Propositional Logic¹

LECTURE 2

¹The slides have been prepared using the textbook material available on the web, and the slides of the previous editions of the course by Prof. Luigia Carlucci Aiello

Summary

- \diamondsuit Propositional Logic Russell & Norvig Sec. 7.4 7.5
- \diamondsuit Inference in propositional logic Russell & Norvig Sec. 7.6 part

Propositional logic is the simplest logic—illustrates basic approach to knowledge representation

Propositional logic: Syntax

True and False are propositional symbols Other propositional symbols are denoted as P_1 , P_2 , ...

If S is a propositional symbol, S is a sentence

If S is a sentence, $\neg S$ is a sentence (negation)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \wedge S_2$ is a sentence (conjunction)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \vee S_2$ is a sentence (disjunction)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$ is a sentence (implication)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2$ is a sentence (biconditional)

Propositional logic: Notation

Alternatives to R&N notation:

```
\supset for \Rightarrow ;
\equiv for \Leftrightarrow ;
0, 1 for True, False
```

Wumpus world sentences

Let $P_{i,j}$ be true if there is a pit in [i,j]. Let $B_{i,j}$ be true if there is a breeze in [i,j].

$$\neg P_{1,1} \\
 \neg B_{1,1} \\
 B_{2,1}$$

Propositional logic: Semantics

The truth of a sentence can be determined, given an interpretation m, that assigns a truth value to every propositional symbol:

```
\begin{array}{ll} True & \text{is true} \\ False & \text{is false} \\ P & \text{is true iff} \quad P \text{ is true in } m \\ P & \text{is false iff} \quad P \text{ is false in } m \end{array}
```

Propositional logic: Semantics

Rules for evaluating truth of complex sentences:

```
\neg S is true iff S is false S_1 \wedge S_2 is true iff S_1 is true and S_2 is true S_1 \vee S_2 is true iff S_1 is true or S_2 is true S_1 \Rightarrow S_2 is true iff S_1 is false or S_2 is true i.e., is false iff S_1 is true and S_2 is false S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2 is true iff S_1 \Rightarrow S_2 is true and S_2 \Rightarrow S_1 is true
```

Propositional logic: Semantics

Each interpretation specifies true/false for each proposition symbol

E.g.
$$P_{1,2}$$
 $P_{2,2}$ $P_{3,1}$ $false$ $true$ $false$

A simple recursive process evaluates an arbitrary sentence, e.g.,

$$\neg P_{1,2} \land (P_{2,2} \lor P_{3,1}) = true \land (false \lor true) = true \land true = true$$

Truth tables for connectives

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \vee Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
false	false	true	false	false	true	true
false	$\mid true \mid$	true	false	true	true	false
true	false	false	false	$\mid true \mid$	false	false
$\mid true \mid$	$\mid true \mid$	false	true	$\mid true \mid$	true	true

Wumpus world KB

Let $P_{i,j}$ be true if there is a pit in [i,j]. Let $B_{i,j}$ be true if there is a breeze in [i,j].

$$\neg P_{1,1} \\
 \neg B_{1,1} \\
 B_{2,1}$$

"Pits cause breezes in adjacent squares"

$$B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1})$$

$$B_{2,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,1} \vee P_{2,2} \vee P_{3,1})$$

"A square is breezy if and only if there is an adjacent pit"

Entailment

Entailment:

$$KB \models \alpha$$

Knowledge base KB entails sentence α if and only if α is true in all worlds where KB is true

$$KB \models \alpha$$
 if and only if $M(KB) \subseteq M(\alpha)$

Truth tables for inference

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{2,1}$	$P_{1,1}$	$P_{1,2}$	$P_{2,1}$	$P_{2,2}$	$P_{3,1}$	KB	$\neg P_{1,2}$
false	false	false	false	false	false	false	false	true
false	false	false	false	false	false	true	false	$\mid true \mid$
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false	true	false	false	false	false	false	false	$\mid true \mid$
false	true	false	false	false	false	true	<u>true</u>	<u>true</u>
false	$\mid true \mid$	false	false	false	$\mid true \mid$	false	\underline{true}	true
false	true	false	false	false	true	true	<u>true</u>	true
false	true	false	false	true	false	false	false	true
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true	true	true	true	true	true	true	false	false

Checking \models by model enumeration

Depth-first enumeration of all models

```
function TT-ENTAILS? (KB, \alpha) returns true - false
   symbols \leftarrow in KB e \alpha
   return TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, symbols, [])
function TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, symbols, model) returns true/false
   if EMPTY?(symbols) then
        if PL-True?(KB, model) then return PL-True?(\alpha, model)
        else return true
   else do
        P \leftarrow \text{First}(symbols); rest \leftarrow \text{Rest}(symbols)
        return TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, rest, Extend(P, true, model))
               and
               TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, rest, Extend(P, false, model))
```

$O(2^n)$ for n symbols; problem is co-NP-complete

Logical equivalence

Two sentences are logically equivalent iff true in same models:

$$\alpha \equiv \beta \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \alpha \models \beta \text{ and } \beta \models \alpha$$

Logical equivalence table

```
(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\beta \wedge \alpha) commutativity of \wedge
           (\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\beta \vee \alpha) commutativity of \vee
((\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma)) associativity of \wedge
((\alpha \vee \beta) \vee \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \vee (\beta \vee \gamma)) associativity of \vee
             \neg(\neg\alpha) \equiv \alpha double-negation elimination
       (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \beta \Rightarrow \neg \alpha) contraposition
       (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \lor \beta) implication elimination
      (\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \land (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)) biconditional elimination
        \neg(\alpha \land \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \lor \neg \beta) de Morgan
        \neg(\alpha \lor \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \land \neg \beta) de Morgan
(\alpha \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee (\alpha \wedge \gamma)) distributivity of \wedge over \vee
(\alpha \lor (\beta \land \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \lor \beta) \land (\alpha \lor \gamma)) distributivity of \lor over \land
```

Validity

A sentence is valid if it is true in all interpretations,

e.g.,
$$True$$
, $A \lor \neg A$, $A \Rightarrow A$, $(A \land (A \Rightarrow B)) \Rightarrow B$

Validity is connected to inference via the Deduction Theorem:

$$KB \models \alpha$$
 if and only if $(KB \Rightarrow \alpha)$ is valid

Satisfiability

A sentence is satisfiable (consistent) if it is true in some interpretation (i.e. it has a model)

e.g.,
$$A \vee B$$
, C

A sentence is unsatisfiable (inconsistent) if it is true in nointerpretation (i.e. it has no model)

e.g.,
$$A \wedge \neg A$$

Satisfiability is connected to inference via the following:

 $KB \models \alpha$ if and only if $(KB \land \neg \alpha)$ is unsatisfiable i.e., prove α by *reductio ad absurdum*

Reasoning in propositional logic

Two decision problems:

- \diamondsuit tautology checking (TAUT)
- \diamondsuit satisfiability checking (SAT)

TAUT and SAT are exponential in the size of the formula (the number of propositional symbols).

SAT is NP-Complete and TAUT is Co-NP-complete.

Reasoning methods

Reasoning methods can be (roughly) divided in two kinds:

Model checking

-truth table enumeration (always exponential in n)

Deduction

generation of new sentences through the application of inference rules

Efficient model checking

- 1. heuristic search, e.g., DPLL
- 2. local search in model space (sound but incomplete) e.g., min-conflicts-like, hill-climbing algorithms

Typically require translation of sentences into a normal form

Conjuntive Normal Form

In Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF):

- \Diamond the KB is represented as a set of clauses.
- \diamondsuit a *clause* is a disjuntion of literals $L_1 \lor L_2 \lor \cdots \lor L_n$.

Example

$$\{\{A, \neg B \neg C\}, \{\neg A, B\}\} \iff (A \lor \neg B \lor \neg C) \land (\neg A \lor B)$$

 \diamondsuit Every formula can be rewritten into an equivalent CNF (later).

Search for a model

Propositional symbol = (boolean) variable

Model = boolean assignment

Formula = constraint to be satisfied

Heuristics DPLL: Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland

- early check of satisfied or unsatisfiable formulae;
- pure symbols heuristics (always positive or negated);
- \Diamond **unitary** formulae (only one literal);

DPLL

```
function DPLL-Satisfiable?(s) returns true or false
   inputs: s, a sentence in propositional logic
   clauses \leftarrow the set of clauses in the CNF representation of s
   symbols \leftarrow a list of the proposition symbols in s
   return DPLL(clauses, symbols, [])
function DPLL(clauses, symbols, model) returns true or false
   if every clause in clauses is true in model then return true
   if some clause in clauses is false in model then return false
   P, value \leftarrow \text{FIND-Pure-Symbols}, clauses, model)
   if P is non-null then return DPLL(clauses, symbols-P, [P = value|model])
   P, value \leftarrow \text{FIND-UNIT-CLAUSE}(clauses, model)
   if P is non-null then return DPLL(clauses, symbols-P, [P = value|model])
   P \leftarrow \text{First}(symbols); rest \leftarrow \text{Rest}(symbols)
   return DPLL(clauses, rest, [P = true|model]) or
            DPLL(clauses, rest, [P = false|model])
```

DPLL (implementation)

With a number of additional details this 1963 procedure can be made very efficient!

- separation of disjoint problems
- variable and value ordering
- intelligent backtracking (clause learning)
- random restarts
- clever indexing

Local search: GSAT

Local search:

- ♦ start from a randomly chosen assignment
- ♦ compute best successor and continue search
- ♦ if fail then restart from new randomly chosen assignment

Local search: GSAT

```
function GSAT(formula max-restart max-search) returns a truth assignment or failure

for i \leftarrow 1 to max-restart do

A \leftarrow a random truth assignment

for j \leftarrow 1 to max-search do

if A satisfies formula then return A

A \leftarrow a random choice of one of the best successors of A

end

end

return failure
```

Local search is efficient, but incomplete.

WALKSAT

function WalkSAT(clauses, p, max-flips) returns a satisfying model or failure inputs: clauses, a set of clauses in propositional logic p, the probability of choosing to do a "random walk" move, around 0.5 max-flips, number of flips allowed before giving up $model \leftarrow$ a random assignment of true/false to the symbols in clauses for i=1 to max-flips do

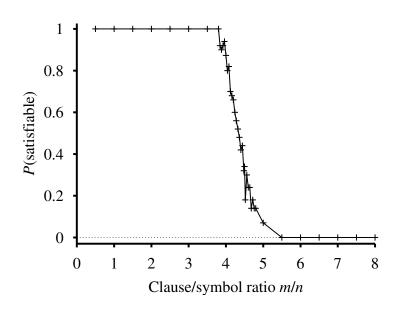
if model satisfies clauses then return model $clause \leftarrow$ a randomly selected clause from clauses that is false in modelwith probability p flip the value in model of a randomly selected symbol from clause

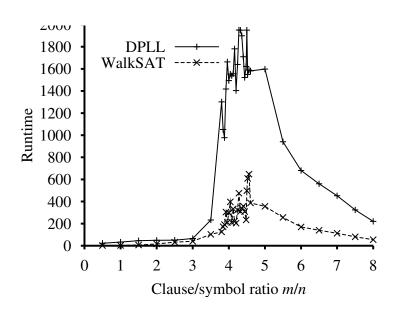
else flip whichever symbol in clause maximizes the number of satisfied clauses return failure

Clauses unsatisfiable?

Analysis of the search space

m = number of clauses n = number of symbols (fixed to 50)





Difficult problems are around n/m = 4.3

Deduction in propositional logic

$$KB \vdash \alpha$$

Logical entailment can be computed by a syntactic process called **deduction** that manipulates (propositional) sentences.

Deduction can be characterized as a search:

- ♦ Init state is the formula representing the KB,
- the operators are the inference rules
- the final state is the formula to be proven

Inference Rules

 \diamondsuit The inference rules $\mathcal R$ are typically written:

$$\frac{A_1 \cdots A_n}{A}$$

$$\frac{premises}{conclusions}$$

 \diamondsuit Some deductive systems include also Axioms Ax, but they can can be replaced by inference rules:

 \overline{A}

for each $A \in Ax$

Theorems

 \diamondsuit Let Γ a set of formulae. A is derived from Γ ($\Gamma \vdash A$) if there exists a sequence of formulae A_1, \ldots, A_n such that:

- ullet A is A_n
- for every i between 1 and n, either $A_i \in \Gamma$ or A_i is a **direct derivation** of the formulae in the previous sequence.

The sequence A_1, \ldots, A_n is a *proof* of A from Γ .

The elements of Γ are called *premises*, or *hypotheses*, or else assumptions of A.

Basic properties

 \Diamond A deduction method \mathcal{R} is *sound* if for every formula A,

$$\vdash_{\mathcal{R}} A \text{ implies } \models A$$

 \diamondsuit A deduction method $\mathcal R$ is *complete* wrt a set of formulae Γ , if for every $A \in \Gamma$,

$$\models A \text{ implies } \vdash_{\mathcal{R}} A$$

♦ Soundness and completeness:

$$\vdash \equiv \models$$

Deduction

 $\Gamma \models A$ is the basic reasoning problem

• direct proof:

$$\Gamma \vdash_{\mathcal{R}} A$$

• proof by refutation (reductio ad absurdum):

$$\Gamma \cup \{\neg A\}$$
 is unsatisfiable

from
$$\Gamma \cup \{\neg A\}$$
 we get inconsistency

Inference rules for propositional logic

Modus Ponens

$$\frac{\alpha \Rightarrow \beta, \qquad \alpha}{\beta}$$

And Elimination

$$\frac{\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge \alpha_n}{\alpha_i}$$

Examples

$$\frac{man \Rightarrow mortal, \qquad man}{mortal}$$

$$\Gamma = \{feline \Rightarrow animal, cat \Rightarrow feline, cat\}$$

$$\Gamma \vdash_{MP} animal$$

Deduction in propositional logic

- **hilbert system** (MP + axiom schemata): first, intuitive, not mechanizable;
- tableau: intuitive and mechanizable;
- **resolution**: born for automated deduction ... basis of PRO-LOG language

Forward/backward reasoning: sound and complete (and polynomial) only for Horn clauses

Horn Clauses

Horn Form (restricted)

KB = conjunction of Horn clauses

Horn clause =

- proposition symbol; or
- \Diamond (conjunction of symbols) \Rightarrow symbol

E.g.,
$$C \wedge (B \Rightarrow A) \wedge (C \wedge D \Rightarrow B)$$

Definite Clauses exactly one positive literal

Forward and backward chaining

Modus Ponens (for Horn Form): complete for Horn KBs

$$\frac{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \quad \alpha_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_n \Rightarrow \beta}{\beta}$$

Can be used with:

- ♦ forward chaining or
- ♦ backward chaining.

These algorithms are very natural and run in *linear* time

Forward chaining

Idea: fire any rule whose premises are satisfied in the KB, add its conclusion to the KB, until query is found (e.g. Q)

$$P \Rightarrow Q$$

$$L \land M \Rightarrow P$$

$$B \land L \Rightarrow M$$

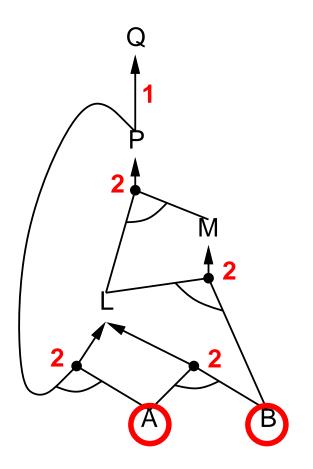
$$A \land P \Rightarrow L$$

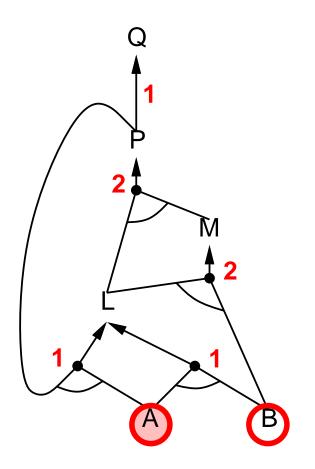
$$A \land B \Rightarrow L$$

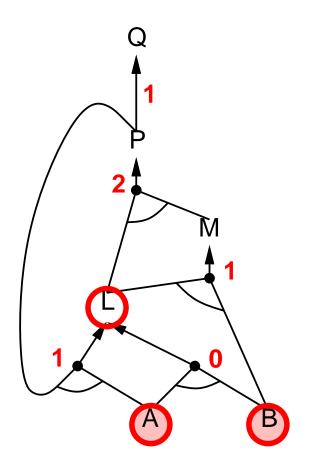
$$A$$

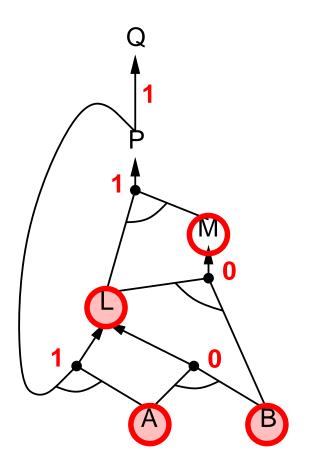
Forward chaining algorithm

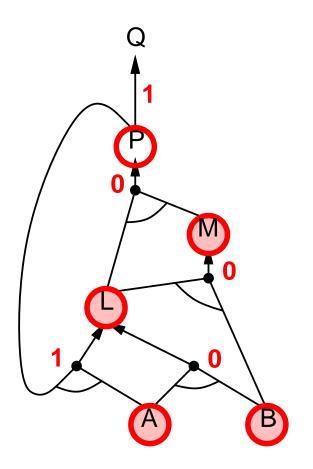
```
function PL-FC-ENTAILS?(KB, q) returns true or false
   inputs: KB, a set of propositional Horn clauses
            q, the query, a proposition symbol
   local variables: count, a table indexed by clause, init # premises
                      inferred, a table indexed by symbol, init false
                      aqenda, a list of symbols, init known in KB
   while aqenda is not empty do
       p \leftarrow \text{Pop}(agenda)
       unless inferred[p] do
            inferred[p] \leftarrow true
            for each Horn clause c in whose premise p appears do
                 decrement count[c]
                 if count[c] = 0 then do
                     if HEAD[c] = q then return true
                     Push(Head[c], agenda)
   return false
```

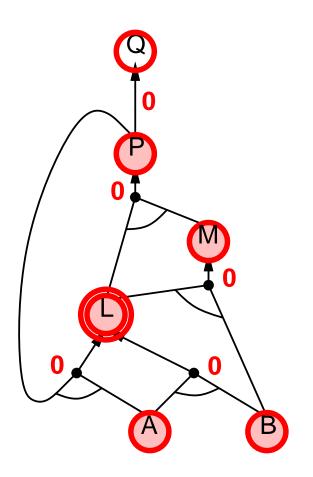


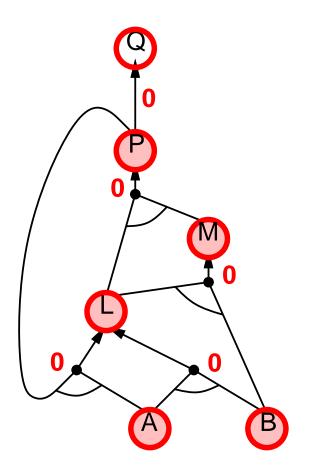


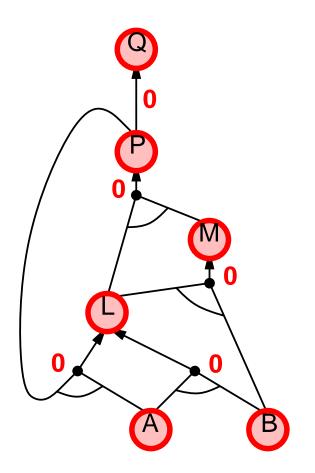












Proof of completeness

FC derives every atomic sentence that is entailed by KB

- 1. FC reaches a fixed point where no new atomic sentences are derived
- 2. Consider the final state as a model m, assigning true/false to symbols
- 3. Every clause in the original KB is true in m *Proof*: Suppose a clause $a_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge a_k \Rightarrow b$ is false in m Then $a_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge a_k$ is true in m and b is false in m Therefore the algorithm has not reached a fixed point!
- 4. Hence m is a model of KB
- 5. If $KB \models q$, q is true in *every* model of KB, including m

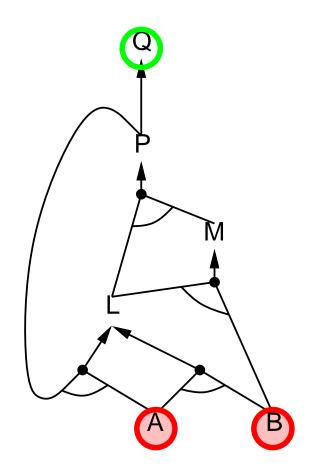
Backward chaining

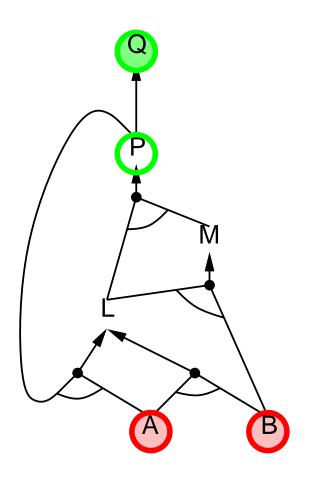
Idea: work backwards from the query q: to prove q by BC, check if q is known already, or prove by BC all premises of some rule concluding q

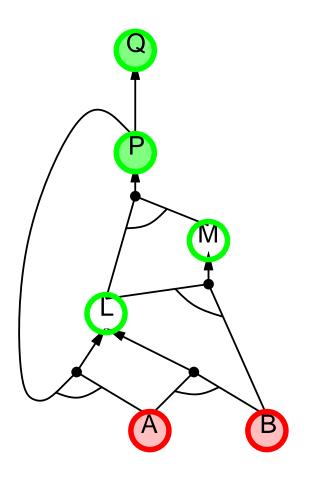
Avoid loops: check if new subgoal is already on the goal stack

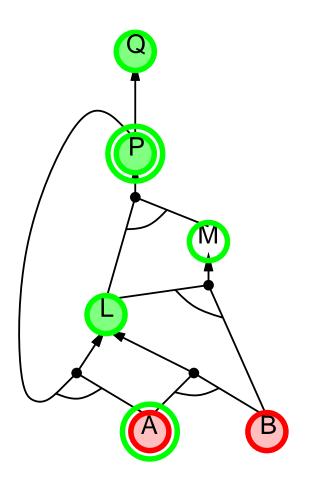
Avoid repeated work: check if new subgoal

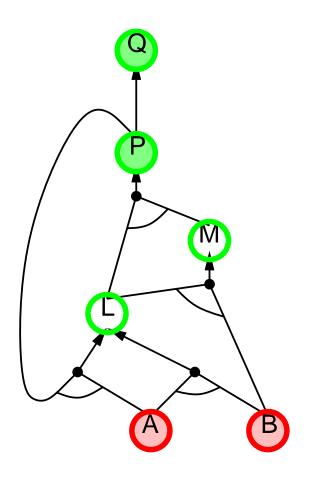
- 1) has already been proved true, or
- 2) has already failed

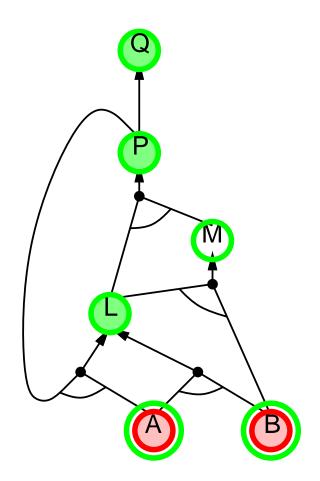


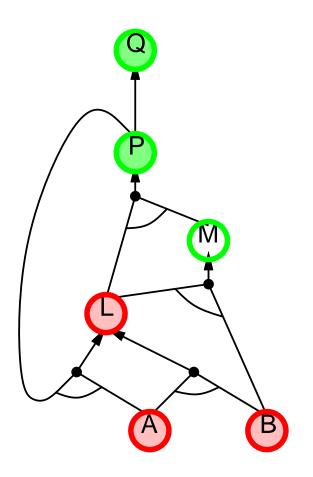


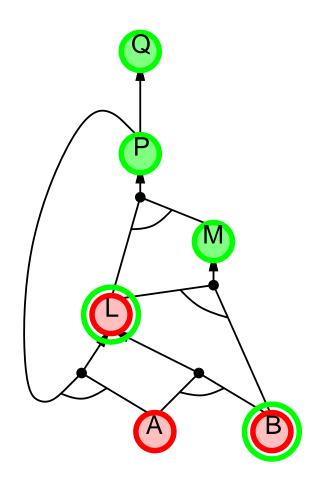


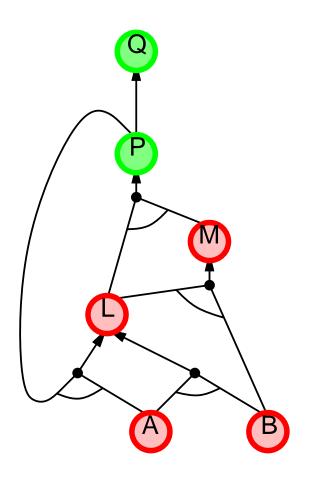


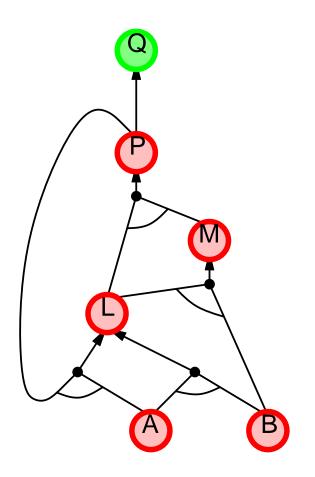


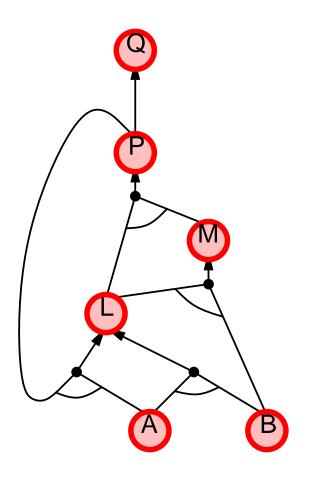












Forward vs. backward chaining

FC is data-driven, cf. automatic, unconscious processing, e.g., object recognition, routine decisions

May do lots of work that is irrelevant to the goal

BC is goal-driven, appropriate for problem-solving, e.g., Where are my keys? How do I get into a PhD program?

Complexity of BC can be much less than linear in size of KB

Summary

- ♦ syntax and semantics of propositional logic
- ♦ model checking
- ♦ inference
- efficient model checking
- \Diamond efficient inference (with Horn clauses)