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MODAL THEORIES WITH INTUITIONISTIC LOGIC

Vladimir H. Sotirov

A few basic types of intuitionistic modalities are considered. The minimal intuitionistic modal logic (IML) is an expansion of the intuitionistic propositional calculus by a new operator M together with the rule $\frac{A = B}{MA = MB}$; the modality M may be interpreted as a "necessity" \Box (with additional axiom $M[A \land B] = MA \land MB$) or as a "possibility" \diamondsuit (axiom $M[A \lor B] = MA \lor MB$) with or without the rules of normalization ($\frac{A}{MA}$ and $\frac{\Box A}{\Box MA}$ respectively). Adequate algebraic, topological, Montague and Kripke semantics are introduced for these basic logics and for some extensions of theirs. A great number of IML-s are proved to have a finite model property (f. m. p.). Examples of IML-s without the f. m. p. are shown, too. A more important example is that of a logic which is an extension of Dummett's LC (it is well known that any non-modal extension of LC has the f. m. p.), its corresponding classical logic has the f. m. p. (moreover, $\Box A = A$ is provable classically and so its classical analogue is fictiously modal), and finally $\Box A = A$ is true on any finite model for that logic (so its proper modal theorems can be separated by infinite models only).

1. INTRODUCTION

If one looks through the existing literature on intuitionistic modal logics he will undoubtedly notice a peculiar regularity: there is an outburst of interest in this topic each decade.

As it seems to us the first relevant paper is the 1948 work of Fitch [19], where he proves by a purely syntactical method some theorems in the intuitionistic modal predicate calculus, extended by Barkan formulas for \Box and \Diamond . In the paper [21] Bull considers the intuitionstic analogue of \$5, introduced by Prior as early as 1957 [20], gives a characterization of its algebraic models and proves the finite model property. Later he achieved the reduction of this system to the monadic intuitionistic predicate calculus [23]. In 1968 Minc gave a deciding algorithm for the same system in [24], where he considered also the intuitionistic predicate calculus, extended with Prior's axioms. Besides this, in 1965 Bull [22] introduced an intuitionistic analogue of \$5\$, which corresponds to our \$15\$ (\Box + \Diamond), and proved by the normal form method a theorem similar to our Corollary 5. He introduced also a system denoted by him \$1M\$ (which we treat here under

the name Mon 3 () in theorem 11), gave an algebraic characterization and using it proved the decidability of IM. In the same paper he investigated several extensions of the same system (amongst which we can find our

IS4 (\Box)) and proved their decidability.

In 1975 there appeared two papers of Gabbay [25, 26]. In the second paper he gave a semantics for the case of IK (\square). In a series of papers [27-31] Fisher-Servi considered the reduction of intuitionistic modal logics to bi-modal logics of S4-type: the S4-modality covers the intuitionistic connectives, and the additional modality represents the intuitionistic modality. In the first paper however she reduced only the intuitionistic \$5 to the bi-modal ${\bf S4\text{-}S5}$ system. In [29] analogously to the monadic algebras of Bull, she defined the monadic Heyting algebras, which serve at the same time to model the monadic predicate calculus and the modal logic from [21]. In the last paper [30] she tried to obtain a Kripke-style semantics from the reduction procedure. Given a bi-modal \$4-logic and a classical modal logic L, she defined the intuitionistic analogue IL as the set of formulas, valid under the reduction into the bi-modal logic (when the second modality of the latter satisfies the axioms of L). This procedure generates a relational semantics. Her basic result is that a formula of the intuitionistic modal logic is valid in the obtained Kripke semantics iff it is provable in the above described sense, i. e. if its traslation is valid in the semantics for the bimodal logic. It is not clear however, whether this analogue is axiomatizable at all and can one get the most natural intuitionistic modal logics as, for example, **1S**4 from [22].

In his recent paper Ono considered several classically equivalent but intuitionistically different analogues of \$\mathcal{S}4\$ and \$\mathcal{S}5\$. He presented a Kripke

semantics and proved the finite model property [32, 33].

As far as [34] and [35] are concerned it should be mentioned that while in the first paper we have a purely syntactical way of introducing intuitionistic modal logic (IML) in the second the author provides a semantics for a minimal non-normal IML. This paper however contains a serious error: the ≤ relation is not in any way connected with R and R* (for the modalities \square and \lozenge). So we cannot prove that from x | -A and $x \le y$ it will always follow $y \vdash A$. Hence, the correctness theorem formulated there is not true and therefore the semantics is not adequate.

This brief historical survey shows that there were at the time of the writing of the material, presented below, several important open questions

in the field of IML:

1) Semantics for the weakest IML-s (non-normal and so on).

2) Syntax and semantics for logics with \Diamond as well as \square .

3) Connections with the classical bi-modal logic and with the bi-topological spaces.

4) General methods for proving decidability.

5) The finite model property of IML-s.

In the present paper we give solutions to some of this problems. Namely we present Montague, topological and Kripke semantics, prove several completeness results. In the last part we study the finite model property (f. m. p.) and show that it is in a way absolute. We give examples of intuitionistic modal extensions of IS4 for which the f. m. p. fails. We discuss also the question of decidability of IML-s.

2. MONTAGUE SEMANTICS

Here we investigate the intuitionistic propositional calculus, extended by a new unary connective M. We call it "modality", but as the only requirement for M is the extensionality principle: if A and B are equivalent, then MA and MB are also equivalent, it is clear that M can be interpreted not only as modality but also as, for example, deontic operator and so on. Different kinds of negation have this property too. Thus one may think a part of this paper as a study of the most general type of negation, added to intuitionistic logic. On the other hand, there are operators, which are clearly non-extensional, e. g. "I know that...": if I know that A and A is equivalent to B then it is not always the case that I know B because the logical equivalence could be unknown to me.

The system under consideration will be called intuitionistic modal pro-

positional logic (IMPL).

The language of *IMPL* contains propositional variables: p, q, r, \ldots ; the propositional constant 0, the connectives \land , \lor , \Rightarrow and \land ; the sequent symbol \leq and parentheses $[\cdot,\cdot]$. The formulas A, B, C, \ldots are obtained from the atomic formulas (variables and 0) by applications of the connectives. The negation of a formula A denoted $\neg A$ is defined as $A \Rightarrow 0$. Further we set $1 = 0 \Rightarrow 0$.

If A and B are formulas, then $A \le B$ is called a sequent. Basic sequents are the sequents of the following kind:

$$A \le A$$
, $A \land B \le A$, $A \land B \le B$, $0 \le A$, $A \le A \lor B$, $B \le A \lor B$, $[A \Rightarrow B] \land A \le B$.

A = B denotes the pair of sequents $\{A \le B, B \le A\}$. The following are the rules of inference:

$$\frac{A \leq B, \ B \leq C}{A \leq C}, \quad \frac{A \leq B, \ A \leq C}{A \leq B \wedge C}, \quad \frac{A \leq C, \ B \leq C}{A \vee B \leq C}, \quad \frac{A \wedge B \leq C}{A \leq B \Rightarrow C}, \quad \frac{A \equiv B}{\mathsf{M}A \leq \mathsf{M}B}$$

(the last rule gives the extensionality principle $\frac{A \equiv B}{MA \equiv MB}$).

A proof is a finite sequence of sequents S_1, \ldots, S_n each member of which S_i satisfies one of the conditions:

- 1. S_i is a basic sequent;
- 2. $(\exists j < i) \frac{S_j}{S_i}$ is an instance of a rule;
- 3. $(\exists j, k < i) \frac{S_j, S_k}{S_i}$ is an instance of a rule.

As usual we call a sequent provable if there exists a proof with last element equal to the sequent.

Definition. A formula A is provable (|-A|) iff the sequent $1 \le A$ is. From now on when mentioning a sequent $A \le B$ we shall consider it provable (unless the contrary is stated explicity).

Proposition 1. $A \leq B$ iff $|-A \Rightarrow B$.

We omit the easy proof.

The logical calculus just introduced will be denoted by M. Usually we shall identify the logics under consideration with the set of formulas pro-

vable in them (and sometimes with the set of provable sequents) and employ the notation L - A for $A \in L$, if L denotes a logic.

We go on now to study the semantical characterization of M.

Definition. A Montague frame is an ordered triple (K, \leq, R) where:

1. $K \neq \emptyset$ is the set of states or possible worlds x, y, z, \ldots

2. \leq is a binary reflexive and transitive relation in K;

3. $R \subseteq K \times 2^K$;

4. for $P \subseteq K$ we have: xRP and $x \le y$ imply yRP.

Definition. A Montague model is an ordered quadruple $\langle K, \leq, \rangle$ $R, \parallel - \rangle$ where: 1. $\langle K, \leq, R \rangle$ is a Montague frame;

2. |- (the forcing) is a relation between states and atomic formulas $(x \parallel - A)$;

3. $(\forall x \in K) \text{ (not } x \mid -0);$

4. $x \le y$ and $x \parallel -A$ imply $y \parallel -A$, for all atomic A.

We can extend the forcing to a relation between elements of K and arbitrary formulas, by induction on the complexity of the formula: $x \parallel -A \wedge B$ iff $x \parallel -A$ and $x \parallel -B$; $x \parallel -A \vee B$ iff $x \parallel -A$ or $x \parallel -B$; $x \parallel -A \Rightarrow B$ iff for all $y \ge x$, $y \parallel -A$ implies $y \parallel -B$; $x \parallel -MA$ iff $x R \{y \mid y \mid -A\}$. Let us note that it follows from the definition that $x \parallel - A$ iff for all $y \ge x$, not y || — A.

From now on we denote $\{x/x \mid -A\}$ by H(A).

Proposition 2. For any formula A, if $x \parallel -A$ and $x \leq y$, then

The proof is by induction on the complexity of A. The case of M follows from the monotonicity condition on \hat{R} : if $x \parallel -MB$ then xRH(B), and from $y \ge x$ it follows that yRH(B), i. e. $y \parallel -MB$.

Proposition 3. In any Montague model for arbitrary x: x = 1. **Definition.** A formula A is true in a model $(K, \leq, R, \parallel -)$ iff for all $x \in K$, $x \parallel -A$. A sequent $A \leq B$ is true in a model iff for all $x \in K$.

 $x \parallel -A$ implies $x \parallel -B$.

Definition. A formula (sequent) is valid in a Montague frame $\langle K, \leq, R \rangle$ iff it is true in all models of the kind $\langle K, \leq, R, \parallel - \rangle$. A formula (sequent) is Montague valid iff it is valid in every Montague frame.

Proposition 4. A formula $A \Rightarrow B$ is true in a model (valid in the frame, valid) iff the sequent $A \le B$ is true in the model (valid in the frame, valid).

The proof is easy. From it we get that a formula A is true in a model iff $1 \le A$ is.

If we denote $\{y \mid x \le y\}$ by L(x), we can introduce set-theoretic operation \Rightarrow as follows:

$$P \Rightarrow Q \equiv \{x \mid L(x) \cap P \subseteq Q\}.$$

Now we can rewrite some of the facts about Montague models. Let xbe a point in a model, A and B — formulas:

$$x \in H(A)$$
 implies $L(x) \subseteq H(A)$;

$$H(0)=\emptyset$$
;

 $H(A \land B) = H(A) \cap H(B);$ $H(A \lor B) = H(A) \cup H(B);$ $H(A \Rightarrow B) = H(A) \Rightarrow H(B);$ $H(MA) = \{x \mid xRH(A)\};$ $A \le B$ is true iff $H(A) \subseteq H(B);$ A = B is true iff H(A) = H(B).

Lemma 1. If a sequent (a formula) is provable, then it is valid.

The proof goes by checking the validity of all basic sequents and estab-

lishing the fact that the rules preserve validity.

For the proof of the converse we need the theory of pseudo-Boolean algebras (cf. [3]). Here we adopt the following view: a pseudo-Boolean algebra (pBa) is an algebra with three binary operations $(\land, \lor, \Rightarrow)$, a constant 0 and a reflexive and transitive relation on it (\leq) , so the difference from the well known definition lies in the fact that \leq is not in general a partial order. But apparently postulating the relation \equiv (where $a \equiv b$ is $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$) to be a congruence, the quotient algebra of \equiv leads to the usual notion of pBa. We prefer this more general approach in order to by-pass the construction of the so-called Lindenbaum algebra and work directly with formulas and not with equivalence classes.

Proposition 5. The set of all formulas in the language of the

calculus M forms a pBa.

Definition. A subset x of a pBa is called a *filter* if:

1) $x \pm \emptyset$:

2) a(x) and $a \le b$ imply b(x);

3) $a \in x$ and $b \in x$ imply $a \land b \in x$.

It is easy to check that these conditions can equivalently be replaced by:

1') a = 1 implies a(x)

2') $a \Rightarrow b(x, a(x \text{ imply } b(x.$

Here 1 is $0 \Rightarrow 0$ or if we set $\exists a = a \Rightarrow 0, 1$ is $\exists 0$.

Definition. A filter is *prime* if it is *proper* (i. e. does not coincide with the whole pBa) and for all a, b: $a \lor b \in x$ implies $a \in x$ or $b \in x$.

It is shown in [3] that for any subset x of a pBa the set $\{c \mid (\exists a_1, \ldots, a_n \in x)a_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge a_n \leq c\}$ is a filter. We say that this is the filter, generated by x. For a given subset x and an element a in a pBa we say that a filter is generated by x and a if it is the filter, generated by $x \cup \{a\}$. We denote this filter by (x, a).

Lemma 2. If x is a filter and $a \Rightarrow b \notin x$, then $b \notin (x, a)$.

Lemma 3. If a filter y_0 does not contain an element b then it can be extended to a proper filter y such that $b \notin y$, too.

These are standard facts and can be found for example in [4].

Lemma 4. If x is a filter, $a \Rightarrow b \notin x$, then there is a prime $y: x \subseteq y$, $a \notin y$, $b \notin y$.

The following notion is dual to the notion of filter. It is studied in detail in [5].

Definition. A subset x of a pBa is called a co-filter if:

1) it is a proper subset;

2) $a \in x$ and $a \le b$ imply $b \in x$; 3) $a \lor b \in x$ imply $a \in x$ or $b \in x$. It is easy to establish the following

Proposition 6. A subset of a pBa is a prime filter iff it is a filter and a co-filter at the same time.

Lemma 5 (interpolation). If x is a filter, m-a co-filter, $x \subseteq m$,

then there is a prime filter y such that $x \subseteq y \subseteq m$.

Proof. Consider the set of all filters z, such that $x \subseteq z \subseteq m$. It is immediately clear that under inclusion this set is a partially ordered set satisfying Zorn conditions. Pick a maximal element y. This y is an extension of x and $y \subseteq m$. We are left to show that y is prime. If $a \lor b \in y$ but neither a(y), nor b(y), then (y, a) and (y, b) are extensions of y and (as can be easily shown) proper. Further $x \subseteq (y, a)$ and $x \subseteq (y, b)$. At least one of them is contained in m, because otherwise we can find $u \in (y, a)$ and $v \in (y, b)$ such that $u \notin m$, $v \notin m$ and consequently $u \lor v \notin m$ (m is a cofilter). From here we get a contradiction by a familiar argument: $u \lor v \in y$ and at the same time $y \subseteq m$.

This proves the lemma.

Now we are able to show the following

Lemma 6. If a sequent (formula) is Montague-valid then it is provable in the calculus M.

Proof. We prove the contraposition: if a formula (or a sequent) is not provable then it is not true in a suitable Montague-model. In fact we can do a bit more — to construct an universal model in the sense that any non-provable formula is refuted in it. Such a model is the cannonical one. Moreover we shall build two models which differ in respect to the definition of R.

Let K be the set of all prime filters in the pBa of formulas. The relations \leq is inclusion — clearly it is transitive and reflexive (in fact — a partial order). Let h(A) denote the set of all prime filters containing A. We can define in two different ways R between prime filters and subsets of K:

$$xR^1P$$
 iff $(\exists A)[P=h(A)$ and $MA(x)$, xR^2P iff $(\forall A)$ [if $P=h(A)$ then $MA(x)$].

 R^1 is familiar from other papers on Montague semantics [6, 7, 11, 13] Unfortunatelly R^1 is not sufficient to cover all the logics (even in the classical case) in which M is interpreted rather as "possibility" then as "necessity". For the former we shall use R^2 .

Now we show that $\langle K, \leq, R^1 \rangle$ and $\langle K, \leq R^2 \rangle$ are Montague frames. Assume that xR^1P , i. e. for some A, P=h(A) and MA(x), and at the same time $x\leq y$ (that is $x\subseteq y$). Clearly we have MA(y), too. So, yR^1P . The monotonicity condition for R^2 is established in the same way. Note that xR^1P implies xR^2P .

We can define Montague models on these two frames, setting $x \parallel -A$

iff A(x), for atomic formulas.

As all prime filters are proper it is clear that $(\forall x)$ (not $x \parallel -0$). Again if $x \leq y$ and $x \parallel -A$, then $y \parallel -A$ (for atomic formulas). Extending $\parallel -$ to

the set of all formulas following the inductive definition, we are able to show that for arbitrary formula $F: x \parallel - F$ iff F(x). The proof of this fact is standard and exploits the properties of the prime filters. We mention explicity only the case of modality M. Consider first the model with R^1 . If $x \parallel - MA$, then $xR^1H(A)$ and there is a formula B such that H(A) = h(B) and MB(x). But using the induction hypothesis we have H(A) = h(A) and so A = B is true in the model. By the extensionality principle we have MA = MB true in the model, and MA(x). In the opposite direction: if MA(x) then, since H(A) = h(A), we immediately get $xR^1H(A)$, therefore $x \parallel - MA$. Now for the model with R^2 : if $x \parallel - MA$, then $xR^2H(A)$ and MA(x). In case MA(x), we have h(A) = h(B) and A = B true in the model, so MA = MB is true. This implies that MB(x) and $xR^2h(A)$ but the induction hypothesis gives h(A) = H(A) and therefore $x \parallel - MA$.

To end the proof assume that $A \le B$ is not provable. Then the filter x_0

To end the proof assume that $A \le B$ is not provable. Then the filter x_0 generated by A is proper (B does not belong to it) and can be extended to a prime filter x, such that $B \notin x$. Then $x \parallel -A$ but $x \parallel -B$ by the previous consideration. Thus the sequent $A \le B$ has at least two countermodels.

In this way we have proved

Theorem 1 (Montague-completeness). A sequent (formula) is provable in *M* iff it is valid.

M is a very general modal logic and the operator M has no special properties besides the extensionality. On the other side the relation R is arbitrary (but monotone with relation to \leq). It is clear that we should be able to treat more specific systems with the connective M containing axioms which describe it either as "necessity" or as a "possibility". We can extend our completeness proof to several such systems just by imposing additional conditions on the relation R. These systems are obtained from our basic system M by additional axioms and additional rules. Sometimes these will be called proper modal axioms and rules.

Definition. A logic L is complete for a class \mathcal{M} of Montague frames if any formula (sequent) is provable in L iff it is valid in every

frame from M.

Now we introduce a two-sorted language of 1st order with three binary predicates: \leq , ϵ , ϵ . The variables of the first sort range over elements of the frames, and variables of the second sort — over special subsets of the frames. A condition ϵ on a frame is simply a formula (or a set of formulas) in this language.

Definition. We say that a sequent S (a rule P) is adequate to a condition C iff the logic with additional axiom S (additional rule P) is complete for the class of Montague frames determinated by the condition C.

In practice we have to check that all additional axioms are valid in all frames of the class, determined by C, that all additional rules preserve this property and, on the other hand, that any unprovable formula has a countermodel in the same class of frames, in order to prove the adequacy. In most of the cases we just show that cannonical frame of the logic belongs to the class of frames satisfying C.

Definition. A logic is *Montague-complete* (or simply complete) if it is complete for some class of frames. (It should be noted that sometimes the class of frames cannot be described in the language we have

introduced.)

Theorem 2. The following axioms and rules are adequate to the conditions on the right:

$MA \wedge MB \leq M[A \wedge B]$ $MA \leq A$	if xRP and xRQ then $xR(P \cap Q)$ if xRP then $x \in P$
M1 (or $\frac{A}{MA}$)	xRK
$M[A \lor B] \le MA \lor MB$ $A \le MA$	if $xR(P \cup Q)$ then xRP or xRQ if $x \in P$ then xRP
$\frac{\neg M0 \text{ (or } \frac{\neg A}{\neg MA})}{}$	not $xR\varnothing$

The proof goes along the lines given above. It is left to the reader to check the validity of the sequents in all frames of the corresponding classes.

It can be seen that the first group of axioms are typical for "necessity" while axioms of the second group exhibit some of the features of "possi-

the axiom $M[A \wedge B] \in X$; besides this $P \cap Q = h(A) \cap h(B) = h(A \wedge B)$, hence $xR^{1}(P \cap Q)$.

We assume that the proof of Theorem 2 is clear now.

A typical rule that distinguishes modalities from other connectives (as negations for example) is the monotonicity rule: $\frac{A \leq B}{MA \leq MB}$. We call a logic monotone if it is closed under this rule.

Proposition 7. Monotonicity is adequate for the condition "if

 $P \subseteq Q$ and xRP, then xRQ".

For the proof of this fact we have to introduce new relations R in the cannonical frame:

$$xR^{10}P$$
 iff $(\exists A)(h(A) \subseteq P \text{ and } MA(x),$
 $xR^{20}P$ iff $(\forall A)(\text{if } h(A) \supseteq P \text{ then } MA(x).$

Now it is not difficult to prove the proposition.

The troubling feature of this method of proof which was originated by Gabbay [6] is that we in fact change the relations in the cannonical frame. Now if the logic is not monotone we have to use R^1 or R^2 but if we add the monotonicity rule, then we are forced to switch to R^{10} or R^{20} . That is why there follows an exposition of a more direct method of proof, that was invented (in the classical case) by Segerberg [7]. His proof however, contains a mistake, corrected in the paper of Chellas and Mc Kinney [8].

We give now the proof of Proposition 7 by a variant of this method. The validity of sequents provable by monotonicity rule in all frames with the corresponding condition was already established, so we treat only the

second half of the proof. By Theorem 1 we have that all unprovable in M sequents are refuted in two models $\langle K, \leq, R^1, | - \rangle$ and $\langle K, \leq, R^2, | - \rangle$. On that base we can define two new models: $\langle K, \leq, R^1, | + \rangle$ and $\langle K, \leq, R^2, | + \rangle$ by postulating

$$xR^{1}P$$
 iff $(\exists P^{-})(P^{-} \subseteq P \text{ and } xR^{1}P^{-}),$
 $xR^{2}P$ iff $(\forall P^{+})(P \subseteq P^{+} \text{ implies } xR^{2}P^{+})$

and $x \parallel \stackrel{*}{=} A$ iff $x \parallel -A$ for atomic formulas A. Clearly R^1 and R^2 are monotone. We are going to show that for an arbitrary A, $x \parallel \stackrel{*}{=} A$ iff $x \parallel -A$, if the logic is a monotone extension of M. All other cases being trivial we check only formulas of the kind MA. Take R^1 : if $x \parallel -MA$ then automatically $x \parallel \stackrel{*}{=} MA$; if $x \parallel \stackrel{*}{=} MA$, then $xR^1H(A)$, i. e. for some P^- : $P^- \subseteq H(A)$ and xR^1P^- , but $P^- = H(B)$ for some formula B (from the definition of R^1) and R^1P^- , but R^1P^- but R^2P^- in is easy to show that R^1P^- implies R^1P^- in the model with R^2P^- it is easy to show that R^1P^- implies R^1P^- in the opposite implication: if not R^1P^- in the for some R^1P^+ and not R^1P^- then there exists R^1P^- such that R^1P^- and R^1P^- in the opposite implication: if R^1P^- in the for some R^1P^- in the formula R^1P^- and not R^1P^- in the property R^1P^- in the formula R^1P^- in the form

 $MB \notin x$. From this and monotonicity we get $MA \notin x$, i. e. not $(x \parallel -M(A))$. By the same method we can prove that for any axiom or rule from Theorem 2, monotonicity rule + axiom are adequate for the condition from Proposition 7 plus the condition from Theorem 2 which corresponds to the axioms or rule. It should be noted that in the papers mentioned above

there is no analogues of our R^2 , R^{20} or R_2^2 .

Now we change the relation R in a Montague frame $\langle K, \leq, R \rangle$ to an operation J, which maps 2^K into 2^K . Define: $JP = \{t \mid tRP\}$. We get the so called modified Montague frame $\langle K, \leq, J \rangle$ and J and R are connected by xRP iff $x \in JP$. Note that we have the following property: if $x \in JP$ and $x \leq y$, then $y \in JP$. Also H(MA) = JH(A). It is easily seen that the two models $\langle K, \leq, R, ||---\rangle$ and $\langle K, \leq, J, ||---\rangle$ are equivalent. Using the new symbols we can simplify and extend Theorem 2 and Proposition 7.

Proposition 8. The following axioms and rules are adequate to

the given conditions:

$\frac{A \leq B}{MA \leq MB},$	if $P \subseteq Q$ then $JP \subseteq JQ$
or $M[A \wedge B] \leq MA$,	or $J(P \cap Q) \subseteq JP$,
or $MA \leq M[A \vee B]$	or $JP \subseteq J(P \cup Q)$
M1 (or $\frac{A}{MA}$)	JK = K
7M 0	$J\varnothing=\varnothing$
$MA \leq A$	$JP \subseteq P$
$MA \leq MMA$	$JP \subseteq JJP$
$A \leq MMA$	$P \subseteq JMP$
¬[A∧MA]	$P \cap JP = \emptyset$
M0	$J\varnothing = K$
$MA \wedge MB \leq M[A \wedge B]$	$JP \cap JQ \subseteq J(P \cap Q)$

7.4	
	$J\varnothing = \varnothing$
$A \leq MA$	$P \subset JP$
$MMA \leq MA$	$JJP \subseteq JP$
$ M[A \lor B] \le MA \lor MB$	$J(P \bigcup Q) \subseteq JP \bigcup JQ$

The proof is left to the reader. We just mention the definition of J^1 (which corresponds to R^1) in the cannonical frame for the axioms of the second group:

$$J^{1}P = \begin{cases} \{x \mid MA(x) \text{ if } P = h(A) \text{ for some } A, \\ \emptyset \text{ otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and J^2 for the axioms of the third group:

$$J^{2}P = \begin{cases} \{x \mid MA(x) \text{ if } P = h(A) \text{ for some } A, \\ K \text{ otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Note that due to the extensionality principle the formula A appears vacuously in the definitions of J.

Sometimes we are interested not only in adequacy (completeness with

respect to some condition) but also in characterizability.

Definition. We say that a formula A (a sequent $A \le B$) characterizes the condition C, if $A(A \leq B)$ is valid in a frame iff this frame satisfies the condition C. A rule P characterizes C if it preserves validity in the frame just in case the frame satisfies C.

Now define a translat on S from the modal language into a set-theoretic language with constants K, \emptyset , \cap , \cup , \Rightarrow , J, \subseteq and variables P, Q, R,..., ranging over cones of K. A cone is a subset of K growing upwards w. r. t. \leq .

$$S(p)=P$$
, $S(q)=Q$,... for propositional variables p , q ,... $S(A \land B)=S(A) \cap S(B)$, $S(A \lor B)=S(A) \cup S(B)$, $S(A\Rightarrow B)=S(A)\Rightarrow S(B)$, $S(MA)=JS(A)$, $S(0)=\emptyset$, $S(1)=K$.

Theorem 3. A formula A characterizes the condition S(A)=K in a Montague frame (K, \leq, J) , a sequent $A \leq B$ characterizes the condition $S(A) \subseteq S(B)$.

The proof is clear. It is sufficient to establish by induction that if for a given f, H(p) = S(p), then for an arbitrary formula A we have the same: H(A) = S(A).

The connection between completeness and characterizability is quite interesting. If a logic L which is obtained by adding an axiom A to M, is complete for any class of frames, then it is complete for the class of frames determined by the condition S(A)=K over cones and this class is the greatest class with such a property. Analogously we can prove

Proposition 9. If a logic with additional axiom $A \le B$ is complete then $S(A) \subseteq S(B)$ over cones determines the maximal class for which the

logic is compiete.

In this way the question about the form of the adequate condition (if the logic is complete) is solved for the case of Montague frames and a useful description of one of the classes for which the logic is complete is given.

3. TOPOLOGICAL SEMANTICS

In this Section we investigate the possibility of topological interpretation for a fairly wide class of *IML*-s and not only for the most "obviuos" one, such as for example intuitionistic S4, taken moreover with "necessity" only. Our aim is to define a suitble translation into bi-modal classical logics, working in a variety of cases (not only in the case of S4-S4 classical bi-modal logic).

The well known Gödel translation W of intuitionistic propositional claculus into S4 has the following characteristic property:

A is provable intuitionistically iff
$$S4 - W(A)$$
.

From this property and the usual Kripke semantics for S4 one can obtain Kripke semantics for intuitionistic propositional calculus [11]. However, S4 has Montague semantics, too. It is interesting to see what kind of semantics does the Gödel translation generate in this case. The answer is: The induced semantics is the topological interpretation, familiar from the days of Tarski and McKincey. Below we generalize this interpretation to IML-s and especially to IS4 (\Box) and IS4 (\Diamond). In fact we give a general translation into the bimodal M-S4 logic and get a semantics for the IML-s, which should be called "Montague-Montague" interpretation.

Definition. A generalized topological space is a set $K \neq \emptyset$, together with two operations on subsets of K:I and J, satisfying:

$$IK = K$$
, $IP \subseteq P$, $IP \subseteq IIP$, $I(P \cap Q) = IP \cap IQ$, $IJP = JP$.

Clearly I is an interior operation and generates a topology in which all sets JP are open. Given a generalized topological space $\langle K, I, J \rangle$ and an evaluation of the propositional variables $p, q, r, \ldots; v(p)$ —an open subset in $\langle K, I \rangle$, we can extend it to evaluation v(A) of an arbitrary formula A:

$$v(A \land B) = v(A) \cap v(B), \quad v(A \lor B) = v(A) \cup v(B),$$
$$v(A \Rightarrow B) = I(\overline{v(A)} \cup v(B)), \quad v(\neg A) = I(\overline{v(A)}),$$
$$v(MA) = Jv(A)$$

(here is the complementation operation). A formula A is called *valid* in space $\langle K, I, J \rangle$ if v(A) = K and *topologically valid* (top-valid) if it is valid in every generalized topological space.

In accord with the natural usage a space with evaluation in it should be called (generalized) topological model. It is easily seen that always v(A) is open.

Now given a Montague model $(K, \leq, J, ||----|)$ we define the corresponding top-model by $t \in IP$ iff $L(t) \subseteq P$; v(p) = H(p) and so on... These two models are equivalent in the following exact sense:

Lemma 7. If (K, 1, J, v) corresponds to $(K, \le, J, ||--|)$ then for any formula A we have v(A) = H(A), i. e. x ||--A| iff $x \in v(A)$.

Proof. By induction on the complexity of A.

By Lemma 7 if a formula (or a sequent) is top-valid it is Montague valid and vice versa. Hence all provable in *M* formulas are top-valid.

Theorem 4 (topological completeness). The logic M is complete for

the class of generalized topological spaces.

How can we go from spaces to frames. Given a space (K, I, J) we define (K, \leq, J) by $x \leq y$ iff $(\forall Q)$ [if $x \in IQ$, then $y \in Q$]. $IQ \subseteq Q$ implies that \leq is reflexive, $IQ \subseteq IIQ$ —the transitivity of \leq . Moreover since JP is open, if $x \in JP$ and $x \leq y$, then $y \in JP$. Unfortunately we cannot prove that the two notions — spaces and frames are equivalent, in particular because every quasi-order generates a topology, but certainly not every topology is generated by a quasi-order (in such topologies for examples we have $I \cap_i P_i = \bigcap_i IP_i$ which is not generally true). We are able however to prove the weaker (but nevertheless usefull)

Lemma 8. If a given additional axiom is without implication (and consequently without negation) and is valid in every Montague frame $\langle K, \leq, J \rangle$ from a class, defined by a condition C on J, then it is valid in every space in the class of spaces $\langle K, I, J \rangle$, determined by the same condition C on J.

This lemma shows that the connection between topological spaces and Montague frames is rather tricky. Nevertheless, it gives the opportunity to automatically transfer results about Montague-completeness to the case of spaces. In the following theorem we describe topologically a wide class of *IML*-s (for the first time):

Theorem 5. Any of the extensions of *M* mentioned in Proposition 8 is complete for the class of generalized topological spaces, satisfying the corresponding adequate condition.

The proof is an easy consequence of Lemma 7 and of the observation that all axioms can be written in the form, required by Lemma 8.

Now, we turn to a more detailed investigation of the intuitionistic analogues of S4. From now on we use \square instead of M. The classical Lewis' system S4 is defined by certain axioms (see [11]), for IS4 (\square) we take the same axioms. In particular $\square A \leq A$, $\square A \leq \square \square A$, $\square [A \wedge B] = \square A \wedge \square B$, $\square 1$ are axioms of IS4 (\square).

By Theorem 5 we have the following adequate conditions for these axioms:

$$JP \subseteq P$$
, $JP \subseteq JJP$, $J(P \cap Q) = JP \cap JQ$, $JK = K$.

It is clear that the operator J becomes a second interior operator and we get a second topology on K, which is weaker then the topology generated by I. If we adopt the name of interior bi-topological spaces for such generalized spaces, where JP is open in the other topology, we can formulate

Corollary 1. 184 () is complete for the class of interior bi-topo-

logical spaces.

If we go from J back to relation R then we get the following:

xRK; if xRP, then $x \in P$; if xRP, then $xR\{y | yRP\}$; if xRP and xRQ, then $xR(P \cap Q)$; if xRP and $P \subseteq Q$, then xRQ; if xRP, then $x \in I\{y \mid yRP\}$.

Reading xRP as "P is a neighborhood of x" we readily recognize in the first five conditions the properties of neighborhoods of points [9]; the last condition expresses the fact that if P is a neighborhood of x, then x belongs to the interior of the set of all points, that have P as neighborhood. If we define the new topology as the collection of all sets that are neighborhoods of all its members, then we have the same topology as generated by J, but "described" in more "antique" way.

It is known that S4 classically can be formulated with "possibility".

Now $184 (\lozenge)$ is the system with additional axioms:

They can be equivalently replaced by:

$$\neg \lozenge 0, \frac{A \le B}{\lozenge A \le \lozenge B}, \ \lozenge [A \lor B] \le \lozenge A \lor \lozenge B, \ A \le \lozenge A, \ \lozenge \lozenge A \le \lozenge A.$$

Using Theorem 5 we obtain the following adequate conditions for 154 (\Diamond) (we use D for better readability):

$$D\emptyset = \emptyset$$
, $D(P \cup Q) = DP \cup DQ$, $P \subseteq DP$, $DDP \subseteq DP$.

As we see D also generates new topology, but now D is interpreted more naturally as closure operator. The fact that DP = IDP shows that any closed set in the second topology is open in the main topology. Let us call such bi-topological spaces closure bi-topological spaces.

Corollary 2. $IS4(\diamondsuit)$ is complete for the class of closure bi-topo-

logical spaces.

Next to discuss is a translation of IML-s into the classical bi-modal

Definition. MS4-bi-modal logic we call the classical S4 extended by a new modality M together with the rule $\frac{A \equiv B}{MA \equiv MB}$ and the axiom $MA \leq \Box MA$.

Lemma 9. MS4 is complete for the class of models $(K, R, J, \parallel -)$ where $(K, R, \parallel -)$ is a classical Kripke model for S4 (R - transitive and reflexive) and J satisfies "if $x \in JP$, then xRy implies $y \in JP$ ", and also H(M(A) = JH(A).

Lemma 10. MS4 is complete for Montague-Montague models of the type $\langle K, I, J, | - \rangle$ where $I(P \cap Q) = IP \cap IQ$, IK = K, $IP \subseteq P$, $IP \subseteq IIP$, $JP \subseteq IJP$ and $H(\subseteq A) = IH(A)$, H(MA) = JH(A).

The translation W from M into MS4 is defined as follows:

$$W(0) = 0$$
, $W(p) = \Box p$, $W(q) = \Box q$, ...;
 $W(A \land B) = W(A) \land W(B)$, $W(A \lor B) = W(A) \lor W(B)$,
 $W(A \Rightarrow B) = \Box (\neg W(A) \lor W(B)]$, $W(MA) = MW(A)$,
 $W(A \le B) = W(A) \le W(B)$.

Lemma 11. A formula A (sequent $A \le B$) is valid in Montague models for M iff W(A) ($W(A) \le W(B)$) is valid in models for MS4.

Lemma 12. A formula A (sequent $A \le B$) is top-valid iff W(A)

 $(W(A) \le W(B))$ is valid in all Montague-Montague models.

The proofs of these two lemmas are based on transforming a countermodel of one type into a countermodel of the respective type, they do not present any special difficulty and are left to the reader.

As a consequence we have

Theorem 6. $M \vdash A$ iff $MS4 \vdash W(A)$ (and analogously for sequents)

4. KRIPKE SEMANTICS

This Section is devoted to those extensions of M, that possess a new kind of semantics — Kripke semantics. As we shall see the modality operator in M can be given two different meanings (adding different axioms) — that of "possibly" and that of "necessary". In the classical case they are interdefinable: \diamondsuit is $\neg \Box \neg$ and, vice versa, \Box is $\neg \diamondsuit \neg$. Here though, having an intuitionistic logic as base, we cannot expect \diamondsuit and \Box to be dual. Hence we are to expect interesting nontrivial relations between them. Unfortunately the existing works on intuitionistic modal logics either consider very strong systems where the modalities are too special, or do not mention \diamondsuit at all.

Here we start with a minimal logic IK_0 (\square , \diamondsuit) with axioms (besides purely intuitionistic tautologies):

$$\Box A \land \Box B \leq \Box [A \land B], \quad \Diamond [A \lor B] \leq \Diamond A \lor \Diamond B$$

and rules (besides modus ponens):

$$\frac{A \leq B}{\Box A \leq \Box B}, \quad \frac{A \leq B}{\Diamond A \leq \Diamond B}.$$

It is clear that IK_0 (\square , \diamondsuit) is in fact M "taken twice". By IK_0 (\square) we denote the logic with only modality \square and IK_0 (\diamondsuit) concerns only \diamondsuit .

Definition. A 6-tuple (K, M, N, \leq, R, R^*) is called a Kripke

1-3. K and \leq satisfy the conditions from the definition of Montague

frame;

4. $M \subseteq K$, $N \subseteq K$;

5. if $x \in M$ and $y \leq x$, then $y \in M$;

6. if $x \in N$ and $x \leq y$, then $y \in N$;

7. $R \subseteq K^2$ (when $\langle x, y \rangle \in R$ we shall write xRy);

8. the same for R*;

9. xRy, $u \le x$ and $y \le v$ imply uRv ("extrapolation" of R);

10. R* can be "interpolated": $x \le u$, $v \le y$, $x R^* y$ imply $u R^* v$.

On a Kripke frame one can define Kripke models by assigning cones of K to propositional variables and extending the assignment to all formulas by the familiar inductive definition, in particular the causes for [and ♦ being:

$$x \parallel - \square A$$
 iff $x \in N$ and $(\forall y)$ (if $x R y$, then $y \parallel - A$), $x \parallel - \lozenge A$ iff $x \in M$ implies $(\exists y)(x R^* y)$ and $y \parallel - A$).

Here $x \parallel -A$ (the "forcing" relation) means that x belongs to the subset of K assigned to A. A straight-forward argument shows that all such subsets are cones, i. e. $x \parallel -A$ and $x \leq y$ imply $y \parallel -A$. Now we can give literally the same definitions of truth in a Kripke model, validity in a

Kripke frame and of Kripke validity, as in the case of Montague frames. Before we proceed to the proof of the completeness theorem for IK_0 (□, ◊) we mention the fact that it will be pieced together from two independent analogous proofs for IK_0 (\Box) and for IK_0 (\diamondsuit). This will bring about certain advantageous properties, used later on.

Lemma 13. If a sequent (formula) is provable in IK_0 (\square) then it is

Kripke valid.

The proof is evident by checking. We consider only the modal axiom: let $x \parallel - \square A \wedge \square B$, then $x \parallel - \square A$ and $x \parallel - \square B$, so for an y, such that $x \mid y$, we have simultaniously $y \mid -A$ and $y \mid -B$ and (by the definition of ||-|) $y||-A \wedge B$. Hence we get $x||-\square[A \wedge B]$, as $x \in N$.

For the converse statement we again build up a frame from the prime filters in the formula algebra. Let K be the set of all such filters, \leq be the set theoretical inclusion. Define $N = \{x \mid \Box 1 \in x\}$. It is clear that $x \in N$ and $x \le y$ imply $y \in N$. Denoting by $\Box x$ the set $\{A \mid \Box A \in x\}$ we have the following

Proposition 10. If x is a filter and $\Box 1 \in x$ then $\Box x$ is again a

Proof. Since $\Box 1 \in x$ then $1(\Box x, so \Box x + \emptyset)$. If $A \in \Box x$ and $A \leq B$ then (by the monotonicity rule) $\Box B \in x$ and $B \in x$. Finally the modal axiom

gives the closure of $\Box x$ with respect to \land .

Define R by xRy iff $\Box x \subseteq y$. The "extrapolation" property is evident. Thus we have obtained a Kripke frame for the language with . Defining a model on it by assigning to variables the set of all filters that contain them, we are able to prove the main feature: $x \mid -A$ iff $A \in x$, not only for atomic but for arbitrary formulas. The proof is by induction on the complexity of the formula A. The only new case is the case $\square A$. Assume

 $\square A(x)$, then $A(\square x)$ and $\square 1(x)$, so x(N). Now if xRy, then $\square x \subseteq y$, A(y)and (by the induction hypothesis) $y \parallel -A$, thus $x \parallel -\Box A$. In the opposite direction: if $\Box A \notin x$ and $\Box 1 \in x$, then, as just proved, $\Box x = y_0$ is a filter such that $A \notin y_0$. Then we extend y_0 to a prime y also excluding A. For this y we have xRy and not $y \parallel -A$ (by the induction hypothesis). Therefore not $x \vdash \Box A$.

In this way it is shown that $(K, N, \leq, R, \parallel -)$ is a Kripke model for the logic without \Diamond , where all unprovable formulas are refuted. So we get

Proposition 11. A sequent (formula) is provable in IK_0 (\square) iff it is Kripke valid.

Next we consider the system without \Box .

Lemma 14. If a sequent (formula) is provable in IK_0 (\diamondsuit) then it is valid.

As with correctness lemmas, the proof is just checking the validity of axioms and the property of rules to preserve validity. For the converse statement we again use the described above structure K. Define $M \subseteq K$ by $M = \{x \mid \Diamond 0 \notin x\}.$

Proposition 12. If x is a co-filter, and $\Diamond 0 \notin x$, then $\Diamond x$ is a

co-filter, too.

We omit the proof which is analogous to that of Proposition 9.

The relation R^* is introduced by setting xR^*y iff $y \subseteq \Diamond x$. In this case the "interpolation" property is evident. Using the familiar forcing we can as above prove by induction on the complexity of a formula A that $x \parallel -A$ iff A(x). Thus we obtain

Proposition 13. A sequent (formula) is provable in $IK_0(\diamondsuit)$ iff it

is Kripke valid.

Below we consider the question of additional axioms and additional properties of Kripke structures. Recall the notion of adequacy from Section 2.

Theorem 7 (the case of non-normal extensions). The following axioms and conditions are adequate:

N=K
M = K
<i>N</i> =-Ø
$M = \emptyset$
$N \cap M = \emptyset$
$M \cup N = K$
$M \subseteq N$
$N \subseteq M$
if $x \in M$ and $x \leq y$ then $y \in M$
if $x \in N$ and $y \le x$ then $y \in N$
$M = \widetilde{N}$
if $x \in M$ then $(\exists y)[xR*y]$
$N=K$ and $R=\emptyset$

For the proofs of all these, we shall use one and the same model the cannonical model of the corresponding system. We treat only one example: the axiom 0. Assume that in any model on a frame satisfying the conditions for some x, not x = 0. This means that either $x \notin N$ (contradiction with the condition N=K) or for some y, xRy and not y = 0(contradiction with $R = \emptyset$). In the cannonical frame: $\square 0 \in x$ and so $\ddot{x} \in N$, i. e. K=N; if there is an y such that xRy, then we get $0 \in y$ — a contradiction, so $R = \emptyset$.

Here we have chosen examples that exhibit properties typical for nonnormal systems (concerning M and N). If we consider connections between R and R* we usually get (in the case of non-normal logics) conditions and the respective adequate axioms which have a rather complicated "apendexes":

$\bigcirc \Box A \leq A$ $\Box 1 \leq [A \Rightarrow \Box \Diamond A]$	$M=K$, and if $yR*x$ then xRy if $x \in N$ and xRy then $yR*x$
$A \leq \Box \Diamond A$	N=K, and if xRy then $yR*x$
	if $x \in N$ and $x \in N$ then $y \in X$

We omit the proofs (completely analogous to the ones presented above). The independence of the completeness proofs for each of the "half" logics $IK_0(\Box)$ and $IK_0(\Diamond)$ allows us to establish easily

Theorem 8 (modal separation theorem). If a formula (sequent) contains only \Box (\diamondsuit) it is provable in $IK_0(\dot{\Box}, \diamondsuit)$ iff it is provable in

 $IK_0(\Box)$ $(IK_0(\diamondsuit))$. Proof. If A contains only \Box , belongs to $IK_0(\Box, \diamondsuit)$ and can not be proved in $IK_0(\square)$ alone, then we can construct a countermodel $\langle K, N, \leq, R, ||-\rangle$ by Proposition 11. The expansion $\langle K, K, N, \leq, R, K^2, | - \rangle$ is clearly a model for $IK_0(\Box, \Diamond)$ (here M = K and $R^* = K^2$) such that any formula B without \diamond is simultaneously forced or not forced by $x \in K$ in both models. Thus, the second model is a countermodel for A, too. A contradiction.

Theorem 9 (conservative extension theorem). $IK_0(\Box, \Diamond)$ is a conservative extension of (pure) intuitionistic propositional calculus, i. é. if a formula A without \Box and \Diamond is provable in $IK_0(\Box, \Diamond)$ then it is an intuitionistic

Proof. In view of the completeness theorem for the propositional intuitionistic logic, any A which is not an intuitionistic tautology is refuted in a model $(K, \leq, ||-\rangle)$. As in the proof of the previous theorem we expand this model to a model for $IK_0(\Box, \Diamond): \langle K, K, K, \leq, K^2, K^2, ||-\rangle$, where A is

refuted, too. So, A is not a theorem of $IK_0(\Box, \Diamond)$.

Now we turn to normal extensions of the minimal logic. These are logics closed under the rules $\frac{A}{\Box A}$ and $\frac{\neg A}{\neg \Diamond A}$ or equivalently, containing the axioms $\Box 1$ and $\neg \Diamond 0$. The minimal normal logic is denoted by $IK(\Box, \Diamond)$. By the above results (Theorem 7) we have for the adequate semantics a condition M=N=K.

Proposition 14. $IK(\Box, \diamondsuit)$ is complete for frames of the kind

 $\langle K, \leq, R, R^* \rangle$.

We note that in this case the forcing relation is simplified: $x \parallel - \square A$ iff $(\forall y)$ [if xRy then $y \parallel -A$], $x \parallel - \Diamond A$ iff $(\exists y)[xR^*y$ and $y \parallel -A$].

It can be said that in general the semantics for normal modal intuition-istic logics with \square was known, although there have not been published studies of \diamondsuit and, what is more important, the considered cases were extremely simple (some variants of intuitionistic S4 and S5). Below we give a large number of examples of axioms with their corresponding adequate conditions. Among them there are some that are anything but evident. Besides, we answer some very natural questions concerning R and R* as for example what modal formulas guarantee the symmetry of the relation R*.

Theorem 10 (normal extensions). The following list consists of

axioms and adequate conditions on the semantics:

```
\Diamond \Box A \leq A
                                                            if xR*y then yRx
 A \leq \Box \Diamond A

\Box A \leq A
                                                            if xRy then yR*x
                                                            xRx (or: if x \le y then xRy)
 A \leq \Box A
                                                            if xRy then x \le y

xR*x (or: if x \le y then yR*x)
 A \leq \lozenge A
  \lozenge A \leq A
                                                            if yR*x then x \le y
  \Box A \leq \Box \Box A
                                                           if xRy and yRz then xRz if xR*y and yR*z then xR*z
  \Diamond \Diamond A \leq \Diamond A
\Box A \lor \Box \Box A
                                                           if xRy and xRz then y=z
 \Box \neg \Box A \lor \Box A
                                                           if xRy and xRz then yRz
 \Box A \leq \Diamond A
\Box [A \lor B] \leq \Box A \lor \Box B
\Diamond A \land \Diamond B \leq \Diamond [A \land B]
\Diamond \Box A \leq \Box \Diamond A
                                                           (\exists y) [xRy and xR^*y] if xRy and xRz then (\exists p) [p \le y, p \le z and xRp]
                                                          if xR*y and xR*z then (\exists p)[y \le p, z \le p \text{ and } xR*p] if xR*y and xR*z then (\exists p)[yRp \text{ and } zR*p] if x \le y then (\exists t)[xRt \text{ and } y \le t] if xRy then (\exists t)[xRt \text{ and } tRy]
 \square \exists A \leq \exists A
 \square \square A \leq \square A
 \Diamond A \lor \Box \exists A
                                                           if xRy then xR*y
\Box[\Box A \Rightarrow B] \lor \Box[\Box B \Rightarrow A]
                                                           if xRy and xRz then yRz or zRy
[\Box A \Rightarrow B] \vee [\Box B \Rightarrow A]
                                                           if x \le y and x \le z then yRz or zRy
\Box [A \Rightarrow B] \lor \Box [B \Rightarrow A]
                                                            if xRy and xRz then y \le z or z \le y
A \leq \Box \Box A
                                                           if xRy and yRz then x \le z
if xR^*y then (3s) [x \le s \text{ and } y \le s]
                                                           if x \le y and x \le z then (\exists p)[yRp] and zRp]
if x \le y then (\exists p)[y \le p \text{ and } x R p] \Diamond \exists A \le j \subseteq A (or \exists A \le j \lozenge \exists A, or \Diamond A \le j \subseteq A, or \exists A \le j \lozenge A if x \in A \otimes y \in A then \exists A \in A \otimes y \in A.
```

We are not going to check all these (most of them will be left to the reader) and take up a couple of (instructive) examples: (1). $\Diamond \Box A \leq \Box \Diamond A$ —first we show that the conditions imply the validity of the sequent. If in a model on a frame satisfying the conditions $x \parallel - \Diamond \Box A$ then there is an y, xR^*y and for all z, yRz implies $z \parallel -A$. Now if xRt we have to show that $t \parallel - \Diamond A$ or equivalently exhibit an w, tR^*w with $w \parallel -A$. By the condition from xR^*y and xRt we get an v such that yRv and tR^*v . But yRv gives $v \parallel -A$ by the choice of y. So v is what we need (put w=v). For the converse, consider the cannonical frame and take x, y, z—prime filters with xR^*y and xRz, i. e. $\Box x \subseteq z$, $y \subseteq \Diamond x$, and hence, $\Box y \subseteq \Box \Diamond y$, $\Diamond \Box x \subseteq \Diamond z$. On the other hand $\Box \Diamond x \subseteq \Diamond \Box x$ which is easily proved using the

axiom. Thus $\Box y \subseteq \Diamond z$. But $\Box y$ is a filter, $\Diamond z - a$ co-filter, and applying the Interpolation Lemma there is a prime filter $p: \Box y \subseteq p \subseteq \Diamond z$, i. e. y R p and $z R^* p$.

(2). $\Box \Box A \leq \Box A$. Clearly the conditions imply the validity of the axiom. Conversly, in the cannonical frame if xRy then there is a prime filter t with xRtRy. To show this we use Zorn lemma: let Φ be the set of all z—proper filters, that satisfy $\Box x \subseteq z$, $\Box z \subseteq y$. Φ is not empty: $\Box x \in \Phi$. If Φ is ordered by set-theoretic inclusion then it has all properties required by Zorn lemma. So Φ has at least one maximal element t. This filter is prime: if we assume the contrary, i. e. $A \vee B \in t$ but $A \notin t$, $B \notin t$, we can form (t, A) and (t, B) both of which are proper filters and extend t. At least one of them, (t, A) or (t, B) has the property $\Box (t, A) \subseteq y$ or $\Box (t, B) \subseteq y$. If not then we can find C and D, $\Box C \in (t, A)$, $\Box D \in (t, B)$, $C \notin y$, $D \notin y$. So $C \vee D \notin y$. But then for C', D' from $t: C' \land A \leq \Box C$, $D' \land B \leq \Box D$, $A \vee B \in t$, $C' \land D' \in t$ and so $[A \vee B] \land [C' \land D'] \leq \Box C \lor \Box D$; hence $\Box C \lor \Box D \in t$ and moreover $\Box [C \lor D] \in t$, therefore $C \lor D \in y$ —a contradiction.

We have just shown the completeness of several logics with respect to classes of Kripke frames. A proposition of a somewhat different nature is also true in theses cases: the axioms characterize the conditions, i. e. they are valid in a frame iff the frame satisfies the condition.

The problem of comleteness and the problem of characterization are related but may have different solutions. Any axiom characterizes a second order condition. The situation is identical with that in the case of Montague frame: we can effectively write down the (second order, with quantifiers ranging over cones) condition characterized by an axiom.

ranging over cones) condition characterized by an axiom.

Sometimes (and these are the interesting instances) this second order sentence is equivalent to a sentence in the first order fragment of the same language, i. e. a sentence without quantifiers over cones.

Proposition 15. The listed sequents characterize the following first order conditions:

We omit the tedious but otherwise quite straithforward proof.

Again we should mention that if a logic is complete with respect to a class of Kripke frames, then if it is given by additional axioms, we can claim that it is complete also with respect to the class of Kripke frames, determined by the corresponding conditions. This class is the maximal class with such a property. Unfortunately there are incomplete logics, and we can not have a full duality between logics and classes of Kripke frames.

There is a narural connection between Kripke and Montague semantics. The former turns out to be a special case of the latter.

Proposition 16. If a logic is Kripke complete, then it is Montague complete. Moreover, it is complete with respect to a class of Montague frames (K, \leq, J, D) where $J(P \cap Q) = JP \cap JQ$ and $D(P \cup Q) = DP \cup DQ$.

The proof is based on the observation that given a Kripke frame (K, M, N, \leq, R, R^*) we can construct a Montague frame (the generated

frame) $\langle K, \leq, J, D \rangle$ setting:

 $x \in JP \text{ iff } x \in N \text{ and } (\forall y) \text{ [if } x \in Y \text{ then } y \in P],$

 $x \in DP$ iff $x \in M$ implies $(\exists y)[xR*y \text{ and } y \in P]$.

The verification of the properties of J and D required by the definition of

Montague frame and in the proposition are left to the reader.

Now any model on the Kripke frame can be transformed into a model on the generated Montague frame, preserving the forcing for atomic formulas. It can be proved by induction on the complexity of formulas that the two forcings coincide for all formulas. Now in particular, if we consider only normal logics, we have

Proposition 17. If a normal logic is Kripke complete then it is Montague complete and moreover one may restrict his attention to frames

where JK = K and $D\emptyset = \emptyset$.

Proposition 18. If a logic is Kripke complete then it is topologically complete.

Here we have first to show that Montague completeness implies topo-

logical completeness and then apply Proposition 16.

Definition. IS5 $(\Box + \Diamond)$ is the extension of IS4 (\Box, \Diamond) by the axioms $A \lor \Box \urcorner \Box A$, $\Diamond A \lor \urcorner \Diamond A$, $\Diamond \urcorner \Diamond A \le \urcorner A$, $\Diamond \Box A \le A$, $A \le \Box \Diamond A$.

Here the sign + emphasizes the fact that R and R* are not independent but coincide. By Theorem 10 the added axioms make $R=R^*$ reflexive and transitive; and the symmetry of the relation is guaranteed by $A \lor \Box \neg \Box A$, $\Diamond A \lor \neg \Diamond A$ and $\Diamond \neg \Diamond A \leq \neg A$.

Corollary 3. 185($\Box + \Diamond$) is complete with respect to Kripke frames

where $R = R^*$ is an equivalence relation.

Corollary 4. $185(\Box + \Diamond)$ is complete for the class of Kripke frames

having the kind $\langle K, \leq, K^2, K^2 \rangle$.

This can be established by fixing a countermodel for a non-provable in $AS_5(\Box + \Diamond)$ formula A taking an x such that not $(x \parallel -A)$ and forming the so-called generated submodel (in fact it will consist only of the members of the equivalence class of x with respect to R). This submodel will have the properties described in Corollary 4 and will be a countermodel for A.

We can say even more:

Corollary 5. $IS5(\Box + \diamondsuit)$ is complete for frames of the kind $\langle K, \le \rangle$ where $x \parallel - \Box A$ iff $(\forall y)[y \parallel - A]$ and $x \parallel - \diamondsuit A$ iff $(\exists y)[y \mid -A]$. This interpretation of S5-modalities is the same as in the case of the classical modal system S5 (with the appearance of \leq of course). From it one can easily get a purely syntactic result:

Corollary 6. In $I\tilde{S}5(\Box + \Diamond) \Box A$ and $\Diamond A$ are Boolean, i. e. $\Box A \lor$

 $\neg \Box A$ and $\Diamond A \lor \neg \Diamond A$ are theorems.

Nevertheless, even in the presence of $\square A \leq A$ we have

Corollary 7. $IS5(\Box + \Diamond)$ is a conservative extension of the intuitionistic propositional calculus.

Corolary 8. (a separation theorem for $IS5(\Box + \diamondsuit)$). The connectives \Box and \diamondsuit can be separated in $IS5(\Box + \diamondsuit)$.

Corollary 9. $IS_5(\Box + \Diamond) | - \Diamond A = \neg \Box \neg A$.

The proof of the latter corollary is semantical, by the use of the completeness results on $IS5 (\Box + \Diamond)$.

It must be noted that \square cannot be defined by means of \diamondsuit in the same way. We can construct a model where $\square p = \neg \diamondsuit \neg p$ is not true.

This shows that in intuitionistical modal logic, even in the stongest systems, the duality between \Diamond and \Box is not complete,

5. DECIDABILITY RESULTS

In this Section of our paper we are going to apply the apparatus developed in the previous parts in order to show the decidability of some of the introduced logics. More precisely, we shall prove for some systems that they are complete with respect to classes of models of a special kinds, namely, of finite models. This property of a logic is usually termed "the finite model property" (f.m.p.). We prefer to call it *finite completeness*. If a logic is finitely (Montague, topological or Kripke) complete and axiomatized by a recursive set of axioms, then it is decidable. The decidability is a consequence of the familiar method establishing the theoremhood: list all proofs in an effective way and search for the proof of a formula A, parallel to that start another process of checking the truth of A in finite models. This procedure is always terminating and gives a definite answer, if the logic has the f.m.p. (cf. [10] and [7]). Moreover there is an a priori upper bound t (depending on the complexity of A) for the number of elements in the refuting model.

Below we list about 30 systems, among them intuitionistic analogues of all interesting classical modal systems, for which we prove decidability. The basic tool to be used is the well known method of filtration of algebraic models (to be described shortly). Of course, the intuitionistic case is more complicated. An example: for the classical logic of Brouwer a very simple filtration procedure yields finite completeness, while for the intuitionistic analogue it is necessary to carry out a systematic and non-trivial investigation of its syntactic properties before we can apply the method.

Definition. An 7-tuple $(\Psi, 0, \leq, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, M)$ is called modal algebra if $(\Psi, 0, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow)$ is a pseudo Boolean algebra, and M—an unary operation in Ψ (i. e. a = b implies Ma = Mb). A modal algebra $(\Psi, 0, \leq, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, M)$ equiped with a valuation f (i. e. f is a function from all propositional variables to elements of the modal algebra) is called an algebraic model.

In an algebraic model the valuation f is inductively extended to all formulas A. We call A true in the model if f(A)=1. A sequent $A \le B$ is true if $f(A) \le f(B)$. Further, A is valid in a modal algebra if A is true in every model based on that algebra. Finally A is algebraically valid if it is valid in every modal algebra. Analogous definitions can be given for sequents.

It is clear that any logic L is algebraically complete, i. e. it is equal to the set of all formulas valid in every algebra where all theorems of L are valid. Indeed in one direction this claim is established trivially and in the other we use the Lindenbaum algebra of L.

This shows that algebraic semantics is very general, but at the same time not very informative because it differs insignificantly from the logic itself. Sometimes though, the existence of just one refuting model is sufficient for the decidability and an algebraic model of this kind always exists, so we are going to make use of this fact.

Each modal algebra $(\Psi, o, \leq, \land, \lor, \Rightarrow, M)$ generates a Montague frame (K, \leq, J) where K is the set of prime filters in $\Psi, x \leq y$ iff $x \subseteq y$, and $x \in JP$ iff $(\exists a)[P=h(a)]$ and Ma(x). An algebraic model on $(\Psi, o, \leq, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, M)$ with valuation f defines on the generated frame a Montague model: $x \parallel -p$

iff f(p) (x, for a propositional variable p. Lemma 15. If an algebraic model $(\Psi, 0, \leq, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, M, f)$ generates a Montague model $(K, \leq, J, \rightarrow)$, then for an arbitrary formula $A: x \rightarrow A$ iff $f(A) \in x$.

We omit the easy proof which gives by induction.

For the extension of $IK_0(\Box, \Diamond)$ we introduce the bi-modal algebras $(\Psi, o, \leq, \land, \lor, \Rightarrow, \Box, \diamondsuit)$. Given such an algebra the generated Kripke frame is (K, M, N, \leq, R, R^*) where K is again the set of all prime filters in Ψ , $N = \{x \in K \mid \Box \ 1 \in x\}$, $M = \{x \in K \mid \Diamond \ 0 \notin x\}$, $x \le y$ if $x \subseteq y$, $x \not\in y$ if $\Box x \subseteq y$, and xR*y if $y \subseteq \Diamond x$. Again we have

Lemma 16. If a bi-modal algebraic model generates a Kripke model,

then for every $A: x \parallel - \text{ iff } f(A)(x)$.

We have now four kind of models: algebraic, Kripke, Montague and topological. We shall call a model finite if its underlying set is finite.

Definition. A logic L is called finitely complete if there is a class M of finite frames (or algebras) such that all theorems of L are valid in all stuctures of M and any non-provable formula is refuted in a model based on a structure from M.

Lemma 17. (i) If an extension of $IK_0(\Box, \diamondsuit)$ is finetely complete with respect to bi-model algebras, then it is finitely complete for Kripke frames.

(ii) If a logic is finitely complete for Kripke frames, then it is finitely complete for Montague frames.

(iii) If a logic is finitely complete for Montague frames, then it is finite-

ly complete with respect to generalized topological spaces. (iv) If a logic is finitely complete for topological frames, then it is

finitely complete for modal algebras.

Proof. The proof of (i) -(iv) are quite straightforward. We use the generated structures and by the above lemmas establish the desired result. Only in case (iv) we have to define an algebra given a generalized topological space (K, I, J). The algebra is $(K^*, \emptyset, \subseteq, \cap, \cup, \Rightarrow, M)$ where K^* is the class of all I-open subsets of $K; \cap, \cup, \Rightarrow$ are the usual set-theoretical operations $(a \Rightarrow b = I(a \cup b))$ and Ma = Ja.

Thus we obtain the following absoluteness property:

Proposition 19. The extensions of $K_0(\Box, \Diamond)$ are equivalently finitely complete with respect to:

(i) Kripke frames; (ii) Montague frames; (iii) generalized topological spaces; (iv) bi-modal algebras.

Analogously we can show

Proposition 20. The extensions of M are equivalently finitely complete with respect to:

i) Montague frames; ii) generalized topological spaces: iii) modal algebras. We turn now to the description of the method of filtration applied in the case of algebraic semantics. We shall follow Hansson and Gärdenfors [13], [14] where one can find a clear exposition of the construction of finite refutation algebras. In the classical case a finite subset Ψ of a Boolean algebra will generate a finite Boolean subalgebra, while in case of pseudo Boolean algebras the generated algebra may be infinite.

Nevertheless, we can include Ψ into a finite pseudo Boolean algebra such that the restrictions of all operations in it to Ψ coincide with the operations in the original algebra — this is the well-known McKinsey — Tarsky

theorem (cf. [3]).

We shall apply their result according to the following scheme: if a logic L is an extension of M, then it is characterized by the class of modal algebras in each one member of which all theorems of L are valid. In particular the Lindenbaum algebra of L is in this class, so, when a formula A is not provable it is refuted at least in one modal algebra of this kind. In order to construct a finite algebra in this class we take a finite set Ψ' of formulas, containing all subformulas of A and consider its image in the Lindenbaum algebra (i.e. the set of equivalence classes of members of Ψ'). The image is finite, too. By McKinsey -- Tarski theorem it is a part of a finite pseudo Boolean algebra Ψ^0 and all operations within Ψ' are preserved as well as 1 and 0. In general, though, Ψ^0 will not be well defined modal algebra. We solve this problem by defining for each particular logic a special operation M which coincides with the original operation on the relevant elements and in such a way that the modal algebra (Ψ^0, M) is in the class, defined by the logic. This last feature makes of (Ψ0, M) the refutation algebra we need.

For logics having Kripke semantics we shall employ the filtration method. Assume $\langle K, \leq, R, R^*, ||-\rangle$ is a model for a normal extension of $IK(\Box, \Diamond)$ and Ψ is a set of formulas closed under subformulas (0 is subformula of any formula). Define \approx on K as follows: $x \approx y$ iff $(\forall A \in \Psi)[x] - A$ iff $y \parallel -A$]. Clearly \approx is an equivalence relation. Denote by |x| the class $\{y \mid y \approx x\}$ and by K^0 the set of classes $\{|x| \mid x \in K\}$. The elements of K^0 will usually be denoted by Greek letters: α , β , ... Set $\alpha \leq {}^{\circ}\beta$ iff $(\forall x \in \alpha)(\exists y \in \beta)$ $(\forall A \in \Psi)$ [if $x \parallel A$, then $y \parallel A$]. Evidentely $\leq {}^{\circ}$ is reflexive and transitive and $x \leq y$ implies $x \leq {}^{\circ}y$. Assume further, that in K^0 we have relations R^0 and R*0 with the properties:

if xRy, then $|x|R^0|y|$ (if xR^*y then $|x|R^{*0}|y|$);

if $\alpha R^{\circ}\beta$ then $(\forall x \in \alpha)(\forall y \in \beta)(\forall A)[\text{if } \Box A \in \Psi \text{ and } x \parallel - \Box A \text{ then } y \parallel - A]$

(analogously for R*).

Unfortunately Ro and R*0 are not always the relations we need in order to have a Kripke frame in contrast to the classical case. Sometimes though we are able to prove that they satisfy the conditions imposed on Kripke frames.

If we define: $\alpha \parallel \stackrel{\circ}{-} p$ iff $(\forall x \in \alpha) [x \parallel -p]$ for variables in Ψ and other-

wise arbitrary, then extending $|\stackrel{\circ}{-}|$ to all formulas we get Lemma 18. If $\langle K^0, \leq^0, R^0, R^{*0}, ||\stackrel{\circ}{-}|\rangle$ is a Kripke model, then for $A \in \Psi$ and $x \in K: x \parallel A$ iff $|x| \parallel A$.

In cases when $\langle K^0, \leq^0, R^0, R^{*0}, || \stackrel{\circ}{\sim} \rangle$ is a Kripke model we say that it is the model obtained by filtering $\langle K, \leq, R, R^*, || - \rangle$ through Ψ . The classical theory of filtration can be found in [6] and [10]. The proof of Lemma 18 is by induction on the complexity of A. The most interesting case of modal

operators is handled by means of the conditions for R⁰ and R*0.

Assuming this lemma proved we are able to describe the method of filtration: let L be an extension of $IK(\Box, \Diamond)$ adequate for the condition C. If a formula A is not provable in L, then it is refuted in some Kripke model $\langle K, \leq, R, R^*, | -A \rangle$ satisfying C, i. e. there is $x_0 \in K$ such that not $x_0 \mid -A$. We shall choose a finite set Ψ of formulas including all subformulas of A, closed under taking subformulas. Then we try to define R^0 and R^{*0} in such a way that we get a Kripke frame satisfying C. In case of a success, we will have a finite countermodel (because if Ψ is finite, then K^0 will always be finite).

If the above described constructions are not applicable, another procedure is available. In Section 2 we considered some extensions of the logic M complete with respect to monotone Montague semantics. Here we are going to show the decidability of several such logics using the cannonical frame $\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}$

frame $\langle K, \leq, R^{20} \rangle$.

Let Ψ be a finite set of formulas with the already familiar property of being closed under subformulas. Define K^0 , \leq^0 and \parallel° as in Lemma 18 and for $P \subseteq K$:

$$P^0 = \{ \alpha \mid (\exists x) [x \in \alpha \text{ and } x \in P \}.$$

For $Q \subseteq K$, $\widehat{Q} = \bigcup \{x \mid x \in \alpha \text{ and } \alpha \in Q\}$. Easily, $P \subseteq \widehat{P}^0$. Assume now that the relation R^0 satisfies: $R^0 \subseteq K^0 \times 2^{K^0}$; if $xR^{20}P$ then $|x|R^0P^0$; if αR^0Q , then $(\forall x \in \alpha) (\forall A)$ [if $MA \in \Psi$ and $\widehat{Q} \subseteq h(A)$, then $MA \in X$].

Lemma 19. If $(K^0, \leq^0, R^0, || \stackrel{\circ}{\longrightarrow})$ is a Montague model, then for $A \in \Psi$:

 $x \parallel -A \text{ iff } |x| \parallel \stackrel{\circ}{-} A.$

The proof uses the properties of R^0 assumed above. Generally speaking this lemma will be exploited in the same way as the last one. If we succeed to define R^0 which is monotone with respect to both arguments, satisfies the rest of the conditions on Montague frames and has the properties from the lemma, then the finite completeness of the logic will follow.

This lemma exibits some of the complications arising from the intuitionistic basis of the systems under consideration. For some monotone logics we are able to construct filtrations only of the cannonical model and even

here we can do it only for the choice of R^{20} .

Nevertheless, the technique we have introduced is enough to establish the following

Theorem 11 (on decidability). The logics listed on the next page

are with the finite model property.

Remarks. In the first half of this table only logics which have just Montague semantics appear, and the logics in lower part are monotone. The second half of the table includes logics—with Kripke semantics, and the systems in the lower part are normal. $\frac{M}{\Box}$ and $\frac{M}{\diamondsuit}$ show that M in the language is changed to \Box or \diamondsuit respectively.

Proof of the theorem. We consider $IK(\Box, \Diamond)$ first. As is already known if A_0 is not provable in $IK(\Box, \Diamond)$ then it is refuted in a model

Name	Additional axioms and rules
М	$\frac{A \equiv B}{MA \equiv MB}$
M1 (□) M1 (♢) M2 (□) M2 (♢) MT (□)	M+[M1] M+[7M0] M+[MA≤MMA] M+[MMA≤MA] M+[MA≤A] M+[A≤MA]
Mon	A≤B MA≤MB
Mon1 (□) Mon1 (◊) MonT (□) MonT (◊) Mon3 (□) Mon3 (◊)	$Mon+[M1]$ $Mon+[\cap M0]$ $Mon+[MA \le A]$ $Mon+[A \le MA]$ $MonT(\Box)+[MA \le MMA]$ $MonT(\Diamond)+[MMA \le MA]$
<i>IK</i> ₀ (□)	$Mon \frac{M}{\Box} + [\Box A \land \Box B \leq \Box [A \land B]]$
$IK_0(\diamondsuit)$	$Mon \frac{M}{\Diamond} + [\Diamond [A \vee B] \leq \Diamond A \vee \Diamond B]$
	$ K_0(\Box)+[\Box A\leq A]$ $ K_0(\diamondsuit)+[A\leq \diamondsuit A]$ $ S2(\Box)+[\Box A\leq \Box \Box A]$ $ S2(\diamondsuit)+[\diamondsuit\diamondsuit A\leq \diamondsuit A]$
K(□, ♦) T(□, ♦) S4(□) S4(□, ♦) S5(□) S5(□, ♦) S5(□, ♦) S5(□, ♦) S6(□, ♦) B(□, ♦) B(□, ♦)	$IK_{0}(\Box)+[\Box 1]+IK_{0}(\Diamond)+[]\Diamond 0]$ $IK(\Box,\Diamond)+[\Box A\leq A]+[A\leq \Diamond A]$ $IS3(\bigcirc)+[]\Diamond 0]$ $IS4(\bigcirc)+IS4(\Diamond)$ $IS4(\bigcirc)+[A\vee\Box] \Box A]$ $IS4(\Diamond)+[\Diamond A\vee]\Diamond A]+[\Diamond]\Diamond A\leq]A]$ $IS5(\Box)+IS5(\Diamond)$ $IS5(\Box,\Diamond)+[\Diamond A\vee]\Diamond A]+[A\leq \Box \Diamond A]$ $IT(\Box,\Diamond)+[A\vee\Box] \Box A]+[\Diamond A\vee]\Diamond A]+[\Diamond]\Diamond A\leq [A]$ $IR(\Box,\Diamond)+[\Diamond \Box A\leq A]+[A\leq \Box \Diamond A]$

 $\langle K, \leq, R, R^*, | - \rangle$ with no additional requirements on R and R*. Let Ψ be the set of all subformulas of A_0 . Then K^0 is finite. Define

 $\alpha R^{0}\beta$ iff $(\forall x \in \alpha)(\forall y \in \beta)(\forall A)$ [if $\Box A \in \Psi$ and $x \parallel \Box A$ then $y \parallel \Box A$], $\alpha R^{*0}\beta$ iff $(\forall x \in \alpha)(\forall y \in \beta)(\forall A)$ [if $\Diamond A \in \Psi$ and $y \parallel \Box A$ then $x \parallel \Box \Diamond A$].

From $\alpha R^0 \beta$ and $\xi \leq 0\alpha$, $\beta \leq 0\zeta$ it follows that $\xi R^0 \zeta$. If $u \in \xi$, $v \in \zeta$, $\Box A \in \Psi$ and $u \parallel - \Box A$, then $x \parallel - \Box A$, as $|u| \leq 0\alpha$ and $\alpha = |x|$; if $\beta = |y|$, then $\alpha R^0 \beta$ implies $y \parallel - A$, therefore $v \parallel - A$, hence $\xi R^0 \zeta$. Analogously it can be shown that $\alpha R^{*0} \beta$, $\alpha \leq 0\xi$, $\zeta \leq 0\beta$ imply $\xi R^{*0} \zeta$, and so on. We have proved that $(K_0, \leq 0, R^0, R^{*0})$ is a Kripke frame. Then we can apply Lemma 18 and get a finite model where A_0 is not true.

By Theorem 10 the logic $IT(\Box, \Diamond)$ is characterized by Kripke frames where R and R* are reflexive. The above filtration works, we only need to show that R⁰ and R*⁰ are reflexive in this case. Indeed, if $\Box A \in \Psi, x \in \alpha$ and $x \parallel - \Box A$ it follows from the axioms that $x \parallel - A$ and we get $\alpha R^0 \alpha$; the same argument applied to R^{*0} gives its reflexivity.

Again by Theorem 10 the logic $IS4(\Box, \diamondsuit)$ is the logic of Kripke frames with reflexive and transitive relations R and R*. We could use the Lemmon – Scott filtration (cf. [10]) adopting the following definitions:

$$\alpha R^0 \beta$$
 iff $(\forall x \in \alpha)(\forall y \in \beta)(\forall A)[\text{if } \Box A \in \Psi \text{ and } x | -\Box A \text{ then } y | -\Box A],$
 $\alpha * R^0 \beta \text{ iff } (\forall x \in \alpha)(\forall y \in \beta)(\forall A)[\text{if } \Diamond A \in \Psi \text{ and } y | -\Diamond A \text{ then } x | -\Diamond A].$

It is not difficult to see that Ro and R*o defined in this way are reflexive and transitive.

However, another method, due to Segerberg [12] is also applicable here. Let us go back to the definitions of R^0 and R^{*0} given for $IK(\Box, \Diamond)$ but change the set Ψ , now demanding that it contains all subformulas of A_0 together with their modalized forms, i. e. if $B \in \Psi$ then $\Box B$ and $\Diamond B$ should be in Ψ . K^0 is still finite because $\Box\Box B \equiv \Box B$ and $\Diamond \Diamond B \equiv \Diamond B$ in IS4. To see that R^0 is transitive, take $\Box A \in \Psi$ and $x = \Box A$. Then $x = \Box A$, but $\Box\Box A \in \Psi$. So if $\alpha R^0 \beta$, $\beta R^0 \gamma$, $\alpha = |x|$, $\beta = |y|$, $\gamma = |z|$, then $y = \Box A$ and z = A, hence $\alpha R^0 \gamma$; analogously $A \in \Psi$ is transitive.

In **18**5-group of logics our first examples are the systems which expose no connections between R and R*. Corollary 3 shows that **18**5 (\square, \lozenge) is characterized by Kripke frames where R and R* are equivalence relations. Again we use the set Ψ of Segerberg and define:

$$\alpha R^{0}\beta$$
 iff $(\forall x \in \alpha)(\forall y \in \beta)(\forall A)$ [if $\Box A \in \Psi$ then $x \parallel - \Box A$ iff $y \parallel - \Box A$], $\alpha R^{*0}\beta$ iff $(\forall x \in \alpha)(\forall y \in \beta)(\forall A)$ [if $\Diamond A \in \Psi$ then $x \parallel - \Diamond A$ iff $y \parallel - \Diamond A$].

R° and R*0 are reflexive, transitive and symmetric as can be easily shown. For the decidability of $IS5(\Box + \diamondsuit)$ it is sufficient to note that $\diamondsuit A$ there is equivalent to $\lnot \Box \lnot A$ and we can reduce the problem to the same one for $IS5(\Box, \diamondsuit)$.

Next consider Mon — the minimal monotone system. If $A_0 \notin Mon$ let Ψ be the set of all subformulas of A_0 . Let R^0 be defined from the cannonical model for Mon by the following definition:

$$\alpha R^0 P$$
 iff $(\forall x \in \alpha)(\forall A)$ [if $MA \in \Psi$ and $\widehat{P} \subseteq h(A)$ then $MA \in X$].

Now we show that αR^0P and $\alpha \leq {}^0\beta$ imply βR^0P . Let $\alpha = |x|$, $\beta = |y|$, $MA \in \Psi$ and $\widehat{P} \subseteq h(A)$, then $MA \in X$, but $MA \in \Psi$, $|x| \leq {}^0|y|$ and therefore $MA \in Y$, so βR^0P . We show that αR^0P and $P \subseteq Q$ imply αR_0Q . Let $\alpha = |x|$, $MA \in \Psi$ and $\widehat{Q} \subseteq h(A)$: from $P \subseteq Q$ it follows that $\widehat{P} \subseteq \widehat{Q}$, so $MA \in X$, therefore αR^0Q . Finally, if $\alpha R^{20}P$, then $|\alpha|R^0P^0$: if $\alpha R^{20}P$ gives $\alpha R^0 \subseteq h(A)$, then from αR^0 it follows that $\alpha R^{20}P$ gives $\alpha R^0 \subseteq h(A)$, then second condition on αR^0 is automatically satisfied. Thus if $\alpha R^0 \notin X^0$ in the cannonical model, then not $\alpha R^0 \in A^0$ in the obtained model, which is finite.

For $MonT(\diamondsuit)$ note that an adequate condition is "if $x \in P$, then xRP" (see Proposition 7). The model defined above (for Mon) is appropriate here,

too. We only show that $\alpha \in P$ gives $\alpha R^0 P$. Let $MA \in \Psi$ and $\widehat{P} \subseteq h(A)$. If $\alpha = |x|$ and $\alpha \in P$, then $x \in \widehat{P}$ and hence $x \in h(A)$, i. e. $A \in x$, but then by the axiom $MA \in x$, therefore $\alpha R^0 P$.

Mon1(\Diamond) is characterized by the condition "non $xR\emptyset$ ". In order to get an useful filtration add to Ψ the formula M0. K^0 remains finite. Let R^0 be the same relation. Assume $\alpha R^0 \emptyset$ for $\alpha = |x|$. From $\widehat{\emptyset} \subseteq \emptyset$, $h(0) = \emptyset$

and M0 $\in \Psi$ it follows that M0 $\in x$ — a contradiction.

The system $Mon3(\diamondsuit)$ is characterized by Montague frames with "if $x \in P$ then xRP" and "if $xR\{y \mid yRP\}$ then xRP". Denoting by JP the set $\{y \mid yRP\}$ the latter condition is expressed by "if xRJP then xRP". Take now as Ψ the Segerberg set of all subformulas of a non-provable formula A_0 together with all modalized variants. From MMA = MA it follows that K^0 is still finite. The definition of R^0 is unaltered, so there is no need to check again the first condition. For the second assume that αR^0J^0P , where $J^0P = \{\beta \mid \beta R^0P\}$, $MA \in \Psi$ and $\widehat{P} \subseteq h(A)$. Then $\widehat{J^0P} \subseteq h(MA)$: if $y \in \widehat{J^0P}$, then $y \in B$ and BR^0P , and from $\widehat{P} \subseteq h(A)$ we have $MA \in Y$, i. e. $Y \in h(MA)$. So, in this case αR^0J^0P gives that $X \in \alpha$ implies $MMA \in X$, but from the axioms it follows that $MA \in X$. Thus we get αR^0P .

As for the logic $IK_0(\lozenge)$ (which should bear the name $I-C_2(\lozenge)$ in a more traditional terminology), one has to take Ψ to be a set containing all subformulas of A_0 together with all disjunctions of its elements and all formulas of the kind $\lozenge[A \lor B]$ for $\lozenge A \in \Psi$ and $\lozenge B \in \Psi$. Clearly K^0 is finite in this case, too. Let us check the condition "if $\alpha R^0(P \cup Q)$ then αR^0P or αR^0Q ". Assume the contrary, that $\alpha R^0(P \cup Q)$ and not αR^0P and not αR^0Q . This means that there are $\lozenge A \in \Psi$, $\lozenge B \in \Psi$ such that $\widehat{P} \subseteq h(A)$, $\widehat{Q} \subseteq h(B)$, but $\lozenge A \notin x$ and $\lozenge B \notin y$ for $x \in \alpha$ and $y \in \beta$. Then from $x \approx y$ we get $\lozenge B \notin x$ and so $\lozenge A \lor \lozenge B \notin x$. By the axiom $\lozenge[A \lor B] \notin x$ and by the construction of $\Psi : \lozenge A \lor \lozenge B \in \Psi$ and $\lozenge[A \lor B] \in \Psi$. Then by the easily established in-

clusions:

$$\widehat{P \cup Q} \subseteq \widehat{P} \cup \widehat{Q} \subseteq h(A) \cup h(B) \subseteq h(A \cup B),$$

and from $|x|R^0(P \cup Q)$ it would follow that $\Diamond [A \vee B] \in x$: a contradiction. Joining the results for $MonT(\Diamond)$ and $IK_0(\Diamond)$ we can prove the decidability of $IS2(\Diamond)$ —a non-normal analogue of T. Analogously, from the result for $Mon3(\Diamond)$ and $IK_0(\Diamond)$ we can obtain the decidability of $IS3(\Diamond)$ —a non-normal variant of S4.

Finally, we present applications of the method of filtration of algebras. These applications solve the problem of decidability for the rest of the logics in the table. For the logic M we can take as Ψ' the set of all subformulas of A_0 and the operation M^0 can be defined arbitrarily outside Ψ' . For $MT(\square)\Psi'$ is the same, $M^0A=MA$ if $MA\in\Psi'$ and MA=0 otherwise. Clearly $M^0A\leq A$. Varying this construction the decidability of a great number of extensions of M can be proved (for example extensions with additional axioms $MA\leq MMA$, M1, etc., defining M^0A as 0, 1, A etc., when $MA\notin\Psi'$, and as MA, when $MA\in\Psi'$).

The cases of monotone extensions of M are more interesting, though-Following Lemmon, we say that $A \in \Psi^0$ covers B if $B \in \Psi'$, $B \le A$, $MB \in \Psi'$. where Ψ' is the set of all subformulas of A_0 plus M0. If A covers only A_1, \ldots, A_n , we define M^0A as $MA_1 \vee \ldots \vee MA_n$. A always covers 0, so the definition is correct. If the logic is monotone, then $M^0A \leq MA$: if A covers A_i then $A_i \leq A$, so $MA_i \leq MA$, therefore $MA_1 \vee \ldots \vee MA_n \leq MA$. Moreover, if $MA \in \Psi$, then $MA \leq M^0A : MA \in \Psi'$ implies $A \in \Psi'$ and hence A covers A and so $M^0A = MA \vee MA_1, \vee \ldots \vee MA_n$. It follows that $MA \in \Psi'$ implies $M^0A = MA$.

As a first application of the just described operation M^0 on Ψ^0 we give another proof of the finite model property for **Mon**. Let us check the validity of the monotonicity rule in Ψ_0 . If A covers A_i , then if $A \le B$, B covers

 A_i , too. Therefore $A \leq B$ implies $M^0A \leq M^0B$.

For $MonT(\square)$: $M^0A \le A$ is valid because $M^0A \le MA$ and $MA \le A$. For $Mon1(\square)$: add M1 to Ψ' , the 1 covers 1 and from $1 \le M1$ it follows that $1 \le M1 \lor MA_1 \lor \ldots$ For $Mon3(\square)$: add to Ψ' all modalized forms plus all disjunctions; Ψ' remains finite and $M^0A \le M^0M^0A$: if $M^0A = MA_1 \lor \ldots \lor MA_n$, then $MA_i \le M^0A$, so $MMA_i \le MM^0A$, hence $MA_i \le MM^0A$ and $M^0A \le MM^0A$; then since $M^0A \in \Psi'$, $MM^0A = M^0M^0A$; thus $M^0A \le M^0M^0A$.

Another application is the finite completeness of $IK_0(\Box)$ where Ψ' is enriched with M0 and all formulas of the kind \Box $[A \land B]$ for MA, MB \in Ψ' .

Combining the proofs we just carried out we can establish the finite

model property of $IS2(\Box)$, $IS3(\Box)$ and $IS4(\Box)$.

6. INTUITIONISTIC MODAL LOGICS WITHOUT THE FINITE MODEL PROPERTY

Now we turn to negative examples. First we are going to present a modified version of Gabbay's example [6, § 24]. His example was a simplification of Fine's logic [16]. In this way we answer affirmatively the question about existence of extensions of $IS4(\diamondsuit)$ without the f.m.p. It should be noted that it is an open problem whether there is an analogous construction for $IS4(\square)$.

Let us introduce the following notations:

$$\begin{split} B &= \Diamond A_1 \wedge \Diamond A_2 \wedge \Diamond A_3 \Rightarrow \Diamond [A_1 \wedge \Diamond [A_2 \vee A_3]] \vee \Diamond [A_2 \wedge \Diamond [A_1 \vee A_3]] \\ &\vee \Diamond [A_3 \wedge \Diamond [A_1 \vee A_2]], \\ C &= \Diamond [\neg \Diamond A_1 \wedge \Diamond A_2 \wedge \Diamond A_3] \wedge \Diamond [\Diamond A_1 \wedge \neg \Diamond A_2 \wedge \Diamond A_3] \\ &\wedge \Diamond [\Diamond A_1 \wedge \Diamond A_2 \wedge \neg \Diamond A_3], \\ Ax &= B \vee C, \quad \textit{IS}4^+ = \textit{IS}4(\Diamond) + Ax. \end{split}$$

Denote by b the formula built up from the propositional variables p_1, p_2, p_3 :

$$\Diamond p_1 \land \Diamond p_2 \land \Diamond p_3 \Rightarrow \Diamond [p_1 \land \Diamond [p_2 \lor p_3]] \lor \Diamond [p_2 \land \Diamond [p_1 \lor p_3]]$$
$$\lor \Diamond [p_3 \land \Diamond [p_1 \lor p_3]].$$

Further we set $P_{i,n}(i=1, 2, 3 \text{ and } n \ge 0)$ as follows:

$$P_{1,0} = p_1, P_{2,0} = p_2, P_{3,0} = p_3;$$

$$P_{1,n+1} = \neg \lozenge P_{1,n} \land \lozenge P_{2,n} \land \lozenge P_{3,n}$$

$$P_{2,n+1} = \lozenge P_{1,n} \land \neg \lozenge P_{2,n} \land \lozenge P_{3,n}$$

$$P_{3,n+1} = \lozenge P_{1,n} \land \lozenge P_{2,n} \land \neg \lozenge P_{3,n}.$$

Lemma 20. If in a Kripke model for 154^+ there is an x such that not $x \parallel -b$ then for any $n \geq 1$, $x \parallel -c p_{i,n}$ (i = 1, 2, 3). The easy proof by induction on n is left to the reader. Lemma 21. $P_{1,n} \leq \neg c p_{1,n-k}$ for $k \geq 1$, $n \geq 1$. Lemma 22. The formula b is true in any finite model for $lS4^+$. Proof. If b is refuted in a model for $lS4^+$ then this model is infinite

(use Lemmas 20 and 21).

Lemma 23. Not 184^{+} | -b.

Proof. Gabbay [6, pp. 121-122] gives a classical model for \$4+ where $\exists b$ is true. Hence b cannot be provable in 184+ which is a subsystem of S4+. In this way we have (by Lemmas 22 and 23):

Proposition 21. The logic 184+ does not have the finite model

property.

We shall describe briefly another logic without the f.m.p., because this logic was published in [37]. It is an extension of the well known intermediate propositional logic of Dummett (obtained by adding the axiom $[A\Rightarrow B]\vee [B\Rightarrow A]$ to the intuitionistic propositional calculus) and at the same time an extension of $IT(\Box)$. We construct the logic by adopting a modified version of Makinson's example [17] of a classical extension of the system T.

Our logic has three remarkable properties:

1) As is well known (cf. [18]) all (non-modal) extensions of Dummett's logic are tabular and so have the f.m.p. Our example shows there are modal extensions of Dummett's logic not finitely complete.

2) The corresponding classical logic is trivially finitely complete: it is simply equivalent to the classical propositional logic since $\Box A = A$ is among its theorems. So we produce a logic without f. m. p. whose classical coun-

terpart has the f. m. p.

3) In contrast to the previous example, the formula valid in all finite models but not provable is not an ad hoc introduced formula, but a very natural one: $\Box \hat{A} = A$. Consequently, on finite models our logic coinsides with non-modal Dummett's logic and its proper modal axioms can be distinguished only by infinite models.

The logic is defined as follows: let $DumT^+$ be the extension of $IT(\Box)$

by the axioms

$$Ax = \Box A \Rightarrow \Box \Box A \leq A \Rightarrow \Box A$$
 and $[A \Rightarrow B] \vee [B \Rightarrow A]$,

Lemma 24. The formula $p \Rightarrow \Box p$ is valid in any finite model of $DumT^+$.

Lemma 25. $p \Rightarrow \Box p$ is not a theorem of **Dum** T^+ .

From these two lemmas we obtain

Proposition 22. DumT+ does not possess the f.m.p.

Property 3) follows from Lemma 24 and the axiom $\Box A \leq A$ of **Dum** T^+ ; property 2) is given by

Proposition 23. Ax is equivalent to $A \leq \Box A$ in the classical logic.

7. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The author is indebted to D. Vakarelov for the advice to undertake the above investigations. The main results connected with Montague and Kripke semantics were obtained during the period December 1975—May 1976 and were shortly announced in [36]. The decidability results and the examples of logics without the f. m. p. were presented in November 1977; the most interesting examples of logics without the f. m. p. are published in [37]. In April 1978 the author gave a lecture on the intuitionistic modal logic at the Banach Mathematical Centre in Warsaw, where he described the central results of this paper. This work is a part of the author's Ph. D. Thesis, defended at Moskow State University (July 1978).

Some additional results not mentioned in this paper are as follows. The topological characterization of 154([]) (our Corollary 1) was obtained by

Radev [38] analogously to the proof for \$4 in [3].

Mihajlova proved [39] that IS4(1) has exactly 31 different modalities, $184.2(\Box)$ and $184.3(\Box)$ have 19 each, and $185(\Box)$ has 9 modalities,

ties: $p, \neg p, \neg p, \Diamond p, \neg \Diamond p, \Diamond \neg p, \neg \Diamond \neg p$. Vakarelov showed [40] that the implication (and negation) free fragment of the intuitionistic modal logic may be used to obtain quite simple examples of incomplete logics. An unexpected result was presented by the same author in [41]: there exists a continuum of intuitionistic modal logics which don't admit the law of excluded middle, i. e. they are consistent but became inconsistent after adding $A \vee \neg A$ as an axiom, and so they are strongly intuitionistic. Later on Tselkov showed [42] there exists a continuum logics incompatible with any single formula in the Rieger-Nishimura

lattice. An open question is whether there exists an absolutely strongly intuitionistic logic, incompatible with any classically provable but intuitionistically unprovable formula.

Popov gave in [43] Gentzen-type calculi for $IK(\Box)$, $IT(\Box)$, $IK4(\Box)$ (i.e. $IK(\Box)+\Box A \leq \Box \Box A$), and $IS4(\Box)$; the cases with \Diamond are open.

Kirov studied in [44] the intuitionistic analogue of the modal logic of provability Q (or K4W in Segerberg's notation). He proved its completeness with respect to the class of all finite structures with irreflexive and transitive R. The logic IGL is an extension of $IK(\Box)$ by the axiom $\Box[\Box A \Rightarrow A] \Rightarrow \Box A$. With help of this result he obtained some properties of IGL: closure under several rules, like $\frac{\Box A}{A}$ or $\frac{A \lor B}{A \text{ or } B}$. Ursini developed an alternative treatment of the same logic in [45] and [46]. In [47] the so-called "strong modality" $\Box! A = A \land \Box A$ in IGL is studied. The logic of this new operator turns out to be IS4Grz—the extension of $IS4(\Box!)$ by the axiom of Sobociński $\Box! [\Box! [A \Rightarrow \Box! A] \Rightarrow A] \Rightarrow A$.

In some unpublished work Vakarelov showed that \square and \lozenge can be introduced strictly analogously to the classical case—with one relation R, if we add $\square \neg A \lor \neg \square \neg A$ as an additional axiom; then $(x || - \lozenge A \text{ iff } (\exists y) || x || x || - A|)$ (R is the relation for \square) may be used as a definition of $\lozenge A$, and $\lozenge A = \neg \square \neg A$ will be true. The same observation was made in [48].

Theorem. If A contains only even negations then it is provable in **IPL** iff $A \stackrel{\text{?}}{\square}$ is provable in $I^+(\square)$.

 $I^+(\Box)$ possesses an adequate Kripke semantics. Some superintuitionistic logics may be treated in the same style. E. g. the axiomatics of the double negation of Dummett's KC (with additional axiom $\neg A \lor \neg \neg A$ is $I^+(\Box)$ plus $\Box [A \lor B] \le [\Box A \lor \Box B]$.

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Centre for Mathematics and Mechanics, 1090 Sofia