

## RESOLUTION AND FIRST ORDER LOGIC

### Introduction

- In the last class we talked about logic.
- In particular we talked about why logic would be useful.
- We covered propositional logic — the simplest kind of logic.
- We talked about proof using the rules of natural deduction.
- This week we will look at some other aspects of proof.
- We will also look at a more expressive kind of logic.

### Logic and proof

- Need to be clear that logics exist separate from any proof method that they use.
- Can have one logic with many proof methods.
- Those same methods may work for many logics.
- So far we have looked at one logic (propositional logic) and one proof system (natural deduction).
- We will look at:
  - More proof systems for propositional logic
  - Another logic.

- New proof systems:
  - Forward chaining
  - Backward chaining
  - Resolution
- New logic
  - Predicate logic

## New proof systems

- One of the good things about natural deduction is that it is easy to understand.
  - Proofs are often intuitive
- However, there is lots to decide:
  - Which sentence to use
  - Which rule to apply
- Can be hard to program a system to use it.
- Q: How to make it easier?

## Horn clauses

- A: Restrict the language
  - *Horn clauses*
- A Horn clause is:
  - An atomic proposition; or
  - A conjunction of atomic propositions  $\Rightarrow$  atomic proposition
- For example:

$$C \wedge D \Rightarrow B$$

- KB = *conjunction* of *Horn clauses*

- For example:

$$C \wedge (B \Rightarrow A) \wedge (C \wedge D \Rightarrow B)$$

- Modus ponens is then:

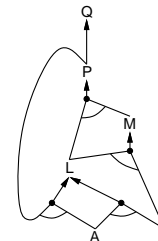
$$\frac{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n, \quad \alpha_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_n \Rightarrow \beta}{\beta}$$

- Sometimes called “generalized modus ponens”.
- For Horn clauses, modus ponens is all you need
  - Complete
- Can be used with *forward chaining* or *backward chaining*.
- These algorithms are very natural and run in *linear* time

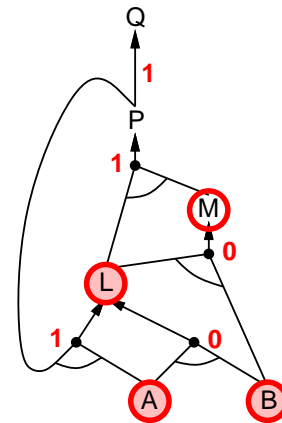
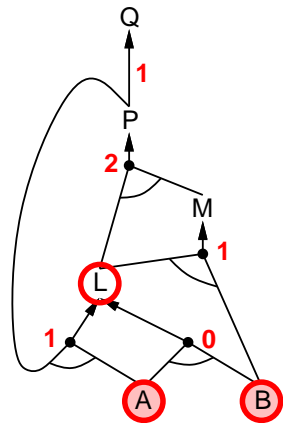
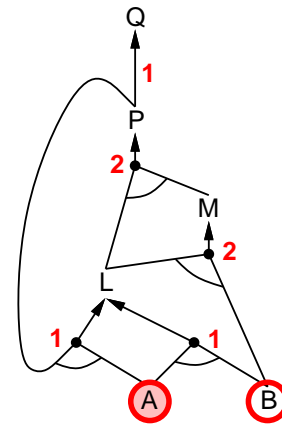
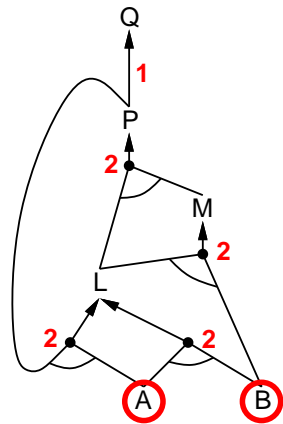
## Forward chaining

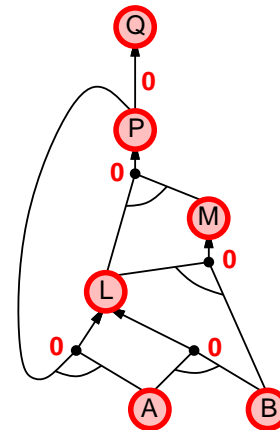
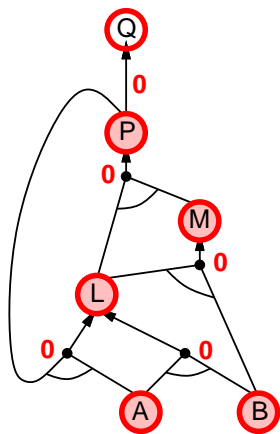
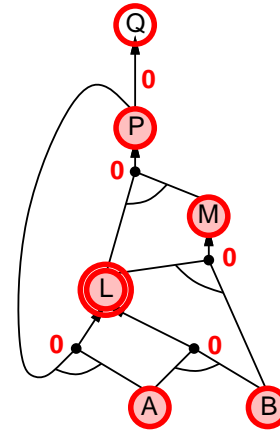
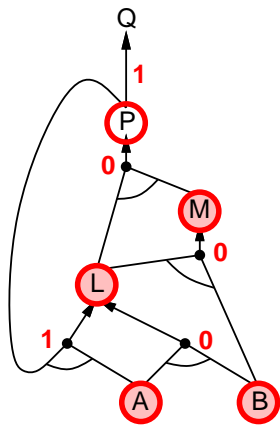
- Idea: “fire” any rule whose premises are satisfied in the KB, add its conclusion to the KB, until query is found

$P \Rightarrow Q$   
 $L \wedge M \Rightarrow P$   
 $B \wedge L \Rightarrow M$   
 $A \wedge P \Rightarrow L$   
 $A \wedge B \Rightarrow L$   
 $A$   
 $B$



- How does this work?





```

function PL-FC-ENTAILS?(KB, q) returns true or false
inputs: KB, the knowledge base, q the query
local variables: count, a table, indexed by clause,
                    initially the number of premises
                    inferred, table of symbols, initially all false
                    agenda, list of symbols, initially whole KB

while agenda is not empty do
  p ← POP(agenda)
  unless inferred[p] do
    inferred[p] ← true
    for each Horn clause c in whose premise p appears do
      decrement count[c]
      if count[c] = 0 then do
        if HEAD[c] = q then return true
        PUSH(HEAD[c], agenda)
return false

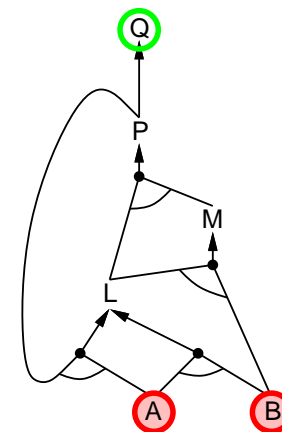
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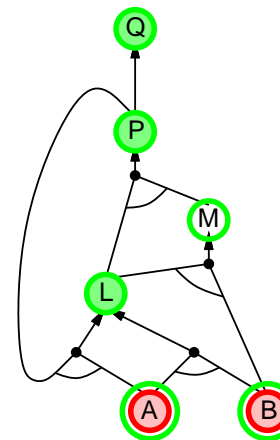
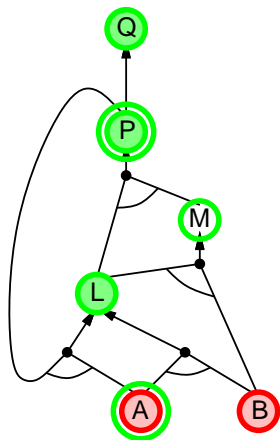
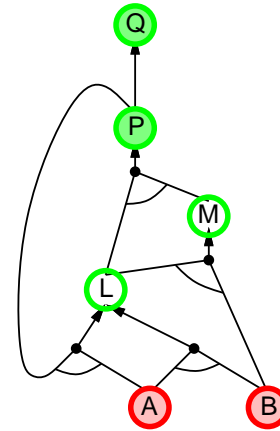
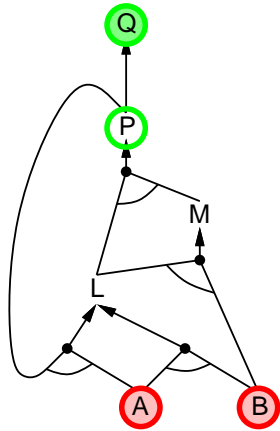
### Proof of completeness

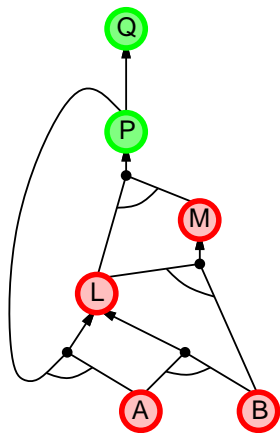
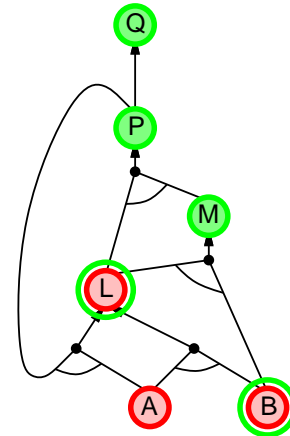
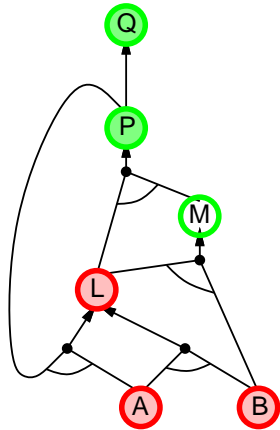
- FC derives every atomic sentence that is entailed by *KB*
  - FC reaches a *fixed point* where no new atomic sentences are derived
  - Consider the final state as a model *m*, assigning true/false to symbols
  - Every clause in the original *KB* is true in *m*  
*Proof:* Suppose a clause  $a_1 \wedge \dots \wedge a_k \Rightarrow b$  is false in *m*  
Then  $a_1 \wedge \dots \wedge a_k$  is true in *m* and *b* is false in *m*  
Therefore the algorithm has not reached a fixed point!
  - Hence *m* is a model of *KB*
  - If  $KB \models q$ , *q* is true in *every* model of *KB*, including *m*
- General idea:* construct any model of *KB* by sound inference, check  $\alpha$

### Backward chaining

- Idea: work backwards from the query *q*
  - to prove *q* by BC,
  - check if *q* is known already, or
  - prove by BC all premises of some rule concluding *q*
- Avoid loops: check if new subgoal is already on the goal stack
- Avoid repeated work: check if new subgoal
  - has already been proved true, or
  - has already failed







### Forward v. backward chaining

- FC is *data-driven*, cf. automatic, unconscious processing
  - e.g., object recognition, routine decisions
- May do lots of work that is irrelevant to the goal
- BC is *goal-driven*, appropriate for problem-solving,
  - e.g., Where are my keys? How do I get into a PhD program?
- Complexity of BC can be *much less* than linear in size of KB

## Resolution

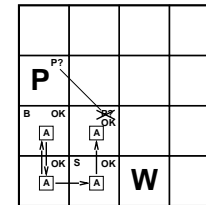
- Resolution is another proof system.
  - Sound and complete for propositional logic.
- Just one inference rule:

$$\frac{\ell_1 \vee \dots \vee \ell_k, \quad m_1 \vee \dots \vee m_n}{\ell_1 \vee \dots \vee \ell_{i-1} \vee \ell_{i+1} \vee \dots \vee \ell_k \vee m_1 \vee \dots \vee m_{j-1} \vee m_{j+1} \vee \dots \vee m_n}$$

where  $\ell_i$  and  $m_j$  are complementary literals.

- Eh?

- As an example, here:



- We might resolve:

$$\frac{P_{1,3} \vee P_{2,2}, \quad \neg P_{2,2}}{P_{1,3}}$$

- So, if we know  $P_{1,3} \vee P_{2,2}$  and  $\neg P_{2,2}$  then we can conclude  $P_{1,3}$

- Only issue — resolution only works for KB in *conjunctive normal form*
- conjunction* of *disjunctions* of *literals*  
*clauses*

- Such as:

$$(A \vee \neg B) \wedge (B \vee \neg C \vee \neg D)$$

- Have to convert sentences to CNF.

- Example:  $B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1})$

1. Eliminate  $\Leftrightarrow$ , replacing  $\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta$  with  $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \wedge (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)$ .

$$(B_{1,1} \Rightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1})) \wedge ((P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1}) \Rightarrow B_{1,1})$$

2. Eliminate  $\Rightarrow$ , replacing  $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$  with  $\neg\alpha \vee \beta$ .

$$(\neg B_{1,1} \vee P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1}) \wedge (\neg(P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1}) \vee B_{1,1})$$

3. Move  $\neg$  inwards using de Morgan's rules and double-negation:

$$(\neg B_{1,1} \vee P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1}) \wedge ((\neg P_{1,2} \wedge \neg P_{2,1}) \vee B_{1,1})$$

4. Apply distributivity law ( $\vee$  over  $\wedge$ ):

$$(\neg B_{1,1} \vee P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1}) \wedge (\neg P_{1,2} \vee B_{1,1}) \wedge (\neg P_{2,1} \vee B_{1,1})$$

### Resolution example

- $KB = (B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1})) \wedge \neg B_{1,1}$

$$\alpha = \neg P_{1,2}$$

- First we have to convert the  $KB$  into conjunctive normal form.

- That is what we just did (here's one I made earlier):

$$\neg P_{2,1} \vee B_{1,1}$$

$$\neg B_{1,1} \vee B_{P_{1,2}} \vee P_{2,1}$$

$$\neg P_{1,2} \vee B_{1,1}$$

$$\neg B_{1,1}$$

- To this we add the negation of the thing we want to prove.

$$P_{1,2}$$

- Resolution works by repeatedly combining these formulae together until we get nothing (the empty set).
- This represents the contradiction.
- When we find this we can conclude the negation of the thing we added to the  $KB$ .
  - This is just the thing we want to prove.
- So we might combine:

$$\frac{\neg P_{2,1} \vee B_{1,1}, \quad \neg B_{1,1}}{\neg P_{2,1}}$$

- Similarly we might infer:

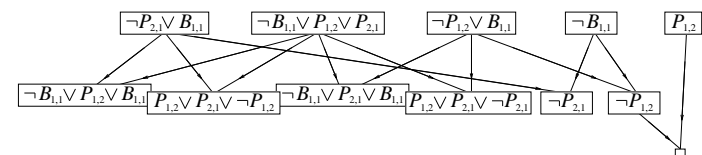
$$\frac{\neg P_{1,2} \vee B_{1,1}, \quad \neg B_{1,1}}{P_{1,2}}$$

and

$$\frac{P_{1,2} \quad \neg P_{1,2}}{\perp}$$

thus finding the contradiction and concluding the proof.

- Many of the possible inferences are summarised by:



```

function PL-RESOLUTION( $KB, \alpha$ ) returns true or false
  inputs:  $KB$ , the knowledge base, a sentence in propositional
           logic
            $\alpha$ , the query, a sentence in propositional logic
   $clauses \leftarrow$  the set of clauses in the CNF representation of  $KB \wedge \neg \alpha$ 
   $new \leftarrow \{ \}$ 
  loop do
    for each  $C_i, C_j$  in  $clauses$  do
       $resolvents \leftarrow$  PL-RESOLVE( $C_i, C_j$ )
      if  $resolvents$  contains the empty clause then return true
       $new \leftarrow new \cup resolvents$ 
    if  $new \subseteq clauses$  then return false
     $clauses \leftarrow clauses \cup new$ 

```

### In favor of propositional logic

- Propositional logic is *declarative*
  - Pieces of syntax correspond to facts
- Propositional logic allows partial/disjunctive/negated information
  - Unlike most data structures and databases
- Propositional logic is *compositional*
  - Meaning of  $B_{1,1} \wedge P_{1,2}$  is derived from meaning of  $B_{1,1}$  and of  $P_{1,2}$
- Meaning in propositional logic is *context-independent*
  - Unlike natural language, where meaning depends on context

### Against propositional logic

- Propositional logic has very limited expressive power
  - Unlike natural language
- For example, cannot say:
 

“pits cause breezes in adjacent squares”

except by writing one sentence for each square.

### First order logic

- Whereas propositional logic assumes world contains *facts*, *first-order logic* (like natural language) assumes the world contains:
  - *Objects*: people, houses, numbers, theories, Barack Obama, colors, baseball games, wars, centuries . . .
  - *Relations*: red, round, bogus, prime, multistoried . . ., *brother of*, bigger than, inside, part of, has color, occurred after, owns, comes between, . . .
 

Relations are statements that are true or false.
  - *Functions*: father of, best friend, third inning of, one more than, end of . . .
 

Functions return values.

- The line between functions and relations is sometimes confusing.
- This is a relation:

*PresidentOf(UnitedStates, BarakObama)*

which is currently true.

- This is a function:

*PresidentOf(UnitedStates)*

which currently returns the value *BarackObama*.

## Logics in general

Language	Ontological Commitment	Epistemological Commitment
Propositional logic	facts	true/false/unknown
First-order logic	facts, objects, relations	true/false/unknown
Temporal logic	facts, objects, relations, times	true/false/unknown
Probability theory	facts	degree of belief
Fuzzy logic	facts + degree of truth	known interval value

## Syntax of FOL: Basic elements

Constants *KingJohn, 2, UCB, ...*

Predicates *Brother, >, ...*

Functions *Sqrt, LeftLegOf, ...*

Variables *x, y, a, b, ...*

Connectives  $\wedge \vee \neg \Rightarrow \Leftrightarrow$

Equality  $=$

Quantifiers  $\forall \exists$

- Predicates express *relations* between things.

## Atomic sentences

Atomic sentence = *predicate(term<sub>1</sub>, ..., term<sub>n</sub>)*  
or *term<sub>1</sub> = term<sub>2</sub>*

Term = *function(term<sub>1</sub>, ..., term<sub>n</sub>)*  
or *constant* or *variable*

E.g., *Brother(KingJohn, RichardTheLionheart)*  
> *(Length(LeftLegOf(Richard)), Length(LeftLegOf(KingJohn)))*

- The brothers we are talking about:



## Complex sentences

- Complex sentences are made from atomic sentences using connectives

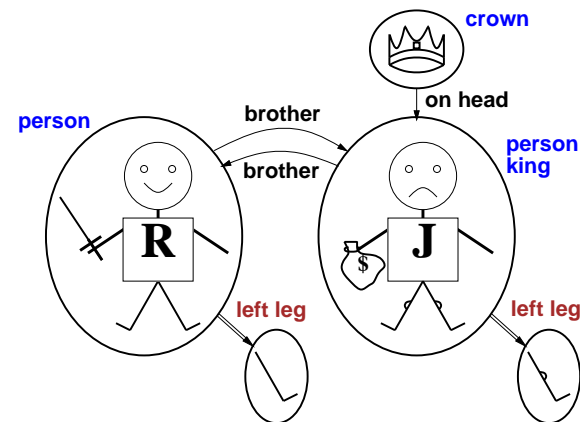
$$\neg S, \quad S_1 \wedge S_2, \quad S_1 \vee S_2, \quad S_1 \Rightarrow S_2, \quad S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2$$

E.g.  $\text{Sibling}(\text{KingJohn}, \text{Richard}) \Rightarrow \text{Sibling}(\text{Richard}, \text{KingJohn})$   
 $>(1, 2) \vee \leq(1, 2)$   
 $>(1, 2) \wedge \neg >(1, 2)$

## Truth in first-order logic

- Sentences are true with respect to a *model* and an *interpretation* (Remember that in propositional logic, these ideas were interchangeable)
- Model contains  $\geq 1$  objects (*domain elements*) and relations among them
- Interpretation specifies referents for:
  - constant symbols  $\rightarrow$  **objects**
  - predicate symbols  $\rightarrow$  **relations**
  - function symbols  $\rightarrow$  **functional relations**
- An atomic sentence  $\text{predicate}(\text{term}_1, \dots, \text{term}_n)$  is true iff the **objects** referred to by  $\text{term}_1, \dots, \text{term}_n$  are in the **relation** referred to by  $\text{predicate}$

## Models for FOL: Example



### Truth example

- Consider the interpretation in which
  - *Richard* → Richard the Lionheart
  - *John* → the evil King John
  - *Brother* → the brotherhood relation
- Under this interpretation, *Brother*(*Richard*, *John*) is true just in case Richard the Lionheart and the evil King John are in the brotherhood relation in the model.
- If the model is Northern Europe in the years 1166 to 1199, then the interpretation is true.

### Models for FOL: Lots!

- Entailment in propositional logic can be computed by enumerating models
- We *can* enumerate the FOL models for a given KB vocabulary:
  - For each number of domain elements  $n$  from 1 to  $\infty$
  - For each  $k$ -ary predicate  $P_k$  in the vocabulary
  - For each possible  $k$ -ary relation on  $n$  objects
  - For each constant symbol  $C$  in the vocabulary
  - For each choice of referent for  $C$  from  $n$  objects . . .
- Computing entailment by enumerating FOL models is not easy!

### Decidability

- In fact, it is worse than “not easy”.
- Is there any procedure that we can use, that will be guaranteed to tell us, in a finite amount of time, whether a FOL formula is, or is not, valid?
- The answer is **no**.
- FOL is for this reason said to be *undecidable*.

### Universal quantification

- $\forall \langle \text{variables} \rangle \langle \text{sentence} \rangle$
- Everyone at Brooklyn College is smart:
$$\forall x \text{ At}(x, BC) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(x)$$
- $\forall x$   $P$  is true in a model  $m$  iff  $P$  is true with  $x$  being *each* possible object in the model
- *Roughly* speaking, equivalent to the conjunction of instantiations of  $P$

$$\begin{aligned} & (\text{At}(\text{KingJohn}, BC) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{KingJohn})) \\ & \wedge (\text{At}(\text{Richard}, BC) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{Richard})) \\ & \wedge (\text{At}(BC, BC) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(BC)) \\ & \wedge \dots \end{aligned}$$

### A common mistake to avoid

- Typically,  $\Rightarrow$  is the main connective with  $\forall$
- Common mistake: using  $\wedge$  as the main connective with  $\forall$ :

$$\forall x \text{ At}(x, BC) \wedge \text{Smart}(x)$$

means “Everyone is at Brooklyn College and everyone is smart”

### Existential quantification

- $\exists$  *(variables)* *(sentence)*
- Someone at City College is smart:  
$$\exists x \text{ At}(x, \text{City}) \wedge \text{Smart}(x)$$
- $\exists x \text{ } P$  is true in a model  $m$  iff  $P$  is true with  $x$  being *some* possible object in the model

- *Roughly* speaking, equivalent to the **disjunction** of **instantiations** of  $P$ :

$$\begin{aligned} & (\text{At}(\text{King John}, \text{City}) \wedge \text{Smart}(\text{King John})) \\ \vee & (\text{At}(\text{Richard}, \text{City}) \wedge \text{Smart}(\text{Richard})) \\ \vee & (\text{At}(\text{City}, \text{City}) \wedge \text{Smart}(\text{City})) \\ \vee & \dots \end{aligned}$$

### A common mistake to avoid (2)

- Typically,  $\wedge$  is the main connective with  $\exists$
- Common mistake: using  $\Rightarrow$  as the main connective with  $\exists$ :

$$\exists x \text{ At}(x, \text{City}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(x)$$

is true if there is anyone who is not at City College!

### Properties of quantifiers

- $\forall x \forall y$  is the same as  $\forall y \forall x$  (**why?**)
- $\exists x \exists y$  is the same as  $\exists y \exists x$  (**why?**)
- $\exists x \forall y$  is **not** the same as  $\forall y \exists x$
- $\exists x \forall y \text{ Loves}(x, y)$   
“There is a person who loves everyone in the world”
- $\forall y \exists x \text{ Loves}(x, y)$   
“Everyone in the world is loved by at least one person”
- **Quantifier duality**: each can be expressed using the other

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \text{ Likes}(x, \text{IceCream}) & \quad \neg \exists x \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{IceCream}) \\ \exists x \text{ Likes}(x, \text{Broccoli}) & \quad \neg \forall x \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{Broccoli}) \end{aligned}$$

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- One’s mother is one’s female parent

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- One’s mother is one’s female parent  
 $\forall x, y \text{ Mother}(x, y) \Leftrightarrow (\text{Female}(x) \wedge \text{Parent}(x, y))$

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- One’s mother is one’s female parent  
 $\forall x, y \text{ Mother}(x, y) \Leftrightarrow (\text{Female}(x) \wedge \text{Parent}(x, y))$
- A first cousin is a child of a parent’s sibling  
$$\forall x, y \text{ FirstCousin}(x, y) \Leftrightarrow$$
$$\exists p, ps \text{ Parent}(p, x) \wedge \text{Sibling}(ps, p) \wedge \text{Parent}(ps, y)$$

## Equality

- $term_1 = term_2$  is true under a given interpretation if and only if  $term_1$  and  $term_2$  refer to the same object  
E.g.,  $1 = 2$  and  $\forall x \times (Sqrt(x), Sqrt(x)) = x$  are satisfiable  
 $2 = 2$  is valid
- E.g., definition of (full) *Sibling* in terms of *Parent*:  
 $\forall x, y \text{ Sibling}(x, y) \Leftrightarrow [\neg(x=y) \wedge \exists m, f \neg(m=f) \wedge$   
 $Parent(m, x) \wedge Parent(f, x) \wedge Parent(m, y) \wedge Parent(f, y)]$

## Interacting with FOL KBs

- Suppose a wumpus-world agent is using an FOL KB and perceives a smell and a breeze (but no glitter) at  $t = 5$ :
- $Tell(KB, Percept([Smell, Breeze, None], 5))$   
 $Ask(KB, \exists a \text{ Action}(a, 5))$
- Does  $KB$  entail any particular actions at  $t = 5$ ?
- Answer: Yes,  $\{a/Shoot\} \leftarrow \text{substitution}$  (binding list)
- Given a sentence  $S$  and a substitution  $\sigma$ ,  $S\sigma$  denotes the result of plugging  $\sigma$  into  $S$

- For example:  
 $S = Smarter(x, y)$   
 $\sigma = \{x/Hillary, y/Bill\}$   
 $S\sigma = Smarter(Hillary, Bill)$
- $Ask(KB, S)$  returns some/all  $\sigma$  such that  $KB \models S\sigma$

## Knowledge base for the wumpus world

- “Perception”  
 $\forall b, g, t \text{ Percept}([Smell, b, g], t) \Rightarrow Smell(t)$   
 $\forall s, b, t \text{ Percept}([s, b, Glitter], t) \Rightarrow AtGold(t)$
- Reflex  
 $\forall t \text{ AtGold}(t) \Rightarrow \text{Action}(Grab, t)$
- Reflex with internal state: do we have the gold already?  
 $\forall t \text{ AtGold}(t) \wedge \neg Holding(Gold, t) \Rightarrow \text{Action}(Grab, t)$
- $Holding(Gold, t)$  cannot be observed  $\Rightarrow$  keeping track of change is essential

**function** KB-AGENT(*percept*) **returns** an *action*  
**static:** *KB*, a knowledge base  
*t*, a counter, initially 0, indicating time  
 TELL(*KB*, MAKE-PERCEPT-SENTENCE(*percept*, *t*))  
*action* ← ASK(*KB*, MAKE-ACTION-QUERY(*t*))  
 TELL(*KB*, MAKE-ACTION-SENTENCE(*action*, *t*))  
*t* ← *t* + 1  
**return** *action*

### Deducing hidden properties

- Properties of locations:  
 $\forall x, t \text{ At}(\text{Agent}, x, t) \wedge \text{Smelt}(t) \Rightarrow \text{Smelly}(x)$   
 $\forall x, t \text{ At}(\text{Agent}, x, t) \wedge \text{Breeze}(t) \Rightarrow \text{Breezy}(x)$
- Squares are breezy near a pit.
- *Diagnostic* rule—infer cause from effect  
 $\forall y \text{ Breezy}(y) \Rightarrow \exists x \text{ Pit}(x) \wedge \text{Adjacent}(x, y)$
- *Causal* rule—infer effect from cause  
 $\forall x, y \text{ Pit}(x) \wedge \text{Adjacent}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Breezy}(y)$
- Neither of these is complete—e.g., the causal rule doesn't say whether squares far away from pits can be breezy
- *Definition* for the *Breezy* predicate:  
 $\forall y \text{ Breezy}(y) \Leftrightarrow [\exists x \text{ Pit}(x) \wedge \text{Adjacent}(x, y)]$

### Proof in FOL

- Proof in FOL is similar to propositional logic; we just need an extra set of rules, to deal with the quantifiers.
- FOL *inherits* all the rules of PL.
- To understand FOL proof rules, need to understand *substitution*.
- The most obvious rule, for  $\forall$ -E.  
 Tells us that if everything in the domain has some property, then we can infer that any *particular* individual has the property.

$$\frac{\vdash \forall x \cdot P(x); \quad \forall\text{-E}}{\vdash P(a)} \text{ for any } a \text{ in the domain}$$

Going from *general* to *specific*.

- If all Brooklyn College students are smart, then anyone in the class is smart.

- Example 1.  
 Let's use  $\forall$ -E to get the Socrates example out of the way.

$$\text{Person}(s); \forall x \cdot \text{Person}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Mortal}(x) \vdash \text{Mortal}(s)$$

- |  |                        |
|--|------------------------|
| 1. <i>Person</i> ( <i>s</i> )  | Given                  |
| 2. $\forall x \cdot \text{Person}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Mortal}(x)$     | Given                  |
| 3. <i>Person</i> ( <i>s</i> ) $\Rightarrow$ <i>Mortal</i> ( <i>s</i> ) | 2, $\forall$ -E        |
| 4. <i>Mortal</i> ( <i>s</i> )  | 1, 3, $\Rightarrow$ -E |

- We can also go from the general to the slightly less specific!

$$\frac{\vdash \forall x \cdot P(x);}{\vdash \exists x \cdot P(x)} \exists\text{-I}(1) \text{ if domain not empty}$$

Note the *side condition*.

The  $\exists$  quantifier *asserts the existence* of at least one object.

The  $\forall$  quantifier does not.

- So, while we can say “All unicorns have horns” irrespective of whether unicorns are real or not, we can only say “There’s a unicorn living on my street whose name is Fred and he has a horn” if there is at least one unicorn.



- This is Fred.

- We can also go from the very specific to less specific.

$$\frac{\vdash P(a);}{\vdash \exists x \cdot P(x)} \exists\text{-I}(2)$$

- In other words once we have a concrete example, we can infer there exists something with the property of that example.
- If I find a student at City College who is smart, I can say “There is a smart student at City College”.

- There’s a  $\exists$  elimintaion rule also.
- We often informally make use of arguments along the lines...
  1. We know somebody is the murderer.
  2. Call this person *a*.
  3. *a* must have been in the library with the lead pipe.
  4. ...

(Here, *a* is called a *Skolem constant*.)



Thoralf Skolem

- We have a rule which allows this, but we have to be careful how we use it!

$$\frac{\vdash \exists x \cdot P(x);}{\vdash P(a)} \exists\text{-E} \quad a \text{ doesn't occur elsewhere}$$

- Here is an *invalid* use of this rule:

1.  $\exists x \cdot \text{Boring}(x)$  Given
2.  $\text{Lecture}(AI)$  Given
3.  $\text{Boring}(AI)$  1,  $\exists\text{-E}$

- (The conclusion may be true, the argument isn't sound.)

- Another kind of reasoning:
  - Let  $a$  be arbitrary object.
  - ... (some reasoning) ...
  - Therefore  $a$  has property  $P$
  - Since  $a$  was arbitrary, it must be that every object has property  $P$ .

- Common in mathematics:

Consider a positive integer  $n$  ... so  $n$  is either a prime number or divisible by a smaller prime number ... thus every positive integer is either a prime number or divisible by a smaller prime number.

- If we are careful, we can also use this kind of reasoning:

$$\frac{\vdash P(a);}{\vdash \forall x \cdot P(x)} \forall\text{-I} \quad a \text{ is arbitrary}$$

- Here's an invalid use of this rule:

1.  $\text{Boring}(AI)$  Given
2.  $\forall x \cdot \text{Boring}(x)$  1,  $\forall\text{-I}$

- With this we have a full set of rules for handling quantifiers.
- Adding them to the rules we had before, we have enough to do natural deduction with predicate logic.
- Let's look at an example.

- An example:
  1. Everybody is either happy or rich.
  2. Simon is not rich.
  3. Therefore, Simon is happy.

Predicates:

- $H(x)$  means  $x$  is happy;
- $R(x)$  means  $x$  is rich.

- Formalisation:

$$\forall x.H(x) \vee R(x); \neg R(\text{Simon}) \vdash H(\text{Simon})$$

1. $\forall x.H(x) \vee R(x)$	Given
2. $\neg R(\text{Simon})$	Given
3. $H(\text{Simon}) \vee R(\text{Simon})$	1, $\forall$ -E
4. $\neg H(\text{Simon}) \Rightarrow R(\text{Simon})$	3, defn $\Rightarrow$
5. $\neg H(\text{Simon})$	As.
6. $R(\text{Simon})$	4, 5, $\Rightarrow$ -E
7. $R(\text{Simon}) \wedge \neg R(\text{Simon})$	2, 6, $\wedge$ -I
8. $\neg\neg H(\text{Simon})$	5, 7, $\neg$ -I
9. $H(\text{Simon}) \Leftrightarrow \neg\neg H(\text{Simon})$	PL axiom
10. $(H(\text{Simon}) \Rightarrow \neg\neg H(\text{Simon}))$	
$\wedge(\neg\neg H(\text{Simon}) \Rightarrow H(\text{Simon}))$	9, defn $\Leftrightarrow$
11. $\neg\neg H(\text{Simon}) \Rightarrow H(\text{Simon})$	10, $\wedge$ -E
12. $H(\text{Simon})$	8, 11, $\Rightarrow$ -E

- To summarise where we stand with logics and proof systems:

	Propositional Logic	Predicate Logic
Natural Deduction	X	X
Forward Chaining	X	
Backward Chaining	X	
Resolution	X	

- We could, quite easily, extend FC, BC and resolution for predicate logic.
  - We already know how to handle quantifiers, and that is the hardest bit.

## Summary

- This lecture completes our treatment of logic.
- We have added some new proof techniques:
  - Forward chaining
  - Backward chaining
  - Resolution
- to our treatment of propositional logic; and
- Covered the basics of first order logic.
- There is plenty more to logic (a whole other chapter in the textbook) but we will look at other things next week.