

# Neuro-Symbolic Artificial Intelligence

## Chapter 3

### Propositional Logic

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# Outline

- 1 Logic
- 2 The language of logic
- 3 Automated theorem proving
  - Problem statement
  - Rewriting
  - In Prolog
- 4 Axiomatics

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# What is logic good for?



- Represent logic and knowledge
- Represent argumentation
- Mechanize reasoning

# What is logic good for?

- Computer science
- Automated theorem proving
- Proofs of programs
- AI and reasoning
  - Argumentation
  - High-level NLP
- Electronics
- Database management
- Knowledge representation & semantic Web
- Cognitive science
  - Human cognition
  - Proof – automated proof
- Contradiction
  - Anomaly detection
  - Explanation (XAI)
- Relevance
  - No continuity
  - Reason vs guess
- Basic in many curriculums

# History

⚠ Logic, reasoning and argumentation are universal human abilities. In this lecture, *logic* is a formal system, which can be used to *model* human reasoning and argumentation.

- Ancient greeks
  - Stoics
  - Aristotle: syllogism and argumentation
- Medieval logic
  - William of Ockham (1288-1348)
  - de Morgan's laws
  - Ternary logic
- Traditional logic
  - Port Royal's logic
  - Antoine Arnauld & Pierre Nicole (1662)
  - Logic of propositions
- Modern Logic
  - Descartes, Leibniz
  - George Boole (1848)
  - Gottlob Frege: *Begriffsschrift* (1879), quantification
  - Charles Peirce
  - Giuseppe Peano: logical axiomatization of arithmetics
  - Bertrand Russell & Alfred N. Whitehead (1925): logical axiomatization of mathematics

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# Symbols

Logic is about *syntax* and *semantics*

*Syntax*: how to *manipulate* symbols

*Semantics*: what *meaning* the symbols have

The use of these words is specific to logic!



# Syntax

- Alphabet
  - *Propositional symbols*:  $p$  in  $a \vee p$
  - *Constants*:  $\top$  and  $\perp$
  - *Connectors*:  $\neg$  (1-place),  $\wedge$  (2-place),  $\vee$  (2-place)...
- Atomic formula: constants and connectors
- Propositional formula
  - Atomic formula
  - If  $F$  is a formula, then  $(\neg F)$  is a formula
  - If  $\bullet$  is a connector, and  $A$  and  $B$  are formulas, then  $(A \bullet B)$  is a formula

The sets of atomic formulas and propositional formulas are the smallest sets having these properties.

⚠ None of those things above may be said to be "true" or "false". That pertains to the semantics.

# Truth tables

A	B	A and B	A or B	A implies B
T	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	T	F
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Each of these lines is a *valuation* of the logical propositions. It's a mapping of the symbols to "true" or "false".

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What about 3-place connectors?

# Valuation

This is where *semantics* come into play. A *valuation* assigns "true" or "false" to propositional symbols and to propositional formulas.

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$$v(\top) = \text{True}$$

$$v(\perp) = \text{False}$$

$$v(\neg F) = \text{Not } v(F)$$

$$v((A \bullet B)) = v(A) \blacksquare v(B)$$

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Syntactic connective •	Semantic connective ■
$\neg$	Not
$\wedge$	And
$\vee$	Or
$\supset$	$\Rightarrow$
$\subset$	$\Leftarrow$
$\equiv$	$\Leftrightarrow$
$\uparrow$	Nand
$\downarrow$	Nor
$\not\supset$	$\not\Rightarrow$
$\not\subset$	$\not\Leftrightarrow$



# Tautologies and satisfiability

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A set  $S$  of propositional formulas is *satisfiable* if some valuation  $v_0$  maps every member of  $S$  to True:  $\forall X \in S, v_0(X) = \text{True}$

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$X$  is a tautology iff  $(\neg X)$  is not satisfiable.

Why do we need this? We will see later that proving a theorem is equivalent to proving a tautology. (Specifically, proving  $S \vdash X$  is like proving that  $(\neg(S \cup \{\neg X\}))$  is a tautology.)

# Tautologies

- Show that  $X$  is a tautology iff  $X \equiv \text{T}$  is a tautology
- Show that  $X$  is a tautology iff  $\text{T} \supset X$  is a tautology
- Show that  $(\neg(X \wedge Y)) \equiv (\neg X \vee \neg Y)$  is a tautology
- Show that  $(\neg(X \vee Y)) \equiv (\neg X \wedge \neg Y)$  is a tautology
- Show that  $(P \wedge (Q \vee R)) \equiv ((P \wedge Q) \vee (P \wedge R))$  is a tautology
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- This is cumbersome because we need to build truth tables. In a minute we'll see how to do it without tables.

## $X$ is a tautology iff $T \supset X$ is a tautology

Let's show that  $X$  is a tautology iff  $T \supset X$  is a tautology.

First, notice that, for any valuation  $v$ :

$$v(T \supset X) = v(T) \Rightarrow v(X) = \text{True} \Rightarrow v(X)$$

Using a truth table, you can show that  $\text{True} \Rightarrow v(X)$  is equal to  $v(X)$ .

So for any valuation  $v$ :  $v(T \supset X) = v(x)$ .

Now let's show that if  $X$  is a tautology then  $T \supset X$  is a tautology:

Let  $v$  be a valuation. Then  $v(T \supset X) = v(X) = \text{True}$ , the last equality being a consequence of  $X$  being a tautology.

Now let's show that if  $X$  is not a tautology then  $T \supset X$  is not a tautology:

$X$  is not a tautology so there exists a valuation  $u$  such that  $u(X) = \text{False}$ .

Consequently  $u(T \supset X) = u(X) = \text{False}$  so  $T \supset X$  is not a tautology.

# Logical consequence

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This is closer to our use of logic: we're only interested in the conclusions  $X$  that we can derive from assumptions  $S$  that we know to be true.

# Logical consequence

- Show that if  $S \models X$  then  $S \cup \{\neg X\}$  is not satisfiable. *lab session*
- Show the reciprocal.
- *Ex falso quodlibet sequitur*: Let  $S$  be a set of formulas, and  $A$  a formula such that  $A \in S$  and  $(\neg A) \in S$ . Show that  $\forall X, S \models X$
- Conversely, if  $\forall X, S \models X$ , show that  $S$  is not satisfiable.
- *Monotony*: show that  $S \models X$  implies  $S \cup \{A\} \models X$  *lab session*
- *Deduction*: show that  $S \cup \{X\} \models Y$  iff  $S \models (X \supset Y)$  *lab session*

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# Problem

The goal of automated theorem proving is to show things like  $S \models X$  where  $X$  is a theorem and  $S$  are a set of assumptions.

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Problem: we'll need to build gigantic truth tables to check all possible valuations.

Solution: valuations map syntax to semantics. Instead, stay in the space of syntax. This means modifying the syntax of the formula without modifying its semantics, until computing the valuation becomes trivial.



# Replacement procedure

Define a procedure  $P$  such that if  $(X \equiv Y)$  is a tautology, then  $P(X) \equiv P(Y)$  is a tautology.

This is a syntactic rewriting that preserves the property of being a tautology.

# Normal form for negation

- A formula is in normal form for negation if the negation symbol  $\neg$  only occurs in front of symbols
  - $(\neg X \vee Y)$  is in normal form for negation
  - $(\neg(X \wedge Y))$  is not
- Use the following tautologies to rewrite negations:
  - $(\neg(\neg X)) \equiv X$
  - $(\neg(X \vee Y)) \equiv ((\neg X) \wedge (\neg Y))$
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$[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]$  is the *generalized disjunction* of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$

For any valuation  $v$ ,  $v([X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]) = \text{False}$  iff  $\forall i \in [1, n], v(X_i) = \text{False}$

$v([\ ])$  = False

" $X_1$  or  $X_2$  or ... or  $X_n$ "

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$v([\ ]) = \text{False}$  "  $X_1$  or  $X_2$  or ... or  $X_n$  "

$\langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \rangle$  is the *generalized conjunction* of  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$

For any valuation  $v$ ,  $v(\langle X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \rangle) = \text{True}$  iff  $\forall i \in [1, n], v(X_i) = \text{True}$

$v(\langle \rangle) = \text{True}$  "  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  and ... and  $X_n$  "

## Conjunctive normal form

Let  $F$  be a propositional formula. Its *conjunctive normal form* is a rewriting of  $F$  as

$$\langle C_1, C_2, \dots, C_i, \dots, C_n \rangle$$

where each  $C_i$  is of the form  $[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n_i}]$ .  $C_i$  is a *clause*.

The *disjunctive normal form* is the same thing *mutandem mutandis*.

# Conjunctive normal form

How do we get the conjunctive normal form? Use the following tautologies:

- $\wedge$

- $\neg(X \wedge Y) \equiv \neg X \vee \neg Y$

- $\supset$

- $X \supset Y \equiv \neg X \vee Y$

- $\neg X \supset Y \equiv X \wedge \neg Y$

- $\subset$

- $X \subset Y \equiv X \vee \neg Y$

- $\neg X \subset Y \equiv \neg X \wedge Y$

- $\uparrow$

- $X \uparrow Y \equiv \neg X \vee \neg Y$

- $\neg X \uparrow Y \equiv X \wedge Y$

- $\vee$

- $\neg(X \vee Y) \equiv \neg X \wedge \neg Y$

- $\downarrow$

- $X \downarrow Y \equiv \neg X \wedge \neg Y$

- $\neg X \downarrow Y \equiv X \vee Y$

- $\not\subset$

- $X \not\subset Y \equiv X \wedge \neg Y$

- $\neg X \not\subset Y \equiv \neg X \vee Y$

- $\not\supset$

- $X \not\supset Y \equiv \neg X \wedge Y$

- $\neg X \not\supset Y \equiv X \vee \neg Y$

## Rewriting algorithm

Rewriting a disjunction:

Replace  $\langle \dots[\dots P \dots] \dots \rangle$  with  $\langle \dots[\dots A, B \dots] \dots \rangle$

Rewriting a conjunction:

Replace  $\langle \dots[\dots P \dots] \dots \rangle$  with  $\langle \dots[\dots A \dots], [\dots B \dots] \dots \rangle$

Rewriting a negation:

Replace  $\langle \dots[\dots \neg(\neg P) \dots] \dots \rangle$  with  $\langle \dots[\dots P \dots] \dots \rangle$



## Exercise

Conjunctive normal form of  $((A \supset B) \supset (A \supset C))$

(knowing that  $(X \supset Y) \equiv (\neg X \vee Y)$  and  $(\neg(X \supset Y)) \equiv (X \wedge \neg Y)$ )

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- $\langle [A, \neg A, C], [\neg B, (A \supset C)] \rangle$
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Note that the first clause will always evaluate to True. So we can rewrite the original formula as  $\langle [\neg B, \neg A, C] \rangle$  without changing its truth value. That's a purely *syntactic* rewriting.

# Proof by resolution

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- *Growth* of the sequence:
  - if a clause reads as  $[...(\beta_1 \vee \beta_2)...]$ , insert a new line:  $[...\beta_1, \beta_2...]$
  - if a clause reads as  $[...(\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2)...]$ , insert two new lines:  $[...\alpha_1...]$  and  $[...\alpha_2...]$
  - when adding new lines, replace  $\neg\neg X$  by  $X$ ,  $\neg T$  by  $\perp$  and  $\neg \perp$  by  $T$

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  - when adding new lines, replace  $\neg\neg X$  by  $X$ ,  $\neg\top$  by  $\perp$  and  $\neg\perp$  by  $\top$
- *Resolution*: from lines  $[A, X, B]$  and  $[C, \neg X, D]$  create the line  $[A, B, C, D]$ , i.e. concatenate the lines leaving aside all occurrences of  $X$  and of  $\neg X$

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- A *sequence* is a conjunction of *lines*
- Each *line* is a generalized disjunction (a clause)
- *Growth* of the sequence:
  - if a clause reads as  $[...(\beta_1 \vee \beta_2)...]$ , insert a new line:  $[...\beta_1, \beta_2...]$
  - if a clause reads as  $[...(\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2)...]$ , insert two new lines:  $[...\alpha_1...]$  and  $[...\alpha_2...]$
  - when adding new lines, replace  $\neg\neg X$  by  $X$ ,  $\neg\top$  by  $\perp$  and  $\neg\perp$  by  $\top$
- *Resolution*: from lines  $[A, X, B]$  and  $[C, \neg X, D]$  create the line  $[A, B, C, D]$ , i.e. concatenate the lines leaving aside all occurrences of  $X$  and of  $\neg X$
- a proof of  $X$  by resolution is a sequence starting with the  $[\neg X]$  line (goal) and ending with an empty clause  $[\ ]$ .
- $X$  is a tautology if and only if  $X$  has a proof by resolution.



## Example

Prove  $((A \supset B) \wedge (B \supset C)) \supset \neg(\neg C \wedge A)$

(knowing that  $(X \supset Y) \equiv (\neg X \vee Y)$  and  $(\neg(X \supset Y)) \equiv (X \wedge \neg Y)$ )

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$$[((A \supset B) \wedge (B \supset C))]$$

$$[\neg C \wedge A]$$

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$$[(A \supset B)]$$

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$$[\neg C \wedge A]$$


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$$[(A \supset B)]$$

$$[(B \supset C)]$$

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$$[\neg A, B]$$

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$[((A \supset B) \wedge (B \supset C))]$	$[\neg B, C]$
$[\neg C \wedge A]$	$[\neg C \wedge A]$

$[(A \supset B)]$
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$[\neg A, B]$
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$$[\neg A, B]$$


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$$[((A \supset B) \wedge (B \supset C))]$$

$$[\neg B, C]$$

$$[\neg C \wedge A]$$

$$[\neg C \wedge A]$$


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$$[(A \supset B)]$$


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$$[\neg A, B]$$

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$$[\neg C \wedge A]$$

$$[\neg C \wedge A]$$


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$\frac{[\neg((A \supset B) \wedge (B \supset C)) \supset \neg(\neg C \wedge A)]}{\frac{[((A \supset B) \wedge (B \supset C))]}{[\neg C \wedge A]}}$	<table style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 33%; padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg A, B]</math></td> <td style="width: 33%; padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg C]</math></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg B, C]</math></td> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[C]</math></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg C \wedge A]</math></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2" style="border-top: 1px solid black; padding: 5px 0 5px 20px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg A, B]</math></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg B, C]</math></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg C]</math></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[A]</math></td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="2" style="border-top: 1px solid black; padding: 5px 0 5px 20px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg A, B]</math></td> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg B, C]</math></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[(B \supset C)]</math></td> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg C]</math></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[\neg C \wedge A]</math></td> <td style="padding: 5px;"><math>[B]</math></td> </tr> </table>	$[\neg A, B]$	$[\neg C]$	$[\neg B, C]$	$[C]$	$[\neg C \wedge A]$				$[\neg A, B]$		$[\neg B, C]$		$[\neg C]$		$[A]$				$[\neg A, B]$	$[\neg B, C]$	$[(B \supset C)]$	$[\neg C]$	$[\neg C \wedge A]$	$[B]$
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$$[\neg B, C]$$

$$[\neg C]$$

$$[B]$$

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$$[C]$$


---


$$[]$$

Done. We  
didn't need a  
truth table!

## Example in Prolog

$A \text{ :- } B$  turns into  $[A, \neg B]$

$[\text{parent}(\text{marge}, \text{marge})]$

$\text{parent}(\text{marge}, \text{bart}) .$

$[\text{parent}(\text{clancy}, \text{marge})]$

$\text{parent}(\text{clancy}, \text{marge}) .$

$[\text{grandparent}(X,Y), \neg \text{parent}(X,Z), \neg \text{parent}(Z,Y)]$

$\text{grandparent}(X,Y) \text{ :-}$

$[\neg \text{grandparent}(\text{clancy}, \text{bart})]$

$\text{parent}(X,Z) ,$

$\text{parent}(Z,Y) .$

$?- \text{grandparent}(\text{clancy}, \text{bart})$

# Outline

- 1 Logic
- 2 The language of logic
- 3 Automated theorem proving
  - Problem statement
  - Rewriting
  - In Prolog
- 4 Axiomatics

$\vdash$  vs  $\models$ 

*Logical consequence:*  $S \models X$

If a valuation assigns True to all elements in  $S$ , then it will assign True to  $X$ .

$\models$  is a *semantic deduction*, typically involving truth tables.

$\vdash$  is a *syntactic deduction*, typically involving proof by resolution.

# Theorem proving

- An axiomatic system is a proof system. For example the Hilbert system:
  - $(X \supset (Y \supset X))$
  - $(X \supset (Y \supset Z)) \supset ((X \supset Y) \supset (X \supset Z))$
  - $(\perp \supset X)$
  - $(X \supset \top)$
  - $(\neg \neg X \supset X)$
  - $(X \supset (\neg X \supset Y))$
  - $((A \wedge B) \supset A)$
  - $((A \wedge B) \supset B)$
  - $((A \supset X) \supset ((B \supset X) \supset ((A \vee B) \supset X)))$
  - inference rule (modus ponens) :  $\frac{X \quad (X \supset Y)}{Y}$
- This can be used to produce new theorems, through *forward chaining*
- In contrast, proof by resolution is *backward chaining*

# Soundness

Axiomatic systems define  $\vdash$  and  $\models$ . An axiomatic system is *sound* if:

Let  $F$  be a propositional formula and  $S$  a set of propositional formulas.

If there is a sequence that derives from  $S \cup \{\neg F\}$  and that contains the empty clause, then  $S \models F$ .

In other words if  $S \vdash F$  then  $S \models F$ .



# Completeness

Axiomatic systems define  $\vdash$  and  $\models$ . An axiomatic system is *complete* if:

Let  $F$  be a propositional formula and  $S$  a set of propositional formulas.

If  $S \models F$ , then there is a sequence that derives from  $S \cup \{\neg F\}$  and that contains the empty clause.

Completeness is the converse of soundness: if  $S \models F$  then  $S \vdash F$ .

# Gödel's PhD thesis

*Resolution is sound and complete for first-order logic*