Software Validation and Verification Section II: Model Checking Topic 4. Linear Temporal Logic

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### Syntax

- $\Sigma$  = set of atoms or propositions. Example:  $\Sigma = \{p, q, r\}$
- $\bullet$  usual propositional operators  $\bot,\top,\wedge,\vee,\neg,\rightarrow,\leftrightarrow$
- plus modal operators to talk about (linear) time

### Modal operators:

- unary operators:
  - □ = "forever" ◊ = "eventually"
  - ) = "*next*"
- binary operators:

```
  \mathcal{U} = "until" \\ \mathcal{W} = "until" (weak version) \\ \mathcal{R} = "release" (dual of <math>\mathcal{U})
```

# Propositional Linear-time Temporal Logic (LTL)

#### • Precedence of operators

| More priority | $\neg \Box \diamondsuit \bigcirc$     |
|---------------|---------------------------------------|
| left assoc.   | $\mathcal{U} \mathcal{R} \mathcal{W}$ |
|               | $\wedge$                              |
|               | $\vee$                                |
|               | $\rightarrow$                         |
| Less priority | $\leftrightarrow$                     |

• Examples:

$$p \mathcal{W} \diamond q \wedge r = (p \mathcal{W} (\diamond q)) \wedge r$$
$$\Box p \mathcal{U} \neg q \mathcal{R} r \rightarrow s = \left( ((\Box p) \mathcal{U} \neg q) \mathcal{R} r \right) \rightarrow s$$

# **Semantics**

### Definition 1 (State)

Given a set of propositions  $\Sigma$ , a state *s* is a truth valuation  $s : \Sigma \longrightarrow \{ True, False \}.$ 

It can be represented as the set of (true) atoms. Example: if  $\Sigma = \{p, q, r\}$  state  $s = \{p, r\}$  means s(p) = True, s(q) = False, s(r) = True.

### Definition 2 (Interpretation or trace)

An *interpretation* (or *trace*) M is an infinite sequence of states  $s_0, s_1, s_2, ...$ 



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#### Definition 3 (Satisfaction)

Let  $M = s_0, s_1, \ldots$  with  $i \ge 0$ . We say that  $M, i \models \alpha$  when:

- $M, i \models p$  if  $p \in s_i$  (for  $p \in \Sigma$ )
- $M, i \models \Box \alpha$  if  $M, j \models \alpha$  for all  $j \ge i$
- $M, i \models \Diamond \alpha$  if  $M, j \models \alpha$  for some  $j \ge i$
- $M, i \models \bigcirc \alpha$  if  $M, i + 1 \models \alpha$
- $M, i \models \alpha \ U \ \beta$  if there exists  $n \ge i$ ,  $M, n \models \beta$  and  $M, j \models \alpha$  for all  $i \le j < n$ .
- $M, i \models \alpha \mathcal{W} \beta$  if  $M, i \models \Box \alpha$  or  $M, i \models \alpha \mathcal{U} \beta$



•  $\alpha \mathcal{U} \beta$  = repeat  $\alpha$  until (mandatorily)  $\beta$ 



•  $\alpha \mathcal{R} \beta$  = there is a  $\alpha$  before any state in which  $\neg \beta$ 





This is equivalent to  $\Diamond \beta$ .

⊥ R β = there is a ⊥ before any state with ¬β.
 That is, we cannot have ¬φ, i.e., β must hold forever □β



- Interpretation *M* is a *model* of theory Γ, written *M* ⊨ Γ, iff *M*, 0 ⊨ α for each formula α ∈ Γ.
- Formula α is inconsistent or unsatisfiable iff it has no models.
   α is a tautology or is valid iff any interpretation is a model of α.
- α is a "logical consequence of" or "is entailed by" Γ, written Γ ⊨ α, iff any model of Γ satisfies α. Therefore, when Γ = Ø, what does ⊨ α mean?
- Two formulas are equivalent iff they have the same models.
- LTL satisfies  $\{\alpha\} \models \beta$  iff  $\models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$

In particular,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are equivalent iff  $\models \alpha \leftrightarrow \beta$ .

# Some interesting equivalences

| $\Diamond \alpha$          | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\top \mathcal{U} \alpha$   | (1)  |
|----------------------------|-------------------|---|------|
| $\Box \alpha$              | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\perp \mathcal{R} \ \alpha$                                      | (2)  |
| $\Box \alpha$              | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\neg \Diamond \neg \alpha$                                       | (3)  |
| $\Diamond \alpha$          | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\neg \Box \neg \alpha$   | (4)  |
| $\Box \alpha$              | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\alpha \wedge \bigcirc \Box \alpha$                              | (5)  |
| $\Diamond \alpha$          | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\alpha \vee \bigcirc \Diamond \alpha$                            | (6)  |
| $\alpha \mathcal{U} \beta$ | $\leftrightarrow$ | $(\alpha \ \mathcal{W} \ \beta) \land \Diamond \beta$             | (7)  |
| $\alpha \mathcal{W} \beta$ | $\leftrightarrow$ | $(\alpha \ \mathcal{U} \ \beta) \lor \Box \alpha$                 | (8)  |
| $\alpha \mathcal{U} \beta$ | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\beta \lor \alpha \land \bigcirc (\alpha \ \mathcal{U} \ \beta)$ | (9)  |
| $\alpha \mathcal{R} \beta$ | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\neg(\neg \alpha \ \mathcal{U} \ \neg \beta)$                    | (10) |
| $\alpha \mathcal{R} \beta$ | $\leftrightarrow$ | $\beta \mathcal{W} (\alpha \wedge \beta)$                         | (11) |

- LTL can be seen as a fragment of First Order Logic (predicate calculus)
- *MFO*(<) = Monadic First Order Logic with < relation
  - ► All predicates are monadic (1 argument) p(x), q(y), ...
  - except binary (infix) predicate  $x \le y$ , a linear ordering
  - ► arguments *x*, *y* represent time points
  - constant 0 represents initial time point
- Example:  $\Box p$  can be translated as  $\forall x (x \ge 0 \rightarrow p(x))$

# (Monadic) First Order Logic

• We adopt some useful abbreviations

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x = y & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} & x \leq y \land y \leq x \\ & x < y & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} & x \leq y \land \neg (y \leq x) \\ & x \leq y \leq z & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} & x \leq y \land y \leq z \\ & \exists x \geq i : \alpha(x) & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} & \exists x(i \leq x \land \alpha(x)) \\ & \forall x \geq i : \alpha(x) & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} & \forall x(i \leq x \rightarrow \alpha(x)) \\ & \exists x \in i..j : \alpha(x) & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} & \exists x(i \leq x \leq j \land \alpha(x)) \\ & \forall x \in i..j : \alpha(x) & \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} & \forall x(i \leq x \leq j \land \alpha(x)) \end{array}$$

• We use function '+1' whose meaning can be defined with axiom:

$$(x+1) = y \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} x < y \land \neg \exists z (y < z \land z < x)$$

# Kamp's translation

Temporal formula  $\alpha$  at time point *i* becomes *MFO*(<) formula  $\alpha(i)$ 

The translation is correct:

Theorem 4

 $M, i \models \alpha$  if and only if  $M \models \alpha(i)$  in MFO(<)

but in fact ...

Theorem 5 (Kamp's theorem, 1968)

LTL is exactly as expressive as MFO(<):

- As we saw, any LTL formula can be naturally written in MFO(<)
- The real interest of this theorem is the other direction: any MFO(<) formula can be expressed back in LTL</li>

# Kamp's translation

- Example: prove the tautology  $\neg(\alpha \ \mathcal{U} \ \beta) \leftrightarrow \neg \alpha \ \mathcal{R} \ \neg \beta$
- Assume any arbitrary time point  $i \ge 0$ . Then:

$$\begin{array}{lll} (\neg(\alpha \ \mathcal{U} \ \beta))(i) & \leftrightarrow & \neg (\alpha \ \mathcal{U} \ \beta)(i) \\ & \leftrightarrow & \neg \exists j \ge i : (\beta(j) \land (\forall k \in i..j-1:\alpha(k))) \\ & \leftrightarrow & \forall j \ge i : \neg(\beta(j) \land (\forall k \in i..j-1:\alpha(k))) \\ & \leftrightarrow & \forall j \ge i : (\neg\beta(j) \lor \neg(\forall k \in i..j-1:\alpha(k))) \\ & \leftrightarrow & \forall j \ge i : (\neg\beta(j) \lor (\exists k \in i..j-1:\gamma\alpha(k))) \\ & \leftrightarrow & \forall j \ge i : ((\neg\beta)(j) \lor (\exists k \in i..j-1:(\neg\alpha)(k))) \\ & \leftrightarrow & (\neg \alpha \ \mathcal{R} \ \neg\beta)(i) \end{array}$$

• Example 2: prove the tautology  $\Box \alpha \leftrightarrow \alpha \land \bigcirc \Box \alpha$ 

$$(\Box lpha)(i) \iff orall j \ge i : lpha(j) \ \leftrightarrow lpha(i) \land orall j \ge i + 1 : lpha(j) \ \leftrightarrow lpha(i) \land (\Box lpha)(i + 1) \ \leftrightarrow lpha(i) \land (\bigcirc \Box lpha)(i) \ \leftrightarrow (lpha \land \bigcirc \Box lpha)(i)$$

### **Exercise 1**

Prove validity of (6) and (9).

### Exercise 2

Prove the validity of the following formulas:

 $\begin{array}{ccc} \beta & \to & \Diamond \beta \\ \beta & \to & \alpha \, \mathcal{U} \, \beta \\ \alpha \, \mathcal{U} \, \beta & \to & \Diamond \beta \end{array}$ 



## Exercises

### Exercise 3

Which are the models of  $\perp Up$ ? Which are the models of  $(\bigcirc p) U \neg p$ ?

#### **Exercise 4**

Define an operator  $\mathcal{B}$  ("before") so that  $\alpha \ \mathcal{B} \ \beta$  means for any state in which  $\beta$  will occur, then some  $\alpha$  will occur before.

### Exercise 5

Try to express the formula whose models satisfy: p is true in all even states  $0, 2, 4, \ldots$  and false in odd states.

### Exercise 6

Try to express the formula whose models satisfy: p is true in all even states  $0, 2, 4, \ldots$  varying p freely in odd states.

### Syntax and semantics

## 2 Specification with LTL

3 Complexity and expressiveness

4 Deductive system

### 5 Semantic tableaux

Figure out the meaning of these example formulas:

- $\Box((\neg passport \lor \neg ticket) \to \bigcirc \neg board))$
- $\Box$ (requested  $\rightarrow \Diamond$  received)
- $\Box$ (received  $\rightarrow \bigcirc$  processed)
- $\Box$ (processed  $\rightarrow \Diamond \Box$  done)
- "It can't be that we continually resend a request that is never done." The statement: □requested ∧ □¬done should be inconsistent.

That is, we should be able to derive  $\Box$  requested  $\rightarrow \Diamond$  done.

# An example: trains crossing



- Railroad, single rail and a road level-crossing.
- Goal: specifying properties to be satisfied.
- Propositions representing events
  - a = "A train is approaching"
  - c = "A train is crossing"
  - ▶ ℓ = "The ℓight is blinking"
  - b = "The barrier is down"

# Safety properties

### Safety property = something *bad* never happens = $\Box \neg bad$ .



- When a train is crossing, the barrier must be down Solution:  $\Box(c \rightarrow b) \equiv \Box \neg (c \land \neg b)$
- If a train is approaching or crossing, the light must be blinking Solution: □(a ∨ c → ℓ) ≡ □¬((a ∨ c) ∧ ¬ℓ)
- If the barrier is up and the light is off, then no train is coming or crossing. Solution: □(¬b ∧ ¬ℓ → ¬a ∧ ¬c) ≡ □¬(¬b ∧ ¬ℓ ∧ (a ∨ c))

Counterexamples of safety properties □¬bad

- It suffices with showing finite prefix of the counterexample trace until bad occurs
- For instance, a counterexample of  $\Box(c \rightarrow b)$  is a trace satisfying  $\diamondsuit(c \land \neg b)$



The states from  $S_5$  on are irrelevant and we can only focus on the execution from  $S_1$  to  $S_4$ 

Liveness property = something *initiated* eventually *terminates* =  $\Box$ (*initiated*  $\rightarrow$   $\Diamond$ *terminates*)

- When a train is approaching, a train will eventually cross Solution: □(a→ ◊c)
- Sometimes we can use  $\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{W}$  or  $\mathcal{R}$  to propagate a condition until termination.
- When a train is approaching (and nobody is crossing), the barrier will be eventually down before it crosses (if it does so)
   Solution: □(a ∧ ¬c → ¬c W b)
- If a train finishes crossing, the barrier will be eventually risen Solution: □(c ∧ ○¬c → ○◇¬b) Altenative: □¬(c ∧ c U(¬c ∧ □b)) ≡ □(c → ¬c R(¬c → ◇¬b))

# Liveness properties

Counterexamples of liveness properties □(*initiated* → ◊*terminates*)
 A finite prefix does not suffice

For instance, a counterexample of □(a → ◊c) is a trace satisfying ◊(a ∧ □¬c)



• Fortunately, in LTL, if a formula has a model (or a countermodel) it also has at least a cyclic model, i.e., it has a periodic prefix that iterates forever



- Something happens infinitely often = □◊something.
   Example: The barrier is risen infinitely often = □◊¬b
- The dual is a latching condition = ◊□α.
   Example: at a given point, no more trains are approaching = ◊□¬a

Fairness means that if a choice holds sufficiently often, then it is taken sufficiently often. Some examples:

- Unconditional or absolute fairness (a.k.a. impartiality) every process should be executed infinitely often □◊ executed<sub>i</sub>
- Strong fairness every process enabled infinitely often should be executed infinitely often □◊enabled<sub>i</sub> → □◊executed<sub>i</sub>
- Weak fairness every process permanently enabled after some point should be executed infinitely often

   ○□enabled<sub>i</sub> → □◇executed<sub>i</sub>



- 2 Specification with LTL
- 3 Complexity and expressiveness
- 4 Deductive system
- 5 Semantic tableaux

- In complexity theory, solving a decision problem means building an algorithm that, in a finite number of steps, answers yes or no to a given input query.
- For instance, SAT (propositional satisfiability, i.e., "does a formula *α* have any model?") is a decision problem, and its complexity class is NP-complete.
- Other examples of **NP**-complete problems are: the Travelling Salesman problem, the Graph Coloring problem, Subset Sum problem (find non-empty subset of integers that sum 0).



- A Turing Machine (TM) is a theoretical device that operates on an infinite tape with cells containing symbols in a finite alphabet (including the blank or '0')
- The TM has a current state *S<sub>i</sub>* among a finite set of states (including '*Halt*'), and a head pointing to the "current" cell in the tape.
- It has an associated transition function that describes the next step.

• Example: with scanned symbol 0 and state q<sub>4</sub>, write 1, move *Left* and go to state q<sub>2</sub>. That is:



- A decision problem consists in providing a given tape input and asking the Turing Machine for a final output symbol answering *Yes* or *No*.
- Example: *SAT* = given (an encoding of) a propositional formula, does it have at least one model?
- A decision problem is in complexity class **P** iff the number of steps carried out by the TM is polynomial on the size *n* of the input.

# Meaning of NP-completeness

- Now, a non-deterministic Turing Machine (NDTM) is such that the transition function is replaced by a transition relation.
- We may have different possibilities for the next step.
- Example: *t*(0, *q*<sub>4</sub>, 1, *Left*, *q*<sub>2</sub>), *t*(0, *q*<sub>4</sub>, 0, *Right*, *q*<sub>3</sub>)



- Keypoint: an NDTM provides an affirmative answer to a decision problem when at least one of the executions for the same input answers *Yes*.
- A decision problem is in class **NP** iff the number of steps carried out by the NDTM is polynomial on the size *n* of the input.
- For *SAT*, we can build an NDTM that performs two steps:
  - For each atom, generate 1 or 0 nondeterministically. This provides an arbitrary interpretation in linear time.
  - 2 Test whether the current interpretation is a model or not.

The sequence of these two steps takes polynomial time.

Unsolved problem

$$\mathbf{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{NP}$$

- It is one of the 7 Millenium Prize Problems
   http://www.claymath.org/millennium/P\_vs\_NP/

   The Clay Mathematics Institute designated \$1 million prize for its
   solution!

- A problem *X* is **C**-complete, for some complexity class **C**, iff any problem *Y* in **C** is reducible to *X* in polynomial-time.
- A complete problem is a representative of the class. Example: if an NP-complete problem happened to be in P then P = NP.
- *SAT* was the first problem to be identified as **NP**-complete (Cook's theorem, 1971).
- *SAT* is commonly used nowadays for showing that a problem *X* is at least as complex as **NP**. To this aim, just encode *SAT* into *X*.

#### Theorem 6

[Halpern & Reif 1981], [Sistla & Clarke, 1982] LTL-satisfiability is **PSPACE**-complete.

- **PSPACE** is the set of decision problems that can be solved by a Turing Machine using a polynomial amount of space (for a finite, unlimited time).
- There is no difference when the machine is non-deterministic **NPSPACE** = **PSPACE** [Savitch 1970].
- On the other hand, NP ⊆ PSPACE. Again, unsolved question NP <sup>?</sup> = PSPACE but strongly suspected to be ≠.
- Other **PSPACE**-complete problems are: Quantified Boolean Formula satisfiability, AI-Planning (STRIPS) existence of plan.

# LTL and automata

- An finite state machine or finite automaton is a tuple (Q, A, δ, q<sub>0</sub>, F) where
  - Q is a finite set of states
  - A is a finite set called the alphabet
  - $\delta: Q \times A \rightarrow Q$  is the transition function
  - q<sub>0</sub> is the initial state
  - F is the set of accepting or final states
- Example: this automaton recognizes words containing an even



number of 0's

# LTL and automata

- ω-automata are a variation where the accepted language consists of words of infinite length. They define different acceptance conditions (when we consider a word to be "accepted")
- A Büchi automaton (BA) is an ω-automaton with the acceptance condition: There is some run that visits (at least) one of the states in F infinitely often
- Example: this automaton recognizes the language  $(0+1)^*0^\omega$



- During model checking, LTL properties are translated into "equivalent" BA's
- By equivalent we mean they recognize the same language. The BA alphabet *A* corresponds to the set of possible LTL states.
- Example: if the formula uses atoms  $\Sigma = \{p, q\}$  then  $A = 2^{\Sigma} = \{\emptyset, \{p\}, \{q\}, \{p, q\}\}$
- Usually, each BA arc is labelled with a set of states that yield the same transition. This set of states is actually represented as an LTL formula.

# LTL and automata

- A language accepted by a non-deterministic BA is called regular ω-language.
- An important restriction: LTL is less expressive than Büchi automata.
- For instance, Exercise 6 (make *p* true in even states and free in all the rest) cannot be represented in *LTL* whereas it is accepted by the Büchi automaton:



• Other temporal logics do cover regular  $\omega$ -languages.

## Outline

### Syntax and semantics

- 2 Specification with LTL
- 3 Complexity and expressiveness
- 4 Deductive system
- 5 Semantic tableaux

Inference or formal proof: we make syntactic manipulation of formulae. To do so, we use:

- An initial set of formulae: axioms.
- Syntactic manipulation rules: inference rules.
- As a result of applying these rules, we go obtaining new formulae: theorems

- Notation: Γ ⊢ α means that formula α can be derived or inferred from theory Γ.
- Usually, axioms are not represented inside Γ. Thus, ⊢ α means that α is a theorem (from logic L).
- Given a language  $\mathcal{L}$ , a logic L is a subset of  $\mathcal{L}$ . It can be defined:
  - Semantically:  $\mathbf{L} = \{ \alpha \in \mathcal{L} \mid \models \alpha \}.$
  - Syntactically:  $\mathbf{L} = \{ \alpha \in \mathcal{L} \mid \vdash \alpha \}.$
- What should we expect from an inference method?
  - Soundness (or correctness): if  $\vdash \alpha$  then  $\models \alpha$
  - Completeness: if  $\models \alpha$  then  $\vdash \alpha$

# A deductive system

We define the LTL deductive system as follows.

Axioms:

Ax0 PC

**Ax1** 
$$\vdash \Box(\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow (\Box \alpha \rightarrow \Box \beta)$$

**Ax2** 
$$\vdash \bigcirc (\alpha \rightarrow \beta) \rightarrow (\bigcirc \alpha \rightarrow \bigcirc \beta)$$

**Ax3** 
$$\vdash \Box \alpha \rightarrow (\alpha \land \bigcirc \alpha \land \bigcirc \Box \alpha)$$

**Ax4** 
$$\vdash \Box(\alpha \to \bigcirc \alpha) \to (\alpha \to \Box \alpha)$$

**Ax5** 
$$\vdash \bigcirc \alpha \leftrightarrow \neg \bigcirc \neg \alpha$$

Any substitution instance of any Propositional Calculus tautology Distribution of  $\Box$  over  $\rightarrow$ Distribution of  $\bigcirc$  over  $\rightarrow$ Expansion of  $\Box$ Induction Linearity

Inference rules:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{MP} & \frac{\vdash \alpha, \ \vdash \alpha \rightarrow \beta}{\vdash \beta} & \textbf{Modus Ponens} \\ \textbf{N} & \frac{\vdash \alpha}{\vdash \Box \alpha} & \textbf{Necessitation} \end{array}$$

# A deductive system

An example of a proof

Theorem 7 (transitivity)

 $\vdash \Box \Box p \leftrightarrow \Box p$ 

Proof:

1. 
$$\vdash \Box \Box p \rightarrow \Box p$$
 Ex

 2.  $\vdash \Box p \rightarrow \bigcirc \Box p$ 
 Ex

 3.  $\vdash \Box (\Box p \rightarrow \bigcirc \Box p)$ 
 Ne

 4.  $\vdash \Box (\Box p \rightarrow \bigcirc \Box p) \rightarrow (\Box p \rightarrow \Box \Box p)$ 
 Inc

 5.  $\vdash \Box p \rightarrow \Box \Box p$ 
 Mc

 6.  $\vdash \Box \Box p \leftrightarrow \Box p$ 
 P.C

Expansion Expansion Necessitation on 2 Induction Modus Ponens on 3,4 P.C. 1,5 Q.E.D.

### Derived inference rules:



### These rules can be derived from previous axioms and rules.

# A deductive system

### Exercises

Exercise 7

Prove the following theorems:

 $dash \Box (p \land q) \leftrightarrow \Box p \land \Box q$  $dash \Diamond (p \lor q) \leftrightarrow \Diamond p \lor \Diamond q$ 

#### **Exercise 8**

Prove the theorem

 $\vdash \Box p \lor \Box q \rightarrow \Box (p \lor q)$ 

and find a counterexample for:

 $\Box(p \lor q) \to \Box p \lor \Box q$ 

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- For simplicity, we assume  $\alpha \to \beta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \neg \alpha \lor \beta$  and  $\alpha \leftrightarrow \beta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\alpha \land \beta) \lor (\neg \alpha \land \neg \beta)$
- With respect to Propositional Calculus tableaux, we add unfolding rules for modal operators as follows:

#### Propositional Calculus rules

Modal rules

| Formula                    | Branch 1                  | Branch 2    | Formula                    | Branch 1                                     | Branch 2                    |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|-------------|----------------------------|--|-----------------------------|
| $\alpha \vee \beta$        | $\alpha$                  | $\beta$     | $\Box \alpha$              | $\alpha,\bigcirc \Box \alpha$                |                             |
| $\alpha \wedge \beta$      | lpha,eta                  |             | $\neg \diamondsuit \alpha$ | $\neg \alpha, \neg \bigcirc \Diamond \alpha$ |                             |
| $\neg(\alpha \lor \beta)$  | $\neg \alpha, \neg \beta$ |             | $\Diamond \alpha$          | $\alpha$                                     | $\bigcirc \Diamond \alpha$  |
| $\neg(\alpha \land \beta)$ | $\neg \alpha$             | $\neg\beta$ | $\neg \Box \alpha$         | $\neg \alpha$                                | $\neg \bigcirc \Box \alpha$ |
| $\neg \neg \alpha$         | $\alpha$                  |             |                            |  |                             |

- When these rules are exhausted, each tableau leaf is boxed and (partially) represents a state
- The state usually contains ○-formulas like ○α or ¬ α. In such a case, we generate a transition to a next state whose content is fixed with the new rules:

| Formula                | Next state    |
|------------------------|---------------|
| $\bigcirc \alpha$      | α             |
| $\neg \bigcirc \alpha$ | $\neg \alpha$ |

• We can reach a state repeated in previous tableau node. If so, we just label the previous node and reuse it

## Semantic tableaux

• Example: take  $(p \lor q) \land \bigcirc (\neg p \land \neg q)$ 



• Both open branches yield to a transition to a new state where:

$$\neg p \land \neg q$$

 That is, any model of (p ∨ q) ∧ ○(¬p ∧ ¬q) must contain one of the following structures:



 These are called Hintikka structures. They can be expanded to interpretations (arbitrarily completing the truth of the rest of atoms)

## Semantic tableaux

- Example 2: is  $\Box(p \land q) \rightarrow \Box p$  valid?
- We negate the formula and check if we obtain a closed tableau



We would create a new state with  $\Box(p \land q), \Diamond \neg p = l_0$ 

• The tableau is open but generates the following Hintikka structure:



or simply



which is never a model because  $\Diamond \neg p$  is never fulfilled

• For open tableaux, we will have to check fulfillment of  $\Diamond \alpha$  formulas

## Semantic tableaux

● Example □◇*p* 



 $\diamond \alpha$  formulas are fulfilled, so the Hintikka structure represents possible models:

