# Techniques in Artificial Intelligence Propositional Logic

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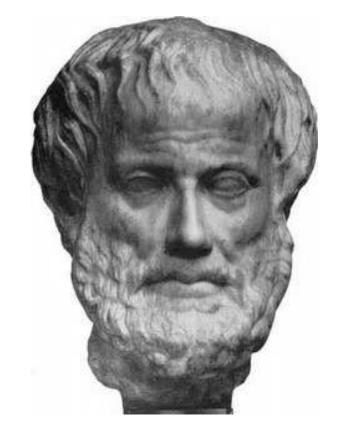
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#### This Lecture

- Logic as a Representation Language
- Soundness and Completeness of Inference
- Propositional Logic
  - Syntax
  - Semantics & Truth Tables
  - Natural Deduction
  - Inference with truth-table enumeration

# Logic as a Representation Language

- Logic: A branch of philosophy concerned with the study of correct inference (or argument)
- Dates back at least to Aristotle
- Symbolic logic: is the study of symbolic abstractions that capture the formal features of logical inference.

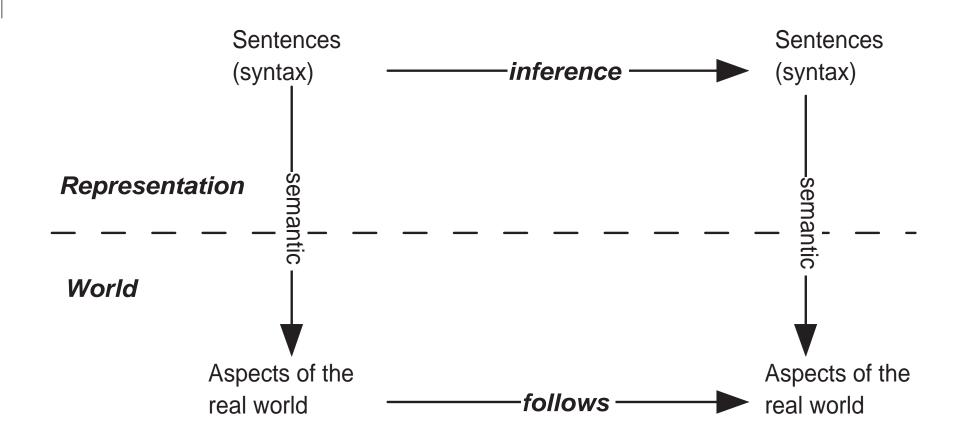


Aristotle (384 BC - 322 BC)

# Logic as a Representation Language

- Syntax: possible configurations (e.g. a C++ or Prolog program) that can constitute sentences.
- Reasoning (or inference or proof theory): a process of deriving new configurations (e.g. conclusions) from old ones (e.g. evidence). It works on the syntactic level.
  - Expression " $S_1 \vdash S_2$ " means we derived sentences  $S_2$  from sentences  $S_1$  using inference procedure  $\vdash$
- Semantics: The facts in the world to which the sentences refer.
  - Expression " $S_1 \models S_2$ " means aspects of the world  $S_2$  actually follow from aspects  $S_1$
  - We say that  $S_1$  entails (or semantically entails)  $S_2$

# **Syntax and Semantics**



# **Interpretation and Semantics**

- An interpretation of a set of sentences is a specific state of the world that the sentences refer to.
- Sometimes, a set of sentences may have more than one interpretation.
- In this case, the semantics of a set of sentences can be defined as a set of possible interpretations which are consistent with the sentences
- Any world in which a sentence is true under a particular interpretation is called a **model** of that sentence under that interpretation.

# Validity and Satisfiability

- A sentence is satisfiable if it is true under some interpretation.
  - E.g. "It is raining"
- A sentence is unsatisfiable (or contradictory) if it is not true under any interpretation.
  - E.g. "It is raining and it is not raining"
- A sentence is valid if it is true all possible interpretations.
  - E.g. "It's either raining or not raining"
- A set of sentences is consistent if they can be true together; i.e. if there is some interpretation under which they are together satisfiable.
  - E.g. "It's raining and I am hungry"

# **Properties of Inference Procedures**

- Soundness: An inference procedure ⊢ is sound if it generates only entailed sentences.
  - i.e. every sentence s derived using the inference procedure from a set of sentences  $S_1$  is also entailed by  $S_1$  in the real world
  - i.e. whenever  $S_1 \vdash s$ , we also have  $S_1 \models s$
- Completeness: An inference procedure ⊢ is complete if it can generate all entailed sentences.
  - i.e. every sentence s that is entailed by  $S_1$  in the real world can also be derived from  $S_1$  using the inference procedure
  - i.e. whenever  $S_1 \models s$ , we also have  $S_1 \vdash s$

# **Types of Logic**

- Monotonic Logic: A logic in which adding a sentence to the set of given sentences never invalidates a previously derived sentence
  - i.e. if  $S \vdash s$ , then  $(S \cup S') \vdash s$  regardless of the content of S'
- Non-monotonic Logic:
  - if  $S \vdash s$ , then it may be the case that  $(S \cup S') \vdash (not)s$  for some new sentences S'
- Non-monotonic logics are more natural, but harder to automate

# Syntax of Propositional Logic

Sentence ::= AtomicSentence

 $\mid CompoundSentence$ 

AtomicSentence ::= True|False|P|Q|R|...

CompoundSentence ::= Sentence Connective Sentence

 $|\neg Sentence|(Sentence)|$ 

 $Connective ::= \land | \lor | \rightarrow | \leftrightarrow$ 

Syntactic ambiguities are resolved using () and the precendence order  $\neg$ ,  $\land$ ,  $\lor$ ,  $\rightarrow$ ,  $\leftrightarrow$ 

Sometimes we refer to atomic sentences as "propositions"

# **Semantics of Propositional Logic**

- Meaning of atomic sentences P is the interpretation of that sentence to either True or False
- E.g. if P stands for "BUiD is in Dubai" then the meaning of P is either True or False depending on whether BUiD is actually in Dubai
- Meaning of compound sentences is given as follows:
  - $\neg P$  is **True** iff P is **False**
  - $P \wedge Q$  is **True** iff P is **True** and Q is **True**
  - $P \lor Q$  is **True** iff P is **True** or Q is **True**
  - $P \rightarrow Q$  is **True** iff P is **False** or Q is **True**
  - $P \leftrightarrow Q$  is True iff  $P \to Q$  is True and  $Q \to P$  is True

# Example 1

#### Let:

- P denote: "I am a BUiD student"
- Q denote: "I study KR"
- R denote: "I am cool"
- S denote: "I listen to Metallica"
- T denote: "I work hard"

 $(P \land Q) \rightarrow R$  means: "if I am a BUiD student, and I study KR, then I am cool"

$$((P \land Q) \lor S) \to R$$
 means: ?

$$((P \land Q \land \neg T) \lor \neg S) \rightarrow \neg R \text{ means: ?}$$

# **Semantics Continued: Interpretation**

An interpretation of propositional logic is an assignment of either **True** or **False** to each proposition.

For example, we can specify an interpretation  $I_1$ :

$$I_1 = \{P = \mathsf{True}, Q = \mathsf{True}, R = \mathsf{True}, S = \mathsf{False}, T = \mathsf{True}\}$$

Since each proposition can take one of two values (**True** or **False**), then given n propositions, we have  $2^n$  possible interpretations (i.e.  $2^n$  possible truth assignments).

In Example 1, we have 5 propositions, therefore  $2^5=32$  possible interpretations.

# **Semantics Continue: Truth Tables**

A *Truth Table* is a table of all possible interpretations of the propositions in the language.

P	Q
True	True
True	False
False	True
False	False

# **Truth Tables (cont.)**

We can use truth tables to specify semantics of connectives.

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \lor Q$	$P \rightarrow Q$	$P \leftrightarrow Q$
True	True	False	True	True	True	True
True	False	False	False	True	False	False
False	True	True	False	True	True	False
False	False	True	False	False	True	True

This can then be used to specify the semantics of compound sentences.

# **Truth Tables: Example**

Present the truth table for the statement  $((P \lor Q) \land \neg Q) \to P$ 

P	Q	$P \lor Q$	$(P \vee Q) \wedge \neg Q$	$((P \lor Q) \land \neg Q) \to P$
True	True	True	False	True
True	False	True	True	True
False	True	True	False	True
False	False	False	False	True

# Validity, Satisfiability & Contradiction

**Validity:** A sentence is *valid* (i.e. *necessarily true*) if it is true in all interpretations

E.g.  $((P \lor Q) \land \neg Q) \rightarrow P$  (from the previous slide) is valid.

E.g.  $P \vee \neg P$  is valid

Valid sentences are also called tautologies or theorems

**Satisfiability:** A sentence is *satisfiable* if there is some interpretation for which the sentence is true

**Contradiction:** A sentence is *contradictory* (i.e. *impossibly true*) if there is no interpretation in which it is true E.g.  $P \land \neg P$  is contradictory

#### **Models**

**Models:** A *model* of a sentence is an interpretation in which the sentences is true.

• E.g. the interpretation  $I = \{P = False, Q = True\}$  is a model of the sentence  $P \vee Q$ 

**Equivalence:** Two sentences are *equivalent* if they are true in the same set of models.

- E.g.  $P \wedge Q$  is equivalent to  $Q \wedge P$
- We write  $(P \land Q) \leftrightarrow (Q \land P)$

#### **Inference**

How do we decide whether a sentence is valid?

Generate a truth table and see whether the sentence is true in all interpretations

However, the size of the table grows exponentially with the number of propositions!

Are there other ways?

Yes! But we won't be looking at all of them.

One notable one is natural deduction

## **Natural Deduction**

In natural deduction, we have *inference rules*: general computable pattern for going from true sentences to true sentences.

Inference rules allow us to *infer* (or *deduce*) sentences (i.e. formulas) from other sentences.

Given a set of *premises* (i.e. assumed sentences), we can infer some other sentences (i.e. conclusions)

The expression  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \vdash \alpha$  denotes that if we assume the truth of sentences  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n$  then we can infer  $\alpha$ .

I.e.  $\alpha$  is true in every model of  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n$ 

### **Rules of Natural Deduction**

- $\wedge$  introduction ( $\wedge$ i):  $\frac{A}{A \wedge B}$  In words, if A and B are true, then  $A \wedge B$  is true
- $\wedge$  elimination ( $\wedge$ e1):  $\frac{A \wedge B}{A}$
- $\wedge$  elimination ( $\wedge$ e2):  $\frac{A \wedge B}{B}$
- $\vee$  introduction ( $\vee$ i1):  $\frac{A}{A\vee B}$
- $\vee$  introduction ( $\vee$ i2):  $\frac{B}{A \vee B}$

If we can deduce C from A and we can deduce C from B, then we can say that we can deduce C from  $A \vee B$ :  $\vee$  elimination ( $\vee$ e):

$$\begin{array}{cccc} & A & B \\ & \cdot & \cdot \\ & & \cdot \\ A \lor B & C & C \\ \hline & C \end{array}$$

If we can deduce B from A, then we can write  $A \rightarrow B$ :

 $\rightarrow$  introduction ( $\rightarrow$ i):

. В

$$\overline{A \to B}$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 elimination ( $\rightarrow$ e):  $\frac{A}{B}$ 

This is also called *modus ponens* 

If we can deduce  $\bot$  (contradiction) from A, then we have deduced that  $\neg A$  (Sometimes called *proof-by-contradiction*): **Reductio Ad Absurdum (RAA)**:

$$A$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\bot$$

$$\neg A$$

$$\neg$$
 elimination ( $\neg$ e):  $\frac{A}{\bot}$ 

I.e. we deduce a contradiction if something is both true and false

If you negate twice, you get the same thing:

 $\neg\neg$  introduction ( $\neg\neg$ i):

$$\frac{A}{\neg \neg A}$$

 $\neg\neg$  elimination ( $\neg\neg$ e):

$$\frac{\neg \neg A}{A}$$

If you deduce a contradiction, then anything can be deduced (see next slide for why!)

 $\perp$  elimination ( $\perp$ e):

$$\frac{\perp}{A}$$

Why do we infer anything from  $\perp$ ?

Contradiction means we have P and  $\neg P$  for some proposition P

But from P we can infer  $P \vee Q$  for any Q we like (by rule  $\vee$ i1)

And from  $\neg P$  and  $P \lor Q$  we can derive Q

Therefore, once we have a contradiction between a proposition and its negation, we can derive any other proposition (or formula).

# **Natural Deduction Example**

Show that  $P, \neg \neg (Q \land R) \vdash \neg \neg P \land R$ 

#### Solution:

1	Р	premise
2	$\neg\neg(Q\wedge R)$	premise
3	$\neg \neg P$	¬¬ <b>i</b>
4	$Q \wedge R$	¬¬e on 2
5	R	∧e on 4
6	$\neg \neg P \wedge R$	∧i on 3 and 5

Exercise? Try to show this using a truth table!

Inference using natural deduction rules is sound and complete (and some mathematician has proved this!)

#### **Natural Deduction and Truth Tables**

*Recall:* The expression  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \vdash \alpha$  denotes that if we assume the truth of sentences  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n$  then we can infer  $\alpha$ .

I.e.  $\alpha$  is true in every model of  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n$ 

I.e. Whenever  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n$  are true in the truth table,  $\alpha$  will also be true (but not necessarily vice versa!).

 $\vdash \alpha$  means that we can use natural deduction to show that sentence  $\alpha$  is always true (i.e. without assuming anything).

In other words,  $\vdash \alpha$  means that sentence  $\alpha$  is valid (i.e. a tautology, i.e. a theorem).

#### **Natural Deduction and Truth Tables**

How can we show that  $\psi_1, \psi_2, \dots, \psi_n \vdash \alpha$  using a truth table instead of natural deduction?

- 1. Construct a truth table for sentence  $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge \psi_n$ ,
- 2. Extend the truth table to show the values of sentence  $\alpha$ .
- 3. Show that whenever  $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge \psi_n$  is true, then  $\alpha$  is also true.
  - Or, equivalently, show that  $(\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge \psi_n) \rightarrow \alpha$  is valid (i.e. always true)

# **Example**

Show that  $P, \neg \neg (Q \land R) \vdash \neg \neg P \land R$  using a truth table.

P	Q	R	$Q \wedge R$	$P \wedge \neg \neg (Q \wedge R)$	$\neg \neg P \wedge R$
True	True	True	True	True	True
True	True	False	False	False	False
True	False	True	False	False	True
True	False	False	False	False	False
False	True	True	True	False	False
False	True	False	False	False	False
False	False	True	False	False	False
False	False	False	False	False	False

Whenever  $P \wedge \neg \neg (Q \wedge R)$  is true, so is  $\neg \neg P \wedge R$ 

l.e. 
$$(P \land \neg \neg (Q \land R)) \rightarrow \neg \neg P \land R$$
 is valid

# **Truth-Table Enumeration Algorithm**

#### Algorithm to decide if $\alpha$ is entailed by KB

```
symbols \Leftarrow \textit{list of proposition symbols in } KB \textit{ and } \alpha
model \Leftarrow []
<u>function</u>: TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, symbols, model) returns true or false
if EMPTY(symbols) then
  if PL-TRUE(KB, model) then
    return PL-TRUE(\alpha, model)
  else
    return true
  end if
else
  P \Leftarrow \textit{FIRST}(symbols); rest \Leftarrow \textit{REST}(symbols)
  return TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, rest, EXTEND(P, true, model)) and
  TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, rest, EXTEND(P, false, model))
end if
```

# TT Enumeration Algorithm (cont.)

- Recursive enumeration of a finite space of assignments to variables
- PL-TRUE() returns true if a sentence holds within a model.
- Variable model represents a partial model: an assignment to only some of the variables
- **●** Function EXTEND(P, x, model) returns a new partial model in which P has the value  $x \in \{true, false\}$

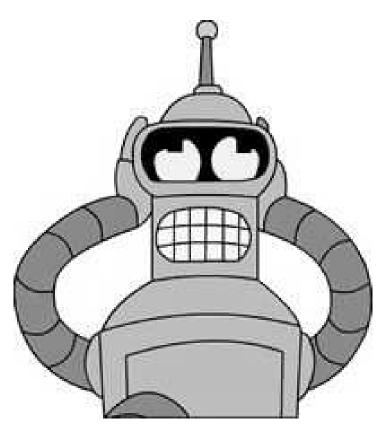
# TT Enumeration Algorithm (cont.)

- Algorithm is sound and complete (proven by someone)
- But for a language with n propositions, requires searching  $2^n$  models
- I.e. time complexity is  $O(2^n)$

# **Summary**

- Propositional Logic
  - Syntax
  - Semantics & Truth Tables
  - Natural Deduction
  - Inference with truth-table enumeration

# Thank you!



"Ahhh, what an awful dream. Ones and zeroes everywhere ... and I thought I saw a two!"