

# Artificial Intelligence with Logic Programming - Notes

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February 24, 2020

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# 1 Introduction

## Definition 1.1 - Types of AI

1. *Weak AI* - Can solve a specific task.
2. *Strong AI* - Can solve general problems.
3. *Ultra Strong AI* - Can solve general problems & explain why/what it is doing.

# 2 Logic Programming

## Definition 2.1 - Logic Programming

*Logic Programming* is a *declarative paradigm* where programs are conceived as a logical theory, rather than a set-by-step description of an algorithm. A Procedure call is viewed as a theorem which the truth needs to be established about. (*i.e.* executing a programming is analogous to searching for truth in a system).

## Remark 2.1 - Variables

In *Logic Programming* a *Variable* is a variable in the mathematical sense, that is they are placeholders that can take on any value.

## Remark 2.2 - Machine Model

A *Machine Model* is an abstraction of the computer on which programs are executed. In *Imperative Programming* we assume a dynamic, state-based machine model where the state of the computer is given by the contents of its memory & a program statement is a transition from one statement to another. In *Logic Programming* we do not assume such a dynamic model.

## 2.1 Clausal Logic

### Notation 2.1 - Variables & Values

*Variables* are denoted by having a capitalised first letter, whereas *values* are completely lowercase.

## Definition 2.1 - Clausal Logic

*Clausal Logic* is a formalism for representing & reasoning with knowledge.

Keyword	Description
<b>S:-C.</b>	If condition <b>C</b> holds <b>then</b> statement <b>S</b> is true.
<b>S:-\+C.</b>	If condition <b>C</b> does <b>not</b> hold <b>then</b> statement <b>S</b> is true.
<b>S:-C1,C2.</b>	If conditions <b>C1</b> <b>and</b> <b>C2</b> both hold <b>then</b> statement <b>S</b> is true.
<b>S:-C1;C2.</b>	If at least one of <b>C1</b> <b>or</b> <b>C2</b> hold <b>then</b> statement <b>S</b> is true.
<b>S:-C,!.</b>	<b>Cut</b> the program after finding <b>first</b> <b>S</b> where <b>C</b> holds.

## Definition 2.2 - Facts & Rules

*Facts* are logical formulae which are defined for explicit values **only**. *Facts* denoted unconditional truth.

**nearby(bond\_street,oxford\_circus).**

*Rules* are logical formula which are defined in terms of variables (and explicit values). *Rules* denote conditional truth.

**nearby(X,Y):-connected(X,Z,L),connected(Z,Y,L)**

**Definition 2.3 - Query,  $\text{?-}$** 

A *Query* asks a question about the knowledgebase we have defined. If we just pass *values* to a *Query* then it shall simply return whether the statement is true or not. If we pass *unbound variables* as well then it shall return values for the variable which make the statement true, if any exist.

**Example 2.1 - Query**

```
1  $\text{?-nearby}(\text{bond\_street}, \text{oxford\_circus})$ 
2  $\text{?-nearby}(\text{bond\_street}, X)$ 
```

(1) will return *true* if we have defined **bond\_street** to be near to **oxford\_circus**.

(2) will return all the values of **X** (*i.e.* stations) which are near to **bond\_street**.

**Definition 2.4 - Resolution**

In order to answer a query  $\text{?-Q1}, Q2, \dots$  find a rule  $A:-B1, \dots, Bn$  such that **A** matches with **Q1** then proceed to answer  $\text{?-B1}, \dots, Bn, Q2, \dots$ .

This is a *procedural interpretation* of logical formulae & is what allows *Logic* to be a programming language.

**Definition 2.5 - Functor**

*Functors* provide a way to name a complex object composed of simpler objects & are never evaluated to determine a value.

```
1  $\text{reachable}(X, Y, \text{noroute}) :- \text{connected}(X, Y, L)$ 
2  $\text{reachable}(X, Y, \text{route}(Z, R)) :- \text{connected}(X, Z, L), \text{connected}(Z, Y, R)$ 
```

Querying  $\text{?-reachable}(\text{oxford\_circus}, \text{tottenham\_court\_road}, R)$  will return a route **R** which connects the two stations, on a single line.

The above definition can be read as **X** is reachable from **Y** if they are connected **or** if there exists a station **Z** which is connected.

**Definition 2.6 - List Functor,  $.$** 

The *List Functor* takes two arguments, one on each side, and has terminator **[]**.

$$[a, b, c] \equiv .(a, .(b, .(c, [])))$$

Alternatively we can use a pipe to distinguish between a value and the rest of the list

$$[X, Y | R]$$

**Remark 2.1 - Logical Formulae**

*Logical Formulae* determine what is being modelled & the set of formulae that can be derived by applying inference rules.

*i.e.* *Logical Formulae* have both declarative (what is true) & procedural (how the truth is reached) meaning.

Changing the order of statements in a clause does not change the declarative meaning ( $3 = 2 + 1 \equiv 3 = 1 + 2$ ) but does change the procedural meaning & thus changes what loops we may get stuck in, what solutions are found first & how long execution takes.

*N.B.* The procedural meaning of *Logical Formulae* is what allows them to be used as a programming language.

**2.2 SLD-Resolution****Definition 2.1 - SLD-Resolution**

*SLD-Resolution* is the process **Prolog** uses to resolve a query.

1. **Selection Rule** - Left-to-right (Always take the left branch if it is there).  
This is equivalent to reading clauses top to bottom in a **Prolog** program.
2. **Linear Resolution** - The shape of the proof trees obtained. **Definite Clauses**

*N.B.* These rules vary for different languages.

**Definition 2.2** - *SLD-Tree*

*SLD-Trees* are graphical representations of *SLD-Resolution*.

They are not the same as a proof tree as only the resolvents are shown (no input clauses or unifiers) and it contains every possible resolution step, leading to every leaf on an *SLD-Tree* being an empty clause  $\square$ .

The left-most leaf in an *SLD-Tree* will be returned as the first solution, if we end up in an infinite sub-tree then no solution will ever be returned.

Non-leaf nodes in *SLD-Trees* are called *choice points*. *N.B.* If a leaf is a failure then we underline it.

**Proposition 2.1** - *Traversing an SLD-Tree*

**Prolog** traverses *SLD-Trees* in a *depth-first* fashion, backtracking whenever it reaches a success or a failure. This can be visualised as following the left branch of the tree whenever it is available. This leads to **Prolog** being incomplete (does not always return all solutions) as once it is in an infinite sub-tree it has no way of escaping.

**Remark 2.1** - *Backtracking*

Since we need to be able to *Backtrack* after finding successes or failures, we need to store all previous resolvents which have not been fully explored yet as well as a pointer to the most recent program clause that has been tried.

Due to the depth-first nature of **Prolog** this can be stored as a *stack*.

**Remark 2.2** - *Order of clauses*

Due to the *Selection Rule* being left-to-right you should *put non-recursive clauses before recursive clauses* to ensure that solutions are found before infinite sub-trees.

**Definition 2.3** - *Transitivity*

*Transitivity* is a property of predicate that states

$$X = Y \ \& \ Y = Z \implies X = Z$$

*Transitivity* clauses can cause infinite loops is not implemented carefully.

**Remark 2.3** - *Why not use Breadth-First Search?*

*Breadth-First Search* requires for each branch at a given level to be tracked (rather than just one in *Depth-First Search*), this requires more memory and was deemed memory-inefficient by **Prolog** developers.

**Remark 2.4** - *Queries with no solution*

Some queries do not have a solution as the *SLD-Tree* they produce is infinite, no matter how it is read & thus an answer can never be resolved.

Consider

```
1 brother_of(paul,peter).
2 brother_of(X,Y):-brother_of(Y,X).
```

The query `brother_of(peter,maria)` has no answer since its *SLD-Tree* is infinite.

### Definition 2.4 - Cut, !

A *Cut* says that once it has been reached, stick to all the variable substitutions found after entering its clause. (*i.e.* Do not backtrack past it?).

*Cuts* have the effect of pruning the *SLD-Tree*.

*Cuts* which don't remove any successful branches are called *Green Cuts* and are harmless. *Cuts* which do remove successful branches are called *Red Cuts* and affects the procedural meaning of the process.

*N.B.* *Cuts* make the left sub-tree deterministic.

**Notation 2.1** - In *SDL-Trees* we put a box around subtrees which are pruned by `!`.

## 2.3 Negation as Failure

### Definition 2.1 - Negation as Failure

*Negation as Failure* is an interpretation of the semantics for failure.

It states if we cannot prove `q` to be true then we take `not(q)` to be true.

*i.e.* If we don't have enough information to state where `q` is true then we assume it to be false.

*e.g.* Negation as failure would resolve that "I cannot prove God exists, therefore God does not exist."

**Proposition 2.1** - Altering Negation as Failure

### Proposition 2.2 - Cut as Failure

Suppose we have a program of the following form

```
1 p:-q,!,r.
2 p:-s.
```

We can interpret it as

```
1 p:-q,r.
2 p:-not_q,s.
```

where `not_q:=q,fail..`

### Definition 2.2 - Negation Function, not()

Let `Goal` be a literal we wish to negate

```
1 not(Goal):-Goal,!,fail.
2 not(Goal).
```

### Definition 2.3 - Call Function, call()

TODO

**Remark 2.1** - `not()` & `call()` are called meta-predicates as they take formulas as arguments.

### Remark 2.2 - Negation as Failure is not Logical Negation

If we cannot prove predicate `q` we know that `q` is not a logical consequence of the program, but that does not mean that its negation `:q` is a logical consequence of the program.

This is acceptable reasoning in some scenarios, but not others.

### Definition 2.4 - Logical Negation

*Logical Negation* can only be expressed by indefinite clauses, as below

```
1  p;q,r.
2  p;q:-s.
3  s.
```

**Definition 2.5** - *Conditionals, `if_then_else()`*

We give the following definition where if **S** holds then **T** is executed, else **U** is executed.

```
1  if_then_else(S,T,U):-S,! ,T/
2  if_then_else(S,T,U):-U.
```

**Notation 2.1** - *Implication, `->`*

We can nest `if_then_else()` to add more *elif* clauses but is clumsy notation.

Instead we simplify `if_then_else(S,T,U).` to `S->T;U..`

This can be nested as `P->Q;(R->S;T).` The keyword `otherwise` can be used instead of `true` as it can be more readable.

## 0 First Order Logic

### Definition 0.1 - The Alphabet

A *First Order Logic* language can comprise the following types of symbols

Name	Description	Example Notation
Variables	Arbitrary objects	<b>X Y</b> (Capitalised)
Constants	Specified objects	<b>oliver</b> (Lower Case)
Functions	Object mappings	<b>mother/1 father/1</b>
Propositions	Unstructured assertions	<b>p q</b>
Predicates	Object properties & relations	<b>happy/1 loves/2</b>
Connectives	Connect two predicates	$\neg \wedge \vee \rightarrow$
Quantifiers	Amount of objects to consider	$\forall \exists$
Logical Constants	True & False	$\top \perp$
Punctuation	Structure of groupings	$() , :$
Equality	Equivalent values	$=$

### Definition 0.2 - Arity

The *Arity* of a *Function* is the number of arguments it takes.

e.g. **father/1** has 1-*Arity*.

## 0.1 Syntax

### Definition 0.1 - Term

A *Term* is a

1. Single constant, **c**.
2. Single variable, **X**.
3.  $n$ -arity function applied to  $n$  terms, **f**( $t_1, \dots, t_n$ ) where  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are Terms.

### Definition 0.2 - Atom

An *Atom* is a

1. Single proposition symbol, **p**.
2.  $n$ -arity predicate applied to  $n$  terms, **r**( $t_1, \dots, t_n$ ) where  $t_1, \dots, t_n$  are Terms.

### Definition 0.3 - Formula

A *Formula* is

1. An atom, **a**.
2. A logical constant, **\top** or **\bot**.
3. A negation of a formula,  $\neg \mathbf{f}$ .
4. A conjunction of two formulae,  $\mathbf{f} \wedge \mathbf{g}$ .
5. A disjunction of two formulae,  $\mathbf{f} \vee \mathbf{g}$ .
6. A condition of two formulae,  $\mathbf{f} \rightarrow \mathbf{g}$ .
7. A universal quantification of a formula and a variable,  $\forall \mathbf{X} : \mathbf{f}$ .
8. A existential quantification of a formula and a variable,  $\exists \mathbf{X} : \mathbf{f}$ .

**Definition 0.4 - Normal Forms**

*Normal Forms* are a restricted sub-languages of *First Order Languages*.

*Normal Forms* are used to facilitate the storage of logical formula in a computer's memory by simplifying the inference procedures required for their manipulation.

*N.B.* *Prenex Normal Forms* & *Conjunctive Normal Forms* are examples.

**Definition 0.5 - Prenex Normal Forms, PNFs**

*Prenex Normal Forms* only allow formulae of the form

**<prefix><matrix>**

where **prefix** is a string of quantifiers & **matrix** is a quantifier-free formula.

*N.B.* There is an algorithm for converting any *First Order Language* formula into *PNF* form (**Theorem 0.1**).

**Definition 0.6 - Conjunctive Normal Forms, CNFs**

*Conjunctive Normal Forms* are more restrictive than *PNFs* since they only allow formulae of the form

**<prefix><matrix>**

where **prefix** is a string of universal quantifiers & **matrix** is a conjunction of disjunctions of atoms, or their negations.

This conjunctions of disjunctions are known as clauses.

**Remark 0.1 - CNF Matrix**

The *Matrix* of a *CNF* is either

1. A set of sets of literals (*i.e.* atoms & their negations).
2. A set of clauses of the form **<body>**  $\rightarrow$  **<head>** where the **head** is a disjunction of literals (or  $\perp$ ), and the **body** is a conjunction of literals (or  $\top$ ).

**Theorem 0.1 - FOL to PNF**

1. Replace implications, **p**  $\rightarrow$  **q** by disjunction and negation, **( $\neg$ p)**  $\vee$  **q**.
2. Push negations inside, so that each of them immediately precede a literal.
3. Move quantifiers to the front (the result is said to be *PNF*).
4. Replace existential variables by *Skolem Functors*.
5. Rewrite into *CNF* (*i.e.* A conjunction of disjunction of literals).
6. Rewrite each conjunct to a clause.

**Example 0.1 - Theorem 0.1**

```

0  ( $\forall Y: \exists: \text{mother\_of}(X, Y) \wedge (\neg \forall Z: \exists W: \text{woman}(Z) \rightarrow \text{mother\_of}(Z, W))$ )
1  ( $\forall Y: \exists: \text{mother\_of}(X, Y) \wedge (\neg \forall Z: \exists W: \neg \text{woman}(Z) \vee \text{mother\_of}(Z, W))$ )
2  ( $\forall Y: \exists: \text{mother\_of}(X, Y) \wedge (\exists Z: \forall W: \text{woman}(Z) \wedge \neg \text{mother\_of}(Z, W))$ )
3   $\forall Y: \exists X: \exists Z: \forall W: (\text{mother\_of}(X, Y) \wedge \text{woman}(Z) \wedge \neg \text{mother\_of}(Z, W))$ 
4   $\forall Y: \forall W: (\text{mother\_of}(\text{sk1}(Y), Y) \wedge \text{woman}(\text{sk2}(Y)) \wedge \neg \text{mother\_of}(\text{sk2}(Y), W))$ 
5   $\text{mother\_of}(\text{sk1}(Y), Y) \wedge \text{woman}(\text{sk2}(Y)) \wedge \neg \text{mother\_of}(\text{sk2}(Y), W)$ 
5   $\text{mother\_of}(\text{mother}(Y), Y) \wedge \text{woman}(\text{childless\_woman}) \wedge \neg \text{mother\_of}(\text{childless\_woman}, W)$ 
6   $\top \rightarrow \text{mother\_of}(\text{mother}(Y), Y)$ 
    $\top \rightarrow \text{woman}(\text{childless\_woman}) \leftarrow \top$ 
    $\text{mother\_of}(\text{childless\_woman}, W) \rightarrow \perp$ 

```



This can be expressed in Prolog as

```
mother_of(mother(Y),Y).
woman(childless_woman).
:- mother_of(childless_woman,W).
```

## 0.2 Semantics

### Definition 0.1 - Assignment

Let  $\mathcal{L}$  be a *First Order Language* with domain  $|\mathcal{L}|$ .

An *Assignment* is a function  $\mathbf{h}()$  from a variable symbol  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{L}$  to  $|\mathcal{L}|$ .

### Definition 0.2 - Interpretation

Let  $\mathcal{L}$  be a *First Order Language* with domain  $|\mathcal{L}|$ .

An *Assignment* is a function  $(\ )^I$  from an  $n$ -arity function symbol  $\mathbf{f}/\mathbf{n} \in \mathcal{L}$  to functions  $|\mathcal{L}|^n \rightarrow |\mathcal{L}|$ , and from  $n$ -arity predicate symbols  $\mathbf{p}/\mathbf{n}$  of  $\mathcal{L}$  to relations on  $|\mathcal{L}|^n$ .

### Definition 0.3 - Value

Let  $\mathcal{L}$  be a *First Order Language* with domain  $|\mathcal{L}|$ .

The *Value* of a term,  $\mathbf{t}$ , denoted  $[\mathbf{t}]^{I,\mathbf{h}}$  is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{X}]^{I,\mathbf{h}} &:= \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{X}) && \text{if } \mathbf{t} \text{ is a variable } \mathbf{X}. \\ [\mathbf{f}(t_1, \dots, t_n)]^{I,\mathbf{h}} &:= \mathbf{f}^I([\mathbf{t}_1]^{I,\mathbf{h}}, \dots, [\mathbf{t}_n]^{I,\mathbf{h}}) && \text{if } \mathbf{t} \text{ is a term of the form } \mathbf{f}(t_1, \dots, t_n). \end{aligned}$$

### Definition 0.4 - Satisfaction, $\models$

The *Satisfaction* of a formula  $\mathbf{f}$ , denoted  $\mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} \models \mathbf{f}$  is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} &\models \top \\ \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} &\not\models \perp \\ \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} &\models \mathbf{p}(t_1, \dots, t_n) \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathbf{p}^I([\mathbf{t}_1]^{I,\mathbf{h}}, \dots, [\mathbf{t}_n]^{I,\mathbf{h}}) \\ \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} &\models \mathbf{f} \wedge \mathbf{g} \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} \models \mathbf{f} \text{ and } \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} \models \mathbf{g} \\ \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} &\models \neg \mathbf{f} \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} \not\models \mathbf{f} \\ \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h} &\models \forall \mathbf{X} : \mathbf{f} \quad \text{iff} \quad \mathbf{I}, \mathbf{h}[\mathbf{X} \mapsto \mathbf{d}] \models \mathbf{f} \text{ for every } \mathbf{d} \in |\mathcal{L}| \end{aligned}$$

*N.B.* Denotes if a formula is valid for the given interpretation,  $\mathbf{I}$ , & assignment,  $\mathbf{h}$ .

### Definition 0.5 - Model of Formula

An interpretation,  $\mathbf{M}$ , is a *Model* of a formula,  $\mathbf{f}$ , denoted  $\mathbf{M} \models \mathbf{f}$  iff  $\mathbf{M}, \mathbf{h} \models \mathbf{f}$  for all assignments  $\mathbf{h} \in \mathcal{L}_{\text{var}} \rightarrow |\mathcal{L}|$ .

### Definition 0.6 - Model of Set of Formulae

An interpretation,  $\mathbf{M}$ , is a *Model* of a set of formulae,  $\mathbf{F}$ , denoted  $\mathbf{M} \models \mathbf{F}$  iff  $\mathbf{M} \models \mathbf{f}$  for all  $\mathbf{f} \in \mathbf{F}$ .

### Remark 0.1 - A set of formulae is known as a Theory

### Definition 0.7 - Entailment

A set of formulae,  $\mathbf{F}$ , *Entails* a set of formulae,  $\mathbf{G}$ , denoted  $\mathbf{F} \models \mathbf{G}$  iff every model of  $\mathbf{F}$  is a model of  $\mathbf{G}$ .

*N.B.* Here  $\mathbf{F}$  is an alternative semantics to  $\mathbf{G}$ .

## 0.3 Herbrand

### Definition 0.1 - Herbrand

A *Herbrand Universe* is a set of all possible ground *Terms*.

A *Herbrand Base* is a set of all possible ground *Atoms* (all possible combinations of ground terms as arguments to predicates).

A *Herbrand Interpretation* is any subset of the *Herbrand Base*.

A *Herbrand Model* is a *Herbrand Interpretation* which is said to be true.

**Example 0.1 - Herbrand**

Consider a *First Order Language* which consists of two constants **peter** & **maria** and two predicates **teacher/1** & **student\_of/2**.

Then the *Herbrand Universe* is

$$\{\text{peter}, \text{maria}\}$$

And the *Herbrand Base* is

$$\{\text{teacher}(\text{peter}), \text{teacher}(\text{maria}), \\ \text{student\_of}(\text{peter}, \text{peter}), \text{student\_of}(\text{peter}, \text{maria}), \\ \text{student\_of}(\text{maria}, \text{peter}), \text{student\_of}(\text{maria}, \text{maria})\}$$

A *Herbrand Interpretation* would be any subset of these six.

Which of these subsets is a *Herbrand Model* depends on how we define the predicates, **teacher/1** & **student\_of/2**.

**Definition 0.2 - Horn Theory**

A *Horn Theory*, is a theory whose clausal form has the property that every clause has at most one positive literal.

*N.B.* A formula entails a *Horn Theory* if it satisfies the minimal model of the *Horn Theory*.

*N.B.* *Horn Theories* have a unique minimal model.