# Artificial Intelligence 

## 4. Propositional Logic

Lars Schmidt-Thieme<br>Information Systems and Machine Learning Lab (ISMLL)<br>Institute of Economics and Information Systems<br>\& Institute of Computer Science<br>University of Hildesheim<br>http://www.ismll.uni-hildesheim.de

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In propositional logic, atomic formulas are propositions, i.e., assertions such as

A := "Aristotle is dead."
$B:=$ "Hildesheim is on the Rhine."
$C$ := "Logic is fun."
Atomic formulas are denoted by capital letters $A, B, C$, etc.
Each atomic formula is assigned a truth value: true (1) or false (0). (In fuzzy logic truth values can be degrees between 0 and 1.)
"Propositional logic is not the study of truth, but of the relationship between the truth of one statement and that of another" (Hedman 2004).

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There are several relationships between propositions that can be expressed:

| word | symbol | example |  | terminus technicus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| not | $\neg$ | not $A$ | $\neg A$ | negation |
| and | $\wedge$ | $A$ and $B$ | $A \wedge B$ | conjunction |
| or | $\vee$ | $A$ or $B$ | $A \vee B$ | disjunction |
| implies | $\rightarrow$ | $A$ implies $B$ | $A \rightarrow B$ | implication |
| if and only if | $\leftrightarrow$ | $A$ if and only if $B$ | $A \leftrightarrow B$ | biconditional |

The natural language words may have slightly different meanings.
Example:
$A \wedge B$ and $B \wedge A$ should always have the same meaning.

But the sentences
She became sick and she went to the doctor.
and
She went to the doctor and she became sick.
have different meanings.

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```
            formula := atomicFormula | complexFormula
            atomicFormula := True|False | symbol
            symbol:= P|Q|R|...
complexFormula := ( formula)| (formula \(\wedge\) formula )
[positive literal] the same as atomicFormula.
[negative literal] \(\neg \mathrm{P}\) where P is an atomic formula.

Formulas also are called sentences or propositions.

Let \(\mathcal{S}\) be a set of atomic formulas.
\(\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})\) denotes the set of formulas over \(\mathcal{S}\),
i.e., the smallest set
- that contains \(\mathcal{S}: \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{F}\),
- is closed under \(\neg\) : for all \(F \in \mathcal{F}\), also \(\neg F \in \mathcal{F}\), and
- is closed under \(\wedge\) : for all \(F, G \in \mathcal{F}\), also \(F \wedge G \in \mathcal{F}\).

Some additional operators are introduced as abbreviations of some complex formulas:
\[
\begin{array}{ll}
A \vee B:=\neg(\neg A \wedge \neg B) & \\
A \rightarrow B:=\neg A \vee B & =\neg(\neg \neg A \wedge \neg B) \\
A \leftrightarrow B:=(A \rightarrow B) \wedge(B \rightarrow A) & =\neg(\neg \neg A \wedge \neg B) \wedge \neg(\neg \neg B \wedge \neg A)
\end{array}
\]

The formal syntax makes extensive use of brackets to make grouping unambiguous:
\[
(((\neg P) \vee(Q \wedge R)) \Rightarrow S)
\]

With the usual precedence rules
from highest to lowest: \(\neg, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow\)
many brackets can be droppend and formulas be simplified:
\[
\neg P \vee Q \wedge R \Rightarrow S
\]

Chaining of the same operator still is ambiguous on syntactic level.

The formulas
\[
P \wedge Q \wedge R \quad \text { and } \quad P \vee Q \vee R \quad \text { and } \quad P \Leftrightarrow Q \Leftrightarrow R
\]
can safely be used as the semantics (see below) of both possible groupings
\[
(P \wedge Q) \wedge R \quad \text { and } \quad P \wedge(Q \wedge R)
\]
is the same.

But
\[
P \Rightarrow Q \Rightarrow R
\]
is not allowed because the semantics depends on the grouping.

Subformulas of a formula \(F\) are substrings that are formulas (if all parentheses are present).

But beware if you omit parentheses! ( \(A \wedge B\) is a substring of \(\neg A \wedge B\), but not a subformula!)

Subformulas also can be recursively defined by
subformula \((F):= \begin{cases}\{F\}, & \text { if } F \text { is atomic } \\ \{\neg G\} \cup \operatorname{subformula}(G), & \text { if } F=\neg G \\ \{G \wedge H\} \cup \operatorname{subformula}(G) \cup \operatorname{subformula}(H), & \text { if } F=G \wedge H\end{cases}\)

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Let \(\mathcal{S}\) be a set of atomic formulas.
A function \(\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow\{0,1\}\) is called an assignment of \(\mathcal{S}\) or a model of \(\mathcal{S}\).

Assignments of complex formulas are defined in terms of assignments of their subformulas:
\[
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{A}(\neg F) & :=1-\mathcal{A}(F) \\
\mathcal{A}(F \wedge G) & :=\mathcal{A}(F) \mathcal{A}(G)
\end{aligned}
\]

These functions usually are presented as truth tables:
\begin{tabular}{c|c}
\(F\) & \(\neg F\) \\
\hline 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{cc|c}
\(F\) & \(G\) & \(F \wedge G\) \\
\hline 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1
\end{tabular}

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This way, assignments are extended from \(\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{S} \rightarrow\{0,1\}\) unambiguously to
\[
\mathcal{A}: \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S}) \rightarrow\{0,1\}
\]

Assignments can even be extended to some formulas not in \(\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})\), but say in \(\mathcal{F}\left(\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)\) with some additional atomic formulas \(\mathcal{S}^{\prime}\) :

Let \(F \in \mathcal{F}\left(\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{S}^{\prime}\right)\).
If for every extension of \(\mathcal{A}\) to \(\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{S}^{\prime}\)
- i.e., every assignment \(\mathcal{A}^{\prime}\) of \(\mathcal{S} \cup \mathcal{S}^{\prime}\) with \(\left.\mathcal{A}^{\prime}\right|_{\mathcal{S}}=\mathcal{A}\) \(\mathcal{A}^{\prime}(F)\) has the same value, then \(\mathcal{A}(F):=\mathcal{A}^{\prime}(F)\).

Example:
Let \(\mathcal{S}:=\{A, B\}\)
and \(\mathcal{A}(A):=1\) and \(\mathcal{A}(B):=0\) an assignment on \(\mathcal{S}\).
Then
\[
\begin{aligned}
\mathcal{A}(A \wedge B) & =0 \\
\mathcal{A}(A \vee B) & =1 \\
\mathcal{A}(A \wedge(C \vee \neg C)) & =1 \\
\mathcal{A}(A \wedge C \wedge \neg C) & =0
\end{aligned}
\]

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If \(\mathcal{A}(F)=1\), we say
- \(F\) holds under assignment \(\mathcal{A}\) or
\(-\mathcal{A}\) models \(F\)
and write
\[
\mathcal{A} \models F
\]

A formula \(F\) is called
valid / a tautology, written \(\models F\)
if it holds under every assignment.

\section*{satisfiable}
if it holds under some assignment.

\section*{unsatisfiable / a contradiction}
if it holds under no assignment.

\section*{Examples:}
\(C \vee \neg C\) is valid.
\(C \wedge \neg C\) is unsatisfiable.

Given a formula \(F \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})\), decide if
\(-F\) is valid?
\(-F\) is satisfiable?

Simple algorithm:
enumerate all possible assignments \(\mathcal{A}\) of \(\mathcal{S}\) and compute \(\mathcal{A}(F)\). if \(\mathcal{A}(F)=1\) for all \(\mathcal{A}, F\) is valid.
if \(\mathcal{A}(F)=1\) for at least one \(\mathcal{A}, F\) is satisfiable. otherwise \(F\) is unsatisfiable.

If \(F\) has \(n\) different atomic subformulas, the runtime complexity of exhaustive enumeration is \(O\left(2^{n}\right)\).

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Let \(F, G \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})\) be two formulas.
\(G\) is said to be a consequence of \(F\) or \(F\) to entail \(G\)
\[
F \models G
\]
if for every assignment \(\mathcal{A}\) under which \(F\) holds, also \(G\) holds, i.e., if \(\mathcal{A} \models F\), then \(\mathcal{A} \models G\).

Lemma 1. \(F \models G \quad\) if and only if \(\quad \models F \rightarrow G\)
Proof.
\(\not \models F \rightarrow G\), i.e., there exists an assignment \(\mathcal{A}\) with \(\mathcal{A}(F \rightarrow G)=0\)
\(\Leftrightarrow 1=\mathcal{A}(\neg(F \rightarrow G))=\mathcal{A}(\neg(\neg F \vee G))=\mathcal{A}(F \wedge \neg G)\)
\(\Leftrightarrow \mathcal{A}(F)=1\) and \(\mathcal{A}(\neg G)=1\),
i.e., \(\mathcal{A} \models F\) but not \(\mathcal{A} \models G\),
i.e., \(F \not \vDash G\).

Let \(F, G \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})\) be two formulas.
\(G\) is said to be equivalent to \(F\)
\[
F \equiv G
\]
if \(G\) is a consequence of \(F\) and \(F\) is a consequence of \(G\).
Examples:
\[
\begin{array}{lll}
F \wedge(G \vee H) & \equiv(F \wedge G) \vee(F \wedge H) & \text { [distributivity rule] } \\
F \vee(G \wedge H) & \equiv(F \vee G) \wedge(F \vee H) & \text { [distributivity rule] } \\
\neg(F \wedge G) & \equiv \neg F \vee \neg G & \text { [DeMorgan's rule] } \\
\neg(F \vee G) & \equiv \neg F \wedge \neg G & \text { [DeMorgan's rule] }
\end{array}
\]

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Let \(\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})\) be a set of formulas (also called a theory or a knowledge base).
An assignment \(\mathcal{A}\) models \(\mathcal{F}\)
\[
\mathcal{A} \models \mathcal{F}
\]
if it models every \(F \in \mathcal{F}\).
A formula \(G \in \mathcal{F}(\mathcal{S})\) is said to be a consequence of theory \(\mathcal{F}\) or a theory \(\mathcal{F}\) to entail \(G\)
\[
\mathcal{F} \models G
\]
if every assignment \(\mathcal{A}\) that models \(\mathcal{F}\), also models \(G\), i.e., if \(\mathcal{A} \models \mathcal{F}\), then \(\mathcal{A} \models G\).

If \(\mathcal{F}=\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\}\) is finite, then
\[
\mathcal{A} \models\left\{F_{1}, F_{2}, \ldots, F_{n}\right\} \Leftrightarrow \mathcal{A} \models F_{1} \wedge F_{2} \wedge \ldots \wedge F_{n}
\]

Given two formulas \(F\) and \(G\), decide if \(G\) is a consequence of \(F: F \models G\) ?

Given a theory \(\mathcal{F}\) and a formula \(G\), decide if \(G\) is a consequence of \(\mathcal{F}: \mathcal{F} \models G\) ?

The problem for finite theories can be reduced to the problem for a single formula via conjunction.

But as for the other problems, exhaustive enumeration is \(O\left(2^{n}\right)\) in the number \(n\) of atomic formulas.

But what to do if \(\mathcal{F}\) is infinite?

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\section*{Example:}

Let
\[
\mathcal{F}:=\{A, A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, C \rightarrow D, D \rightarrow E, E \rightarrow F, F \rightarrow G\}
\]
and say we want to decide if \(\mathcal{F}\) entails \(F \vee G\) ?
There are \(2^{7}=128\) different assignments for \(\mathcal{S}=\{A, B, \ldots, G\}\) that would have to be checked separately.
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline assignment \(\mathcal{A}\) & \multicolumn{6}{|c|}{theory \(\mathcal{F}\)} & \multirow[b]{2}{*}{\(F \vee G\)} \\
\hline \(A B C D E F G\) & \(A \quad A \rightarrow\) & \(\rightarrow B \quad B \rightarrow\) & & & \(\rightarrow\) & & \\
\hline \begin{tabular}{lllllll}
\hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{tabular} & \(0 \quad 1\) & 11 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
\hline \(\begin{array}{lllllll}0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1\end{array}\) & 01 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline : & : & & & & & & : \\
\hline 100000000 & 10 & \(0 \quad 1\) & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\
\hline : & : & & & & & & : \\
\hline \(\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0\end{array}\) & 11 & \(1 \quad 1\) & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
\hline \(\begin{array}{lllllll}1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1\end{array}\) & 11 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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Example:
Let
\[
\mathcal{F}:=\{A, A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, C \rightarrow D, D \rightarrow E, E \rightarrow F, F \rightarrow G\}
\]
and say we want to decide if \(\mathcal{F}\) entails \(F \vee G\) ?

On the other hand, we could derive \(F \vee G\) from the formulas \(\mathcal{F}\) step by step via
\(A, A \rightarrow B\) therefore \(B\)
\(B, B \rightarrow C\) therefore \(C\)
\(C, C \rightarrow D\) therefore \(D\)
\(D, D \rightarrow E\) therefore \(E\)
\(E, E \rightarrow F\) therefore \(F\)
\(F \quad\) therefore \(F \vee G\)

Let \(\mathcal{F}\) be a set of formulas and \(G\) be a formula.
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash G\) denotes that formula \(G\) can be derived from formulas \(\mathcal{F}\).

\section*{A proof system consists of a set of derivation rules \(r\)} that state which derivations follow from which other derivations (parametrized by variables for subformulas).

A proof for \(\mathcal{F} \models G\) is a sequence of derivations
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{F}_{1} \vdash G_{1} \\
& \mathcal{F}_{2} \vdash G_{2} \\
& \quad \vdots \\
& \mathcal{F}_{n} \vdash G_{n}
\end{aligned}
\]
such that each derivation follows from earlier derivations by some rule.

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Let the proof system consist of just three rules:
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
premise & conclusion & name \\
\hline\(F \in \mathcal{F}\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F\) & assumption \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \vee G\) & \(\vee\)-introduction \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F, \mathcal{F} \vdash F \rightarrow G\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G\) & \(\rightarrow\)-elimination \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The we can proof \(F \vee G\) from
\[
\mathcal{F}:=\{A, A \rightarrow B, B \rightarrow C, C \rightarrow D, D \rightarrow E, E \rightarrow F, F \rightarrow G\}
\]
by
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. } \mathcal{F} \vdash A \quad \text { [assumption] } \\
& \text { 2. } \mathcal{F} \vdash A \rightarrow B \text { [assumption] } \\
& \text { 3. } \mathcal{F} \vdash B \quad \text { [ } \rightarrow \text {-elimination applied to 1,2] } \\
& \text { 4. } \mathcal{F} \vdash B \rightarrow C \text { [assumption] } \\
& \text { 5. } \mathcal{F} \vdash C \quad \text { [ } \rightarrow \text {-elimination applied to 3,4] } \\
& \text { 6. } \mathcal{F} \vdash C \rightarrow D \text { [assumption] } \\
& \text { 7. } \mathcal{F} \vdash D \quad \text { [ } \rightarrow \text {-elimination applied to 5,6] } \\
& \text { 8. } \mathcal{F} \vdash D \rightarrow E \text { [assumption] } \\
& \text { 9. } \mathcal{F} \vdash E \quad[\rightarrow \text {-elimination applied to } 7,8 \text { ] } \\
& \text { 10. } \mathcal{F} \vdash E \rightarrow F \text { [assumption] } \\
& \text { 11. } \mathcal{F} \vdash F \quad \text { [ } \rightarrow \text {-elimination applied to 9,10] } \\
& \text { 12. } \mathcal{F} \vdash F \vee G \quad \text { [V-introduction applied to 11] }
\end{aligned}
\]

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\begin{tabular}{lll} 
premise & conclusion & name \\
\hline\(G \in \mathcal{F}\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G\) & assumption \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash G, \mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{F}^{\prime}\) & \(\mathcal{F}^{\prime} \vdash G\) & monotonicity \\
\hline \(\mathcal{F} \vdash \neg \neg G\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G\) & double negation \\
\hline \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F, \mathcal{F} \vdash G\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \wedge G\) & \(\wedge\)-introduction \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \wedge G\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F\) & \(\wedge\)-elimination \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \wedge G\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G \wedge F\) & \(\wedge\)-symmetry \\
\hline \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \vee G\) & V-introduction \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \wedge G\), & & \\
\(\mathcal{F} \cup\{F\} \vdash H, \mathcal{F} \cup\{G\} \vdash H\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash H\) & \(\vee\)-elimination \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \vee G\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G \vee F\) & \(\vee\)-symmetry \\
\hline \(\mathcal{F} \cup\{F\} \vdash G\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \rightarrow G\) & \(\rightarrow\)-introduction \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F, \mathcal{F} \vdash F \rightarrow G\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G\) & \(\rightarrow\)-elimination \\
\hline \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash(F)\) & ()-introduction \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash(F)\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F\) & ()-elimination \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash((F \wedge G) \wedge H)\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \wedge G \wedge H\) & \(\wedge\)-parentheses rule \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash((F \vee G) \vee H)\) & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \vee G \vee H\) & -parentheses rule \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Additionally one needs rules for definitions of \(\vee, \rightarrow\) and \(\leftrightarrow\) :
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
rule & name \\
\hline \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \vee G\) & if and only if \(\mathcal{F} \vdash \neg(\neg F \wedge \neg G)\) & V-definition \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \rightarrow G\) & if and only if \(\mathcal{F} \vdash \neg F \vee G\) & \(\rightarrow\)-definition \\
\(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \leftrightarrow G\) & if and only if \(\mathcal{F} \vdash F \rightarrow G, \mathcal{F} \vdash G \rightarrow F\) & \(\leftrightarrow\)-definition
\end{tabular}

More rules can be derived from these rules.
E.g.,
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
premise & conclusion & name \\
\hline none & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash \neg G \vee G\) & tautology rule
\end{tabular}
proof:
1. \(\mathcal{F} \cup\{G\} \vdash G\) [assumption]
2. \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G \rightarrow G \quad[\rightarrow\)-introduction applied to 1]
3. \(\mathcal{F} \vdash \neg G \vee G \quad\) [ \(\vee\)-definition applied to 2]

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\begin{tabular}{lll} 
premise & conclusion & name \\
\hline none & \(\mathcal{F} \vdash \neg G \vee G\) & tautology rule
\end{tabular}

A proof system is called sound if \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G\), then \(\mathcal{F} \models G\).

Lemma 2. The proof system outlined in this section is sound.
Proof. Show for each rule, that for its conclusion \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G: \mathcal{F} \models G\).
\(\wedge\)-elimination:
\begin{tabular}{c|c|c|c}
\(F\) & \(G\) & \(F \wedge G\) & \(F \wedge G \rightarrow F\) \\
\hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

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A proof system is called complete if \(\mathcal{F} \models G\), then \(\mathcal{F} \vdash G\).

Lemma 3. The proof system outlined in this section is complete.
Proof. See Hedmann 2004, p. 47.

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Formulas
\[
F=\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} \bigvee_{j=1}^{m_{i}} L_{i, j}
\]
where \(L_{i, j}\) is a literal (i.e., either an atom or the negation of an atom) are called conjunctive normal form (CNF).

Formulas
\[
F=\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} \bigwedge_{j=1}^{m_{i}} L_{i, j}
\]
where \(L_{i, j}\) is a literal (i.e., either an atom or the negation of an atom) are called disjunctive normal form (DNF).

Here we write
\[
\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} F_{i}:=F_{1} \wedge F_{2} \wedge \ldots \wedge F_{n}, \quad \bigvee_{i=1}^{n} F_{i}:=F_{1} \vee F_{2} \vee \ldots \vee F_{n}
\]
\((A \vee B) \wedge(C \vee D) \wedge(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee \neg D)\) is in CNF
\[
(\neg A \wedge B) \vee C \vee(B \wedge \neg C \wedge D) \text { is in DNF }
\]
\((A \vee B) \wedge((A \wedge C) \vee(B \wedge D))\) is neither

\section*{Existence of CNF and DNF Equivalents}

Lemma 4. Each formula is equivalent to a formula in CNF as well as to a formula in DNF.
Proof. Let \(F\) be the formula and proof by induction:
if \(F\) is atomic, it clearly is CNF as well as DNF.
if \(F=\neg G\), then let \(G \equiv \bigwedge_{i} \bigvee_{j} L_{i, j}\) by induction.
\[
F=\neg G \equiv \neg \bigwedge_{i} \bigvee_{j} L_{i, j} \equiv \bigvee_{i} \bigwedge_{j} \neg L_{i, j} \equiv \bigvee_{i} \bigwedge_{j} L_{i, j}^{\prime}
\]
where \(L_{i, j}^{\prime}:=\neg A\) if \(L_{i, j}=A\) is atomic and \(L_{i, j}^{\prime}:=A\) if \(L_{i, j}=\neg A\) is the negation of an atom, i.e., \(F\) is equivalent to a DNF. Similiar for CNF.
if \(F=G \wedge H\), then \(F\) obviously is equivalent to a CNF.
To show that \(F\) is also equivalent to a DNF, let \(G \equiv \bigvee_{i} L_{i}\) and \(H \equiv \bigvee_{j} M_{j}\) be DNFs, respectively. Then
\[
F=G \wedge H \equiv\left(\bigvee_{i} L_{i}\right) \wedge\left(\bigvee_{j} M_{j}\right) \equiv \bigvee_{i} \bigvee_{j}\left(L_{i} \wedge M_{j}\right)
\]
is in DNF.
```

l cnf(formula }F\mathrm{ ):
2 Replace all subformulas }(G\leftrightarrowH)\mathrm{ of }F\mathrm{ by (( }\negG\veeH)\wedge(\negH\veeG)
Replace all subformulas (G->H) of F by ( }\negG\veeH
Move }\neg\mathrm{ inwards:
Replace all subformulas }\neg(G\wedgeH)\mathrm{ of F by ( }\negG\vee\negH
Replace all subformulas }\neg(G\veeH)\mathrm{ of F by ( }\negG\wedge\negH
Replace all subformulas }\neg\negG\mathrm{ of }F\mathrm{ by }
Apply the V -distributivity rule:
Replace all subformulas }G\vee(H\wedgeI) of F by (G\veeH)\wedge(G\veeI
Replace all subformulas ( }H\wedgeI)\veeG\mathrm{ of }F\mathrm{ by }(H\veeG)\wedge(I\veeG
return F

```

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\[
\begin{aligned}
F & =(A \vee B) \rightarrow(\neg B \wedge A) \\
& \equiv \neg(A \vee B) \vee(\neg B \wedge A) \\
& \equiv(\neg A \wedge \neg B) \vee(\neg B \wedge A) \\
& \equiv((\neg A \wedge \neg B) \vee \neg B) \wedge((\neg A \wedge \neg B) \vee A) \\
& \equiv((\neg A \vee \neg B) \wedge(\neg B \vee \neg B)) \wedge((\neg A \vee A) \wedge(\neg B \vee A)) \\
& \equiv(\neg A \vee \neg B) \wedge(\neg B \vee \neg B) \wedge(\neg A \vee A) \wedge(\neg B \vee A) \\
& \equiv(\neg A \vee \neg B) \wedge \neg B \wedge(\neg B \vee A) \\
& \equiv \neg B
\end{aligned}
\]

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\section*{5. Resolution}

\section*{6. Propositional Horn Formulas}

\section*{7. Entailment by Model Checking}

\section*{8. A Silly Example}

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A formula
\[
\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} L_{i}
\]
where \(L_{i}\) are literals is called clause.

Obviously, each CNF is a conjunction of clauses and determined up to equivalence by its set of clauses
\[
\text { clauses }(F):=\left\{\bigvee_{j=1}^{m_{i}} L_{i, j} \mid i=1, \ldots, n\right\}
\]

Clauses are often written as sets of literals:
\[
\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} L_{i} \rightsquigarrow\left\{L_{1}, L_{2}, \ldots, L_{n}\right\}
\]

Let \(F\) and \(G\) be two clauses (described by sets of literals) with \(A \in F\) and \(\neg A \in G\). Then the clause
\[
(F \backslash\{A\}) \cup(G \backslash\{\neg A\})
\]
is called a resolvent of \(F\) and \(G\).

\section*{Example:}

Let
\[
F:=\{A, \neg B, C\}, \quad G:=\{B, \neg C, D\}
\]
then a resolvent of \(F\) and \(G\) is
\[
(\{A, \neg B, C\} \backslash\{C\}) \cup(\{B, \neg C, D\} \backslash\{\neg C\})=\{A, \neg B, B, D\}
\]

Resolvents are not unique, e.g., another resolvent of \(F\) and \(G\) is
\[
(\{A, \neg B, C\} \backslash\{\neg B\}) \cup(\{B, \neg C, D\} \backslash\{B\})=\{A, C, \neg C, D\}
\]

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\section*{Lemma 5. Resolvents can be derived.}

More detailed: let \(F\) and \(G\) be two clauses and \(R\) a resolvent of \(F\) and \(G\), then
\[
\{F, G\} \vdash R
\]

Proof. Let
\[
F=F^{\prime} \vee A, \quad G=G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \quad R=F^{\prime} \vee G^{\prime}
\]

Then
1. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A\right\}\)
\(\vdash F^{\prime} \vee A\)
assumption
2. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg A\right\} \quad \vdash F^{\prime} \vee A\) monotonicity applied to 1
3. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg A\right\} \quad \vdash \neg A\) assumption
4. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg A\right\} \quad \vdash F^{\prime}\)
5. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg A\right\} \quad \vdash F^{\prime} \vee G^{\prime}\) \(\checkmark\)-elimination applied to 2 and 3 \(\checkmark\)-introduction applied to 4
6. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A\right\} \quad \vdash G^{\prime} \vee \neg A\) assumption
7. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg \neg A\right\} \vdash G^{\prime} \vee \neg A\) monotonicity applied to 6
8. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg \neg A\right\} \vdash \neg \neg A\) assumption
9. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg \neg A\right\} \vdash G^{\prime} \quad \vee\)-elimination applied to 7 and 8
10. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg \neg A\right\} \vdash G^{\prime} \vee F^{\prime} \quad \vee\)-introduction applied to 9
11. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A, \neg \neg A\right\} \vdash F^{\prime} \vee G^{\prime} \vee\)-symmetry applied to 10
12. \(\left\{F^{\prime} \vee A, G^{\prime} \vee \neg A\right\} \quad \vdash F^{\prime} \vee G^{\prime} \quad\) proof by cases applied to 5 and 11

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Artificial Intelligence / 5. Resolution

\section*{Let \(F\) be a CNF. We define}
\(\operatorname{Res}^{0}(F):=\) clauses \((F)\)
\(\operatorname{Res}^{i}(F):=\operatorname{Res}^{i-1}(F)\)
\(\cup\left\{R \mid R\right.\) is a resolvent of two clauses \(\left.C, D \in \operatorname{Res}^{i-1}(F)\right\}\)

As there are only finite many clauses of a finite set of atoms, for some \(i\) we have
\[
\operatorname{Res}^{i}(F)=\operatorname{Res}^{i-1}(F)
\]
and call this \(\operatorname{Res}^{*}(F)\).
The clauses in \(\operatorname{Res}^{*}(F)\) can be derived by just two rules:
premise conclusion name
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\hline 1. \(C\) is a clause of \(F\) & \(F \vdash C\) & [assumption] \\
2. \(F \vdash C, F \vdash D, R\) is a resolvent of \(C, D\) & \(F \vdash R\) & [resolution] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

The resolution proof system claims for a CNF \(F\) :
\[
F \text { is unsatisfiable } \Longleftrightarrow \emptyset \in \operatorname{Res}^{*}(F)
\]

Lemma 6. Resolution is sound and complete.
Proof.
sound: as resolution can be proved.
complete: not so obvious to see; see Hedmann 2004, p. 42.

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```

entails(formula $F$, query formula $Q$ ) :
$\mathcal{C}:=\emptyset$
$\mathcal{C}^{\prime}:=\operatorname{clauses}(\operatorname{cnf}(F \wedge \neg Q))$
$\underline{\text { while }} \mathcal{C}^{\prime} \neq \emptyset \underline{\text { do }}$
$\mathcal{C}:=\mathcal{C} \cup \mathcal{C}^{\prime}$
$\mathcal{C}^{\prime}:=\emptyset$
for $C, D \in \mathcal{C}$ do
$\mathcal{R}:=\{R \mid R$ is a resolvent of $C, D\}$
if $\emptyset \in \mathcal{R}$ return true $\underline{\mathbf{f}}$
$\overline{\mathcal{C}}^{\prime}:=\mathcal{C}^{\prime} \cup \mathcal{R}$
od
od
return false

```

Is the following formula satisfiable?
\[
F:=(A \vee B \vee \neg C) \wedge \neg A \wedge(A \vee B \vee C) \wedge(A \vee \neg B)
\]


Therefore, \(F\) is unsatisfiable.

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\section*{8. A Silly Example}

\section*{A CNF \(F\) is called Horn formula if} each conjunction contains at most one positive literal, i.e.
\[
F=\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} \bigvee_{j=1}^{m_{i}} L_{i, j}
\]
where \(L_{i, j}\) are literals and for each \(i\) there is at most one \(j\) with \(L_{i, j}\) positive.

Example:
\(A \wedge(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee D) \wedge(\neg C \vee \neg D)\) is Horn \(A \vee B\) is not Horn

Different from CNF, not every formula has an equivalent Horn formula.
Example: \(A \vee B\)

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A formula
\[
\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} L_{i}
\]
where \(L_{i}\) are literals and at most one is positive, is called Horn clause or Basic Horn formula.

Obviously, each Horn formula is a conjunction of Horn clauses and determined up to equivalence by its sets of clauses
\[
\text { clauses }(F):=\left\{\bigvee_{j=1}^{m_{i}} L_{i, j} \mid i=1, \ldots, n\right\}
\]

Example:
\(A \wedge(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee D) \wedge(\neg C \vee \neg D)\) is Horn, but not basic Horn \((\neg A \vee \neg B \vee C)\) is basic Horn

Basic Horn formulas can be written as implications of atoms/positive literals:
\[
\begin{aligned}
\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} \neg L_{i} \vee M\right) & \equiv\left(\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} L_{i} \rightarrow M\right) \\
\left(\bigvee_{i=1}^{n} \neg L_{i}\right) & \equiv\left(\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n} L_{i} \rightarrow \text { false }\right) \\
M & \equiv(\text { true } \rightarrow M)
\end{aligned}
\]
where \(L_{i}\) and \(M\) are positive literals.
Example:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& A \wedge(\neg A \vee \neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee D) \wedge(\neg C \vee \neg D) \\
\equiv & (\text { true } \rightarrow A) \wedge(A \wedge B \rightarrow C) \wedge(B \rightarrow C) \wedge(B \rightarrow D) \wedge(C \wedge D \rightarrow \text { false })
\end{aligned}
\]

For an implication \(L \rightarrow M\), we write
\[
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{body}(L \rightarrow M) & :=L \\
\operatorname{head}(L \rightarrow M) & :=M
\end{aligned}
\]

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Artificial Intelligence / 6. Propositional Horn Formulas

\section*{Entailment for Horn Formulas}

The entailment problem for Horn formulas can be solved efficiently, in linear time in the number of clauses.

Idea: build assignment incrementally using clauses for inference:
1. all atoms that occur in clauses without premise are assigned true,
2. for all clauses where all premises are already assigned true, assign also the head true.
3. once the query atom is assigned true, terminate and return true.
4. if there are no more clauses with all premises assigned true, terminate and return false.

Satisfiability:
Horn formulas without a clauses with head false always are satisfiable. Horn formulas with some clauses with head false are unsatisfiable, if the atom false is entailed.

Is the following Horn formula satisfiable?
\[
(\text { true } \rightarrow A) \wedge(A \wedge B \rightarrow C) \wedge(C \rightarrow D) \wedge(C \wedge D \rightarrow \text { false }) \wedge(\text { true } \rightarrow B)
\]

Can we entail the query atom false?
As there are clauses true \(\rightarrow A\) and true \(\rightarrow B\), we assign \(A\) and \(B\) to true.

As now all premises of \(A \wedge B \rightarrow C\) are true, we assign \(C\) to true.

As now all premises of \(C \rightarrow D\) are true, we assign \(D\) to true.

As now all premises of \(C \wedge D \rightarrow\) false are true, we entail the query atom false.

Therefore, the formula is not satisfiable.

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Artificial Intelligence / 6. Propositional Horn Formulas

\section*{And/Or Graphs}

Horn clauses:
\[
\begin{aligned}
& P \Longrightarrow Q \\
& L \wedge M \Longrightarrow P \\
& B \wedge L \Longrightarrow M \\
& A \wedge P \Longrightarrow L \\
& A \wedge B \Longrightarrow L \\
& A \\
& B
\end{aligned}
\]


2003
```

entail(horn formula $F$, query atom $Q$ ) :
$\mathcal{S}:=\operatorname{atoms}(F)$
$\mathcal{A}(A):=$ false,$\quad \forall A \in \mathcal{S}$
$\mathcal{C}:=$ clauses $(F)$
$p(C):=$ number of premises in body $(C), \quad \forall C \in \mathcal{C}$
$\mathcal{H}:=\{\operatorname{head}(C) \mid C \in \mathcal{C}: \operatorname{body}(C)=\emptyset\}$
while $\mathcal{H} \neq \emptyset$ do
$A:=$ remove-element $(\mathcal{H})$
if $A=Q \underline{\text { return true }} \underline{\mathbf{f}}$
if $\mathcal{A}(A)=$ false
$\mathcal{A}(A):=$ true
for $C \in \mathcal{C}: A$ occurs in $\operatorname{body}(C) \underline{\text { do }}$
$p(C):=p(C)-1$
if $(p(C)=0)$
$\operatorname{append}(\mathcal{H}, \operatorname{head}(C))$
$\underline{f}$
od
fi
od
return false

```

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Artificial Intelligence / 6. Propositional Horn Formulas
Entailment for Horn Formulas / Soundness \& Completeness

Lemma 7. The inference algorithm for Horn formulas is sound and complete.

Proof.
sound, i.e., every derived atom is entailed:
in each step only modus ponens / \(\rightarrow\)-elimination rule applied.
complete, i.e., every entailed atom will be derived:
\(\mathcal{A}\) is an assignment for \(F\), i.e., each clause holds:
assume \(L_{1} \wedge L_{2} \wedge \ldots \wedge L_{n} \rightarrow M\) is clause that does not hold. Then \(\mathcal{A}\left(L_{i}\right)=\) true and \(\mathcal{A}(M)=\) false. But in this case \(M\) would have been assigned true, so there cannot be a clause that does not hold.
As \(\mathcal{A}\) is an assignment that models \(F\), any atom not assigned true in \(\mathcal{A}\) is not entailed by \(F\). And all the atoms assigned true by \(\mathcal{A}\) will be derived.

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\section*{7. Entailment by Model Checking}

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Artificial Intelligence / 7. Entailment by Model Checking
Entailment, Satisfiability, Existence of Models

Entailment of a query formula \(Q\) by a given formula \(F\) can also be computed by model checking,
i.e.,
computing a model/assignment that models \(F\) but not \(Q\)
( \(F \wedge \neg Q\) is satisfiable)
then \(F\) does not entail \(Q\).
show that there is no model that models \(F\) but not \(Q\)
( \(F \wedge \neg Q\) is not satisfiable)
then \(F\) entails \(Q\).

Different approaches:

\section*{incremental model building / complete enumeration} compute all assignments and check each individually.
incremental model building / use inference where possible
use inference in some easy to check situations, otherwise enumerate all possible assignments.

\section*{local search}
start with a complete random assignment, update the truth value of some variables in each step to make less clauses false.

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Transform the formula to check for satisfiability to CNF.

A clause is true, if one of its literals is true.
The formula is true, if each clause is true.

Example:
\[
(A \vee \neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee \neg C \vee D) \wedge(A \wedge D)
\]

Assume partial assignment: \(\mathcal{A}(B)=\) false, \(\mathcal{A}(D)=\) true.

Then each clause is already true, so we do not have to complete the assignment but can stop here.

A clause is false, if all of its literals are false.
The formula is false, if one of its clauses is false.

\section*{Example:}
\[
(A \vee \neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee \neg C \vee D) \wedge(A \wedge D)
\]

Assume partial assignment: \(\mathcal{A}(A)=\) false, \(\mathcal{A}(D)=\) false.
The last clause is false, so this partial assignment cannot be completed to a model.

If of some symbol \(A\), only positive (or only negative) literals occur, then the symbol safely can be assigned true (or false).
Such symbols are called pure.
Example:
\[
(A \vee \neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee \neg C \vee D) \wedge(A \wedge D)
\]

Assume empty assignment: \(\mathcal{A}=\emptyset\).
\(A\) is pure as it appears only in positive form.
\(B\) is pure as it appears only in negative form.
\(D\) is pure as it appears only in positive form.
\(\rightsquigarrow\) it is safe to assign \(\mathcal{A}(A)=\) true, \(\mathcal{A}(B)=\) false and \(\mathcal{A}(D)=\) true.

If some clause consists only of a single literal not yet assigned to false, then the respective symbol safely can be assigned true (or false).
Such symbolsclauses called unit clauses.
Example:
\[
(A \vee \neg B \vee C) \wedge(\neg B \vee \neg C \vee D) \wedge(A \wedge D)
\]

Assume partial assignment: \(\mathcal{A}(A)=\) false, \(\mathcal{A}(C)=\) false.

The first clause consists only of the literal \(\neg B\) not yet assigned to false.
\(\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{A}(B)=\) false.

Model checking using

\section*{early stopping}
(true if one literal of each clause is true,
false if all literals of one clause are false)

\section*{pure symbols}
(occurs only as positive or only as negative literal)

\section*{unit clauses}
(contains only one literal not yet assigned to false)
is called Davis-Putnam Algorithm or DPLL (after its inventors Martin Davis, Hilary Putnam (1960) and Davis, Logemann and Loveland (1962)).
```

entails-dpll(formula F, query formula Q) :
\mathcal{C}:= clauses( }(\operatorname{mff}(F\wedge\negQ)
\mathcal { A } ( A ) : = \emptyset \quad \forall A \in \mathcal { S } ( \mathcal { C } )
return not satisfiable-dpl1(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{A})
satisfiable-dpll(set of clauses \mathcal{C, partial assignment \mathcal{A}):}
if }\forallC\in\mathcal{C}\existsA\inC:\mathcal{A}(A)=\mathrm{ true return true f
if }\existsC\in\mathcal{C}\forallA\inC:\mathcal{A}(A)=\mathrm{ false return false fi
if }\existsA\in\mp@subsup{\mathcal{A}}{}{-1}(\emptyset):\forallC\in\mathcal{C}:A\inC\mathrm{ or }\negA\not\in
[pure symbol]
return satisfiable.dpll(\mathcal{C,A}\mathcal{A}{A\mapsto true})
elsif }\existsA\in\mp@subsup{\mathcal{A}}{}{-1}(\emptyset):\forallC\in\mathcal{C}:\negA\inC\mathrm{ or }A\not\in
return satisfiable-dpll(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{A}\cup{A\mapsto false})
fi
if }\existsC\in\mathcal{C},A\in\mp@subsup{\mathcal{A}}{}{-1}(\emptyset):A\inC\mathrm{ and }\forallB\inC,B\not=A:\mathcal{A}(B)=\mathrm{ false [unit clause]
return satisfiable-dpll (\mathcal{C,A}\mathcal{A}{A\mapsto\operatorname{true}})
elsif }\existsC\in\mathcal{C},A\mp@subsup{\mathcal{A}}{}{-1}(\emptyset):\negA\inC\mathrm{ and }\forallB\inC,B\not=\negA:\mathcal{A}(B)=\mathrm{ false
return satisfiable-dpll(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{A}\cup{A\mapsto false})
f
A= random(}\mp@subsup{\mathcal{A}}{}{-1}(\emptyset)
return satisfiable-dpll(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{A}\cup{A\mapsto true})| satisfiable-dpll(\mathcal{C},\mathcal{A}\cup{A\mapsto false})

```

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Artificial Intelligence / 7. Entailment by Model Checking

Local search algorithm for deciding satisfiability
- start with a random complete assignment,

\section*{- stop when all clauses are satisfied,}
- otherwise pick an unsatisfied clause \(C\) and
- either flip the assignment of the symbol that maximizes the number of satisfied clauses (min-conflicts step)
\[
A:=\operatorname{argmax}_{A \in \mathcal{S}(C)}\left|\left\{C^{\prime} \in \mathcal{C}|\mathcal{A}|_{\mathcal{S} \backslash\{A\}} \cup\{A \mapsto 1-\mathcal{A}(A)\} \models C^{\prime}\right\}\right|
\]
- or flip a random symbol of \(C\).

Cannot prove insatisfiability, just indicates that no solution may exist as it could not be computed in time.
```

satisfiable-walksat(set of clauses \mathcal{C}, random walk prob. p\in[0,1], maxSteps) :
\mathcal{A}:= random assignment of }\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{C}
for }i:=1···\mathrm{ maxSteps do
if}\forallC\in\mathcal{C}:\mathcal{A}(C)=\mathrm{ true return true 隹
C:= random{C\in\mathcal{C}|\mathcal{A}(C)=\mathrm{ false }}
if random()>p
A:= \mp@subsup{\operatorname{argmax}}{A\in\mathcal{S}(C)}{}|{\mp@subsup{C}{}{\prime}\in\mathcal{C}|\mathcal{A}\mp@subsup{|}{\mathcal{S}\{A}}{}\cup{A\mapsto1-\mathcal{A}(A)}\models\mp@subsup{C}{}{\prime}}|
else
A:= random }\mathcal{S}(C
fi
\mathcal { A } ( A ) : = 1 - \mathcal { A } ( A )
od
return failure

```

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Artificial Intelligence / 7. Entailment by Model Checking

3-CNF: CNF where each clause consists of exactly 3 literals.
The satisfiability problem (SAT) for 3-CNF formulas is called 3-SAT and still NP-complete.

The more clauses per symbol a SAT problem has, the more models may be ruled out and thus the less likely it is satisfiable.


Probability of a random 3-CNF with 50 symbols to be satisfiable.


Median runtime of DPLL and WalkSat for 100 random satisfiable 3-CNFs with 50 symbols.

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Artificial Intelligence

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\section*{8. A Silly Example}

Toy example by Gregory Yob (1975), adapted by our textbook.
\(-4 \times 4\) grid, tiles numbered \((1,1)\) to \((4,4)\),
- the agent starts in \((1,1)\),
- the beast Wumpus sits at a random tile, unknown to the agent,
- a pile of gold sits at another random tile, unknown to the agent,
- some pits are located at random tiles, unknown to the agent.
- if the agent enters the tile of the Wumpus, he will be eaten,
- if the agent enters a pit, he will be trapped,


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Artificial Intelligence / 8. A Silly Example
Wumpus World
Toy example by Gregory Yob (1975), adapted by our textbook.
- the agent has a single shot to shoot at a neighboring tile and kill the Wumpus if it is there,
- the agent can pick up the pile of gold if it is at the same tile,
- the agent can move to neighboring tiles,
- the agent perceives a breeze at neighboring tiles of pits,
- the agent perceives stench at neighboring tiles of the Wumpus.


64 variables:
\(P_{x, y}\) tile \(x, y\) contains a pit \((x, y=1, \ldots, 4)\).
\(W_{x, y}\) tile \(x, y\) contains the Wumpus \((x, y=1, \ldots, 4)\).
\(B_{x, y}\) tile \(x, y\) contains a breeze \((x, y=1, \ldots, 4)\).
\(S_{x, y}\) tile \(x, y\) contains stench \((x, y=1, \ldots, 4)\).
start is save: (2 formulas)
\[
\neg P_{1,1}, \quad \neg W_{1,1}
\]
how breeze arises: (16 formulas)
\[
B_{x, y} \leftrightarrow P_{x-1, y} \vee P_{x+1, y} \vee P_{x, y-1} \vee P_{x, y+1}, \quad x, y=1, \ldots, 4
\]
how stench arises: (16 formulas)
\[
S_{x, y} \leftrightarrow W_{x-1, y} \vee W_{x+1, y} \vee W_{x, y-1} \vee W_{x, y+1}, \quad x, y=1, \ldots, 4
\]
there is exactly one Wumpus: ( 121 formulas)
\[
\begin{aligned}
& W_{1,1} \vee W_{1,2} \vee \ldots \vee W_{4,4} \\
& \neg W_{x, y} \vee \neg W_{x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}}, \quad x, y, x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}=1, \ldots, 4, x \neq x^{\prime} \text { or } y \neq y^{\prime}
\end{aligned}
\]

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Artificial Intelligence / 8. A Silly Example
Explore the Wumpus World



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\section*{Perceptions are told / added to the knowledgebase.}

Consequences as conditions for actions can then be asked from the knowledgebase, e.g.,
- tile \(x, y\) is provably safe if
\[
\neg W_{x, y} \wedge \neg P_{x, y}
\]
is entailed by the knowledgebase.
- if there are no provably safe tiles, choose among tiles \(x, y\) that may or may not be dangerous, i.e., where
\[
W_{x, y} \vee P_{x, y}
\]
is not entailed.

Beyond Wumpus World, have a look at General Game Playing (http://games.stanford.edu).

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Artificial Intelligence / 8. A Silly Example
```

function PL-Wumpus-AgENt( percept) returns an action
inputs: percept, a list, [stench,breeze,glitter]
static: }KB\mathrm{ , a knowledge base, initially containing the "physics" of the wumpus world
x,y,orientation, the agent's position (initially [1,1]) and orientation (initially right)
visited, an array indicating which squares have been visited, initially false
action, the agent's most recent action, initially null
plan, an action sequence, initially empty
update x,y,orientation, visited based on action
if stench then TelL}(KB,\mp@subsup{S}{x,y}{})\mathrm{ else Tell (KB, }\neg\mp@subsup{S}{x,y}{}
if breeze then Tell}(KB,\mp@subsup{B}{x,y}{\prime})\mathrm{ else Tell}(KB,\neg\mp@subsup{B}{x,y}{\prime}
if glitter then action\leftarrowgrab
else if plan is nonempty then action }\leftarrow\operatorname{POP}(\mathrm{ plan )
else if for some fringe square [i,j], }\operatorname{Ask}(KB,(\neg\mp@subsup{P}{i,j}{}\wedge\neg\mp@subsup{W}{i,j}{\prime}))\mathrm{ is true or
for some fringe square [i,j],}\operatorname{Ask}(KB,(\mp@subsup{P}{i,j}{}\vee\mp@subsup{W}{i,j}{}))\mathrm{ is false then do
plan}\leftarrow A*-Graph-Search(Route-Problem([ [x,y], orientation, [ [i,j],visited))
action}\leftarrow\textrm{POP}(plan
else action }\leftarrow\mathrm{ a randomly chosen move
return action

```
```

