



Completeness: literature

Completeness proofs for propositional logic are in

- “Logic in Computer Science” by Huth and Ryan, Chapter 1.
- “Logic and Structure” by van Dalen, Chapter 1.

The two proofs differ. The proof presented in this course is a slightly modified version of van Dalen’s.

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About maximally consistent sets

Lemma. Every consistent set Γ is contained in a maximally consistent set Γ^* .

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Proof of lemma (part 1/2)

Proof. Let A_0, A_1, A_2, \dots be an enumeration of all formulæ. We define a sequence $\Gamma_0, \Gamma_1, \Gamma_2, \dots$ of sets of formulæ such that the union is maximally consistent:

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma_0 &= \Gamma \\ \Gamma_{n+1} &= \begin{cases} \Gamma \cup \{A_n\} & \text{if } \Gamma \cup \{A_n\} \text{ is consistent.} \\ \Gamma & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \Gamma^* &= \bigcup \{\Gamma : n \geq 0\}\end{aligned}$$



Proof of lemma (part 2/2)

1. All Γ_n are consistent: this follows immediately from induction on n .
2. Γ^* is consistent: suppose not, i.e. $\Gamma^* \vdash \perp$. The proof of \perp needs only finitely many assumptions from Γ^* , so we have $\Gamma_n \rightarrow \perp$ for some n . But this is impossible because of (1).
3. Γ^* is **maximally** consistent: suppose not, i.e. $\Gamma^* \cup \{B\}$ is consistent for some $B \notin \Gamma^*$. We have $B = A_n$ for some n , and $A_n \in \Gamma_{n+1} \subseteq \Gamma^*$. Contradiction!

Q.e.d.

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The Model Existence Lemma

To prove completeness, it remains to prove the Model Existence Lemma.

Lemma. Every consistent set Γ of formulæ has a model.

Proof. Blackboard or van Dalen.

This concludes the completeness proof for propositional logic.

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Proof of MEL (part 1/3)

Proof. By earlier lemma, Γ is contained in a maximally consistent Γ^* . Define a situation M by letting

$$\llbracket p \rrbracket_M = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p \in \Gamma^* \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

Now we prove by induction on the size of A that

$$A \in \Gamma^* \text{ if and only if } M \models A.$$

Proof of MEL (part 2/3)

- $A = p$: by definition of M , we have $\llbracket p \rrbracket_M = 1$, and therefore $M \models p$.
- $A = \perp$: the formula A is never in Γ^* because Γ^* is consistent, and M is never a model of \perp .
- $A = B \wedge C$:

$$\begin{aligned} A \in \Gamma^* &\text{ iff } B \in \Gamma^* \text{ and } C \in \Gamma^* && \text{(by } \wedge e \text{ and } \wedge i) \\ &\text{ iff } M \models B \text{ and } M \models C && \text{(ind. hyp.)} \\ &\text{ iff } M \models B \wedge C && \text{(by definition of } \models \text{).} \end{aligned}$$

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Proof of MEL (part 3/3)

- $A = B \rightarrow C$:

$$\begin{aligned} A \in \Gamma^* &\text{ iff } B \in \Gamma^* \text{ implies } C \in \Gamma^* && \text{(previous lemma)} \\ &\text{ iff } M \models B \text{ implies } M \models C && \text{(ind. hyp.)} \\ &\text{ iff } M \models B \rightarrow C && \text{(by definition of } \models \text{).} \end{aligned}$$

Here ends the induction proof of

$$A \in \Gamma^* \quad \text{iff} \quad M \models A.$$

In particular, it follows that M is a model of Γ^* , and therefore of Γ . This concludes the proof of the Model Existence Lemma, and thereby the completeness proof.

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Natural deduction for \vee

- Recall that we decided to not include \vee into the language of formulæ, because

$$A \vee B = \neg(\neg A \wedge \neg B).$$

- Still, it is good to know the introduction and elimination rules for \vee .

\vee -introduction

$$\frac{A_1}{A_1 \vee A_2} \vee i \qquad \frac{A_2}{A_1 \vee A_2} \vee i$$

The soundness of these rules is evident.

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\vee -elimination

The version without explicit assumptions is

$$\frac{A \vee B \quad \begin{array}{c} [A] \\ \vdots \\ C \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} [B] \\ \vdots \\ C \end{array}}{C} \vee e.$$

Intuitively,

everything is an A or a B
every A is a C
every B is a C

everything is a C

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\vee -elimination

The version with explicit assumptions is

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \vee B \quad \Gamma, A \vdash C \quad \Gamma, B \vdash C}{\Gamma \vdash C} \vee e.$$

The soundness proof goes as follows: let $\Gamma \models A \vee B$ and $\Gamma, A \models C$ and $\Gamma, B \models C$, and $M \models \Gamma$. By definition of \models , we have $M \models A$ or $M \models B$. In the first case, $M \models \Gamma, A$ and therefore $M \models C$. In the second case, $M \models \Gamma, B$ and therefore $M \models C$.

RAA and excluded middle

- To demonstrate the inference rules for \vee , we show the important fact that the law of the excluded middle

$$\overline{A \vee \neg A} \text{ } EM$$

is interderivable with *RAA*.

- This is significant, because from a constructivist's point of view it means that *EM* is as dubious as *RAA*.

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From *RAA* to *EM*

Here is how to derive *EM* with the help of *RAA*.

$$\frac{\frac{[\neg(A \vee \neg A)]_2 \quad \frac{\frac{[A]_1}{A \vee \neg A} \vee i}{\perp} \rightarrow e}{\neg A} \rightarrow i_1}{\frac{[\neg(A \vee \neg A)]_2 \quad \frac{A \vee \neg A}{\perp} \vee i}{A \vee \neg A} \rightarrow e} RAA_2$$

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From *EM* to *RAA*

Suppose that we have *EM*. To show that we have *RAA*, we must be able to derive *A* from any derivation *D* as below.

$$\frac{\neg A}{\vdots D} \perp$$

Here is how it works:

$$\frac{\frac{A \vee \neg A}{\vdots D} \text{ } EM \quad \frac{\frac{[A]}{A} \text{ } \perp e}{\vdots D} \text{ } \vee e}{A}$$



Soundness and completeness with \vee

Theorem.

- If $\Gamma \vdash A$ is provable in the “ND with \vee ”, then $\Gamma \models A$ (soundness).
- If $\Gamma \models A$, then $\Gamma \vdash A$ is provable in “ND with \vee ”.

Proof. Soundness is straightforward. Completeness holds essentially because $B \vee C$ is equivalent with $\neg(\neg B \wedge \neg C)$ and we already have completeness in the absence of \vee ; the details are somewhat technical and we omit them here.

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Predicate logic (revision)

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Predicate logic: motivation

- Propositional logic is insufficient for many applications. E.g. it cannot express the sentence
“Every student is younger than some supervisor”.
- To state this sort of sentence, we need **predicate logic**. E.g. the sentence above could be expressed as follows:

$$\forall x.student(x) \rightarrow \exists y.supervisor(y) \wedge age(x) < age(y).$$

\forall means “for all” and \exists means “exists”.



Predicate logic: new features

Example again:

$$\forall x.student(x) \rightarrow \exists y.supervisor(y) \wedge age(x) < age(y).$$

Predicate logic can be seen as propositional logic plus:

- **variables** (e.g. x, y),
- (\forall, \exists) ,
- **quantifiers**,
- **functions** (e.g. age), and
- **relations** (e.g. $<$).

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Predicate logic and maths

- In particular, predicate logic is ubiquitous in mathematics. E.g. consider

$$\forall \epsilon. \epsilon > 0 \rightarrow \exists \delta.$$

$$\delta > 0 \wedge \forall y.abs(x - y) < \delta \rightarrow abs(f(x) - f(y)) < \epsilon.$$

- Quiz: does this ring a bell?

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Syntax

The syntax of predicate logic uses two kinds of expressions:

- **Terms**, e.g.
 $x, y, age(x), 0, \epsilon, \delta, x - y, f(x), abs(f(x) - f(y)).$
- **Formulæ**, e.g. $supervisor(y), \delta > 0,$
 $age(x) < age(y), \forall x.student(x), \exists \delta. \delta > 0.$
- Formulæ are those expressions that can be true or false.
- Terms stand for **individuals** of some **universe**.



Signatures

The well-formed terms and formulæ are described by the **signature**:

Definition. A **signature** consists of

- A set of **function symbols** f, g, h, \dots , such that each symbol f has an **arity** $ar(f) \geq 1$ (i.e. a number describing how many arguments f takes).
- A set of **constants** c, d, \dots
- A set of **relation symbols** p, q, r, \dots , such that each symbol r has an **arity** $ar(r) \geq 0$.

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Signatures

Examples.

- “+” is a function symbol of arity 2.
- “7” is a constant.
- “*supervisor*” is a relation symbol of arity 1.
- “<” is a relation symbol of arity 2.

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Terms

Definition. The **terms** for a given signature are given as follows:

- Every variable is a term. (We assume enumerably many variables x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)
- Every constant is a term.
- If t_1, \dots, t_n are terms and f is a function symbol of arity n , then $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ is a term.



Formulæ

Definition. The formulæ of predicate logic are given as follows:

- If t_1, \dots, t_n are terms and p is a predicate symbol of arity n , then $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ is a formula.
- If A and B are formulæ, then so are $(A \wedge B)$ and $(A \vee B)$ and $(A \rightarrow B)$;
- if A is a formula, then so is $(\neg A)$.
- \top and \perp are formula.
- If x is a variable and A is a formula, then $(\forall x.A)$ and $(\exists x.A)$ are formulæ.

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Semantics

- A situation for predicate logic is a pair consisting of a **structure** and a **variable assignment**.
- The structure describes the functions and relations corresponding to the function symbols and relation symbols.
- The variable assignment sends each variable to an element of the **universe** on which the functions and relations are defined.

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Structures

Definition. A **structure** M for a given signature consists of

- a non-empty set U called **universe**,
- for every constant c , an element of U ,
- for every function symbol f of arity n , an n -ary function f^M , and
- for every relation symbol p of arity n , an n -ary relation p^M .



Examples of structures

- The ring of integers: the universe U is the set of integers; functions are $+$, $*$, unary $-$. Constants are 1 and 0. No relations.
- The ordered set of natural numbers: the universe U is the set of natural numbers; there is one relation, $<$, and no functions or constants.

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Situations

Definition. A **situation** M is a structure together with, for every variable x , an element x^M of U .

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Semantics of terms

Before we define the satisfaction relation, we must describe the meaning of terms.

Definition. In a situation M , a term t denotes an element $\llbracket t \rrbracket_M$ of the universe as follows:

$$\llbracket x \rrbracket_M = x^M$$

$$\llbracket c \rrbracket_M = c^M$$

$$\llbracket f(t_1, \dots, t_n) \rrbracket_M = f^M(\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket_M, \dots, \llbracket t_n \rrbracket_M)$$



Semantics of formulæ

Definition. The satisfaction relation for predicate logic is defined as follows, where $M[a/x]$ stands for the situation that is like M except that the variable x is interpreted as a .

$$M \models p(t_1, \dots, t_n) \text{ if } (\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket_M, \dots, \llbracket t_n \rrbracket_M) \in p^M$$

$$M \models \forall x.A \text{ if for all } a \in U \text{ it holds that } M[a/x] \models A$$

$$M \models \exists x.A \text{ if there exists an } a \in U \text{ such that } M[a/x] \models A$$

$$M \models A \wedge B \text{ if } M \models A \text{ and } M \models B$$

$$M \models A \vee B \text{ if } M \models A \text{ or } M \models B$$

$$M \models A \rightarrow B \text{ if } M \models A \text{ implies } M \models B$$

$$M \models \neg A \text{ if } M \not\models A$$

$$M \models \perp \text{ never}$$

$$M \models \top \text{ never}$$

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Predicate logic vs. propositional logic

- By definition of the semantics, for a nullary predicate symbol p we have

$$M \models p() \text{ if } () \in p^M$$

- Such a p has only two possible behaviours:
 $M \models p()$ or $M \not\models p()$.
- So nullary relation symbols take over the rôle of the propositional atoms.
- Thus propositional logic can be seen as the simplified case of predicate logic where all predicate symbols are nullary.

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Validity, satisfiability, semantic entailment

The definitions of validity, satisfiability, and semantic entailment for predicate logic look exactly the same as for propositional logic.