

MATH681
Mathematical Logic

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Abstract

This is a graduate-level mathematical logic course taught by [Matthew Harrison-Trainor](#), aiming to obtain insights into all other branches of mathematics, such as algebraic geometry, analysis, etc. Specifically, we will cover model theory beyond the basic foundational ideas of logic.

While there are no required textbooks, some books do cover part of the material in the class. For example, Marker's *Model Theory: An Introduction* [[Mar02](#)], Hodges's *A Shorter Model Theory* [[HH97](#)], and Hinman's *Fundamentals of Mathematical Logic* [[Hin05](#)].



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Chapter 1

Language, Logic, and Structures

Lecture 1: Introduction to Mathematical Logic

1.1 What's Mathematical Logic?

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The goal of mathematical logic is to obtain insights into other areas of mathematics – algebra, analysis, combinatorics, and so on, by formalizing the **process** of mathematics.

Remark. More concretely, there are different branches:

- (a) Model Theory: Study subsets of an object defined by a formula (i.e., first-order logic).
- (b) Computability Theory / Recursion Theory: Formalizing what it means to have an algorithm and studying relative computability.
- (c) Set Theory: Study the structure of the mathematical universe.
- (d) Proof Theory: Study the syntactic nature of proofs.

In this class, we study model theory in nature; specifically, we will cover

- basic definitions of logic:
 - What is a formula?
 - What does it mean for a formula to be true?
 - What is a proof?
- Soundness & completeness theorems:
 - Anything provable is true.
 - Anything true is provable.
- Compactness theorem:
 - Non-standard objects exist.
- Using compactness theorem for applications:
 - Chevalley's theorem

The main theme of this course will be *syntax* v.s. *semantics*:

Syntax	v.s.	Semantics
proofs		truth
form of a formula		mathematical structures
number and type of quantifiers		isomorphisms, embeddings

1.2 Syntax and Semantics

1.2.1 Languages and Structures

Let's start with the fundamental object, [language](#).

Definition 1.2.1 (Language). A *language* \mathcal{L} consists of:

- a set \mathcal{F} of function symbols f with arities n_f ;
- a set \mathcal{R} of relation symbols R with arities n_R ;
- a set \mathcal{C} of constant symbols c .

A [language](#) is also sometimes called a *signature*, in which case we use σ rather than \mathcal{L} .

Note. A constant is the same as a 0-ary function.

Remark. Any or all sets in [Definition 1.2.1](#) might be empty.

Example (Graph). The [language](#) of graphs, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{graph}} = \{E\}$ where E is a binary (2-ary) relation symbol.

Example (Ring). The [language](#) of rings, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}} = \{0, 1, +, \cdot, -\}$, where $0, 1$ are constants, $+, \cdot$ are binary functions, and $-$ is a unary function.

Example (Ordered ring). The [language](#) of ordered rings, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ord}} = \mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}} \cup \{\leq\}$ where \leq is the binary relation for an ordered ring.

Then, given a [language](#), we can now interpret it in the following way.

Definition 1.2.2 (Structure). Given a [language](#) \mathcal{L} , an \mathcal{L} -*structure* \mathcal{M} consists of:

- a non-empty set M called the *universe*, *domain*, or *underlying set* of \mathcal{M} ;
- for each function symbol $f \in \mathcal{F}$, a function $f^{\mathcal{M}}: M^{n_f} \rightarrow M$;
- for each relation symbol $R \in \mathcal{R}$, a relation $R^{\mathcal{M}} \subseteq M^{n_R}$;
- for each constant symbol $c \in \mathcal{C}$, an element $c^{\mathcal{M}} \in M$.

Note (Interpretation). We call $f^{\mathcal{M}}, R^{\mathcal{M}}, c^{\mathcal{M}}$ the *interpretation in \mathcal{M}* of symbols f, R, c , respectively.

Basically, a [structure](#) gives meaning to the symbols from the [language](#), and we often write

$$\mathcal{M} = (M, f^{\mathcal{M}}, \dots, R^{\mathcal{M}}, \dots, c^{\mathcal{M}}, \dots) = (M, f^{\mathcal{M}}, R^{\mathcal{M}}, c^{\mathcal{M}}: f \in \mathcal{F}, R \in \mathcal{R}, c \in \mathcal{C}).$$

Notation. We usually use $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N}, \dots, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \dots$ to refer to [structures](#), and M, N, \dots, A, B, \dots for the domains.^a

^aSome people use $|\mathcal{M}|$ for the domain of \mathcal{M} .

It's time to look at some examples.

Example. The rationals \mathbb{Q} and integers \mathbb{Z} are both $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$ -structures.

Proof. Clearly, the domain is the set of rationals, and naively, we let $+^{\mathbb{Q}} = +$ in \mathbb{Q} , $0^{\mathbb{Q}} = 0$ in

\mathbb{Q} , $1^{\mathbb{Q}} = 1$ in \mathbb{Q} , etc. In this way, $\mathbb{Q} = (\mathbb{Q}, 0, 1, +, \cdot, -)$ is an $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$ -structure. Similarly, $\mathbb{Z} = (\mathbb{Z}, 0, 1, +, \cdot, -)$ is as well. \circledast

While the language we have seen are all intuitively correct with their name, i.e., $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$, \mathcal{L}_{ord} , and $\mathcal{L}_{\text{graph}}$, they are really just the high-level abstraction of the objects in the subscript.

Example. Nothing forces an $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$ -structure to be a ring.

Proof. Since an $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$ -structure is just any structure with two binary functions, a unary function, and two constants interpreting the symbols of the language; hence we can define an $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$ -structure \mathcal{M} as

- $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 5, 11\}$;
- $0^{\mathcal{M}} = 5$;
- $1^{\mathcal{M}} = 11$;
- $+^{\mathcal{M}}$ is the constant function 0;
- $\cdot^{\mathcal{M}}$ is the function 5;
- $-^{\mathcal{M}}$ is the identity.

This is clearly not a ring since it fails nearly every axiom of a ring. \circledast

Note. Later, we will talk about theories that let us restrict to structures we want.

1.2.2 Embeddings and Isomorphisms

We can now consider the relation between structures.

Definition 1.2.3 (Embedding). Let \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} be \mathcal{L} -structures. A map $\eta: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ is an \mathcal{L} -embedding if it is one-to-one and preserves the interpretation of all symbols of \mathcal{L} :

- (a) for each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ of arity n_f , and $a_1, \dots, a_{n_f} \in \mathcal{M}$,

$$\eta(f^{\mathcal{M}}(a_1, \dots, a_{n_f})) = f^{\mathcal{N}}(\eta(a_1), \dots, \eta(a_{n_f}));$$

- (b) for each relation $R \in \mathcal{R}$ of arity n_R , and $a_1, \dots, a_{n_R} \in \mathcal{M}$,

$$(a_1, \dots, a_{n_R}) \in R^{\mathcal{M}} \Leftrightarrow (\eta(a_1), \dots, \eta(a_{n_R})) \in R^{\mathcal{N}};$$

- (c) for each constant $c \in \mathcal{C}$, $\eta(c^{\mathcal{M}}) = c^{\mathcal{N}}$.

From the definition, an \mathcal{L} -embedding is an injection, and naturally, we have the following.

Definition 1.2.4 (Isomorphism). An \mathcal{L} -isomorphism is a bijective \mathcal{L} -embedding.

Definition. Let \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} be \mathcal{L} -structures. Suppose $M \subseteq N$ and the inclusion map $\iota: M \hookrightarrow N$ is an \mathcal{L} -embedding.

Definition 1.2.5 (Substructure). \mathcal{M} is a *substructure* of \mathcal{N} .

Definition 1.2.6 (Extension). \mathcal{N} is an *extension* of \mathcal{M} .

Example. Ring embeddings are $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$ -embeddings.

This generalizes the notions of embedding and isomorphism for many mathematical structures.

Remark. Asking that η be injective is the same as (b) in Definition 1.2.3 for the relation $=$ since

$$a = b \in \mathcal{M} \Leftrightarrow \eta(a) = \eta(b) \in \mathcal{N}.$$

The notion of **substructure** is **language** sensitive. For groups, there are two possible **languages**:

- (a) $\mathcal{L}_1 = \{e, \cdot\}$;
- (b) $\mathcal{L}_2 = \{e, \cdot, {}^{-1}\}$, i.e., with the unary inverse operation.

While both seem valid at the first glance, we should use the second one.

Remark. Using \mathcal{L}_2 , the **substructure** of a group is the same thing as a subgroup. But if we use \mathcal{L}_1 , then $(\mathbb{N}, +, 0)$ is a **substructure** of $(\mathbb{Z}, +, 0)$, while \mathbb{N} is not a group for sure.

Proof. Simply observe that both $(\mathbb{N}, 0, +)$, $(\mathbb{Z}, 0, +)$ are \mathcal{L}_1 -structures. ⊗

Similarly, we include $-$ in $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$ for a similar reason as in the previous **example**.

Example. An $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}}$ -**substructure** of a field will be a subring, not a subfield. If we want subfields, use $\mathcal{L}_{\text{ring}} \cup \{{}^{-1}\}$.^a

^aWe can set $0^{-1} = 0$, but never use this.

Lecture 2: Formulas and First-Order Logic

We start by asking that given a function symbol f of arity n , could we replace f with an $(n+1)$ -ary R relation to represent its graph? 10 Jan. 14:30

Example. Let \mathcal{L} be a **language** with only relation symbols. Let \mathcal{A} be an \mathcal{L} -**structure**. For any $B \subseteq A$, there is a **substructure** \mathcal{B} of \mathcal{A} with domain B .

Proof. For each relation symbol R , letting $R^{\mathcal{B}} = R^{\mathcal{A}} \cap B^{n_R}$ will make \mathcal{B} a **substructure** of \mathcal{A} . ⊗

The above is not true for function symbols though.

Example. If $G = (\mathbb{Z}, 0, +)$, then \mathbb{N} is not the domain of a subgroup. So if we took $\mathcal{L} = \{0, +, {}^{-1}\}$, where 0 is the unary relation, $+$ is the ternary relation, and ${}^{-1}$ is the binary relation, an \mathcal{L} -**substructure** of a group might not be a subgroup.

1.3 First-Order Logic

1.3.1 Terms, Formulas, and Truths

Intuitive, an \mathcal{L} -**formula** is an expression built using the symbols in a **language** \mathcal{L} , $=$, the logical connectives \wedge, \vee, \neg , and variable symbols v_1, v_2, \dots, x, y, z , and also quantifiers \exists and \forall .

Definition 1.3.1 (Term). Given a **language** \mathcal{L} , the set of \mathcal{L} -**terms** are defined inductively by:

- (a) each constant symbol is a *term*;
- (b) each variable symbol v_1, \dots is a *term*;
- (c) if f is a function symbol, and t_1, \dots, t_{n_f} are **terms**, then $f(t_1, \dots, t_{n_f})$ is a *term*.

If \mathcal{M} is an \mathcal{L} -**structure**, and t is a **term** involving only variables among v_1, \dots, v_n , then t has an interpretation $t^{\mathcal{M}}: M^n \rightarrow M$ as a function as follows. On input $a_1, \dots, a_n \in M$,

- (a) if t is a constant c , $t^{\mathcal{M}}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = c^{\mathcal{M}}$.
- (b) if t is a variable v_i , $t^{\mathcal{M}}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = a_i$;
- (c) if t is $f(s_1, \dots, s_k)$, then $t^{\mathcal{M}}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = f^{\mathcal{M}}(s_1^{\mathcal{M}}(a_1, \dots, a_n), \dots, s_k^{\mathcal{M}}(a_1, \dots, a_n))$.

Intuition. We are basically substituting for variables and evaluating the expression.

Example. In $(\mathbb{R}, 0, 1, +, \cdot, -)$, a **term** is essentially just a polynomial with integer coefficients, assuming we interpret them in a ring. Technically, a **term** looks like

$$\cdot(+(1, 1), +(x, y)),$$

but we will write **terms** the natural way, i.e.,

$$(1 + 1)(x + y).$$

Also, we will use \underline{n} or n to represent the **term** $\underline{n} = \underbrace{1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_{n \text{ times}}$. So we could write the above **term** as $2 \cdot (x + y)$.

Definition 1.3.2 (Formula). The set of \mathcal{L} -formulas are defined inductively:

- (a) If s, t are **terms**, $s = t$ is a *formula*.
- (b) If R is a relation symbol of arity n_R , and s_1, \dots, s_{n_R} are **term**, then $R(s_1, \dots, s_{n_R})$ is a *formula*.
- (c) If f is a **formula**, then $\neg f$ is a *formula*.
- (d) If φ and ψ are **formulas**, then $\varphi \wedge \psi$ and $\varphi \vee \psi$ are *formulas*.
- (e) If φ is a **formula**, and v_i are variables, then $\exists v_i \varphi$ and $\forall v_i \varphi$ are *formulas*.

Notation (Atomic formula). **Definition 1.3.2 (a)** and **(b)** are called *atomic formulas*.

Notation (Quantifier-free formula). **Definition 1.3.2 (a)**, **(b)**, **(c)**, and **(d)** are called *quantifier-free formulas*.

This logic is called *first-order logic* (FO logic), since the quantifiers range over elements of the **structures**, but not over, e.g., subsets.

Example. We can say that an element x of a ring has a square root by $\exists y \ y^2 = x$.

Example. A group is torsion of order 2 can be said by $\forall x \ x \cdot x = e$.

Example. We can write down all the field/group/... axioms as **formulas**.

Notice that for the first example, the **formula** $\exists y \ y^2 = x$ only has meaning if we assign what x is. In this case, we say that y is *bound* by $\exists y$. But this is local:

Example. Consider

$$y = 1 \wedge \exists y \ y^2 = x,$$

while the first appearance of y is free, the second appearance of y is bound by (in the scope of) $\exists y$.

While our definitions work perfectly fine with the above example, but sometimes we don't want this to happen. In such a case, we simply replace the bound instances of y with a new variable z . This idea of variables being free or bound is defined formally as follows.

Definition 1.3.3 (Free variable). The *free variables* $FV(\varphi)$ of a *formula* φ are defined inductively:

- (a) $FV(s = t)$ is the set of variables showing up in s or t .
- (b) $FV(R(s_1, \dots, s_{n_R}))$ is the set of variables showing up in s_1, \dots, s_{n_R} .
- (c) $FV(\neg\varphi) = FV(\varphi)$.
- (d) $FV(\varphi \wedge \psi) = FV(\varphi \vee \psi) = FV(\varphi) \cup FV(\psi)$.
- (e) $FV(\exists x \varphi) = FV(\forall x \varphi) = FV(\varphi) \setminus \{x\}$.

Example. $FV(\exists y y^2 = x) = \{x\}$.

Example. $FV(\forall x x \cdot x = e) = \emptyset$.

Definition 1.3.4 (Sentence). A *formula* φ is called a *sentence* if it has no *free variables*.

Notation. If φ is a *formula* with *free variables* among x_1, \dots, x_n we often write $\varphi(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.

Remark. So given $\varphi(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, we know that φ has no other *free variables* than x_1, \dots, x_n .

Example. It's valid to write $\varphi(x, y, z) := x = y$.

Definition 1.3.5 (Truth). Given an \mathcal{L} -*structure* \mathcal{M} , let $\varphi(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ be an \mathcal{L} -*formula* and let $a_1, \dots, a_n \in M$. Then we say φ is *true* of \bar{a} in \mathcal{M} ,^a denoted as $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$, as follows:

- (a) If φ is $s = t$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ if $s^{\mathcal{M}}(\bar{a}) = t^{\mathcal{M}}(\bar{a})$.
- (b) If φ is $R(t_1, \dots, t_{n_R})$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ if $(t_1^{\mathcal{M}}(\bar{a}), \dots, t_{n_R}^{\mathcal{M}}(\bar{a})) \in R^{\mathcal{M}}$.
- (c) If φ is $\neg\psi$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ if $\mathcal{M} \not\models \psi(\bar{a})$.
- (d) If φ is $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ if $\mathcal{M} \models \psi_1(\bar{a})$ and $\mathcal{M} \models \psi_2(\bar{a})$.
- (e) If φ is $\psi_1 \vee \psi_2$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ if $\mathcal{M} \models \psi_1(\bar{a})$ or $\mathcal{M} \models \psi_2(\bar{a})$.
- (f) If φ is $\exists y \psi(\bar{x}, y)$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ if there's $b \in M$ such that $\mathcal{M} \models \psi(\bar{a}, b)$.
- (g) If φ is $\forall y \psi(\bar{x}, y)$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ if for all $b \in M$ such that $\mathcal{M} \models \psi(\bar{a}, b)$.

^aOr \mathcal{M} satisfies $\varphi(\bar{a})$.

Remark. Every *formula* is *true*, or its negation is.

Lecture 3: Logical Consequence and Equivalence

Notation (Material implication). The *material implication* $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$ between two *formulas* φ, ψ is an abbreviation of $\neg\varphi \vee \psi$.

Notation. We use $\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$ as an abbreviation of $((\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \wedge (\psi \rightarrow \varphi))$.

Essentially, \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow is different from \Rightarrow and \Leftrightarrow , where the former are only shown in *formula*. Now, consider the *language of graphs* $\mathcal{L}_{\text{graph}} = \{E\}$, let's see some examples.

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Example. An undirected graph can be written as

$$\forall x \forall y (xEy \rightarrow yEx),$$

where we see that any model of this sentence is undirected.

Example. A vertex has at least three neighbors can be written as

$$\varphi(x) := \exists u \exists v \exists w (xEu \wedge xEv \wedge xEw \wedge u \neq v \wedge v \neq w \wedge u \neq w)$$

in non-reflexive graphs.

Example. For a vertex has exactly three neighbors,

$$\psi(x) := \exists u \exists v \exists w \forall y (xEu \wedge xEv \wedge xEw \wedge u \neq v \wedge v \neq w \wedge u \neq w \wedge (y = u \vee y = v \vee y = w \vee \neg yEx)).$$

Problem. Can we say that x has an even number of neighbors?

Answer. We can't. Some things are not expressible in FO logic. \otimes

Example. For a vertex x has a path of length 4 to y ,

$$\Theta(x, y) := \exists u \exists v \exists w (xEu \wedge uEv \wedge vEw \wedge wEy).$$

We can also express that there is a path of length at most 4.

Problem. Can we say that there is a path from x to y ?

Answer. We still can't! Not in FO logic (using compactness theorem). \otimes

Remark. When we prove results by induction on formulas, we only need to prove for \neg, \wedge, \exists , instead of for both \wedge, \vee , and both \exists and \forall .

Proof. Since we can view $\varphi \vee \psi$ as an abbreviation for $\neg(\neg\varphi \wedge \neg\psi)$ and $\forall x \varphi$ as an abbreviation for $\neg(\exists x \neg\varphi)$. \otimes

Remark (Sheffer stroke). In fact, we can get \wedge, \vee, \neg from one logical connective, e.g., the *sheffer stroke* \uparrow , which is defined as

$$\varphi \uparrow \psi := \neg(\varphi \wedge \psi),$$

and we can use \uparrow to define \neg, \vee, \wedge .

Notation. Let Φ be a (possibly infinite) set of sentences, we write $\mathcal{M} \models \Phi$ if $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi$ for all $\varphi \in \Phi$.

Definition 1.3.6 (Logical consequence). Let Φ be a set of sentences, and φ be a sentence. We say that φ is a *logical consequence* of Φ , written $\Phi \models \varphi$, if $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi$ whenever $\mathcal{M} \models \Phi$ in all models \mathcal{M} .

If $\Phi = \emptyset$ is the empty set, Definition 1.3.6 is written as $\models \varphi$, i.e., φ is *true* in all \mathcal{L} -structures.¹

Definition 1.3.7 (Equivalent). Given two formulas φ, ψ , $\varphi(\bar{x})$ and $\psi(\bar{x})$ are *equivalent* if

$$\models \forall \bar{x} (\varphi(\bar{x}) \leftrightarrow \psi(\bar{x})).$$

¹Recall that we always have a language \mathcal{L} implicitly.

Problem. Two sentences φ and ψ are **equivalent** if and only if $\varphi \models \psi$ and $\psi \models \varphi$.

DIY

As previously seen. \mathcal{A} is a **substructure** of \mathcal{B} , or $\mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$, means that $A \subseteq B$ and $\text{id}: A \hookrightarrow B$ is an **\mathcal{L} -embedding**.

Proposition 1.3.1. Suppose that \mathcal{A} is a **substructure** of \mathcal{B} , and $\varphi(\bar{x})$ is a **quantifier-free formula**. Let $\bar{a} \in \mathcal{A}$,^a then $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ if and only if $\mathcal{B} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$.

^aFormally, we need to write \mathcal{A} to be the Cartesian product with a fixed length.

Proof. We start with **terms** by proving that if t is a **term** and $\bar{b} \in \mathcal{A}$, then $t^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}) = t^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{b})$. The proof is induction on **terms**.

- (a) If t is a constant symbol c , then $t^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}) = c^{\mathcal{A}} = c^{\mathcal{B}} = t^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{b})$.
- (b) If t is a variable x_i , then $t^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}) = b_i = t^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{b})$.
- (c) If t is a function symbol $f(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ where s_i are **terms**, then $t^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}) = f^{\mathcal{A}}(s_1^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}), \dots, s_n^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}))$.
By the induction hypothesis, $s_i^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}) = s_i^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{b}) \in \mathcal{A}$, and hence

$$t^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{b}) = f^{\mathcal{B}}(s_1^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{b}), \dots, s_n^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{b})) = f^{\mathcal{A}}(s_1^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}), \dots, s_n^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b})) = t^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}),$$

i.e., $f^{\mathcal{B}} \upharpoonright_{\mathcal{A}} = f^{\mathcal{A}}$, so $t^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{b}) = t^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{b})$.

Now we turn to **formulas**, and prove that for φ **quantifier-free**, then $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{B} \models \varphi(\bar{a})$ for $\bar{a} \in \mathcal{A}$. The proof is, again, induction on **formulas**.^a

- (a) If φ is $s = t$, then $s^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{a}) = s^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{a})$ and $t^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{a}) = t^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{a})$, so

$$\mathcal{A} \models \varphi(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow s^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{a}) = t^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow s^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{a}) = t^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{B} \models \varphi(\bar{a}).$$

- (b) If φ is $R(s_1, \dots, s_n)$, then

$$\mathcal{A} \models \varphi(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow (s_1^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{a}), \dots, s_n^{\mathcal{A}}(\bar{a})) \in R^{\mathcal{A}} \Leftrightarrow (s_1^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{a}), \dots, s_n^{\mathcal{B}}(\bar{a})) \in R^{\mathcal{B}} \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{B} \models \varphi(\bar{a}).$$

- (c) If φ is $\neg\psi$,

$$\mathcal{A} \models \varphi(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{A} \not\models \psi(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{B} \not\models \psi(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{B} \models \varphi(\bar{a}),$$

where we use the induction hypothesis in the second \Leftrightarrow .

- (d) If φ is $\psi_1 \vee \psi_2$,

$$\mathcal{A} \models \varphi(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{A} \models \psi_1(\bar{a}) \text{ or } \mathcal{A} \models \psi_2(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{B} \models \psi_1(\bar{a}) \text{ or } \mathcal{B} \models \psi_2(\bar{a}) \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{B} \models \varphi(\bar{a}),$$

where we use the induction hypothesis in the second \Leftrightarrow . ■

^aRecall that we only need to show one of \vee or \wedge , and here we pick \vee and treat \wedge as an abbreviation.

As previously seen (Characteristic). Given a field K , the *characteristic* p of K is the number of 1 you need to add 1 in order to get 0, i.e., $\underbrace{1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_p = 0$.

Example. Let L be a subfield of K , for each $p > 0$, $\varphi_p := \underbrace{1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_p = 0$, which says the

characteristic p . φ_p is **quantifier-free**, so

$$L \models \varphi_p \Leftrightarrow K \models \varphi_p.$$

Example. Consider $\mathbb{Z} = (\mathbb{Z}, 0, 1, +, -, \cdot)$, and let $\varphi(x) := \neg \exists y \ y + y = x$. We see that $\mathbb{Z} \models \varphi(1)$ but $\mathbb{Q} \models \neg \varphi(1)$.

Proposition 1.3.2. Suppose that \mathcal{A} is a **substructure** of \mathcal{B} , and $\varphi(\bar{x}, y_1, \dots, y_n)$ is a **quantifier-free formula**. Let $\bar{a} \in \mathcal{A}$, then

- (a) if $\mathcal{A} \models \exists y_1 \dots \exists y_n \ \varphi(\bar{a}, y_1, \dots, y_n)$, then $\mathcal{B} \models \exists y_1 \dots \exists y_n \ \varphi(\bar{a}, y_1, \dots, y_n)$;
- (b) if $\mathcal{B} \models \forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n \ \varphi(\bar{a}, y_1, \dots, y_n)$, then $\mathcal{A} \models \forall y_1 \dots \forall y_n \ \varphi(\bar{a}, y_1, \dots, y_n)$.

Proof. Suppose that $\mathcal{A} \models \exists y_1 \dots \exists y_n \ \varphi(\bar{a}, y_1, \dots, y_n)$, so there are $b_1, \dots, b_n \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $\mathcal{A} \models \varphi(\bar{a}, b_1, \dots, b_n)$. Since φ is **quantifier-free**, so $\mathcal{B} \models \varphi(\bar{a}, b_1, \dots, b_n)$ from **Proposition 1.3.1**, and hence $\mathcal{B} \models \exists y_1 \dots \exists y_n \ \varphi(\bar{a}, y_1, \dots, y_n)$.

On the other hand, it's easy to see that (b) is implied by (a). ■

Notation. In **Proposition 1.3.2**, formulas as in (a) are called *existential* (\exists_1 or \exists) *formulas*; and formulas as in (b) are called *universal* (\forall_1 or \forall) *formulas*.

Example. Recall $\mathcal{L}_1 = \{e, \cdot\}$, $\mathcal{L}_2 = \{e, \cdot, {}^{-1}\}$.

- Associativity: $\forall x \forall y \forall z \ (xy)z = x(yz)$.
- Identity: $\forall x \ ex = xe$.

These are \forall -formulas in either **language**.

- Inverses in \mathcal{L}_1 : $\forall x \exists y \ xy = yx = e$, which is **not** an \forall -formula.
- Inverses in \mathcal{L}_2 : $\forall x \ xx^{-1} = x^{-1}x = e$, which is an \forall -formula.

Hence, group axioms in \mathcal{L}_1 are not universal, but in \mathcal{L}_2 they are.

Remark. The above discrepancy is the reason why \mathcal{L}_2 is better than \mathcal{L}_1 , i.e., **\mathcal{L}_1 -substructure** might not be a group.

Problem. Show that $\forall x \exists y \ xy = yx = e$ in the above example is not **equivalent** to an \forall -formula.

Appendix

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