# Model-Theory to Compactness 

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## 0 Introduction

These notes are an attempt to develop model theory, as economically as possible, on a foundation of some familiarity with algebraic structures. References include [1], [2] and [3].

## 1 The natural numbers

By one standard definition, the set $\omega$ of natural numbers is the smallest set that contains the empty set and that contains $x \cup\{x\}$ whenever it contains $x$. The empty set will be denoted 0 here, and $x \cup\{x\}$, the successor of $x$, can be denoted $x^{\prime}$. The triple $\left(\omega,{ }^{\prime}, 0\right)$ will turn out to be an example of a structure.

Throughout these notes, $n$ will be a natural number, understood as the set $\{0,1,2, \ldots, n-1\}$, possibly empty; and $i$ will range over the elements of this set. Also $m$ will be a natural number.

## 2 Cartesian powers

Let $M$ be a set. The Cartesian power $M^{n}$ is the set of functions from $n$ to $M$. Such a function will be denoted by a boldface letter, as a, but then its value $\mathbf{a}(i)$ at $i$ will be denoted $a_{i}$. The function a can be identified with the $n$-tuple $\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right)$ of its values.

In particular, the power $M^{0}$ has but a single member, 0 ; hence $M^{0}=1$. This is so, even if $M=0$; however, $0^{n}=0$ when $n$ is positive (different from 0 ). The set $M$ itself can be identified with the power $M^{1}$.

Any function $f: m \rightarrow n$ determines the map

$$
\mathbf{a} \mapsto\left(a_{f(0)}, \ldots, a_{f(m-1)}\right): M^{n} \rightarrow M^{m}
$$

no matter what set $M$ is. In case $m=1$, we have the coordinate projections $\mathbf{a} \mapsto a_{i}$.

The Cartesian product $A \times B$ of sets $A$ and $B$ is identified with the set of (ordered) pairs $(a, b)$ such that $a \in A$ and $b \in B$. There is a map

$$
\begin{aligned}
M^{n} \times M^{m} & \longrightarrow M^{n+m} \\
(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) & \longmapsto\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1}, b_{0}, \ldots, b_{m-1}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

often considered an identification.

## 3 Structures and signatures

A function on the set $M$ is a map $M^{n} \rightarrow M$; the function then is $n$-aryits arity is $n$. A nullary (that is, 0 -ary) function is a constant and can be identified with an element of $M$.

An $n$-ary relation on $M$ is a subset of $M^{n}$. There are two nullary relations, namely 0 and 1 . The relation of equality is binary (2-ary).

A structure is a set equipped with some distinguished constants and with some functions and relations of various positive arities. The set then is the universe of the structure. If the universe is $M$, then the structure might be denoted $\mathcal{M}$ or just $M$ again. However, the structure $\left(\omega,^{\prime}, 0\right)$ is denoted $\mathbf{N}$. (This structure is often considered to contain the binary functions of addition and multiplication as well, but these are uniquely determined by the successor-function.)
Examples. A set with no distinguished relations, functions or constants is trivially a structure. Groups, rings and partially ordered sets are structures. A vector space is a structure whose unary functions are the multiplications by the scalars. A valued field can be understood as a structure when the valuation ring is distinguished as a unary relation.

The signature of a structure contains a symbol for each function, relation and constant in the structure; the function, relation or constant is then the interpretation of the symbol. Notationally, the symbols are primary; their interpretations can be distinguished, if need be, by superscripts indicating the structure.
Examples. The complete ordered field $\mathbf{R}$ has the signature $\{+,-, \cdot, \leqslant, 0,1\}$. The ordered field $\mathbf{Q}$ of rational numbers has the same signature. The binary function-symbol + is interpreted in $\mathbf{R}$ by addition of real numbers; the interpretation is also denoted by + , or by $+^{\mathbf{R}}$ if it should be distinguished from addition $+{ }^{\mathbf{Q}}$ of rational numbers. To make its signature explicit, we can write $\mathbf{R}$ as the tuple $(\mathbf{R},+,-, \cdot, \leqslant, 0,1)$.

Throughout these notes, $\mathcal{L}$ will be a signature, and $f, R$ and $c$ will range respectively over the function-, relation- and constant-symbols in $\mathcal{L}$. The structures with signature $\mathcal{L}$ compose the class $\mathfrak{M o d}(\mathcal{L})$.

## 4 Homomorphisms and embeddings

Suppose $M$ and $N$ are in $\mathfrak{M o d}(\mathcal{L})$, and $h$ is a map $M \rightarrow N$. (So, $N$ must be nonempty, unless $M$ is empty.) Then $h$ induces maps $M^{n} \rightarrow N^{n}$ in the obvious way, even when $n=0$; so, $h(\mathbf{a})(i)=h\left(a_{i}\right)$, and $h(0)=0$. The map
$h$ is a homomorphism if it preserves the functions, relations and constants symbolized in $\mathcal{L}$, that is,

- $h\left(f^{M}(\mathbf{a})\right)=f^{N}(h(\mathbf{a}))$;
- $h(\mathbf{a}) \in R^{N}$ when $\mathbf{a} \in R^{M}$;
- $h\left(c^{M}\right)=c^{N}$.

Any map preserves equality. A homomorphism is an embedding if it preserves both inequality and the complements of the relations symbolized in $\mathcal{L}$.

Examples. A group-homomorphism is a homomorphism of groups; a groupmonomorphism is an embedding of groups. The zero-map on the ordered field $\mathbf{R}$ can be seen as a homomorphism, but not an embedding. (It would not even be a homomorphism if the signature of an ordered ring contained $<$ instead of $\leqslant$.)

## 5 Boolean algebras

An essential and notationally exceptional example is the Boolean algebra of subsets of a nonempty set $\Omega$; this structure is the tuple

$$
\left(\mathcal{P}(\Omega), \cap, \cup,{ }^{c}, \emptyset, \Omega\right)
$$

but we shall consider the signature of Boolean algebras to be the set

$$
\{\wedge, \vee, \neg, 0,1\} .
$$

A Boolean ring is a (unital) ring in which every element is idempotent, that is, satisfies

$$
x^{2}=x .
$$

In particular, in such a ring we have $(x+y)^{2}=x+y$, whence

$$
x y+y x=0 ;
$$

replacing $y$ with $x$, we get $2 x=0$, so every element is its additive inverse; hence also $x y=y x$, so the ring is commutative. We have $x(1+x)=0$, so if $x$ is a unit, then $1+x=0$, so $x=1$. Thus also every nonzero nonunit of a Boolean ring is a zero-divisor. Hence the only Boolean integral domain is the two-element ring $\{0,1\}$ or $\mathbf{F}_{2}$, and this is a field. Therefore prime ideals of Boolean rings are maximal, since the quotient of a Boolean ring by an ideal is Boolean.

A structure $(M, \wedge, \vee, \neg, 0,1)$-call it $\mathcal{M}^{\text {a -in }}$ the signature of Boolean algebras determines a structure $\mathcal{M}^{\mathrm{r}}$ with the same universe in the signature of rings: This structure $\mathcal{M}^{\mathrm{r}}$ —that is, $(M,+, \cdot, 0,1)$-is given by the rules

$$
\begin{aligned}
x+y & =(x \wedge \neg y) \vee(y \wedge \neg x), \\
x y & =x \wedge y
\end{aligned}
$$

and the rule that 0 and 1 have the same interpretation in each structure. The structure $\mathcal{M}^{\mathrm{a}}$ is a Boolean algebra just in case $\mathcal{M}^{\mathrm{r}}$ is a Boolean ring. Any Boolean ring ( $M,+, \cdot, 0,1$ ) is determined in this way by the Boolean algebra $(M, \wedge, \vee, \neg, 0,1)$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
x \wedge y & =x y \\
x \vee y & =x+y+x y, \\
\neg x & =1+x .
\end{aligned}
$$

A Boolean algebra has a partial order $\leqslant$ such that

$$
x \leqslant y \Longleftrightarrow x \wedge y=x
$$

An ideal of a Boolean algebra is just an ideal of the corresponding ring. A filter of a Boolean algebra is dual to an ideal, so $F$ is a filter just in case $\{\neg x: x \in F\}$ is an ideal. An ultrafilter is dual to a maximal ideal. So, $F$ is a filter just in case

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 1 \in F \\
& x, y \in F \Longrightarrow x \wedge y \in F \\
& x \in F \text { and } x \leqslant y \Longrightarrow y \in F \\
& 0 \notin F
\end{aligned}
$$

also, a filter $F$ is an ultrafilter just in case

$$
x \vee y \in F \Longrightarrow x \in F \text { or } y \in F
$$

equivalently, $x \notin F \Longrightarrow \neg x \in F$.
The set of ultrafilters of a Boolean algebra is the Stone-space of the algebra. For every element $x$ of a Boolean algebra, the corresponding Stonespace has a subset $[x]$ comprising the ultrafilters containing $x$. Then

$$
[x] \cap[y]=[x \wedge y]
$$

since the elements of these sets are filters; since they are ultrafilters, we have also

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[x] \cup[y] } & =[x \vee y], \\
{[x]^{c} } & =[\neg x] .
\end{aligned}
$$

Finally, [1] is the whole Stone-space, and [0] is empty. Therefore the map

$$
x \longmapsto[x]
$$

is a homomorphism of Boolean algebras; it is an embedding, since $[x]$ is nonempty when $x \neq 0$.

Since the collection of sets $[x]$ contains the whole Stone-space and the empty set and is closed under finite unions, it is a basis for the closed sets of a topology for the Stone-space. By definition then, every closed subset is an intersection of some closed sets $[x]$. These basic closed sets are also open-they are clopen. The topology is Hausdorff, since distinct points are respectively contained in some disjoint sets $[x]$ and $[\neg x]$.

Suppose $B$ is a subset of a Boolean algebra. Then the following are equivalent:

- the collection $\{[x]: x \in B\}$ has the finite-intersection property, meaning any finite sub-collection has nonempty intersection;
- the set $B$ generates a filter of the algebra;
- $B$ included in an ultrafilter of this algebra;
- $\{[x]: x \in B\}$ has nonempty intersection.

That the first condition implies the last means that the topology of the Stone-space is compact. Consequently, every clopen set is one of the sets [ $x$ ].

Of the nonempty set $\Omega$, we can see the Boolean ring $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ of its subsets as a compact topological ring. For, we can identify any subset $A$ of $\Omega$ with its characteristic function, the map from $\Omega$ to $\mathbf{F}_{2}$ taking $x$ to 1 just in case $x \in A$. The set of such maps can be denoted $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{\Omega}$. With the discrete topology, in which every subset is closed, $\mathbf{F}_{2}$ is a compact topological ring. Therefore on $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{\Omega}$ is induced a ring-structure and a compatible topologythe product-topology or topology of pointwise convergence, compact in this case since $\mathbf{F}_{2}$ is compact. The induced ring-structure makes the bijection from $\mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ to $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{\Omega}$ a homomorphism. In the induced topology, every finite subset of $\Omega$ determines for the zero-map on $\Omega$ an open neighborhood,
comprising those maps into $\mathbf{F}_{2}$ that are zero on that finite subset. Translating such a neighborhood by an element of $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{\Omega}$ gives an open neighborhood of that element, and every open subset of $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{\Omega}$ is a union of such neighborhoods; the finite unions are precisely the clopen subsets.

## 6 Functions and terms

Suppose $M$ is in $\mathfrak{M o d}(\mathcal{L})$. Various functions on $M$ can be derived, by composition, from:

- the functions $f^{M}$,
- the constants $c^{M}$, and
- the coordinate projections.

These compositions can be described without reference to $M$; the result is the terms of $\mathcal{L}$.

The interpretation in $M$, or $t^{M}$, of an $n$-ary term $t$ of $\mathcal{L}$ will be an $n$-ary function on $M$. Terms can be defined precisely as follows:

- Each constant-symbol $c$ is also an $n$-ary term whose interpretation is the constant map $\mathbf{a} \mapsto c^{M}$ on $M^{n}$.
- There is an $n$-ary term $x_{i}$ whose interpretation is the coordinate projection $\mathbf{a} \mapsto a_{i}$ on $M^{n}$.
- If $t_{0}, \ldots, t_{n-1}$ are $m$-ary terms, and $f$ is $n$-ary, then there is an $m$-ary term $f\left(t_{0}, \ldots, t_{n-1}\right)$ whose interpretation is the map

$$
\mathbf{a} \mapsto f^{M}\left(t_{0}^{M}(\mathbf{a}), \ldots, t_{n-1}^{M}(\mathbf{a})\right) .
$$

By this account, an $n$-ary term is also $n+1$-ary. The nullary terms are the constant terms.

Lemma. If $t$ is an $n$-ary term, and $u_{0}, \ldots, u_{n-1}$ are m-ary terms, then there is an m-ary term whose interpretation in $M$ is the map

$$
\mathbf{a} \mapsto t^{M}\left(u_{0}^{M}(\mathbf{a}), \ldots, u_{n-1}^{M}(\mathbf{a})\right) .
$$

The new term in the lemma can of course be denoted $t\left(u_{0}, \ldots, u_{n-1}\right)$.
We can identify terms whose interpretations are indistinguishable in every structure. In particular, if $t$ is $n$-ary, but not $(n-1)$-ary, then $t$ is precisely $t\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$, which we may abbreviate as $t(\mathbf{x})$.

If $A$ is a subset of $M$, we let $\mathcal{L}(A)$ be the signature $\mathcal{L}$ augmented with a constant-symbol for each element of $A$. The symbols and the elements are generally not distinguished notationally, and an $\mathcal{L}$-structure $M$ naturally determines an $\mathcal{L}(A)$-structure, denoted $M_{A}$ if there is a need to distinguish.

Lemma. Every term of $\mathcal{L}(A)$ is $t(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{x})$ for some term $t$ of $\mathcal{L}$ and tuple $\mathbf{a}$ from $A$.

## 7 Propositional logic

The terms in the signature of Boolean algebras - the Boolean terms - can be considered as strings of symbols generated by the following rules:

- each constant-symbol 0 or 1 is a term;
- each symbol $x_{i}$ for a coordinate projection is a term;
- if $t$ and $u$ are terms, then so are $(t \wedge u)$ and $(t \vee u)$ and $\neg t$.

A term here is $n$-ary just in case $i<n$ whenever $x_{i}$ appears in the term. Instead of $\left(\ldots\left(t_{0} * t_{1}\right) * \cdots * t_{n-1}\right)$ we can write

$$
t_{0} * \cdots * t_{n-1},
$$

where $*$ is $\wedge$ or $\vee$.
Lemma. Every n-ary function on $\mathbf{F}_{2}$ is the interpretation of an n-ary Boolean term.

Proof. Suppose $f$ be an $n$-ary function on $\mathbf{F}_{2}$, and let $\mathbf{a}^{0}, \ldots, \mathbf{a}^{m-1}$ be the elements of $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{n}$ at which $f$ is 1 . If $m=0$, then $f$ is the interpretation of 0 . If $m>0$, then $f$ is the interpretation of

$$
t^{0} \vee \cdots \vee t^{m-1}
$$

where $t^{j}$ is $u_{0}^{j} \wedge \ldots u_{n-1}^{j}$, where $u_{i}^{j}$ is $x_{i}$, if $a_{i}^{j}=1$, and otherwise is $\neg x_{i}$.
The Boolean terms can be considered as the propositional formulas composing a propositional logic-call it PL. The constant-symbols 0 and 1 can then be taken to stand for false and true statements, respectively; an element of $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{\omega}$ is a truth-assignment to the propositional variables $x_{i}$, and under such an assignment $\sigma$, a propositional formula $t$ takes on the truthvalue

$$
t^{\mathbf{F}_{2}}(\sigma(0), \ldots, \sigma(n-1))
$$

if $t$ is $n$-ary. Write $\langle\sigma, t\rangle$ for the truth-value of $t$ under $\sigma$. A model for a set of propositional formulas is a truth-assignment $\sigma$ sending the set to 1 under the map $t \mapsto\langle\sigma, t\rangle$.

Theorem (Compactness for sentential logic). A set of propositional formulas has a model if each finite subset does.

Proof. If a set of sentences $t$ satisfies the hypothesis, then the collection of closed subsets $\{\sigma:\langle\sigma, t\rangle=1\}$ of $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{\omega}$ has the finite-intersection property.

The sets $\{\sigma:\langle\sigma, t\rangle=1\}$ are precisely the clopen subsets of $\mathbf{F}_{2}^{\omega}$.

## 8 Relations and formulas

From the relations $R^{M}$ and the interpretations $t^{M}$ of terms $t$, new relations on $M$ can be derived by various techniques. These relations will be the $0-$ definable relations of $M$, and each of them will be the interpretation of a formula of $\mathcal{L}$. (The definable relations of $M$ are the interpretations of formulas of $\mathcal{L}(M)$.) Distinctions are made according to which techniques are needed to derive the relations.

The atomic formulas are given thus:

- If $t_{0}$ and $t_{1}$ are $n$-ary terms, then there is an $n$-ary atomic formula $t_{0}=t_{1}$ whose interpretation $\left(t_{0}=t_{1}\right)^{M}$ is $\left\{\mathbf{a} \in M^{n}: t_{0}^{M}(\mathbf{a})=t_{1}^{M}(\mathbf{a})\right\}$.
- If $t_{0}, \ldots, t_{n-1}$ are $m$-ary terms, and $R$ is $n$-ary, then there is an $m$-ary atomic formula $R\left(t_{0}, \ldots, t_{n-1}\right)$ whose interpretation $R\left(t_{0}, \ldots, t_{n-1}\right)^{M}$ is $\left\{\mathbf{a} \in M^{m}:\left(t_{0}^{M}(\mathbf{a}), \ldots, t_{n-1}^{M}(\mathbf{a})\right) \in R^{M}\right\}$.
(In particular, $R\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)^{M}=R^{M}$.)
If $t$ is an $m$-ary Boolean term, and $\phi_{0}, \ldots, \phi_{n-1}$ are $n$-ary atomic formulas, then there is an $n$-ary basic or quantifier-free formula, say $t\left(\phi_{0}, \ldots, \phi_{n-1}\right)$, whose interpretation is

$$
t^{\mathcal{P}\left(M^{n}\right)}\left(\phi_{0}^{M}, \ldots, \phi_{n-1}^{M}\right)
$$

If we identify formulas with indistinguishable interpretations in every structure, then the set of basic formulas is a Boolean algebra generated by the atomic formulas. The set of formulas is the smallest Boolean algebra containing the atomic formulas and closed under the operation converting an $n+1$-ary formula $\phi$ into an $n$-ary formula $\exists x_{n} \phi$ whose interpretation is the image of $\phi^{M}$ under the map

$$
\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n}\right) \mapsto\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{n-1}\right): M^{n+1} \rightarrow M^{n}
$$

The Boolean algebra of $n$-ary formulas of $\mathcal{L}$ can be denoted $\mathrm{Fm}^{n}(\mathcal{L})$.
The formula $\neg \exists x_{n} \phi$ is also denoted $\forall x_{n} \neg \phi$, and $\neg \phi \vee \psi$ is denoted $\phi \rightarrow \psi$. If $\phi$ is an $n$-ary formula, and $t_{0}, \ldots, t_{n-1}$ are $m$-ary terms, then there is an $m$-ary formula $\phi\left(t_{0}, \ldots, t_{n-1}\right)$ with the obvious interpretation; in particular, if it is not also $(n-1)$-ary, then $\phi$ is the same as the formula $\phi\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)$.

The $A$-definable relations of $M$ are the interpretations in $M$ of formulas of $\mathcal{L}(A)$. In particular, they are the sets $\phi\left(a_{0}, \ldots, a_{m-1}, x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)^{M}$, where $\phi$ is an $m+n$-ary formula of $\mathcal{L}$, and $\mathbf{a}$ is a tuple from $A$.

Sentences are 0-ary formulas.

## 9 Substructures

Suppose $M$ and $N$ are members of $\mathfrak{M o d}(\mathcal{L})$. We can now say that an embedding of $M$ in $N$ is a map $h: M \rightarrow N$ such that

$$
h^{-1}\left(\phi^{N}\right)=\phi^{M}
$$

for all basic formulas $\phi$ of $\mathcal{L}$; if the same holds for all formulas $\phi$ of $\mathcal{L}$, then $h$ is an elementary embedding. If the universe of $N$ includes the universe of $M$, and the inclusion-map is an embedding, we say $M$ is a substructure of $N$ and write

$$
M \subseteq N
$$

if the inclusion-map is an elementary embedding, we write

$$
M \preccurlyeq N
$$

and say $M$ is an elementary substructure of $N$.
Lemma (Tarski-Vaught). Suppose $M \subseteq N$. Then $M \preccurlyeq N$, provided that

$$
\phi\left(\mathbf{a}, x_{0}\right)^{N} \cap M
$$

is nonempty whenever $\phi\left(\mathbf{a}, x_{0}\right)^{N}$ is, for all $\mathcal{L}$-formulas $\phi$ and all tuples $\mathbf{a}$ from $M$.

Proof. Let $\Sigma$ comprise the formulas $\phi$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)^{M}=\phi\left(x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right)^{N} \cap M^{n} . \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $\Sigma$ contains all the basic formulas and is closed under the Boolean operations. Suppose $\phi$ is in $\Sigma$ and $\mathbf{a}$ is in $M^{n}$. Then

$$
\phi\left(\mathbf{a}, x_{0}\right)^{M}=\phi\left(\mathbf{a}, x_{0}\right)^{N} \cap M
$$

By hypothesis then, $\phi\left(\mathbf{a}, x_{0}\right)^{M}$ and $\phi\left(\mathbf{a}, x_{0}\right)^{N}$ are alike empty or not. Hence (*) holds, mutatis mutandis, with $\exists x_{n-1} \phi$ in place of $\phi$. Therefore $\Sigma=$ $\operatorname{Fm}(\mathcal{L})$.

## 10 Models and theories

Suppose $\phi$ is an $n$-ary formula of $\mathcal{L}$, and $\mathbf{a}$ is an $n$-tuple of elements of $M$, so that $\phi(\mathbf{a})$ is a sentence of $\mathcal{L}(M)$. We write

$$
M \models \phi(\mathbf{a})
$$

if $\phi(\mathbf{a})^{M}=1$, equivalently, $\mathbf{a} \in \phi^{M}$. The map $h: M \rightarrow N$ is an elementary embedding just in case

$$
M \models \phi(\mathbf{a}) \Longleftrightarrow N \models \phi(h(\mathbf{a}))
$$

for all such $\phi$ and $\mathbf{a}$.
If $\mathcal{K}$ is a subclass of $\mathfrak{M o d}(\mathcal{L})$, then the theory $\operatorname{Th}(\mathcal{K})$ of $\mathcal{K}$ is the subset of $\operatorname{Fm}^{0}(\mathcal{L})$ comprising $\sigma$ such that $M \models \sigma$ whenever $M \in \mathcal{K}$; this subset is a filter, if $\mathcal{K}$ is nonempty; otherwise it contains every sentence. In general, a theory of $\mathcal{L}$ is $\mathrm{Fm}^{0}(\mathcal{L})$ or a filter of it; a consistent theory is a proper filter; a complete theory is an ultrafilter. A model of a set $\Sigma$ of sentences is a structure $M$ such that $\Sigma \subseteq \operatorname{Th}(M)$. We write

$$
\Sigma \models \sigma
$$

if every model of $\Sigma$ is a model of $\sigma$ (that is, of $\{\sigma\}$ ). We write

$$
\Sigma \vdash \sigma
$$

if $\sigma$ is in the theory generated by $\Sigma$. If $\Sigma \vdash \sigma$, then $\Sigma \models \sigma$.

## 11 Compactness

It is a consequence of the following that $\Sigma \vdash \sigma$ if $\Sigma \models \sigma$.
Theorem (Compactness). Every consistent theory has a model.
Proof. Let $T$ be a consistent theory in the signature $\mathcal{L}$. We shall extend $\mathcal{L}$ to a signature $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$, and extend $T$ to a complete theory $T^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$. We shall do this in such a way that, for every unary formula $\phi$ of $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$, there will be a constant-symbol $c_{\phi}$ not appearing in $\phi$ such that

$$
T^{\prime} \vdash \exists x_{0} \phi \rightarrow \phi\left(c_{\phi}\right) .
$$

Then $T^{\prime}$ and the constant-symbols $c_{\phi}$ will determine a structure $M$ in the following way. The universe of $M$ will consist of equivalence-classes [ $c_{\phi}$ ] of the symbols $c_{\phi}$, where

$$
\left[c_{\phi}\right]=\left[c_{\psi}\right] \Longleftrightarrow T^{\prime} \vdash c_{\phi}=c_{\psi} .
$$

Then we require

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi^{M}=\left\{[\mathbf{c}]: T^{\prime} \vdash \phi(\mathbf{c})\right\} \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all basic formulas $\phi$ of $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ and all tuples $\mathbf{c}$ of symbols $c_{\phi}$. The requirements $(*)$ do make sense. In particular, $c_{\phi}^{M}=\left[c_{\phi}\right]$. The requirements determine a well-defined structure, since $T^{\prime}$ is complete.

If $T^{\prime}$ is as claimed, then $(*)$ holds for all formulas $\phi$; we show this by induction. If $\phi$ is an $n$-ary formula, and [ $\mathbf{c}]$ is an ( $n-1$ )-tuple from $M$, let $d$ be the constant-symbol determined by the unary formula $\phi\left(\mathbf{c}, x_{0}\right)$. If $(*)$ holds for $\phi$, then we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
{[\mathbf{c}] \in\left(\exists x_{n} \phi\right)^{M} } & \Longrightarrow M \models \phi(\mathbf{c},[e]), \text { some }[e] \text { in } M \\
& \Longrightarrow T^{\prime} \vdash \phi(\mathbf{c}, e) \\
& \Longrightarrow T^{\prime} \vdash \exists x_{0} \phi\left(\mathbf{c}, x_{0}\right) \\
& \Longrightarrow T^{\prime} \vdash \phi(\mathbf{c}, d) \\
& \Longrightarrow M \models(\mathbf{c},[d]) \\
& \Longrightarrow[\mathbf{c}] \in\left(\exists x_{n} \phi\right)^{M}
\end{aligned}
$$

so (*) holds with $\exists x_{n} \phi$ in place of $\phi$.
Once $(*)$ holds for all formulas $\phi$, then in particular it holds when $\phi$ is a sentence in $T$; so $M \models T$.

It remains to find $T^{\prime}$ as desired. First we construct a chain $\mathcal{L}=\mathcal{L}_{0} \subseteq$ $\mathcal{L}_{1} \subseteq \ldots$ of signatures, where $\mathcal{L}_{n+1}-\mathcal{L}_{n}$ consists of a constant-symbol $c_{\phi}$ for each unary formula $\phi$ in $\mathcal{L}_{n}$. Taking the union of the chain gives $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$.

Now we work in the Stone space of $\mathrm{Fm}^{0}\left(\mathcal{L}^{\prime}\right)$. We claim that the collection

$$
\{[\sigma]: \sigma \in T\} \cup\left\{\left[\forall x_{0} \neg \phi \vee \phi\left(c_{\phi}\right)\right]: \phi \in \operatorname{Fm}^{1}\left(\mathcal{L}^{\prime}\right)\right\}
$$

of closed sets has the finite-intersection property; from this, by compactness, we can take $T^{\prime}$ to be an element of the intersection.

To establish the f.i.p., suppose that $[\psi]$ is a nonempty finite intersection of sets in the collection. Then $\psi \in \operatorname{Fm}^{0}\left(\mathcal{L}_{n}\right)$ for some $n$. If $\phi \in \operatorname{Fm}^{1}\left(\mathcal{L}^{\prime}\right)-$ $\operatorname{Fm}^{1}\left(\mathcal{L}_{n-1}\right)$, then $c_{\phi}$ does not appear in $\psi$. If also $[\psi] \cap\left[\forall x_{0} \neg \phi\right]$ is empty, then

$$
[\psi] \cap\left[\phi\left(c_{\phi}\right)\right]
$$

is nonempty; for, if $M \models \psi \wedge \exists x_{0} \phi$, then we may assume $M \models \psi \wedge \phi\left(c_{\phi}\right)$.
Theorem. Suppose $N \in \mathfrak{M o d}(\mathcal{L})$, and $\kappa$ is a cardinal such that

$$
\aleph_{0}+|\mathcal{L}| \leqslant \kappa \leqslant|N| .
$$

Then there is $M$ in $\mathfrak{M o d}(\mathcal{L})$ such that $M \preccurlyeq N$ and $|M|=\kappa$.

Proof. Use the proof of Compactness, with $\operatorname{Th}(N)$ for $T$. We can choose $T^{\prime}$, and we can choose $c_{\phi}^{N}$ in $N$, so that $N \models T^{\prime}$. Then we may assume $M \subseteq N$, and so $M \preccurlyeq N$ by the Tarski-Vaught test. By construction, $|M| \leqslant\left|\mathcal{L}^{\prime}\right|=\aleph_{0}+|\mathcal{L}|$.

To ensure $M=\kappa$, we first add $\kappa$-many new constant-symbols to $\mathcal{L}$ and let their interpretations in $N$ be distinct.

Example. In the signature $\{\in\}$ of set-theory, any infinite structure has a countably infinite elementary substructure, even though the power-set of an infinite set is uncountable.

Corollary. Suppose $A$ is an infinite $\mathcal{L}$-structure and $|A|+|\mathcal{L}| \leqslant \kappa$. Then there is $M$ in $\mathfrak{M o d}(\mathcal{L})$ such that $A \preccurlyeq M$ and $|M|=\kappa$.

Proof. Let $\left\{c_{\mu}: \mu<\kappa\right\}$ be a set of new constant-symbols, and let $T$ be the theory generated by $\operatorname{Th}\left(A_{A}\right)$ and $\left\{c_{\mu} \neq c_{\nu}: \mu \neq \nu\right\}$. Use Compactness to get a model $N$ of $T$; then use the last Theorem to get $M$ as desired.

## References

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