

deduction rules and each of the assumptions:

$$a. \neg\exists_x \neg\varphi \rightarrow \forall_x \varphi \text{ and}$$

$$b. \neg\forall_x \neg\varphi \rightarrow \exists_x \varphi.$$

Hint: you can choose the variable x as any variable that does not occurs in φ . Thus, the application of rule (\exists_e) over the existential formula $\exists_x \varphi$ has as witness assumption $[\varphi[x/x_0]]^w$ that has no occurrences of x_0 .

In Exercise 24 we prove that there are intuitionistic derivations for $\neg\exists_x \varphi \dashv\vdash \forall_x \neg\varphi$. Also, in Example 12 we give an intuitionistic derivation for $\exists_x \neg\varphi \vdash \neg\forall_x \varphi$. Indeed, one can obtain minimal derivations for these three sequents.

Exercise 29. To complete $\neg\forall_x \varphi \dashv\vdash \exists_x \neg\varphi$ (see Example 12), prove that $\neg\forall_x \varphi \vdash \exists_x \neg\varphi$.

2.4 Semantics of the Predicate Logic

As done for the propositional logic in Chapter 1, here we present the standard semantics of first-order classical logic. The semantics of the predicate logic is not a direct extension of the one of propositional logic. Although this is not surprising, since the predicate logic has a richer language, there are some interesting points concerning the differences between propositional and predicate semantics that will be examined in this section. In fact, while a propositional formula has only finitely many interpretations, a predicate formula can have infinitely many ones.

We start with an example: let p be a unary predicate symbol, and consider the formula $\forall_x p(x)$. The variable x ranges over a domain, say the set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} . Is this formula true or false? Certainly, it depends on how the predicate symbol p is interpreted. If one interprets $p(x)$ as “ x is a prime number”, then it is false, but if $p(x)$ means that “ x is a natural number” then it is true. Observe that the interpretation depends on the chosen domain, and hence the latter interpretation of p will be false over the domain of integers \mathbb{Z} .

This situation is similar in the propositional logic: according to the interpretation, some formulas can be either true or false. So what do we need to determine the truth value of a

predicate formula? First of all, we need a domain of concrete individuals, i.e. a non-empty set D that represents known individuals (e.g. numbers, people, organisms, etc.). Function symbols (and constants) are associated to functions in the so called *structures*:

Definition 22 (Structure). *A structure of a first-order language L over the set $S = (\mathbb{F}, \mathbb{P})$, also called an S -structure, is a pair $\langle D, m \rangle$, where D is a non-empty set and m is a map defined as follows:*

1. if f is a function symbol of arity $n \geq 0$, then $m(f)$ is a function from D^n to D . A function from D^0 to D is simply an element of D .
2. if p is a predicate symbol of arity $n > 0$, then $m(p)$ is a subset of D^n .

Intuitively, the set $m(p)$ contains the tuples of elements that satisfy the predicate p . As an example, consider the formula $q(a)$, where a is a constant, and the structure $\langle \{0, 1\}, m \rangle$, where $m(a) = 0$ and $m(q) = \{0\}$. The formula $q(a)$ is true in this structure because the set $m(q)$ contains the element 0, the image of the constant a by the function m . But $q(a)$ would be false in other structures; for instance, it is false in the structure $\langle \{0, 1\}, m' \rangle$, where $m'(a) = 0$ and $m'(q) = \emptyset$.

If a formula contains (free) variables, such as the formula $q(x)$, then a special mechanism is needed to interpret variables. Variables are associated to elements of the domain D through *assignments*, that are functions from the set of variables \mathbb{V} to the domain D . So, if d is an assignment such that $d(x) = 0$ then $q(x)$ is true in the structure $\langle \{0, 1\}, m \rangle$ above, and if $d'(x) = 1$ then $q(x)$ is false.

Definition 23 (Interpretation of terms). *An interpretation I is a pair $\langle \langle D, m \rangle, d \rangle$ containing a structure and an assignment. Given an interpretation I and a term t , the interpretation of t by I , written t^I , is inductively defined as follows:*

1. For each variable x , $x^I = d(x)$;
2. For each function symbol f with arity $n \geq 0$, $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)^I = m(f)(t_1^I, \dots, t_n^I)$.

Thus, based on the interpretations of terms, the semantics of predicate formulas concerns the truth value of a formula that can be either T (true) or F (false). This notion is formalized in the following definition.

Definition 24 (Interpretation of Formulas). *The truth value of a predicate formula φ according to a given interpretation of terms $I = \langle \langle D, m \rangle, d \rangle$, denoted as φ^I , is inductively defined as:*

$$1. \perp^I = F \text{ and } \top^I = T;$$

$$2. p(t_1, \dots, t_n)^I = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } (t_1^I, \dots, t_n^I) \in m(p), \\ F, & \text{if } (t_1^I, \dots, t_n^I) \notin m(p); \end{cases}$$

$$3. (\neg\psi)^I = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } \psi^I = F, \\ F, & \text{if } \psi^I = T; \end{cases}$$

$$4. (\psi \wedge \gamma)^I = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } \psi^I = T \text{ and } \gamma^I = T, \\ F, & \text{otherwise}; \end{cases}$$

$$5. (\psi \vee \gamma)^I = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } \psi^I = T \text{ or } \gamma^I = T, \\ F, & \text{otherwise}; \end{cases}$$

$$6. (\psi \rightarrow \gamma)^I = \begin{cases} F, & \text{if } \psi^I = T \text{ and } \gamma^I = F, \\ T, & \text{otherwise}; \end{cases}$$

$$7. (\forall_x \psi)^I = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } \psi^{I_a^x} = T \text{ for every } a \in D, \\ F, & \text{otherwise}; \end{cases}$$

$$8. (\exists_x \psi)^I = \begin{cases} T, & \text{if } \psi^{I_a^x} = T \text{ for at least one } a \in D, \\ F, & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases}$$

where I_a^x denotes the interpretation I modifying its assignment d , in such a way that it maps x to a , and any other variable y to $d(y)$.

Definition 25 (Models). *An interpretation I is said to be a model of φ if $\varphi^I = T$. We write $I \models \varphi$ to denote that I is a model of φ .*

The notion of Model is extended to sets of formulas in a straightforward manner: If Γ is a set of predicate formulas then I is a model of Γ , denoted by $I \models \Gamma$, whenever I is a model of each formula in Γ .

Example 14. Let I be an interpretation with domain \mathbb{N} and $\mathbf{m}(p) = \{(m, n) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \mid m < n\}$. Then I is a model of $\forall_x \exists_y p(x, y)$, denoted as $I \models \forall_x \exists_y p(x, y)$, because for every natural x one can find another natural y bigger than x . With similar arguments, one can conclude that I is not a model of $\exists_x \forall_y p(x, y)$.

Definition 26 (Satisfiability). Let φ be a predicate formula. If φ has a model then it is said to be satisfiable; otherwise, it is unsatisfiable. This notion is also extended to sets of formulas: Γ is satisfiable if and only if there exists an interpretation I such that for all $\varphi \in \Gamma$, $I \models \varphi$.

Definition 27 (Logical consequence and Validity). Let $\Gamma = \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\}$ be a finite set of predicate formulas, and φ a predicate formula. We say that φ is a logical consequence of Γ , denoted as $\Gamma \models \varphi$, if every model of Γ is also a model of φ , i.e. $I \models \Gamma$ implies $I \models \varphi$, for every interpretation I . When Γ is empty then φ is said to be valid, which is denoted as $\models \varphi$.

Example 15. We claim that $\forall_x(p(x) \rightarrow q(x)) \models (\forall_x p(x)) \rightarrow (\forall_x q(x))$. In fact, let $I = \langle \langle \mathbb{D}, \mathbf{m} \rangle, d \rangle$ be a model of $\forall_x(p(x) \rightarrow q(x))$, i.e., $I \models \forall_x(p(x) \rightarrow q(x))$. If there exists an element in the domain of I that does not satisfy the predicate p then $\forall_x p(x)$ is false in I and hence, $(\forall_x(p(x)) \rightarrow (\forall_x q(x)))$ would be true in I . Otherwise, $I \models \forall_x p(x)$, and hence $I_a^x \models p(x)$, for all $a \in \mathbb{D}$. Since $I \models \forall_x(p(x) \rightarrow q(x))$, we conclude that $I_a^x \models q(x)$, for all $a \in \mathbb{D}$. Therefore, $I \models \forall_x q(x)$.

The study of models can be justified by the fact that validity in a model is an invariant of provability in the sense that a sequent is provable exactly when all its interpretations are also models. This suggests a way to prove when a sequent is not provable: it is enough to find an interpretation that is not a model of the sequent. In the next section, we formalize this for the predicate logic.