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TOWARD A GENERAL THEORY OF LOGICS

Part I.

ON UNIVERSAL ALGEBRAICAL CONSTRUCTION OF LOGICS

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TOWARD A GENERAL THEORY OF LOGICS

PART I.

ON UNIVERSAL ALGEBRAICAL CONSTRUCTION OF LOGICS

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ABSTRACT

This study is concerned with the construction of a mathematical base for a general theory of logics. This general theory of logics is a frame in which different kinds of logics or complex systems of logics can be constructed, investigated, interrelated, etc.

The known alternatives of classical and nonclassical logics do fit into this frame. This frame is developed completely inside universal algebra, that is the objects treated in our general theory of logics, as well as their standard properties /e.g. completeness, reducibility, etc./ are completely algebraic. To illustrate the general methodology the following tree of logics is constructed /grown from the "root" logic/: typeless logic, logic of type t and the hierarchy of logics with built-in shorthands /e.g. variable symbols/.

The commonly used alternative of classical first-order logic is a node of this tree.

РЕЗЮМЕ

В данной работе разрабатывается математический аппарат, являющийся основой для разработки общей теории логик. Общая теория логик позволяет исследовать и создать разные логики. Она охватывает как классические, так и неклассические логики. Она состоит с одной стороны из некоторого скелета логики, а с другой из методов, позволяющих построить на основе скелета желаемую логику. В работе предложен такой скелет логики, разработанный при помощи методов в теории универсальных алгебр. Для иллюстрации методов, позволяющих синтезировать логики, построены бестиповая логика, логика типа t и вложенная логика типа t. Последние составляют бесконечную иерархию логик. Одна из них совпадает с классической логикой первого порядка. Разработанные методы позволяют исследовать логические свойства, такие, например, как компактность, полнота, интерполяционные свойства как чисто алгебраические.

KIVONAT

Ebben a tanulmányban megkonstruáljuk azt a matematikai bázist, amelyen kifejleszthetővé válik a logikák általános elmélete.

A logikák általános elmélete egy olyan keret, melyen belül különböző logikák és kapcsolataik vizsgálhatók, konstruálhatók, stb. Ebbe az általános keretbe beillenek pl. a klasszikus és nem klasszikus logikák egyaránt. Ez a keret áll egyrészt valamilyen logika-vázból és olyan módszerekből, melyekkel a vázból kialakitható valamilyen kivánt logika. A tanulmány ezt a vázat adja meg univerzális algebrai eszközökkel.

A módszerek illusztrálására megkonstruáljuk a tipusfüggetlen, a t-tipusu és a beépitett t-tipusu logikákat. Az utóbbiak tulajdonképpen egy végtelen logikahierarchiát alkotnak. Ezek egyike a szokásos klasszikus elsőrendű logikával megegyezik. Ez a közelitésmód lehetővé teszi, hogy logikai tulajdonságokat tisztán algebrai tulajdonságokként kezeljünk /pl. kompaktság, teljesség, interpolációs tulajdonságok, stb./.

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I. INTRODUCTION

A general frame is introduced in which logics can be constructed as purely universal-algebraic systems. Some basic concepts are developed in this general frame, such as the completeness of a calculus or the reducibility of a logic to another, etc. Then these general tools are applied to construct different versions of classical first order logic, and to study their interrelationships. To this end the theory of cylindric algebras is applied. The interaction between mathematical logic and algebra is bidirectional since we use our typeless logic to prove that SPLF + HSPLF where LF is the class of locally finite cylindric algebras. (As far as we know this is a new result. Later we also found a purely algebraic proof of this inequality, however the logical proof is far much more straightforward.)

Each logic discussed is constructed as a purely algebraic system, and its algebraic properties are investigated. We tired to concentrate on those algebraic properties which are of essential logical importance. For example from some of these properties different kinds of interpolation properties of the logics can be derived. Strong emphasys is taken on the <u>naturalness</u> (in the universal algebraic sense) of the constructions and the properties.

To the commonly used version of classical first order logic an equivalent logic is constructed with a much more harmonic algebraic structure. Moreover this logic is shown to be recursively reducible to a logic with an even more clear cut structure and even more smooth behaviour. (We have named this logic typeless logic.) The investigations of the relations between typeless logic and the commonly used first order logic give a better understanding of the structure of substitution and questions related to variable symbols.

A methodology is also hinted how to dig to the core of a logic through repeated reductions, in other to grow a rich, structured tree of logics from this core. This growing of a tree can be controlled by adequacy criterias to a system of problem domains.

Now we discuss some technicalities about how to read this paper. We use the notations of the book of Henkin-Monk-Tarski [1]. Since this notation is generally accepted in the literature of algebraic logic we simply sum it up in a list at the end of the article and in the main test do not introduce the individual notations before using them.

The results and concepts of the theory of cylindric algebras used in this paper are summed up in Section III. without proof.

II. DEFINITION OF A GENERAL CONCEPT OF LOGIC

2.0. As it is known, the aim of a logic is to enable its user to formulate statements about certain phenomena and to represent the relation between the statements and the phenomena by truthvalues. To fulfill this task logic should have a language and some tool- to interrelate the elements of the language and the phenomena under consideration.

Definition 2.1.: By a logic we understand a pair $\langle \mathcal{F}, K \rangle$ where \mathcal{F} is a wordalgebra and $K \subseteq \mathcal{H} \mathcal{F}$, that is K is a set of homomorphisms defined on \mathcal{F} . To substitute the set K with a unique homomorphism we need the following operation:

Definition 2.2.: If G is a set of functions whith a common domain, that is $(\forall f \in G)$ Dor f = D, then we define the product of G as $TTG \stackrel{\underline{d}}{=} \langle \langle f_x \rangle_{x \in D} \rangle$ (see fig.1.)

We now introduce some concepts related to the concept of logic:

k # TK

The definition of word algebra is given in Section 2.5.

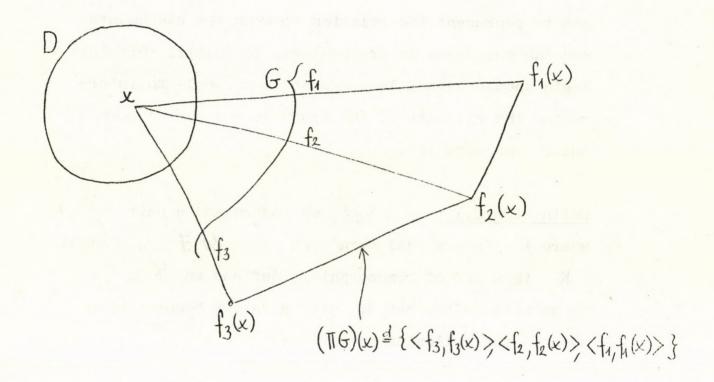


Fig. 1.

The set F is called <u>language</u>, its elements are called <u>formulas</u>. The elements of K are called <u>interpreting functions</u>, these render meanings to the elements of the language. For all $\chi \in K$ and $\psi \in F$, $k(\psi)_{\chi}$ is the <u>truthvalue</u> of the formula ψ according to the interpreting function z. If all interpreting functions render the same value to $\psi, \psi \in F$, that is $k(\psi) = k(\psi)$, then we say that ψ and ψ are synonymous or semantically equivalent. The <u>semantic equivalence</u> of the logic $\langle f, K \rangle$ is k and is denoted by \equiv , that is $\equiv \frac{d}{k}k$. The <u>tautological formulaalgebra</u> is f/\equiv , its elements are the synonym classes. \mathcal{U} is a <u>formulaalgebra</u> of the logic $\langle f, K \rangle$ if there is an $f \in K$ such that $f/(f \cap K) \cong \mathcal{U}$. The illustration of these concepts can be seen in fig. 2.

2.1. Interpretations

To make more convenient the use of logic, we can render "labels" to the interpreting functions, which serve to identify the interpreting functions. These labels are called interpretations or models. That is, we can pick any class M with a functions $h \in {}^M K$, with range K and consider the elements of M as interpretations, which label the interpreting functions through h. Let $m \in M$, now $k(\phi)_{h(m)}$ is called the truthvalue of the formula ϕ in the interpretation m.

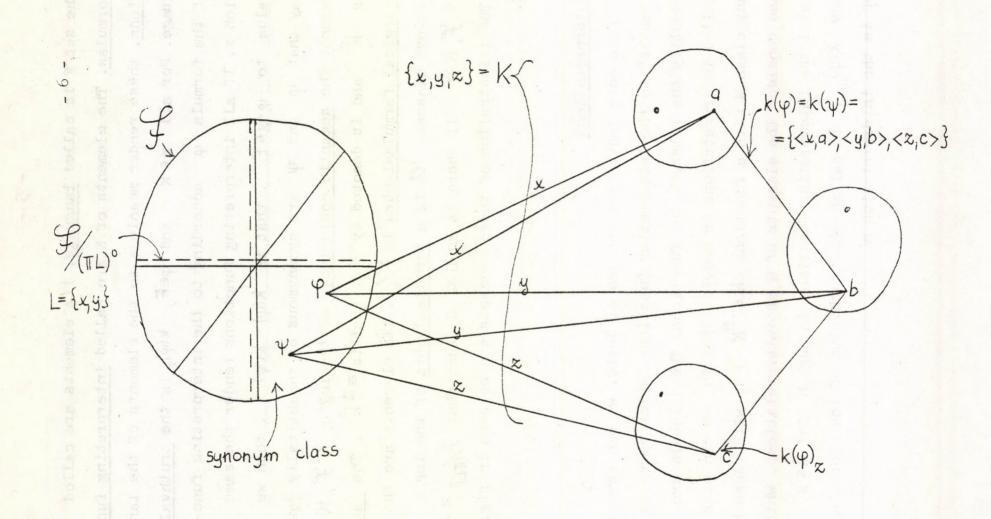


Fig. 2.

The set of theories of the logic $\langle \mathcal{F}, \mathsf{K} \rangle$ is: $\{(\mathsf{TL})^0 : \mathsf{L} \subseteq \mathsf{K}\}$. So in this approach the theories are special congruence. More intuitively a theory of $\langle \mathcal{F}, \mathsf{K} \rangle$ is the semantical equivalence of a logic $\langle \mathcal{F}, \mathsf{L} \rangle$, where $\mathsf{L} \subseteq \mathsf{K}$. If given theory R we often identify it with the logic $\langle \mathcal{F}, \mathsf{U} | \mathsf{L} \subseteq \mathsf{K} : \mathsf{R} = (\mathsf{TL})^0 \} \rangle$. That is certain congruences are theories and certain logics are theories too.

L is <u>axiomatisable</u> in $\langle \mathcal{F}, K \rangle$ iff $L = \{ f \in K : f^0 = (\pi L)^0 \}$. We note that

- a) L is axiomatisable in a logic iff $\langle \mathcal{F}, L \rangle$ is a theory of that logic.
- b) The theories (as congruences) form a closed-set system. Given a subset G of F the smallest theory containing G is the theory generated by G.

L is recursively axiomatisable in $\langle \mathcal{F}, \mathsf{K} \rangle$ if there is a recursive subset G of $^2\mathsf{F}$ such that $\mathsf{L} = \{ \mathsf{f} \in \mathsf{K} : \mathsf{f}^0 \supseteq \mathsf{G} \}$. If the logic $\mathsf{L}_4 = \langle \mathcal{F}, \mathsf{K}_4 \rangle$ is a theory of $\mathsf{L}_2 = \langle \mathcal{F}, \mathsf{K}_2 \rangle$, then L_4 is reducible to L_2 ; if moreover K_2 is recursively axiomatisable in L_4 then L_2 is recursively reducible to L_4 . Reducibility is a close relation between logics: If L_2 is reducible to L_4 then any logic which is a theory of L_2 is a theory of L_4 too. That is if a theorem states something about all the theories of a logic than a proof of this theorem for L_4 is also a proof of it to L_2 . So if we prove the

reducibility of L_1 to L_2 then all such proofs about L_4 become superfluous. Theorems of this kind are e.g.: the compactness theorem, the Löwenheim-Skolem th., the ultraproduct-th., and also the completeness theorem can be reformulated in such a form.

2.3. Shorthands

There is another means to make the use of a logic more convenient (the first one was the use of interpretations). We can introduce shorthands for the formulas, that is instead of the elements of F we can use their names. Of course, just as it was the case with the interpretations, different purposes may require different kinds of shorthands for the same logic.

N will usually stand for the set of the choosen names (or shorthands) and $\Vdash \in {}^{\mathsf{N}}\mathsf{F}$ stand for the function "is a name of" (or "is a shorthand for").

For example well known shorthands are:

$$(\varphi V \psi) \Vdash \gamma (\gamma \varphi \Lambda \gamma \psi)$$
; $(\varphi \Lambda \psi) \Vdash \langle \Lambda, \langle \varphi, \psi \rangle \rangle$; and $\forall_i \Vdash \gamma \exists_i \gamma$ for any $\varphi, \psi \in F$.

The illustration of the concepts discussed in this section can be seen on fig.3.

Fig. 3.

2.4. Logics with built-in shorthands

The shorthands can be used to define a new logic from the old one by replacing the formulas by their shorthands. In this case we require that

- 1/At least one formula in each synonym-class should have a name. That is $\equiv^* (\Vdash^* N) F$.
- 2/A word algebra $\mathcal H$ can be defined on N such that $(\equiv^{\bigstar} \circ \Vdash)^{\star} \mathcal H = \mathcal F/\equiv$.

That is we project the structure of the language \mathcal{F} to the set of names N but during the projection we concentrate only on the semantic equivalence classes.

Now we define the new logic as the pair

Intuitively speaking no radical change happened, this is still basically the same logic, the only difference is that now we have the shorthands built in. To see the importance of this step let us suppose that we have a logic $\langle \mathcal{L}, K \rangle$ with a theory $\langle \mathcal{L}, L \rangle$ where $L \subseteq K$.

Let us choose shorthands N for the logic $\langle \mathcal{F}, L \rangle$ which relies on the special properties of L Now build-

ing in the shorthands N we also build in the structure of L that is the logic $\langle \mathcal{H}, \{ f \circ | \vdash : f \in L \} \rangle$ compared to the logic $\langle \mathcal{F}, L \rangle$ has the special structure of L built in.

One of the central aims of this paper is to investigate this process. The theory of the above processes have great importance in artificial intelligence related to the representation problem. See for example [2], [3]. More generally these questions seem to play an important role in the foundations of the theory of adequacy of languages.

In the following we give an example of these processes worked out to the case of classical first order logics. During this we arrive at different logics each of which has its special advantages. In the same time a frame is worked out in which logics can be constructed according to arbitrarily choosen purposes.

Now we show an example of the fact that a general theory of logics can be developed in the framework outlined so far. Different new disciplines (e.g. artificial intelligence) are calling for such a general theory of logics, on the other hand the special theory of logics are elaborated enough to give birth to such a general theory which is not at all trivial.

In the following section we give a result from the general theory of logics as an example. We also apply this result in section 4.4.

2.5. On compactness and complete calculuses in general theory of logics

One of our basic tool in the algebraic investigation of logics is the well-known universal algebraic concept "word-algebra" or "absolutely free algebra".

<u>Definition 2.3.:</u> The definition of the word-algebra is: First we fix a t-type algebra \mathcal{W} which can be thought of as a "pre-word-algebra":

a/ the universe W is the set of all n-typles of the elements of $X \cup D$ that is:

W = (XUDot) U (XUDot) × (XUDot) U (XUDot) × ((XUDot) × (XUDot))

b/ for all ge Dot

$$O_{p}^{(nt)}(g)(x_{1},...,x_{t(g)-1}) \stackrel{\underline{d}}{=} \langle g, \langle x_{1},...,x_{t(g)-1} \rangle \rangle$$

in the case t(g)-1=0Op $(g) = g \in W$

Now, the absolutely free algebra or word algebra of type t generated by X is $\mathcal{F}_{X,t}$, where

$$\mathcal{F}_{X,t} \stackrel{d}{=} \mathcal{F}_{g}^{(nr)} X$$

The universe of $\mathbb{F}_{x,t}$ is denoted by $\mathbb{F}_{x,t}$

<u>Definition 2.4.</u>: A set $S \subseteq {}^2F_{X,t}$ is called a defining relation.

Definition 2.5.: $\Gamma_{l,t}^{(5)}$ At is the class of homomorphisms over the class of t-type algebras \mathcal{A} with generators I and with def. relation S:

$$\Gamma_{I,t}^{(5)}$$
 A = { $g \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{F}_{I,t} : g^* \mathcal{F}_{I,t} \in \mathcal{S} \mathcal{A}, g^0 \ge S$ }, in case

S = 0 we omit the superscript:

$$\Gamma_{i,t}^{(0)}$$
 $A \stackrel{d}{=} \Gamma_{i,t} A$

Theorem 2.1.: Let $<\mathfrak{F}_{I,t}$, $\Gamma_{I,t}\mathfrak{A}>$ be an arbitrary logic, that is \mathfrak{A} is an arbitrary class of algebras. If \mathfrak{SPA} is a variety then the compactness theorem is valid for $<\mathfrak{F}_{I,t}$, $\Gamma_{I,t}\mathfrak{A}>$.

To prove the theorem we need the following five purely algebraic lemmas. From now on A is an arbitrary class of similar t-type algebras and S is an arbitrary defining relation.

A class of algebras is called variety, if it can be defined by a set of equations. There is a universal algebraic result, that A is a variety iff HSPA = A.

Proof:
$$\langle x,y \rangle \in (\Pi \Gamma_{I,t}^{(S)} \mathcal{A})^0$$
 iff $(\forall g \in \Gamma_{I,t}^{(S)} \mathcal{A}) g(x) = g(y)$ iff $(\forall g \in \mathcal{H}_{\sigma} \mathcal{F}_{I,t}) [(g^* \mathcal{F}_{I,t} \in S \mathcal{A} \& g^0 \ge S) \Rightarrow \langle x,y \rangle \in g^0]$ iff $(\forall R \in C_{\sigma} \mathcal{F}_{I,t}) [(\mathcal{F}_{I,t}/R \in I S \mathcal{A} \& R \ge S) \Rightarrow \langle x,y \rangle \in R]$ iff $\langle x,y \rangle \in C_{I,t}^{(S)} \mathcal{A}$

Lemma 2.2.: For all $g \in \Gamma_{I,t}^{(5)}$ \$P\$ there is a $G \subseteq \Gamma_{I,t}^{(5)}$ At such that $g' = (TG)^0$

Proof: Since $g \in \Gamma_{I,t}^{(S)}$ SPA there exists a J index set and $f \in \mathcal{A}$ for which $g^* \mathcal{F}_{I,t} \cong |\mathcal{L}| = |\mathcal{$

Lemma 2.3.: For all set I and congruence R $\mathcal{F}_{It}/_{R} \in \mathbb{SPA} \quad \text{iff} \quad (\exists L \subseteq \Gamma_{It} \mathcal{A}) (\Pi L)^{2} = R$

Proof: $1/ \mathbb{F}_{I,t}/R \in \mathbb{SPA} \rightarrow (\exists L \subseteq \Gamma_{I,t} A) (\mathbb{T}L)^0 = R$ $R^* \in \mathcal{H}_{\sigma}(\mathbb{F}_{I,t}, \mathbb{F}_{I,t}/R) \subseteq \Gamma_{I,t} \mathbb{SPA} \text{ since } \mathbb{F}_{I,t}/R \in \mathbb{SPA}.$ By this Lemma 2.2. gives $(\exists L \subseteq \Gamma_{I,t} A) (\mathbb{T}L)^0 = R$

This with the fact that for all equivalence relation r, $(r^*)^0 = r^0$ completes the proof of 1/.

2/
$$(\exists L \subseteq \Gamma_{I,t} A) (\Pi L)^0 = R \implies \mathcal{F}_{I,t}/R \in \mathbb{SP} A$$

$$L \subseteq \Gamma_{I,t} A \implies \Pi L \in \mathcal{H}om (\mathcal{F}_{I,t}, \mathcal{P}_{g^{\varepsilon}L} g^*\mathcal{F}_{I,t}),$$
since for all $g^{\varepsilon}L$, $g^*\mathcal{F}_{I,t} \in \mathcal{A}$ we have $\mathcal{F}_{I,t}/(\Pi L)^0 \in \mathbb{SP} A$

$$Now (\Pi L)^0 = R \quad completes the proof of 2/.$$

Lemma 2.4.:
$$C_{I,t}^{(S)} \mathcal{A} = C_{I,t}^{(S)} \mathbb{SPA}$$

Proof: $\langle x,y \rangle \in C_{I,t}^{(5)}$ SPA iff (from Lemma 2.1.)

 $(\forall g \in \Gamma_{I,t}^{(S)} SPH) < x,y > \epsilon g^0 \text{ iff (from Lemma 2.2.)}$

 $(\forall G \subseteq \Gamma_{\underline{I},\underline{t}}^{(S)} \mathcal{A}) < x,y > \varepsilon (\exists G)^{\circ} \text{iff (from Lemma 2.1.)} < x,y > \varepsilon C_{\underline{I},\underline{t}}^{(S)} \mathcal{A}$

Lemma 2.5.: CrIt A = CrIt HSP A

Proof: is well known and can be found in [1]

The proof of theorem 2.1.:

Let us suppose that SPA = HSPA, and $K \stackrel{d}{=} \Gamma_{I_t} A$. Let I be an arbitrary set and $\equiv \subseteq R \in G F_{I_t}$. Since $F_{I_t}/_{\equiv} = F_{I_t} A \in SPA$ we have that $F_{I_t}/_{R} \in HSPA$. This, by the hypothesis, gives that $F_{I_t}/_{R} \in SPA$ and so by Lemma 2.3. $(\exists L \subseteq K) (TL)^0 = R$ that is R is a theory of $\langle F_{I_t}, K \rangle$. This means that the set $\{R \in G F_{I_t} : R \supseteq \equiv \}$ coincides with the set of theories $(on \langle F_{I_t}, K \rangle)$. Since it is well known [1] that the set of congruences containing a fixed congruence is an inductive closed-set system, we have proved the compactness th. for this logic.

We note that the above theorem states e.g. the compactness of the propositional logic since the latter has the form: $\langle \mathcal{F}_{I,t} , \mathcal{F}_{I,t} \rangle$.

Now we turn our attention to the calculuses of a logic defined in such a general setting.

By a <u>calculus</u> of a logic we understand an algorythm listing elements of the tautological equivalence \equiv .A calculus is <u>complete</u> if it lists all the elements of \equiv .

Now we outline a general method to obtain complete calculuses for logics of the form $<\mathfrak{F}_{I,t}$, $\Gamma_{I,t}^{(5)}$ \mathcal{V} > where \mathcal{V} is a variety with a recursively given set of defining equations.

Now it is easy to see that $\equiv = C_{I\!\!,t}^{(S)} \, \mathcal{V}$ (for $C_{I\!\!,t}^{(S)} \, \mathcal{V}$ see the list of definitions.) Let Σ be the set of equations defining \mathcal{V} . The set of variable symbols occurring in Σ is disjoint from I (and all the other sets used). We consider the elements of I as constant symbols. Note that the equations in S consist exclusively of symbols in I and Dot. Let our algorythm start from the equations ΣUS and use the usual equation rewriting rules see e.g. [4]. By the well known equational completeness theorem of universal algebra (see also [4]) this algorythm is a complete calculus, that is it lists all the pairs in \cong .

Note that this approach simplifies the logical completeness considerations since the equational completeness theorem cited above has a very simple and straightforward proof.

In case of a compact logic by a complete calculus all the consequences of a recursively enumerable set of synonim-pairs can be listed.

For example the completeness of the propositional calculus can be proved in this manner in very few steps
[5] (since the variety of Boolean algebras can be defined by three equations).

III. SOME PROPERTIES AND CLASSES OF CYLINDRIC ALGEBRAS

3.0. During the investigations of the kinds of logics we are going to introduce the theory of cylindric algebras will be applied.

By a structure of type $t \in I_{\omega}$ we understand a pair $\mathcal{C} = \langle A, O_p^{(\mathcal{C} \cup I)} \rangle$ where A is the universe of the structure and $O_p^{(\mathcal{C} \cup I)}$ is a function with domain I. For any $g \in I$ the value $O_p^{(\mathcal{C} \cup I)}(g)$ is a t(g) -ary relation on A.

A structure is an <u>algebra</u> if all of its relations are functions everywhere defined on A.

We fix a type ℓ which shall be used through out the paper:

$$\ell = \{ \langle \Lambda, 3 \rangle, \langle 7, 2 \rangle, \langle \exists_{i,1}, 2 \rangle, \langle =_{i,j}, 4 \rangle : i, j \in \omega \}$$

From now on we <u>restrict</u> our discussion to algebras of type ℓ .

So, before going into more detail we introduce <u>notations</u> for algebras of type ℓ . If $\mathcal U$ is an algebra of type ℓ then:

$$O_{p}^{(ell)}(\Lambda) \stackrel{d}{=} .(ell)$$

We usually omit the index (W).

Let us introduce the <u>dimension-sensitivity</u> function $\Delta^{(Vl)}$:

$$\Delta^{(ell)}(x) \stackrel{d}{=} \{ i : c_i x \neq x \}$$

Since we devote ourselves to algebras of type ℓ , we set $\mathcal{F}_\chi \ \stackrel{d}{=} \ \mathcal{F}_{\chi,\ell} \ ,$

and we call \mathcal{F}_{χ} the word algebra generated by X.

3.1. Some important classes of ℓ -type algebras

The variety of cylindric algebras (CA), ([1],1.1.1.)

Let us introduce the following shorthands:

$$x+y \stackrel{d}{=} -(-x-y)$$

$$0 \stackrel{d}{=} y-y$$

$$1 \stackrel{d}{=} -0$$

Now we can define CA the class of cylindric algebras: For any ℓ -type algebra U

 $\mathcal{U} \in CA$ if for all $x,y,z \in A$ and $i,j,n \in \omega$ the following equations hold:

(CO)
$$\langle A, \cdot^{(\ell X)}, -^{(\ell X)} \rangle$$
 is a Boolean algebra, that is a) $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$
b) $x \cdot (y+z) = (xy) + (x \cdot z)$
c) $x \cdot 1 = x$

Note that the symbols +, 0, and 1 are only shorthands for expressions and are $\underline{\text{not}}$ operation symbols of the algebra $\,\mathcal U$

(C1)
$$c_i 0 = 0$$

(C2)
$$C_i \times X = X$$

(C3)
$$C_i(x \cdot C_i y) = C_i x \cdot C_i y$$

$$(C4) C_i C_j X = C_j C_i X$$

(c6)
$$i \neq j, n \Rightarrow d_{j,n} = c_i(d_{j,i} \cdot d_{i,n})$$

(C7)
$$i \neq j \Rightarrow c_i(d_{ij} \cdot x) \cdot c_i(d_{ij} \cdot -x) = 0$$

The class of <u>locally finite cylindric algebras</u> (Lf), ([1], 1.11.1.)

Lf = {
$$\forall x \in A : (\forall x \in A) | \Delta^{(400)} x | < \omega$$
 }.

The class of <u>full cylindric set algebras</u> (Th), ([1], 1.1.5.)

The full cylindric set algebra \mathcal{L}_{A} induced by the set A is defined by:

$$\frac{(\mathcal{L}_{A})}{(X,Y)} \stackrel{d}{=} X \cap Y$$

$$\frac{(\mathcal{L}_{A})}{(X)} (X) \stackrel{d}{=} \mathcal{A} \times X$$

$$\frac{(\mathcal{L}_{A})}{(X)} (X) \stackrel{d}{=} \{ s \in \mathcal{A} : (\exists x \in X)(\forall j \in \omega \setminus \{i\}) \} s_{j} = x_{j} \}$$

$$\frac{d}{dis} \{ s \in \mathcal{A} : s_{i} = s_{j} \}$$

The operations $c_i^{(\mathcal{L}_A)}$ and $d_{i,j}^{(\mathcal{L}_A)}$ are illustrated in fig.4.

Th
$$\stackrel{d}{=} \{ \mathcal{L}_A : A \neq 0 \}$$

The class of cylindric set algebras (Ha), ([1], 1.1.5.)

Note, that, as it is easily seen, any cylindric set algebra is the subalgebra of exactly one full cylindric set algebra.

The class of <u>locally independently-finite cylindric set</u>

algebras (dw), ([5])

Let $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{E})$ a. $a \in A$ is an independently-finite element (in the followings <u>i-finite</u> element), if $|\Delta^{(\alpha)}a| < \omega$ and $s \in a$ iff $(\exists z \in a)(\forall i \in \Delta a) s_i = z_i$ (see fig.5.)

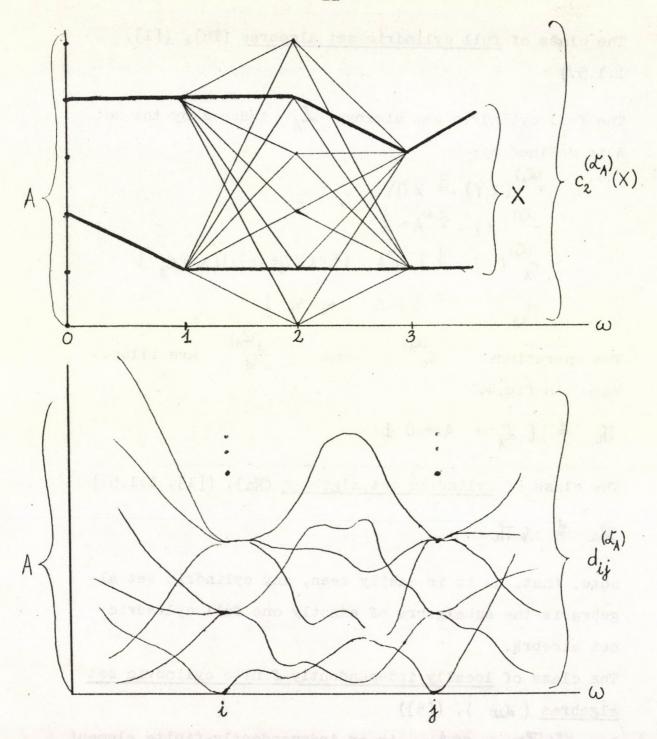


Fig. 4.

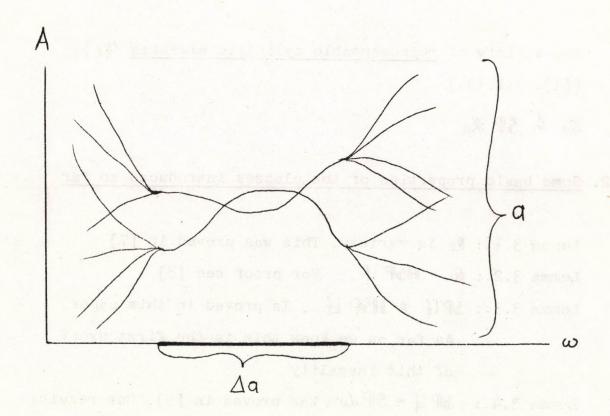


Fig. 5.

The class & plays a central role in our algebraic investigations of logics. We gave a more detailed account of this, and also of the algebraic behaviour of & in [6].

The variety of representable cylindric algebras (Re), ([1], 1.1.13.)

Re & SP Ha

3.2. Some basic properties of the classes introduced so far

Lemma 3.1.: Re is variety. This was proved in [7]

Lemma 3.2.: Re = HISP If. For proof see [8]

Lemma 3.3.: SPLF # HSPLF . Is proved in this paper.

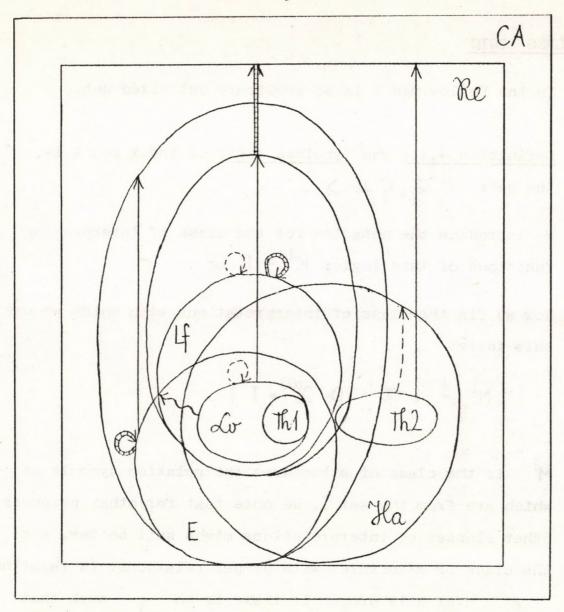
As far as we know this is the first proof of this inegality

Lemma 3.4.: SPLf = SPLr. Was proved in [5]. Our results in logic are based on this equality.

Summing up the relations between classes of cylindric algebras:

 $dw \subseteq If \cap Jla$ $SPdw = SPIf \neq SPJla = SPTh = Re$ HSPdw = HSPIf = HSPJla = HSPTh = Re

The connections between the different classes of cylindric algebras can be seen on fig.6.



I - closure 5 - closure H - closure SP- closure variety

E & { simple cylindric algebras with the trivial cylindric algebra} Th 1 d { LA: 1A1=13 Th 2 d Th Th1 = { LA : |A|>1} non-variety

IV. TYPELESS LOGIC

4.0. In the followings I is an arbitrary but fixed set.

Definition 4.1.: The <u>typeless logic</u> of index set I is the pair $< \mathcal{F}_I$, $\Gamma_I \, dw >$.

We introduce the notation for the class of interpreting functions of this logic: $K^{I} \stackrel{d}{=} \Gamma_{I} \& \sigma$.

Now we fix the class of interpretations with which we use this logic:

$$M^{I} \stackrel{d}{=} \{ \text{ et} : \text{ Do } O_{p}^{(\text{et})} = I \}$$
.

 M^{I} is the class of structures the relation symbols of which are from the set I . We note that for other purposes other classes of interpretations might suit better, e.g. the class of structures with proper relations. (A relation

r over A is proper if there is no q such that

 $r = q \times A$)
The labelling function $h \in M^I \times I$ is defined as follows:

<u>Definition 4.2.</u>: For any $\mathcal{Cl}\in M^{I}$, $h_{\mathcal{Cl}}\in \mathcal{H}$ \mathcal{I}_{I} , \mathcal{I}_{A}) such that for all $g\in I$

$$h_{\mathcal{U}}(g) \stackrel{d}{=} \{ s \in A : (\exists n \in \omega) < s_0, , s_n > \in Op^{(\ell)}(g) \}$$

Intuitively speaking hy correlates with each formula ϕ the set of evaluations (a subset of ${}^\omega\!A$) which satisfie ϕ in the interpretation ${}^\omega\! A$.

Theorem 4.1.: M^{I} together with h form a class of interpretations for the typeless logic of index set I, that is $h^{*}M^{I} = K^{I}$.

Proof: 1) $h^*M^I \subseteq K^I$. We know that $h^*_{\mathcal{A}} \mathcal{T}_I \in \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{A}}$ and it is easy to see that for any $g \in I$ the element $h_{\mathcal{A}}(g) = \{s: (\exists n) \ n \mid s \in Op(g)\}$ is i-finite. Since $h^*_{\mathcal{A}} I$ generates $h^*_{\mathcal{A}} \mathcal{T}_I$ we have $h^*_{\mathcal{A}} \mathcal{T}_I \in \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$.

This complets the proof of 1).

2) $h^*M^I \supseteq K^I$. Let $g \in \Gamma_I L w = K^I$. To g we construct an $\mathcal{U} \in M^I$ such that $h_{\mathcal{U}_I} = g$. $\mathcal{E} \stackrel{d}{=} g^* \mathcal{F}_I \in \mathcal{L} w$. According to the note following the definition of $\mathcal{H}a$ there is a unique A such that $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{L}_A$. Now we define a structure $\mathcal{U} = \mathcal{U} = \mathcal{U$

And since $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_A$ implies that $h_{\mathcal{C}I}, g \in \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{C}I}(\mathcal{F}_I, \mathcal{L}_A)$ we have: $h_{\mathcal{C}I} = g$. That is for any $g \in K^I$ there is an $\mathcal{C}I \in M^I$ such that $h_{\mathcal{C}I} = g$ and so $h^*M^I \supseteq K^I$.

Now we start to investigate the algebraic properties of typeless logic.

We prove that the semantic equivalence of typeless logic is the free congruence over &r , the tautological formulaalgebra is the free algebra over &r and the class of formulaalgebras is \$P&r.

<u>Definition 4.3.:</u> The semantical equivalence of the typeless logic of index set $I: \equiv^{\Gamma} \stackrel{d}{=} (\mathbb{T} K^{\Gamma})^{0}$

<u>Definition 4.4.:</u> The class of typeless formulaalgebras: $\mathbb{G}^{(F)} \stackrel{d}{=} \mathbb{I} \{ \mathfrak{F}_{I/(\mathbb{T}L)^0} : \text{I is an arbitrary set, } L \subseteq \mathbb{K}^I \}$

Theorem 4.2.: a)
$$\equiv^{I} = C_{r_{I}} dv$$

b) $\Im_{r_{I}/\underline{z}} = \Im_{r_{I}} dv$

c) $\Im^{(F)} = \Im P dv$

Proof: a) $G_{I} d\nu = (\Pi \Gamma_{I} d\nu)^{\circ}$ by Lemma 2.1.

- b) follows from a)
- c) 1/ $\mathbb{S}^{(F)} \subseteq \mathbb{SP}$ Low. According to the definition of $\mathbb{S}^{(F)}$ for any $\mathcal{U} \in \mathbb{S}^{(F)}$ there is an I and $\mathbb{L} \subseteq \Gamma_{\mathbb{I}}$ Low such that $\mathcal{U} \cong \mathcal{F}_{\mathbb{I}}/(\pi_{\mathbb{L}})^{\circ}$. From this and Lemma 2.3. follows that $\mathcal{U} \in \mathbb{SP}$ Low.

2) $\mathbb{S}^{(F)} \supseteq \mathbb{SP} \mathcal{L} W$. For any $\mathcal{U} \in \mathbb{SP} \mathcal{L} W$ there is a set I such that $\mathbb{F}_I \nearrow \mathcal{U}$. (e.g. $\mathbb{F}_A \nearrow \mathcal{U}$.) By Lemma 2.3. this implies that $(\exists L \subseteq \Gamma_I \mathcal{L} W) \mathcal{U} \cong \mathbb{F}_I / \mathbb{F}_I \mathbb{C} W$ that is $\mathcal{U} \in \mathbb{S}^{(F)}$

We note that the same is true for the propositional logic if we replace by $\{<2, \land, \gt\}$. For the algebraic purposes the definition of \mathscr{L} is not algebraic enough. So we try to replace it with more algebraic classes. E.g. the fact that the tautological formulaalgebra of the propositional logic is the free Boolean algebra is more algebraic as our Theorem 4.2. since the class of Boole algebras is a variety. In the followings we succeed in replacing \mathscr{L} by Lf as well as \mathscr{R} , both having purely algebraic definitions. (The presently known algebraic definition of \mathscr{R} is more complicated than that of \mathscr{L} , however it has the advantage that \mathscr{R} is a variety and a set of equations is known for it.)

Theorem 4.3.: a)
$$\equiv^{I} - C_{I} + G_{I}$$

b) $\mathcal{F}_{I}/\equiv^{I} = \mathcal{F}_{I} + G_{I}$

c) $\mathcal{G}^{(F)} = \mathcal{SP}_{I} + G_{I}$

Proof: by Lemma 3.4. and Lemma 2.4.

Theorem 4.4.: a)
$$\equiv$$
 = C_{I} Re

b) $\mathcal{F}_{I/\underline{z}}$ = \mathcal{F}_{I} Re

Proof: by Lemma 3,2, and Lemma 2.5. and Theorem 4.3.

We remark that this theorem does not generalise part c) of theorem 4.3. This generalisation ($S^{(F)} = SPRe = Re$) is easily seen to be equivalent with the equality SPF = HSP F.

In the Section 4.4. the compactness theorem is shown to fail to the typeless logic from which SP I # HSP I immediately follow-s by Theorem 2.1. So the generalisation of part c) of Theorem 4.3. fails. However Section 4.4. does also contain an important positive result as well, Theorem 4.4. b) is used to show that typeless logic has various forms of the "interpolation property" (this has e.g. definition-theoretical corollaries).

4.1. Calculuses for typeless logic

According to the definition in 2.5. a calculus of $\langle \mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{I}}, \mathcal{K}^{\mathbf{I}} \rangle$ lists the set $\equiv^{\mathbf{I}}$. It is easy to find such a calculus by using that $\equiv^{\mathbf{I}} = C_{\mathbf{I}}$ be and a system of equations defining be is known [1]. Thus starting from the equations defining be and by using the usual transformations on equations an algorithm can deduce any element of $\equiv^{\mathbf{I}}$. The calculus can also lists the consequences of any finite set of formulas. The correspondence $\equiv^{\mathbf{I}} = G_{\mathbf{I}}$ be can be a tool not only to construct new calculuses but also to check calculuses to be complete.

We have to check that the relation listed by the calculus is a congruence and contains the equations defining $\,\Re\,$.

4.2. Shorthands for typeless logic

We remind the reader that in Sectio-n 2.3. we discussed the use of shorthands and fixed some definitions. For the typeless logic of index set I we can introduce the usual shorthands, e.g. $V_i \rightarrow V_i$ etc. However we cannot introduce shorthands for substitutions that is variables. We would like to have:

$$\begin{split} & n_{\text{CM}}(\| - (g \vee_{i_0} \dots \vee_{i_n})) = \{ s \in A : (\exists_{m} \in \omega) \text{ miss}_{s_{i_0}}, \dots, s_{i_n}, s_{n+1}, \dots > \epsilon \text{ Op}(g) \} \\ & \text{We can not define this because } \Delta^{(\mathcal{F}_{\overline{i_n}} = 1)}(g / \epsilon^{\underline{i_1}}) = \omega . \end{split}$$

4.3. Examples

1/ Let $I = \{g\}$ and for each $n \in \omega$ the structure $n \in \omega$: $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ the structure $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ and $u \in A = \{g\}$ and for each $u \in A = \{g\}$ and $u \in A = \{g\}$

2/ We would like to produce a formula φ such that $h_{\mathcal{U}}(\varphi) = \{ s \epsilon^{\omega} : s < s_o \} \text{ , where } \mathcal{U} \stackrel{d}{=} \mathcal{U} \text{ of the }$

example 1/. We shall see that $\varphi = \exists_2 (\exists_4 (\exists_0 (g \land \exists_{02}) \land \exists_{40}) \land \exists_{42})$ has just the required thruthvalue in \mathcal{C} .

Fig.7. illustrates the above examples.

4.4. Some properties of typeless logic

Theorem 4.5.: The compactness theorem holds for the typeless logic if I = 0.

Proof: 1/ Let $I \neq 0$ and $g \in I$.

Consider the set of formulas $\sum_{i=1}^{d} \{ \exists_{0} \exists_{0}, \exists_{1} g_{1}, \vdots, \exists_{i} g_{i}, \dots \}$

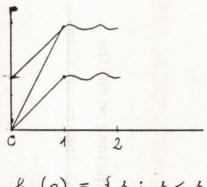
We shall see that Σ has no models, and in the same time any finite subset 9 of Σ has models.

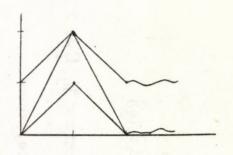
A/ Let θ be a finite subset of Σ , and n the greatest integer such that $\exists_n g \in \theta$ /If there is no such number then $\theta = \{\exists_7 g\}$ and so obviously has a model./

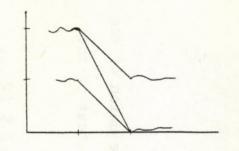
Now we construct a model $\mathcal U$ for θ

 $A \stackrel{d}{=} \omega$ $O_p^{(ex)}(g) \stackrel{d}{=} \{ s \in ^n A : (\exists i > 0) \ s_i > s_o \}$

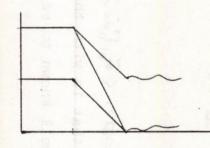
and for any $g \neq \xi \in I$ the relation $O_p^{(ex)}(\xi)$ is arbitrary.

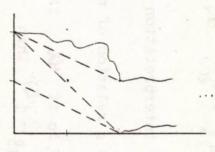


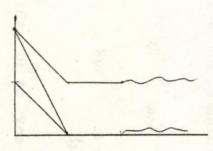


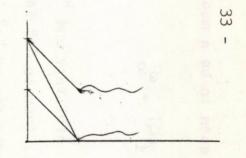


hor (3, (81=2)= { s: 52 < 51}









ho(3,(3,(3,(3,(3,1)/10)))= {s:3,< s,}

 \mathfrak{A} is easily seen to be a model of Θ :

a)
$$h_{01}(3_{079}) = 1^{(L_A)} = \omega$$

because

let $s \in \omega$ arbitrary and "a" be the union of the set $\{s_i : i \in n\}$ (that is "a" is the greatest of the first n coordinates of "s".)

b) Let $0 < k \le n$ now $h_{\alpha}(\exists_{k} g) = 1^{(\mathcal{L}_{A})}$

because for any $s \in \omega$ the sequence $\langle s_0, s_1, ..., s_{k-1}, s_{k+1}, s_k, ... \rangle \in h_{\mathcal{U}}(g)$ and so $s \in h_{\mathcal{U}}(\exists_k(g))$

B/ Let \mathcal{O} be any interpretation of the logic $\langle \mathcal{F}_{I}, \mathcal{F}_{I} \mathcal{L} w \rangle$ If $O_{p}(g)$ is a relation of n arguments, then $h_{\mathcal{O}}(g) = h_{\mathcal{O}}(\mathcal{F}_{n+1}g)$. So if \mathcal{O} is a model of $\mathcal{F}_{n+1}g$,

that is $h_{\mathcal{O}}(\mathcal{F}_{n+1}g) = 1^{(\mathcal{F}_{n})}$ then $h_{\mathcal{O}}(g) = 1^{(\mathcal{F}_{n})}$,

and therefore $h_{\mathcal{O}}(\mathcal{F}_{n}g) = 0$, so \mathcal{O} is not a model of $\mathcal{F}_{n}g$.

2/ The logic $\langle \mathcal{F}_0, \mathcal{F}_0 \mathcal{L}_r \rangle$ coincides with the logic of type 0 (that is with the usual theory of identity) and so is well known to be compact.

Corollary 4.1.: SP Lf + HISP Lf (and so of course SP & + HISP &)

Proof: Follows directly from theorem 2.1. and theorem 4.5.

This result is made more interesting by the fact (see [1] 2.6.52) that the smallest universal class containing If coincides with HSPIF. That is SPIF is not even universal. (This however does not mean that SPIF would not be elementary see 2.6.53. [1]) The above corollary also implies that the smallest free class of algebras containing If is not a variety (and is not even universal) by theorem 1 of [9].

A class of algebras is free it is containins free algebras for arbitrary defining relations. Malcev proves that the property of being free coincides with the property of being closed for P .(See [9])

The above one is a logical proof for SPLf # HISPLf, we have also found a purely algebraic proof for this fact which is however somewhat more involved.

This algebraic proof can be found in the Appendix.

Now we turn our attention to the interpolation (and definition theoretic) properties of typeless logic.

First we define the interpolation property for logics with cylindric formulaalgebras.

Definition 4.5.:

Let $L=<\mathbb{F}_I,K>$ be a logic with $\mathbb{F}_{I/\equiv}\in CA$. Let ϕ and ψ be two formulas of L and k the set of symbols from I occurring in ϕ , and $\mathcal Y$ the same set for ψ .

That is:

$$\varphi \in \mathcal{F}_{k}$$

$$\psi \in \mathcal{F}_{\gamma}$$

$$kUJ \subseteq I$$

Let ψ be a consequence of ψ that is $\psi \leq \psi$. Let satisfies the interpolation property (IP) if: We can find a formula χ which symbols common in ψ and ψ that is $\chi \in \mathcal{F}_{k \cap J}$ such that:

- a) strong IP: $\varphi \leqslant \chi \leqslant \psi$
- b) normal IP: There is a <u>finite</u> set of natural numbers $\{i_1,...,i_n\} \subseteq \omega$ for which $\varphi \in \chi \in \exists_{i_1}...\exists_{i_n} \psi$
- c) weak IP: There is a finite $\{i_1, i_n\} \subseteq \omega$ for which

$$\forall_i ... \forall_i \phi \in \chi \in \exists_{ij} ... \exists_{in} \psi$$

see fig.8.

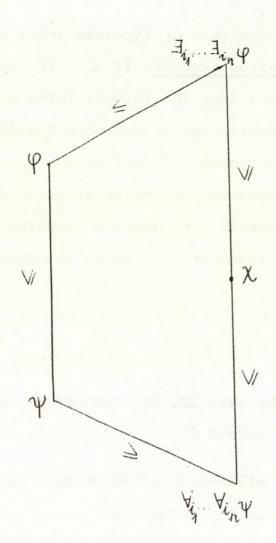


Fig. 8.

(D)

L has the restricted interpolation property (RIP) if it satisfies the conditions of IP for every disjoirt J and k.

We remark that since in the case of typeless logic the set I is the set of relation symbols, if L is any theory of a typeless logic then the various forms of the IP implie the corresponding forms of Robinson's general consistency result in the theory of definition. (see [10]) They also implie the congruence extension property which has some nice proof theoretic consequences concerning the independence of certain theories, but we do not investigate this line here.

Theorem 4.6.:

- a) Typeless logic has the weak IP, and the normal RIP but it does not have the normal IP.
- b) Any typeless theory, all models of which have the same finite cardinality, has the normal IP.

Proof: The proof is based on the corresponding results on free cylindric algebras (see [11]) and on Theorem 4.4.b) in this paper.

Some open problems:

Does typeless logic have the strong RIP?

Does any typeless theory with fixed finite cardinality

of models the strong IP or at least the strong RIP?

(These problems are strongly related to the corresponding problems in the theory of CA-s.)

V. THE FIRST ORDER LOGIC OF TYPE t

10

5.0. Throughout this Section $t \in I(\omega \setminus I)$ that is t is a type and I is its domain or index set.

We remind the reader that defining relations and related concepts were discussed in Section 2.5. Sometimes we use t as if it were a defining relation, in that case the superscript (t) stand for the superscript ($\{\{3,6\}\}$): $\{\{1,6\}\}$). That is t is used to stand for the dimension restricting defining relation induced by t.

<u>Definition 5.1.:</u> By the (first order) <u>logic of type t</u> we understand the cuple

$$\langle \mathcal{F}_{I}, \mathcal{F}_{I}^{(t)} \mathcal{L} \rangle$$
.

Theorem 5.1.: The logic of type t is a recursively axiomatisable theory of the typeless logic of index set I.

Proof: The set of axioms $\{\exists_i g \rightarrow g : g^{\epsilon}I, i \in \omega \setminus t(g)\}$ defines $\prod_{i=1}^{k} f(t) = 0$ in the logic of index set I. It is easily seen that this set is recursive if I is recursive.

We could introduce a new class of interpretations, e.g. the structures of type t, but the old ones will do for

our purposes. We introduce the shorthand K_t for the class of interpreting functions: $K_t \stackrel{d}{=} \Gamma_I^{(t)} \mathcal{L}_{w}$. \equiv_t stands for the semantical equivalence of the logic of type t, that is $\equiv_t \stackrel{d}{=} (\mathsf{T} K_t)^o$.

Now we prove that the semantical equivalence of the logic of type t is the t-dimension restricted free congruence over the veriety CA, and the tautological formulaalgebra is the t-diemnsion restricted free algebra over CA.

The quasiveriety generated by the formulaalgebras with type is also shown to coincide with the class of typeless formulaalgebras. We shall see that the above theorem gives a logical importance to Lf saying that Lf is just the class of formulaalgebras of the classical first order logic.

Theorem 5.2.: a)
$$\equiv_{t} = Cr_{I}^{(t)} CA$$

b) $\mathcal{F}_{I/\equiv_{t}} = \mathcal{F}_{I}^{(t)} CA$

c) The class of formulaalgebras is identical with Lf, that is Lf = $\mathbb{I} \left\{ \mathcal{F}_{\mathbb{I}} / (\mathbb{I} L)^p : \mathbb{I} \text{ is arbitrary and there is a t such that } L \subseteq \Gamma_{\mathbb{I}}^{(b)} \mathcal{J} \mathcal{J} \right\}$.

Proof: a) =
$$\int_{t}^{t} \left(\prod_{i=1}^{t} \mathcal{L}_{i} \right)^{c} = C_{i}^{(t)} \mathcal{L}_{i} = C_{i}^{(t)} \mathcal{L}_{i} = C_{i}^{(t)} \mathcal{L}_{i}$$
by def. by Lemma 2.1.
by Lemma 2.4., Lemma 3.4.

because t is dimension restriction

- b) follows from a)
- c/1) Any formulaalgebra $\mathcal U$ is the homomorphic image of some tautological formulaalgebra $\mathcal F_I/_{\equiv_t}$. Since $\mathcal F_I/_{\equiv_t}=\mathcal F_I^{(t)}$ (A \in \coprod , the formulaalgebra $\mathcal U$ is also a locally finite cylindric algebra ([1], 2.3.3.)

c/2) Let $\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{L}_f$, then there is a t and I such that $\mathcal{F}_I^{(t)} \mathcal{L}_f \not \to \mathcal{L}$. Now there is a $g \in \mathcal{H}_{\sigma}(\mathcal{F}_I, \mathcal{L})$ such that $g \in \Gamma_I^{(t)} \mathcal{L}_f \subseteq \Gamma_I^{(t)} \mathcal{SP} \mathcal{L}_f$. By Lemma 2.2. there is an $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \Gamma_I^{(t)} \mathcal{L}_f$ for which $g' = (\pi \mathcal{L})^\circ$. Now $\mathcal{L} \cong \mathcal{F}_I/g' \cong \mathcal{F}_I/g'$ that is $\mathcal{L}_f = \mathcal{L}_f \mathcal{L}_f = \mathcal{L$

5.1. Shorthands for the logic of type t

10

Now we can introduce a shorthand for substitutions: To do this for any $g \in I$ we introduce notations n and y: $n \stackrel{d}{=} t(g)-1 \quad \text{and} \quad y \stackrel{d}{=} n+1+\sum\limits_{j=0}^{n} i_{j} \ .$

Let ⊩ be the smallest relation, for which:

- b) if $\mathcal{A} \Vdash \beta$ holds, then for any sequence x,y $\times \mathcal{A} y \Vdash x \beta y$

(that is, the relation ├ is "context-free")

c) |- is transitive

(that is the relation |- is a "derivation-rule")*

It is easy to see, that \Vdash is a function. So choosing N such that $\Vdash^* N \subseteq \mathbb{F}_I$ holds, $N \Vdash$ is a correct "is a name of"-function.

The following theorem states, that \parallel "gives just that meaning" to the formula gV_0 V_n which is in accordance with our intuition concerning the variables.

Theorem 5.3:
$$(h_{i} \circ \Vdash)(g \lor_{i} \lor_{i}) = \{ s \in A : \langle s_{i}, ..., s_{i} \rangle \in Op^{(\ell)}(g) \}$$

Proof: The proof is easy and is similar to that of example 2)

Since | is a "text-function", it would be possible (and perhaps more convenient) to define | by tools used in mathematical linguistic (in the present case, e.g. by a context-free grammar).

As it was mentioned in Section 2.4., we can define a new logic by appropriately choosing a subset of the names of the formulas. We shall choose the word algebra generated by P_t , where $P_t = \{ s : s \in I \}$.

Now f is a set of sequences and f is everywhere defined in $f_{f_{2}}$ and also $f^{*}_{f_{2}} = f_{1}$ moreover $f \in \mathcal{H}_{\sigma}(\mathcal{F}_{f_{2}}, \mathcal{F}_{f_{1}})$.

5.2. The t -type logic with built-in substitution

0

Definition 5.2.: We define the t -type logic with builtin substitution as the pair

$$L_{t} \stackrel{d}{=} \langle \mathcal{F}_{q}, \{\mathcal{F}_{q} | (f \circ \mathbb{H}) : f \in K_{t} \} \rangle$$

It is easily seen that this is a logic indeed.

We define a labeling function for the logic L_t . The interpretations are the structures of type t, we denote their class by M_t . The labeling function k is defined as follows:

for all CleM_{ξ} , $k_{\text{cl}} \in \text{Hom}(\mathcal{F}_{f_{\xi}}, \mathcal{L}_{A})$ such that for all $g \in I$

$$k_{\mathcal{O}}(s_{i_0}, v_{i_{t_{\overline{s}}}}) \stackrel{d}{=} \{s \in A : \langle s_{i_0}, s_{i_{t_{\overline{s}}}} \rangle \in O_p^{(\mathcal{O})}(s) \}$$

For the connection between the t-type logic and the t-type logic with <u>built-in substitution</u> see fig.9.

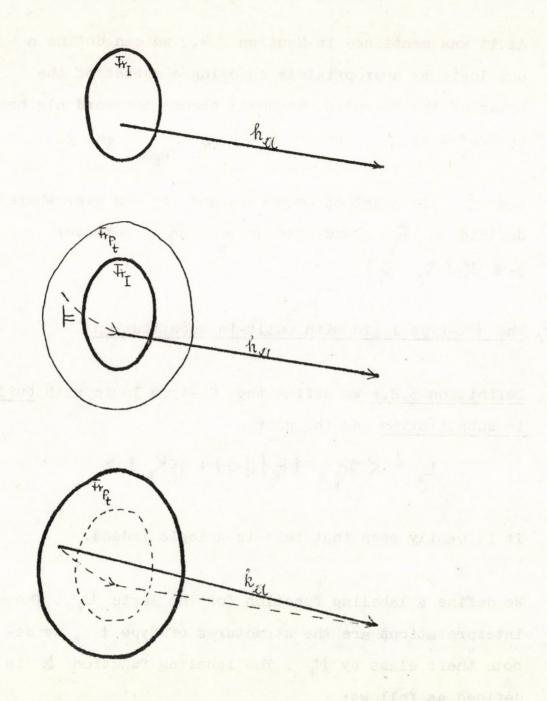


Fig. 9.

Theorem 5.4.: For all t-type structure U, Fg (fight) = kg, and so

Proof: $\Vdash \in \mathcal{H}_{\sigma}(\mathcal{F}_{r_{\underline{l}}}, \mathcal{F}_{r_{\underline{l}}})$ and $h_{r_{\underline{l}}} \in \mathcal{H}_{\sigma}(\mathcal{F}_{r_{\underline{l}}}, \mathcal{L}_{A})$ implies that $F_{r_{\underline{l}}} \mid (h_{r_{\underline{l}}} \mid F_{r_{\underline{l}}}) \in \mathcal{H}_{\sigma}(\mathcal{F}_{r_{\underline{l}}}, \mathcal{L}_{A})$.

Because $(\forall g \in I)(h_{n} \cap g \vee_{i_{0}} \vee_{i_{t(g)-1}} = k_{n}(g \vee_{i_{0}} \vee_{i_{t(g)-1}})$, the functions k_{n} and $f_{r_{q}} \wedge (h_{n} \cap f)$ are identical.

Theorem 5.5.: The logic L_t is recursively equivalent with $\langle \mathcal{F}_I, K_t \rangle$ that is there is a recursive function k from \mathcal{F}_R into \mathcal{F}_I and another function g from \mathcal{F}_I into \mathcal{F}_R such that for any t-type \mathcal{U} $k_{II} = h_{II} \circ k$ and $h_{II} = k_{II} \circ g$

Proof: The proof is easy.

 one is the level of shorthands ($f_{t_{1}}$) where we have all the ease of expression we have in classical logic, and the other level is the level of $f_{t_{1}}$ which makes the algebraic properties much more translucent and clear cut then that of L_{t} as it is shown in the followings.

Let \approx_{t} and \mathcal{K}_{t} stand for the semantical equivalence and class of interpreting functions of L_{t} respectively. Now we fix some defining relations on Fr_{p} .

$$R_{t} \stackrel{d}{=} D_{t} U H_{t}$$
, where
$$D_{t} \stackrel{d}{=} \{ \langle \exists_{j} g v_{i_{0}} ... v_{i_{t(g)-1}}, g v_{i_{0}} ... v_{i_{t(g)-1}} \rangle : g \in I, i \in \omega, j \in \omega \setminus \{i_{0}, ..., i_{t(g)-1}\} \}$$

$$H_{t} \stackrel{\text{d}}{=} \{ \langle =_{i_{m+1}} \Lambda_{S} V_{i_{m}} ... V_{i_{t(g)-1}}, =_{i_{m+1}} \Lambda_{S} V_{i_{m+1}} V_{i_{m+1}} ... V_{i_{t(g)-1}} \rangle : g \in I, i \in \omega, j \in \omega \}$$

Theorem 5.6.:
$$\Gamma_{I}^{(R_t)} dw = \mathcal{K}_{t}$$

Proof: The proof can be found in [5].

Theorem 5.7.: a)
$$\approx_{t} = G_{I}^{(R_{t})} CA$$
b) $\Im_{R_{t}} / \approx_{t} = \Im_{I}^{(R_{t})} CA$

c) The class of the formulaalgebras of classical first order logic is $\+\+\+\+$.

- b) follow-s from a)
- c) \Vdash induces an isomorphism between $\mathbb{F}_{q}/\approx_{t}$ and \mathbb{F}_{I} and the correspondence $h_{\mathcal{U}}$, $k_{\mathcal{U}}$ is in accordance with this isomorphism.

We remark, that about the necessity of the inconvenient R_{t} is proved in [5], that

$$G_{\mathbf{I}}^{(\mathbf{D_{t}})} CA$$

$$\approx_{\mathbf{t}} \qquad G_{\mathbf{I}}^{(\mathbf{R_{t}})} CA$$

$$C_{\mathbf{I}}^{(\mathbf{H_{t}})} CA \qquad \mathcal{G}_{\mathbf{I}}^{(\mathbf{R_{t}})} CA$$

and that for any (ℓ -type) variety V, $\approx_{t} \neq C_{T} V$

To check the completeness of a calculus of L_t we have to check that the calculus lists the equations of CA and the equalities in R_t . If instead of L_t we have $\langle \mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{I}}, K_t \rangle$, then checking the equalities $i \geqslant t_g \Rightarrow c_i s = s$ suffices (and of course CA). (Of course we have to check that the relation listed by the calculus is a congruence.) To produce a complete calculus the algorithm could start from the equations of CA and the equalities in R_t (or $c_i s = s$ respectively) and use the equation transformation rules just as in the case of the typeless logic.

^{*/} $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{I}}^{(\mathcal{R}_t)}$ (A is not an independent algebra over CA with generators I (in the sense of [11]) while $\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{I}}^{(t)}$ (A is.

5.3. Interpolation properties in some interesting logics

Now we sum up the interpolation properties of four important kinds of logics:

- 1/ typeless logic,
- 2/ typeless theories with fixed finite modelcardinalities
- 3/ first order logic with substitution in general and
- 4/ the usual logic of type to the bevore the

Of the above four kinds of logics the properties of the usual logic of type t are well known, but in the light of our theorem 5.2. and 5.5. their proof is more straightforward.

Theorem 5.8.:

Name and		typeless logic	theories of typeless log. with finite characterist.	log. of type	any first order logic with substitution
	strong	Jan	?	. +	+
IP	normal	d Berne da	antabato en	+.	+
	weak	и эк фотосо	10) . (to sample	to (4 1901 Turg
one	strong	al-cusor Est	ens on hatelf o	+	add dago
RIP	normal	mor moyés er +	id eminoire eleig +	+	atthorn of the second
	weak	+	+	+	+

Proof: the proof is based on the algebraic results of [11] and our results on the formulaalgebras. The second and the fourth column needs however some explanation:

The typeless theories with fixed finite model cardinality are cylindric algebras of finite characteristics; and for any logic with substitution if the formula algebras are CA-s then they are also <u>dimension restricted</u> according to [1] (236p)

In the case of the last two kinds of logics (these with substitution) the results implie not only Robinson's definition-theoretic results but also the corresponding forms of Craig's interpolation theorem.

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APPENDIX

Algebraic proof of SPLf # HISPLf

In Section 4.4. we gave a logical proof of this purely algebraic theorem.

But later we succeed to find a purely algebraic proof also, here it follows:

A part of the algebraic proof can be formulated as an independent universal algebraic theorem which we have formulated as:

Theorem A.1.: For any simple algebra $\mathcal U$ and any class K of algebras:

CLESPK if CLESIK

Proof: 1/it is well known that SPK = SIK2/let $CI \in SPK$

There is a sequence $<\mathcal{H}_i>_{i\in\mathcal{Y}}$ of algebras in K such that \mathcal{U}_i is isomorphic to a subalgebra of $\underset{i\in\mathcal{Y}}{\mathbb{P}}$ \mathcal{H}_i .

So for any $i \in \mathcal{I}$ there is a homomorphic image (by the i-th projection function) \mathcal{L}_i of \mathcal{U} such that $\mathcal{L}_i \in \mathcal{S} K$.

Since \mathcal{U} is simple any \mathcal{E}_i is either isomorphic to \mathcal{U} or trivial (has only one element). From this

it follows that \mathcal{O} is isomorphic to some of the \mathcal{S}_i - s and so is a member of SIK.

Now we are ready to give an algebraic proof of the following theorem.

Theorem A.2.: SPLf + HISPLf

Proof: By 2.5.24. of [1] there is a simple $\mathcal{CL} \subset A \setminus \mathcal{L} \cap \mathcal{L} = \mathbb{S} \mathbb{I} \cup \mathbb{I} \cap \mathbb{I}$ Theorem 3 gives that $\mathcal{LL} \cap \mathbb{I} \cap \mathbb{I} \cap \mathbb{I} \cap \mathbb{I}$ However according to 2.6.52. of [1] all simple cilindric algebras are in $\mathbb{HSP} \cup \mathbb{I} \cap \mathbb{I} \cap \mathbb{I} \cap \mathbb{I}$

Note, that this proof is much more involved than the logical one, because the results (2.5.24. and 2.6.52. of [1]) the above algebraic proof relies on have rather complicated proofs themselves.

LTB(px)(As:E) pd & A'y A to

LIST OF DEFINITIONS

0	the empty set
1 50	^d {o}
2	d 10,13
ω	₫ {0,1,2,}
Dof	domain of the function or relation f
Rg f	range of f
f_x, f_x	x-th value of $f: f_x \stackrel{d}{=} f \times \stackrel{d}{=} f(x)$
$\langle f(x) \rangle_{x \in A}$	way of defining functions:
201	$\langle f(x) \rangle_{x \in A} \stackrel{d}{=} \{\langle x, f(x) \rangle : x \in A \}$
<5,5,,,5n,	is a function defined on the ordinal \prec
	that is:
2.6.52.	$\langle s_0,,s_n,\rangle_{n<\infty} \stackrel{d}{=} \{\langle n,s_n\rangle: n<\infty \}$
×1f	f domain-restricted to X: $X = \{(x, fx) : x \in X\}$
BA	power of A to B: ${}^{B}A \stackrel{d}{=} \{f : f : B \rightarrow A\}$
ShA	class of subsets of A: $SbA \stackrel{d}{=} \{B : B \subseteq A\}$
roq	composition of r and q:
	roq = { < b,a>: (3c)(<c,a>er & < b,c>eq) }</c,a>
19	relative product of r and q:
	rlq = { < a,b>: (3c)(<a,c>er & < c,b>eq)}</a,c>
f°	the equivalence-relation induced by f : $f^{\circ} \stackrel{d}{=} f f^{-1} $
r*	if $A \subseteq D_0 r$, then r^*A is the r-image
	of A: r* A = {y: (3x ∈ A) (x, y) ∈ r}

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if a \in Dor, then r^*a is the r-image
rx
                      r*a = { u: <a,y>er} = r* {a}
(8) X
                subalgebra of W generated by X, that is:
                \mathbb{G}_q^{(0)}X is the least (by \Xi ) element of
                the set \{ \mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{U} : X \subseteq B \}
UC ES
                 \mathcal U is subalgebra of \mathcal B
8X & 28
                 {\mathcal U} is homomorphic to {\mathcal L}
ex = ds
                 Of is isomorphic to &
Ho Cr
                class of homomorphisms on {\cal U}
                set of homomorphisms from {\mathcal U} onto {\mathcal E}
Ho (CL. B)
Hom (ULS)
                set of homomorphisms from W into L
Co Ul
                set of congruence-relations on {\cal U}
CC/=
                is defined if \equiv \epsilon Go VV and than it
                denotes the factor-structure
f* ac
                is defined only if f is a homomorphism on {\mathcal U}
                and then there is a unique & such that
                f & Ho(U, L) now: f* U d &
P Uli
                direct product of the algebras 'W;
                 cording to the indexing I
IK
                 class of algebras isomorphic to the elements
                of K: IK = {&: & = | ∈ K}
HIK
                 class of algebras homomorphic to the elements
                        HK = { & : & $ | E K }
                 of K:
5K
                 class of subalgebras of the elements of K:
                         SK = {&: BEEK}
```

PK

class of direct products of the elements of K:

PK = {&: (3×eli > ieI) (Rg Cl = K & & = P eli)

CtIt K

5, (5) K

free congruence over K with I generators and

with defining relation S:

GI K & A REG STIT: SER, STIT/R E IS K }

free algebra over K with I generators and with

defining relation S:

FIt K & FIt/CLY K

Git K

Frt K

 $\stackrel{d}{=} G_{t,t}^{(T)} K$ where T is the defining relation: $\stackrel{d}{=} G_{t,t}^{(T)} K$ \(\langle : C_i \in \rangle : g \in I, i \in t(g) \rangle :

si (er)

substitution operation in ${\mathfrak A}$, j for i :

 $s_i(\alpha) \times d c_i(\alpha) (d_{ii}(\alpha) \times)$

5 (01)

is defined if \mathcal{CNELf} and $\mathfrak s$ is a finite transformation of ω , and then $S_{r}^{(et)}$ unary operation defined as follows:

if $S = [\mu_0/\nu_0, \mu_{k-1}/\nu_{k-1}]$ is the canonical representation of $\mathfrak{I}(\mu,\nu\in{}^k\omega,\mu_{\circ}<...<\mu_{\kappa-1})$, if x is any element of A, and if $\Pi_{0}, \dots, \Pi_{k-1}$ are in this order the first k ordinals in $\omega \setminus (\Delta^{(ec)} \times U Rg \mu U Rg \nu)$,

$$S_{\mathcal{T}} \times \stackrel{d}{=} S_{\mathcal{V}_0}^{\mathsf{T}_0} \cdots S_{\mathcal{V}_{K-1}}^{\mathsf{T}_{K-1}} S_{\mathsf{T}_0}^{\mathsf{M}_0}(\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{X}}) \cdots S_{\mathsf{T}_{K-1}}^{\mathsf{M}_{K-1}} \times$$

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a way of defining finite transformations:

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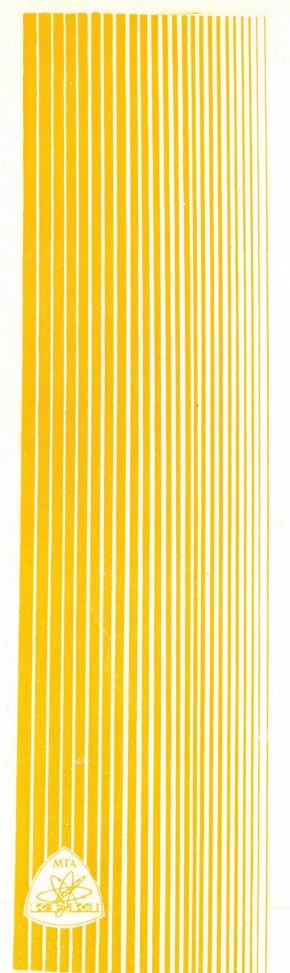
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Kiadja a Központi Fizikai Kutató Intézet Felelős kiadó: Sándory Mihály igazgatóhelyettes Szakmai lektor: Horváth Sándor Nyelvi lektor: Németi István Példányszám: 225 Törzsszám: 73-9308 Készült a KFKI sokszorositó üzemében Budapest, 1973. november hó