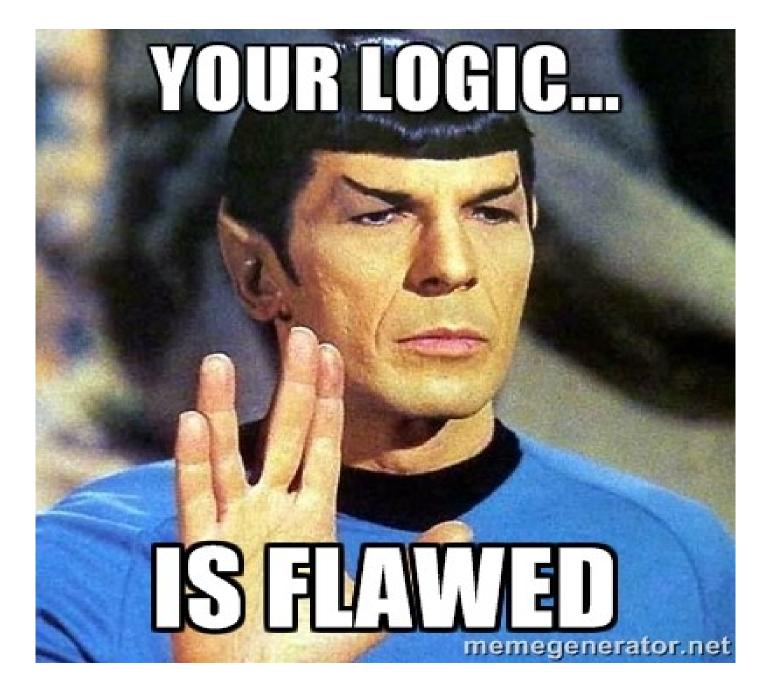
# 331 – Intro to Intelligent Systems Week06 Propositional Logic R&N Chapter 7.1 – 7.5

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# What is Logic?

- Reasoning about the validity of arguments.
- An argument is valid if its conclusions follow logically from its premises – even if the argument doesn't actually reflect the real world:
  - All lemons are blue
  - Mary is a lemon
  - Therefore, Mary is blue

# How is Logic Used in Intelligent Systems?

- Logic is used as a representational method for communicating concepts and theories
- Logic allows us to reason about negatives
   ("the book is not red") and disjunctions ("he's
   either a soldier or a sailor")
- Logic is used in systems that attempt to understand and analyze human language

# Weaknesses of Logic

- Formal logics are unable to deal with uncertainty
  - Logical statements must be expressed in terms of truth or falsehood, not possibilities
- Formal logics are not well suited to deal with change
- Formal logics are not well suited to deal with events unfolding over time

#### **Logical Operators**

```
And \wedge
Or \vee
Not \neg
Implies \rightarrow (if... then...)
Iff \Leftrightarrow (if and only if)
```

# **Truth Tables**

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \lor Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
false	false	true	false	false	true	true
false	true	true	false	true	true	false
true	false	false	false	true	false	false
true	true	false	true	true	true	true

#### **Truth Tables**

 Truth table demonstrating the equivalence of P → Q and ¬P v Q:

P	Q	¬Р	$P \rightarrow Q$	$\neg P \lor Q$
Τ	Т	F	Т	T
Т	F	F	F	F
F	Т	Т	Τ	T
F	F	T	Τ	Т

#### **Truth Tables**

• Truth table demonstrating the non-equivalence of A  $\wedge$  (B  $\vee$  C) and (A  $\wedge$  B)  $\vee$  C:

A	В	C	A ^ (B v C)	(A ^ B) v C
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Τ	Τ	F	T	T
Τ	F	Τ	T	T
Τ	F	F	F	F
F	Τ	Τ	F	T
F	Τ	F	F	F
F	F	Τ	F	T
F	F	F	F	F

# English vs. Logic

- Facts and rules need to be translated into logical notation
- For example:
  - It is raining and it is Thursday:
  - R means "It is raining", T means "it is Thursday"
  - $-R\Lambda T$

# English vs. Logic

- Sentences in predicate calculus are created using predicates along with logical operators and quantifiers
- For example, the English sentence, "Whenever he eats sandwiches that have pickles in them, he ends up either asleep at his desk or singing loud songs" can be expressed as:

$$s(Y) \wedge e(X, Y) \wedge p(Y) \rightarrow a(X) \vee (s(X, Z) \wedge o(Z))$$

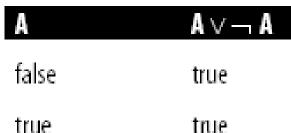
- s(Y) refers to the sandwich (Y)
- e(X, Y) means that he (X) eats the sandwich (Y)
- p(Y) means that the sandwich (Y) has pickles in it
- a(X) means that he (X) ends up asleep at his desk
- s(X, Z) means that he (X) sings songs (Z)
- o(Z) means that those songs (Z) are loud

#### **Entailment**

- Entailment means that one thing follows from another:
- KB ⊨ α
- •A knowledge base KB entails sentence  $\alpha$  if and only if  $\alpha$  is true in all worlds where KB is true
  - KB is a subset of α
- KB is a stronger assertion than α since it rules out more worlds
  - Entailment is a relationship between sentences (i.e., syntax) that is based on semantics
  - For example, the KB containing "the Giants won" and "the Bills won" entails "the Giants won and the Bills won"

# **Tautology**

- The expression  $A \lor \neg A$  is a tautology.
- This means the expression is always true, regardless of the value of A
- A is a tautology is written as
- A tautology is true under any interpretation
- An expression which is false under any interpretation is contradictory



#### Properties of Logical Systems

- Completeness: Every tautology is a theorem
- Soundness: Every theorem is valid
- Decidability: An algorithm exists that will determine if a well-formed formula is valid
- Monotonicity: A valid logical proof cannot be made invalid by adding additional premises or assumptions

# Logical Equivalence

 Two expressions are equivalent if they always have the same logical value under any interpretation:

$$-A \wedge B = B \wedge A$$

- Equivalences can be proven by examining truth tables
- Two sentences are logically equivalent iff they are true in the same models (knowledge base):

$$-\alpha \equiv \beta$$
 iff  $\alpha \models \beta$  and  $\beta \models \alpha$ 

# Logical Equivalence

### **Propositional Logic**

- A proposition is a statement that is either true or false, given some state of the world
- Propositional logic is a logical system that deals with propositions
- Propositional calculus is the language we use to reason about propositional logic
- A legal sentence in propositional logic is called a well-formed formula (wff)

# **Propositional Logic**

```
The following are wff's:
P, Q, R...
true, false
(A)
\neg A
ΑΛΒ
AvB
A \rightarrow B
A \Leftrightarrow B
```

### Propositional Logic: Syntax

- Propositional logic is the simplest logic
  - It illustrates basic ideas
- Rules for constructing legal sentences (wellformed formulae) in propositional logic (the proposition symbols S<sub>1</sub> and S<sub>2</sub> are sentences):
  - If S is a sentence, ¬S is also 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: Semantics**

A specific model is an assignment of true or false to each proposition symbol.

For example, assume A, B, and C are statements in propositional logic. With these 3 symbols, 2<sup>3</sup> = 8 possible models can be enumerated automatically

One possible model assigns each statement a specific value:

A = false B = true C = false

A simple recursive process can now evaluate a sentence:

 $\neg A \land (B \lor C) = true \land (true \lor false) = true \land true = true$ 

#### Deduction

- Deduction is the process of deriving a conclusion from a set of assumptions
- If we deduce a conclusion C from a set of assumptions (facts), we write:

$$\{A_1, A_2, ..., A_n\} \vdash C$$

- To derive a conclusion from a set of assumptions, we apply a set of inference rules
- To distinguish an inference rule from a set of assumptions, we often write  $A \vdash B$  as  $\underline{A}$

B

 ¬¬ Elimination: if we have a sentence that is negated twice, we can conclude the sentence itself, without the negation:

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

 And-Introduction (Conjunction): given sentences A and B, we can deduce A ∧ B:

```
<u>A, B</u>
A∧B
```

 And-Elimination (Simplification): given A A B, we can deduce A and we can deduce B separately:

 Or-Introduction (Addition): given sentence A, we can deduce the disjunction of A with any other sentence:

 Modus Ponens (M.P.): given sentence A and the fact that A implies B, we can derive sentence B:

$$A \rightarrow B, A$$
R

Hypothetical Syllogism (H.S.)

$$A \to B \land B \to C$$
$$A \to C$$

Disjunctive Syllogism (D.S.)

Introduction: if, in carrying out a proof, we start from assumption A and derive a conclusion C, then we can conclude that A → C:

$$\frac{\mathsf{A} \dots \mathsf{C}}{\mathsf{A} \to \mathsf{C}}$$

#### **Indirect Proof**

 Reductio Ad Absurdum: if we assume A is incorrect (negate A) and this leads to a contradiction, then we can conclude that A is correct (proof by contradiction):

is called falsum

#### Careful!

 An invalid argument that looks similar to M.P. is as follows:

$$A \rightarrow B$$
, B

 This is known as the "Fallacy of Affirming the Consequent"

# **Deduction Example 1**

First, note that ,  $\neg A \equiv (A \rightarrow \bot)$  This can be seen by comparing the truth tables for  $\neg A$  and for  $A \rightarrow \bot$ . Hence we can take as our set of assumptions  $\{A, A \rightarrow \bot\}$ . Thus, our proof using modus ponens is as follows:

# Deduction Example 2

• Prove the following:  $\{A \land B\} \vdash A \lor B$ 

# **Deduction Example 3**

#### Prove the following:

$$\{\neg A, \neg A \rightarrow B, \neg B\} \vdash (\neg A \rightarrow B) \rightarrow (\neg B \rightarrow A)$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \underline{\neg A} & \neg A \to B \\ & \underline{B} & \neg B \\ & \underline{B} & B \to \bot \\ & \underline{\bot} & \text{rewriting } \neg B \\ & \underline{\bot} & \text{modus ponens} \\ & \underline{A} & \text{reductio ad absurdum} \\ & \underline{\neg B} \to \underline{A} & \to \text{introduction} \\ & (\neg A \to B) \to (\neg B \to A) & \to \text{introduction} \\ \end{array}$$