

Logik für Informatiker: PROLOG Part 2: Logic

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(original slides by Peter Flach)

- For
 - propositional clausal logic
 - relational clausal logic
 - full clausal logic
- we present:
 - the *syntax*: defining the logical language
 - the *semantics*: defining the meaning of words and sentences
truth-functional
 - the *proof theory*: how new true sentences can be derived from known true sentences by rules of inference
 - the *meta-theory*: theory about logic; statements about completeness, correctness, decidability.

- ***Propositional clausal logic***
 - expressions that can be true or false

- ***Relational clausal logic***
 - constants and variables refer to objects

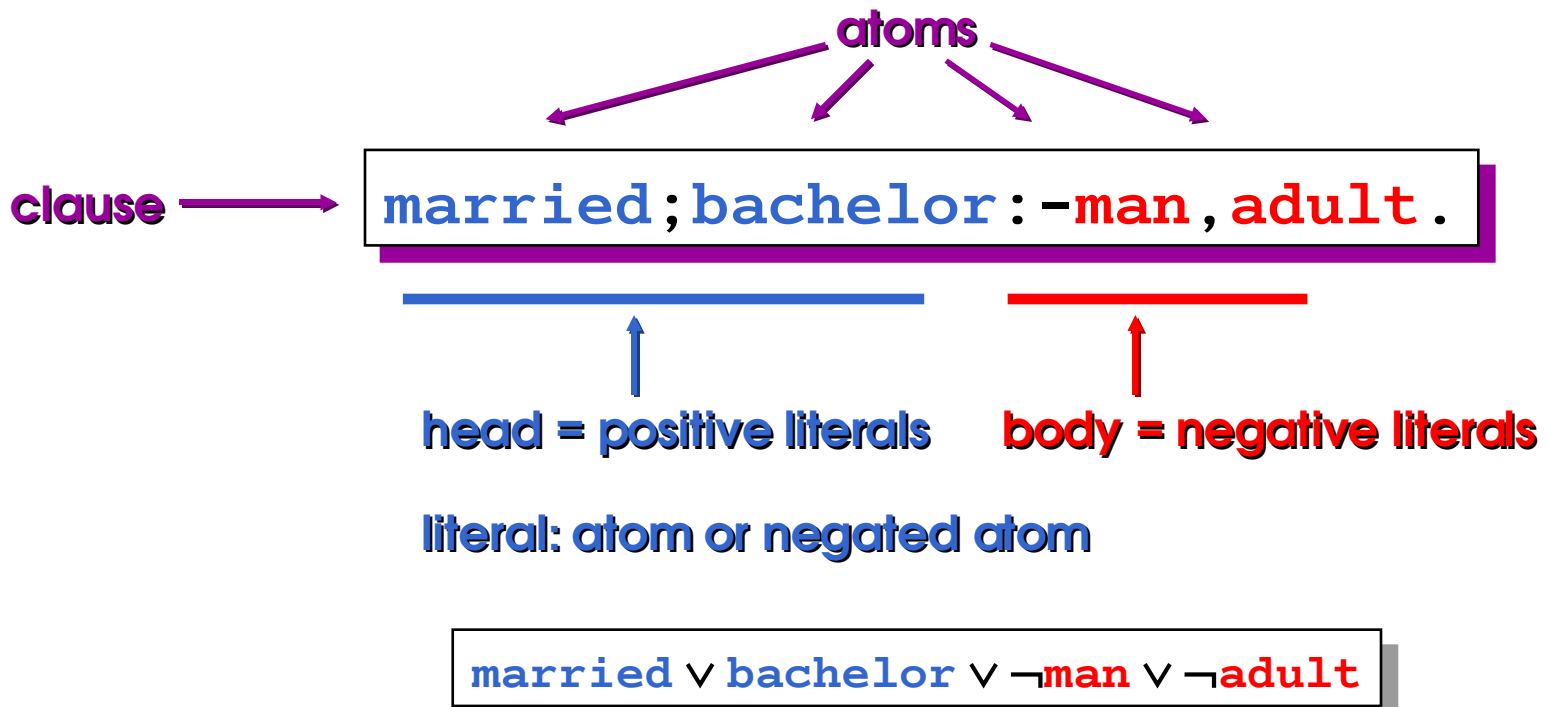
- ***Full clausal logic***
 - functors aggregate objects

- ***Definite clause logic = pure Prolog***
 - no disjunctive heads

Propositional Clausal Logic

- *Proposition*
- Statement that can be true or false.
- Propositions are represented by so-called *atoms*. E.g., **married** is an *atom* denoting the statement „he/she is married“
- Symbols used:
 - :- if
 - ; or
 - , and
- Program: set of clauses, each finished with a „.“
Read conjunctively
- **woman; man :- human.
human :- woman.
human :- man.**

“Somebody is **married** **or** a **bachelor** **if** he is a **man** **and** an **adult**.”



- Persons are happy or sad

```
happy; sad :- person.
```

- No person is both happy and sad

```
:- person, happy, sad.
```

- Sad persons are not happy

```
:- person, sad, happy.
```

- Non-happy persons are sad

```
sad; happy :- person.
```

- **Herbrand base**: set of atoms
 - {married, bachelor, man, adult}
- **Herbrand interpretation**: set of **true** atoms
 - {married, man, adult}
- A clause is **false** in an interpretation if all body-literals are **true** and all head-literals are **false**...
 - **bachelor** :-man, adult.
- ...and **true** otherwise: the interpretation is a **model** of the clause.
 - :-married, bachelor.

- Herbrand base: set of atoms occurring in program P
- Herbrand interpretation of P : mapping of Herbrand base to `{true, false}`
- E.g., `{woman -> true, man -> false, human -> true}`
- Shorthand notation: only subset of Herbrand base that is true: `{woman, human}`
- Herbrand interpretation describes a state of affairs in the universe of discourse.

- Truth value of clause:
 - (i) true if body true and head true
 - (ii) false if body true and head false
 - (iii) true if body false and head true
 - (iv) true if body false and head false
- (iii) and (iv): every clause should have a truth value under any interpretation
- Clause „if *body* then *head*“ equivalent to „*head* or not *body*“.
- If a clause is true under an interpretation, then this interpretation is said to be a *model* of the clause.

- A clause C is a *logical consequence* of a program (set of clauses) P iff every model of P is a model of C .
- Let P be
 - `married;bachelor:-man,adult.`
 - `man.`
 - `:-bachelor.`
- `married:-adult` is a logical consequence of P ;
- `married:-bachelor` is a logical consequence of P ;
- `bachelor:-man` is not a logical consequence of P ;
- `bachelor:-bachelor` is a logical consequence of P .

has_wife:-man,married

married;bachelor:-man,adult

has_wife;bachelor:-man,adult

square:-rectangle,equal_sides

rectangle:-parallelogram,right_angles

square:-parallelogram,right_angles,equal_sides

- Propositional resolution is
 - *sound*: it derives only logical consequences.
 - *incomplete*: it cannot derive arbitrary tautologies like $a : \neg a \dots$
 - ...but *refutation-complete*: it derives the empty clause from any inconsistent set of clauses.
- *Proof by refutation*: add the negation of the assumed logical consequence to the program, and prove inconsistency by deriving the empty clause.

- Derive `friendly` from the following the program:

```
happy; friendly :- teacher.
```

```
friendly :- teacher, happy.
```

```
teacher; wise.
```

```
teacher :- wise.
```

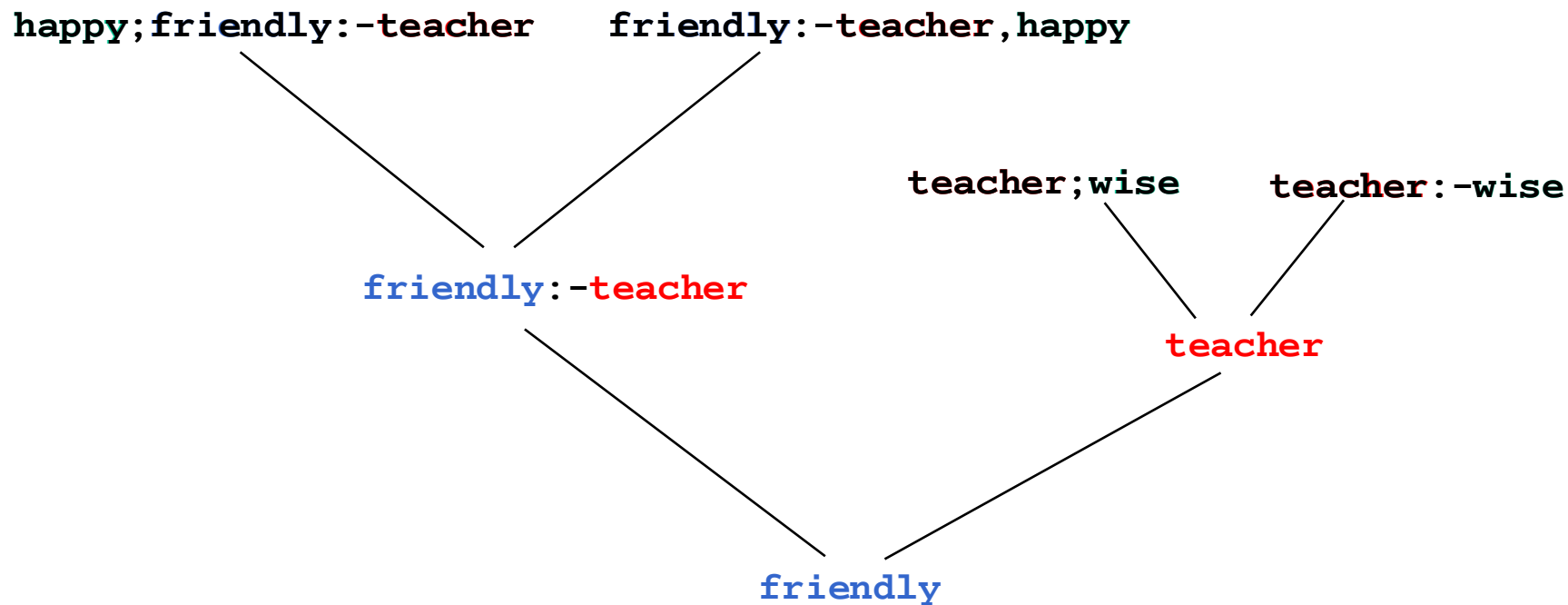
- Find a proof by refutation that

```
friendly :- has_friends.
```

is a logical consequence of the following clauses:

```
happy :- has_friends.
```

```
friendly :- happy.
```



Direct proof: friendly:-happy happy:-has_friends

friendly:-has_friends

:-friendly friendly:-happy
 :-happy happy:-has_friends
 :-has_friends has_friends
 []

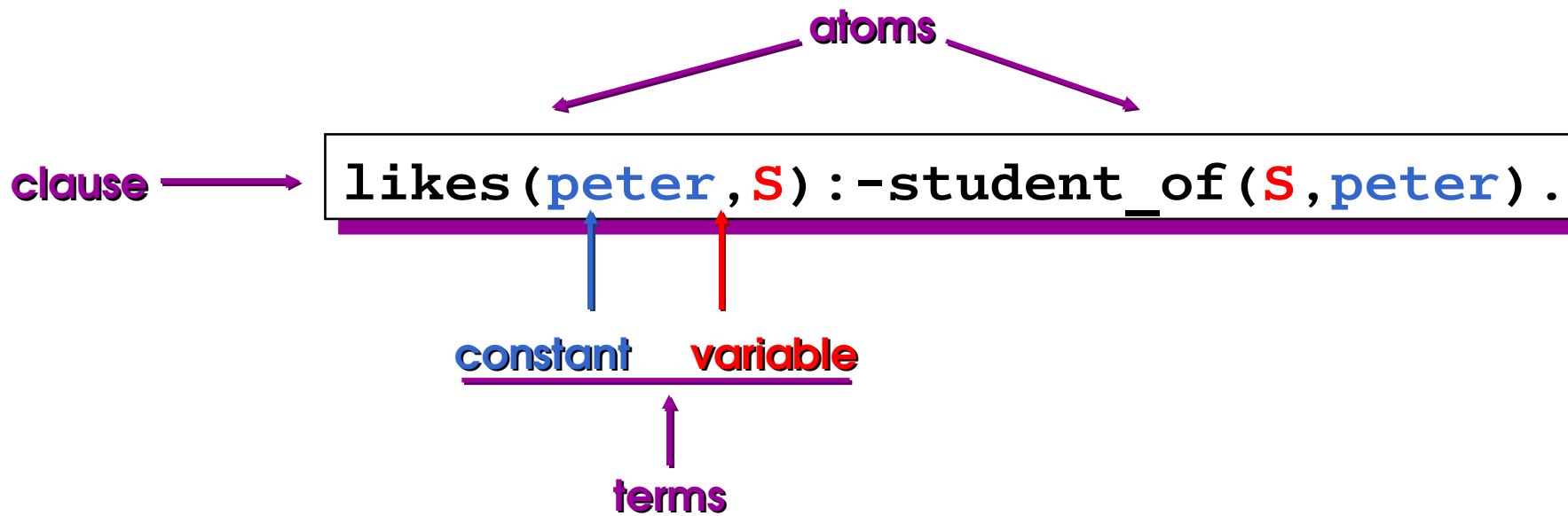
Proof by refutation:

$\neg(\text{friendly}:-\text{has_friends}) \Rightarrow$
 $\neg(\text{friendly} \vee \neg \text{has_friends}) \Rightarrow$
 $(\neg \text{friendly}) \wedge (\text{has_friends}) \Rightarrow$
 :-friendly and has_friends

Relational Clausal Logic

- Atoms consist of predicate symbol and *arguments*
- Number of arguments: *arity*
- *Ground atoms* are atoms without variables
- Variables are
 - *logical variables*
 - *scope*: within the same clause
- „Grounding“ substitutions are applied to clauses, not to programs.
- Renaming such that names different:
standardizing clauses apart

“Peter likes anybody who is his student.”



- A *substitution* maps variables to terms:
 - `{S->maria}`
- A substitution can be *applied* to a clause:
 - `likes(peter,maria):-student_of(maria,peter).`
- The resulting clause is said to be an *instance* of the original clause, and a *ground instance* if it does not contain variables.
- Each instance of a clause is among its logical consequences.

- **Herbrand universe**: set of ground terms (i.e. constants)
 - {peter,maria}
- **Herbrand base**: set of ground atoms
 - {likes(peter,peter),likes(peter,maria),likes(maria,peter),likes(maria,maria),student_of(peter,peter),student_of(peter,maria),student_of(maria,peter),student_of(maria,maria)}
- **Herbrand interpretation**: set of **true** ground atoms
 - {likes(peter,maria),student_of(maria,peter)}
- An interpretation is a **model** for a clause if it makes all of its ground instances **true**
 - likes(peter,maria):-student_of(maria,peter).
 - likes(peter,peter):-student_of(peter,peter).

```

:-likes(peter,N)           likes(peter,S):-student_of(S,peter)
                           {S->N}
:-student_of(N,peter)      student_of(S,T):-follows(S,C),teaches(T,C)
                           {S->N,T->peter}
:-follows(N,C),teaches(peter,C) follows(maria,ai_techniques)
                           {N->maria,C->ai_techniques}
:-teaches(peter,ai_techniques) teaches(peter,ai_techniques)
[]

```

- Resolution as in propositional clausal logic, but *variables* have to be taken into account.
- Usually, clauses are not exactly the same during resolution. Thus, they are made equal by substitutions.
- Substitutions needed in a resolution proof are derived directly from the clauses involved.
- *Unification/Unifiers* (need not be grounding)
- One *unifier* can be more general than another (partial order).
- Used in resolution proof: *most general unifier (mgu)*
- If contradiction (empty clause): clauses are inconsistent under the substitutions that were used for the unification of the literals.

- *sound*
- *refutation complete*
- Herbrand universe finite, thus decidable

Full Clausal Logic

“Everybody loves somebody.”

`loves (X, person_loved_by (X)) .`

`functor` `term`

`complex term`

```
loves (peter, person_loved_by (peter)) .
loves (anna, person_loved_by (anna)) .
loves (paul, person_loved_by (paul)) .
...
```

Translate into *Clausal Logic*:

- (a) Every mouse has a tail.
- (b) Somebody loves everybody.
- (c) Every two numbers have a maximum.

- Every mouse has a tail
 - `tail_of(tail(X),X):-mouse(X).`
- Somebody loves everybody
 - `loves(person_who_loves_everybody,X).`
- Every two numbers have a maximum
 - `maximum_of(X,Y,max(X,Y)):-number(X),number(Y).`

- **Herbrand universe**: set of ground terms
 - $\{0, s(0), s(s(0)), s(s(s(0))), \dots\}$
- **Herbrand base**: set of ground atoms
 - $\{\text{plus}(0,0,0), \text{plus}(s(0),0,0), \dots,$
 $\text{plus}(0,s(0),0), \text{plus}(s(0),s(0),0), \dots,$
 $\dots,$
 $\text{plus}(s(0),s(s(0)),s(s(s(0)))) , \dots\}$
- **Herbrand interpretation**: set of **true** ground atoms
 - $\{\text{plus}(0,0,0), \text{plus}(s(0),0,s(0)), \text{plus}(0,s(0),s(0))\}$
- Some programs have only infinite models
 - $\text{plus}(0,X,X).$
 - $\text{plus}(s(X),Y,s(Z)) :- \text{plus}(X,Y,Z).$

- Unification now has to take into account subterms.
- Before unification the atoms do not have common variables.

- `plus(s(0), X, s(X))`
`plus(s(Y), s(0), s(s(Y)))`

mgu (most general unifier) is

`{Y -> 0, X -> s(0)}`

Unifikation

Ein *Unifikator* zweier Terme ist eine Substitution, die beide Terme identisch macht.

Zwei Terme heißen *unifizierbar*, wenn es einen solchen Unifikator gibt.

Der *allgemeinste Unifikator* (MGU: most general unifier) zweier Terme ist ein Unifikator, dessen zugeordnete gemeinsame Instanz die allgemeinste ist. Sind zwei Terme unifizierbar, dann gibt es - bis auf das Umbenennen von Variablen - einen eindeutigen allgemeinsten Unifikator. Analog hierzu haben zwei Terme eine bis auf alphabetische Varianten eindeutige allgemeinste Instanz.

Ein Unifikationsalgorithmus berechnet den allgemeinsten Unifikator zweier Terme, wenn dieser existiert; ansonsten wird *fail* zurückgegeben.

Unifikation (2)

Eingabe: Zwei zu unifizierende Terme T_1 und T_2

Ausgabe: σ , der MGU von T_1 und T_2 , oder *fail*

Algorithmus:

Initialisiere die Substitution σ zu leer, den Keller mit der Gleichung $T_1 = T_2$, und *OK* mit *true*.

solange der Keller nicht leer ist:

hole $X = Y$ vom Keller

falls

X eine Variable ist, die nicht in Y vorkommt:

ersetze X im Keller und in σ durch Y

füge $X = Y$ zu σ hinzu

Y eine Variable ist, die nicht in X vorkommt:

ersetze Y im Keller und in σ durch X

füge $Y = X$ zu σ hinzu

X und Y identische Konstanten oder Variablen sind:

fahre fort

X gleich $f(X_1, \dots, X_n)$ und Y gleich $f(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$ für einen Funktor f und $n > 0$ ist:

schreibe $X_i = Y_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ auf den Keller

ansonsten:

$OK = \text{fail}$

wenn $OK = \text{fail}$, dann gebe *fail* aus, ansonsten gebe σ aus.

Unifikation (3)

Wurde der Keller vollständig abgearbeitet, so sind die Terme T_1 und T_2 unifizierbar, σ enthält den allgemeinsten Unifikator (MGU).

Der Occur-Check wird durch den Ausdruck “kommt nicht vor in ...” realisiert. Er ist notwendig, um die Unifikation von Termen wie $s(X)$ und X zu verhindern, zu denen es keine gemeinsame endliche Instanz gibt.

Die meisten PROLOG-Implementationen lassen den Occur-Check aus dem Unifikationsalgorithmus weg!

- In the process of unification it may happen that a variable occurs in both atoms.
Before substituting a variable by a term, we have to check whether the variable already occurs in the term.

- *occurs check*

- Example:

```
loves (X, person_loved_by (X) ) .  
loves (Y, Y) .
```

Unify, if possible, the following pairs of terms:

(a) `plus(X, Y, s(Y))` and
`plus(s(V), W, s(s(V)))`

(b) `length([X|Y], s(0))` and
`length([V], V)`

(c) `larger(s(s(X)), X)` and
`larger(V, s(V))`

```
plus(X, Y, s(Y))  
and  
plus(s(V), W, s(s(V)))  
unify to  
plus(s(V), s(V), s(s(V)))
```

```
length([X|Y], s(0))  
and  
length([V], V)  
unify to  
length([s(0)], s(0))
```

```
larger(s(s(X)), X)  
and  
larger(V, s(V))  
do not unify (occur check!)
```

- *sound*
- *refutation-complete*
- *semi-decidable*:
if A follows from B , then there exists an algorithm that can prove this in finite time.
if A does *not* follow from B , then there exists no algorithm that can prove this in finite time for arbitrary A and B .

Propositional — Relational —

Full clausal logic

| | | | |
|--------------------------|--|--|---|
| Herbrand universe | — | {a, b} (finite) | {a, f(a), f(f(a)), ...} (infinite) |
| Herbrand base | {p, q} | {p(a, a), p(b, a), ...} (finite) | {p(a, f(a)), p(f(a), ...} (infinite) |
| clause | $p : \neg q.$ | $p(X, Z) : \neg q(X, Y), p(Y, Z).$ | $p(X, f(X)) : \neg q(X).$ |
| Herbrand models | $\emptyset \emptyset \emptyset$ {p} {p, q} | {p(a, a)} {p(a, a), p(b, a), q(b, a)} ... (finite number of finite models) | {p(a, f(a)), q(a)} {p(f(a), f(f(a))), q(f(a))} ... (infinite number of finite or infinite models) |
| Meta-theory | sound refutation-complete decidable | sound refutation-complete decidable | sound (if unifying with occur check) refutation-complete semi-decidable |