

## Propositional and First-Order Logic



# Propositional Logic: Review

## Big Ideas



- Logic is a great knowledge representation language for many AI problems
- Propositional logic is the simple foundation and fine for some AI problems
- First order logic (FOL) is much more expressive as a KR language and more commonly used in AI
- There are many variations: horn logic, higher order logic, three-valued logic, probabilistic logics, etc.

## **Propositional logic**



- Logical constants: true, false
- Propositional symbols: P, Q,... (atomic sentences)
- Wrapping parentheses: ( ... )
- Sentences are combined by connectives:

```
∧ and [conjunction]
```

⇔is equivalent[biconditional]

```
¬ not [negation]
```

Literal: atomic sentence or negated atomic sentence

## Examples of PL sentences

- (P ∧ Q) → R
   "If it is hot and humid, then it is raining"
- Q → P
   "If it is humid, then it is hot"
- Q
  "It is humid."
- We're free to choose better symbols, btw:

```
Ho = "It is hot"
Hu = "It is humid"
R = "It is raining"
```

## Propositional logic (PL)

- Simple language for showing key ideas and definitions
- User defines set of propositional symbols, like P and Q
- User defines semantics of each propositional symbol:
  - -P means "It is hot", Q means "It is humid", etc.
- A sentence (well formed formula) is defined as follows:
  - A symbol is a sentence
  - If S is a sentence, then  $\neg$ S is a sentence
  - If S is a sentence, then (S) is a sentence
  - If S and T are sentences, then (S ∨ T), (S  $\wedge$  T), (S  $\rightarrow$  T), and (S  $\leftrightarrow$  T) are sentences
  - A sentence results from a finite number of applications of the rules

- arv
- Inference is the process of deriving new sentences from old
  - Sound inference derives true conclusions given true premises
  - Complete inference derives all true conclusions from a set of premises
- A valid sentence is true in all worlds under all interpretations
- If an implication sentence can be shown to be valid, then—given its premise—its consequent can be derived
- Different logics make different commitments about what the world is made of and what kind of beliefs we can have
- Propositional logic commits only to the existence of facts that may or may not be the case in the world being represented
  - Simple syntax and semantics suffices to illustrate the process of inference
  - Propositional logic can become impractical, even for very small worlds



## **Predicate Logic**

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## A Predicate Logic Example

- 1. Marcus was a man.
- 2. Marcus was a Pompeian.
- 3. All Pompeian were Romans.
- 4. Caesar was a ruler.
- 5. All Romans were either loyal to Caesar or hated him.
- 6. Everyone is loyal to someone.
- 7. People only try to assassinate rulers they are not loyal to.
- 8. Marcus tried to assassinate Caesar.

- 1. Marcus was a man. man(Marcus)
- 2. Marcus was a Pompeian. Pompeian(Marcus)
- 3. All Pompeians were Romans.  $\forall x : Pompeian(x) \rightarrow Roman(x)$
- 4. Caesar was a ruler. ruler(Caesar)
- 5. All Romans were either loyal to Caesar or hated him.  $\forall x : Roman(x) \rightarrow loyalto(x, Caesar) \lor hate(x, Caesar)$
- 6. Everyone is loyal to someone.
  - $\forall x: \exists y: loyalto(x, y)$
- 7. People only try to assassinate rulers they aren't loyal to.  $\forall x : \forall y : person(x) \land ruler(y) \land tryassassinate(x, y) \rightarrow \neg loyalto(x, y)$
- 8. Marcus tried to assassinate Caesar. tryassassinate(Marcus, Caesar)
- 9. All men are people.  $\forall x : man(x) \rightarrow person(x)$

## P U

#### An Attempt to Prove

¬ loyalto(Marcus, Caesar)

```
¬ loyalto(Marcus, Caesar)
              (7, substitution)
person(Marcus) /
ruler(Caesar)△
tryassassinate(Marcus,Caesar)
person(Marcus)
tryassassinate{Marcus, Caesar)
person(Marcus)
       (9)
 man(Marcus)
       \uparrow (1)
     nil
```

## Three Ways of Representing Class Membership



- 1. man(Marcus)
- 2. Pompeian(Marcus)
- 3.  $\forall x : Pompeian(x) \rightarrow Roman(x)$
- 4. ruler(Caesar)
- 5.  $\forall x : Roman(x) \rightarrow loyalto(x, Caesar) \lor hate(x, Caesar)$
- 1. instance(Marcus, man)
- 2. instance(Marcus, Pompeian)
- 3.  $\forall x : instance(x, Pompeian) \rightarrow instance(x, Roman)$
- 4. instance(Caesar, ruler)
- 5.  $\forall x : instance(x, Roman) \rightarrow loyalto(x, Caesar) \lor hate(x, Caesar)$
- 1. instance(Marcus, man)
- 2. instance(*Marcus, Pompeian*)
- 3. isa(Pompeian, Roman)
- 4. instance(Caesar, ruler)
- 5.  $\forall x : instance(x, Roman) \rightarrow loyalto(x, Caesar) \lor hate(x, Caesar)$
- 6.  $\forall x : \forall y : \forall z : instance(x, y) \land isa(y, z) \rightarrow instance(x, z)$



#### **Overriding Defaults**

Make Paulus an exception to the general rule about the

Suppose we add:

Romans and their feeling towards Caesar.

```
Pompeian(Paulus)
¬ [loyalto(Paulus, Caesar) \/ hate(Paulus, Caesar)]
```

#### But now we have a problem with 5:

```
\forall x : Roman(x) \rightarrow loyalto(x, Caesar) \lor hate(x, Caesar)
```

#### So we need to change it to:

```
\forall x : Roman(x) \land \neg eq(x, Paulus) \rightarrow loyalto(x, Caesar) \lor hate(x, Caesar)
```

Every exception to a general rule must be stated twice, once in a particular statement And once in exception list that forms part of general rule

## **Another Predicate Logic Example**

- 1. Marcus was a man.
- 2. Marcus was a Pompeian.
- 3. Marcus was born in 40 A.D.
- 4. All men are mortal.
- 5. All Pompeians died when the volcano erupted in 79 A.D.
- 6. No mortal lives longer than 150 years.

Is Marcus alive?

- 7. It is now 1991.
- 8. Alive means not dead.
- 9. If someone dies, then he is dead at all later times.



#### A Set of Facts about Marcus

- 1. man(Marcus)
- 2. Pompeian(Marcus)
- 3. born(Marcus, 40)
- 4.  $\forall x : man(x) \rightarrow mortal(x)$
- 5.  $\forall$ :  $Pompeian(x) \rightarrow died(x, 79)$  Computable predicates
- 6. erupted(yolcano,79)
- 7.  $\forall_x : \forall t_1 : \forall t_2 : mortal(x) \land born(x, t_1) \land gt(t_2 t_1, 150) \rightarrow dead(x, t_2)$
- 8. now = 1991
- 9.  $\forall x : \forall t : [alive(x, t) \rightarrow \neg dead(x, t)] \land [\neg dead(x, t) \rightarrow alive(x, t)]$
- 10.  $\forall x : \forall t_1 : \forall t_2 : died(x, t_1) \land gt(t_2, t_1) \rightarrow dead(x, t_2)$



#### One Way of Proving That Marcus Is Dead

```
¬alive(Marcus, now)
                         (9, substitution)
       dead(Marcus, now)
                       (10, substitution)
  died(Marcus, t_1) \land gt(now, t_1)
                     (5, substitution)
Pompeian(Marcus) \land gt(now, 79)
           gt(now, 79)
                         (8, substitute equals)
           gt(1991,79)
                          (compute gt)
                nil
```

The term nil at end of each proof indicate that the list of conditions remaining is empty So the proof has succeeded.

#### **Another Way of Proving That Marcus Is Dead**

```
¬alive(Marcus, now)
                       (9, substitution)
dead(Marcus, now)
                      (7, substitution)
 mortal(Marcus) /
born(Marcus, t_1) \land
 gt(now - t_1, 150)
                       (4, substitution)
  man(Marcus) \wedge

    Very simple conclusion can

born(Marcus, t_1) \land
                               require many steps to prove.
 gt(now - t_1, 150)
                              •A variety of processes such as
                      (1)
born(Marcus, t_1) \land
                              Matching, substitution and application
  gt(now - t_1, 150)
                              of modus ponens are involved in
                       (3)
                              production of proof.
 gt(now - 40,150)
                      (8)
 gt(1991 - 40,150)
                       (compute minus)
    gt(1951,150)
                       (compute gt)
          nil
```



#### Resolution

- Resolution produces proof by refutation. i.e. to prove a statement, resolution attempts to show that the negation of statement produces a contradiction with known statements.
- This approach contrast with technique that we have been using to generate proofs by chaining backward from theorem to be proved axioms.
- It operates on statements that have been converted to a very convenient standard form.
- The formula would be easier to work with if
  - It were flatter i.e. there was less embedding of components.
  - The quantifiers were separated from the rest of formula so they did not need to be consider.
- Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)has both these properties.

$$[p_{21} \vee p_{22} \vee \dots p_{2n}] \wedge [p_{11} \vee p_{12} \vee \dots p_{1n}] \wedge$$

### Algorithm: Convert to Clause Form

- 1. Eliminate  $\rightarrow$ , using:  $a \rightarrow b = \neg a \lor b$ .
- 2. Reduce the scope of each  $\neg$  to a single term, using:
  - $\bullet \neg (\neg p) = p$
  - deMorgan's laws:  $\neg (a \land b) = \neg a \lor \neg b$  $\neg (a \lor b) = \neg a \land \neg b$
  - $\bullet \ \neg \forall x : P(x) = \exists x : \neg P(x)$
  - $\bullet \neg \exists x : P(x) = \forall x : \neg P(x)$
- 3. Standardize variables.
- 4. Move all quantifiers to the left of the formula without changing their relative order.
- 5. Eliminate existential quantifiers by inserting Skolem functions.
- 6. Drop the prefix.
- 7. Convert the matrix into a conjunction of disjuncts, using associativity and distributivity.
- 8. Create a separate clause for each conjunct.
- 9. Standardize apart the variables in the set of clauses generated in step 8, using the fact that

$$(\forall x : P(x) \land Q(x)) = \forall x : P(x) \land \forall x : Q(x)$$

## **Examples of Conversion to Clause Form**

#### Given Axioms

P

$$(P \land Q) \rightarrow R$$

$$(S \lor T) \to Q$$

T

## **Examples of Conversion to Clause Form**

Suppose we know that all Romans who know Marcus either hate Caesar or think **Example:** That anyone who hates anyone is crazy.

```
\forall x : [Roman(x) \land know(x, Marcus)] \rightarrow [hate(x, Caesar) \lor (\forall y : \exists z : hate(y, z) \rightarrow thinkcrazy(x, y))]
```

#### 1 Eliminate →

```
\bigvee x : \neg [Roman(x) \land know < x, Marcus)] \bigvee [hate(x, Caesar) \bigvee (\forall y : \neg(\exists z : hate(y, z)) \bigvee thinkcrazy(x,y))]
```

#### 2 Reduce scope of

```
\forall x : [\neg Roman(x) \lor \neg know(x, Marcus)] \lor [hate(x, Caesar) \lor (\forall y : \forall z : \neg hate(y, z) \lor thinkcrazy(x, y))]
```

#### 3 Standardize Variables.

```
\forall x : P(x) \lor \forall x : Q(x)
would be converted to
\forall x : P(x) \lor \forall y : Q(y)
```

## **Examples of Conversion to Clause Form**

#### 4 Move quantifiers.

Prenex normal form

```
\forall x : \forall y : \forall z : [\neg Roman(x) \lor \neg know(x Marcus)] \lor [hate(x, Caesar) \lor (\neg hate(y, z) \lor thinkcrazy(x,y))]
```

#### 5 Eliminate existential quantifiers.

```
\exists y : President(y)
will be converted to
President(S1)
while
\forall x : \exists y : father-of(y,x)
will be converted to
\forall x : father-of(S2(x),x))
```

#### 6 Drop the prefix.

```
[\neg Roman(x) \lor \neg know(x, Marcus)] \lor 
[hate(x, Caesar) \lor (\neg hate(y, z) \lor thinkcrazy\{x, y))]
```

#### 7 Convert to a conjunction of disjuncts.

```
\neg Roman(x) \lor \neg know(x, Marcus) \lor 
 hate(x, Caesar) \lor \neg hate(y, z) \lor thinkcrazy(x, y)
```



#### Convert a matrix to conjunction of disjuncts.

#### The Formula

```
(winter \land wearingboots) \lor (summer \land wearingsandals)
```

becomes, after one application of the rule

```
[winter \lor (summer \land wearingsandals)] \land [wearingboots \lor (summer \land wearingsandals)]
```

#### becomes

```
[winter \lor (summer \land wearingsandals)] \land [wearingboots \lor (summer \land wearingsandals)]
```

#### and then becomes

```
(winter \lor summer) \land
(winter \lor wearingsandals) \land
(wearingboots \lor summer) \land
(wearingboots \lor wearingsandals)
```



Thank Your!!