Model Theory

October 22, 2018

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1 Langauges 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;
- \bullet (ii) a set \mathcal{R} of relation symbols, and for each $R \in \mathcal{R}$, a positive integer n_R , the arity of R;
- \bullet (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 $f^M : M^{n_f} \to M$;
- (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).

 $Q = \langle \mathbb{Q}, \langle \rangle$ is an L_{lo} structure ($\langle \rangle$ 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 $\alpha:M\to N$ that preserves the structure:

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

$$\alpha(f^{M}(a_{1},...,a_{n_{f}}))=f^{N}(\alpha(a_{1}),...,\alpha(a_{n_{f}}))$$

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

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

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 $\mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{N}$ 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 isomprhism $\alpha: G_1 \to G_2$ in the sense of above definition 1.5.

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, \land , \neg (also express \lor , \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 $f \in \mathcal{F}$,

$$f(t_1,...,t_{n_f})$$

for any terms $t_1, ..., t_{n_f}$ is a term;

• nothing else is a term.

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

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 $t(x_1,...,x_k)$ we assign a function

$$t^M:M^k\to M$$

defined as follows:

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

$$t^M(a_1,...,a_k) = f^M(t^M_1(a_1,...,a_k),...,t^M_{n_f}(a_1,...,a_k))$$

—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:

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 $t_1^M : M^3 \to M : (a_1, a_2, a_3) \to (a_2 \cdot a_3)$, or $t_2^M : M^4 \to M : (a_1, a_2, a_3, a_4) \to (a_2 \cdot a_3)$. 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 $\alpha : \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{N}$ be an embedding. For any L-term $t(x_1, ..., x_k)$ and $a_1, ..., a_k \in \mathcal{M}$, we have

$$\alpha(t^{M}(a_{1},...,a_{k})) = t^{N}(\alpha(a_{1}),...,\alpha(a_{k}))$$

Proof. Prove by induction on complexity of t.

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

- (i) if $t = x_i$ a variable, then $t^M(\bar{a}) = a_i$, and $t^N(\alpha(a_1), ..., \alpha(a_k)) = \alpha(a_i)$, 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 $t = f(t_1(\bar{x}, ..., t_{n_f}(\bar{x})))$, then

$$\alpha(f^{M}(t_{1}^{M}(\bar{a}),...,t_{n_{f}}(\bar{a}))) = f^{N}(\alpha(t_{1}^{M}(\bar{a})),...,\alpha(t_{n_{f}}^{M}(\bar{a})))$$

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

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

Definition. (2.5)

The set of $atmoic\ formulas$ 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 $t_1, ..., t_{n_R}$ are L-terms, then $R(t_1, ..., t_{n_R})$ 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 free (from Part II Logic and Sets).

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

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

Definition. (2.7)

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

We define $\mathcal{M} \vDash \phi(\bar{a})$ (syntactic implication, read as M models $\phi(\bar{a})$) as follows: (i) if ϕ is $t_1 = t_2$, then $\mathcal{M} \vDash \phi(\bar{a}) \iff t_1^M(\bar{a}) = t_2^M(\bar{a})$;

(ii) if ϕ is $R(t_1, ..., t_{n_R})$, then $\mathcal{M} \models \phi(\bar{a})$ iff

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

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

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):

- $\phi \lor \psi$ for $\neg(\neg \phi \land \neg \psi)$;
- $\phi \to \psi$ for $\neg \phi \lor \psi$;
- $\phi \leftrightarrow \psi$ for $(\phi \to \psi) \land (\psi \to \phi)$;
- $\forall x_i \phi \text{ for } \neg \exists x_i (\neg \phi).$

Proposition. (2.9)

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

Let $\phi(\bar{x})$ be an atomic(!) formula, and $\bar{a} \in M^{|\bar{x}|}$, here $|\bar{x}|$ means the length of the tuple \bar{x} (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

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

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

—Lecture 3—

Lecturer wants to reiterate that her email address is silvia.barbina@open.ac.uk. Just bring the work along. Unfortunately lecturer doesn't have an office here, so

no pigeonhole.

Check website for example sheet 1!

Additional assumption: assume the set of variables in a language are indexed by a linearly ordered set.

In definition 2.7 we defined what it means for $\mathcal{M} \vDash \phi(\bar{a})$, in particular we defined: if $\phi \equiv \neg \chi$, then $\mathcal{M} \vDash \phi(\bar{a})$ iff $\mathcal{M} \nvDash \chi(\bar{a})$. Here by $\mathcal{M} \vDash \phi(\bar{a})$ we mean $\mathcal{M} \vDash \neg \chi(\bar{a})$, and $\chi(\bar{a})$ is shorter than $\phi(\bar{a})$, so this definition by induction works.

Now let's go back to a sketch proof of (2.9).

Proof. There are two cases:

- $\phi(\bar{x})$ is of the form $t_1(\bar{x}) = t_2(\bar{x})$ where t_1, t_2 are terms. Use Fact (2.3). (exercise on example sheet)
- $\phi(\bar{x})$ is of the form $R(t_1(\bar{x}),...,t_{n_R}(\bar{x}))$. Then $\mathcal{M} \vDash R(t_1(\bar{a}),...,t_{n_R}(\bar{a}))$ if and only if ... (lecturer says work this out by yourself. Basically the induction step).

Proposition. (2.10)

Exercise: show that prop (2.9) holds if $\phi(\bar{x})$ is a formula without quantifiers (a quantifier-free formula).

(I guess that also suggests when does it not hold for general formulas – see below).

Example. (2.11, Do embeddings preserve all formulas? No.)

Let $\mathcal{Z} = (\mathbb{Z}, <)$ an L_{lo} -structure, $\mathcal{Q} = (\mathbb{Q}, <)$ also an L_{lo} -structure. Then

$$\alpha: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Q}$$
$$n \to n$$

is an embedding (check). But:

$$\phi(x_1, x_2) \equiv \exists x_3 (x_1 < x_3 \land x_3 < x_2)$$

Now $Q \vDash \phi(1,2)$ but $\mathcal{Z} \not\vDash \phi(1,2)$.

Fact (2.12) (From now on we'll stop saying that \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N} are L-structures etc to save time) Let $\alpha: \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{N}$ be an isomorphism. Then if $\phi(\bar{x})$ is an L-formula, and $\bar{a} \in \mathcal{M}^{|\bar{x}|}$, then

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

The proof is left as an exercise (another one).

3 Theories and Elementarity

This is where the core materials begin.

Throughout this chapter, let L be a language, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N} be L-structures.

Definition. (3.1)

An L-theory T is a set of L-sentences.

 \mathcal{M} is a model of T if $\mathcal{M} \vDash \sigma$ for all $\sigma \in T$. We write $\mathcal{M} \vDash T$.

The class of all the models of T is written Mod(T).

The theory of \mathcal{M} is the set

$$Th(\mathcal{M}) = \{ \sigma : \sigma \text{ is an } L - \text{sentence and } \mathcal{M} \models \sigma \}$$

Example. (3.2)

Let T_{gp} be the set of L_{gp} -sentences:

- (i) $\forall x_1 x_2 x_3 (x_1 \cdot (x_2 \cdot x_3) = (x_1 \cdot x_2) \cdot x_3);$
- (ii) $\forall x_1(x_1 \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot x_1 = x_1);$ (iii) $\forall x_1(x_1 \cdot x_1^{-1} = x_1^{-1} \cdot x_1 = 1).$

Clearly, for a group $G, G \models T_{qp}$ (as they are just the group axioms). However, for a specific group G, clearly the theory of it, Th(G) is lartger than T_{qp} .

Definition. (3.3)

 \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} are elementarily equivalent if $Th(\mathcal{M}) = Th(\mathcal{N})$.

We write $\mathcal{M} \equiv \mathcal{N}$.

Clearly, if $\mathcal{M} \simeq \mathcal{N}$ (\simeq means isomorphism), then $\mathcal{M} \equiv \mathcal{N}$.

But if \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} are not isomorphic, establishing whether $\mathcal{M} \equiv \mathcal{N}$ can be highly non-trivial!

We'll see $(\mathbb{Q}, <) \equiv (\mathbb{R}, <)$ as L_{lo} -structures(!).

Definition. (3.4)

(i) An embedding $\beta: \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{N}$ is elementary if for all formulas $\phi(\bar{x})$ and $\bar{a} \in M^{|\bar{x}|}$,

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

(ii) If $M \subseteq N$, and $id : \mathcal{N} \to \mathcal{N}$ is an embedding, then \mathcal{M} is a substructure of \mathcal{N} . (iii) If $M \subseteq N$ and $id : \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{N}$ is an elementary embedding (just accept it without thinking of what it actually means in reality), then \mathcal{M} is said to be an elementary substructure of \mathcal{N} , written as $\mathcal{M} \preceq \mathcal{N}$.

Example. (3.5)

Let $\mathcal{M} = [0, 1] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, an L_{lo} -structure where < is the usual order;

Let $\mathcal{N} = [0, 2] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, also an L_{lo} -structure with the same <.

Then $\mathcal{M} \simeq \mathcal{N}$ as L_{lo} -structures. So $\mathcal{M} \equiv \mathcal{N}$ (since they are isomorphic).

Also, $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ (read as is a substructure of), since the ordering < coincides on \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} . However, $\mathcal{M} \not\preccurlyeq \mathcal{N}$, since if we pick the formula $\phi(x) \equiv \exists y (x < y)$, then $\mathcal{N} \vDash \phi(1)$, but $\mathcal{M} \not\vDash \phi(1)$.

Definition. (3.6)

Let \mathcal{M} be an L-structure, $A \subseteq M$, then

$$L(A) = L \cup \{c_a : a \in A\}$$

(where c_a are constant symbols). An interpretation of \mathcal{M} as an L-structure extends to an interpretation of \mathcal{M} as an L(A)-structure in the obvious way, i.e. $c_a^M = a$.

In this context, the elements of A are called parameters.

If \mathcal{M} and \mathcal{N} are two structures, and $A \subseteq M \cap N$, then

$$\mathcal{M} \equiv_A \mathcal{N}$$

where we mean \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N} satisfy exactly the same L(A) structures.

—Lecture 4—

Reminder: we have a lecture next Monday (22nd Oct)!

Proposition. It turns out that, $\mathcal{M} \preceq \mathcal{N} \iff \mathcal{M} \equiv_M \mathcal{N}$ (where M is the domain of \mathcal{M}).

Lemma. (3.8, Tarski-Vaught test)

Let \mathcal{N} be an L-structure, let $A \subseteq \mathcal{N}$. The following are equivalent:

- (i) A is the domain of a structure \mathcal{M} s.t. $\mathcal{M} \preceq \mathcal{N}$;
- (ii) if $\phi(x) \in L(A)$ (with an abuse of notations $\phi(x, c_{a_1}, ..., c_{a_n}) = \phi(x, a_1, ..., a_n)$), if $\mathcal{N} \models \exists x \phi(x)$, then $\mathcal{N} \models \phi(b)$ for some $b \in A$.

Proof. (i) \Longrightarrow (ii): Suppose $\mathcal{N} \vDash \exists x \phi(x)$. Then by elementarity, $\mathcal{M} \vDash \exists x \phi(x)$, and so $\mathcal{M} \vDash \phi(b)$ for $b \in \mathcal{M}$. So (again by elementarity), $\mathcal{N} \vDash \phi(b)$.

(ii) \implies (i): This is the harder direction. First we prove that A is the domain of a substructure $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{N}$.

By Sheet 1 Q4, it suffices to check:

- (a) For each constant $c, c^N \in A$;
- (b) For each function symbol $f, f^N(\bar{a}) \in A$ (for all $\bar{a} \in A^{n_R}$);

For (a), use property (ii) with $\exists x(x=c)$.

For (b), use property (ii) with the formula $\exists x((\bar{a}) = x)$.

So we now have $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{N}$, and domain of \mathcal{M} is A. But we actually want to prove that $\mathcal{M} \preceq \mathcal{N}$. Now let $\chi(\bar{x})$ be an L-formula.

We want to show that for $\bar{a} \in A^{|\bar{x}|} \mathcal{M} \vDash \chi(\bar{a}) \iff \mathcal{N} \vDash \chi(\bar{a})$ (*).

By induction on the complexity of $\chi(\bar{x})$:

- if $\chi(\bar{x})$ is atomic, (*) follows from $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \mathcal{N}$ (since \mathcal{M} is a substructure!);
- if $\chi(\bar{x})$ is $\neg \psi(\bar{x})$ or $\chi(\bar{x})$ is $\psi(\bar{x}) \wedge \xi(\bar{x})$, it's a straightforward induction;
- (interesting case) if $\chi(\bar{x}) = \exists y \psi(\bar{x}, y)$ where $\psi(\bar{x}, y)$ is an *L*-formula, suppose that $\mathcal{M} \vDash \chi(\bar{a})$, then $\mathcal{M} \vDash \exists y \psi(\bar{a}, y)$, hence $\mathcal{M} \vDash \psi(\bar{a}, b)$ for some $b \in A = \text{dom}(\mathcal{M})$ (this is the definition of truth).

But then $\mathcal{N} \vDash \psi(\bar{a}, b)$ by inductive hypothesis, so $\mathcal{N} \vDash \chi(\bar{a})$.

Now let $\mathcal{N} \vDash \chi(\bar{a})$, i.e. $\mathcal{N} \vDash \exists y \psi(\bar{a}, y)$ (we find a witness for it). By property (ii), $\mathcal{N} \vDash \psi(\bar{a}, b)$ for some $b \in A = \text{dom}(\mathcal{M})$.

Again by inductive hypothesis, we have $\mathcal{M} \models \psi(\bar{a}, b)$, and so in particular, $\mathcal{M} \models \chi(\bar{a})$ as it has got a witness there.

Remark. (3.9)

Even more assumptions: let's assume that the set of variables is countably infinite. Then:

• the cardinality of the set of L-formulas is $|L| + \omega$ (where by |L| we mean

the number of symbols. For example, $|L_{gp}| = 3$, $|L_{lo}| = 1$), where we abuse another notation that we use ω as cardinals (rather than ordinals) (note that the formulas are just strings of finite length);

• if A is a set of parameters in some structure, the cardinality of the set L(A) is $|A| + |L| + \omega$, where by + here we merely mean $\max\{|L|, |A|, \omega\}$ (instead of addition), and same for the + above.

Definition. (3.10)

Let λ be an ordinal. Then a chain of length λ of sets is a sequence $\langle M_i : i < \lambda \rangle$, where $M_i \subseteq M_j$ for all $i \leq j < \lambda$.

A chain of L-structures is a seequence: $\langle \mathcal{M}_i : i < \lambda \rangle$ s.t. $\mathcal{M}_i \subseteq \mathcal{M}_j$ (note that it's substructure here) for $i \leq j < \lambda$.

The union of this chain is the L-structure \mathcal{M} defined as follows:

- the domain is $\bigcup_{i<\lambda} M_i$ (when you think of this, you can always start with the case $\lambda = \omega$);
- for constants c, $c^M = c^{M_i}$ for any $i < \lambda$ (this is well defined, because of the substructure condition above);
- if f is a function symbol, $\bar{a} \in M^{|n_f|}$ (why the mod sign here), $f^M \bar{a} = f^{M_i} \bar{a}$ where i is s.t. $\bar{a} \in M_i^{|n_f|}$;
- if R is a relation symbol, then $R^M = \bigcup_{i \leq \lambda} R^{M_i}$.

Theorem. (3.11, Downward Löwenheim-Skolem theorem)

(Recall that in part II Logic and Set Theory we had the countable version of this)

Let \mathcal{N} be an L-structure, and $|\mathcal{N}| \geq |L| + \omega$. Let $A \subseteq \mathcal{N}$. Then for every cardinal λ s.t. $|L| + |A| + \omega \leq \lambda \leq |\mathcal{N}|$, there is $\mathcal{M} \preccurlyeq \mathcal{N}$ s.t.

(i) $A \subseteq M$;

(ii) $|\mathcal{M}| = \lambda$.



(It helps to think about the case $|A| = \omega$ and |N| is uncountable.) A quick example how this could be useful (we'll go very sloppy here): think of $(\mathbb{C}, +, \cdot, -, \cdot^{-1}, 0, 1)$ as a field. Consider $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{C}$ (both as subset and substructure). Note that algebraic closeness is a property of \mathbb{C} . By downward Löwenheim-

Skolem, there is a substructure in C that contains \mathbb{Q} that is also algebraically closed (apparently, the set of algebraic numbers).

Proof. We build a chain $\langle A_i : i < \lambda \rangle$, with $A_i \subseteq N$, s.t. $|A_i| = \lambda$. (our goal: define an elementary substructure with domain $M = \bigcup_{i < \omega} A_i$).

Base case: Let $A_0 \subseteq N$ be such that $A \subseteq A_0$ and $|A_0| = \lambda$.

Successors: At stage i + 1, assume A_i has been built, with $|A_i| = \lambda$.

Let $\langle \phi_k(x) : k < \lambda \rangle$ be an enumeration of those $L(A_i)$ -formulas such that $\mathcal{N} \vDash \exists x \phi_k(x)$. Let a_k be such that $\mathcal{N} \vDash \phi_k(a_k)$, and let $A_{i+1} = A_i \cup \{a_k : k < \lambda\}$ (basically, with those witnesses added). Then $|A_{i+1}| = \lambda$ (note that we haven't increased the size).

Now let $M = \bigcup_{i < \omega} A_i$ (note the subscript range). We use lemma (3.8) to show that M is the domain of $\mathcal{M} \leq \mathcal{N}$, and $|M| = \lambda$. We're running out of time, so we'll continue next Monday.

—Lecture 5—

Solutions to worksheet 1: either take along to lecture on Friday, or email them to silvia.barbina@open.ac.uk.

Let's continue with the proof:



Start with $A_0 \subset N$, $A \subseteq A_0$, $|A_0| = l$. The idea is to define $\langle A_i : i < \omega \rangle$ so that $M = \bigcup_{i < \omega} A_i$ satisfies (ii) via the TV test (3.8).

List all formulas $\phi(x, \bar{a})$ (\bar{a} is a tuple in A_0), and $\mathcal{N} \vDash \phi(b, \bar{a})$ for some b.

Add each such b to A_0 (one for each such ϕ).

Let $A_1 = A_0 \cup \{ \text{ all thes } b$'s $\}$.

Repeat for formulas $\phi(x, \bar{a})$ where \bar{a} is in $A_1,...$

Eventually, $\langle A_i : i < \omega \rangle$ is such that $M = \bigcup_{i < \omega} A_i$ is as required (i.e. M is the domain of some elementary substructure of \mathcal{N} that we need).

We claim that M satisfies condition (ii) in Lemma (3.8): Let $\mathcal{N} \models \exists x \psi(x, \bar{a})$, where \bar{a} is a tuple in M. Then \bar{a} is a finite tuple, so there is an i s.t. \bar{a} is in A_i .

Then A_{i+1} , by construction, contains b s.t. $\mathcal{N} \vDash \phi(b, \bar{a})$. But $A_{i+1} \subseteq M, b \in M$. Then apply (3.8) we're done.

4 Two relational structures

Definition. (4.1, dense linear orders)

A linear order is an $L_{lo} = \{<\}$ -structure such that:

- (i) $\forall x \neg (x < x);$
- (ii) $\forall xyz((x < y \land y < z) \rightarrow x < z);$
- (iii) $\forall xy((x < y) \lor (y < x) \lor x = y)$ (total).

A linear order is *dense* if, in addition, it also satisfies:

- (iv) $\exists xy(x < y);$
- (v) $\forall xy, (x < y \rightarrow \exists z (x < z \land z < y))$ (density).

A linear order has no endpoints if, in addition,

(vi) $\forall x (\exists y (x < y) \land \exists z (z < x)).$

We use T_{dlo} to denote the theory that includes all axioms (i) to (vi), and T_{lo} is the theory that includes axioms (i) to (iii) only.

Remark. (iv) and (v) imply that if $\mathcal{M} \models T_{dlo}$, then $|\mathcal{M}| \ge \omega$.

Definition. (4.2)

If $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N} \vDash T_{lo}$, then an injective map $p : A \subseteq M \to N$ is a partial embedding if $\mathcal{M} \vDash a < b \implies \mathcal{N} \vDash p(a) < p(b)$.

In particular, if $|\operatorname{dom}(p)| < \omega$, then p is a finite partial embedding.

Lemma. (4.3, extension lemma)

Take a linear order $\mathcal{M} \models T_{lo}$, and a dense linear endpoints $\mathcal{N} \models T_{dlo}$, and let $p: M \to N$ be a finite partial embedding. Then if $c \in \mathcal{M}$, there is a finite partial embedding \hat{p} s.t. $p \subseteq \hat{p}$ and $c \in \text{dom}(\hat{p})$.

(we can always add one extra element in our embedding.)



Proof.

Case 1: c is greater than all elements in dom(p). In that case, pick an element $d \in \mathcal{N}$ s.t. d > b for all $b \in img(p)$;

Case 2: $a_i < c < a_{i+1}$ where $a_i, a_{i+1} \in \text{dom}(p)$. Then we choose $\mathcal{N} \models p(a_i) < d < p(a_{i+1})$, where d is chosen appropriately by density (here's the case why we

need \mathcal{N} to be dense;

Case 3: c is less than all elements in dom(p). This is similar to case 1.

Note that the ability to extend by one point allows us to embed any finite linear order into a dense linear order without endpoints. \Box

Theorem. (4.4)

Let $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{N} \models T_{dlo}$ s.t. $|\mathcal{M}| = |\mathcal{N}| = \omega$. Let $p : A \subseteq M \to N$ be a finite partial embedding.

Then there is an isomorphism $\pi: \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{N}$ s.t. $p \subseteq \pi$.

Proof. Enumerate M, N, say $M = \langle a_i : i < \omega \rangle$, $N = \langle b_i : i < \omega \rangle$ (sequences of elements).

We define, inductively, a chain of finite partial embedding $\langle p_i : i < \omega \rangle$ (idea: $\pi = \bigcup_{i < \omega} p_i$).

Let's start with $p_0 = p$. At stage i + 1, suppose we are given p_i . We want to include a_i in dom p_{i+1} , and b_i in the $img(p_{i+1})$.

(Lecturer calls this a back and forth method) Forth step: By lemma 4.3, we can extend p_i to $p_{i+\frac{1}{2}}$ such that $a_i \in \text{dom}(p_{i+\frac{1}{2}})$;

Back step: By lemma 4.3 again applied to $(p_{i+\frac{1}{2}})^{-1}$ to include $b_i \in \text{dom}(p_{i+1}^{-1})$ (i.e. in the range of p_{i+1}).

We claim that p_{i+1} extends p_i as required.

Let $\pi = \bigcup_{i < \omega} p_i$. Then (check) π is an isomorphism (i.e. order-preserving bijection).

Definition. (4.5)

An L-theory is consistent if it there is L-structure \mathcal{M} s.t. $\mathcal{M} \models T$.

If T is a theory in L and ϕ is an L-sentence, then $T \vdash \phi$ (read as T entails ϕ , note that this has nothing to do with syntactic implication) if for all \mathcal{M} such that $\mathcal{M} \vDash T$, we have $\mathcal{M} \vDash \phi$.

Finally, an L-theory T is complete if for all L-sentences ϕ , either $T \vdash \phi$ or $T \vdash \neg \phi$ (see part II Logic and Set Theory).

For example, T_{dlo} is complete.