Propositional and First-Order Logic

Chapter 7.4─7.8, 8.1─8.3, 8.5

Some material adopted from notes by Andreas Geyer-Schulz and Chuck Dyer

Logic roadmap overview

- Propositional logic (review)
- Problems with propositional logic
- First-order logic (review)
  - Properties, relations, functions, quantifiers, …
  - Terms, sentences, wffs, axioms, theories, proofs, …
- Extensions to first-order logic
- Logical agents
  - Reflex agents
  - Representing change: situation calculus, frame problem
  - Preferences on actions
  - Goal-based agents

Disclaimer

"Logic, like whiskey, loses its beneficial effect when taken in too large quantities."

- *Lord Dunsany*

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**:

$\wedge$	and	[conjunction]
$\vee$	or	[disjunction]
$\Rightarrow$	implies	[implication / conditional]
$\Leftrightarrow$	is equivalent	[biconditional]
$\neg$	not	[negation]

- **Literal**: atomic sentence or negated atomic sentence
  P, ¬ P

Examples of PL sentences

- $(P \wedge Q) \rightarrow R$
  "If it is hot and humid, then it is raining"
- $Q \rightarrow P$
  "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 ¬S is a sentence
  - If S is a sentence, then (S) is a sentence
  - If S and T are sentences, then $(S \vee T)$, $(S \wedge T)$, $(S \rightarrow T)$, and $(S \leftrightarrow T)$ are sentences
  - A sentence results from a finite number of applications of the rules

Some terms

- The meaning or **semantics** of a sentence determines its **interpretation**
- Given the truth values of all symbols in a sentence, it can be "evaluated" to determine its **truth value** (True or False)
- A **model** for a KB is a *possible world* – an assignment of truth values to propositional symbols that makes each sentence in the KB True

Model for a KB

- Let the KB be [P∧Q→R, Q → P]
- What are the possible models? Consider all possible assignments of T|F to P, Q and R and check truth tables
  - **FFF: OK**
  - **FFT: OK**
  - FTF: NO
  - FTT: NO
  - **TFF: OK**
  - **TFT: OK**
  - TTF: NO
  - **TTT: OK**
- If KB is [P∧Q→R, Q → P, Q], then the only model is TTT

P: it'shot
Q: it'shumid
R: it'sraining

More terms

- A **valid sentence** or **tautology** is a sentence that is True under all interpretations, no matter what the world is actually like or what the semantics is. Example: "It'sraining or it'snot raining"
- An **inconsistent sentence** or **contradiction** is a sentence that is False under all interpretations. The world is never like what it describes, as in "It'sraining and it'snot raining."
- **P entails Q**, written P |= Q, means that whenever P is True, so is Q. In other words, all models of P are also models of Q.

Truth tables

- Truth tables are used to define logical connectives
- and to determine when a complex sentence is true given the values of the symbols in it

Truth tables for the five logical connectives

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \vee Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
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*

Example of a truth table used for a complex sentence

P	H	$P \vee H$	$(P \vee H) \wedge \neg H$	$((P \vee H) \wedge \neg H) \Rightarrow P$
False	*False*	*False*	*False*	*True*
False	*True*	*True*	*False*	*True*
True	*False*	*True*	*True*	*True*
True	*True*	*True*	*False*	*True*

On the implies connective: P → Q

- Note that → is a logical connective
- So *P*→ *Q* is a logical sentence and has a truth value, i.e., is either true or false
- If we add this sentence to the KB, it can be used by an inference rule, *Modes Ponens*, to derive/infer/prove Q if P is also in the KB
- Given a KB where P=True and Q=True, we can also derive/infer/prove that P→Q is True

P → Q

- When is *P*→*Q* true? Check all that apply
  - ❑ P=Q=true
  - ❑ P=Q=false
  - ❑ P=true, Q=false
  - ❑ P=false, Q=true

P → Q

- When is *P*→*Q* true? Check all that apply
  - ☑ P=Q=true
  - ☑ P=Q=false
  - ❑ P=true, Q=false
  - ☑ P=false, Q=true
- We can get this from the truth table for →
- Note: in FOL it'smuch harder to prove that a conditional true.
  - –Consider proving prime(x) → odd(x)

Inference rules

- **Logical inference** creates new sentences that logically follow from a set of sentences (KB)
- An inference rule is **sound** if every sentence X it produces when operating on a KB logically follows from the KB
  - –i.e., inference rule creates no contradictions
- An inference rule is **complete** if it can produce every expression that logically follows from (is entailed by) the KB.
  - –Note analogy to complete search algorithms

Sound rules of inference

- Here are some examples of sound rules of inference
- Each can be shown to be sound using a truth table

RULE	PREMISE	CONCLUSION
Modus Ponens	A, A → B	B
And Introduction	A, B	A ∧ B
And Elimination	A ∧ B	A
Double Negation	¬¬A	A
Unit Resolution	A ∨ B, ¬B	A
Resolution	**A ∨ B, ¬B ∨ C**	**A ∨ C**

Soundness of modus ponens

A	B	A → B	OK?
True	True	True	√
True	False	False	√
False	True	True	√
False	False	True	√

Resolution

- **Resolution** is a valid inference rule producing a new clause implied by two clauses containing *complementary literals*
  - A literal is an atomic symbol or its negation, i.e., P, ~P
- Amazingly, this is the only interference rule you need to build a sound and complete theorem prover
  - Based on proof by contradiction and usually called resolution refutation
- The resolution rule was discovered by Alan Robinson (CS, U. of Syracuse) in the mid 1960s

Resolution

- A KB is actually a set of sentences all of which are true, i.e., a conjunction of sentences.
- To use resolution, put KB into *conjunctive nor-mal form* (CNF), where each sentence written as a disjunc-tion of (one or more) literals
- Every KB can be put into CNF, it's just a matter of rewriting its sentences using standard tau-tological rules
  - (A→B)↔(~A∨B)
  - (A∨(B∧C)) ↔(A∨B)∧(A∨C)
  - A∧B → A
  - A∧B → B

Resolution Example

- KB: [P→Q , Q→R∧S]
- KB in CNF: [~P∨Q , ~Q∨R , ~Q∨S]
- Resolve KB(1) and KB(2) producing:
  ~P∨R *(i.e., P→R)*
- Resolve KB(1) and KB(3) producing:
  ~P∨S *(i.e., P→S)*
- New KB: [~P∨Q , ~Q∨~R∨~S , ~P∨R , ~P∨S]

Tautologies
(A→B)↔(~A∨B)
(A∨(B∧C)) ↔(A∨B)∧(A∨C)

Soundness of the resolution inference rule

α	β	γ	$\alpha \vee \beta$	$\neg\beta \vee \gamma$	$\alpha \vee \gamma$
False	*False*	*False*	*False*	*True*	*False*
False	*False*	*True*	*False*	*True*	*True*
False	*True*	*False*	*True*	*False*	*False*
False	*True*	*True*	*True*	*True*	*True*
True	*False*	*False*	*True*	*True*	*True*
True	*False*	*True*	*True*	*True*	*True*
True	*True*	*False*	*True*	*False*	*True*
True	*True*	*True*	*True*	*True*	*True*

From the rightmost three columns of this truth table, we can see that

$(\alpha \vee \beta) \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma) \leftrightarrow (\alpha \vee \gamma)$

is valid (i.e., always true regardless of the truth values assigned to α, β and γ

Proving things

- A **proof** is a sequence of sentences, where each is a premise (i.e., a given) or is derived from earlier sentences in the proof by an inference rule
- The last sentence is the **theorem** (also called goal or query) that we want to prove
- Example for the "weather problem"

1 Hu	premise	"It's humid"
2 Hu→Ho	premise	"If it's humid, it'shot"
3 Ho	modus ponens(1,2)	"It's hot"
4 (Ho∧Hu)→R	premise	"If it's hot & humid, it's raining"
5 Ho∧Hu	and introduction(1,3)	"It's hot and humid"
6 R	modus ponens(4,5)	"It's raining"

Horn* sentences

- A **Horn sentence** or **Horn clause** has the form:
  P1 ∧ P2 ∧ P3 ... ∧ Pn → Qm *where n>=0, m in{0,1}*
- Note: a conjunction of 0 or more symbols to left of → and 0-1 symbols to right
- Special cases:
  - n=0, m=1: P (assert P is true)
  - n>0, m=0: P∧Q → (constraint: both P and Q can't be true)
  - n=0, m=0: (well, there is nothing there!)
- Put in CNF: each sentence is a disjunction of literals with at most one non-negative literal
  ¬P1 ∨ ¬ P2 ∨ ¬ P3 ... ∨ ¬ Pn ∨ Q

(P → Q) = (¬P ∨ Q)

* After Alfred Horn

Significance of Horn logic

- We can also have horn sentences in FOL
- Reasoning with horn clauses is much simpler
  - Satisfiability of a propositional KB (i.e., finding values for a symbols that will make it true) is NP complete
  - Restricting KB to horn sentences, satisfiability is in P
- For this reason, FOL Horn sentences are the basis for many rule-based languages, including Prolog and Datalog
- What Horn sentences give up are handling, in a general way, (1) negation and (2) disjunctions

Entailment and derivation

- **Entailment: KB |= Q**
  - Q is entailed by KB (set sentences) iff there is no logically possible world where Q is false while all the sentences in KB are true
  - Or, stated positively, Q is entailed by KB iff the conclusion is true in every logically possible world in which all the premises in KB are true
- **Derivation: KB |- Q**
  - We can derive Q from KB if there's a proof consisting of a sequence of valid inference steps starting from the premises in KB and resulting in Q

Two important properties for inference

Soundness: If KB |- Q then KB |= Q

- If Q is derived from KB using a given set of rules of inference, then Q is entailed by KB
- Hence, inference produces only real entailments, or any sentence that follows deductively from the premises is valid

Completeness: If KB |= Q then KB |- Q

- If Q is entailed by KB, then Q can be derived from KB using the rules of inference
- Hence, inference produces all entailments, or all valid sentences can be proved from the premises

Problems with Propositional Logic

Propositional logic: pro and con

- Advantages
  - Simple KR language sufficient for some problems
  - Lays the foundation for higher logics (e.g., FOL)
  - Reasoning is decidable, though NP complete, and efficient techniques exist for many problems
- Disadvantages
  - Not expressive enough for most problems
  - Even when it is, it can very “un-concise”

PL is a weak KR language

- Hard to identify “individuals” (e.g., Mary, 3)
- Can’t directly talk about properties of individuals or relations between individuals (e.g., “Bill is tall”)
- Generalizations, patterns, regularities can’t easily be represented (e.g., “all triangles have 3 sides”)
- First-Order Logic (FOL) is expressive enough to represent this kind of information using relations, variables and quantifiers, e.g.,
  - *Every elephant is gray:* $\forall$ x (elephant(x) $\rightarrow$ gray(x))
  - *There is a white alligator:* $\exists$ x (alligator(X) ^ white(X))

PL Example

- Consider the problem of representing the following information:
  - Every person is mortal.
  - Confucius is a person.
  - Confucius is mortal.
- How can these sentences be represented so that we can infer the third sentence from the first two?

PL Example

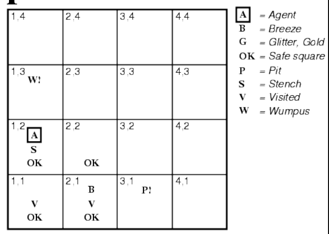
- In PL we have to create propositional symbols to stand for all or part of each sentence, e.g.:

  P = “person”; Q = “mortal”; R = “Confucius”
- The above 3 sentences are represented as:

  $P \rightarrow Q$; $R \rightarrow P$; $R \rightarrow Q$
- The 3rd sentence is entailed by the first two, but we need an explicit symbol, R, to represent an individual, Confucius, who is a member of the classes *person* and *mortal*
- Representing other individuals requires introducing separate symbols for each, with some way to represent the fact that all individuals who are “people” are also “mortal”

Hunt the Wumpus domain

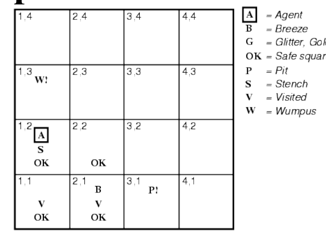
- Some atomic propositions:
  - S12 = There is a stench in cell (1,2)
  - B34 = There is a breeze in cell (3,4)
  - W22 = Wumpus is in cell (2,2)
  - V11 = We've visited cell (1,1)
  - OK11 = Cell (1,1) is safe
  - …



- Some rules:
  - $\neg S22 \rightarrow \neg W12 \wedge \neg W23 \wedge \neg W32 \wedge \neg W21$
  - $S22 \rightarrow W12 \vee W23 \vee W32 \vee W21$
  - $B22 \rightarrow P12 \vee P23 \vee P32 \vee P21$
  - $W22 \rightarrow S12 \wedge S23 \wedge S23 \wedge W21$
  - $W22 \rightarrow \neg W11 \wedge \neg W21 \wedge \ldots \neg W44$
  - $A22 \rightarrow V22$
  - $A22 \rightarrow \neg W11 \wedge \neg W21 \wedge \ldots \neg W44$
  - $V22 \rightarrow OK22$

Hunt the Wumpus domain

- Eight variables for each cell: e.g., A11, B11, G11, OK11, P11, S11, V11, W11
- The lack of variables requires us to give similar rules for each cell!
- Ten rules (I think) for each



$A11 \rightarrow \ldots$

$V11 \rightarrow \ldots$

$P11 \rightarrow \ldots$

$\neg P11 \rightarrow \ldots$

$W11 \rightarrow \ldots$

$\neg W11 \rightarrow \ldots$

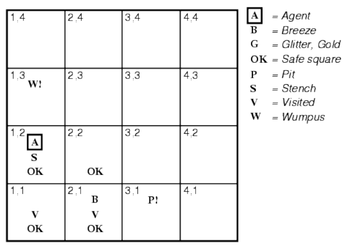
$S11 \rightarrow \ldots$

$\neg S11 \rightarrow \ldots$

$B11 \rightarrow \ldots$

$\neg B11 \rightarrow \ldots$

After third move



- We can prove that the Wumpus is in (1,3) using these four rules
- See R&N section 7.5

(R1) $\neg S11 \rightarrow \neg W11 \wedge \neg W12 \wedge \neg W21$

(R2) $\neg S21 \rightarrow \neg W11 \wedge \neg W21 \wedge \neg W22 \wedge \neg W31$

(R3) $\neg S12 \rightarrow \neg W11 \wedge \neg W12 \wedge \neg W22 \wedge \neg W13$

(R4) $S12 \rightarrow W13 \vee W12 \vee W22 \vee W11$

Proving W13

(R1) $\neg S11 \rightarrow \neg W11 \wedge \neg W12 \wedge \neg W21$
(R2) $\neg S21 \rightarrow \neg W11 \wedge \neg W21 \wedge \neg W22 \wedge \neg W31$
(R3) $\neg S12 \rightarrow \neg W11 \wedge \neg W12 \wedge \neg W22 \wedge \neg W13$
(R4) $S12 \rightarrow W13 \vee W12 \vee W22 \vee W11$

Apply MP with $\neg S11$ and R1:
$\neg W11 \wedge \neg W12 \wedge \neg W21$
Apply And-Elimination to this, yielding 3 sentences:
$\neg W11, \neg W12, \neg W21$
Apply MP to ~S21 and R2, then apply And-elimination:
$\neg W22, \neg W21, \neg W31$
Apply MP to S12 and R4 to obtain:
$W13 \vee W12 \vee W22 \vee W11$
Apply Unit Resolution on $(W13 \vee W12 \vee W22 \vee W11)$ and $\neg W11$:
$W13 \vee W12 \vee W22$
Apply Unit Resolution with $(W13 \vee W12 \vee W22)$ and $\neg W22$:
$W13 \vee W12$
Apply Unit Resolution with $(W13 \vee W12)$ and $\neg W12$:
W13
QED

Propositional Wumpus hunter problems

- Lack of variables prevents stating more general rules
  - $\forall$ x, y V(x,y) → OK(x,y)
  - $\forall$ x, y S(x,y) → W(x-1,y) ∨ W(x+1,y) …
- Change of the KB over time is difficult to represent
  - In classical logic, a fact is true or false for all time
  - Standard technique is to index dynamic facts with the time when they're true
    - A(1,1,t0)
  - This means we have a separate KB for every time point

Propositional logic summary

- 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