Logic Intro

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Historical Perspective I

• Logic was one of the classical foundations of AI
• Dream: A Knowledge-Based agent
  – Tell the agent facts
  – Agent uses rules of inference to deduce consequences
  – Example: prolog
• Distinction between data and program
• Embodied in field of “Expert Systems”
Example: Minesweeper

• How do you play minesweeper?
• How would you program a machine to do it?
  – Hacking
  – Search/CSPs
  – Logic
• Logic approach
  – Tell the system of rules of minesweeper
  – System uses logic to make the best moves

What is logic, really?

• Syntax: Rules for constructing valid sentences

• Semantics: Relate syntax to the real world
Entailment

• Aim: Rule for generating (or testing) new sentences that are necessarily true

• The truth of sentence may depend upon the interpretation of the sentence

Interpretations

• An interpretation is a way of matching up objects in the universe with symbols in a sentence (or database).
• A sentence may be true in one interpretation, but false in another
• A necessarily true sentence is true in all interpretations = entailed by premises in our KB
Examples

- Premises (facts in our database or KB):
  - (X or Y)
  - Not X
  - Conclude: *Y is necessarily true*

- Premises
  - If P then Q
  - Q
  - Conclude: *P is not necessarily true* (though might be true in some interpretations)

Soundness & Completeness

- A (set of) rule(s) of inference is sound if it generates only sentences that are entailed by the knowledge base, i.e., only necessary truths

- A (set of) rule(s) of inference is complete if it can generate all necessary truths

- Can we have one w/o the other?
Historical Perspective II

• Things that are not true necessarily but still true are sometimes said to be “contingent,” “accidental,” or “synthetic,” truths.

• A deep understanding of this distinction evolved through thousands of years of philosophy and mathematics

• Arguably one of the most important intellectual accomplishments of mankind
  – Basis of mathematic proofs
  – Provides a rigorous procedure for verifying statements
  – **Foundation of rigorous thinking** – allows us to distinguish sound from unsound reasoning

Fun Exercise

• See dictionary of fallacies or one of many similar websites

• Count how often you see these from politicians, e.g.,
  – No true Scotsman
  – Tu Quoque

• Make it a drinking game? (Don’t blame me if you get blitzed!)
Propositional Logic

- Propositional logic is the simplest logic
- All sentences are composed of
  - Atoms
  - Negation
  - Disjunction, conjunction (or, and)
  - Conditional, biconditionals
- Atoms can map to any proposition about the universe (depending upon the interpretation)

Checking Validity

- Classic method for checking validity: truth table
- Enumerate all possible values (t/f) of atomic elements of a sentence

\[
(P \lor H) \\
\neg H \\
\hline
P
\]

- Enumerate all 4 (or more) combinations
Inference Rules

• Inference rules are (typically) sound methods of generating new sentences given a set of previous sentences

• Inference rules save us the trouble of generating truth tables all of the time

Inference Rules I

• Modus Ponens

\[
\frac{\alpha \Rightarrow \beta, \alpha}{\beta}
\]

• And-Elimination

\[
\frac{\alpha_1 \land \alpha_2 \land \ldots \land \alpha_n}{\alpha_i}
\]
Inference Rules II

- And-Introduction

\[
\frac{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n}{\alpha_1 \land \alpha_2 \land \ldots \land \alpha_n}
\]

- Or-Introduction

\[
\frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_1 \lor \alpha_2 \lor \ldots \lor \alpha_n}
\]

Inference Rules III

- Double Negation Elimination

\[
\frac{\neg \neg \alpha}{\alpha}
\]

- Unit Resolution

\[
\frac{\alpha \lor \beta, \neg \beta}{\alpha}
\]
Resolution

\[
\alpha \lor \beta, \neg \beta \lor \gamma \\
\hline 
\alpha \lor \gamma
\]

Resolution is perhaps the most important inference rule!

Why? Resolution is both sound and complete!

Complexity of Inference

• What is the complexity of exhaustively verifying the validity of a sentence with \( n \) literals (variables)?

\[ 2^n \]

• Special Case: Horn Logic
  - Horn clauses are disjunctions with at most one positive literal
  - Equivalent to \( P_1 \land P_2 \land \ldots \land P_n \Rightarrow Q \)
Remember De Morgan’s Law?

- $\text{not}(P \text{ and } Q) = (\text{not } P) \text{ or } (\text{not } Q)$

- $\text{not}(P \text{ or } Q) = (\text{not } P) \text{ and } (\text{not } Q)$

Implications and Horn Clauses

- If $P$ then $Q$
  - Same as: $(\text{not } (P \text{ and } (\text{not } Q))$
  - Same as: $(\text{not } P) \text{ or } Q$
  - ...and this is horn!

- If $(P_1 \text{ and } P_2 \text{ and } \ldots \text{ Pn})$ then $Q$
  - Same as: $(\text{not } ((P_1 \text{ and } P_2 \text{ and } \ldots \text{ Pn}) \text{ and } (\text{not } Q))$
  - Same as: $\text{not } (P_1 \text{ and } P_2 \text{ and } \ldots \text{ Pn}) \text{ or } Q$
  - Same as: $(\text{not } P_1) \text{ or } (\text{not } P_2) \text{ or } \ldots (\text{not } Pn) \text{ or } Q$
  - ...and this is horn!
Horn Clause Inference

• Horn clause inference is polynomial – Why?
  – Every sentence establishes exactly one new fact
  – Can add every possible new fact implied by our KB in n passes over our database

• What types of things are easy to represent with horn clauses?
  – Diagnostic rules
  – “Expert Systems”

Shortcomings of Horn Clauses

• Suppose you want to say, “If you have a runny nose and fever, then you have a cold or the flu.”
• If (runny_nose and fever) then (cold or flu)
• But this isn’t a horn clause:
  (not runny_nose) or (not fever) or (cold) or (flu)
• Does adding two separate horn clauses work?
  – (not runny_nose) or (not fever) or (cold)
  – (not runny_nose) or (not fever) or (flu)
Propositional Logic Conclusion

- Logic gives formal rules for reasoning
- Necessarily true = true in all interpretations
- Contrast with CSPs: Satisfiable = true in some, but not necessarily all interpretations
- Sound inference rules generate only necessary truths
- Resolution is a sound and complete inference rule
- Inference with a horn KB is poly time

Limitations of Propositional Logic

- Suppose you want to say: All humans are mortal
- For ~7B people, you would need ~7B propositions
- Suppose you want to say that (at least) one person has perfect pitch
- You would need a disjunction of ~7B propositions
- There has to be a better way...
First Order Logic

- Propositional logic is very restrictive
  - Can’t make global statements about objects in the world
  - Workarounds tend to have very large KBs
- First order logic is more expressive
  - Relations, quantification, functions
  - but... inference is trickier

Relations

- Assert relationships between objects
- Examples
  - Siblings(Luke, Leia)
  - Between(Canada, US, Mexico)
- Semantics
  - Object and predicate names are mnemonic only
  - Interpretation is imposed from outside
  - Often we imply the “expected” interpretation of predicates and objects with suggestive names
Functions

- Functions are special cases of relations
- Suppose $R(x_1,x_2,...,x_n,y)$ is such that for every value of $x_1,x_2,...,x_n$ there is a unique $y$
- Then $R(x_1,x_2,...,x_n)$ can be used as a shorthand for $y$
  - $\text{Crossed}($Right\_leg\_of(Ron),\ Left\_leg\_of(Ron))$
- Remember that the object identified by a function depends upon the interpretation

Quantification

- For all objects in the world...
  $$\forall x \text{happy}(x)$$
- For at least one object in the world...
  $$\exists x \text{happy}(x)$$
Examples

• Everybody loves somebody
  \( \forall x \exists y \text{Loves}(x,y) \)

• Everybody loves everybody
  \( \forall x \forall y \text{Loves}(x,y) \)

• Everybody loves Raymond
  \( \forall x \text{Loves}(x,\text{Raymond}) \)

• Raymond loves everybody
  \( \forall x \text{Loves}(\text{Raymond},x) \)

Equality

• Equality states that two objects are the same
  – \( \text{Son\_of}(\text{Barbara}) = \text{Ron} \)

• Equality is a special relation that holds whenever two objects are the same

• We can imagine that every interpretation comes with its own identity relation
  – \( \text{Identical}(\text{object27}, \text{object58}) \)
Inference

• All rules of inference for propositional logic apply to first order logic
• We need extra rules to handle substitution for quantified variables

\[ \text{SUBST} \left( \{x / \text{Harry}, y / \text{Sally}\}, \text{Loves}(x,y) \right) = \text{Loves}(\text{Harry}, \text{Sally}) \]

Inference Rules

• Universal Elimination

\[ \forall v : \alpha(v) \]
\[ \text{SUBST}(\{v / g\}, \alpha(v)) \]

• How to read this:
  – We have a universally quantified variable \( v \) in \( \alpha \)
  – Can substitute any \( g \) for \( v \) and \( \alpha \) will still be true
Inference Rules

- Existential Elimination

\[ \exists \nu : \alpha(\nu) \]

\[ \text{SUBST}(\{\nu / k\}, \alpha(\nu)) \]

- How to read this:
  - We have a universally quantified variable \( v \) in \( \alpha \)
  - Can substitute any \( k \) for \( v \) and \( \alpha \) will still be true
  - IMPORTANT: \( k \) must be a \textit{previously unused} constant (skolem constant). Why is this OK?

Skolemization within Quantifiers

- Skolemizing w/in universal quantifier is tricky
- Everybody loves somebody

\[ \forall x \exists y : \text{loves}(x, y) \]

- With Skolem constants, becomes:

\[ \forall x : \text{loves}(x, \text{object34752}) \]

- Why is this wrong?
- Need to use \textit{skolem functions}:

\[ \forall x : \text{loves}(x, \text{personlovedby}(x)) \]
Inference Rules

• Existential Introduction

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha(g) \\
\text{SUBST}\left(\{v/g\}, \exists v : \alpha(v)\right)
\end{align*}
\]

• How to read this:
  – We know that the sentence \( \alpha \) is true
  – Can substitute variable \( v \) for any constant \( g \) in \( \alpha \) and
    (w/ existential quantifier) and \( \alpha \) will still be true
  – Why is this OK?

Generalized Modus Ponens Example

• If has_US_birth_certificate(\(X\)) then natural_US_citizen(\(X\))

• has_US_birth_certificate(Obama)

• Conclude SUBST(\{Obama/\(X\)}, natural_US_citizen(\(X\)))

• i.e., natural_US_citizen(Obama)
Generalized Modus Ponens

\[ \text{SUBST}(\theta, p_1') = \text{SUBST}(\theta, p_i) \forall i \]

\[ p_1', p_2', \ldots, p_n', (p_1 \land p_2 \land \ldots \land p_n \Rightarrow q) \rightarrow \text{SUBST}(\theta, q) \]

• How to read this:
  – We have an implication which implies q
  – Any consistent substitution of variables on the LHS must yield a valid conclusion on the RHS

Unification

• Substitution is a non-trivial matter
• We need an algorithm `unify`:
  \[ \text{Unify}(p, q) = \theta : \text{Subst}(\theta, p) = \text{Subst}(\theta, q) \]

• Important: Unification replaces variables:
  \[ \exists x \text{Loves}(\text{John}, x) \]
  \[ \exists x \text{Hates}(\text{John}, x) \]
• Are these the same x?
Unification Example

\( \forall x \text{Knows}(\text{John},x) \Rightarrow \text{Loves}(\text{John},x) \)

\( \text{Knows}(\text{John},\text{Jane}) \)

\( \forall y \text{Knows}(y,\text{Leonid}) \)

\( \forall y \text{Knows}(y,\text{Mother}(y)) \)

\( \forall x \text{Knows}(x,\text{Elizabeth}) \)

Note: All unquantified variables are assumed universal from here on.

Unify(\( \text{Knows}(\text{John},x) , \text{Knows}(\text{John},\text{Jane}) \)) = \{x / \text{Jane}\}

Unify(\( \text{Knows}(\text{John},x) , \text{Knows}(y,\text{Leonid}) \)) = \{x / \text{Leonid}, y / \text{John}\}

Unify(\( \text{Knows}(\text{John},x) , \text{Knows}(y,\text{Mother}(y)) \)) = \{y / \text{John}, x / \text{Mother}(\text{John})\}

Unify(\( \text{Knows}(\text{John},x) , \text{Knows}(x,\text{Elizabeth}) \)) = \{x_1 / \text{Elizabeth}, x_2 / \text{John}\}

Most General Unifier

• Unify(\( \text{Knows}(\text{John},x) , \text{Knows}(y,z) \))
  – \{y/\text{John},x/z\}
  – \{y/\text{John},x/z,w/\text{Freda}\}
  – \{y/\text{John},x/\text{John},z/\text{John}\}

• When in doubt, we should always return the most general unifier (MGU)
  – MGU makes least commitment about binding variables to constants
Proof Procedures

• Suppose we have a knowledge base: KB
• We want to prove q
• Forward Chaining
  – Like search: Keep proving new things and adding them to the KB until we are able to prove q
• Backward Chaining
  – Like backward search in planning
  – Find $p_1 \ldots p_n$ s.t. knowing $p_1 \ldots p_n$ would prove q
  – Recursively try to prove $p_1 \ldots p_n$

Forward Chaining Example

\[ \forall x \text{Knows}(John,x) \Rightarrow \text{Loves}(John,x) \]
\[ \text{Knows}(John,Jane) \]
\[ \forall y \text{Knows}(y,\text{Leonid}) \]
\[ \forall y \text{Knows}(y,\text{Mother}(y)) \]
\[ \forall x \text{Knows}(x,\text{Elizabeth}) \]

• Loves(John, Jane)
• Knows(John, Leonid)
• Loves(John, Leonid)
• Knows(John, Mother(John))
• Loves(John, Mother(John))
• Knows(John, Elizabeth)
• Loves(John, Elizabeth)
A Note About Forward Chaining

- As presented, forward chaining seems undirected
- Can view forward chaining as a search problem
- Can apply heuristics to guide this search
- If you’re trying to prove that Barack Obama is a natural born citizen, should you should start by proving that square127 is also a rectangle???
- Interesting AI history: AM/Eurisko controversy
  - Doug Lenat introduced what was essentially a forward chaining system for coming up with interesting math concepts
  - Claimed to (re)discover interesting concepts using only simple heuristics
  - Methodology sharply criticized due to opacity (see Ritchie and Hanna 1984 and response from Lenat and Brown 1984)

Backward Chaining Example

\( \forall x \text{Knows}(John, x) \Rightarrow \text{Loves}(John, x) \)
\( \text{Knows}(John, Jane) \)
\( \forall y \text{Knows}(y, Leonid) \)
\( \forall y \text{Knows}(y, \text{Mother}(y)) \)
\( \forall x \text{Knows}(x, Elizabeth) \)

- Goal: Loves(John, Jane)?
- Subgoal: Knows(John, Jane)
Completeness

- Problem: Generalized Modus Ponens not complete
- Forward/Backward chaining rely upon generalized MP
- Goal: Sound and complete procedure for first order logic

∀X : P(X) ⇒ Q(X)
∀X : ¬P(X) ⇒ R(X)
∀X : Q(X) ⇒ S(X)
∀X : R(X) ⇒ S(X)
S(a)???

Generalized Resolution

θ = Unify(p_j, ¬q_k)

(p_1 ∨ ... p_j ... ∨ p_m), (q_1 ∨ ... q_k ... ∨ q_n)

SUBST(θ, (p_1 ∨ ... p_{j-1} ∨ p_{j+1} ... ∨ p_m ∨ q_1 ∨ ... q_{k-1} ∨ q_{k+1} ... ∨ q_n))

- If the same term appears in both positive and negative form in two disjunctions, they cancel out when disjunctions are combined
Generalized Resolution Example

• Given:
  – (¬P(X) ∨ Q(X))
  – (P(X) ∨ R(X))
  – (¬ Q(X) ∨ S(X))
  – (¬ R(X) ∨ S(X))

• Can we conclude: S(a)?

Resolution Tree

Deductions in Green
Substitutions in Blue
Resolution Properties

- Proof by refutation (asserting negation and resolving to nil) is sound and complete (NB: We did not do this in the first example)
- Resolution is not complete in a generative sense, only in a testing sense
- This is only part of the job
- To use resolution, we must convert everything to a canonical form, i.e., all sentences must be disjunctions with only implicit universal quantification and existential quantification replaced with skolemization

Same Example Using Refutation

(Not Required in This Case)

\[
\begin{align*}
(P(X) \lor R(X)) & \\
(R(X) \lor Q(X)) & \\
(Q(X) \lor S(X)) & \\
(\neg Q(X) \lor S(X)) & \\
{X/a} & \\
S(a) & \\
S(\neg a) & \\
\{} & \\
\end{align*}
\]

Deductions in Green
Substitutions in Blue
Asserted for contradiction in Red
A Note About Contradictions

- Proof by contradiction is very powerful
- If assuming P produces a contradiction, then P must be false
- Leaving contradictions in your knowledge base is disastrous
- It’s true in sci fi: https://youtu.be/Mw3zzMWOLvk

Contradictions Allow Us To Prove Anything

- Given:
  - happy(x)
  - ¬happy(x)

- Prove: flies(Ron)

- Two paths
  - Or introduction
  - Resolution with refutation
Or Introduction

- happy(X) ⊢ (happy(X) ∨ flies(Ron))

  Or Introduction

- (happy(X) ∨ flies(Ron)), ¬happy(X) ⊢ flies(Ron)

  Resolution

Resolution With Refutation

¬ flies(Ron)  happy(X)  ¬ happy(X)

{ }

Observe that what we’re trying to prove isn’t even used
Canonical Form

- Eliminate Implications
- Move negation inwards
- Standardize (apart) variables
- Move quantifiers Left
- Skolemize
- Drop universal quantifiers
- Distribute AND over OR
- Flatten nested conjunctions and disjunctions

Example

- Everybody loves somebody or attends UNC
- Bill does not love anybody
- Prove that Bill attends UNC
**Convert to FOL**

- $\forall X: (\text{attends}(X, \text{UNC}) \lor \exists Y: \text{loves}(X, Y))$
- $\neg \exists Y: \text{loves}(\text{Bill}, Y)$
- Prove: $\text{attends}(\text{Bill}, \text{UNC})$

**Convert to Canonical Form**

- $\forall X: (\text{attends}(X, \text{UNC}) \lor \exists Y: \text{loves}(X, Y))$
  - $(\text{attends}(X, \text{UNC}) \lor \exists Y: \text{loves}(X, Y))$
  - $(\text{attends}(X, \text{UNC}) \lor \text{loves}(X, \text{loved_by}(X)))$
- $\neg \exists Y: \text{loves}(\text{Bill}, Y)$
  - $\forall Y: \neg \text{loves}(\text{Bill}, Y)$
  - $\neg \text{loves}(\text{Bill}, Y_1)$
Resolution Proof

\neg \text{attends}(\text{Bill}, \text{UNC}) \quad (\text{attends}(X,\text{UNC}) \lor \text{loves}(X,\text{loved}\_\text{by}(X)))

\{X/\text{Bill}\}

\text{loves(\text{Bill},\text{loved}\_\text{by}(\text{Bill}))) \quad \neg \text{loves}(\text{Bill}, Y1)

\{Y1/\text{loved}\_\text{by}(\text{Bill})\}

\{\}

Deductions in \textbf{Green}
Substitutions in \textbf{Blue}
Asserted for contradiction in \textbf{Red}

Computational Properties

- We can enumerate the set of all proofs
- We can check if a proof is valid
- First order logic is complete (Gödel)

- What if no valid proof exists?
- Inference in first order logic is \textit{semi-decidable}
- Compare with halting problem (halting problem is semi-decidable)

- As with propositional logic, horn clauses are an important special case - more about this when we discuss prolog
Gödel’s Incompleteness Result

- Gödel’s incompleteness result is, perhaps, better known
- Incompleteness applies to logical/mathematical systems rich enough to contain numbers and math
  - Need a way of enumerating all valid proofs within the system
  - Need a way of referring to proofs by number
- Construct a Gödel sentence:
  - S: For all i, i is not the number of a proof of the sentence j
  - (Equivalent to saying, there does not exist a proof of sentence j)
  - Suppose sentence S is sentence j
    - If S is false, then we have a contradiction
    - If S is true, then we can’t have a proof of it

Diagonalization

- Incompleteness can be seen as an instance of diagonalization:
  - Define a set
    - (Rationals, TMs that halt, theorems that are provable)
  - Use rules of the system to create an impossible object

- Example: Proof that reals are not enumerable (i.e., not countable and therefore larger than the rationals)
Countability of Rationals

\[ x = \frac{n_0 \times 2^0 + n_1 \times 2^1 + n_2 \times 2^2 \ldots}{d_0 \times 2^0 + d_1 \times 2^1 + d_2 \times 2^2 \ldots} \]

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Uncountability of Reals

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Implications of all this

- Sophomoric interpretation: AI is impossible/implausible because there will always be true things that cannot be discovered by logic

- A bit of reality:
  - Incompleteness talks about a system’s ability to prove things about itself
  - For any given system, it may be possible to prove things by talking about the system in a more expressive language
  - Relationship of the unprovable to intelligence is murky at best: Are the things you can’t justify the things that make you intelligent?
  - Not clear that anything interesting is unprovable in a practical sense (though plenty of interesting things remain unproven)

First Order Logic Conclusions

- First order logic adds relations and quantification to predicate logic
- Inference in first order logic is, essentially, a generalization of inference in predicate logic
  - Resolution is sound and complete
  - Use of resolution requires:
    - Conversion to canonical form
    - Proof by refutation
- In general, inference is first order logic is semi-decidable
- FOL + basic math is no longer complete
Logic in Practice

• Resolution in practice:
  – Convert to canonical form
  – Assert negation of the proof target
  – Resolve until “nil” is obtained

• Problem: In general, we can’t bound the number of steps of resolution needed.
  (In some cases, we can make assumptions about a restricted number of objects in the universe, but then we go from semi-decidable to exponential - still unpleasant.)

Speeding Up Resolution

• There are many heuristics for speeding up resolution – we can view it as a special kind of search

• Can also consider special cases

• AI has a colorful history of special case logics and special case reasoning engines for handling these logics
Prolog

- Prolog is a grand effort to make logic a practical programming method
- Japanese 5th generation computer project, essentially a massive prolog machine research project, burned $400M in the 1980s (target was $1.9B)
- Prolog is a declarative language
  - State the things that are true
  - Ask the system to prove things
  - All computations are essentially proofs
- Prolog makes many restrictions on KB
- My bias: Prolog is a fascinating way to think about logic and programming, but is of waning importance in AI

Prolog Properties I

- KB is sequences of sentences (all implicitly conjoined)
- All sentences must be horn
- Can use constants, variables, or functions
- Queries can include conjunctions or disjunctions
- Cannot assert negations
  - Closed world assumption
  - Everything not implied by the KB is assumed false
Prolog Syntax

- Variables are upper case
- Constants are lower case
- Implication :-
- Universal quantification is implicit
- Sentences are terminated with a .
- Specify RHS first: Mortal(X):-Man(X)
- Conjunction with ,: Mortal(X):-Man(X),Living(X).

Prolog UI

- Load a database using consult
- Consult(user) loads database from the command line ctrl-d to terminal
- Consult(file) loads database from a file.
- Some prologs use [file].
Prolog Bindings

- Use `=` to check if two bindings are same
- Use `\==` to check if they are different
- Hit enter at the end of query to stop search
- Use `;` to get multiple answers

Some Prolog Data Types

- Lists `[Head|Tail]`
  - Head is bound to first element of list
  - Tail is bound to remainder of list

- Numbers
  - Numbers are assigned with “is”
  - Checked with `=`, `=<`, `=>`
Prolog Implementation

• Inferences are done with backward chaining
• Is this complete?
• Conjuncts are tried in left to right order (as entered in the KB)
• Tries implications in order they are entered
• Is prolog sound?
  – Most prologs omit something called an “occurs check”, which can influence soundness
  – Closed world implications?

Weird/Interesting Stuff About Prolog

• Purely declarative (or purely functional) framework for programming leaves little room for “side effects” such as graphics, file output, etc.
• but… Prolog has lots of back doors that let you step outside of the purely declarative framework
• Prolog is Turing Complete
• Prolog programmers must be continually aware of the operation of the theorem proving engine
• You can easily write prolog programs that go into infinite loops, and it will not be obvious why this is happening until you have fully internalized the way the theorem prover works
Prolog Redux

• Despite its coolness and potential power, prolog is not widely used today
  – Horn restrictions are awkward in practice
  – Knowledge representation is hard in general
  – Programming paradigm is alien to many and awkward for things other than logic queries

• Prolog concepts live on in a restricted form in the database query language datalog:
  – Subset of prolog
  – Sound and complete
  – Efficient implementations exist

• Datalog is used primarily for database research, but datalog concepts have influenced mainstream database implementations