

Model Theory

October 10, 2018

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0 Reviews

0.1 Languages and structures

Definition. (1.1) A language L consists of:

- (i) a set \mathcal{F} of function symbols, and for each $f \in \mathcal{F}$, a positive integer n_f , the arity of f ;
- (ii) a set \mathcal{R} of relation symbols, and for each $R \in \mathcal{R}$, a positive integer n_R , the arity of R ;
- (iii) a set \mathcal{C} of constant symbols.

Note that each of the above three sets can be empty.

Example. $L = \{\{\cdot, -1\}, \{1\}\}$ where \cdot is a binary function, -1 is a unary function, and 1 is a constant. We call this L_{gp} (language of groups);
 $L_{lo} = \{<\}$, where $<$ is a binary relation (linear order).

Definition. (1.2) Given a language L , say, an L -structure consists of:

- (i) a set M , the *domain*;
- (ii) for each $f \in \mathcal{F}$, a function $f^M : M^{n_f} \rightarrow M$;
- (iii) for each $R \in \mathcal{R}$, a relation $R^M \subseteq M^{n_R}$;
- (iv) for each $c \in \mathcal{C}$, an element $c^M \in M$.

f^M, R^M, c^M are called the *interpretation* of f, R, c respectively.

Notation. (1.3)

We often fail to distinguish between the symbols in the language L and their interpretations in a L -structure, if the context allows.

We may write $\mathcal{M} = \langle M, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{R}, \mathcal{C} \rangle$.

Example. (1.4)

(a) $\mathcal{R} = \langle \mathbb{R}^+, \{\cdot, -1\}, 1 \rangle$ is an L_{gp} -structure.

$\mathcal{Z} = \langle \mathbb{Z}, \{+, -\}, 0 \rangle$ is also an L_{gp} -structure (here $+$ is a binary and $-$ is the unary negation function).

$\mathcal{Q} = \langle \mathbb{Q}, < \rangle$ is an L_{lo} structure ($<$ is the interpretation of relation).

Definition. (1.5)

Let L be a language, let \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} be L -structures.

An *embedding* of \mathcal{M} into \mathcal{N} is an injection $\alpha : M \rightarrow N$ that preserves the structure:

- (i) For all $f \in \mathcal{F}$, and $a_1, \dots, a_{n_f} \in M$,

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

- (ii) For all $R \in \mathcal{R}$, and $a_1, \dots, a_{n_R} \in M$,

$$(a_1, \dots, a_{n_R}) \in R^M \iff (\alpha(a_1), \dots, \alpha(a_{n_R})) \in R^N$$

Note that this is an if and only if. (iii) For all $c \in \mathcal{C}$, we need

$$\alpha(c^M) = c^N$$

As anyone could expect, a surjective embedding $\mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ is also called an *isomorphism* of \mathcal{M} onto \mathcal{N} .

(1.6) Exercise. Let G_1, G_2 be groups, regarded as L_{gp} -structures. Check that $G_1 \cong G_2$ in the usual algebra sense, if and only if there is an isomorphism $\alpha : G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ in the sense of above definition 1.5.

0.2 Terms, formulae, and their interpretations

In addition to the symbols of L , we also have:

- (i) infinitely many variables, $\{x_i\}_{i \in I}$;
- (ii) logical connectives, \wedge, \neg (also express $\vee, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$);
- (iii) quantifier \exists (also express \forall);
- (iv) punctuations $(,)$.

Definition. (2.1)

L -terms are defined recursively as follows:

- any variable x_i is a term;
- any constant symbol is a term;
- for any $f \in \mathcal{F}$,

$$f(t_1, \dots, t_{n_f})$$

for any terms t_1, \dots, t_{n_f} is a term;

- nothing else is a term.

Notation: we write $t(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ to mean that the variables appearing in t are among x_1, \dots, x_n .

Example. In $\mathcal{R} = \langle \mathbb{R}, \cdot, -1, 1 \rangle$,

- $(\cdot(x_1, x_2), x_3)$ is a term $(x_1 \cdot x_2) \cdot x_3$;
- $(\cdot(1, x_1))^{-1}$ is a term $(1 \cdot x)^{-1}$.

Definition. (2.2)

If \mathcal{M} is an L -structure, to each L -term $t(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ we assign a function

$$t^M : M^k \rightarrow M$$

defined as follows:

- (i) If $t = x_i$, $t^M[a_1, \dots, a_k] = a_i$;
- (ii) If $t = c$ is a constant, $t^M[a_1, \dots, a_k] = c^M$;
- (iii) If $t = f(t_1(x_1, \dots, x_k), \dots, t_{n_f}(x_1, \dots, x_k))$,

$$t^M(a_1, \dots, a_k) = f^M(t_1^M(a_1, \dots, a_k), \dots, t_{n_f}^M(a_1, \dots, a_k))$$

—Lecture 2—

No lecture this friday (12th Oct)! Will have an extra one on Monday 22 Oct at 12 (MR12).

First example class: Monday 29th Oct at 12.

Info on course and notes on [http](http://users.mct.open.ac.uk/sb27627/MT.html) :

users.mct.open.ac.uk/sb27627/MT.html (it seems that it only comes after lecture, and is hand-written, so this notes still continues), or google *Silvia Barbina MCT* and follow link *Part III Model Theory* on lecturer's homepage.

Remark. (The lecture forgot about this last time) Any language L includes an equality symbol $=$.

Last time we assigned a function t^m . In L_{gp} , the term $x_2 \cdot x_3$ can be described as, say $t_1(x_1, x_2, x_3), t_2(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4), \dots$

Then the term $x_2 \cdot x_3$ can be assigned to functions $t_1^M : M^3 \rightarrow M : (a_1, a_2, a_3) \rightarrow (a_2 \cdot a_3)$, or $t_2^M : M^4 \rightarrow M : (a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4) \rightarrow (a_2 \cdot a_3)$. These syntactic things are not really important – we just have to know that there is a corresponding action for each term.

We now define the *complexity* of a term t to be the number of symbols of L occurring in t .

Fact (2.3): Let \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} be L -structures, and let $\alpha : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ be an embedding. For any L -term $t(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ and $a_1, \dots, a_k \in M$, we have

$$\alpha(t^M(a_1, \dots, a_k)) = t^N(\alpha(a_1), \dots, \alpha(a_k))$$

Proof. Prove by induction on complexity of t .

Let $\bar{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_k)$ and $\bar{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_l)$. Then:

- (i) if $t = x_i$ a variable, then $t^M(\bar{a}) = a_i$, and $t^N(\alpha(a_1), \dots, \alpha(a_k)) = \alpha(a_i)$, so the conclusion holds;
- (ii) if $t = c$ is a constant, then $t^M(\bar{a}) = c^M$, and $t^N(\alpha(\bar{a})) = c^N$ by definition of a term. The key here is that, since α is an embedding we have $\alpha(c^M) = c^N$;
- (iii) if $t = f(t_1(\bar{x}), \dots, t_{n_f}(\bar{x}))$, then

$$\alpha(f^M(t_1^M(\bar{a}), \dots, t_{n_f}^M(\bar{a}))) = f^N(\alpha(t_1^M(\bar{a})), \dots, \alpha(t_{n_f}^M(\bar{a})))$$

as α is an embedding. But $t_1(\bar{x}), \dots, t_{n_f}(\bar{x})$ have lower complexity than t , so the inductive hypothesis applies. \square

Exercise (2.4): conclude the proof of the above fact.
(Actually is it not done?)

Definition. (2.5)

The set of *atomic formulas* of L is defined as follows:

- (i) if t_1, t_2 are L -terms, then $t_1 = t_2$ is an atomic formula;
- (ii) if R is a relation symbol, and t_1, \dots, t_{n_R} are L -terms, then $R(t_1, \dots, t_{n_R})$ is an atomic formula;
- (iii) nothing else is an atomic formula.

Definition. (2.6)

The set of L -formulas is defined as follows:

- (i) any atomic formula is an L -formula;
- (ii) if ϕ is an L -formula, then so is $\neg\phi$;
- (iii) if ϕ and ψ are L -formulas, then so is $\phi \wedge \psi$;
- (iv) if ϕ is an L -formula, for any $i \geq 1$, $\exists x_i \phi$ is a formula;
- (v) nothing else is a formula (note that \forall can be constructed by \neg and \exists).

Example. In L_{gp} , $x_1 \cdot x_1 = x_2$, or $x_1 \cdot x_2 = 1$ are both atomic formulas; $\exists x_1(x_1 \cdot x_2) = 1$ is an L -formula, but (obviously) not atomic.

A variable occurs *freely* in a formula if it does not occur within the scope of a quantifier \exists . We sometimes also say that the variable is *free* (from Part II Logic and Sets). Otherwise we say the variable is *bound*.

We'll use the convention that no variable occurs both freely and as a bound variable in the same formula.

A *sentence* is a formula with no free variables. For example, $\exists x_1 \exists x_2 (x_1 \cdot x_2 = 1)$ is an L_{gp} -sentence.

Notation: $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ means that the free variables in ϕ are among x_1, \dots, x_k .

Now we introduce a long and inductive (and also in logic and sets) definition for which sentences are *true*:

Definition. (2.7)

Let $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_k)$ be an L -formula, let \mathcal{M} be an L -structure, and let $\bar{a} = a_1, \dots, a_k$ be elements of \mathcal{M} .

We define $\mathcal{M} \models \phi(\bar{a})$ (syntactic implication, read as \mathcal{M} models $\phi(\bar{a})$) as follows:

- (i) if ϕ is $t_1 = t_2$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \phi(\bar{a}) \iff t_1^M(\bar{a}) = t_2^M(\bar{a})$;
- (ii) if ϕ is $R(t_1, \dots, t_{n_R})$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \phi(\bar{a})$ iff

$$(t_1^M(\bar{a}), \dots, t_{n_R}^M(\bar{a})) \in R^M$$

- (iii) if ϕ is a conjunction, say $\psi \wedge \chi$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \phi(\bar{a})$ iff $\mathcal{M} \models \psi(\bar{a})$ and $\mathcal{M} \models \chi(\bar{a})$;
- (iv) if ϕ is $\exists x_j \chi(x_1, \dots, x_k, x_j)$ (where we'll assume that x_j is not one of the free variables x_1, \dots, x_k), then $\mathcal{M} \models \phi(\bar{a})$ iff there exists $b \in \mathcal{M}$ s.t. $\mathcal{M} \models \chi(a_1, \dots, a_k, b)$;
- (v) (lecture forgets this, this should probably be more in front rather than in the end) if ϕ is $\neg\psi$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \phi(\bar{a})$ iff $\mathcal{M} \not\models \psi(\bar{a})$.

Example. Consider $\mathcal{R} = \langle \mathbb{R}^*, \cdot, -1, 1 \rangle$, the multiplicative group of non-negative reals, and suppose we have $\phi(x_1) = \exists x_2 (x_2 \cdot x_2 = x_1)$, then $\mathcal{R} \models \phi(1)$, but $\mathcal{R} \not\models \phi(-1)$.

Notation (2.8) (useful abbreviations, closer to real life. The precise formulas are not that important – the abbreviations mean what we expect in real life):

- $\phi \vee \psi$ for $\neg(\neg\phi \wedge \neg\psi)$;
- $\phi \rightarrow \psi$ for $\neg\phi \vee \psi$;
- $\phi \leftrightarrow \psi$ for $(\phi \rightarrow \psi) \wedge (\psi \rightarrow \phi)$;
- $\forall x_i \phi$ for $\neg \exists x_i (\neg\phi)$.

Proposition. (2.9)

Let \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} be L -structures, and let $\alpha : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ be an embedding.

Let $\phi(\bar{x})$ be an atomic(!) formula, and $\bar{a} \in M^k$ (from now on, when we write a tuple like \bar{a} , we will assume that it has the correct length without explicitly stating that), then

$$\mathcal{M} \models \phi(\bar{a}) \iff \mathcal{N} \models \phi(\alpha(\bar{a}))$$

Question: if ϕ is an L -formula, not necessarily atomic, does (2.9) still hold? (the answer is no!)