

# Many Sorted Logic

As in typed programming languages, it sometimes helps to have structures with objects of different types.

In logic, types are called *sorts*.

E.g., some objects in a structure  $M$  may be lecturers, others may be PCs, numbers, etc.

We can handle this with unary relation symbols, or with ‘*many-sorted first-order logic*’. We’ll use many-sorted logic mainly to specify programs.

Fix a collection  $s, s', s'', \dots$  of sorts. How many, and what they’re called, are determined by the application.

These sorts do *not* generate extra sorts, like  $s \rightarrow s'$  or  $(s, s')$ .

If you want extra sorts like these, add them explicitly to the original list of sorts. (Their meaning would not be automatic, unlike in Haskell.)

## Many Sorted Terms

We adjust the definition of ‘term’ (Def. 4.2), to give each term a sort:

- each variable and constant comes with a sort  $s$ . To indicate which sort it is, we write  $x : s$  and  $c : s$ . There are infinitely many variables of each sort.
- each  $n$ -ary function symbol  $f$  comes with a template

$$f : (s_1, \dots, s_n) \rightarrow s$$

where  $s_1, \dots, s_n$ , and  $s$  are sorts.

Note:  $(s_1, \dots, s_n) \rightarrow s$  is not itself a sort.

- For such an  $f$  and terms  $t_1, \dots, t_n$ , if  $t_i$  has sort  $s_i$  (for each  $i$ ) then  $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  is a term of sort  $s$ .  
Otherwise (if the  $t_i$  don’t all have the right sorts),  $f(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  is not a term — it’s just rubbish, like  $\forall) \rightarrow$ .

# Formulas

- Each  $n$ -ary relation symbol  $R$  comes with a template  $R(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ , where  $s_1, \dots, s_n$  are sorts.  
For terms  $t_1, \dots, t_n$ , if  $t_i$  has sort  $s_i$  (for each  $i$ ) then  $R(t_1, \dots, t_n)$  is a formula. Otherwise, it's rubbish.
- $t = t'$  is a formula if the terms  $t, t'$  have the same sort.  
Otherwise, it's rubbish.
- Other operations ( $\wedge, \neg, \forall, \exists$ , etc) are unchanged. But it's polite to indicate the sort of a variable in  $\forall, \exists$  by writing

$\forall x : s \phi$  instead of just  $\forall x \phi$

$\exists x : s \phi$  instead of just  $\exists x \phi$

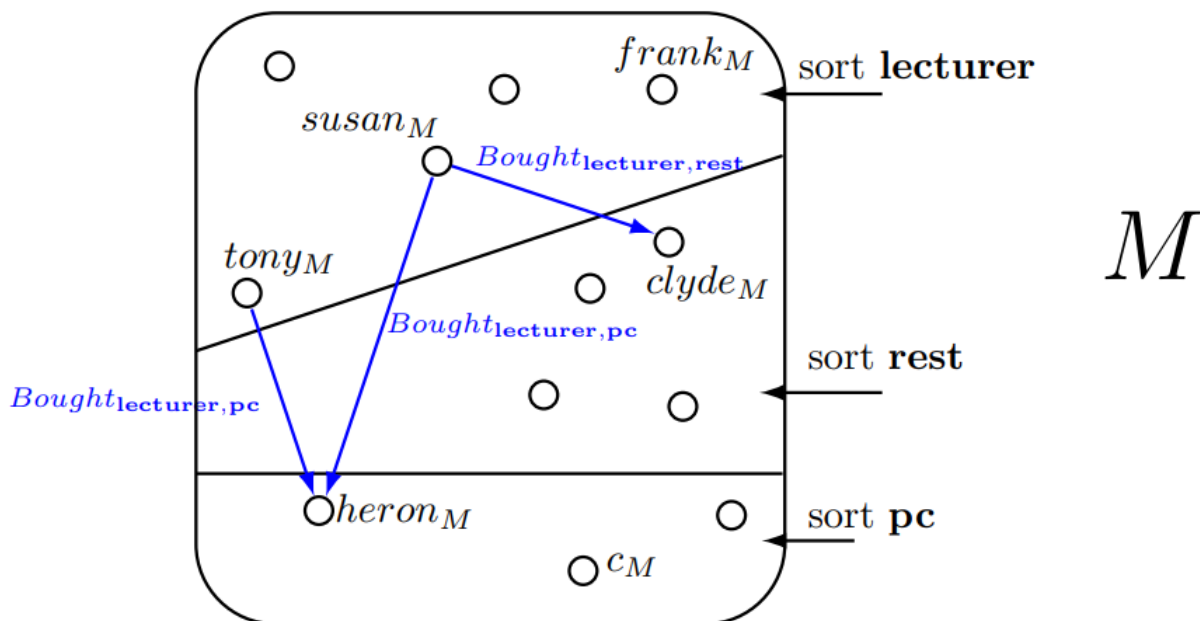
if  $x$  has sort  $s$ . Alternatively, declare the variables of each sort.

E.g., roughly, you can write  $\forall x : \text{lecturer} \exists y : \text{pc} (\text{Bought}(x, y))$   
instead of  $\forall x (\text{Lecturer}(x) \rightarrow \exists y (\text{PC}(y) \wedge \text{Bought}(x, y)))$ .

## Example L-structure

Let  $L$  be a many-sorted signature. An  $L$ -structure is defined as before (Definition 4.4 + slide 26), but additionally it allocates **each** object in its domain to **a single sort**. No sort should be empty.

E.g., if  $L$  has sorts **lecturer**, **pc**, **rest**, an  $L$ -structure looks like:



# Interpretation of L-structures

Let  $M$  be a many-sorted  $L$ -structure.

- For each constant  $c : s$  in  $L$ ,  $M$  must say which object of sort  $s$  in  $\text{dom}(M)$  is ‘named’ by  $c$ .
- For each function symbol  $f : (s_1, \dots, s_n) \rightarrow s$  in  $L$  and all objects  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  in  $\text{dom}(M)$  of sorts  $s_1, \dots, s_n$ , respectively,  $M$  must say which object  $f_M(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  of sort  $s$  is associated with  $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  by  $f$ .  
 $M$  doesn’t say anything about  $f(b_1, \dots, b_n)$  if  $b_1, \dots, b_n$  don’t all have the right sorts.
- For each relation symbol  $R(s_1, \dots, s_n)$  in  $L$ , and all objects  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  in  $\text{dom}(M)$  of sorts  $s_1, \dots, s_n$ , respectively,  $M$  must say whether  $R(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  is true or not.  
 $M$  doesn’t say anything about  $R(b_1, \dots, b_n)$  if  $b_1, \dots, b_n$  don’t all have the right sorts.

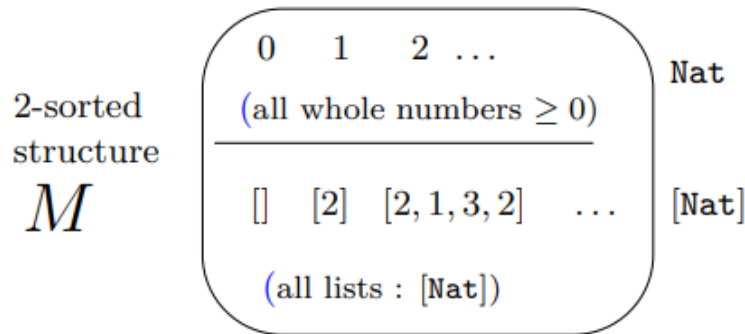
## Further Notes

1. Sorts can replace some or all unary relation symbols.
2. As in Haskell, each object has only 1 sort, not 2.  
 So for  $M$  above, **Human** would have to be implemented as three unary relation symbols: **human<sub>lecturer</sub>**, **Human<sub>pc</sub>**, **Human<sub>rest</sub>**.  
 But if (e.g.) you don’t want to talk about human objects of sort **pc**, you can omit **human<sub>pc</sub>**.
3. We need a binary relation symbol **Bought <sub>$s, s'$</sub>**  for each pair  $(s, s')$  of sorts (unless  $s$ -objects are not expected to buy  $s'$ -objects).
4. Messy alternative: use sorts for human lecturer, PC lecturer, etc — all possible types of object.

## Example 1

Let's have a sort **Nat**, for  $0, 1, 2, \dots$ , and a sort **[Nat]** for lists of natural numbers.

The idea is that the structure's domain should look like:



The signature should be chosen to provide access to the objects in such a structure. We may want:

$[], : (\text{cons}), ++, \text{head}, \text{tail}, \text{length}$  (we can write as  $\sharp$ ),  $!!$ , and  $+, -, \text{etc.}$ , for arithmetic.

We can represent these using constants, function symbols, or relation symbols

Now we can define a signature  $L$  suitable for lists of type  $[\text{Nat}]$ .

- $L$  has constants  $\underline{0}, \underline{1}, \dots : \text{Nat}$ , relation symbols  $<, \leq, >, \geq$  of sort  $(\text{Nat}, \text{Nat})$ , and function symbols
  - $+, -, \times : (\text{Nat}, \text{Nat}) \rightarrow \text{Nat}$
  - $[] : [\text{Nat}]$  (a constant to name the empty list)
  - $\text{cons}(:) : (\text{Nat}, [\text{Nat}]) \rightarrow [\text{Nat}]$
  - $++ : ([\text{Nat}], [\text{Nat}]) \rightarrow [\text{Nat}]$
  - $\text{head} : [\text{Nat}] \rightarrow \text{Nat}$
  - $\text{tail} : [\text{Nat}] \rightarrow [\text{Nat}]$
  - $\# : [\text{Nat}] \rightarrow \text{Nat}$
  - $!! : ([\text{Nat}], \text{Nat}) \rightarrow \text{Nat}$

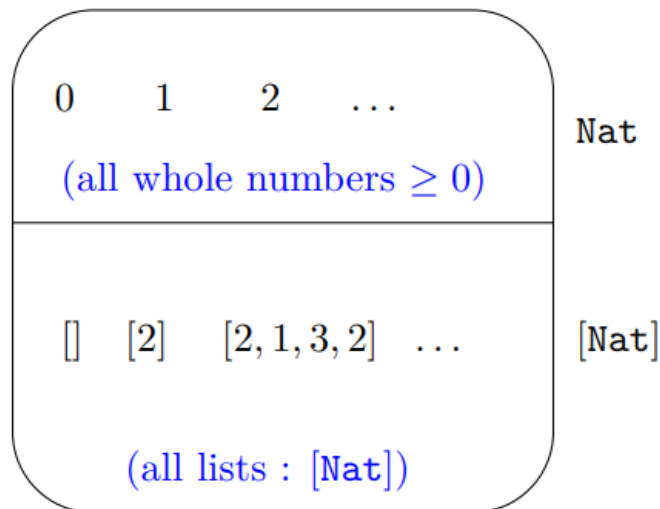
We write the constants as  $\underline{0}, \underline{1}, \dots$  to avoid confusion with actual numbers  $0, 1, \dots$ .

- Let  $x, y, z, k, n, m \dots$  be variables of sort  $\text{Nat}$ .  
Let  $xs, ys, zs, \dots$  be variables of sort  $[\text{Nat}]$ .

Let  $M$  be the  $L$ -structure

2-sorted  
structure

$M$



The  $L$ -symbols are interpreted in the natural way:  $++$  as concatenation of lists, etc.

We define  $34 - 61$ ,  $\text{tail}([])$ , etc. arbitrarily. So don't assume they have the values you might expect.

## Describing Lists

Now we can say **a lot** about lists.

E.g., the following  $L$ -sentences, expressing the definitions of the function symbols, are true in  $M$ , because (as we said) the  $L$ -symbols are interpreted in  $M$  in the natural way:

- $\#([]) = \underline{0}$
- $\forall x \forall xs (\#(x : xs) = \#(xs) + \underline{1})$
- $\forall xs (xs \neq [] \rightarrow \mathbf{head}(xs) = xs!!\underline{0})$
- $\forall x \forall xs (\mathbf{head}(x : xs) = x)$
- $\forall x \forall xs (\mathbf{tail}(x : xs) = xs)$
- $\forall n \forall m (n < m \wedge m < \#(xs) \rightarrow xs!!n \leq xs!!m)$