

06—From Propositional to Predicate Logic

The Importance of Being Formal

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- 1 Syntax of Predicate Logic
- 2 Predicate Logic as a Formal Language
- 3 Semantics of Predicate Logic
- 4 Proof Theory
- 5 Equivalences
- 6 Soundness and Completeness

- 1 Syntax of Predicate Logic
 - Need for Richer Language
 - Predicates
 - Variables
 - Functions
- 2 Predicate Logic as a Formal Language
- 3 Semantics of Predicate Logic
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- 5 Equivalences

More Declarative Sentences

- Propositional logic can easily handle simple declarative statements such as:

Example

Student Peter Lim enrolled in UIT2206.

- Propositional logic can also handle combinations of such statements such as:

Example

Student Peter Lim enrolled in Tutorial 1, *and* student Julie Bradshaw is enrolled in Tutorial 2.

- But*: How about statements with “*there exists...*” or “*every...*” or “*among...*”?

What is needed?

Example

Every student is younger than some instructor.

What is this statement about?

- Being a student
- Being an instructor
- Being younger than somebody else

These are *properties* of elements of a *set* of objects.

We express them in predicate logic using *predicates*.

Predicates

Example

Every student is younger than some instructor.

- $S(\text{andy})$ could denote that Andy is a student.
- $I(\text{paul})$ could denote that Paul is an instructor.
- $Y(\text{andy}, \text{paul})$ could denote that Andy is younger than Paul.

The Need for Variables

Example

Every student is younger than some instructor.

We use the predicate S to denote student-hood.

How do we express “*every student*”?

We need *variables* that can stand for constant values, and a *quantifier* symbol that denotes “*every*”.

The Need for Variables

Example

Every student is younger than some instructor.

Using variables and quantifiers, we can write:

$$\forall x(S(x) \rightarrow (\exists y(I(y) \wedge Y(x, y)))).$$

Literally: For every x , if x is a student, then there is some y such that y is an instructor and x is younger than y .

Another Example

English

Not all birds can fly.

Predicates

$B(x)$: x is a bird

$F(x)$: x can fly

The sentence in predicate logic

$$\neg(\forall x(B(x) \rightarrow F(x)))$$

A Third Example

English

Every girl is younger than her mother.

Predicates

$G(x)$: x is a girl

$M(x, y)$: x is y 's mother

$Y(x, y)$: x is younger than y

The sentence in predicate logic

$$\forall x \forall y (G(x) \wedge M(y, x) \rightarrow Y(x, y))$$

A “Mother” Function

The sentence in predicate logic

$$\forall x \forall y (G(x) \wedge M(y, x) \rightarrow Y(x, y))$$

Note that y is only introduced to denote the mother of x .

If everyone has exactly one mother, the predicate $M(y, x)$ is a function, when read from right to left.

We introduce a function symbol m that can be applied to variables and constants as in

$$\forall x (G(x) \rightarrow Y(x, m(x)))$$

A Drastic Example

English

Andy and Paul have the same maternal grandmother.

The sentence in predicate logic without functions

$$\forall x \forall y \forall u \forall v (M(x, y) \wedge M(y, \text{andy}) \wedge \\ M(u, v) \wedge M(v, \text{paul}) \rightarrow x = u)$$

The same sentence in predicate logic with functions

$$m(m(\text{andy})) = m(m(\text{paul}))$$

Outlook

Syntax: We formalize the language of predicate logic, including scoping and substitution.

Semantics: We describe models in which predicates, functions, and formulas have meaning.

Proof theory: We extend natural deduction from propositional to predicate logic

Further topics: Soundness/completeness, undecidability, incompleteness results, compactness results

- 1 Syntax of Predicate Logic
- 2 Predicate Logic as a Formal Language**
 - Predicate and Functions Symbols
 - Terms
 - Formulas
 - Variable Binding and Substitution
- 3 Semantics of Predicate Logic
- 4 Proof Theory
- 5 Equivalences

Predicate Vocabulary

At any point in time, we want to describe the features of a particular “world”, using predicates, functions, and constants. Thus, we introduce for this world:

- a set of predicate symbols \mathcal{P}
- a set of function symbols \mathcal{F}

Arity of Functions and Predicates

Every function symbol in \mathcal{F} and predicate symbol in \mathcal{P} comes with a fixed arity, denoting the number of arguments the symbol can take.

Special case: Nullary Functions

Function symbols with arity 0 are called *constants*.

Special case: Nullary Predicates

Predicate symbols with arity 0 denotes predicates that do not depend on any arguments. They correspond to propositional atoms.

Terms

$$t ::= x \mid c \mid f(t, \dots, t)$$

where

- x ranges over a given set of variables \mathcal{V} ,
- c ranges over nullary function symbols in \mathcal{F} , and
- f ranges over function symbols in \mathcal{F} with arity $n > 0$.

Examples of Terms

If n is nullary, f is unary, and g is binary, then examples of terms are:

- $g(f(n), n)$
- $f(g(n, f(n)))$

More Examples of Terms

If 0, 1, 2 are nullary (constants), s is unary, and $+$, $-$ and $*$ are binary, then

$$*(-(2, +(s(x), y)), x)$$

is a term.

Occasionally, we allow ourselves to use infix notation for function symbols as in

$$(2 - (s(x) + y)) * x$$

Formulas

$$\phi ::= P(t, \dots, t) \mid (\neg\phi) \mid (\phi \wedge \phi) \mid (\phi \vee \phi) \mid \\ (\phi \rightarrow \phi) \mid (\forall x\phi) \mid (\exists x\phi)$$

where

- $P \in \mathcal{P}$ is a predicate symbol of arity $n \geq 0$,
- t are terms over \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{V} , and
- x are variables in \mathcal{V} .

Conventions

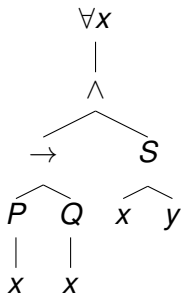
Just like for propositional logic, we introduce convenient conventions to reduce the number of parentheses:

- $\neg, \forall x$ and $\exists x$ bind most tightly;
- then \wedge and \vee ;
- then \rightarrow , which is right-associative.

Parse Trees

$$\forall x((P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \wedge S(x, y))$$

has parse tree



Another Example

Every son of my father is my brother.

Predicates

$S(x, y)$: x is a son of y

$B(x, y)$: x is a brother of y

Functions

m : constant for “me”

$f(x)$: father of x

The sentence in predicate logic

$$\forall x(S(x, f(m)) \rightarrow B(x, m))$$

Equality as Predicate

Equality is a common predicate, usually used in infix notation.

$$= \in \mathcal{P}$$

Example

Instead of the formula

$$= (f(x), g(x))$$

we usually write the formula

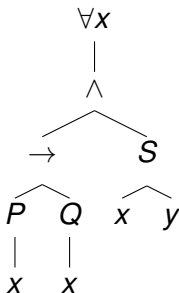
$$f(x) = g(x)$$

Free and Bound Variables

Consider the formula

$$\forall x((P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)) \wedge S(x, y))$$

What is the relationship between variable “binder” x and occurrences of x ?

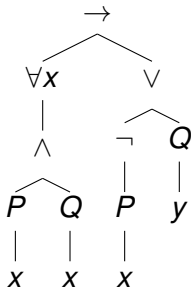


Free and Bound Variables

Consider the formula

$$(\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))) \rightarrow (\neg P(x) \vee Q(y))$$

Which variable *occurrences* are free; which are bound?



Substitution

Variables are *placeholders*. Replacing them by terms is called *substitution*.

Definition

Given a variable x , a term t and a formula ϕ , we define $[x \Rightarrow t]\phi$ to be the formula obtained by replacing each free occurrence of variable x in ϕ with t .

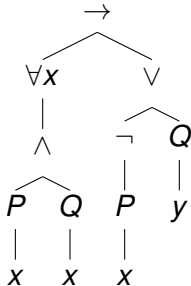
Example

$$\begin{aligned} & [x \Rightarrow f(x, y)]((\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))) \rightarrow (\neg P(x) \vee Q(y))) \\ & = \forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \rightarrow (\neg P(f(x, y)) \vee Q(y)) \end{aligned}$$

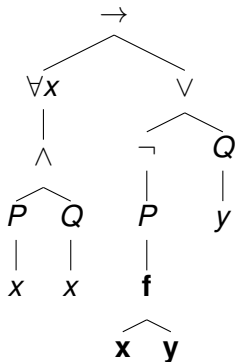
Example as Parse Tree

$$[x \Rightarrow f(x, y)]((\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))) \rightarrow (\neg P(x) \vee Q(y)))$$

$$= (\forall x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))) \rightarrow (\neg P(f(x, y)) \vee Q(y))$$



Example as Parse Tree



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- 3 Semantics of Predicate Logic**
 - Models
 - Equality
 - Free Variables
 - Satisfaction and Entailment
- 4 Proof Theory
- 5 Equivalences

Models

Definition

Let \mathcal{F} contain function symbols and \mathcal{P} contain predicate symbols. A model \mathcal{M} for $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ consists of:

- 1 A non-empty set A , the *universe*;
- 2 for each nullary function symbol $f \in \mathcal{F}$ a concrete element $f^{\mathcal{M}} \in A$;
- 3 for each $f \in \mathcal{F}$ with arity $n > 0$, a concrete function $f^{\mathcal{M}} : A^n \rightarrow A$;
- 4 for each $P \in \mathcal{P}$ with arity $n > 0$, a function $P^{\mathcal{M}} : U^n \rightarrow \{F, T\}$.
- 5 for each $P \in \mathcal{P}$ with arity $n = 0$, a value from $\{F, T\}$.

Example

Let $\mathcal{F} = \{e, \cdot\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{\leq\}$.

Let model \mathcal{M} for $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ be defined as follows:

- 1 Let A be the set of binary strings over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$;
- 2 let $e^{\mathcal{M}} = \epsilon$, the empty string;
- 3 let $\cdot^{\mathcal{M}}$ be defined such that $s_1 \cdot^{\mathcal{M}} s_2$ is the concatenation of the strings s_1 and s_2 ; and
- 4 let $\leq^{\mathcal{M}}$ be defined such that $s_1 \leq^{\mathcal{M}} s_2$ iff s_1 is a prefix of s_2 .

Example (continued)

- 1 Let A be the set of binary strings over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$;
- 2 let $e^{\mathcal{M}} = \epsilon$, the empty string;
- 3 let $\cdot^{\mathcal{M}}$ be defined such that $s_1 \cdot^{\mathcal{M}} s_2$ is the concatenation of the strings s_1 and s_2 ; and
- 4 let $\leq^{\mathcal{M}}$ be defined such that $s_1 \leq^{\mathcal{M}} s_2$ iff s_1 is a prefix of s_2 .

Some Elements of A

- 10001
- ϵ
- $1010 \cdot^{\mathcal{M}} 1100 = 10101100$
- $000 \cdot^{\mathcal{M}} \epsilon = 000$

Equality Revisited

Interpretation of equality

Usually, we require that the equality predicate $=$ is interpreted as same-ness.

Extensionality restriction

This means that allowable models are restricted to those in which $a =^{\mathcal{M}} b$ holds if and only if a and b are the same elements of the model's universe.

Example (continued)

- 1 Let A be the set of binary strings over the alphabet $\{0, 1\}$;
- 2 let $e^{\mathcal{M}} = \epsilon$, the empty string;
- 3 let $\cdot^{\mathcal{M}}$ be defined such that $s_1 \cdot^{\mathcal{M}} s_2$ is the concatenation of the strings s_1 and s_2 ; and
- 4 let $\leq^{\mathcal{M}}$ be defined such that $s_1 \leq^{\mathcal{M}} s_2$ iff s_1 is a prefix of s_2 .

Equality in \mathcal{M}

- $000 =^{\mathcal{M}} 000$
- $001 \neq^{\mathcal{M}} 100$

Another Example

Let $\mathcal{F} = \{z, s\}$ and $\mathcal{P} = \{\leq\}$.

Let model \mathcal{M} for $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ be defined as follows:

- 1 Let A be the set of natural numbers;
- 2 let $z^{\mathcal{M}} = 0$;
- 3 let $s^{\mathcal{M}}$ be defined such that $s(n) = n + 1$; and
- 4 let $\leq^{\mathcal{M}}$ be defined such that $n_1 \leq^{\mathcal{M}} n_2$ iff the natural number n_1 is less than or equal to n_2 .

How To Handle Free Variables?

Idea

We can give meaning to formulas with free variables by providing an environment (lookup table) that assigns variables to elements of our universe:

$$I : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow A.$$

Environment extension

We define environment extension such that $I[x \mapsto a]$ is the environment that maps x to a and any other variable y to $I(y)$.

Satisfaction Relation

The model \mathcal{M} satisfies ϕ with respect to environment l , written $\mathcal{M} \models_l \phi$:

- in case ϕ is of the form $P(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$, if a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are the results of evaluating t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n with respect to l , and if $P^{\mathcal{M}}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = T$;
- in case ϕ is of the form P , if $P^{\mathcal{M}} = T$;
- in case ϕ has the form $\forall x\psi$, if the $\mathcal{M} \models_{l[x \mapsto a]} \psi$ holds for all $a \in A$;
- in case ϕ has the form $\exists x\psi$, if the $\mathcal{M} \models_{l[x \mapsto a]} \psi$ holds for some $a \in A$;

Satisfaction Relation (continued)

- in case ϕ has the form $\neg\psi$, if $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi$ does not hold;
- in case ϕ has the form $\psi_1 \vee \psi_2$, if $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi_1$ holds or $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi_2$ holds;
- in case ϕ has the form $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$, if $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi_1$ holds and $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi_2$ holds; and
- in case ϕ has the form $\psi_1 \rightarrow \psi_2$, if $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi_2$ holds whenever $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi_1$ holds.

Satisfaction of Closed Formulas

If a formula ϕ has no free variables, we call ϕ a *sentence*.
 $\mathcal{M} \models_I \phi$ holds or does not hold regardless of the choice of I .
Thus we write $\mathcal{M} \models \phi$ or $\mathcal{M} \not\models \phi$.

Semantic Entailment and Satisfiability

Let Γ be a possibly infinite set of formulas in predicate logic and ψ a formula.

Entailment

$\Gamma \models \psi$ iff for all models \mathcal{M} and environments I , whenever $\mathcal{M} \models_I \phi$ holds for all $\phi \in \Gamma$, then $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi$.

Satisfiability of Formulas

ψ is satisfiable iff there is some model \mathcal{M} and some environment I such that $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi$ holds.

Satisfiability of Formula Sets

Γ is satisfiable iff there is some model \mathcal{M} and some environment I such that $\mathcal{M} \models_I \phi$ for all $\phi \in \Gamma$.

Semantic Entailment and Satisfiability

Let Γ be a possibly infinite set of formulas in predicate logic and ψ a formula.

Validity

ψ is valid iff for all models \mathcal{M} and environments I , we have $\mathcal{M} \models_I \psi$.

The Problem with Predicate Logic

Entailment ranges over models

Semantic entailment between sentences: $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$ requires that in *all* models that satisfy $\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_n$, the sentence ψ is satisfied.

How to effectively argue about all possible models?

Usually the number of models is infinite; it is very hard to argue on the semantic level in predicate logic.

Idea from propositional logic

Can we use natural deduction for showing entailment?

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 - Equality
 - Universal Quantification
 - Existential Quantification
- 5 Equivalences

Natural Deduction for Predicate Logic

Relationship between propositional and predicate logic

If we consider propositions as nullary predicates, propositional logic is a sub-language of predicate logic.

Inheriting natural deduction

We can translate the rules for natural deduction in propositional logic directly to predicate logic.

Example

$$\frac{\phi \quad \psi}{\phi \wedge \psi} [\wedge i]$$

Built-in Rules for Equality

$$\frac{}{t = t} [= i] \qquad \frac{t_1 = t_2 \quad [x \Rightarrow t_1]\phi}{[x \Rightarrow t_2]\phi} [= e]$$

Properties of Equality

We show:

$$f(x) = g(x) \vdash h(g(x)) = h(f(x))$$

using

$$\frac{}{t = t} [= i] \qquad \frac{t_1 = t_2 \quad [x \Rightarrow t_1]\phi}{[x \Rightarrow t_2]\phi} [= e]$$

- | | | |
|---|---------------------|-----------|
| 1 | $f(x) = g(x)$ | premise |
| 2 | $h(f(x)) = h(f(x))$ | $= i$ |
| 3 | $h(g(x)) = h(f(x))$ | $= e$ 1,2 |

Elimination of Universal Quantification

$$\frac{\forall x \phi}{[x \Rightarrow t] \phi} [\forall x e]$$

Once you have proven $\forall x \phi$, you can replace x by any term t in ϕ , provided that t is free for x in ϕ .

Example

$$\frac{\forall x \phi}{[x \Rightarrow t] \phi} [\forall x e]$$

We prove: $S(g(john)), \forall x(S(x) \rightarrow \neg L(x)) \vdash \neg L(g(john))$

1	$S(g(john))$	premise
2	$\forall x(S(x) \rightarrow \neg L(x))$	premise
3	$S(g(john)) \rightarrow \neg L(g(john))$	$\forall x e$ 2
4	$\neg L(g(john))$	$\rightarrow e$ 3,1

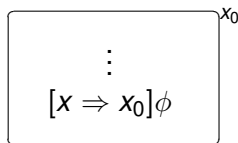
Introduction of Universal Quantification

$$\frac{\boxed{\begin{array}{c} \vdots \\ [x \Rightarrow x_0] \phi \end{array}}^{x_0}}{\forall x \phi} [\forall x i]$$

If we manage to establish a formula ϕ about a fresh variable x_0 , we can assume $\forall x \phi$.

The variable x_0 must be *fresh*; we cannot introduce the same variable twice in nested boxes.

Example



$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)), \forall xP(x) \vdash \forall xQ(x)$ via $\frac{\quad}{\forall x\phi}$

1	$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$	premise
2	$\forall xP(x)$	premise
3	$P(x_0) \rightarrow Q(x_0)$	$\forall x e 1$ x_0
4	$P(x_0)$	$\forall x e 2$
5	$Q(x_0)$	$\rightarrow e 3,4$
6	$\forall xQ(x)$	$\forall x i 3-5$

Introduction of Existential Quantification

$$\frac{[x \Rightarrow t]\phi}{\exists x \phi} [\exists x i]$$

In order to prove $\exists x \phi$, it suffices to find a term t as “witness”, provided that t is free for x in ϕ .

Example

$$\forall x \phi \vdash \exists x \phi$$

Recall: Definition of Models

A model \mathcal{M} for $(\mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$ consists of:

- 1 A *non-empty* set U , the *universe*;
- 2 ...

Remark

Compare this with Traditional Logic.

Because U must not be empty, we should be able to prove the sequent above.

Example (continued)

$$\forall x \phi \vdash \exists x \phi$$

1	$\forall x \phi$	premise
2	$[x \Rightarrow x] \phi$	$\forall x \text{ e } 1$
3	$\exists x \phi$	$\exists x \text{ i } 2$

Elimination of Existential Quantification

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \exists x\phi \\
 \boxed{\begin{array}{c} [x \Rightarrow x_0]\phi \\ \vdots \\ \chi \end{array}} \\
 \hline
 \chi \quad [\exists e]
 \end{array}$$

x_0

$[x \Rightarrow x_0]\phi$

Making use of \exists

If we know $\exists x\phi$, we know that there exist at least one object x for which ϕ holds. We call that element x_0 , and assume

Example

$$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)), \exists xP(x) \vdash \exists xQ(x)$$

1	$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$	premise	
2	$\exists xP(x)$	premise	
3	$P(x_0)$	assumption	x_0
4	$P(x_0) \rightarrow Q(x_0)$	$\forall x e 1$	
5	$Q(x_0)$	$\rightarrow e 4,3$	
6	$\exists xQ(x)$	$\exists x i 5$	
7	$\exists xQ(x)$	$\exists x e 2,3-6$	

Note that $\exists xQ(x)$ within the box does not contain x_0 , and therefore can be “exported” from the box.

Another Example

1	$\forall x(Q(x) \rightarrow R(x))$	premise	
2	$\exists x(P(x) \wedge Q(x))$	premise	
3	$P(x_0) \wedge Q(x_0)$	assumption	x_0
4	$Q(x_0) \rightarrow R(x_0)$	$\forall x e 1$	
5	$Q(x_0)$	$\wedge e_2 3$	
6	$R(x_0)$	$\rightarrow e 4,5$	
7	$P(x_0)$	$\wedge e_1 3$	
8	$P(x_0) \wedge R(x_0)$	$\wedge i 7, 6$	
9	$\exists x(P(x) \wedge R(x))$	$\exists x i 8$	
10	$\exists x(P(x) \wedge R(x))$	$\exists x e 2,3-9$	

Variables must be fresh! This is not a proof!

1	$\exists xP(x)$	premise	
2	$\forall x(P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$	premise	
3			x_0
4	$P(x_0)$	assumption	x_0
5	$P(x_0) \rightarrow Q(x_0)$	$\forall x \text{ e } 2$	
6	$Q(x_0)$	$\rightarrow \text{ e } 5,4$	
7	$Q(x_0)$	$\exists x \text{ e } 1, 4-6$	
8	$\forall yQ(y)$	$\forall y \text{ i } 3-7$	

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 - **Quantifier Equivalences**
- 6 Soundness and Completeness

Equivalences

Two-way-provable

We write $\phi \dashv\vdash \psi$ iff $\phi \vdash \psi$ and also $\psi \vdash \phi$.

Some simple equivalences

$$\neg\forall x\phi \dashv\vdash \exists x\neg\phi$$

$$\neg\exists x\phi \dashv\vdash \forall x\neg\phi$$

$$\forall x\forall y\phi \dashv\vdash \forall y\forall x\phi$$

$$\exists x\exists y\phi \dashv\vdash \exists y\exists x\phi$$

$$\forall x\phi \wedge \forall x\psi \dashv\vdash \forall x(\phi \wedge \psi)$$

$$\exists x\phi \vee \exists x\psi \dashv\vdash \exists x(\phi \vee \psi)$$

$$\neg \forall x \phi \vdash \exists x \neg \phi$$

1	$\neg \forall x \phi$	premise
2	$\neg \exists x \neg \phi$	assumption
3		x_0
4	$\neg [x \Rightarrow x_0] \phi$	assumption
5	$\exists x \neg \phi$	$\exists x i 4$
6	\perp	$\neg e 5, 2$
7	$[x \Rightarrow x_0] \phi$	PBC 4–6
8	$\forall x \phi$	$\forall x i 3–7$
9	\perp	$\neg e 8, 1$
10	$\exists x \neg \phi$	PBC 2–9

$\exists x \exists y \phi \vdash \exists y \exists x \phi$

Assume that x and y are different variables.

1	$\exists x \exists y \phi$	premise	
2	$[x \Rightarrow x_0](\exists y \phi)$	assumption	x_0
3	$\exists y([x \Rightarrow x_0]\phi)$	def of subst (x, y different)	
4	$[y \Rightarrow y_0][x \Rightarrow x_0]\phi$	assumption	y_0
5	$[x \Rightarrow x_0][y \Rightarrow y_0]\phi$	def of subst (x, y, x_0, y_0 different)	
6	$\exists x[y \Rightarrow y_0]\phi$	$\exists x$ i 5	
7	$\exists y \exists x \phi$	$\exists y$ i 6	
8	$\exists y \exists x \phi$	$\exists y$ e 3, 4–7	
9	$\exists y \exists x \phi$	$\exists x$ e 1, 2–8	

More Equivalences

Assume that x is not free in ψ

$$\forall x\phi \wedge \psi \dashv\vdash \forall x(\phi \wedge \psi)$$

$$\forall x\phi \vee \psi \dashv\vdash \forall x(\phi \vee \psi)$$

$$\exists x\phi \wedge \psi \dashv\vdash \exists x(\phi \wedge \psi)$$

$$\exists x\phi \vee \psi \dashv\vdash \exists x(\phi \vee \psi)$$

Central Result of Natural Deduction

$$\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n \models \psi$$

iff

$$\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n \vdash \psi$$

proven by Kurt Gödel, in 1929 in his doctoral dissertation (just one year before his most famous result, the incompleteness results of mathematical logic)