

Introduction to Hybrid Logic

Patrick Blackburn



Department of Philosophy, Roskilde University, Denmark

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- We measured the expressivity. In essence, \downarrow gives us “the logic of locality”, or more precisely, the fragment of the correspondence language that is invariant under generated submodels.
- And this fragment is well behaved. Completeness is easy to obtain for any pure axiomatisation, and indeed, interpolation holds for any pure logic.
- But we pay a price, losing both the finite model property and decidability.

Today: First-order hybrid logic

In today's lecture we shall:

- Informally discuss first-order modal logic and first-order hybrid logic via lots of examples.
- Define first-order hybrid logic more precisely, focusing on its syntax, semantics, and tableau rules. We'll also look at some of the things we can state in first-order hybrid logic.
- And \downarrow really comes into its own.

First-order modal logic

What happens when modal states are inhabited by kings, queens, and presidents, and we want to talk about them using the full resources of first-order logic? That is, what happens if we upgrade the propositional language underlying our modal/hybrid languages to a full first-order language?

Well, semantically it's pretty easy. Intuitively, a first-order modal model consists of a Kripke model with a first order model (D, I) attached to every state.

The traditional syntactic choice is to blend of modal and first-order syntax to make statements about these models.

We are going to develop a blend of hybrid and first-order syntax which we feel is better suited for this purpose.

There are good reasons for doing this

Intuitive — this choice will enable us to express the sort of distinctions that are needed.

Technical — there are lots of problems in traditional first-order modal logic, and hybridization provides a way round them.

Definite descriptions

Consider the sentence

The queen of Holland will die.

With

- q a constant representing *the queen of Holland*
- D a unary predicate representing *to die*, and
- $\langle F \rangle$ a diamond meaning *sometime in the future*

we can formalize the sentence as

$$\langle F \rangle D(q).$$

The queen of Holland

It seems that the following argument is valid:

Everybody will die. There is a queen of Holland.

Thus

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But in such a model $D(q)$ is always false. So $\langle F \rangle D(q)$ is always false.

???

Ambiguity

The problem is this: “The Queen of Holland will die” is ambiguous. It has at least two different readings:

wide scope The **present** queen of Holland will die.

narrow scope Sometime in the future, the **then present** queen of Holland dies.

The term “the queen of Holland” contains a hidden reference to the time of evaluation. In English we can make this explicit using phrases like “present” and “then present”.

Capturing the ambiguity in standard modal logic

You can capture the wide scope reading in orthodox modal logic.
Here's how:

$$\exists x(x = q \wedge \langle F \rangle D(x)).$$

But now compare this with the way we can handle this in hybrid logic ...

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Different scopes yield different inferences

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But on the narrow scope reading it is not:

$$\forall x \langle F \rangle D(x), \exists x (x = q) \not\models \langle F \rangle \downarrow s. D(@_s q).$$

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2. $\langle F \rangle \downarrow s. \text{Hip}(@_s q)$ *Holland will have a hip queen*

Wait — hipness is clearly a predicate which changes its meaning over time. So there is another ambiguity here

*Will she be hip according to our standards of hipness
now, or to the hipness criteria in the future?*

The second formula expresses the latter. Can we express the first?

With the help of \downarrow and $@$ we can ...

Holland will have a hip queen according to todays standards of hipness.

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$\downarrow t. \langle F \rangle \downarrow s. @_t \text{Hip}(@_s q)$

That is, we evaluate the hipness predicate at the **present** time, with respect to the individual who will **then** be the Queen of Holland.

More royals

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But this conflicts with Leibniz's Principle. . .

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- Hence by modus ponens: $\models q = o \rightarrow [F](q = o)$.

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But this not: $@_sq = @_so \rightarrow [F] \downarrow s. (@_sq = @_so)$.

Compare with the first order: $\not\models f(x) = g(x) \rightarrow \forall x(f(x) = g(x))$.

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- 4) $@_i \langle F \rangle j$
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- 4) $@_i \langle F \rangle j$
- 4') $\neg @_j (@_i q = @_i o)$

But equality is a **rigid predicate**: it's meaning does not change over time. Hence 3 and 4' contradict each other. When we specify our tableau system we will have to include rules to make such contradictions explicit.

Wrap up

This concludes our informal discussion. Before turning to the technical development, let's sum up what we have learned:

- If we put an orthodox modal language together with a first order language together, then:
 - Some familiar and desired laws fail: e.g., $\not\models c=d \rightarrow [F] c=d$.
 - Some readings of natural language sentences cannot be expressed.
- It also seems clear that we need a mechanism to deal with the hidden variables in terms:
 - The \downarrow @ combination is a natural solution (especially if we let ourselves apply @ to terms).

Other solutions are possible

In particular, in “First-Order Modal Logic”, by Fitting & Mendelsohn, Kluwer, 1998 (an excellent place to find out more about first-order modal logic) the use of λ abstraction over formulas is explored.

$$< \lambda x. \langle F \rangle D(x) > (q) \quad \text{vs} \quad \langle F \rangle < \lambda x. D(x) > (q)$$

$$\downarrow s. \langle F \rangle D(@_s q) \quad \text{vs} \quad \langle F \rangle \downarrow s. D(@_s q)$$

Of course, \downarrow and $@$ are not new machinery bolted on to cope with problems at the first-order level: they were designed to solve problems at the propositional level. That they solve problems at the first-order level is a pleasant bonus, not their *raison d'être*.

Options for models

When we define our models we must make several design choices:

Domains Constant or varying?

Terms Partial designation or not?

Predicates Range over locally existing or over all possible objects?

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 - It assigns to each n -place relation symbol R and to each $w \in W$, some n -place relation on U . *Predicates range over possible objects, so "Napoleon is a man" is ok.*
 - It also assigns appropriate values to propositional symbols and nominals, for we can think of these as 0-place relation symbols

Formulas

A Quantified hybrid logic is obtained by combining a standard first-order language with a language of hybrid logic (with \downarrow). The only change is in the treatment of constants: the only terms we have are

- Ordinary first order variables
- If w is a nominal or state variable and c a constant, then $@_w c$ is a term.

In orthodox first-order modal logic it is typically assumed that all constants are rigid. We take the reverse approach: all constants are non-rigid, and must be explicitly rigidified using $@$.

Evaluating formulas

The satisfaction definition has the form one would expect: we define

$$\mathfrak{M}, w, g, v \models \phi$$

ϕ is true in model \mathfrak{M} at world w under the assignment g to the state variables and the assignment v to the first order variables.

- For atomic formulas the truth definition is provided by I .
- The quantifiers range only over the locally existing individuals.

Denotations of terms

Let $\mathfrak{M} = (W, R, D, U, I)$ be a model, let g be an assignment to state variables in \mathfrak{M} , let v be an assignment to first-order variables in \mathfrak{M} . As usual, the denotation of a state variable or a nominal in \mathfrak{M} is the unique state where it is true (g provides this information for state variables, I provides it for nominals).

Let τ be any term. Then $[g, I, v](\tau)$, the **denotation** of τ with respect to \mathfrak{M} , g , and v is defined as follows:

$$[g, I, v](x) = v(x),$$

$$[g, I, v](@_w c) = I(c, u), \text{ where } u \text{ is the denotation of } w.$$

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Sample satisfaction clauses

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Example: asserting existence

Claim:

A constant c denotes something that exists at the state t
if and only if

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there exists a $d \in D(t)$ such that $I(t, c) = d$.

Example: rigid terms

Claim: We can express that a constant is rigid in models in which there is a path between every two worlds.

c designates the same individual in every world in \mathfrak{M}
if and only if

$$\mathfrak{M} \models \downarrow s. [F] \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c).$$

If we know a term is rigid, we write just c instead of $@_i c$.

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Thus $\mathfrak{M}, i \not\Vdash \downarrow s. [F] \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c)$.

Proof, \Downarrow

Suppose that for some $i, j, \mathfrak{M}, i \not\models \downarrow s. \textcolor{blue}{[F]} \downarrow t. (\@_s c = \@_t c)$.

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Suppose that for some i, j , $\mathfrak{M}, i \not\models \downarrow s.[F] \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c)$.
Then $\mathfrak{M}, i \models \neg \downarrow s.[F] \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c)$.

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Then there exists a j such that $R(i, j)$ and

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But this means that c is not rigid.

Tableau Calculus

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As you will see, this gives the quantifier rules the same format as the diamond and box rules.

Quantifier rules

For c a constant, abbreviate $@_i \exists x (x = @_i c)$ by $E_i(c)$. Read this as “ c exists at state i ”.

Existential rule

$$\frac{@_i \exists x \phi}{E_i(c)} \quad \text{for } c \text{ a new constant symbol}$$
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$$@_i \phi [x \leftarrow @_i c]$$

Universal Rule

$$\frac{@_i \forall x \phi \quad E_i(c)}{@_i \phi [x \leftarrow @_i c]}$$

Note the analogy of form with the diamond and box rules.

Equality rules

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Equality is a rigid predicate.

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Reflexivity

$$\frac{}{@_i c = @_i c}$$

Equality rules

Replacement

$$\frac{@_i c = @_j d \quad \phi(@_i c)}{\phi(@_j d)}$$

Example derivation: Abraham Lincoln

Adapted from “First-Order Modal Logic”, Fitting & Mendelsohn, Kluwer, 1998.

Let p be a constant standing for *the president of the United States*.

Let a be a constant denoting *Abraham Lincoln*.

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It is natural to consider a to be a *rigid* constant, so we'll write a instead of $@_i a$.

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- $[F] Tall(a)$. It will always be true of Abraham Lincoln that he is tall.
- $\langle F \rangle \downarrow s. Tall(@_s p)$. It will happen that the president of the United States is tall.

$$\models (\langle F \rangle \downarrow s. (@_s p = a) \wedge [F] \textit{Tall}(a)) \rightarrow \langle F \rangle \downarrow s. \textit{Tall}(@_s p)$$

$$\models (\langle F \rangle \downarrow s. (@_s p = a) \wedge [F] \text{ Tall}(a)) \rightarrow \langle F \rangle \downarrow s. \text{ Tall}(@_s p)$$

$$1) \quad @_i \langle F \rangle \downarrow s. (@_s p = a)$$

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| 3) | $@_j (@_j p = a)$ | \downarrow rule on 2' |
| 4) | $@_j p = a$ | Rigidity rule on 3 |
| 5) | $@_j Tall(a)$ | Box rule on 1', 2 |
| 6) | $@_j Tall(@_j p)$ | Replacement on 4, 5 |
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| 8) | $\neg @_j Tall(@_j p)$ | \downarrow rule on 7 |

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$$\perp_{6,8}$$

A dynamic logic example

Adapted from “First-Order Modal Logic”, Fitting & Mendelsohn, Kluwer, 1998.

- The Kripke structures model the states of a machine doing a computation.
- Every state in the model corresponds to a state of the machine. The relation in the model corresponds to the performance of a computation step.
- In our example, states give the integer values of program variables, and the computation step is *adding one*
- We will prove that program variables are not rigid. (Our constants are the program variables).

What we will prove:

We denote the program variables by constants c . The value of a program variable c in a computation state s is then $@_s c$.

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then	$\neg \downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c)$	c is not rigid.
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The tableau proof

- | | | |
|----|---|--------------------|
| 1. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \exists x(x = @_s c))$ | Assumption 1 |
| 2. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \forall x(@_s x \neq @_s(x + 1)))$ | Assumption 2 |
| 3. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_s(c + 1)))$ | Assumption 3 |
| 4. | $@_i(\Diamond \top)$ | Assumption 4 |
| 5. | $\neg @_i(\neg \downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ | Negated conclusion |

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|----|----------------------------|-------------------------|
| 6. | $@_i \exists x(x = @_i c)$ | \downarrow rule on 1. |
|----|----------------------------|-------------------------|

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|----|---|-------------------------|
| 6. | $@_i \exists x(x = @_i c)$ | \downarrow rule on 1. |
| 7. | $@_i(\forall x(@_i x \neq @_i(x + 1)))$ | \downarrow rule on 2. |

The tableau proof

- | | | |
|----|---|--------------------|
| 1. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \exists x(x = @_s c))$ | Assumption 1 |
| 2. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \forall x(@_s x \neq @_s(x + 1)))$ | Assumption 2 |
| 3. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_s(c + 1)))$ | Assumption 3 |
| 4. | $@_i(\Diamond \top)$ | Assumption 4 |
| 5. | $\neg @_i(\neg \downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ | Negated conclusion |

First we derive that $@_i c \neq @_i(c + 1)$:

- | | | |
|----|---|---------------------------|
| 6. | $@_i \exists x(x = @_i c)$ | \downarrow rule on 1. |
| 7. | $@_i(\forall x(@_i x \neq @_i(x + 1)))$ | \downarrow rule on 2. |
| 8. | $@_i(@_i c \neq @_i(c + 1))$ | \forall rule on 6 and 7 |

The tableau proof

- | | | |
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| 1. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \exists x(x = @_s c))$ | Assumption 1 |
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| 8. | $@_i(@_i c \neq @_i(c + 1))$ | \forall rule on 6 and 7 |
| 9. | $@_i c \neq @_i(c + 1)$ | by \neq rigidity on 8 |

The tableau proof continued

Now we derive that $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$ for some R successor j of i :

- 3. $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_s(c + 1)))$ Assumption 3
- 4. $@_i(\Diamond \top)$ Assumption 4
- 10. $@_i \Diamond j$ \Diamond rule on 4.

The tableau proof continued

Now we derive that $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$ for some R successor j of i :

- 3. $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_s(c + 1)))$ Assumption 3
- 4. $@_i(\Diamond \top)$ Assumption 4
- 10. $@_i \Diamond j$ \Diamond rule on 4.
- 11. $@_i \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_i(c + 1))$ \downarrow rule on 3

The tableau proof continued

Now we derive that $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$ for some R successor j of i :

- | | | |
|-----|--|------------------------|
| 3. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_s(c + 1)))$ | Assumption 3 |
| 4. | $@_i(\Diamond \top)$ | Assumption 4 |
| 10. | $@_i \Diamond j$ | \Diamond rule on 4. |
| 11. | $@_i \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_i(c + 1))$ | \downarrow rule on 3 |
| 12. | $@_j \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_i(c + 1))$ | \Box rule on 10,11 |

The tableau proof continued

Now we derive that $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$ for some R successor j of i :

- | | | |
|-----|--|-------------------------|
| 3. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_s(c + 1)))$ | Assumption 3 |
| 4. | $@_i(\Diamond \top)$ | Assumption 4 |
| 10. | $@_i \Diamond j$ | \Diamond rule on 4. |
| 11. | $@_i \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_i(c + 1))$ | \downarrow rule on 3 |
| 12. | $@_j \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_i(c + 1))$ | \Box rule on 10,11 |
| 13. | $@_j (@_j c = @_i(c + 1))$ | \downarrow rule on 12 |

The tableau proof continued

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- | | | |
|-----|--|-------------------------|
| 3. | $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_s(c + 1)))$ | Assumption 3 |
| 4. | $@_i(\Diamond \top)$ | Assumption 4 |
| 10. | $@_i \Diamond j$ | \Diamond rule on 4. |
| 11. | $@_i \Box \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_i(c + 1))$ | \downarrow rule on 3 |
| 12. | $@_j \downarrow t. (@_t c = @_i(c + 1))$ | \Box rule on 10,11 |
| 13. | $@_j (@_j c = @_i(c + 1))$ | \downarrow rule on 12 |
| 14. | $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$ | by rigidity on 13 |

Derive the contradiction

We derive the contradiction using the negated conclusion:

- 5. $\neg @_i(\neg \downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ Negated conclusion
- 9. $@_i c \neq @_i(c + 1)$
- 10. $@_i \Diamond j$
- 14. $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$

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10. $@_i \Diamond j$

14. $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$

15. $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ \neg rule on 5

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10. $@_i \Diamond j$

14. $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$

15. $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ \neg rule on 5

16. $@_i(\Box \downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \downarrow rule on 15

Derive the contradiction

We derive the contradiction using the negated conclusion:

5. $\neg @_i(\neg \downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ Negated conclusion

9. $@_i c \neq @_i(c + 1)$

10. $@_i \Diamond j$

14. $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$

15. $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ \neg rule on 5

16. $@_i(\Box \downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \downarrow rule on 15

17. $@_j(\downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \Box rule on 10, 16

Derive the contradiction

We derive the contradiction using the negated conclusion:

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15. $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ \neg rule on 5

16. $@_i(\Box \downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \downarrow rule on 15

17. $@_j(\downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \Box rule on 10, 16

18. $@_j(@_i c = @_j c)$ \downarrow rule on 17

Derive the contradiction

We derive the contradiction using the negated conclusion:

- 5. $\neg @_i(\neg \downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ Negated conclusion
- 9. $@_i c \neq @_i(c + 1)$
- 10. $@_i \Diamond j$
- 14. $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$

- 15. $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ \neg rule on 5
- 16. $@_i(\Box \downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \downarrow rule on 15
- 17. $@_j(\downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \Box rule on 10, 16
- 18. $@_j(@_i c = @_j c)$ \downarrow rule on 17
- 19. $@_i c = @_j c$ rigidity rule on 18

Derive the contradiction

We derive the contradiction using the negated conclusion:

- 5. $\neg @_i(\neg \downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ Negated conclusion
- 9. $@_i c \neq @_i(c + 1)$
- 10. $@_i \Diamond j$
- 14. $@_j c = @_i(c + 1)$

- 15. $@_i(\downarrow s. \Box \downarrow t. (@_s c = @_t c))$ \neg rule on 5
- 16. $@_i(\Box \downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \downarrow rule on 15
- 17. $@_j(\downarrow t. (@_i c = @_t c))$ \Box rule on 10, 16
- 18. $@_j(@_i c = @_j c)$ \downarrow rule on 17
- 19. $@_i c = @_j c$ rigidity rule on 18
- 20. $@_i c = @_i(c + 1)$ replacement on 19, 14

Expressing domain conditions by pure axioms

It is easy to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathfrak{M} \text{ has expanding domains} \\ \text{if and only if} \\ \mathfrak{M} \models \downarrow s. (\exists x (x = @_s c) \rightarrow \textcolor{blue}{[F]} \exists x (x = @_s c)). \end{aligned}$$

And it is easy to find a pure axiom for contracting domains. The conjunction of these two axioms characterizes constant domains. Adding these axioms to our tableau system gives us complete systems for expanding, contracting, and constant domains. But we can be smarter than this and add rules instead...

Implementing constraints on the domains

	<i>condition</i>	<i>tableau rule</i>
Expanding	$R_{xy} \wedge c \in D(x) \Rightarrow c \in D(y)$	$\frac{@_i \langle F \rangle j \quad E_i(c)}{E_j(c)}$
Contracting	$R_{xy} \wedge c \in D(y) \Rightarrow c \in D(x)$	$\frac{@_i \langle F \rangle j \quad E_j(c)}{E_i(c)}$
Constant	$c \in D(x) \Rightarrow c \in D(y)$	$\frac{E_i(c)}{E_j(c)}$

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Results

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- All completeness results for specific frame classes are inherited from propositional hybrid logic with \downarrow . That is, any extension via pure formulas is automatically complete. This result covers all the philosophically “standard” orthodox first-order modal logics.
- Adding the appropriate domain rule yields completeness for such domains for **all** these logics. A uniform modal construction works for **all** these logics. (No such general modal construction is known in orthodox first-order modal logic).
- Moreover, **all** these logic have interpolation, and the tableau system can be used to compute interpolants. (Kit Fine showed that interpolation almost never holds in orthodox first-order modal logic).

Summing up ...

- Many natural language expressions contain an implicit reference to situation where they are evaluated. Because \downarrow and @ allow evaluation points to be named and manipulated, hybrid logic handles a number of traditional “problems” smoothly.
- Hybridizing orthodox modal logic is a straightforward extension of what we saw in the propositional case. But one new idea is natural: use @ as term rigidifier, not just as a modality.
- Orthodox first-order modal logic inherits all propositional hybrid logics general completeness and interpolation results.