

INTERPRETABILITY LOGICS AND GENERALISED VELTMAN SEMANTICS

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Abstract. We obtain modal completeness of the interpretability logics \mathbf{ILP}_0 and \mathbf{ILR} w.r.t. generalised Veltman semantics. Our proofs are based on the notion of full labels [2]. We also give shorter proofs of completeness w.r.t. the generalised semantics for many classical interpretability logics. We obtain decidability and finite model property w.r.t. the generalised semantics for \mathbf{ILP}_0 and \mathbf{ILR} . Finally, we develop a construction that might be useful for proofs of completeness of extensions of \mathbf{ILW} w.r.t. the generalised semantics in the future, and demonstrate its usage with $\mathbf{ILW}^* = \mathbf{ILWM}_0$.

§1. Introduction.

1.1. Interpretability logics. It is well known that sufficiently strong formal theories T can reason about their own provability. The usual way to do this is through a certain Σ_1 -predicate that formalises provability, usually denoted as Prov_T . For example, the following is provable in T :

$$\text{Prov}_T \left(\overline{\left[\neg \text{Prov}_T \left(\overline{\left[\perp \right]} \right) \right]} \right) \rightarrow \text{Prov}_T \left(\overline{\left[\perp \right]} \right),$$

that is, (the formalised version of) Gödel's second incompleteness theorem. It was also Gödel who first noticed that many interesting properties or Prov_T can be expressed in a simple modal language, where \Box stands for Prov_T , and usages of $\overline{\cdot}$ are left implicit. Gödel's second incompleteness theorem can be expressed more succinctly in this way:

$$\Box \neg \Box \perp \rightarrow \Box \perp.$$

Examples of other properties of Prov_T expressible in a modal language are $\Box(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (\Box A \rightarrow \Box B)$ and $\Box A \rightarrow \Box \Box A$ (where A and B are arbitrary sentences). The idea of treating provability predicate as a modality was also considered by Kripke and Montague. The correct choice of axioms, based on (the formalised version of) Löb's theorem, was seriously considered by several logicians independently: Boolos, de Jongh, Magari, Sambin, and Solovay.

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The provability logic **GL** (Gödel, Löb) is a modal propositional logic with the single unary modal operator \Box . The axioms of the system **GL** are all propositional tautologies (in the new language), and all instances of the schemas K: $\Box(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (\Box A \rightarrow \Box B)$, and L: $\Box(\Box A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow \Box A$. The inference rules of **GL** are modus ponens and necessitation $A/\Box A$. All interpretability logics we consider are extensions, both in terms of their language and their theoremhood, of **GL**.

Solovay [11] proved the arithmetical completeness theorem for **GL**. This theorem holds for all extensions of $I\Delta_0 + \text{EXP}$, where EXP is the sentence formalising the totality of exponentiation. This theorem shows that the language of provability logic **GL** is too weak to distinguish between most of the theories that are usually considered.¹ For example, whether a theory is finitely axiomatisable does not affect the theory's provability logic.

Other formal properties, beside provability, have been explored through modal or semimodal systems. For example, interpretability, Π_n -conservativity and interpolability.

We consider the usual modal treatment of interpretability: interpretability logics. Let us briefly describe what is usually meant by “interpretability” in the context of interpretability logics. Roughly, the theory S interprets the theory T if there is a natural way of translating the language of T into the language of S in such a way that the translations of the theorems of T are provable in S . In a sufficiently strong formal theory T in the language \mathcal{L}_T , one can construct a binary interpretability predicate Int_T . This predicate expresses that one finite extension of T interprets another finite extension of T .

Modal logics for interpretability were first studied by Hájek (1981) and Švejdar (1983). Visser introduced the modal logic **IL** (interpretability logic), a modal logic with a binary modal operator representing interpretability, in 1990 [13]. This operator is the only addition to the language; i.e., the language of interpretability logics is given by

$$A ::= \perp \mid p \mid A \rightarrow A \mid A \triangleright A,$$

where p ranges over a countable set of propositional variables. Other Boolean connectives are defined as abbreviations, as usual. We treat \triangleright as having higher priority than \rightarrow , but lower than other logical connectives. Since $\Box B$ too can be defined (over **IL**) as an abbreviation (expanded to $\neg B \triangleright \perp$), we do not formally include \Box in the language. Similarly, we do not include \Diamond in the language, where $\Diamond B$ stands for $\neg \Box \neg B$. If A is constructed in this way, we will say that A is a modal formula.

Any mapping $A \mapsto A^*$, with A a modal formula and $A^* \in \mathcal{L}_T$, such that:

- it commutes with logical connectives;
- if p is a propositional variable, p^* is a sentence;
- $(A \triangleright B)^* = \text{Int}_T(\overline{\Box A^*}, \overline{\Box B^*})$, where $\overline{\Box X}$ is the numeral of the Gödel number of X ;

is called *an arithmetical interpretation*.

¹However, it is possible that the provability logics of theories below $I\Delta_0 + \text{EXP}$ differ from **GL**.

The *interpretability logic of a theory T* , denoted by $\mathbf{IL}(T)$, is the set of all modal formulas A such that $T \vdash A^*$ for all arithmetical interpretations. While there are open questions regarding interpretability logics of certain theories, it is known that they all extend the basic system \mathbf{IL} .

DEFINITION 1. The interpretability logic \mathbf{IL} is axiomatised by the following axiom schemas.

- classical tautologies (in the new language);

- (K) $\Box(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (\Box A \rightarrow \Box B)$;
- (L) $\Box(\Box A \rightarrow A) \rightarrow \Box A$;
- (J1) $\Box(A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow A \triangleright B$;
- (J2) $(A \triangleright B) \wedge (B \triangleright C) \rightarrow A \triangleright C$;
- (J3) $(A \triangleright C) \wedge (B \triangleright C) \rightarrow A \vee B \triangleright C$;
- (J4) $A \triangleright B \rightarrow (\Diamond A \rightarrow \Diamond B)$;
- (J5) $\Diamond A \triangleright A$.

Rules of inference are modus ponens and necessitation $A/\Box A$.

In this context, the axiom (K) is a formalisation of the deduction theorem. Axiom (L) is a formalisation of Löb’s theorem. Particularly interesting are the axioms (J4) and (J5). The axiom (J4) says that relative interpretability implies relative consistency. The axiom (J5) is the arithmetised model existence lemma: from a model of the consistency of A it is possible to unravel a model of A .

We say that a *modal* formula A is valid in a formal theory T if $T \vdash A^*$ for every arithmetical interpretation $*$. A modal theory S is sound w.r.t. T if all its theorems are valid in T . A modal theory S is complete w.r.t. T if it proves exactly those formulas that are valid in T . For the proof that the system \mathbf{IL} is sound w.r.t. any reasonable formal theory, see [13].

The system \mathbf{IL} is, unlike \mathbf{GL} , arithmetically incomplete w.r.t. any reasonable theory. For example, \mathbf{IL} does not prove all instances of $A \triangleright B \rightarrow A \triangleright B \wedge \Box \neg A$, which are all valid in every reasonable theory. To achieve completeness, we have to study extensions of the basic system \mathbf{IL} . Extensions are built by adding new axiom schemas, the so-called principles of interpretability. Two principles and the corresponding extensions of \mathbf{IL} are of particular interest because they are *the interpretability logic* of many interesting theories.

Montagna’s principle M: $A \triangleright B \rightarrow A \wedge \Box C \triangleright B \wedge \Box C$ is valid in theories proving full induction. We denote by \mathbf{ILM} the system obtained by adding all instances of the principle M to the system \mathbf{IL} as new axioms. Berarducci [1] and Shavrukov [10] independently proved that $\mathbf{IL}(T) = \mathbf{ILM}$, if T is an essentially reflexive theory. The persistence principle P: $A \triangleright B \rightarrow \Box(A \triangleright B)$ is valid in finitely axiomatisable theories. Visser [13] proved the arithmetical completeness of \mathbf{ILP} w.r.t. any finitely axiomatisable theory containing $\mathsf{I}\Delta_0 + \mathsf{SUPEXP}$, where SUPEXP asserts the totality of superexponentiation (tetration). Thus the interpretability logic \mathbf{ILM} of first-order Peano arithmetic differs from the interpretability logic \mathbf{ILP} of Gödel-Bernays set theory. It is still an open problem what is the interpretability logic of weaker theories like $\mathsf{I}\Delta_0 + \mathsf{EXP}$, $\mathsf{I}\Delta_0 + \Omega_1$ and PRA .

from compactness-related issues. One way to go about this is to define a (large enough) adequate set of formulas and let worlds be maximal consistent subsets of such sets (used e.g., in [3]). With interpretability logics and the ordinary semantics, worlds have not been identified with (only) sets of formulas. It seems that with the ordinary semantics it is sometimes necessary to duplicate worlds in order to build models for certain consistent sets (see e.g., [3]). In [7], de Jongh and Veltman proved completeness of the logic \mathbf{ILW} w.r.t. its characteristic class of ordinary (and finite) Veltman frames.

Goris and Joosten introduced a more robust approach to proving completeness of interpretability logics, the *construction method* [4], [5]. In this type of proofs, one builds models step by step, and the final model is retrieved as a union. While closer to the intuition and more informative than the standard proofs, these proofs are hard to produce and verify due to their size. (They might have been shorter if tools from [2] have been used from the start.) For the purpose for which they were invented (completeness of \mathbf{ILM}_0 and \mathbf{ILW}^* w.r.t. the ordinary semantics) they are still the only known tools.

The completeness of interpretability logics w.r.t. the generalised semantics is an easy consequence of the completeness w.r.t. the ordinary semantics. In [9] and [8], the filtration technique was used to prove the finite model property of \mathbf{IL} and its extensions \mathbf{ILM} , \mathbf{ILM}_0 and \mathbf{ILW}^* w.r.t. the generalised semantics. In those papers, generalised semantics was used because certain issues occur when trying to merge multiple worlds into one in ordinary Veltman models. Those explorations yielded some decidability results.

The aim of this paper is to show completeness (w.r.t. the generalised semantics) and decidability of some interpretability logics. We introduce a very direct type of proofs of completeness; similar to [3] in their general approach. We use *smart labels* from [2] for this purpose. An example that illustrates benefits of using the generalised semantics will be given in the section dedicated to \mathbf{ILM}_0 .

The main new results of this paper are completeness and finite model property (and thus decidability) of \mathbf{ILR} and \mathbf{ILP}_0 . The principle R is important because it forms the basis of the, at the moment, best explicit candidate for $\mathbf{IL}(\text{All})$. Results concerning the principle \mathbf{ILP}_0 are interesting in a different way; they answer an old question: is there an unravelling technique that transforms generalised \mathbf{ILX} -models to ordinary \mathbf{ILX} -models, that preserves satisfaction of relevant characteristic properties? The answer is *no*: we find \mathbf{ILP}_0 to be complete w.r.t. the generalised semantics, but it is known to be incomplete w.r.t. the ordinary semantics.

Other results include reproving some known facts with, in some cases, much shorter proofs (\mathbf{IL} , \mathbf{ILP} , \mathbf{ILM} , \mathbf{ILM}_0). Of particular interest is the logic \mathbf{ILW} , which was known to be complete and decidable, but for which we nevertheless reprove completeness w.r.t. the generalised semantics using our approach. We will explain our motivation for doing so in the section dedicated to \mathbf{ILW} and \mathbf{ILW}^* .

§2. Completeness w.r.t. the generalised semantics. In what follows, “formula” will always mean “modal formula”. If the ambient logic in some context is \mathbf{ILX} , a maximal consistent set w.r.t. \mathbf{ILX} will be called an \mathbf{ILX} -MCS. Let us now introduce *smart labels* from [2].

DEFINITION 4 ([2], a slightly modified Definition 3.1). Let w and u be some **ILX**-MCS's, and let S be an arbitrary set of formulas. We write $w \prec_S u$ if for any finite $S' \subseteq S$ and any formula A we have that $A \triangleright \bigvee_{G \in S'} \neg G \in w$ implies $\neg A, \Box \neg A \in u$.

Note that the small differences between our Definition 4 and Definition 3.1 [2] do not affect the results of [2] that we use.³

DEFINITION 5 ([2], p. 4). Let w be an **ILX**-MCS, and S an arbitrary set of formulas. Put:

$$w_S^\Box = \{ \Box \neg A : \exists S' \subseteq S, S' \text{ finite}, A \triangleright \bigvee_{G \in S'} \neg G \in w \};$$

$$w_S^\Box = \{ \neg A, \Box \neg A : \exists S' \subseteq S, S' \text{ finite}, A \triangleright \bigvee_{G \in S'} \neg G \in w \}.$$

Thus, $w \prec_S u$ if and only if $w_S^\Box \subseteq u$. If $S = \emptyset$ then $w_\emptyset^\Box = \{ \Box \neg A : A \triangleright \perp \in w \}$. Since w is maximal consistent, usages of this set usually amount to the same as the usages of the set $\{ \Box A : \Box A \in w \}$.

We will usually write $w \prec u$ instead of $w \prec_\emptyset u$.

LEMMA 6 ([2], Lemma 3.2). Let w, u and v be some **ILX**-MCS's, and let S and T be some sets of formulas. Then we have:

- a) if $S \subseteq T$ and $w \prec_T u$, then $w \prec_S u$;
- b) if $w \prec_S u \prec v$, then $w \prec_S v$;
- c) if $w \prec_S u$, then $S \subseteq u$.

We will tacitly use the preceding lemma in most of our proofs.

The following two lemmas can be used to construct (or in our case, find) a MCS with the required properties.

LEMMA 7 ([2], Lemma 3.4). Let w be an **ILX**-MCS, and let $\neg(B \triangleright C) \in w$. Then there is an **ILX**-MCS u such that $w \prec_{\{ \neg C \}} u$ and $B, \Box \neg B \in u$.

LEMMA 8 ([2], Lemma 3.5). Let w and u be some **ILX**-MCS's such that $B \triangleright C \in w, w \prec_S u$ and $B \in u$. Then there is an **ILX**-MCS v such that $w \prec_S v$ and $C, \Box \neg C \in v$.

Let B be a formula, and w a world in a generalised Veltman model. We write $[B]_w$ for $\{ u : w R u \text{ and } u \Vdash B \}$.

In the remainder of the current paper, we will assume that \mathcal{D} is always a finite set of formulas, closed under taking subformulas and single negations, and $\top \in \mathcal{D}$. The following definition is central to most of the results of this paper.

DEFINITION 9. Let X be a subset of $\{ M, M_0, P, P_0, R \}$. We say that $\mathfrak{M} = (W, R, \{ S_w : w \in W \}, \Vdash)$ is the **ILX**-structure for a set of formulas \mathcal{D} if:

³The difference is a different strategy of ensuring converse well-foundedness for the relation R . Instead of asking for the existence of some $\Diamond F \in w \setminus u$ whenever $w R u$, as is usual in the context of provability (and interpretability) logics, we will go for a stronger condition (see Definition 9). Since we will later put $R := \prec$, this choice of ours is reflected already at this point.

Otherwise, $xS_w V$ holds by the clause (b). Take $V' = \{v \in V : w \prec_{u_0} v\}$. Clearly, $V' \subseteq V \subseteq R[w]$. Assume $w \prec_S u$. Now $w \prec_S u \prec x$ and Lemma 16 imply $w \prec_{S \cup u_0} x$. The definition of $xS_w V$ (clause (b)) implies there is $G \in \mathcal{D} \cap \bigcup \dot{R}[x]$ (so $G \in \mathcal{D} \cap \bigcup \dot{R}[u]$) and $v \in V$ such that $w \prec_{S \cup u_0 \cup \{\square \neg G\}} v$, thus also $v \in V'$. In particular, $w \prec_{S \cup \{\square \neg G\}} v$. Since S was arbitrary, $uS_w V'$. It remains to verify that $R[V'] \subseteq R[u]$. Assume $V' \ni v R z$. Since $w \prec_{u_0} v$, for all $\square B \in u$ we have $\square B \in v$, and since $v R z$, it follows that $\square B, B \in z$. Thus, $u \prec z$ i.e., $u R z$. ⊣

In [8] it is shown that \mathbf{ILW}^* possesses finite model property w.r.t. generalised Veltman models. To show decidability, (stronger) completeness w.r.t. ordinary Veltman models was used, but the Theorem 31 would suffice for this purpose.

§4. Finite model property and decidability. For \mathbf{IL} , \mathbf{ILM} , \mathbf{ILP} , and \mathbf{ILW} , the original completeness proofs were proofs of completeness w.r.t. appropriate finite models [3], [7]. For these logics, the FMP w.r.t. the ordinary semantics and decidability are immediate (and completeness and the FMP w.r.t. the generalised semantics are easily shown to follow from these results). These completeness proofs use *truncated* maximal consistent sets, that is, sets that are maximal consistent with respect to the so-called *adequate* set. The principal requirement is that this set is finite. Already with \mathbf{ILM} , defining adequacy is not trivial (see [3]).

For more complex logics, not much is known about the FMP w.r.t. the ordinary semantics. The filtration method can be used with generalised models to obtain finite models. This approach was successfully used to prove the FMP of \mathbf{ILM}_0 and \mathbf{ILW}^* w.r.t. the generalised semantics [8, 9]. A drawback of this approach is in that the FMP w.r.t. the ordinary semantics does not follow from the FMP w.r.t. the generalised semantics. Decidability can be obtained from the FMP w.r.t. either semantics (unless the logic in question is incomplete w.r.t. the ordinary semantics). At the moment it is not clear whether the choice of semantics would affect our ability to produce results regarding computational complexity of provability and consistency of \mathbf{ILX} .

Let us overview basic notions and results of [9] and [8]. Let A be a formula. If A equals $\neg B$ for some B , then $\sim A$ is B , otherwise $\sim A$ is $\neg B$. We need to slightly extend the definition of adequate sets⁴ that was used in [9]. The modified version will satisfy all the old properties.

DEFINITION 32. Let \mathcal{D} have the usual the properties: a finite set of formulas that is closed under taking subformulas and single negations, and $\top \in \mathcal{D}$. We say that a set of formulas $\Gamma_{\mathcal{D}}$ is an adequate set w.r.t. \mathcal{D} if it satisfies the following conditions:

1. $\Gamma_{\mathcal{D}}$ is closed under taking subformulas;
2. if $A \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{D}}$ then $\sim A \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{D}}$;
3. $\perp \triangleright \perp \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{D}}$;
4. $A \triangleright B \in \Gamma_{\mathcal{D}}$ if A is an antecedent or succedent of some \triangleright -formula in $\Gamma_{\mathcal{D}}$, and so is B ;

⁴Note that this is a different notion of *adequacy* than the one used for completeness proofs in [3], [7], and [4].

principle valid in all reasonable theories. We also prove completeness of \mathbf{ILP}_0 , a logic known to be incomplete w.r.t. the ordinary semantics. For logics that we find to be complete, we also prove the finite model property and decidability.

Future work concerns the related questions of completeness and finite model property and decidability. The largest subset of $\mathbf{IL}(\text{All})$ for which we have a completeness result w.r.t. the ordinary semantics is \mathbf{ILW}^* [4]. In this line of research it is natural to ask:

1. Is \mathbf{ILR} complete w.r.t. the ordinary semantics [5]?

The most promising method for obtaining this result, out of currently available methods, is the *construction method*. This method was previously used to prove the completeness of \mathbf{ILM}_0 and \mathbf{ILW}^* [4].

If we look at the corresponding situation in the generalised semantics, there are two different and mutually incomparable subsets of $\mathbf{IL}(\text{All})$ that we now know to be complete: \mathbf{ILW}^* [4] and \mathbf{ILR} (current paper). We do not know whether the combination of these, the logic \mathbf{ILR}^* ($= \mathbf{ILWR} = \mathbf{ILWRM}_0$), is complete or incomplete. At the moment, we do not even know whether a complete superset of \mathbf{ILWR} that is also a subset of $\mathbf{IL}(\text{All})$ even exists. (Although, it would be surprising if one did not exist.) Thus one natural step is to tackle the following question:

2. Is \mathbf{ILWR} or one of its sufficiently weak extensions complete?

There are preliminary indications that \mathbf{ILWR} may be incomplete. We expect to address this question in future work. Another open problem concerns the two recently discovered series of principles [6]. The logic \mathbf{ILWR} enriched with these principles is the best explicit candidate for $\mathbf{IL}(\text{All})$ (however, it is an unlikely candidate, see [6]). The first step in this direction would be to determine the following:

3. What are the two series' frame conditions w.r.t. the generalised semantics?

The next step towards the completeness proof would be to determine the labelling lemmas corresponding to these principles.

4. What are the two series' labelling lemmas?

The criteria of what constitutes an *appropriate* labelling lemma in this context is simply the lemma's usefulness in proving completeness.

5. Are logics of form \mathbf{ILX} complete, where $X \subseteq \{W, R_1, R_2, \dots, R^1, R^2, \dots\}$, $X \neq \{W\}, \{R\}$?

There is some intrinsic interest in exploring semantics for interpretability logics (e.g., to ease reasoning, or even provide decision procedures). There is a more palpable interest in this too. Occasionally new principles of interpretability are found not by arithmetical considerations, but rather by (i) determining which principles are required in order to establish completeness, or by (ii) modifying the frame conditions for known principles, and extracting formulas defining the modified conditions. For example, both the principle R [5] and the two series [6] were found through semantic means.⁵

⁵There are some indications that trying to establish completeness for \mathbf{ILWR} may result in new principles too.

Let us turn to the finite model property and decidability. In all known cases of (decidable) interpretability logics, the simplest way to show decidability is via the generalised semantics [9], [8]. Decidability does not seem to be a problematic issue in the context of interpretability logics; currently there is no known complete logic that is not known to be decidable too. Furthermore, taking into account the results of this paper, we know e.g., that **ILWR** has the finite model property, and so if it is complete, it has to be decidable. Thus the next natural question regarding the finite model property concerns the two series. The most straightforward way of obtaining the finite model property is via filtrations, which presupposes that we have already answered the question 5.

6. Are the principles $R_1, R_2, \dots, R^1, R^2, \dots$ preserved under filtration? (See Lemma 34.)

At the moment, and as long as we do not provide a better approximation of **IL(All)**, this may also be the only open question regarding the finite model property.⁶

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⁶If, in a somewhat unexpected turn of events, a logic axiomatised by a combination of these principles does have the finite model property, but this is not demonstrable by Lemma 34, there would be another important question: can we add W to this logic while retaining the finite model property?

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