Universidade de Brasília
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Combined Proof Methods for Multimodal Logic

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Dissertação apresentada como requisito parcial para
qualificação do Mestrado em Informática

Orientadora
Prof.a Dr.a Cláudia Nalon

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Abstract

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Modal Logics

This chapter introduces K_n, a *propositional modal logic language*, semantically determined by an account of necessity and possibility.

A propositional modal language is the well known propositional language augmented by a collection of *modal operators*. In classical logic, propositions or sentences are either evaluated to true or false, in any model. Propositional logic and predicate logic, for instance, do not allow for any further possibilities. However, in natural language, we often distinguish between various modalities of truth, such as *necessarily* true, *known to be* true, *believed to be* true or yet true *in some future*, for example. Therefore, one may think that classical logics lacks expressivity in this sense.

Modal logic adds operators to express one or more of these different modes of truth. Different modalities define different languages. The key concept behind these operators is that they allow us to reason over relations among contexts or interpretations, an abstraction that here we think as *possible worlds*. The purpose of the modal operators is to permit the information that holds at other worlds to be examined — but, crucially, only at worlds visible from the current one via an accessibility relation [1]. Then, evaluation of a modal formula depends on a set of possible worlds and the accessibility relations defined for these worlds. It is possible to define several accessibility relations between worlds, and different modal logics are defined by different relations.

The modal language which is the focus of this work is the extension of the classical propositional logic that adds the unary operators: $\boxed{a}$ and $\diamondsuit$, whose reading are "is necessary by the agent a" and "is possible by the agent a", respectively. This language, known as K_n, is characterized by the schema $\boxed{a}(\varphi \Rightarrow \psi) \Rightarrow (\boxed{a}\varphi \Rightarrow \boxed{a}\psi)$ (axiom K), where $a \in \mathcal{A} = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and φ, ψ are well-formed formulae. The addition of other axioms defines different systems of modal logics and it imposes restrictions on the class of models where formulae are valid [3].

Worlds and their accessibility relations define a structure known as *Kripke model*.

The satisfiability and validity of a formula depend on this structure. For example, given a Kripke model that contains a set of possible worlds, a binary relation of accessibility between worlds and a valuation function that maps in which worlds a proposition symbol holds, we say that a formula $\Box p$ is satisfiable at some world w of this model, if the valuation function establishes that p is true at all worlds accessible from w.

It is now time to formally define the modal language we will be working with. The syntax and semantics of K_n are showed in Sections 2.1 and 2.2, respectively, and the definitions presented in these two sections are adaptations from [8].

2.1 Syntax

The language of K_n is equivalent to its set of *well-formed formulae*, denoted by $\mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$, which is constructed from a denumerable set of *propositional symbols* $\mathcal{P} = \{p, q, r, \ldots\}$, the negation symbol $\neg$, the disjunction symbol $\vee$ and the modal connectives $\boxed{a}$, that express the notion of necessity, for each index a in a finite, non-empty fixed set of labels $\mathcal{A} = \{1, \ldots, n\}, n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 1 The set of well-formed formulae, $\mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$, is the least set such that:

1. $p \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$, for all $p \in \mathcal{P}$
2. if $\varphi, \psi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$, then so are $\neg\varphi, (\varphi \vee \psi)$ and $\boxed{a}\varphi$, for each $a \in \mathcal{A}$

Just as the familiar first-order existential and universal quantifiers are duals to each other, that is, $\forall x\ \varphi \Leftrightarrow \neg\exists x\ \neg\varphi$, we have the dual connectives $\diamondsuit$ for necessity, which express possibility, and they are defined by $\diamondsuit\varphi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg\boxed{a}\neg\varphi$, for each $a \in \mathcal{A}$. Other logic operators may be used as abbreviations. In this work, we consider the usual ones:

- $\varphi \wedge \psi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg(\neg\varphi \vee \neg\psi)$ (conjuction)
- $\varphi \Rightarrow \psi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg\varphi \vee \psi$ (implication)
- $\varphi \Leftrightarrow \psi \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\varphi \Rightarrow \psi) \wedge (\psi \Rightarrow \varphi)$ (equivalence)
- **false** $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \varphi \wedge \neg\varphi$ (*falsum*)
- **true** $\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg$**false** (*verum*)

Parentheses may be omitted if the reading is not ambiguous. When $n = 1$, we often omit the index in the modal operators, i.e., we just write $\Box\varphi$ (or 'box' φ) and $\diamondsuit\varphi$ (or 'diamond' φ), for a well-formed formula φ.

We define as *literal* a propositional symbol $p \in \mathcal{P}$ or its negation $\neg p$, and denote by $\mathcal{L}$ the set of all literals. A *modal literal* is a formula of the form $\boxed{a}l$ or $\diamondsuit\!\!\!\!\!\!\diamondsuit l$, with $l \in \mathcal{L}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}$.

The following function definitions are based on formulae' syntax. The *modal depth* of a formula is recursively defined as follows:

Definition 2 We define $mdepth : \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$ to represent the maximal number of nesting modal operators in a formula. Inductively:

1. $mdepth(p) = 0$
2. $mdepth(\neg\varphi) = mdepth(\varphi)$
3. $mdepth(\varphi \vee \psi) = \max\{mdepth(\varphi), mdepth(\psi)\}$
4. $mdepth(\boxed{a}\varphi) = mdepth(\varphi) + 1$

With $p \in \mathcal{P}$ and $\varphi, \psi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$.

For instance, if $\varphi = \boxed{a}\diamondsuit\!\!\!\!\!\!\diamondsuit p$ then $mdepth(\varphi) = 2$ but $mdepth(p) = 0$.

The *modal level* of a formula (or a subformula) is given relative to its position in the *annotated syntactic tree*.

Definition 3 Let Σ be the alphabet $\{1, 2, .\}$ and Σ^* the set of all finite sequences over Σ. Denote by ε the empty sequence. We define $\tau : \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \times \Sigma^* \times \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathscr{P}(\mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \times \Sigma^* \times \mathbb{N})$ as the partial function inductively defined as follows:

1. $\tau(p, \lambda, ml) = \{(p, \lambda, ml)\}$
2. $\tau(\neg\varphi, \lambda, ml) = \{(\neg\varphi, \lambda, ml)\} \cup \tau(\varphi, \lambda.1, ml)$
3. $\tau(\boxed{a}\varphi, \lambda, ml) = \{(\boxed{a}\varphi, \lambda, ml)\} \cup \tau(\varphi, \lambda.1, ml + 1)$
4. $\tau(\varphi \vee \psi, \lambda, ml) = \{(\varphi \vee \psi, \lambda, ml)\} \cup \tau(\varphi, \lambda.1, ml) \cup \tau(\psi, \lambda.2, ml)$

With $p \in \mathcal{P}, \lambda \in \Sigma^*, ml \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\varphi, \psi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$.

The function τ applied to $(\varphi, \varepsilon, 0)$ returns the annotated syntactic tree for φ, where each node is uniquely identified by a subformula, its position in the tree (or path order) and its modal level. For instance, p occurs twice in the formula $\boxed{a}\diamondsuit\!\!\!\!\!\!\diamondsuit(p \wedge \boxed{a}p)$, at the position 1.1.1, with modal level 2, and again at position 1.1.2.1, with modal level 3.

Definition 4 We define $mlevel : \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \times \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \times \Sigma^* \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$, to represent the

maximal number of modal operators in which scope a subformula occurs. Let φ be a formula and let $\tau(\varphi, \varepsilon, 0)$ be its annotated syntactic tree. If $(\varphi', \lambda, ml) \in \tau(\varphi, \varepsilon, 0)$ then $mlevel(\varphi, \varphi', \lambda) = ml$.

2.2 Semantics

The semantics of K_n is presented in terms of Kripke structures.

Definition 5 A Kripke model for $\mathcal{P}$ and $\mathcal{A} = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ is given by the tuple

$$\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \ldots, R_n, \pi) \tag{2.1}$$

where W is a non-empty set of possible worlds with a distinguinshed world w_0, the root of $\mathcal{M}$; each R_a, $a \in \mathcal{A}$, is a binary relation on W, that is, $R_a \subseteq W \times W$, and $\pi : W \times \mathcal{P} \longrightarrow \{false, true\}$ is the valuation function that associates to each world $w \in W$ a truth-assignment to propositional symbols.

Satisfiability and *validity* of a formula is defined in terms of the *satisfiability relation*.

Definition 6 Let $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \ldots, R_n, \pi)$ be a Kripke model, $w \in W$ and $\varphi, \psi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$. The *satisfiability relation*, denoted by $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \varphi$, between a world w and a formula φ, is inductively defined by:

1. $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models p$ if, and only if, $\pi(w, p) = \mathbf{true}$, for all $p \in \mathcal{P}$;
2. $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \neg\varphi$ if, and only if, $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \not\models \varphi$;
3. $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \varphi \vee \psi$ if, and only if, $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \varphi$ or $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \psi$
4. $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \boxed{a}\varphi$ if, and only if, for all $t \in W$, $(w, t) \in R_a$ implies $\langle \mathcal{M}, t \rangle \models \varphi$

Satisfiability is defined with respect to the root of a model. A formula $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$ is said to be *satisfiable* if there exists a Kripke model $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \ldots, R_n, \pi)$ such that $\langle \mathcal{M}, w_0 \rangle \models \varphi$. A formula is said to be *valid* if it is satisfiable in all models. We say that a set $\mathcal{F}$ is satisfiable if every $\varphi \in \mathcal{F}$ is satisfiable. Validity of sets is defined analogously.

The satisfiability problem for K_n corresponds to determining the existence of a model in which a formula is satisfied. This problem is proven to be PSPACE-complete [10].

Example 1 Consider the model illustrated in Figure **??**, let's call it $\mathcal{M}$. Take $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R, \pi)$, for $\mathcal{P} = \{p\}$ and $\mathcal{A} = \{1\}$, where

(*i*) $W = \{w_0, w_1, w_2\}$

(*ii*) $R = \{(w_1, w_1), (w_2, w_2), (w_0, w_1), (w_0, w_2)\}$

(*iii*) $\pi(w, p) = \begin{cases} \textbf{true} & \text{if } w = w_0 \\ \textbf{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Note that both p and $\Box\neg p$ are satisfied in $\mathcal{M}$. This is a rather simple example to illustrate that, even though some sentence evaluates to true in the current context, one can see the same sentence occurring with the opposite valuation through an accessibility relation. This kind of reasoning is not possible in classical logic. Other examples of formulae satisfied by this model: $p \wedge \Diamond\neg p$, $\Box\Box\neg p$ and $\Box\Box\Box\neg p$.

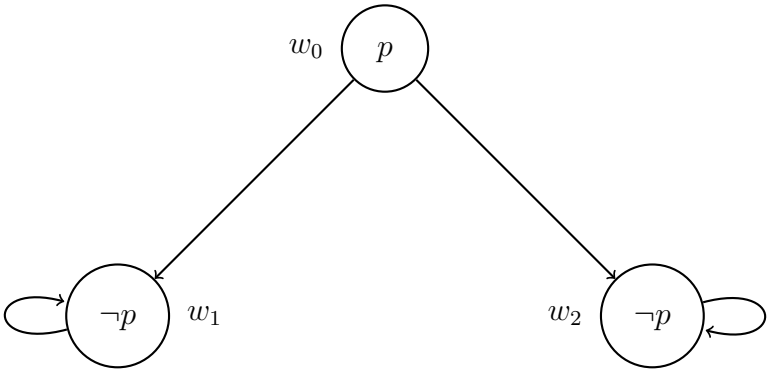


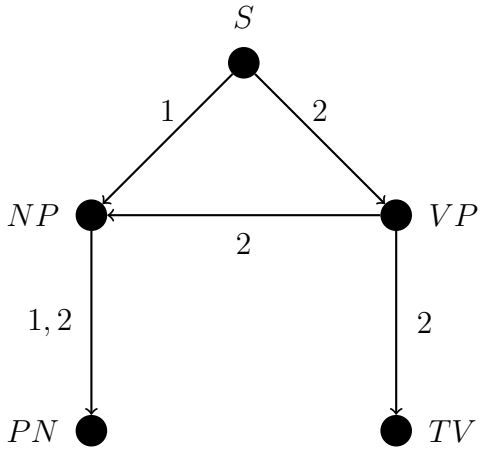
Figure 2.1: Example of a Kripke model for K_n

Example 2 (*Tree-like* model) Finite trees are ubiquitous in linguistics. For example, the tree illustrated in Figure 2.2b represents some simple facts about phrase-structure, namely that a sentence (S) can consist of a noun phrase (NP) and a verb phrase (VP); an (NP) can consist of a proper noun (PN); and a (VP) can consist of a transitive verb (TV) and a (NP).

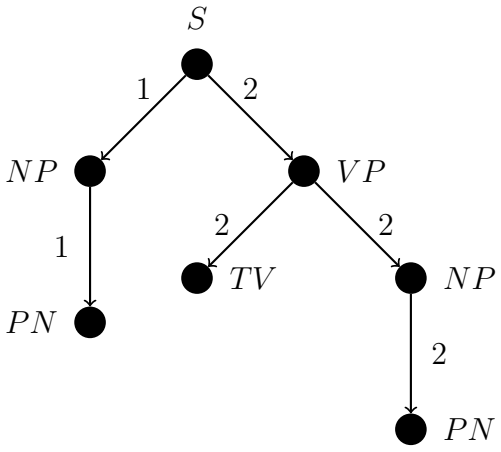
For this example, consider $\mathcal{M} = (W, S, R, \pi)$ to be the tree-like model illustrated in Figure 2.2b. Where $W = \{S, NP, VP, PN, TV, NP', PN'\}$ and R is easily implied by the figured. Take $loves, Pete, Anna \in \mathcal{P}$.

2.3 Normal Form

Normal forms can provide elegant and constructive proofs of many standard results [6]. This happens because once you translated a set of formulae into a normal form, you have all your formulae in a specific structure and possibly less operators to work with, which



(a) Model for phase-structure



(b) Tree-like model for phase-structure

may implicate into a smaller number of rules for a proof system. One can even add information into formulae in a specific normal form. That is the case of the normal form we use in this work.

Formulae in K_n can be transformed into a layered normal form called *Separated Normal Form with Modal Levels*, denoted by SNF_{ml} [8]. A formula in SNF_{ml} is a conjunction of *clauses* labelled by the modal level in which they occur.

We write $ml : \varphi$ to denote that φ occurs at modal level $ml \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{*\}$. By $* : \varphi$ we mean that φ is true at all modal levels. Formally, let $\mathrm{WFF}^{ml}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$ denote the set of formulae with the modal level annotation, $ml : \varphi$ such that $ml \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{*\}$ and $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$. Let $\mathcal{M}^* = (W, w_0, R_1, \ldots, R_n, R_*, \pi)$ be a model and take $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$.

Definition 7 Satisfiability of labelled formulae is given by:

1. $\langle \mathcal{M}^*, w_0 \rangle \models ml : \varphi$ if, and only if, for all worlds $w \in W$ such that $depth(w) = ml$, we have $\langle \mathcal{M}^*, w \rangle \models \varphi$

Chapter 3

Modal-Layered Resolution

Resolution appeared in the early 1960s through investigations on performance improvements of refutational procedures based on *Herbrand Theorem*. In particular, Prawitz' studies on such procedures brought back the idea of unification. J. A. Robinson incorporated the concept of unification on a refutation method, creating what was later known as resolution [2].

The standard rules for resolution systems take two or more premises with literals or modal literals that are contradictory, and generate a resolvent. Most of these systems work exclusively with clauses in a specific normal form. Resolution systems are, in general, refutational systems, that is, to show that a formula φ is valid, $\neg\varphi$ is translated into a normal form. The inference rules are applied until either no new resolvents can be generated or a contradiction is obtained. The contradiction implies that $\neg\varphi$ is unsatisfiable and hence, that φ is valid.

3.1 Clausal Resolution

Clausal resolution was proposed as a proof method for classical logic by Robinson in 1965 [9], and was claimed to be suitable to be performed by computer, as it has only one inference rule that is applied many times. Nonclausal proof methods, in general, require a larger number of rules, making implementation more difficult. Clausal resolution is a simple and adaptable proof method for classical logics and, since it was proposed, a bank of research into heuristics and strategies has been growing.

Chapter 4

Satisfiability Solvers

The problem of determining whether a boolean formula is satisfiable has the historical honor of being the first problem ever shown to be NP-Complete [4]. Great theoretical and practical efforts have been directed in improving the efficiency of solvers for this problem, known as *Boolean Satisfiability Solvers*, or just *SAT solvers*. Despite the worst-case exponential run time of all the algorithms known, satisfiability solvers are increasingly leaving their mark as a general purpose tool in the most diverse areas [7]. In essence, SAT solvers provide a generic combinatorial reasoning and search platform.

In the context of SAT solvers, the underlying representational formalism is propositional logic. We are interested in propositional formulae in *Conjunctive Normal Form* (CNF): F is in CNF if it is a conjunction of *clauses*, where each clause is a disjunction of *literals*. For example, $F = (p \vee \neg q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r \vee s) \wedge (q \vee r)$ is a CNF formula with four variables and three clauses.

Therefore, the *Boolean Satisfiability Problem* (SAT) can be expressed as: Given a CNF formula F, does F have a satisfying assignment? One can be interested not only in the answer of this decision problem, but also in finding an actual satisfying assignment when it there exists one. All practical SAT solvers do produce such assignment [5].

4.1 The DPLL Procedure

4.2 Conflict Driven Clause Learning

4.3 MiniSat

Algorithm 1: DPLL-recursive(F, ρ)

Input : A CNF formula F and an initially empty partial assignment ρ
Output: UNSAT, or an assignment satisfying F

$(F, \rho) \leftarrow$ UnitPropagate(F, ρ)
if *F contains the empty clause* **then**
  return UNSAT
end
if *F has no clauses left* **then**
  Output ρ
  return *SAT*
end
$l \leftarrow$ a literal not assigned by ρ
if *DPLL-recursive*$(F|_l, \rho \cup \{l\}) = SAT$ **then**
  return *SAT*
end
return *DPLL-recursive*$(F|_{\neg l}, \rho \cup \{\neg l\})$

Algorithm 2: CDCL(F, ν)

Input :
Output:

if *UnitPropagate*$(F, \nu) ==$ *CONFLICT* **then**
  return *UNSAT*
end
$dl \leftarrow 0$
while *not* *AllVariablesAssigned*(F, ν) **do**
  $(x, \nu) \leftarrow$ PickBranchingVariable(F, ν)
end
return *SAT*

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