

Satisfiability Of Connected Contact Logics

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1 Tableau Method For Classic Propositional Logic

1.1 What Is A Tableau?

A tableau method is a formal proof procedure. First, it could be used as a refutation procedure: to show a formula X is valid we begin with some syntactical expression intended to assert it is not. This expression is broken down syntactically, generally splitting things into several cases. This part of a tableau procedure - the tableau expansion stage - can be thought of as a generalization of disjunctive normal form expansion. Generally, it moves from formulas to subformulas. Finally, there are rules for closing cases: impossibility conditions based on syntax. If each case closes, the tableau itself is said to be closed. A closed tableau beginning with an expression asserting that X is not valid is a tableau proof of X .

There is a second way of thinking about the tableau method: as a search procedure for models meeting certain conditions. Each branch of a tableau can be considered to be a partial description of a model. In automated theorem-proving, tableaus can be used to generate counter-examples.

The connection between the two roles for tableaus - as a proof procedure and as a model search procedure - is simple. If we use tableaus to search for a model in which X is false, and we produce a closed tableau, no such model exists, so X must be valid.

1.2 Classical Propositional Tableaus

We will look into the signed tableau system for classical propositional logic.

First, we need syntactical machinery for asserting the invalidity of a formula, and for doing case analysis. For this purpose two signs are introduced: T and F , where these are simply two new symbols, not part of the language of formulas. *Signed formulas* are expressions of the form FX and TX , where X is a formula. The intuitive meaning of FX is that X is *false* (in some model). Similarly, TX intuitively asserts that X is *true*. Then FX is the syntactical device for (informally) asserting the invalidity of X . A tableau proof of X begins with FX .

Next, we need machinery (rules) for breaking signed formulas down and doing a case division. We will define rules for each logical operator ($\neg \wedge \vee \Rightarrow \Leftrightarrow$).

The treatment of **negation** is straightforward: from $T \neg X$ we get $F X$ and from $F \neg X$ we get $T X$. These rules can be conveniently presented as follows.

$$\frac{T \neg X}{F X} \qquad \frac{F \neg X}{T X}$$

The rules for **conjunction** are somewhat more complex. From truth tables we know that if $X \wedge Y$ is *true*, X must be *true* and Y must be *true*. Likewise, if $X \wedge Y$ is *false*, either X is *false* or Y is *false*. This involves a split into two cases. Corresponding syntactic rules are as follows.

$$\frac{TX \wedge Y}{TX} \qquad \frac{FX \wedge Y}{FX \mid FY}$$
$$TY$$

The rules for **disjunction** are similar. From truth tables we know that if $X \vee Y$ is *true*, either X is *true* or Y is *true*. This involves a split into two cases. Likewise, if $X \vee Y$ is *false*, X must be *false* and Y must be *false*. Corresponding syntactic rules are as follows.

$$\frac{TX \vee Y}{TX \mid TY} \qquad \frac{FX \vee Y}{\frac{FX}{FY}}$$

The rules for **implication**. From truth tables we know that if $X \Rightarrow Y$ is *true*, either X is *false* or Y is *true*. Likewise, if $X \Rightarrow Y$ is *false*, X must be *true* and Y must be *false*. Corresponding syntactic rules are as follows.

$$\frac{TX \Rightarrow Y}{FX \mid TY} \qquad \frac{FX \Rightarrow Y}{\frac{TX}{FY}}$$

The rules for **equivalence**. From truth tables we know that if $X \Leftrightarrow Y$ is *true*, either X is *true* and Y is *true* or X is *false* and Y is *false*. Likewise, if $X \Leftrightarrow Y$ is *false*, either X is *true* and Y is *false* or X is *false* and Y is *true*. Corresponding syntactic rules are as follows.

$$\frac{TX \Leftrightarrow Y}{\frac{TX \mid FX}{TY \mid FY}} \qquad \frac{FX \Leftrightarrow Y}{\frac{TX \mid FX}{FY \mid TY}}$$

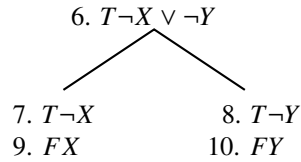
The standard way of displaying tableaux is as downward branching trees with signed formulas as node labels. Indeed, the tableau method is often referred to as the tree method. Think of a tree as representing the disjunction of its branches, and a branch as representing the conjunction of the signed formulas on it.

When using a tree display, a tableau expansion is thought of temporally, and one talks about the stages of constructing a tableau, meaning the stages of growing a tree. The rules given above are thought of as branch-lengthening rules. Thus, a branch containing $T \neg X$ can be lengthened by adding a new node to its end, with $F X$ as a label. Likewise a branch containing $F X \vee Y$ can be lengthened with two new nodes, labelled $F X$ and $F Y$ (take the node with $F Y$ as the child of the one labelled $F X$). A branch containing $T X \vee Y$ can be split - its leaf is given a new left and a new right child, with one labelled $T X$, the other $T Y$. This is how the schematic rules above are applied to trees.

An important point to note is that the tableau rules are non-deterministic. They say what can be done, not what must be done. At each stage, we choose a signed formula occurrence on a branch and apply a rule to it. Since the order of choice is arbitrary, there can be many tableaux for a single signed formula.

Here is the final stage of a tableau expansion beginning with the signed formula $F(X \wedge Y) \Rightarrow (\neg X \wedge \neg Y)$.

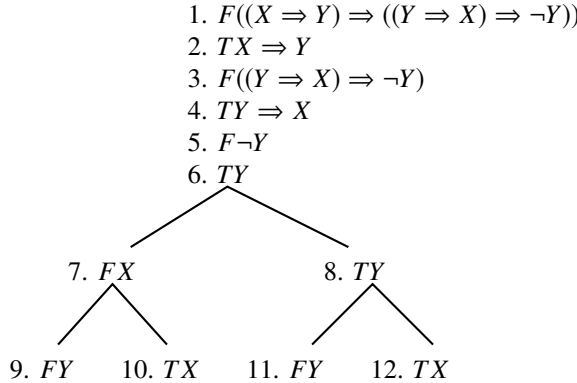
1. $F(X \wedge Y) \Rightarrow \neg(\neg X \vee \neg Y)$
2. $TX \wedge Y$
3. $F\neg(\neg X \vee \neg Y)$
4. TX
5. TY



In this we have added numbers for reference purposes. Items 2 and 3 are from 1 by $F \Rightarrow$. 4 and 5 are from 2 by $T \wedge$. 6 is from 3 by $F \neg$. 7 and 8 are from 6 by $T \vee$. 9 is from 7 by $T \neg$. 10 is from 8 by $T \neg$.

Finally, the conditions for closing off a case (declaring a branch closed) are simple. A **branch is closed** if it contains a contradiction, i.e. TA and FA for some formula A . A **branch is opened** if it does not contain any contradiction. If each branch is closed, then the **tableau is closed**. A closed tableau for FX is a tableau proof of X , meaning that A is a tautology. The tableau displayed above is closed, so the formula $(X \wedge Y) \Rightarrow (\neg X \wedge \neg Y)$ has a tableau proof.

It may happen that no tableau proof is forthcoming, and we can think of the tableau construction as providing us with contraexamples. Consider the following attempt to prove $(X \Rightarrow Y) \Rightarrow ((Y \Rightarrow X) \Rightarrow \neg Y)$



Item 2 and 3 are from 1 by $F \Rightarrow$, as are 4 and 5 from 3. Item 6 is from 5 by $F \neg$. Items 7 and 8 are from 2 by $T \Rightarrow$, as are 9 and 10 from 4. Items 11 and 12 are also from 4 by $T \Rightarrow$. The leftmost branch is closed because of 6 and 9. The left-right branch is closed because of 7 and 10. The right-left branch is closed because of 8 and 11. But the rightmost branch is not closed. Notice that every non-atomic signed formula has had a rule applied to it on this branch and there is nothing left to do. (For classical propositional logic it is sufficient to apply a rule to a formula on a branch only once.) In fact the branch yields a counterexample, as follows. Let v be a propositional valuation that maps X to *true* and Y to *true* in accordance to 8 and 12. Now, we work our way back up the branch. Since $v(Y) = \text{true}$, $v(\neg Y) = \text{false}$, item 5. From $v(X) = \text{true}$ follows that $v(Y \Rightarrow X) = \text{true}$, item 4. From $v(Y) = \text{true}$ follows that $v(X \Rightarrow Y) = \text{true}$, item 2. Since $v(Y \Rightarrow X) = \text{true}$ and $v(\neg Y) = \text{false}$ we have $v((Y \Rightarrow X) \Rightarrow \neg Y) = \text{false}$, item 3. Finally, $v((X \Rightarrow Y) \Rightarrow ((Y \Rightarrow X) \Rightarrow \neg Y)) = \text{false}$, item 1.

Later, we are going to use the tableau method to produce a model in which the initial formula is valid.

From a different point of view, we can think of a classical tableau simply as a set

of sets of signed formulas: a tableau is the set of its all branches, and a branch is the set of signed formulas that occur on it. Semantically, we think of the outer set as the disjunction of its members, and these members, the inner sets, as conjunctions of signed formulas they contain. Considered this way, a tableau is a generalization of disjunctive normal form (a generalization because of formulas more complex than literals can occur). Now, the tableau construction process can be thought of as a variation of the process of converting a formula into a disjunctive normal form.

2 Contact Logics

2.1 Syntax

The language of contact logic consist of:

- *Boolean variables* (a denumerable set \mathcal{V})
- *Boolean constants*: 0 and 1
- *Boolean operations*:
 - \sqcap boolean meet
 - \sqcup boolean join
 - $*$ boolean complement
- *Boolean terms* (or simply *terms*)
- *Propositional connectives*: $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$
- *Propositional constants*: \top and \perp
- *Modal connectives*: \leq (part-of) and C (contact)
- *Complex formulas* (or simply *formulas*)

Terms are defined in the following inductive process:

- Each Boolean variable is a term
- Each Boolean constant is a term
- If a is a term then a^* is a term
- If a and b are terms then $a \sqcap b$ and $a \sqcup b$ are terms

Atomic formulas are of the form $a \leq b$ and aCb , where a and b are terms.

Formulas are defined in the following inductive process:

- Each propositional constant is a formula
- Each atomic formula is a formula
- If ϕ is a formula then $\neg\phi$ is a formula
- If ϕ and ψ are formulas then $(\phi \wedge \psi), (\phi \vee \psi), (\phi \Rightarrow \psi)$ and $(\phi \Leftrightarrow \psi)$ are formulas

Abbreviations: $a = b \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (a \leq b) \wedge (b \leq a)$, $a \not\leq b \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg(a \leq b)$, $a \neq b \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg(a = b)$

2.2 Relational semantics

Let $\mathcal{F} = (W, R)$ be a relational system with $W \neq \emptyset$ and $R \subseteq W^2$. We call such systems *frames*. Following Galton[TODO] we may give a spatial meaning of frames naming the elements of W , *cells* and the relation R , *adjacency relation*. Then \mathcal{F} is called *adjacency space*. An example of adjacency space is the chess-board table, the cells are the squares, and two squares are adjacent if they have a common point.

Originally Galton assumed R to be a reflexive and symmetric relation but it is more natural for R to be an arbitrary relation. *Regions* in an adjacency space are arbitrary subsets of W and two sets a and b are in *contact* ($aC_R b$) if for some $x \in a$ and $y \in b$ we have xRy . Another way to define this relation is the following. For a subset $a \subseteq W$ define as in modal logic $\langle R \rangle a = \{x \in W : (\exists y \in W)(xRy \text{ and } y \in a)\}$. Then $aC_R b$ iff $a \cap \langle R \rangle b \neq \emptyset$ iff $\langle R^{-1} \rangle a \cap b \neq \emptyset$, where R^{-1} is the converse relation of R . Note that if R is a symmetric relation then $aC b$ iff $a \cap \langle R \rangle b \neq \emptyset$ iff $\langle R \rangle a \cap b \neq \emptyset$.

Definition 1. By a **valuation** of the Boolean variables in \mathcal{F} we mean any function $v : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(W)$ assigning to each Boolean variable b a subset $v(b) \subseteq W$. The valuation v is then extended inductively to all Boolean terms as follows:

- $v(0) = \emptyset$
- $v(1) = W$
- $v(a \sqcap b) = v(a) \cap v(b)$
- $v(a \sqcup b) = v(a) \cup v(b)$
- $v(a^*) = W \setminus v(a) = -v(a)$

Definition 2. The pair $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{F}, v)$ is called **model**. The truth of a formula ϕ in \mathcal{M} ($\mathcal{M} \models \phi$ or $\mathcal{F}, v \models \phi$) is extended inductively to all Boolean terms as follows:

- For atomic formulas:
 - $\mathcal{M} \models \top$
 - $\mathcal{M} \not\models \perp$
 - $\mathcal{M} \models a \leq b \iff v(a) \subseteq v(b)$
 - $\mathcal{M} \models aC b \iff v(a) C_R v(b) \iff (\exists x \in v(a))(\exists y \in v(b))(xRy)$
- For complex formulas:
 - $\mathcal{M} \models \neg \phi \iff \mathcal{M} \not\models \phi$
 - $\mathcal{M} \models \phi \wedge \psi \iff \mathcal{M} \models \phi \text{ and } \mathcal{M} \models \psi$
 - $\mathcal{M} \models \phi \vee \psi \iff \mathcal{M} \models \phi \text{ or } \mathcal{M} \models \psi$
 - $\mathcal{M} \models \phi \Rightarrow \psi \iff \mathcal{M} \not\models \phi \text{ or } \mathcal{M} \models \psi$
 - $\mathcal{M} \models \phi \Leftrightarrow \psi \iff (\mathcal{M} \models \phi \text{ and } \mathcal{M} \models \psi) \text{ or } (\mathcal{M} \not\models \phi \text{ and } \mathcal{M} \not\models \psi)$

Let us note that in the above semantics we evaluate formulas not locally at points[
TODO ??], as it is in the standard modal semantics, but globally in the whole model
and this is one of the main differences of the present modal approach with the standard
Kripke approach.

Definition 3. A model \mathcal{M} is a **model of a formula** ϕ if ϕ is true in \mathcal{M} .

Definition 4. If ϕ has a model \mathcal{M} , then ϕ is **satisfiable**.

Definition 5. \mathcal{M} is a **model of a set of formulas** A if \mathcal{M} is a model of all formulas
from A .

Definition 6. A formula ϕ is **true** (or **valid**) in a frame \mathcal{F} ($\mathcal{F} \models \phi$), if $\mathcal{M} \models \phi$ for all
models \mathcal{M} based on \mathcal{F} , i.e. for all valuations v we have $\mathcal{F}, v \models \phi$.

Lemma 7. (Equality of formulas) Let f and g are formulas. Then
 $f = g \implies v(f) = v(g)$.

Lemma 8. (Equality of terms) Let a and b are terms. Then
 $a = b \implies v(a) = v(b)$.

Lemma 9. (Zero term) Let a and b are terms. Then
 $a \leq b \implies a \sqcap b^* = 0$

Lemma 10. (Non-zero term) Let a and b are terms. Then
 $\neg(a \leq b) \implies a \sqcap b^* \neq 0$

TODO: axiom or lemma or neither??

Axiom 11. (Reflexivity) Let a be a term. Then
 $a \neq 0 \implies aCa$.

Axiom 12. (Symmetry) Let a and b are terms. Then
 $aCb \iff bCa$.

Lemma 13. (Monotonicity) Let a and b are terms. Then
 $aCb \wedge a \leq a' \wedge b \leq b' \implies a'Cb'$.

Lemma 14. (Distributivity) Let a and b are terms. Then
 $aC(b \sqcup c) \iff aCb \vee aCc$, TODO what is the other one? $aC(b \sqcup c) \iff$
 $aCb \vee aCc$.

Lemma 15. Let a, b, c are terms and f, g are formulas. The following formulas are
true:

- $f \wedge T \implies f, T \wedge f \implies f$
- $f \wedge F \implies F, F \wedge f \implies F$
- $f \vee T \implies T, T \vee f \implies T$
- $f \vee F \implies f, F \vee f \implies f$

- $a \sqcap 0 \implies 0, 0 \sqcap a \implies 0$
- $a \sqcup 0 \implies a, 0 \sqcup a \implies a$
- $a \sqcap 1 \implies a, 1 \sqcap a \implies a$
- $a \sqcup 1 \implies 1, 1 \sqcup a \implies 1$
- $(a \sqcup b)Cc \iff aCc \vee bCc$
- $(a \sqcup b) \leq c \iff a \leq c \wedge b \leq c$
- $aCb \implies a \neq 0 \wedge b \neq 0$
- $a \sqcap b \neq 0 \implies aCb$
- $a = 0 \vee b = 0 \implies \neg(aCb)$
- $0 \leq a \implies T$
- $a \leq 1 \implies T$
- $0C0 \implies F$
- $aC0 \implies F$
- $1C1 \implies T$
- $aC1 \implies a \neq 0$
- $a \neq 0 \implies aCa$

2.3 Formula satisfiability

Let ψ be a propositional formula. Let us build a tableau beginning with ψ . If the tableau has an opened branch then ψ is satisfiable. Unfortunately, for the contact logic this is not enough because we need to verify the modal connectives (\leq and C).

Let ϕ be a formula. Let us build a tableau beginning with ϕ . Let the tableau has an opened branch B . The branch B is a set of signed atomic formulas of the following type:

- $TC(a, b)$
- $FC(e, f)$
- $Ta \leq b$
- $Fa \leq b$

where a and b are terms.

B is an opened branch, so there are no contradicting formulas in it, i.e. $(\neg \exists X)(TX \in B \wedge FX \in B)$. The signed atomic formulas could be written as atomic formulas as follows:

- $TC(a, b) \rightarrow C(a, b)$ (contact)
- $FC(a, b) \rightarrow \neg C(a, b)$ (non-contact)
- $Ta \leq b \rightarrow a \leq b \rightarrow a \sqcap b^* = 0 \rightarrow g = 0$ (zero term)
- $Fa \leq b \rightarrow \neg(a \leq b) \rightarrow a \sqcap b^* \neq 0 \rightarrow d \neq 0$ (non-zero term)

where a,b,d and g are terms.

All atomic formulas in the branch should be satisfied, so we can think of it as a conjunction of them. Let's call it a **branch conjunction**. It is sufficient to build a satisfiable model for the branch conjunction to verify that ϕ is satisfiable. Building such a model could be done a lot more effective than building a model for an arbitrary formula because it is just a conjunction.

Definition 16. Let ϕ be a formula. Let T be a tableau beginning with ϕ . Let B be a set of all atomic signed formulas in a branch of T , as follows:

$$B = \{TC(a_i, b_i) \mid i \in \{1, \dots, I\}\} \cup \{Fd_j = 0 \mid j \in \{1, \dots, J\}\} \cup \{FC(e_k, f_k) \mid k \in \{1, \dots, K\}\} \cup \{Tg_l = 0 \mid l \in \{1, \dots, L\}\} \quad (1)$$

A **branch conjunction** β is the following formula:

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^I C(a_i, b_i) \wedge \bigwedge_{j=1}^J d_j \neq 0 \wedge \bigwedge_{k=1}^K \neg C(e_k, f_k) \wedge \bigwedge_{l=1}^L g_l = 0 \quad (2)$$

2.4 Branch conjunction model building

The branch conjunction formula β is satisfiable if β has a model \mathcal{M} . We have to construct such a model $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{F}, v) = ((W, R), v)$.

Definition 17. A denumerable set of n boolean variables \mathcal{V}_n is defined as follows:

$$\mathcal{V}_n = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \quad (3)$$

Let n be the number of the unique boolean variables in β . Let \mathcal{V}_n be the set of them. There are four types of atomic formulas in β , namely contacts, non-contacts, zero terms and non-zero terms. Only contacts and non-zero terms require existence of modal points. The valuation v should assign a set of modal points to each boolean variable $x \in \mathcal{V}_n$. One way to define v and W is the following:

- Assign an empty set of modal points for each boolean variable $x \in \mathcal{V}_n$.

$$v = \{ \langle x, \emptyset \rangle \mid x \in \mathcal{V}_n \}$$
- Add a modal point for each term in the contacts and non-zero terms of β .

$$W = \{ p_i \mid C(a_i, b_i) \in \beta \} \cup \{ p_{I+i} \mid C(a_i, b_i) \in \beta \} \cup \{ p_{I*2+j} \mid d_j \neq 0 \in \beta \}$$
- Extend v such as:

- $p_i \in v(a_i)$ for each $C(a_i, b_i) \in \beta$
- $p_{I+i} \in v(b_i)$ for each $C(a_i, b_i) \in \beta$
- $p_{I*2+j} \in v(d_j)$ for each $d_j \neq 0 \in \beta$

Definition 18. Let \mathcal{V}_n be a denumerable set of n boolean variables. Let W be a set of modal points. Let v be a valuation over \mathcal{V}_n and W . Then $X_i \subseteq W$ is the evaluation set of the boolean variable x_i in \mathcal{V}_n .

$$X_i = v(x_i) \text{ for } x_i \in \mathcal{V}_n \quad (4)$$

Definition 19. Let \mathcal{V}_n be a denumerable set of n boolean variables. Let W be a set of modal points. Let v be a valuation over \mathcal{V}_n and W . Then X is the union of all evaluations of boolean variables in \mathcal{V}_n .

$$X = \bigcup_{x_i \in \mathcal{V}_n} v(x_i) = \bigcup_{x_i \in \mathcal{V}_n} X_i \quad (5)$$

Let t be an arbitrary term. Let $p \notin W$ be a new modal point. Let us extend v such as $p \in v(t)$. By the valuation definition $v(t)$ is a composition of interesections, unions and compliments of some $X_i \subseteq W$. Therefore, the modal point p should be added to zero or more X_i depending on the boolean operations in the term t . With n boolean variables there are 2^n ways of adding the point p .

Definition 20. A **variable evaluation** \mathcal{E}_n for n boolean variables is a sequence of 1s and 0s, as follows:

$$\mathcal{E}_n = \langle e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n \rangle, \text{ where } e_1, \dots, e_n \in \{0, 1\} \quad (6)$$

For n boolean variables there are 2^n unique variable evaluations. We will define the modal points as variable evaluations. By the definition of the valuation, it is not possible to distinguish two or more different modal points in some subsets. For example, the $W \setminus X$ subset. The modal point representation also have this limitaion. The modal connectives require existence of a point in those sets. It is sufficient to work with only one point from them.

Definition 21. Let \mathcal{E}_n be a variable evaluation for n boolean variables. Then $(\mathcal{E}_n)^i$ is the i -th element in the sequence \mathcal{E}_n .

Definition 22. Let \mathcal{V}_n be a denumerable set of n boolean variables. The set of **all unique variable evaluations** W_n over n variables is defined as follows:

$$W_n = \{ \langle e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n \rangle \mid e_1, \dots, e_n \in \{0, 1\} \} \quad (7)$$

Definition 23. Let \mathcal{V}_n be a denumerable set of n boolean variables. Let W_n be the set of all unique points over n variables. Let $W \subseteq W_n$. Then the **valuation** $v_n : \mathcal{V}_n \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(W)$ is inductively defined as follows:

- *Boolean constants*

- $v_n(0) = \emptyset$
- $v_n(1) = W$

- *Boolean variables*

- $v_n(x_i) = \{\mathcal{E}_n \mid \mathcal{E}_n \in W \wedge (\mathcal{E}_n)^i = 1\}$, for $x_i \in \mathcal{V}_n$

- *Boolean terms*

- $v_n(a \sqcap b) = v_n(a) \cap v_n(b)$
- $v_n(a \sqcup b) = v_n(a) \cup v_n(b)$
- $v_n(a^*) = W \setminus v_n(a) = -v_n(a)$

Let β be a branch conjunction as in 16 . Let W be a set of modal points. Let \mathcal{V}_n be the set of boolean variables in β . Let v_n be a valuation as in 23 . Let $W \subseteq W_n$. Let $R \subseteq W^2$ be a reflexive and symetric relation.

Definition 24. *The zero terms in β are satisfied iff each zero term's valuation is the empty set.*

$$(\forall (g_l = 0) \in \beta)(v_n(g_l) = \emptyset) \quad (8)$$

Definition 25. *The non-contacts in β are satisfied iff:*

$$(\forall \neg C(e_k, f_k) \in \beta) \neg (\exists x \in v_n(e_k)) (\exists y \in v_n(f_k)) (xRy) \quad (9)$$

Lemma 26. *The valuations of the non-contact terms in β does not have a common modal point. Follows from the reflexivity of R .*

$$(\forall \neg C(e_k, f_k) \in \beta) (v_n(e_k) \cap v_n(f_k) = \emptyset) \quad (10)$$

Definition 27. *Let t be an arbitrary boolean term. Then \mathcal{V}_t is the set of the boolean variables used in t .*

Definition 28. *Let \mathcal{V}_n be a denumerable set of boolean variables. Then \mathcal{T}_n is the set of all boolean terms with variables of \mathcal{V}_n .*

$$\mathcal{T}_n = \{t \mid t \text{ is a boolean term and } \mathcal{V}_t \subseteq \mathcal{V}_n\} \quad (11)$$

Definition 29. *Let \mathcal{V}_n be a denumerable set of boolean variables. Let \mathcal{T}_n be the set of all boolean terms with variables of \mathcal{V}_n . Let $W \subseteq W_n$. By a **boolean valuation** of a boolean term in \mathcal{T}_n we mean the function η . It assigns a boolean constant for each pair of term $t \in \mathcal{T}_n$ and variable evaluation $\mathcal{E}_n \in W_n$.*

$$\eta(t, \mathcal{E}_n) \in \{0, 1\} \quad (12)$$

Let $t \in \mathcal{T}_n$. Let $\mathcal{E}_n \in W_n$. The inductive definition of η on the structure of the term t is as follows:

- $\eta(0, \mathcal{E}_n) = 0$

- $\eta(1, E_n) = 1$
- $\eta(x_i, E_n) = (E_n)^i$
- $\eta(a \sqcap b, E_n) = \eta(a, E_n) \sqcap \eta(b, E_n)$
- $\eta(a \sqcup b, E_n) = \eta(a, E_n) \sqcup \eta(b, E_n)$
- $\eta(a^*, E_n) = {}^*\eta(a, E_n)$

Lemma 30. Let $t \in \mathcal{T}_n$ be an arbitrary term. Let $W \subseteq W_n$. Let $\mathcal{E}_n \in W$. Let η be a boolean valuation. Let v_n be a valuation as in 23. By the definition of η and v_n follows:

$$\eta(t, \mathcal{E}_n) = 1 \iff \mathcal{E}_n \in v_n(t) \quad (13)$$

Definition 31. Let $t \in \mathcal{T}_n$ be an arbitrary term. Let η be a boolean valuation. Let $\mathcal{E}_n \in W_n$. Then \mathcal{E}_n satisfies t iff \mathcal{E}_n evaluates t to the constant 1.

$$\mathcal{E}_n \text{ satisfies } t \iff \eta(t, \mathcal{E}_n) = 1 \quad (14)$$

Definition 32. Let $t \in \mathcal{T}_n$ be an arbitrary term. Let η be a boolean valuation. The set of all variable evaluations \mathcal{E}_t which satisfies t is defined as follow:

$$\mathcal{E}_t = \{\mathcal{E}_n \mid \mathcal{E}_n \in W_n \wedge \eta(t, \mathcal{E}_n) = 1\} \quad (15)$$

Definition 33. Let $\mathcal{E}_n \in W_n$. Let $W \subseteq W_n$. Let $W = W \cup \mathcal{E}_n$. Then \mathcal{E}_n is a **valid modal point of β** if it does not break the satisfaction of the zero terms and non-contacts in β :

$$\begin{aligned} & (\forall (g_l = 0) \in \beta)(\mathcal{E}_n \notin v_n(g_l)) \wedge (\forall_{\neg C(e_k, f_k) \in \beta})(\mathcal{E}_n \notin v_n(e_k) \cap v_n(f_k)) \iff \\ & (\forall (g_l = 0) \in \beta)(\eta(g_l, \mathcal{E}_n) = 0) \wedge (\forall_{\neg C(e_k, f_k) \in \beta})(\eta(e_k, \mathcal{E}_n) = 0 \wedge \eta(f_k, \mathcal{E}_n) = 0) \end{aligned}$$

Definition 34. Let $W^v \subseteq W_n$ be the set of all valid modal points of β .

$$W^v = \{\mathcal{E}_n \mid \mathcal{E}_n \in W_n \wedge \mathcal{E}_n \text{ is a valid modal point of } \beta\} \quad (16)$$

Definition 35. Let $x, y \in W^v$. Then $\langle x, y \rangle$ is a **valid connected pair of β modal points** if it does not break the satisfaction of non-contacts in β .

$$\begin{aligned} & (\forall_{\neg C(e_k, f_k) \in \beta}) \neg ((x \in v_n(e_k) \wedge y \in v_n(f_k)) \vee \\ & \quad (x \in v_n(f_k) \wedge y \in v_n(e_k)) \vee \\ & \quad (x \in v_n(e_k) \wedge y \in v_n(e_k)) \vee \\ & \quad (x \in v_n(f_k) \wedge y \in v_n(f_k))) \\ & \iff \\ & (\forall_{\neg C(e_k, f_k) \in \beta}) \neg ((\eta(e_k, x) = 1 \wedge \eta(f_k, y) = 1) \vee \\ & \quad (\eta(f_k, x) = 1 \wedge \eta(e_k, y) = 1) \vee \\ & \quad (\eta(e_k, x) = 1 \wedge \eta(e_k, y) = 1) \vee \\ & \quad (\eta(f_k, x) = 1 \wedge \eta(f_k, y) = 1)) \end{aligned}$$

Definition 36. Let $R^v \subseteq W^v{}^2$ be the set of all valid connected pairs of β modal points.

$$R^v = \{ \langle x, y \mid x, y \in W^v \wedge \langle x, y \rangle \text{ is a valid connected pair of } \beta \text{ modal points} \} \quad (17)$$

Lemma 37. Let $\mathcal{F} = (W^v, R^v)$ be a relational system. \mathcal{F} satisfies the contacts and non-zero terms in β iff:

$$\begin{aligned} & (\forall (d_j \neq 0) \in \beta)(\exists \mathcal{E}_n \in W^v)(\mathcal{E}_n \in v_n(d_j)) \wedge \\ & (\forall_{C(a_i, b_i) \in \beta})(\exists \langle x, y \rangle \in R^v)(x \in v_n(a_i) \wedge y \in v_n(b_i)) \\ & \iff \\ & (\forall (d_j \neq 0) \in \beta)(\exists \mathcal{E}_n \in W^v)(\eta(d_j, \mathcal{E}_n) = 1 \wedge \\ & (\forall_{C(a_i, b_i) \in \beta})(\exists \langle x, y \rangle \in R^v)(\eta(a_i, x) = 1 \wedge \eta(b_i, y) = 1) \end{aligned}$$

Let $\mathcal{F} = (W^v, R^v)$. Let $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{F}, v_n)$. \mathcal{M} satisfies the zero terms and non-contacts in β . \mathcal{M} is a model of β if the non-zero terms and contacts are satisfied 37.

The model \mathcal{M} is not convenient. It might have a lot of modal points and connections between them. For example, let $\beta = C((x \sqcap y) \sqcap z, t \sqcup e)$. Then $\mathcal{V}_n = \{x, y, z, t, e\}$. There are no zero terms and non-contacts, so W^v is the same as W_n . Therefore, $|W^v| = 32$ and $|R^v| = 32^2$.

The following algorithm builds a more convenient model. Creates modal points and connections only for the non-zero and contact terms in β .

```

1  $W \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
2  $R \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
   /* Process the non-zero terms in  $\beta$  */
3 for  $d_j \neq 0 \in \beta$  do
4   for  $\mathcal{E}_n \in W^v$  do
5     if  $\eta(d_j, \mathcal{E}_n) = 1$  then
6        $W \leftarrow W \cup \{x\}$ 
7        $R \leftarrow R \cup \{< x, x >\}$ 
8     go to 3
9   end
10  Unable to construct a model.
11 end
   /* Process the contacts in  $\beta$  */
12 for  $C(a_i, b_i) \in \beta$  do
13   for  $< x, y > \in R^v$  do
14     if  $\eta(a_i, x) = 1 \wedge \eta(b_i, y) = 1$  then
15        $W \leftarrow W \cup \{x, y\}$ 
16        $R \leftarrow R \cup \{< x, x >, < y, y >, < x, y >, < y, x >\}$ 
17     go to 12
18   end
19  Unable to construct a model.
20 end
21 Successfully constructed a model  $\mathcal{M} = ((W, R), v_n)$ .

```


3 Connected Contact Logics

3.1 Connectivity

In topology and related branches of mathematics, a connected space is a topological space that cannot be represented as the union of two or more disjoint non-empty open subsets. Connectedness is one of the principal topological properties that are used to distinguish topological spaces.

Axiom 38. (*Connectivity*) Let b is a term. Then

$$b \neq 0 \wedge b \neq 1 \implies bCb^* \quad (18)$$

Let $\mathcal{F} = (W, R)$ be a relational system with $W \neq \emptyset$, $R \subseteq W^2$ and a, b are terms. Let us recall the definition of C :

$$aCb \iff (\exists x \in v(a))(\exists y \in v(b))(xRy) \quad (19)$$

The connectivity theorem can be written as follows:

$$v(b) \neq \emptyset \wedge v(b) \neq W \implies (\exists x \in v(b))(\exists y \in W \setminus v(b))(xRy) \quad (20)$$

Definition 39. Let $G = (W, R)$ be a graph. W is the set of vertexes and R the set of edges. A **path** $\pi(v_1, v_n)$ is a sequence of vertexes (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) such that $v_1, \dots, v_n \in V$ and $v_i R v_{i+1}$, for $i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$.

Definition 40. Let $G = (W, R)$ be an undirected graph. W is the set of vertexes and R the set of edges. G is **connected** if there is a path between each two vertices in W .

$$(\forall x \in W)(\forall y \in W)(\exists \pi(x, y))(\pi(x, y) \text{ is a path in } G) \quad (21)$$

Let $G = (W, R)$. The connectivity theorem implies that there is a connection out of each evaluation set (except the \emptyset and W). Mind that the modal point representation is a variable evaluation. Thus, the set of all evaluations is $\mathcal{P}(W)$.

If G is connected, then there is a path between each two points. Therefore, there is a connection out of each $W' \in \mathcal{P}(W)$.

$$(\forall W' \in \mathcal{P}(W))(W' \neq \emptyset \wedge W' \neq W \implies (\exists x \in W')(\exists y \in W \setminus W')(xRy)) \quad (22)$$

If G is disconnected, then G has a not connected components. Let $G' = (W', R')$ be such a component. Thus, $W' \subseteq W$ and $W' \in \mathcal{P}(W)$. There are no outgoing connections from W' . Otherwise, G' would be connected with at least one more point from $W \setminus W'$.

$$(\exists W' \in \mathcal{P}(W))(W' \neq \emptyset \wedge W' \neq W \wedge (\nexists y \in W \setminus W')(xRy)) \quad (23)$$

Therefore, the connectivity theorem implies that the graph G is connected.

Definition 41. Let $\mathcal{F} = (W, R)$ be a relational system. Let $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{F}, v_n)$ be a model of β . \mathcal{M} is a **connected model** if $G = (W, R)$ is connected.

3.2 Connected model building

Let β be a branch conjunction as in 16 :

$$\bigwedge_{i=1}^I C(a_i, b_i) \wedge \bigwedge_{j=1}^J d_j \neq 0 \wedge \bigwedge_{k=1}^K \neg C(e_k, f_k) \wedge \bigwedge_{l=1}^L g_l = 0$$

Let $\mathcal{F}^v = (W^v, R^v)$ be a relational system. Let $\mathcal{M}^v = (\mathcal{F}^v, v_n)$ be a model. \mathcal{M}^v is a model of β if the non-zero terms and contacts in β are satisfied 37 . If \mathcal{M}^v is not a model of β , then β does not have a model neither a connected model.

Let \mathcal{M}^v is a model of β . \mathcal{M}^v is the biggest model of β w.r.t unique modal points and connections between them. Let $G^v = (W^v, R^v)$ be the graph of \mathcal{F}^v .

Definition 42. Let $G' = (W', R')$ and $G'' = (W'', R'')$ are an undirected graphs. G' and G'' does not overlap iff:

$$W' \cap W'' = \emptyset \wedge R' \cap R'' = \emptyset \quad (23)$$

Definition 43. Let $F = (W, R)$ be a relational system. Let $G = (W, R)$ be an undirected graph. Then $Comp^G$ is the splitting of G to it's **connected components** .

$$\begin{aligned} Comp^G &= \{G' = (W', R') \mid W' \subseteq W \wedge R' \subseteq R \wedge G' \text{ is connected}\} \wedge \\ &(\forall G' \in Comp^G)(\forall G'' \in Comp^G)(G' \text{ and } G'' \text{ does not overlap}) \wedge \\ \{W' \mid G' = (W', R') \in Comp^G\} &= W \wedge \{R' \mid G' = (W', R') \in Comp^G\} = R \end{aligned}$$

Let $Comp^{G^v}$ is the set of the connected components of G^v . If $Comp^{G^v}$ contains a graph which defines a model of β , then it is a connected model, too. Otherwise, β does not have a connected model.

Let $G' \in Comp^{G^v}$. Let $\mathcal{M}' = (W', R', v_n)$ is a model. In order \mathcal{M}' to be a model of β the non-zero terms and contacts in β should be satisfied 37 . The zero terms and non-contacts are satisfied because \mathcal{M}' has not introduces new modal points neither a connections.

4 Implementation Introduction

The main programming language is C++. Flex & Bison are used to parse the input formula. The formula proover is a C++ library. The unit and performance tests are C++ applications. The user application is a Web page. The Web server is implemented with the third party CppRestSDK library. The satisfiability checking runs on the server. There is a feature to interrupt an ongoing process. Can be triggered by the user via a button. There is a user disconnecting detection which cancels the requested formula proving. TODO: something more? maybe some screenshots from the web application or in it's section is enough?

4.1 Syntax

The formula should be easy and intuitive to write. Only the keyboard keys should be used. The legend bellow describes the formula's syntaxis:

Terms		
0	0	Boolean constant 0
1	1	Boolean constant 1
-	*	Boolean complement
*	\cap	Boolean meat
+	\cup	Boolean join
()	()	Parentheses
[a-zA-Z0-9]+	x_1	Boolean variable. Syntax $x_1, Y42, Var101$
Formulas		
F	\perp	Propositional constant false
T	\top	Propositional constant true
\sim	\neg	Negation
&	\wedge	Conjunction
	\vee	Disjunction
->	\Rightarrow	Implication
<->	\Leftrightarrow	Equivalence
C	C	Contact, syntax $C(t_1, t_2)$
<=	\leq	Part of , syntax $<=(t_1, t_2)$
<=m	$\leq m$	Measured Part of, syntax $<=m(t_1, t_2)$
=0	=0	Zero term, syntax $t_1 = 0$
()	()	Parentheses

These are a few examples of formulas:

- $C(x_1 * 1, x_2 + y_1)$
- $C(x_1 + 0, (-x_2 + x_3) * x_1)$
- $C(x_1, x_2) \& C(x_2, x_3) \& \sim C(x_1, x_3)$
- $C(x_1, x_2) \& <= (x_1, x_3) \& \sim C(x_2, x_3)$

- $C(x1, x2) \rightarrow C(x2, x1)$
- $C(x1, x2) \ \& \ C(x2, x3) \Rightarrow C(x1, x3)$
- $F \rightarrow C(x1, x2) \ \& \ \sim C(x1, x2)$

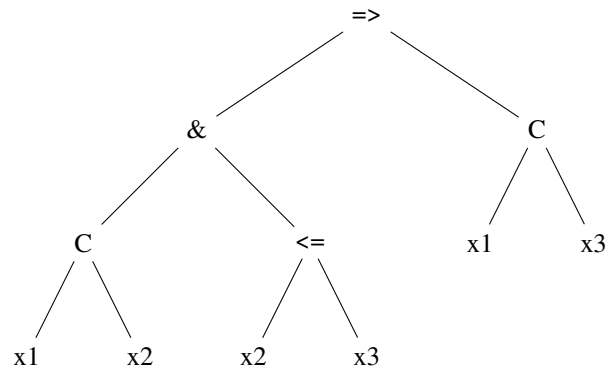
4.2 Formula parsing

The formula is a sequence of characters. These characters does not give us any information for the formula's structure. It should be analyzed. Flex [?] and Bison [?] are used to parse it into an AST (Abstract Syntax Tree). Flex is used as a tokenizer. Bison is used as the parser.

4.2.1 Abstract Syntax Tree

The AST is a binary tree. Each node has an operation type and up to two children. The formula nodes are prior term nodes. A formula node could have term node as children. Term nodes could not have a formula node as a child. The leaves are variables or constants.

Let $\phi = (C(x1, x2) \ \& \ \leq (x2, x3)) \Rightarrow C(x1, x3)$. The following is an AST of ϕ :



Operation types Enum structure is used to represent the type of formulas and terms in a memory efficient way.

```
enum class formula_operation_t
{
    constant_true ,
    constant_false ,
    conjunction ,
    disjunction ,
    negation ,
    implication ,
    equality ,
    contact ,
    less_eq ,
    measured_less_eq ,
    eq_zero
};

enum class term_operation_t
{
    constant_true ,
    constant_false ,
    union_ , // union is a keyword
    intersection ,
    complement ,
    variable
};
```

Node types There are two types of nodes. Formula nodes and term nodes. They are defined with a separate classes.

```
class Node
{
    ...
};

class NFormula : public Node
{
public:
    NFormula(formula_operation_t op,
              Node* left = nullptr, Node* right = nullptr);
    ...

    formula_operation_t op;
    Node* left;
    Node* right;
};

class NTerm : public Node
{
public:
    NTerm(term_operation_t op,
           NTerm* left = nullptr, NTerm* right = nullptr);
    ...

    term_operation_t op;
    NTerm* left;
    NTerm* right;
    std::string variable;
};
```

4.2.2 Tokenizer

The tokenizer is responsible for demarcating the special symbols in the input formula. After the symbols are identified a token is created for each of them or at least for those significant to the semantic of the input formula. For example, the whitespaces are not significant and a tokens are not created for them. We shall use Flex as a tokenizer [?].

Grammar The tokenizer's grammar is composed from two types of tokens. Single character and multi character.

The Single character tokens are directly matched in the input formula and are representing the token itself. The multi character token is a sequence of characters which have some meaning when bundled together. This tokenizer's grammar is unambiguous and each input formula is uniquely tokenized.

The tokens derivation is explained in details in the following table with Flex syntax. The matched symbol represents the symbol from the input formula and the output token is the newly created token for the matched symbol.

Matched sequence	Output token
[\t\n]	;
[,TF01()C& *+-]	yytext[0];
"<="	T_LESS_EQ;
"<=m"	T_MEASURED_LESS_EQ;
"= 0"	T_EQ_ZERO;
"->"	T_FORMULA_OP_IMPLICATION;
"<->"	T_FORMULA_OP_EQUALITY;
[a-zA-Z0-9]+	T_STRING;
.	yytext[0];

Let us review the table above. All white spaces, tabulations and newlines are ignored. The syntax for it is the ; character.

All single character tokens are passed as their ASCII code. The syntax for it is **yytext[0]**. It gives the matched character. That way it will be easy to use them in the parser.

The multi character tokens are converted to unique identifiers. For example, the "<=" sequence is converted to T_LESS_EQ. The sequence of letters and numbers is converted to T_STRING. Later, it will be used as a term variable.

The last matched symbol in the table represents everything else, if nothing has been matched then just return the text itself. The parser will use it to prompt where the unrecognized symbol was found and the symbol itself can be printed out.

4.2.3 Parser

The single character tokens are passed as their ASCII symbol to Bison. As discussed above the multi character tokens need more clearance in order to represent the literal from the input text symbols. The followings are definition of literals for multi character tokens:

- %token <const char*> T_STRING is the literal for "string"
- %token T_LESS_EQ is the literal for "<="
- %token T_MEASURED_LESS_EQ is the literal for "<=m"
- %token T_EQ_ZERO is the literal for "=0"
- %token T_FORMULA_OP_IMPLICATION is the literal for "->"
- %token T_FORMULA_OP_EQUALITY is the literal for "<->"

The followings are definitions of priority and associativity of the operation tokens. The priority is from low to hight (w.r.t. the line order in which they are defined)

- %left T_FORMULA_OP_IMPLICATION T_FORMULA_OP_EQUALITY
- %left '|' '+'

- %left '&' '*'
- %right '~' '-'
- %nonassoc '(' ')'

Grammar With the usage of the Parser literals, the input formula can be parsed to an Abstract Syntax Tree(AST). The AST contains all the data from the input string formula in a more structured way. On the AST additional optimizations can be done which will simplify the initial formula. It will produce better performance when a model is sought in the satisfiability algorithms.

For convenience, will define two helper methods. Namely, **create_term_node** and **create_formula_node**. Both methods construct AST nodes.

The `create_term_node` method creates an AST term node. Its arguments are an operation and up to two child terms. Depending on the operation arity.

The `create_formula_node` is analogous to the `create_term_node` method. Creates an AST formula node.

Few special symbols to define beforehand:

- `$$` is the return value to the 'parent'. Later, he can use it, e.g. as a child.
- `$i` is the return value of the i-th matched element in the matcher sequence.

Algorithm The following is the parser algorithm which produces an Abstract Syntax Tree.

```
formula // 'formula' non-terminal
: 'T' { // matching token 'T'
    $$ = create_formula_node(constant_true);
}
| 'F' {
    $$ = create_formula_node(constant_false);
}
| 'C' '(' term ',' term ')' {
    $$ = create_formula_node(contact, $3, $5);
}
| "<=" '(' term ',' term ')' {
    $$ = create_formula_node(less_eq, $3, $5);
}
| "<=m" '(' term ',' term ')' {
    $$ = create_formula_node(measured_less_eq, $3, $5);
}
| term "=0" {
    $$ = create_formula_node(eq_zero, $1);
}
| '(' formula '&' formula ')' {
    $$ = create_formula_node(conjunction, $2, $4);
}
| formula '&' formula {
    $$ = create_formula_node(conjunction, $1, $3);
}
| '(' formula '|' formula ')' {
    $$ = create_formula_node(disjunction, $2, $4);
}
```



```

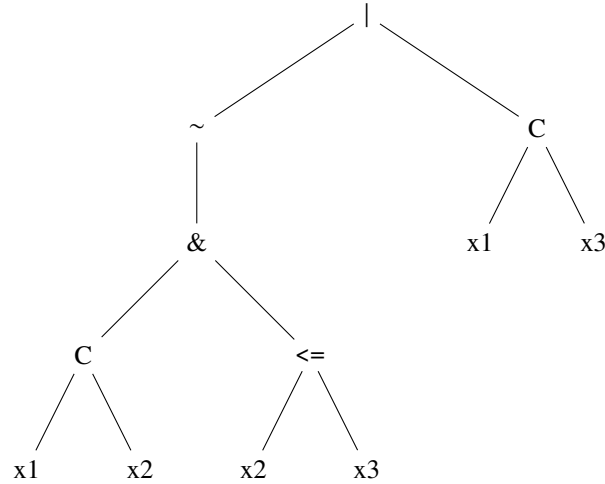
    }
    | formula '|' formula {
        $$ = create_formula_node(disjunction , $1, $3);
    }
    | '~' formula {
        $$ = create_formula_node(negation , $2);
    }
    | '(' formula "->" formula ')' {
        $$ = create_formula_node(implication , $2, $4);
    }
    | formula "->" formula {
        $$ = create_formula_node(implication , $1, $3);
    }
    | '(' formula "<->" formula ')' {
        $$ = create_formula_node(equality , $2, $4);
    }
    | formula "<->" formula {
        $$ = create_formula_node(equality , $1, $3);
    }
    | '(' formula ')' {
        $$ = $2;
    }
    }
;

term
: '1' {
    $$ = create_term_node(constant_true);
}
| '0' {
    $$ = create_term_node(constant_false);
}
| "string" {
    $$ = create_term_node(term_operation_t::variable);
    $$->variable = std::move(*$1);
    // the string is allocated from the
    // tokenizer and we need to free it
    free_lexer_string($1);
}
| '(' term '*' term ')' {
    $$ = create_term_node(intersection , $2, $4);
}
| term '*' term {
    $$ = create_term_node(intersection , $1, $3);
}
| '(' term '+' term ')' {
    $$ = create_term_node(union_ , $2, $4);
}
| term '+' term {
    $$ = create_term_node(union_ , $1, $3);
}
| '-' term {
    $$ = create_term_node(complement , $2);
}
| '(' term ')' {
    $$ = $2;
}
;

```

4.3 Formula refinement

The AST can be easily modified and optimized. One of the modifications is removing the implications and equivalences. They are replaced by conjunction, disjunction and negation. This is convenient because it simplifies the tableau method. It does not have to handle implication and equivalence operations. The following is a modified AST of ϕ 4.2.1 without the implication:



4.3.1 Visitor Pattern

The AST modification is best achieved with the visitor pattern [?]. Uses double virtual dispatching. Separates the algorithm from the object structure on which it operates. Allows new visitors to be added in a simple manner. Each AST modification will be implemented as a visitor. Will not explain the pattern in depth. In essence, the visitor pattern requires the AST nodes to implement a virtual **accept** method. This method accepts a visitor as argument and calls the visitor's virtual **visit** method with the real node's type. This is the double virtual dispatching. One virtual call to find the node's real type. Another to find the visitor's real type. Now, adding a new visitor requires only adding it's class. Does not require changes in the AST node classes or other visitor classes.

```

...
class Visitor
{
public:
    virtual void visit(NFormula& f) = 0;
    virtual void visit(NTerm& t) = 0;
};

// Example visitor(algorithm) which will print the AST tree.
class VPrinter : public Visitor
{
public:
    void visit(NFormula& f) override
    {
        // Print the formula node's data.
    }
    void visit(NTerm& t) override
    {
        // Print the term node's data.
    }
};

class Node
{
public:
    virtual void accept(Visitor& v) = 0;
};

class NFormula : public Node
{
public:
    void accept(Visitor& v) override { v.visit(*this); }

    ...
};

class NTerm : public Node
{
public:
    void accept(Visitor& v) override { v.visit(*this); }

    ...
};

```

It's worth showing the implementation of the VPrinter visit methods. They are simple and a good illustration of the pattern. Shows how the AST tree is traversed by calling the VPrinter instance with the AST's root node.

```
void VPrinter::visit(NFormula& f)
{
    switch(f.op)
    {
        case formula_operation_t::constant_true:
            out_ << "T"; // out_ is an output stream, e.g. std::cout.
            break;
        case formula_operation_t::constant_false:
            out_ << "F";
            break;
        case formula_operation_t::conjunction:
            out_ << "(";
            f.left->accept(*this);
            out_ << "&";
            f.right->accept(*this);
            out_ << ")";
            break;
        case formula_operation_t::disjunction:
            // Analogous to conjunction. The symbol is '|'.
        case formula_operation_t::implication:
            // Analogous to conjunction. The symbol is '->'.
        case formula_operation_t::equality:
            // Analogous to conjunction. The symbol is '<->'.
        case formula_operation_t::negation:
            out_ << "~";
            f.left->accept(*this);
            break;
        case formula_operation_t::less_eq:
            out_ << "<=";
            f.left->accept(*this);
            out_ << ",";
            f.right->accept(*this);
            out_ << ")";
            break;
        case formula_operation_t::measured_less_eq:
            out_ << "<=m(";
            f.left->accept(*this);
            out_ << ",";
            f.right->accept(*this);
            out_ << ")";
            break;
        case formula_operation_t::eq_zero:
            out_ << "(";
            f.left->accept(*this);
            out_ << "=0";
            break;
        case formula_operation_t::contact:
            out_ << "C(";
            f.left->accept(*this);
            out_ << ",";
            f.right->accept(*this);
            out_ << ")";
            break;
    }
}
```

```

        default:
            assert(false && "Unrecognized.");
    }
}

void VPrinter::visit(NTerm& t)
{
    switch(t.op)
    {
        case term_operation_t::constant_true:
            out_ << "1";
            break;
        case term_operation_t::constant_false:
            out_ << "0";
            break;
        case term_operation_t::variable:
            out_ << t.variable;
            break;
        case term_operation_t::union_:
            out_ << "(";
            t.left->accept(*this);
            out_ << "∪";
            t.right->accept(*this);
            out_ << ")";
            break;
        case term_operation_t::intersection:
            // Analogous to union_. The symbol is '*'.
        case term_operation_t::complement:
            out_ << "-";
            t.left->accept(*this);
            break;
        default:
            assert(false && "Unrecognized.");
    }
}

```

4.3.2 Visitors Overview

The following are the supported visitors. Their implementation is close to a thousand lines of code and can be checked in the repository.

VReduceConstants Removes all unnecessary children of And/Or/Negation operations of the following type:

• $\sim T \equiv F$	• $C(0,0) \equiv F$	• $\sim F \equiv T$	• $C(1,1) \equiv T$
• $(T \ \& \ T) \equiv T$	• $C(a,0) \equiv F$	• $(F \mid F) \equiv F$	• $C(0,a) \equiv F$
• $(g \ \& \ T) \equiv g$	• $-1 \equiv 0$	• $(g \mid T) \equiv T$	• $-0 \equiv 1$
• $(T \ \& \ g) \equiv g$	• $(1 * 1) \equiv 1$	• $(T \mid g) \equiv T$	• $(0 + 0) \equiv 0$
• $(g \ \& \ F) \equiv F$	• $(t * 1) \equiv t$	• $(g \mid F) \equiv g$	• $(t + 1) \equiv 1$
• $(F \ \& \ g) \equiv F$	• $(1 * t) \equiv t$	• $(F \mid g) \equiv g$	• $(1 + t) \equiv 1$
• $0=0 \equiv T$	• $(t * 0) \equiv 0$	• $1=0 \equiv F$	• $(t + 0) \equiv t$
• $<=(0,a) \equiv T$	• $(0 * t) \equiv 0$	• $<=(a,1) \equiv T$	• $(0 + t) \equiv t$

VConvertContactsWithConstantTerms Converts C with constant 1 terms in $!=0$ atomic formulas. This visitor is best used after the contacts are reduced, via **VReduceConstants**

- $C(a,1) \equiv \sim(a=0)$
- $C(1,a) \equiv \sim(a=0)$

VConvertLessEqContactWithEqualTerms Converts C and $<=$ atomic formulas with identical terms:

- $<=(a,a) \equiv T$,
since $(a * -a = 0)$
- $C(a,a) \equiv \sim(a=0)$

VReduceDoubleNegation Removes the double/tripple/etc negations. This visitor is best used after all visitors which might add additional negations!

- $\sim(\sim g) \equiv g$
- $\sim(\sim t) \equiv t$

VConvertImplicationEqualityToConjDisj Converts all formula nodes of type implication and equality to nodes which are using just conjunction and disjunction. The main reason for this visitor is to simplify the formula operations. This visitor simplifies the formula to contain only conjunctions, disjunctions and negation operations.

- $(f \rightarrow g) \equiv (\sim f \mid g)$
- $(f \leftrightarrow g) \equiv ((f \ \& \ g) \mid (\sim f \ \& \ \sim g))$

VConvertLessEqToEqZero Converts a $<=$ formula to an equals to zero atomic formula

- $<=(a,b) \equiv (a * -b) = 0$

VSplitDisjInLessEqAndContacts Divides C and \leq atomic formulas with a disjunction term into two simpler formulas

- $C(a + b, c) \equiv C(a, c) \mid C(b, c)$
- $C(a, b + c) \equiv C(a, b) \mid C(a, c)$
- $\leq(a + b, c) \equiv \leq(a, c) \ \& \ \leq(b, c)$

There are few visitors which only collect or print information from the formula

- **VVariablesGetter** - gets all variables from the formula (as string)
- **VPrinter** - prints the formula to some provided output stream

4.4 Formula building

The formula is a binary tree. A **subformula** is a subtree in the formula's tree. The process of building a satisfiable model is computational heavy. A part of it is lexical comparing and traversing subformulas. The AST is convenient to modify the formula. These modifications are a preprocessing step. After them the formula will not be modified. A few optimizations could be done.

4.4.1 Optimizations

Reducing formula operations The formula operations could be reduced to not have *implication*, *equivalence* and *less equal*. The *VConvertImplicationEqualityToConjDisj* and *VConvertLessEqToEqZero* visitor should be applied.

Variable substitution The variables are a sequence of characters, i.e. strings. It is slow to compare them. An integer ID could be assigned to each variable. One way to do it is via the *VVariablesGetter* visitor. Retrieve all unique variables in a vector and use their positions as IDs.

Hashing subformulas Conducting a test whether two subformulas are equal in a lexical way is an important procedure for the sake of performance. Such equality checks are required in various situations. One of which is checking if a subformula exists in a set of subformulas.

Have in mind that the naive solution to do an equality check is to compare the whole subformula structure. The complexity is $O(n)$, where n is the size of the subformula. To reduce this complexity a precalculated hash value shall be used. For each formula node an additional hash variable is stored. The hash is computed recursively through the formula's structure. The hash of a parent node depends on the hashes of its children nodes. The equality comparison first checks the hash codes. The full equality checking is done only for matching hash codes.

4.4.2 Layout

The formula structure will be similar to the AST. A couple of changes reflecting the optimizations above. The following is the final formula node's layout.

```
class formula {
    ...
    enum class operation_type : char {
        constant_true ,
        constant_false ,
        conjunction ,
        disjunction ,
        negation ,
        measured_less_eq ,
        eq_zero ,
        c ,
        invalid ,
    };

    operation_type op_;
    std::size_t hash_;

    struct child_formulas {
        formula* left;
        formula* right;
    };
    struct child_terms {
        term* left;
        term* right;
    };

    union {
        // Holds only one of the described objects.
        // Depending on the operation type the
        // child_f_ or child_t_ is "valid".
        child_formulas child_f_;
        child_terms child_t_;
    };
};

class term {
    ...
    enum class operation_type : char
    {
        constant_true ,
        constant_false ,
        union_ ,
        intersection ,
        complement ,
        variable ,
        invalid ,
    };

    operation_type op_;
    std::size_t hash_;

    struct children
    {
```



```

        term* left;
        term* right;
    };
    union {
        // Holds either children or variable id.
        // Depending on the node's operation type.
        children children_;
        size_t variable_id_;
    };
};

```

4.4.3 Hashing

The following is the implemented hash construction procedure for the term node. The formula node is analogous.

```

void term::construct_hash()
{
    switch(op_)
    {
        case operation_t::constant_true:
        case operation_t::constant_false:
            break;
        case operation_t::union_:
        case operation_t::intersection:
            hash_ = ((children.left->get_hash() & 0xFFFFFFFF) * 2654435761) +
                    (children.right->get_hash() & 0xFFFFFFFF) * 2654435741);
            break;
        case operation_t::complement:
            hash_ = (children.left->get_hash() & 0xFFFFFFFF) * 2654435761;
            break;
        case operation_t::variable:
            hash_ = (variable_id_ & 0xFFFFFFFF) * 2654435761;
            break;
        default:
            assert(false && "Unrecognized.");
    }

    // Add the operation type to the hash.
    const auto op_code = static_cast<unsigned>(op_) + 1;
    hash_ += (op_code & 0xFFFFFFFF) * 2654435723;
}

```

Let τ_1 and τ_2 be two terms. Let h_1 be the precalculated hash of τ_1 and h_2 be the precalculated hash of τ_2 . The equality check procedure follows the following steps:

- if $h_1 \neq h_2$, then the terms are not equal
- if $h_1 = h_2$, then recursively compare the children.

4.4.4 Conversion from AST

The formula building from an AST is straightforward. Recursive depth first iteration over the AST. For each AST node a corresponding formula/term node is constructed. The implementation could be found in *term.cpp* and *formula.cpp* in the repository.

Contents: (notes) Parsing: - Formula legend - Variables - Definition, what can be variables. (sequence of characters, etc..) - Flex & Bison for parsing. - AST building from it. - Reducing some constants, using the AST and virtual dispatching.

- Tableau - the official doc is fairly good, use it

- variable evaluations - representation - plus one operation (Next) - marked bits only
the used variables - plus one on marked bits - contact matrix representation

5 Tableaux Implementation

6 Model Implementation

7 Connected Contact Logics Implementation

TODOs: - inductive def. for structures, e.g. terms - recursive for functions - R is reflexive and symmetric - somewhere to mention it.

TODO: separate line for the authors

References

- [1] Handbook of Tableau Methods M. DâĂŽAgostino, D. M. Gabbay, R. HĂľhnhle and J. Posegga, eds.
- [2] Modal Logics for Region-based Theories of Space Philippe Balbiani, Thinko Tinchev, Dimiter Vakarelov
- [3] Connected Space or go to the next url: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Connected_space