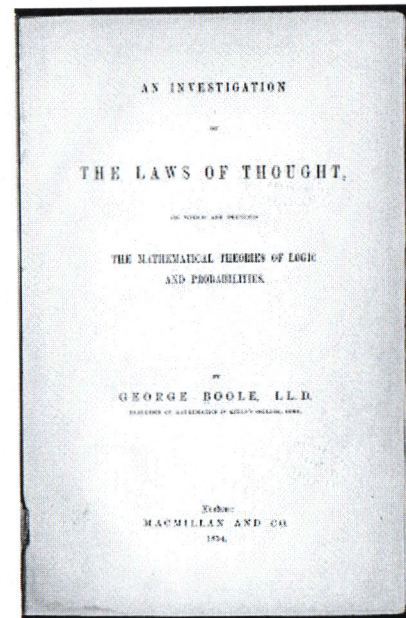


CS 4100: Introduction to AI

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Lecture 2: Introduction to Propositional Logic



Where did AI start?

Recall one of our definitions of AI: "[AI is] the theory and development of computer systems able to perform tasks that normally require human intelligence, such as visual perception, speech recognition, decision-making, and translation between languages."

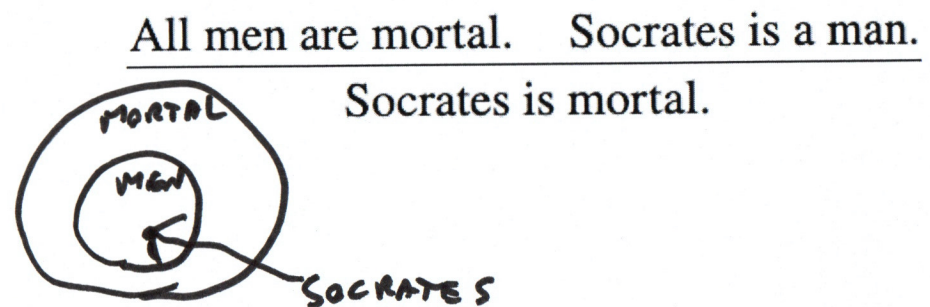
This effort started in ancient times with the development of mathematics in Greece, India, and China. In the West, Aristotles' *Prior Analytics* had the most influence, introducing the ideas of

- **Propositions:** statements which are either true or false, and
- **Syllogisms:** basic patterns for reasoning, involving premises and a conclusion: the rule says that if the premises are true, then the conclusion must be true.

Premise 1: All men are mortal

Premise 2: Socrates is a man

Conclusion: ^{THEREFORE,} Socrates is a man



George Boole: The Laws of Thought

Fast forward to 1854, when George Boole published one of the foundational texts of modern mathematics, *The Laws of Thought*, described by Boole as follows:

"an investigation of the fundamental laws of those operations of the mind by which reasoning is performed; to give expression to them in the symbolical language of a calculus and, upon this foundation, to establish the science of logic and construct its method; to make that method itself the basis of a general method for the application of the mathematical doctrine of probabilities; and finally to collect from the various elements of truth brought to view in the course of these inquiries some probable intimations concerning the nature and constitution of the human mind."

To express these propositions, let us assume—
 x = Motion began in time (and therefore)
 $1 - x$ = Motion has existed from eternity.
 y = The first cause is an intelligent being.
 p = Motion has been eternally caused by some eternal intelligent being.
 q = Motion is self-existent.
 r = Motion has existed by endless successive communication.
 s = Matter is at rest.

The equations of the premises then are—

$$\begin{aligned} x &= vy. \\ 1 - x &= v \{p(1 - q)(1 - r) + q(1 - p)(1 - r) + r(1 - p)(1 - q)\}. \\ p &= vy. \\ q &= vs(1 - s) = 0. \\ r(1 - q)(1 - p) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Boole's system was based on simple mathematics:

1 = true
 0 = false

(x and y) = $x \cdot y$

(not x) = $(1 - x)$

(x or y) = $x + y$ ~~or 2~~

X	Y	$X \text{ AND } Y$
1	1	$1 \cdot 1 = 1$
1	0	$1 \cdot 0 = 0$
0	1	$0 \cdot 1 = 0$
0	0	$0 \cdot 0 = 0$

Propositional Logic: Syntax

Definition 2.1 Let $Op = \{\neg, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow, (,)\}$ be the set of logical operators and Σ a set of symbols. The sets Op , Σ and $\{t, f\}$ are pairwise disjoint. Σ is called the *signature* and its elements are the *proposition variables*. The set of propositional logic formulas is now recursively defined:

- t and f are (atomic) formulas.
- All proposition variables, that is all elements from Σ , are (atomic) formulas.
- If A and B are formulas, then $\neg A$, (A) , $A \wedge B$, $A \vee B$, $A \Rightarrow B$, $A \Leftrightarrow B$ are also formulas.

UNARY \neg

BINARY $\wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$

PUNCTUATION: $()$

Precedence of Operators: $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$.

$\Sigma = A, B, C, \dots$

OR

$\Sigma = A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots$

$A = \text{TODAY IS SUNNY}$

$B = \text{TODAY IS RAINING}$

$C = \text{TODAY IS MONDAY}$

INDUCTIVE/RECURSIVE
DEFINITION OF FORMULAE:

$A, B, (A \wedge B), \neg A$

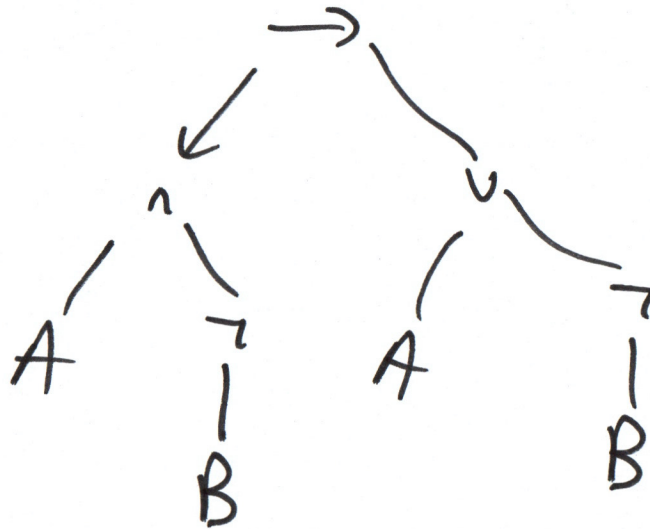
$A \Leftrightarrow B, A \Rightarrow (A \Leftrightarrow B), \dots$

$(A \wedge B) = \text{TODAY IS SUNNY AND TODAY IS RAINING}$

$(C \Rightarrow A \vee B) = \text{IF TODAY IS MONDAY THEN TODAY IS SUNNY OR TODAY IS RAINING}$

SYNTAX TREE FOR FORMULAE (BOOLEAN EXPRESSIONS):

$$(A \wedge \neg B) \rightarrow (A \vee \neg B)$$



SYNTAX

COMPUTER
LANGUAGES

SYMBOLS & RULES
FOR COMBINATION

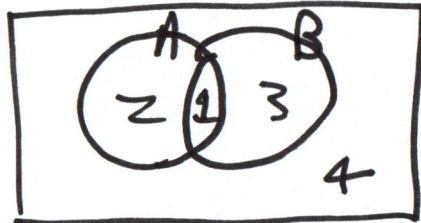
SEMANTICS



Propositional Logic: Semantics = MEANING

Definition 2.3 A mapping $I : \Sigma \rightarrow \{t, f\}$, which assigns a truth value to every proposition variable, is called an *interpretation*. (OR TRUTH ASSIGNMENT)

	A	B
1	T	T
2	T	F
3	F	T
4	F	F



AN INTERPRETATION IS A
"STATE OF THE WORLD."

IF Z ~~has~~ SYMBOLS A AND B,
THE WORLD CAN BE IN 4 DIFFERENT
STATES.

A = TODAY IT'S RAINING

B = TODAY IT'S SUNNY

WITH N SYMBOLS WE CAN
"SAY" 2^N DIFFERENT THINGS
ABOUT THE WORLD.

Propositional Logic: Semantics

Meaning of Operators:

NOTICE IF ONE EXCEPTION,
OTHER 3 SAME

A	B	(A)	$\neg A$	$A \wedge B$	$A \vee B$	$A \Rightarrow B$	$A \Leftrightarrow B$
t	t	t	f	(t)	t	t	t
t	f	t	f	f	t	(f)	f
f	t	f	t	f	t	t	f
f	f	f	t	f	(f)	t	t

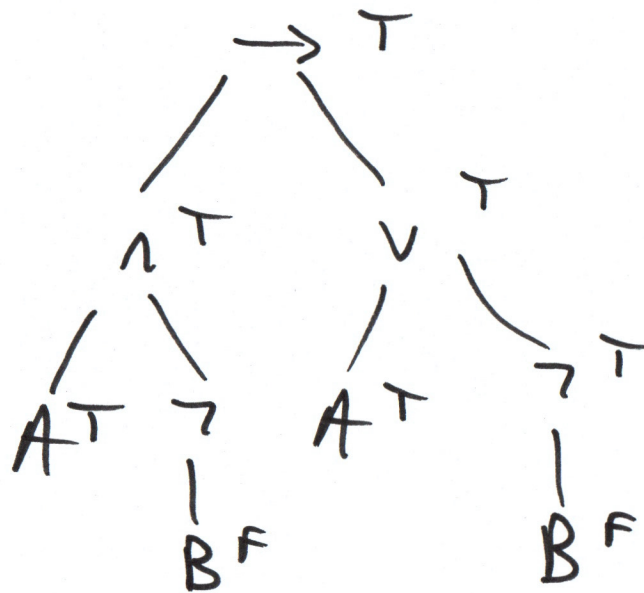
TO EVALUATE EXPRESSIONS, USE SAME TECHNIQUE:

$$(A \wedge \neg B) \rightarrow (A \vee \neg B)$$

A	B	$\neg B$	$(A \wedge \neg B)$	$(A \vee \neg B)$	$(A \wedge \neg B) \rightarrow (A \vee \neg B)$
T	T	F	F	T	T
T	F	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	F	T	T
F	F	T	F	T	T

Propositional Logic: Semantics

CAN EVALUATE EXPRESSIONS BOTTOM UP
(RECURSIVELY):



$A \mapsto T$
 $B \mapsto F$

Propositional Logic: Semantics of Formulae

Definition 2.5 A formula is called

- *Satisfiable* if it is true for at least one interpretation.
- *Logically valid* or simply *valid* if it is true for all interpretations. True formulas are also called *tautologies*.
- *Unsatisfiable* if it is not true for any interpretation.

Every interpretation that satisfies a formula is called a *model* of the formula.

UNSATISFIABLE: $A \wedge \neg A$

SATISFIABLE: $A \vee \neg B$

TAUTOLOGY $(A \wedge \neg B) \rightarrow (A \vee \neg B)$

Propositional Logic: Basic Notions

Definition 2.4 Two formulas F and G are called semantically equivalent if they take on the same truth value for all interpretations. We write $F \equiv G$.

EXAMPLE:

<u>A</u>	<u>B</u>	$A \rightarrow B$	$\neg A \vee B$
T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F
F	T	F	T
F	F	T	T

$\leftarrow \text{SAME} \rightarrow$

Propositional Logic: Logical Equivalences

Theorem 2.1 The operations \wedge, \vee are commutative and associative, and the following equivalences are generally valid:

MAYBE \equiv IS MORE APPROPRIATE

$\neg A \vee B$	\Leftrightarrow	$A \Rightarrow B$	(implication)
$A \Rightarrow B$	\Leftrightarrow	$\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$	(contraposition)
$(A \Rightarrow B) \wedge (B \Rightarrow A)$	\Leftrightarrow	$(A \Leftrightarrow B)$	(equivalence)
$\neg(A \wedge B)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\neg A \vee \neg B$	(De Morgan's law)
$\neg(A \vee B)$	\Leftrightarrow	$\neg A \wedge \neg B$	
$A \vee (B \wedge C)$	\Leftrightarrow	$(A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$	(distributive law)
$A \wedge (B \vee C)$	\Leftrightarrow	$(A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$	
$A \vee \neg A$	\Leftrightarrow	w	(tautology)
$A \wedge \neg A$	\Leftrightarrow	f	(contradiction)
$A \vee f$	\Leftrightarrow	A	
$A \vee w$	\Leftrightarrow	w	
$A \wedge f$	\Leftrightarrow	f	
$A \wedge w$	\Leftrightarrow	A	

THESE
ARE
USED
TO CONVERT
TO CNF

ALSO: $A \vee B \equiv B \vee A$
 $A \wedge B \equiv B \wedge A$

A	B	$\neg A$	$\neg B$	$A \Rightarrow B$	$\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$
T	T	F	F	T	T
T	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T

← SAME →

Propositional Logic: Basic Notions

Definition 2.6 A formula KB entails a formula Q (or Q follows from KB) if every model of KB is also a model of Q . We write $KB \models Q$.


If a formula Q is valid (a tautology), then we write $\models Q$.

KB IS FORMULA OR SET OF FORMULAE (CONSIDERED AS A CONJUNCTION)

I SATISFIES
SET OF
FMLA IF
SATISFIES
EVERY
MEMBER.

$$\{A, A \rightarrow B, B\} \equiv A \wedge (A \rightarrow B) \wedge B$$

EMPTY SET IS A TAUTOLOGY (ANY INTERPRETATION SATISFIES EVERY MEMBER OF SET)

SO 

$$\models Q \text{ SAME AS } \bigwedge \models Q$$

Propositional Logic: Basic Notions

Theorem 2.2 (Deduktionstheorem)

$A \models B$ if and only if $\models A \Rightarrow B$.

$$A \models B \Rightarrow \models A \Rightarrow B$$

2 CASES (1) I SATISFIES A
THEN I SATISFIES B AND
 I SATISFIES $A \Rightarrow B$ $(T \rightarrow T)$

(2) I DOESN'T SATISFY A
THEN I SATISFIES $A \Rightarrow B$

\Leftarrow IS VERY SIMILAR

Propositional Logic: Proof Calculi

A proof calculus is a collection of syllogisms (rules) for deriving consequences of a collection of formulae. It is an entirely syntactic procedure.

If we can derive a formula Q from a formula (or set of formulae) KB , we write

$$KB \vdash Q$$

and we say that KB derives Q .

A large number of different proof calculi have been developed, here is a brief sample....

SYLLOGISMS

$$\frac{A \wedge B}{A}$$

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

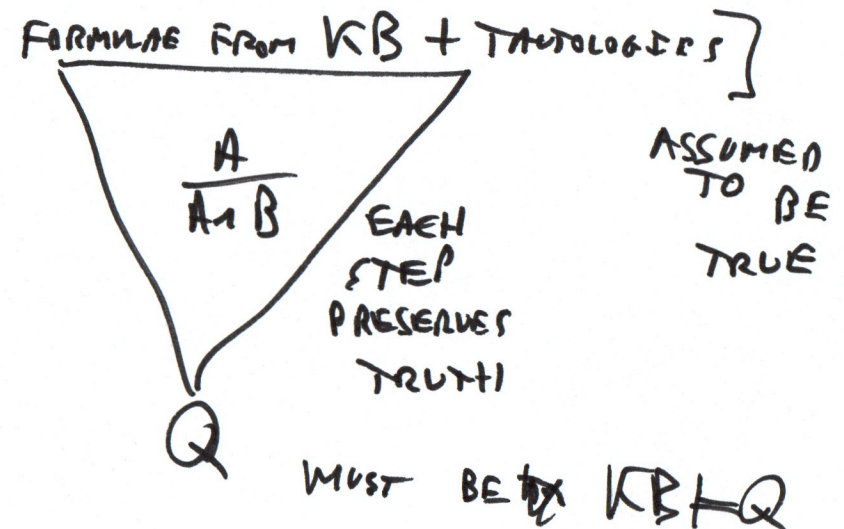
$$\frac{A \rightarrow B}{\neg A \vee B}$$

$$\frac{A}{A \vee B}$$

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

$$\frac{\neg A \vee B}{A \rightarrow B}$$

A PROOF IS A TREE OF SUCH STEPS



Propositional Logic: Proof Calculi

EXAMPLE 1

$$(A \wedge B) \vdash (A \vee B)$$

$$\frac{\frac{(A \wedge B)}{A}}{A \vee B} \quad \checkmark$$

EXAMPLE 2

$$KB = \{A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, A\}$$

$$Q = C$$

$$\frac{\frac{A \quad A \rightarrow B}{B} \quad B \rightarrow C}{C}$$

MODUS PONENS:

$$\frac{A \quad A \rightarrow B}{B}$$

Propositional Logic: Proof Calculi

Unfortunately, these are not always easy to understand (for humans) and very difficult to generate by machine! They generally require some creativity and insight into the problem.

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{}{B \vdash B} (I) \quad \frac{}{C \vdash C} (I) \\
 \frac{}{B \vee C \vdash B, C} (\vee L) \\
 \frac{}{B \vee C \vdash C, B} (PR) \\
 \frac{}{B \vee C, \neg C \vdash B} (\neg L) \quad \frac{}{\neg A \vdash \neg A} (I) \\
 \frac{}{(B \vee C), \neg C, (B \rightarrow \neg A) \vdash \neg A} (\rightarrow L) \\
 \frac{}{(B \vee C), \neg C, ((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C) \vdash \neg A} (\wedge L_1) \\
 \frac{}{(B \vee C), ((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C), \neg C \vdash \neg A} (PL) \\
 \frac{}{(B \vee C), ((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C), \neg C \vdash \neg A} (\wedge L_2) \\
 \frac{}{A \vdash A} (I) \quad \frac{}{(B \vee C), ((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C), ((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C) \vdash \neg A} (CL) \\
 \frac{}{\vdash \neg A, A} (\neg R) \quad \frac{}{(B \vee C), ((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C) \vdash \neg A} (PL) \\
 \frac{}{\vdash A, \neg A} (PR) \quad \frac{}{((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C), (B \vee C) \vdash \neg A} (\rightarrow L) \\
 \frac{}{((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C), (A \rightarrow (B \vee C)) \vdash \neg A, \neg A} (CR) \\
 \frac{}{((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C), (A \rightarrow (B \vee C)) \vdash \neg A} (PL) \\
 \frac{}{(A \rightarrow (B \vee C)), ((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C) \vdash \neg A} (\rightarrow R) \\
 \frac{}{(A \rightarrow (B \vee C)) \vdash (((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C) \rightarrow \neg A)} (\rightarrow R) \\
 \frac{}{\vdash ((A \rightarrow (B \vee C)) \rightarrow (((B \rightarrow \neg A) \wedge \neg C) \rightarrow \neg A))}
 \end{array}$$

UGH!

Propositional Logic: Syntax and Semantics

(CORRECT)
Definition 2.7 A calculus is called *sound* if every derived proposition follows semantically. That is, if it holds for formulas KB and Q that

if $KB \vdash Q$ then $KB \models Q$.

A calculus is called *complete* if all semantic consequences can be derived. That is, for formulas KB and Q the following holds:

if $KB \models Q$ then $KB \vdash Q$.

SEMANTIC

SYNTAX

SO

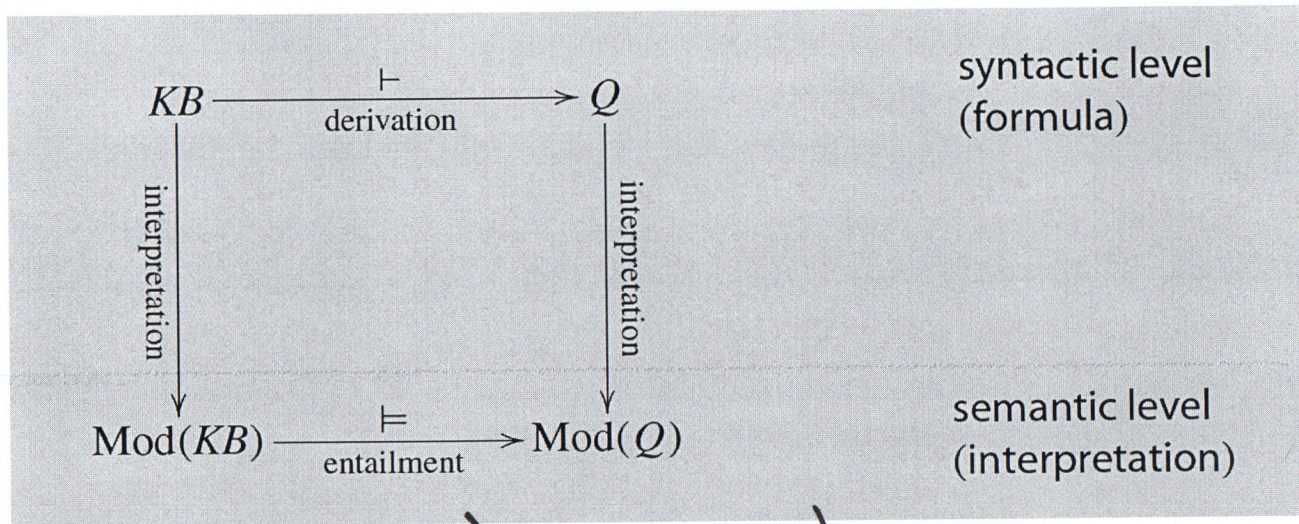
$$KB \models Q \iff KB \vdash Q$$

EQUIVALENT!

\models IS HARD TO CHECK
(EXPONENTIAL # OF INTERPRETATIONS)

SO WE FOCUS ON \vdash

Propositional Logic: Syntax and Semantics



$$\text{Mod}(KB) \subseteq \text{Mod}(Q)$$

Propositional Logic: Automated Theorem Proving

An alternative proof calculus that is more suitable for machine implementation is the Resolution Method, invented by Abraham Robinson in 1965. It is a method of proof by contradiction or refutation:

Theorem 2.3 (Proof by contradiction) $KB \models Q$ if and only if $KB \wedge \neg Q$ is unsatisfiable.

The Resolution Rule is a generalization of Modus Ponens and similar rules that explain how implication can be used:

SEE
NEXT
PAGE

$$\frac{A \quad A \Rightarrow B}{B}$$

$$\frac{A \quad \neg A \vee B}{B}$$

$$\frac{A \Rightarrow B \quad B \Rightarrow C}{A \Rightarrow C}$$

$$\frac{\neg A \vee B \quad \neg B \vee C}{\neg A \vee C}$$

THM
 $KB \models Q \iff KB \cup \{\neg Q\} \text{ IS UNSATISFIABLE}$

PROOF (\Rightarrow)
CASES

I SATISFIES KB

\Rightarrow I SATISFIES Q

\Rightarrow I DOESN'T SATISFY $\neg Q$

\Rightarrow " " " $KB \cup \{\neg Q\}$

I DOESN'T SAT. KB

\Rightarrow I DOESN'T SAT. $KB \cup \{\neg Q\}$

(\Leftarrow)
 IS SIMILAR