of graphs.<sup>2</sup> A **graph property** is a map  $P: \mathbf{Mod}(\mathsf{Graph}) \to \mathsf{Prop}$  such that whenever  $G \simeq G', \ P(G) \leftrightarrow P(G')$ . We say that G satisfies P if  $P(g) \leftrightarrow \mathsf{true}$ . A graph property is additionally said to be *monotone* if whenever  $G \subseteq G'$  is a subgraph, then  $P(G') \to P(G)$ .

For example, the property of being a complete graph is not monotone, while the property of being cycle-free is.

The **graph evasiveness conjecture** says that for every monotone graph property P and every  $n : \mathbb{N}$ , one needs to ask  $\binom{n}{2}$  questions of the form "is there an edge between v and w" to determine if an arbitrary graph on n vertices satisfies P.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Warning: this is "large", so lives in the next universe up: one can interpret a trivial edge relation on *every* type in the current universe.

## Example 1.21. (Peano arithmetic)

The language of Peano arithmetic  $\mathcal{L}_{PA}$  comprises:

- 1. A 1-ary constant 0.
- 2. Three function symbols succ, +,  $\times$ .

The theory of Peano arithmetic PA comprises:

- 1.  $\forall x, s(x) \neq 0$
- 2.  $\forall x \forall y, (s(x) = s(y)) \rightarrow x = y$
- 3.  $\forall x, x + 0 = x$
- 4.  $\forall x \forall y, x + s(y) = s(x+y)$
- 5.  $\forall x, x \times 0 = 0$
- 6.  $\forall x \forall y, x \times S(y) = (x \times y) + x$

Schema: For every  $\mathcal{L}_{PA}$ -formula  $\varphi(x)$  with one free variable x,

$$(\varphi(0) \land \forall x (\varphi(x) \to \varphi(\operatorname{succ} x))) \to \forall x \varphi(x).$$

The **standard model** of PA is  $\mathbb{N}$  with 0 realized as 0 :  $\mathbb{N}$ , succ realized as succ :  $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ , + realized as + :  $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ , and × realized as × :  $\mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ .

By recursing on the inductive type of valid sentences and replacing every rule of the propositional calculus with the corresponding deduction rule for Prop, we can construct for every valid  $\mathcal{L}$ -sentence  $\varphi$  a proof that  $\mathbf{r}(\varphi) \leftrightarrow \mathsf{true}$ .

That is the soundness theorem. (In what follows, taking  $\psi$  to be true yields the assertion in the previous paragraph.)

**Theorem 1.22.** (Soundness theorem) For every  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure and any sentences  $\varphi, \psi$ : Sentences  $(\mathcal{L})$ ,

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \varphi \to \psi \implies \vdash_{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{r}(\psi).$$

This happens regardless of which  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure is doing the realizing. When the  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure itself is a model of a theory T, then whenever  $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \psi$ , then since there is some sentence  $\varphi : T$  such that  $\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \varphi \to \psi$ , Prop's modus ponens tells us that the model satisfies  $\psi$  also.

**Example 1.23.** For example, suppose we're working in the language of graphs expanded with two 1-ary constants a and b, and we know that there is some model M such that M satisfies the sole axiom that E is symmetric. We can show

$$\vdash (\forall x \forall y, \mathbf{r}(E)(x,y) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{r}(E)(y,x)) \rightarrow \mathbf{r}(E)(\mathbf{r}(a),\mathbf{r}(b)) \leftrightarrow \mathbf{r}(E)(\mathbf{r}(b),\mathbf{r}(a))$$

because we already know the antecedent and can apply Prop's  $\forall$ -elimination.

The converse of Theorem 1.22 is false. There may be some things which are incidentally true about the model which are not universally valid.

**Example 1.24.** Working again in the language of graphs, consider a complete graph on n vertices. Call this model M. M happens to satisfy the  $\mathcal{L}$ -sentence

$$(\forall x \forall y, E(x, y) \leftrightarrow E(y, x)) \rightarrow (\forall x \forall y \forall z, E(x, y) \land E(y, z) \rightarrow E(x, z)),$$

but this is not a valid  $\mathcal{L}$ -sentence. (Indeed, if it were, then the soundness theorem would imply that *every* graph has a transitive edge relation, which is not true.)

It will turn out that we can do the next best thing. If we rule out this kind of exception by requiring that  $M \models \varphi$  for every  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure M (resp. every model M of T), then it follows that  $\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \varphi$  (resp.  $T \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \varphi$ ). This is the completeness theorem.

# 1.3 The completeness theorem

In this section, our goal will be to prove the **completeness theorem**:

**Theorem 1.25.** Let T be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -theory. T is consistent if and only if there exists a model of T.

First we will prove that if there exists a model M of T, then T is consistent.

*Proof.* Suppose T is inconsistent. If T has a model M, then by the soundness theorem  $M \models \mathsf{false}$ . By definition, this means that in  $\mathsf{Prop}$ , we have proved that  $\mathsf{true} \leftrightarrow \mathsf{false}$ , a contradiction.

It then remains to show that if T is consistent, T has a model. We will first prove Theorem 1.25 in the case where the language  $\mathcal{L}$  of T is relational, i.e. has no function symbols. Later, we will show that to every theory  $\mathcal{L}$ -theory T we can associate a relational language  $\mathcal{L}_{rel}$  and an  $\mathcal{L}_{rel}$ -theory  $T_{rel}$  by replacing function symbols with their graph relations. Then we will show that if T is consistent, so is  $T_{rel}$ , and that every model of  $T_{rel}$  gives rise to a model of T, which will give the full completeness theorem.

Before proceeding, we prove a lemma, valid for any consistent theory in any language.

**Lemma 1.26.** Suppose T is consistent. Let  $\varphi$  be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -sentence. Then  $T \cup \{\varphi\}$  is consistent or  $T \cup \{\neg \varphi\}$  is consistent.

*Proof.* Suppose that both  $T \cup \{\varphi\}$  and  $T \cup \{\neg\varphi\}$  are inconsistent. Then there exist sentences  $\sigma$  and  $\rho$  from T such that

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\sigma \land \varphi) \rightarrow \mathsf{false} \quad \mathsf{and} \quad \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\rho \land \neg \varphi) \rightarrow \mathsf{false}.$$

By ¬-introduction, we get

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \neg (\sigma \land \varphi)$$
 and  $\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \neg (\rho \land \neg \varphi)$ 

and by  $\wedge$ -introduction, we get

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\neg(\sigma \land \varphi)) \land (\neg(\rho \land \neg\varphi)).$$

Since the finitary de Morgan laws are tautologies in the sense of 1.8, it follows that

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \neg (\sigma \lor \varphi \lor \rho \lor \neg \varphi).$$

Since the metatheory satisfies the law of the excluded middle, we have that the law of the excluded middle for  $\mathcal{L}$ -formulas is a tautology in the sense of 1.8. Therefore,

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \neg (\sigma \lor \rho) \Leftrightarrow \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \neg \sigma \land \neg \rho,$$

so by  $\land$ -elimination,  $\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \neg \sigma$  and  $\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \neg \rho$ , so T is inconsistent.

**Theorem 1.27.** Suppose that S is a relational theory, containing no quantifiers, and which is consistent. Then S has a model.

*Proof.* We start by choosing a well-ordering of S, which induces a well-ordering of the constant and relation symbols which appear in S. In turn, this induces a lexicographic ordering on all sentences of the form  $c_i = c_j$  and  $R_{\beta}(c_1, \ldots, c_n)$  where  $c_i, c_j$  and  $R_{\beta}$  are constant and relation symbols occurring in S. Collect these sentences into a single well-ordered set  $(F_{\alpha})$ .

Now, we inductively decide whether the  $F_{\alpha}$  should be true or false consistent with S. We put  $G_0 \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} F_0$  if  $S \cup \{F_0\}$  is consistent; otherwise we put  $G_0 \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \neg F_0$ . Similarly, for  $\beta > 0$  we put  $G_{\beta} \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} F_{\beta}$  if  $S \cup \{G_{\alpha} \mid \alpha < \beta\} \cup \{F_{\beta}\}$  is consistent, and we put  $G_{\beta} \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} \neg F_{\beta}$  otherwise.

From the previous lemma, at each stage  $\beta$  of this construction,  $S_{\beta} \stackrel{\text{df}}{=} S \cup \{G_{\alpha} \mid \alpha < \beta\}$  is consistent. Since any inconsistency is derivable from finitely many other sentences, the union

$$H \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} \bigcup_{\beta} S_{\beta}$$

is consistent.

Now, there is a natural equivalence relation on the collection  $\mathcal{C}$  of all constant symbols which occur in H, given by

$$c \sim_{\mathcal{C}} c' \iff c = c' : H.$$

Since C is well-ordered, we may pick the least element of each  $\sim_{C}$ -class, and collect them as C'. We will make C' into a model of H. First, we realize every constant symbol c as the chosen least representative of its  $\sim_{C}$ -class.

For every (n-ary) relation symbol  $R_{\beta}$ , we realize  $R_{\beta}$  by putting

$$R_{\beta}^{\mathcal{C}}(c_1,\ldots,c_n) \leftrightarrow (R(c_1,\ldots,c_n):H).$$

It remains to show that M is a model of S. Since S was quantifier-free, then by the inductive definition of formulas, every sentence in S is a Boolean combination of atomic sentences (precisely the  $F_{\alpha}$ ) or their negations. Let  $\varphi : S$ . We can additionally rearrange  $\varphi$  into a disjunctive normal form, so that

$$\varphi \equiv \bigvee_{i \leqslant n} \left( \bigwedge_{j \leqslant m_i} L_j^i \right),$$

where each  $L^i_j$  is an atomic or negated-atomic sentence. For each disjunctand  $\bigwedge_{j\leqslant m_i}L^i_j$ , we have each of the  $L^i_j$  belong to  $\{F_\alpha\}$ , so either  $L^i_j$  or  $\neg L^i_j$  belongs to the  $\{G_\alpha\}$ . It follows that if for every  $\bigwedge_{j\leqslant m_i}L^i_j$ , there exists some  $L^i_j$  such that  $\neg L^i_j$  is in  $\{G_\alpha\}$ , then  $H \vdash \neg \varphi$  is inconsistent. Therefore, there must be some disjunctand  $\bigwedge_{j\leqslant m_i}L^i_j$  such that every  $L^i_j$  is in  $\{G_\alpha\}$ .

Since M was designed to satisfy the  $G_{\alpha}$ , the propositional calculus implies that  $M \models \varphi$ . Since  $\varphi : S$  was arbitrary,  $M \models S$ .

**Definition 1.28.** Let us say that two  $\mathcal{L}$ -theories T and T' are equivalent if every sentence of T can be proved from T' and every sentence of T' can be proved from T. It is easy to see that if T and T' are equivalent, T is consistent if and only if T' is consistent.

**Definition 1.29.** We say that a sentence  $\varphi$  is in **prenex normal form** if any quantifiers occurying in  $\varphi$  occur together at the beginning of  $\varphi$ . We say that a theory is in prenex normal form if every sentence in T is in prenex normal form.

**Lemma 1.30.** Every theory T is equivalent to a theory T' in prenex normal form.

*Proof.* Apply the change-of-variables rule and the de Morgan rules for quantifiers to change any sentence not in the desired form into one in T'.

**Theorem 1.31.** Now suppose that S is a relational theory, which possibly contains quantifiers, and is consistent. Then S has a model.

*Proof.* Let T be a theory whose sentences are either quantifier-free or begin with a quantifier. We expand T (and the language) as follows: for every sentence in T of the form  $\exists x \varphi(x)$ , we expand the language by a new constant symbol c and adjoin to T the sentence  $\varphi(c)$ , and for every sentence in T of the form  $\forall x \varphi(x)$  and every constant c already occurring in T, we adjoin the sentence  $\varphi(c)$ . We call the result of this process  $T^*$ .

We observe that whenever T is consistent, so is  $T^*$ : if  $T^* \vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \mathsf{false}$ , then there are finitely many sentences  $\varphi_1, \ldots, \varphi_n$  from  $T^*$  such that  $\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} (\bigwedge_i \varphi_i) \to \mathsf{false}$ . We regroup this conjunction according to whether or not  $\varphi_i$  contains a new constant symbol or not, viz.

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \left( \bigwedge_{i} \varphi_{i} \right) \land \left( \bigwedge_{j} \psi_{j}(c_{j}) \right) \rightarrow \mathsf{false},$$

where  $c_j$  are the new constant symbols. Applying the generalization of constants deduction rule and the de Morgan rules, we conclude that

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \left( \bigwedge_{i} \varphi_{i} \right) \land \left( \exists x_{j} \bigwedge_{j} \psi_{j}(x_{j}) \right) \rightarrow \mathsf{false}$$

and therefore

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \left( \bigwedge_{i} \varphi_{i} \right) \land \left( \bigvee_{j} \neg \exists x_{j} \psi_{j}(x_{j}) \right).$$

So, for some j,  $\vdash_{\mathcal{L}} \exists x_j \psi_j(x_j)$ , but by construction  $\exists x_j \psi_j(x_j) : T$  for  $\psi_j(c_j)$  to be in  $T^*$ . Therefore, T is not consistent.

Now let S be any consistent theory. We put  $S_0 \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} S$  and if  $S_n$  has already been defined, we put  $S_{n+1} \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} (S_n)^*$ . Then we obtain a consistent limit theory  $\overline{S} \stackrel{\mathrm{df}}{=} \bigcup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} S_n$ , and we define the model M as we did in the quantifier-free case for the quantifier-free part of  $\overline{S}$ .

**Proposition 1.32.** Let T be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -theory, and let  $T_{\rm rel}$  be the associated  $\mathcal{L}_{\rm rel}$ -theory obtained by replacing function symbols with their graphs. Then any model  $M_{\rm rel} \models T_{\rm rel}$  can be viewed as a model  $M \models T$ .

Sketch. For every function symbol f of  $\mathcal{L}$ , we interpret f as the function specified by the graph relation  $\Gamma_f$  in  $\mathcal{L}_{rel}$ , which was axiomatized in  $T_{rel}$  to be the graph of a function. This gives an  $\mathcal{L}$ -structure M. Since  $M \models T_{rel}$  and every sentence of  $T_{rel}$  is either a modified version of a sentence in T or asserts that a new relation is a graph of a function,  $M \models T$ .

**Proposition 1.33.** Let T be an  $\mathcal{L}$ -theory. If T is consistent, then  $T_{\text{rel}}$  is consistent.

Sketch. Suppose towards the contrapositive that  $T_{\rm rel}$  is inconsistent. Then there is a proof from  $T_{\rm rel}$  of false. It suffices to show that replacing the graphs  $\Gamma_f$  by the functions f induces a deduction-preserving map from the valid  $\mathcal{L}_{\rm rel}$ -sentences to the valid  $\mathcal{L}_{\rm rel}$ -sentences, for then we will have a proof from T of false. This can be done by induction and a case-by-case analysis of the rules of deduction.

#### 1.4 The Henkin construction

In this section, we present an alternate proof of the completeness theorem, due to Henkin, by building "term models".

TODO(jesse)

#### 1.5 The Löwenheim-Skolem theorem

TODO(kody)

- 2 ZFC
- 3 Generic sets: Cohen's original proof
- 4 Boolean-valued models
- 5 Sheaves and filterquotients