

AIKI100

Logic & AI

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What is logic?

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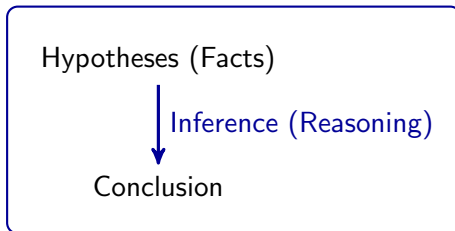
- Studied since ancient times
- Connected with rhetorics and law

Just because something sounds *convincing*,
that doesn't mean it is *correct*.

...But what does it mean to be *correct*?

Hypotheses and inference

Arguments typically have the following structure:



The conclusion can be false if either a hypothesis is false or the inference is incorrect.

Logic is concerned with the study of *inference*.

A first example

An inference is typically written as:

$$\frac{\text{Premisses}}{\text{Conclusion}}$$

Meaning: whenever all the premisses are true, the conclusion must also be true.

A famous example:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{All men are mortal} \\ \text{Socrates is a man} \end{array}}{\text{Socrates is mortal}}$$

Syllogisms: a definition

A syllogism is built from sentences of the form:

- “All Greeks are mortal”
- “Some Greek is mortal”
- “No Greek is mortal”
- “Some Greek is not mortal”

A syllogism is made of exactly two premisses and one conclusion, involving three terms (“Greeks”, “mortals”, “cats” ...).

Examples of syllogisms

All cats are mammals
All mammals are animals

All cats are animals

All cats are mammals
No bird is a mammal

No bird is a cat

All cats are mammals
Some animal is a cat

Some animal is a mammal

All cats are mammals
Some animal is not a mammal

Some animal is not a cat

No bird is a cat
Some animal is a bird

Some animal is not a cat

No bird is a cat
Some animal is a cat

Some animal is not a bird

More examples of syllogisms (1)

All rare things are expensive
A cheap horse is rare

A cheap horse is expensive

The *inference* is correct, but one of the *premisses* is not.

NOT syllogisms

All cats are mammals
All mammals are mortal
All mortals are cats

All cats are mammals
All dogs are mammals
All dogs are cats

The *premisses* are true, but the *inferences* are incorrect.

More examples of syllogisms (2)

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{All Greeks are men} \\ \text{All men are mortal} \\ \hline \text{All Greeks are mortal} \end{array}$$

The conclusion is true and the inference is correct. What about the premisses?

- The truth of a statement depends on the meaning of the words (which can be ambiguous).
- The correctness of an inference doesn't!

Abstracting terms

What matters is not the terms used, but the *structure* of the sentences:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{All P are Q} \\ \text{All Q are R} \end{array}}{\text{All P are R}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{All P are Q} \\ \text{No R is Q} \end{array}}{\text{No R is P}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{All P are Q} \\ \text{Some R is P} \end{array}}{\text{Some R is Q}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{All P are Q} \\ \text{Some R is not Q} \end{array}}{\text{Some R is not P}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{No P is Q} \\ \text{Some R is a P} \end{array}}{\text{Some R is not Q}}$$

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \text{No P is a Q} \\ \text{Some R is Q} \end{array}}{\text{Some R is not P}}$$

Beyond basic syllogisms

What about more complex premisses?

All integers are either even or odd
If x is an even integer, then $x + x$ is even
If x is an odd integer, then $x + x$ is even

If x is an integer, then $x + x$ is even

i.e.

All P are Q or R
All Q are S
All R are S

All P are S

Some standard logics

Connectives and propositional logic

Ingredients of the propositional language:

- A set of **propositional variables** p, q, \dots
- Some **logical connectives**:
 - ▶ \neg : NOT
 - ▶ \wedge : AND
 - ▶ \vee : OR
 - ▶ \rightarrow : IMPLIES
 - ▶ Also: \leftrightarrow (equivalent to), XOR (exclusive “or”)...

Formulas are typically called $\varphi, \psi \dots$

Truth tables

The relationship between the truth of a propositional formula and the truth of the variables appearing in it is formally defined. One way to write this definition is with **truth tables**:

φ	$\neg\varphi$
0	1
1	0

Meaning:

- If φ is false (0), then $\neg\varphi$ is true (1)
- If φ is true (1), then $\neg\varphi$ is false (0)

Truth tables for the other connectives

φ	ψ	$\varphi \wedge \psi$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

φ	ψ	$\varphi \vee \psi$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

φ	ψ	$\varphi \rightarrow \psi$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

φ	ψ	$\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

φ	ψ	$\varphi \text{ XOR } \psi$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Using truth tables

Truth tables can be used to examine complex formulas:

p	q	$\neg p$	$\neg q$	$\neg p \vee \neg q$	$\neg(\neg p \vee \neg q)$
0	0	1	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	1	0
1	0	0	1	1	0
1	1	0	0	0	1

p	q	$p \wedge q$	$\neg(\neg p \vee \neg q)$	$(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg p \vee \neg q)$
0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Satisfiability and validity

p	q	$p \wedge q$	$\neg(\neg p \vee \neg q)$	$(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg p \wedge \neg q)$
0	0	0	0	1
0	1	0	0	1
1	0	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

A formula is:

- *Valid* if it is always true
 - ▶ Only 1's in its column of a truth table
 - ▶ Example: $(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg p \vee \neg q)$ is valid.
- *Satisfiable* if it is not always false
 - ▶ At least one 1 in its column of a truth table
 - ▶ Example: $p \wedge q$ is satisfiable.
- *Unsatisfiable* if it is always false (not satisfiable)
 - ▶ Only 0's in its column of a truth table

One more example

p	q	r	$p \wedge q \wedge r$	$p \wedge q \wedge \neg r$	$(p \wedge q \wedge r) \vee (p \wedge q \wedge \neg r)$	$p \wedge q$
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0	1	1	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	1

Two formulas are *logically equivalent* if they have the same truth table. This can be used to simplify formulas.

A previous example, the propositional way

All P are Q or R
All Q are S
All R are S
All P are S

Translated to the propositional language:

$$\frac{p \rightarrow (q \vee r) \quad q \rightarrow s \quad r \rightarrow s}{p \rightarrow s}$$

Connectives in programming

If you program, you might know the connectives with different symbols:

```
while(monsterLife > 0 && playerLife > 0){...  
keepgoing = !DeckEmpty && errors < 3;  
if((WASD && input == 'W') || (Numpad && input == 5)){...
```

“Formulas” in logic are the same thing as “booleans” in programming.

Here `DeckEmpty`, `WASD`, `Numpad` are the *propositional variables*: they are stored as their truth value (true or false) and have no further structure.

What about the other blue elements?

Adding structure: predicates

“`monsterLife > 0`” or “`x is an even integer`” describe a property of an object that is *not* a formula (`monsterLife`, `x`).

“`input == 'W'`” and “`errors < 3`” describe relationships between objects that are also not formulas (`input` and `'W'`, `errors` and `3`).

To go beyond propositional logic, we enrich the language with:

- A set of **variables** `x`, `y`, `z`...
 - ▶ But also `monsterLife`, `input`, `'W'`, `errors`, `3`,...
- **Predicate** symbols `P`, `Q`, `R`...
 - ▶ But also `StrictlyPositive`, `Integer`, `Even`, `Odd`, `=`, `LesserThan`...

Predicates: some examples

“If x is an integer, then x is either even or odd”:

$$\text{Integer}(x) \rightarrow \text{Even}(x) \vee \text{Odd}(x)$$

“The deck is not empty and we haven’t received 3 error tokens”:

$$\neg \text{DeckEmpty} \wedge \text{StrictlyLesserThan}(\text{errors}, 3)$$

“If you are my family and she is your family then she is my family”:

$$\text{Family}(\text{me}, \text{you}) \wedge \text{Family}(\text{you}, \text{her}) \rightarrow \text{Family}(\text{me}, \text{her})$$

Quantification

Compare:

- “If x is an integer, then x is either even or odd”
- “All integers are either even or odd”

Do both these sentences say the same thing?

- The first is talking about a particular x .
- The second says that the first sentence is true no matter what x is.

Let us add to our language some **quantifiers**:

- \forall : “for all” (universal quantifier)
- \exists : “there exists” (existential quantifier)

Quantification: some examples

“If x is an integer, then x is either even or odd”:

$$\text{Integer}(x) \rightarrow \text{Even}(x) \vee \text{Odd}(x)$$

“All integers are either even or odd”:

$$\forall x.(\text{Integer}(x) \rightarrow \text{Even}(x) \vee \text{Odd}(x))$$

“I have a favorite subject”

$$\exists x.(\text{Subject}(x) \wedge \forall y.(\text{Subject}(y) \rightarrow \text{Prefer}(x, y)))$$

“I have one cat and one only”

$$\exists x.(\text{MyCat}(x) \wedge \forall y.(\text{MyCat}(y) \rightarrow (x = y)))$$

Math formulas are logic formulas!

We could write everything as $P(x, y)$, $Q(x, y)$... but sometimes different notations are easier to read:

- $x = y$ rather than $=(x, y)$ or $\text{Equals}(x, y)$
- $x > y$ rather than $>(x, y)$ or $\text{GreaterThan}(x, y)$
- etc.

All math formulas are just logic formulas with those standard notations!

$$\forall x. \forall y. \forall z. (((x < y) \wedge (y < z)) \rightarrow (x < z))$$

Terms and functions

What about “the product of two negatives is a positive”?

$$\forall x. \forall y. ((x < 0) \wedge (y < 0)) \rightarrow (x * y > 0)$$

What is $x * y$ here?

- Built from two variables x and y
- Not a variable
- Not a formula (not true or false)...

Just like we gave propositional variables some more structure with predicates (from p to $P(x, y)$), we can give variables some more structure with **functions**: from x to $f(x, y)$ (or $x * y \dots$).

Terms are objects built from variables and function symbols.

Predicates take terms as arguments.

Adding terms: some examples

“I am younger than my father”:

$$age(me) < age(father(me))$$

or also

$$YoungerThan(me, father(me))$$

This is a typical database query. Which formalization to go for also depends on what kind of data we have.

“If x is an integer then $x + x$ is even”:

$$Integer(x) \rightarrow Even(x + x)$$

Back to that example

All integers are either even or odd

If x is an even integer, then $x + x$ is even

If x is an odd integer, then $x + x$ is even

If x is an integer, then $x + x$ is even

In first-order logic:

$$\forall x.(\text{Integer}(x) \rightarrow (\text{Even}(x) \vee \text{Odd}(x)))$$
$$\forall x.((\text{Integer}(x) \wedge \text{Even}(x)) \rightarrow \text{Even}(x + x))$$
$$\forall x.((\text{Integer}(x) \wedge \text{Odd}(x)) \rightarrow \text{Even}(x + x))$$

$$\forall x.(\text{Integer}(x) \rightarrow \text{Even}(x + x))$$

Logic and semantics

What is a logic? (in the mathematical sense)

- A language
- A set of **axioms**
- A set of **inference rules**

Some examples:

- $\varphi \rightarrow \varphi$ is an *axiom*.
- $\frac{\varphi \rightarrow \psi \quad \varphi}{\psi}$ is a *rule*.
- $\frac{P(a)}{\exists x.P(x)}$ is also a rule.

Theorems

A **theorem** of a logic is a formula of that language that can be proved with only those axioms and rules (no additional hypotheses):

- All axioms are theorems
- If the premisses of an inference rule are all theorems, then its conclusion is also a theorem.

Note the difference between the axiom $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$ (whenever φ is true, so is ψ) and the rule $\frac{\varphi}{\psi}$ (if φ is ALWAYS true then so is ψ).

The meaning of the symbols **does not matter**: this is a mathematical system.

Theorems and validities

Examples:

- $(p \wedge q) \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg p \vee \neg q)$ is a theorem of propositional logic.
- $\forall x.(\text{Integer}(x) \rightarrow (\text{Even}(x) \vee \text{Odd}(x)))$ is **not** a theorem of first-order logic: it is only valid for a specific **interpretation** of the predicates Integer, Even and Odd.

Often, a logic is accompanied by a specific **semantics**: an interpretation of the language such that any formula is a **theorem of that logic** if and only if it is **valid for that semantics**.

Truth tables are an example of semantics for predicate logic: they explicitly deal with the truth values of formulas.

Logic in Computer Science and AI

Logic in Computer Science (1)

- Everything is logic
- Programming uses logic (as we've already seen)
- Typing is logic: compare

$$\frac{\varphi \rightarrow \psi \quad \varphi}{\psi} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{f : \text{INT} \rightarrow \text{BOOL} \quad x : \text{INT}}{f(x) : \text{BOOL}}$$

- Complexity analysis:
 - ▶ Problems have an inherent complexity and can be sorted into complexity classes
 - ▶ A very famous complexity class: NP (nondeterministic polynomial: a solution can be checked in polynomial time)
 - ▶ A very famous NP problem: SAT (satisfiability of propositional formulas of a certain form)

Logic in Computer Science (2)

■ Processors:

- ▶ Create outputs from a bunch of electrical inputs
- ▶ An electrical input is: on or off
- ▶ Or: 0 or 1
- ▶ Or: true or false
- ▶ How do we tell the processor which combination of 0s and 1s are supposed to give which output (also a 0 or 1)?
- ▶ With logic!
- ▶ Technically: take the formula corresponding to the input-output relation you want
- ▶ Connectives become logic gates (a circuit turning inputs into the output corresponding to that connective)
- ▶ Formula becomes big circuit full of logic gates
- ▶ Logic becomes computer

■ Everything is logic

Logic and AI

Some uses of logic in AI:

- (Some!!) theorem proving can be automated
- Proof checkers/assistants can be implemented (Coq, Isabelle...)
- Describing and querying data: ontologies, description logics
- Logic programming: Prolog
 - ▶ (Basically) Define a database (in particular, properties of objects, relationships between objects, functions on objects)
 - ▶ Check formulas

Logic in AI: planning

A planning task is:

- **Input:**

- ▶ An initial state
- ▶ A set of actions
- ▶ A goal formula/set of goal states (same thing)

- **Output:** Is there a sequence of actions that will lead from the initial state to a goal state?

Planning is used in:

- Warehouse robots
- Search & rescue robots
- Video game NPCs
- etc.

Planning is logic (because everything is logic)

Everything in planning (states, action conditions and effects, goals) is described with logic!

Everytime you need to
formally describe some properties,
you do that with logic

Also, any representation of data is a semantics for the formal language used to describe it. Studying the inherent properties of that representation is logic

Planning is logic (because it's model-checking)

Planning algorithms usually rely on some sort of graph search, where the graph represents possible states and state transitions.

But: if the logic is *dynamic* (i.e. you can talk about the results of actions within the logic), the plan existence problem becomes a model checking problem:

- Write a formula describing: after a non-deterministic choice of a sequence of actions, the goal is satisfied
- Is this formula true in the initial state?
- If so, then there is a plan

Complex agents and modal logics

Recently, AI has been interested in more complex agents, that can have:

- Knowledge
- Beliefs
- Preferences
- Obligations (e.g. ethical rules)
- Etc.

These things can be described with a special family of logics called **modal logics**.

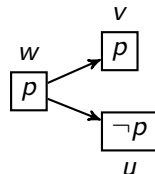
Modal logic: the basics

In modal logics, there are two **modal operators** \Box and \Diamond .

- $\Box\varphi$: “necessarily, φ ”
- $\Diamond\varphi$: “possibly, φ ”

The (standard) associated semantics is called **Kripke semantics**. It is a graph semantics:

- $\Box\varphi$ is true in w (written $w \models \Box p$) if φ is true in *all* accessible worlds from w
- $\Diamond\varphi$ is true in w if φ is true in *at least one* accessible world from w



Here, $w \not\models \Box p$ and $w \models \Diamond p$.

Interpretations of modal logics

These operators and semantics can be interpreted in many different ways:

- Temporal: $F\varphi$ = “at every point in the future, φ ”
- Spatial: $R\varphi$ = “in any place on my right, φ ” (add more operators for more dimensions, and axioms to describe their interactions!)
- Epistemic: $K\varphi$ = “ φ is known” = “in any possible world, φ ”
- Doxastic: $B\varphi$ = “ φ is believed” = “in any (most) plausible world, φ ”
- Deontic: $O\varphi$ = “ φ is obligatory” = “in any allowed world, φ ”
- etc.

More on epistemic logic

Let's take the example of epistemic logic:

$$\begin{aligned} K\varphi &= \text{"}\varphi \text{ is known"} \\ &= \text{"}\varphi \text{ is true in any possible world"} \end{aligned}$$

Multi-agent version: $K_a\varphi$ = "agent a knows that φ "

Basic axiomatics:




- $K(\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \rightarrow (K\varphi \rightarrow K\psi)$
 - $\frac{\varphi}{K\varphi}$
 - $K\varphi \rightarrow \varphi$ (truth axiom)
- } standard for any modal logic

Axioms and frame properties

Other possible properties:

- $K\varphi \rightarrow KK\varphi$: if you know something, then you know that you know it
- $\neg K\varphi \rightarrow K\neg K\varphi$: if you *don't* know something, then you know that you don't know it

Semantically, these correspond to properties on the relations:

$K\varphi \rightarrow \varphi$	Reflexivity	
$K\varphi \rightarrow KK\varphi$	Transitivity	
$\neg K\varphi \rightarrow K\neg K\varphi$	Euclideaness	

An application of epistemic logic: Hanabi

Hanabi is a cooperative card game where:

- Players hold their cards facing away from them
- The goal is to cooperatively play cards in a certain order
- Players communicate through limited, codified hints

This requires higher-order epistemic reasoning:

- What does this other player not know, and need to know?
- What does this other player's actions say about what they know?

Standard tree search algorithms like the ones used to play chess or Go aren't enough: we need epistemic logic!

Conclusion

Windup: what we learned today

- The aim of logic is to formally define correctness
- For that, we need a formally defined language
- From that language, we can specify acceptable rules of reasoning
- The rules reflect the correspondence between the language and the concepts and objects it seeks to describe
- Logic is used in many different fields of computer science
- In AI, logic gives us a framework in which to define agents and ensure that they behave in an expected way

A conclusion: on baroque and beautiful things

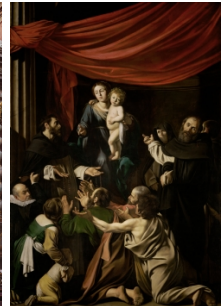
Baroque is an art style from 17th century Europe.



A conclusion: on baroque and beautiful things

The term “baroque” (probably) comes from “baroco”, which is... a type of syllogism.

In 17th century France, “baroco” had become slang for “unnecessarily complicated”, and was also used to refer to the newly emerging art style.



A conclusion: on baroque and beautiful things



Just like baroque art, whether you find logic beautiful or unnecessarily complicated is up to you!