Non-classical logics

Lecture 8: Modal logics (Part 1)

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Extensions of classical logic by means of new logical operators Modal logic

- modal operators \Box , \diamondsuit

meaning of $\Box A$	meaning of $\diamond A$	
A is necessarily true	A is possibly true	
An agent believes A	An agent thinks A is possible	
A is always true	A is sometimes true	
A should be the case	A is allowed	
A is provable	A is not contradictory	

Logics related to modal logic

Dynamic logic of programs

Operators:

 α A: A holds after every run of the (non-deterministic) process α

 α A: A holds after some run of the (non-deterministic) process α

Logics related to modal logic

Temporal logic

- $\Box A$: A holds always (in the future)
- $\Diamond A$: A holds at some point (in the future)
- $\circ A$: A holds at the next time point (in the future)
- A until B A must remain true at all following time points until B becomes true

Extensions of classical logic: Modal logic and related logics

Very rich history.

Antiquity and middle ages

John Duns Scotus (1266 - 1308)



Reasoned informally in a modal manner, mainly to analyze statements about possibility and necessity.

William of Ockham (1288 - 1348)



In addition to his work on De Morgan's Laws and ternary logic, he also analyzed statements about possibility and necessity.

Beginning of modern modal logic

Clarence Irving Lewis (1883-1964)



founded modern modal logic in his 1910 Harvard thesis.

Saul Kripke (1940-)



In 1959, **Saul Kripke** (then a 19-year old Harvard student) introduced the possible-worlds semantics for modal logics.

Ruth C. Barcan, later Ruth Barcan Marcus (1921-2012)



Developed the first axiomatic systems of quantified modal logic.

Temporal logic and dynamic logic

Arthur Norman Prior (1914-1969)

Created modern temporal logic in 1957



Vaughan Pratt (1944-)

Introduced dynamic logic in 1976.



Amir Pnueli (1941-2009)



In 1977, proposed using temporal logic to formalise the behaviour of continually operating concurrent programs.

Modal logic

In classical logic, it is only important whether a formula is true In modal logic, it is also important in which

- way
- mode
- state
- a formula is true

Modal logic

A formula (a proposition) is

- necessarily / possibly true
- true today / tomorrow
- believed / known
- $\bullet\,$ true before / after an action / the execution of a program

New operator \Box / \diamond

(or families of such operators)

Propositional modal logic

- Syntax
- Inference systems and proofs
- Semantics

Soundness and completeness

Decidability

Literature

Modal, temporal and dynamic logic

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Modal and temporal logic

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Modal and temporal logic

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Syntax

- propositional variables
- logical symbols: $\{\lor, \land, \neg, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow, \Box, \diamondsuit\}$

Let Π be a set of propositional variables.

We use letters P, Q, R, S, to denote propositional variables.

Propositional Formulas

 F_{Π} is the set of propositional formulas over Π defined as follows:

F, G, H	::=	\perp	(falsum)
		Т	(verum)
		$P, P \in \Pi$	(atomic formula)
		$\neg F$	(negation)
		$(F \wedge G)$	(conjunction)
		$(F \lor G)$	(disjunction)
		$(F \rightarrow G)$	(implication)
		$(F \leftrightarrow G)$	(equivalence)
		$\Box F$	
		◇F	

Informal Interpretations of $\hfill\square$

 $\Box F$ can mean:

- F is necessarily true
- *F* is always true (in future states/words)
- an agent a believes F
- an agent a knows *F*
- F is true after all possible executions of a program p

Informal Interpretations of $\hfill\square$

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Notation: If necessary write

 $\Box_a F, \Box_p F, [a] F, [p] F$

instead of $\Box F$.

Informal Interpretations of \Box , \diamondsuit

meaning of $\Box A$	meaning of $\Diamond A = \neg \Box \neg A$
A is necessarily true	A is possibly true
A is always true	A is sometimes true
Agent <i>a</i> believes <i>A</i>	Agent A thinks A is possible
Agent <i>a</i> believes <i>A</i>	A is consistent with a's beliefs
Agent a knows A	a does not know ¬A
A should be the case	A is allowed
A is provable	A is not contradictory
A holds after every run of the	A is true after at least one
(non-deterministic) program <i>p</i>	possible execution of program <i>p</i>

There are three wise men, three red hats, and two white hats. The king puts a hat on each of the wise men in such a way that they are not able to see their own hat.

He then asks each one in turn whether he knows the color of his hat.

The first man says he does not know.

The second man says he does not know either.

What does the third man say?

There are three wise men, three red hats, and two white hats. The king puts a hat on each of the wise men in such a way that they are not able to see their own hat.

He then asks each one in turn whether he knows the color of his hat.

The first man says he does not know.

The second man says he does not know either.

What does the third man say?

- if there is only one red hat, he will answer "red"
- if there are two red hats, the wearers will know this after the question is repeated
- if there are three red hats, the question has to be is repeated once more

Three children are playing in the garden and some of the children get mud on their foreheads.

Each child can see the mud on others only.

Now consider two scenarios:

• The father repeatedly asks "Does any of you know whether you have mud on your forehead?".

All children answer "no" the first time, and continue to answer "no" to repetitions of the same question.

 The father tells the children that at least one of them is muddy and repeatedly asks "Does any of you know whether you have mud on your forehead?". After the question has been asked ≤ 3 times, the muddy children will answer "yes." Consider the second scenario.

- k = 1. There is only one muddy child, which will answer "yes" because of the father's statement.
- k = 2. If two children, call them *a* and *b*, are muddy, they both answer "no" the first time. But both *a* and *b* then reason that the other muddy child must have seen someone with mud on his forehead, and hence answer "yes" the second time.
- $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{3}$. Let *a*, *b*, and *c* be the muddy children. Everybody answers "no" the first two times. But then *a* reasons that if *b* and *c* are the only muddy children they would have answered "yes" the second time (based on the argument for the case k = 2). Since they answered "no," *a* further reasons, they must have seen a third child with mud, which must be me. Children *b* and *c* reason in the same way, and all three children answer "yes" the third time.

Note that the father's announcement makes it common knowledge among the children that at least one child is muddy. A group of children is playing in the garden and some of the children, say k of them, get mud on their foreheads. Each child can see the mud on others only. Note that if k > 1, then every child can see another with mud on its forehead.

The father tells the children that at least one of them is muddy and repeatedly asks "Does any of you know whether you have mud on your forehead?".

After the question has been asked k times, the k muddy children will answer "yes".

Formalizing the Wise-Men Puzzle

Notation:

r_i means "man *i* wears a red hat"*w_i* means "man *i* wears a white hat"

The situation can be described by the following formulae:

$$\{ (r_1 \lor r_2 \lor r_3), \neg (r_1 \land w_1), \neg (r_2 \land w_2), \neg (r_3 \land w_3), \neg w_1 \leftrightarrow r_1, \neg w_2 \leftrightarrow r_2, \neg w_3 \leftrightarrow r_3 \\ (r_1 \to \Box_2 r_1), (w_1 \to \Box_2 w_1), (r_1 \to \Box_3 r_1), (w_1 \to \Box_3 w_1), \\ (r_2 \to \Box_1 r_2), (w_2 \to \Box_1 w_2), (r_2 \to \Box_3 r_2), (w_2 \to \Box_3 w_2), \\ (r_3 \to \Box_1 r_3), (w_3 \to \Box_1 w_3), (r_3 \to \Box_2 r_3), (w_3 \to \Box_2 w_3) \}$$

Facts:

 $\neg \Box_1 r_1, \neg \Box_2 r_2$

Formalization

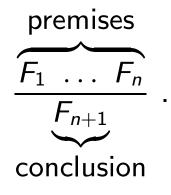
- Formalize the properties of \Box_i
- Entail the truth of certain formulae

Proof Calculi/Inference systems and proofs

Inference systems Γ (proof calculi) are sets of tuples

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(F_1, \ldots, F_n, F_{n+1}), n \ge 0,
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called inferences or inference rules, and written



Inferences with 0 premises are also called axioms.

Proofs

A proof in Γ of a formula F from a a set of formulas N (called assumptions) is a sequence F_1, \ldots, F_k of formulas where

(i)
$$F_k = F$$
,

(ii) for all $1 \le i \le k$: $F_i \in N$, or else there exists an inference $(F_{i_1}, \ldots, F_{i_{n_i}}, F_i)$ in Γ , such that $0 \le i_j < i$, for $1 \le j \le n_i$.

Provability

Provability \vdash_{Γ} of F from N in Γ : $N \vdash_{\Gamma} F$: \Leftrightarrow there exists a proof Γ of F from N.

Inference system for modal logic

Acceptable axioms:

- All axioms of propositional logic (e.g. $p \lor \neg p$)
- $(\Box A \land \Box (A \to B)) \to \Box B$
- $\Box(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (\Box A \rightarrow \Box B)$

Inference system for modal logics

Acceptable axioms:

- All axioms of propositional logic (e.g. $p \lor \neg p$)
- $(\Box A \land \Box (A \to B)) \to \Box B$
- $\Box(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (\Box A \rightarrow \Box B)$

Acceptable inference rules



Remark: Accepting the last inference rule is not the same with accepting $A \rightarrow \Box A$ as an axiom!

Task: Check whether the following can be proved the inference system of modal logic indicated on page 33:

 $\{\Box(A \land B)\} \vdash \Box A \land \Box B$

Example of proof

Task: Check whether $\{\Box(A \land B)\} \vdash \Box A \land \Box B$

1.	$\Box(A \wedge B)$	premise
2.	$A \wedge B \to A$	theorem prop. logic
3.	$A \wedge B o B$	theorem prop. logic
4.	$\Box(A \land B \to A)$	necessitation 2.
5.	$\Box(A \land B \to B)$	necessitation 3.
6.	$\Box(A \wedge B) \wedge \Box(A \wedge B o A)$	theorem prop. logic $(1, 5)$
7.	$\Box(A \wedge B) \wedge \Box(A \wedge B o B)$	theorem prop. logic $(1, 6)$
8.	$\Box(A \wedge B) \wedge \Box(A \wedge B o A) o \Box A$	Ax1
9.	$\Box A$	MP (6, 8)
10	$\Box(A \wedge B) \wedge \Box(A \wedge B o B) o \Box B$	Ax1
11	$\Box B$	MP (7, 9)
12	$\Box A \wedge \Box B$	theorem prop. logic

The modal system *K*

Axioms:

- All axioms of propositional logic (e.g. $p \lor \neg p$)
- $\bullet \ \Box(A \to B) \to (\Box A \to \Box B)$

Inference rules



(K)