

Instituto de Ciências Exatas Departamento de Ciência da Computação

### 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

 $\textbf{Keywords:} \ \operatorname{modal} \ \operatorname{logics}, \ \operatorname{resolution}, \ \operatorname{sat-solvers}$ 

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# Introduction

### **Modal Logics**

This chapter formally introduces  $K_n$ , a propositional modal logic language, semantically determined by an account of necessity and possibility [12].

A propositional modal language is the well known propositional language augmented by a collection of *modal operators* [2]. In classical logic, propositions or sentences are evaluated to either 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 logics add 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 different 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 or accessible from the current one via an accessibility relation [2]. Then, the evaluation of a modal formula depends on the 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 plus 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  $\mathsf{K}_n$ , is characterized by the schema  $\boxed{a}(\varphi \Rightarrow \psi) \Rightarrow (\boxed{a}\varphi \Rightarrow \boxed{a}\psi)$  (axiom  $\mathsf{K}$ ), where a represents an agent in a finite, fixed set, and  $\varphi, \psi$  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 [4].

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

structure proposed by Kripke to semantically analyse modal logics [11]. 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.

In the following, we will 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 follow those in [12].

#### 2.1 Syntax

The language of  $K_n$  is equivalent to its set of well-formed formulae, denoted by WFF $K_n$ , 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 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,  $\mathsf{WFF}_n$ , is the least set such that:

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

The operators  $\diamondsuit$  are the duals of a, for each  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , that is,  $\diamondsuit \varphi$  can be defined as  $\neg a \neg \varphi$ , with  $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_n$ . Other logical operators are also used as abbreviations. In this work, we consider the usual ones:

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

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'  $\varphi$ ) and  $\Diamond \varphi$  (or 'diamond'  $\varphi$ ), for a well-formed formula  $\varphi$ .

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  $\diamondsuit l$ , with  $l \in \mathcal{L}$  and  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ .

The following definitions are also needed later. The *modal depth* of a formula is recursively defined as follows:

**Definition 2** We define  $mdepth: \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$  inductively as:

- 1. mdepth(p) = 0
- 2.  $mdepth(\neg \varphi) = mdepth(\varphi)$
- 3.  $mdepth(\varphi \lor \psi) = \max\{mdepth(\varphi), mdepth(\psi)\}\$
- 4.  $mdepth(\Box \varphi) = mdepth(\varphi) + 1$

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

This function represents the maximal number of nesting operators in a formula. For instance, if  $\varphi = a \otimes p \vee a \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $mdepth(\varphi) = 2$ .

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

**Definition 3** Let  $\Sigma$  be the alphabet  $\{1,2,.\}$  and  $\Sigma^*$  the set of all finite sequences over  $\Sigma$ . 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.  $\tau(\overline{a}\varphi, \lambda, ml) = \{(\overline{a}\varphi, \lambda, ml)\} \cup \tau(\varphi, \lambda.1, ml + 1)$
- 4.  $\tau(\varphi \lor \psi, \lambda, ml) = \{(\varphi \lor \psi, \lambda, ml)\} \cup \tau(\varphi, \lambda.1, ml) \cup \tau(\psi, \lambda.2, ml)$

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

The function  $\tau$  applied to  $(\varphi, 1, 0)$  returns the annotated syntactic tree for  $\varphi$ , 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  $a \Leftrightarrow (p \land a p)$ , at the position 1.1.1, with modal level 2, and again at position 1.1.2.1, with modal level 3.

**Definition 4** Let  $\varphi$  be a formula and let  $\tau(\varphi, 1, 0)$  be its annotated syntactic tree.

We define  $mlevel: \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \times \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \times \Sigma^* \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , as: if  $(\varphi', \lambda, ml) \in \tau(\varphi, 1, 0)$  then  $mlevel(\varphi, \varphi', \lambda) = ml$ .

This function represents the maximal number of operators in which scope a subformula occurs.

#### 2.2 Semantics

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

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

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

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.

We write  $R_a wv$  to denote that v is accessible from w through the accessibility relation  $R_a$ , that is  $(w, v) \in R_a$ , and  $R_a^* wv$ , to mean that v is reachable from w through a finite number of steps, that is, it exists a sequence  $(w_1, \ldots, w_k)$  of worlds such that  $R_a w_i w_{i+1}$ , for all  $i \leq k$ , where  $w_1 = w$  and  $w_k = v$ , with  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ ,  $w, v, w_i \in W$  and  $i, k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Note that  $R_a^*$  is the transitive closure of  $R_a$ , the least transitive set that contains all elements of  $R_a$ . In this work, we will also use the transitive and reflexive closure, denoted by  $R_a^+$ , the least transitive and reflexive set that contains all elements of  $R_a$ .

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

**Definition 6** Let  $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \dots, R_n, \pi)$  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  $\varphi$ , is inductively defined by:

- 1.  $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models p$  if, and only if,  $\pi(w, p) = true$ , 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.  $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \varphi \lor \psi$  if, and only if,  $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \varphi$  or  $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \psi$ ;
- 4.  $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \overline{a} \varphi$  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  $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \dots, R_n, \pi)$  such that  $\langle \mathcal{M}, w_0 \rangle \models \varphi$ . In this case we simply write  $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi$  to mean that  $\mathcal{M}$  statisfies  $\varphi$  in  $w_0$ . A formula is said to be *valid* if it is satisfiable in all models. We say that a set  $\mathcal{F}$  of formulae is satisfiable if every  $\varphi \in \mathcal{F}$  is satisfiable.

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 [17].

**Example 1** Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be the model illustrated in Figure 2.1. 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) 
$$\pi(w, p) = \begin{cases} true & \text{if } w = w_0 \\ false & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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 are:  $p \land \Diamond \neg p$ ,  $\Box \Box \neg p$  and  $\Box \Box \Box \neg p$ .

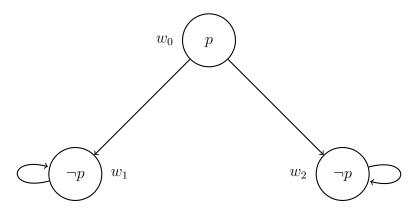


Figure 2.1: Example of a Kripke model for  $K_n$ 

**Example 2** (*Tree-like* model) Consider the formula  $\varphi = \mathbb{1}(p \Rightarrow \diamondsuit p)$ . The Figure 2.2 contains examples of models that satisfy  $\varphi$ , hence,  $\varphi$  is satisfiable. Note that the model from the figure 2.2b has a graphical representation similar to a tree. Finite trees are ubiquitous in computer science, they are used to represent knowledge or data from the most diverse fields, such as linguistics, programming language etc. As trees play such an

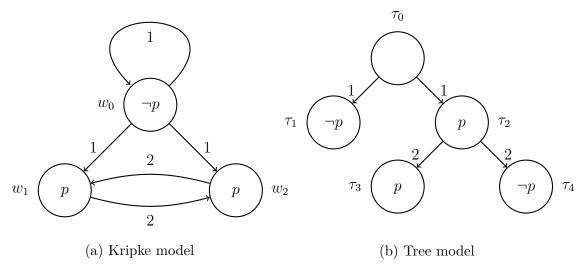


Figure 2.2: Models that satisfy  $\varphi$  of Example 2

important role, we will take this opportunity to define them, and next, we will mention some interesting results concerning our modal language.

By a tree  $\mathcal{T}$  we mean a relational structure (T, S) where T is a set of nodes and S is a binary relation among these nodes. T contains a unique  $r_0 \in T$  (called the root) such that all other nodes in T are reachable from  $r_0$ , that is, for all  $t \in T$ , with  $t \neq r_0$ , we have  $S^*r_0t$ , besides that, every element of T, distinct from  $r_0$ , has a unique S-predecessor, and the transitive and reflexive closure  $S^+$  is acyclic, that is, for all  $t \in T$ , we have  $\neg S^*tt$  [1].

A tree model is a Kripke model  $(W, w_0, R, \pi)$ , with  $\mathcal{A} = \{1\}$ , where (W, R) is a tree and  $w_0$  is its root. A tree-like model for  $K_n$  is a model  $(W, w_0, R_1, \ldots, R_n, \pi)$ , with  $\mathcal{A} = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ , such that  $(W, \cup_{i \in \mathcal{A}} R_i)$  is a tree, with  $w_0$  as the root.

Let  $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \dots, R_a, \pi)$  be a tree-like model for  $K_n$ . We define the  $depth : W \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$  of a world  $w \in W$ , as the length of the path from  $w_0$  to w through the union of the relations in  $\mathcal{M}$ . We sometimes say depth of  $\mathcal{M}$  to mean the largest path from the root to any world in W.

The following theorems are particular cases of the ones presented in [1].

**Theorem 2.2.1.** Let  $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$  be a formula and  $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \dots, R_n, \pi)$  be a model. Then  $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi$  if and only if there is a tree-like model  $\mathcal{M}'$  such that  $\mathcal{M}' \models \varphi$ . Moreover,  $\mathcal{M}'$  is finite and its depth is bounded by  $\mathsf{mdepth}(\varphi)$ .

**Theorem 2.2.2.** Let  $\varphi, \varphi' \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$  and  $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \dots, R_n, \pi)$  be a tree-like model such that  $\mathcal{M} \models \varphi$ . If  $(\varphi', \lambda', ml) \in \tau(\varphi, 1, 0)$  and  $\varphi'$  is satisfied in  $\mathcal{M}$ , then there is  $w \in W$ , with depth(w) = ml, such that  $\langle \mathcal{M}, w \rangle \models \varphi'$ . Moreover, the subtree rooted at w has height equals to  $mdepth(\varphi')$ .

For the global satisfiability problem of a modal logic we need to add the universal modality,  $\[ \]$ , to the original modal language [10]. Let  $K_n^*$  be the logic obtained by adding  $\[ \]$  to  $K_n$ . A model  $\mathcal{M}^*$  for  $K_n^*$  is the pair  $(\mathcal{M}, R_*)$ , where  $\mathcal{M} = (W, w_0, R_1, \ldots, R_n, \pi)$  is a tree-like model for  $K_n$  and  $R_* = W \times W$ . The global satisfiability problem is equivalent to the satisfiability problem in the following sense: a formula  $\[ \] \varphi$  is satisfied at the world  $w \in W$ , in the model  $\mathcal{M}^*$ , written  $\langle \mathcal{M}^*, w \rangle \models \[ \] \varphi$ , if, and only if, for all  $w' \in W$ , we have that  $\langle \mathcal{M}^*, w' \rangle \models \varphi$ . Therefore, let  $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{K_n}$  be a formula, we say that  $\varphi$  is globally satisfiable in a model  $\mathcal{M}$ , denoted  $\mathcal{M} \models_G \varphi$ , if, and only if,  $\mathcal{M}^* \models \[ \] \varphi$ .

#### 2.2.1 Proof Systems

#### 2.3 Normal Form

In general terms, a normal form is an elegant representation of an equivalence class. The equivalence relation in question may determine what kind of normal form is used. The relation considered in this work relates two formulae if whenever one is satisfiable, the other one also is. Normal forms can provide constructive proofs of many standard results [8]. This happens because formulae translated into a normal form have a specific structure and possibly less operators, which may implicate into a smaller number of rules for a proof system.

Formulae in  $K_n$  can be transformed into a layered normal form called *Separated Normal Form with Modal Levels*, denoted by  $\mathsf{SNF}_{ml}$ , proposed in [12]. A formula in  $\mathsf{SNF}_{ml}$  is a conjunction of *clauses* where the modal level in which they occur is emphasized as a label.

We write  $ml: \varphi$  to denote that  $\varphi$  occurs at modal level  $ml \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{*\}$ . By  $*: \varphi$  we mean that  $\varphi$  is true at all modal levels. Formally, let  $\mathrm{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}^{ml}$  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 tree-like model and take  $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$ .

#### **Definition 7** Satisfiability of labelled formulae is given by:

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

Observe that the labels in formulae work as a kind of *weak* universal operator, allowing us to reason about a set of formulae that are all satisfied at a given modal level.

Clauses in  $\mathsf{SNF}_{ml}$  are defined as follows.

**Definition 8** Clauses in  $SNF_{ml}$  are in one of the following forms:

- 1. Literal clause  $ml: \bigvee_{b=1}^{r} l_b$
- 2. Positive a-clause  $ml: l' \Rightarrow \boxed{a} l$
- 3. Negative a-clause  $ml: l' \Rightarrow \diamondsuit l$

where  $r, b \in \mathbb{N}, ml \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{*\}$  and  $l, l', l_b \in \mathcal{L}$ .

Positive and negative a-clauses are together known as modal a-clauses, the index a can be omitted if it is clear from the context.

The transformation of a formula  $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$  into  $\mathsf{SNF}_{ml}$  is achieved by first transforming  $\varphi$  into its *Negation Normal Form*, and then, recursively applying rewriting and renaming [14].

**Definition 9** Let  $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_n$ . We say that  $\varphi$  is in Negation Normal Form (NNF) if it contains only the operators  $\neg, \lor, \land, \boxed{a}$  and  $\diamondsuit$ . Also, only propositions are allowed in the scope of negations.

Let  $\varphi$  be a formula and t a propositional symbol not occurring in  $\varphi$ . The translation of  $\varphi$  is given by  $0: t \wedge \rho(0: t \Rightarrow \varphi)$  – for global satisfiability, the translation is given by  $*: t \wedge (\rho(*: t \Rightarrow \varphi)$  – where  $\rho$  is the translation function defined below. We refer to clauses of the form 0: D, for a disjunction of literals D, as initial clauses.

**Definition 10** The translation function  $\rho: \mathrm{WFF}^{ml}_{\mathsf{K}_n} \longrightarrow \mathrm{WFF}^{ml}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$  is defined as follows:

$$\rho(ml:t\Rightarrow\varphi\wedge\psi)=\rho(ml:t\Rightarrow\varphi)\wedge\rho(ml:t\Rightarrow\psi)$$

$$\rho(ml:t\Rightarrow\varpi\varphi)=(ml:t\Rightarrow\varpi\varphi), \text{ if }\varphi\text{ is a literal}$$

$$=(ml:t\Rightarrow\varpi t')\wedge\rho(ml+1:t'\Rightarrow\varphi), \text{ otherwise}$$

$$\rho(ml:t\Rightarrow\diamondsuit\varphi)=(ml:t\Rightarrow\diamondsuit\varphi), \text{ if }\varphi\text{ is a literal}$$

$$=(ml:t\Rightarrow\diamondsuit t')\wedge\rho(ml+1:t'\Rightarrow\varphi), \text{ otherwise}$$

$$\rho(ml:t\Rightarrow\varphi\vee\psi)=(ml:\neg t\vee\varphi\vee\psi), \text{ if }\psi\text{ is a disjunction of literals}$$

$$=\rho(ml:t\Rightarrow\varphi\vee t')\wedge\rho(ml:t'\Rightarrow\psi), \text{ otherwise}$$

Where  $t, t' \in \mathcal{L}, \varphi, \psi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}, \ ml \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{*\} \ \text{and} \ r, b \in \mathbb{N}.$ 

As the conjunction operator is commutative, associative and idempotent, we will commonly refer to a formula in  $\mathsf{SNF}_{ml}$  as a set of clauses.

The next lemma, taken from [13], shows that the transformation into  $\mathsf{SNF}_{ml}$  preserves satisfiability.

**Lemma 2.3.1.** Let  $\varphi \in \mathsf{WFF}_{\mathsf{K}_n}$  be a formula and let t be a propositional symbol not occurring in  $\varphi$ . Then:

- (i)  $\varphi$  is satisfiable if, and only if,  $0: t \wedge \rho(0: t \Rightarrow \varphi)$  is satisfiable;
- (ii)  $\varphi$  is globally satisfiable if, and only if,  $*: t \wedge \rho(*: t \Rightarrow \varphi)$  is satisfiable;

### 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 [3].

The standard rule for resolution systems takes two or more premises with literals that are contradictory, and generates a resolvent. Most of these systems work exclusively with clauses in a specific normal form. Resolution systems are refutational systems, that is, to show that a formula  $\varphi$  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  $\varphi$  is valid.

#### 3.1 Clausal Resolution

Clausal resolution was proposed as a proof method for classical logic by Robinson in 1965 [15], and was claimed to be suitable to be performed by computer, as it has only one inference rule that is applied exhaustively.

### Satisfiability Solvers

The problem of determining whether a formula in classical propositional logic is satisfiable has the historical honor of being the first problem ever shown to be NP-Complete [5]. 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 [9]. In essence, SAT solvers provide a generic combinatorial reasoning and search platform.

In the context of SAT solvers for propositional provers, the underlying representational formalism is propositional logic [9]. We are interested in formulae in *Conjunctive Normal Form* (CNF):  $\varphi$  is in CNF if it is a conjunction of *clauses*, where each clause is a disjunction of literals. For example,  $\varphi = (p \vee \neg q) \wedge (\neg p \vee r \vee s) \wedge (q \vee r)$  is a CNF formula with four literals and three clauses.

A propositional formula  $\varphi$  takes value in the set  $\{false, true\}$ . A truth assignment (or just assignment) to a set of literals  $\mathcal{L}$  is a map  $\sigma : \mathcal{L} \longrightarrow \{false, true\}$ . A satisfying assignment for  $\varphi$  is an assignment  $\sigma$  such that  $\varphi$  evaluates to true under  $\sigma$ .

Therefore, the *Boolean Satisfiability Problem* (SAT) can be expressed as: Given a CNF formula  $\varphi$ , does  $\varphi$  have a satisfying assignment? One can be interested not only in the answer of this decision problem, but also in finding the actual assignment that satisfies the formula, when it exists. All practical SAT solvers do produce such assignment [6].

#### 4.1 The DPLL Procedure

A complete solution method for the SAT problem is one that, given the input formula  $\varphi$ , either produces a satisfying assignment for  $\varphi$  or proves that it is unsatisfiable. One of the most surprising aspects of the relatively recent practical progress of SAT solvers is that

the best complete methods remain variants of a process introduced in the early 1960's: the DPLL procedure [9], which performs a backtrack search in the space of partial truth assignments [7]. A key feature of DPLL is efficient pruning of the search space based on falsified clauses. Since its introduction, the main improvements to DPLL have been smart branch selection heuristics, extensions like clause learning and randomized restarts, and well-crafted data structures such as lazy implementations and watched literals for fast unit propagation [9].

```
Algorithm 1: DPLL-recursive(F, \rho)
   Input: A CNF formula F and an initially empty partial assignment \rho
   Output: UNSAT, or an assignment satisfying F
 1 (F, \rho) \leftarrow \text{UnitPropagate}(F, \rho)
 2 if F contains the empty clause then
 з | return UNSAT
 4 end
 5 if F has no clauses left then
       Output \rho
       return SAT
8 end
9 l \leftarrow a literal not assigned by \rho
10 if DPLL-recursive(F|_{l}, \rho \cup \{l\}) = SAT then
    \mathbf{I} return SAT
12 end
13 return DPLL-recursive(F|_{\neg l}, \rho \cup \{\neg l\})
```

#### 4.2 Conflict Driven Clause Learning

```
Algorithm 2: CDCL(F, \nu)

Input:
Output:

1 if UnitPropagate(F, \nu) == CONFLICT then

2 | return UNSAT

3 end

4 dl \leftarrow 0

5 while not \ AllVariablesAssigned(F, \nu) do

6 | (x, \nu) \leftarrow PickBranchingVariable(F, \nu)

7 end

8 return SAT
```

### 4.3 MiniSat

Minisat [16]

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