Every function symbol has an associated <u>arity</u> indicating the number of elements or terms in the domain mapped onto each element of the range.

• The term may be constant, variable, or function expression.

# Symbols and Terms

- 1- True and False (Truth symbols)
- 2- Constant symbols
- 3- Variable symbols
- 4- function symbols
- An atomic sentences in predicate calculus is a predicate of arity n followed by n terms enclosed in parenthesis and separated by commas. Predicate calculus sentences are delimited by a period.
- E.g.
  - Like (ahmed , ali).
  - Likes(ali , kamil).
  - —
  - —
  - Friend(bill, goerge).

 Atomic sentences are also called atomic expressions or propositions. We may combine atomic sentences using logical operator to form sentences.

- Predicate calculus includes two symbols, the variable quantifier ∀ and ∃.
- 3Y friends (Y, peter) . (existential quantifier)
- $\forall X \text{ Likes } (X, \text{ice}_{cream}).$  (Universal quantifier).

#### Predicate calculus sentences

• Every atomic sentence is a sentence

1- if S is a sentence then  $\neg$ S

2- if S1 and S2 are sentences then S1^S2

3- if S1 and S2 are sentences then S1 V S2

4- if S1 and S2 are sentences then S1==>S2

5- if S1 and S2 are sentences then S1=S2

6-if X is a variable and S a sentence then  $\forall X$  S is a sentence.

7-if X is a variable and S a sentence then  $\exists X S$  is a sentence.

- mother (fatema, ali).
- mother (fatema, moh).
- father (ahmed, ali).
- father (ahmed ,moh).
- ∀X ∀Y father(X,Y) V mother (X,Y) ==> parent(X,Y).

• ∀X ∀Y ∀Z parent(X,Y) ^ parent (X,Z) ==> sibling(Y,Z).

#### Semantics for the predicate calculus

- Predicate calculus semantics provide a formal basis for determining the truth value of well-formed expressions.
- Examples of English sentences represented in predicate calculus are :
- If it doesn't rain tomorrow, tom will go to the mountains.

Tweather (rain , tomorrow) ==> go (tom , mountain).

- All basketball players are tall

 $\forall X \text{ basketball-player}(X) ===> tall(X).$ 

- Some people like fish
  - ∃ X person(X) ^likes (X,fish).
- Nobody like Somali

⊤∃X likes (X, somali).

- on(c,a).
- on(b,d).
- ontable(a).
- ontable(d).
- clear(b).
- clear(c).
- hand-empty.





## Unification

- Is an algorithm for determining the substitutions needed to make two predicate calculus expressions match.
- Suppose sentences p and q if pc=qc

р	q	Ģ
knows(john , x)	knows(john , Jane)	{ x   Jane}
knows(John , x)	knows(y , Oj)	{x Oj, y John}
knows(John , x)	knows(y , mother(y))	{y John, x mother(y)}

• Ex. foo(X, a, g(Y))

foo(fred, a, g(z))	{ fred   X, z   Y}
foo(w,a,g(jack))	<pre>{w X , jack Y}</pre>
foo(z, a, g(moo(z)))	{z X , moo(z) Y}

# Unification algorithm

- Basic idea: can replace variables by:
- other variables
- constants
- function expressions
- High level algorithm:
- Represent the expression as a list
- Process the list one by one
  - Determine a substitution (if necessary)
  - Apply to the rest of the list before proceeding

# Examples with the algorithm

- Unify p(a,X) and p(a,b)
- (p a X) (p a b)
- Unify p(a,X) and p(Y, f(Y))
- (p a X) (p Y (f Y))
- Unify parents(X, father(X), mother(bill)) and parents(bill, father(bill), Y)
- (parents X (father X) (mother bill))
- (parents bill (father bill) Y)

#### function unify code

function unify(E1, E2); begin case both E1 and E2 are constants or the empty list: if E1 = E2 then return {} else return FAIL: E1 is a variable: if E1 occurs in E2 then return FAIL else return {E2/E1}; E2 is a variable: if E2 occurs in E1 then return FAIL else return {E1/E2} either E1 or E2 are empty then return FAIL otherwise: begin HE1 := first element of E1; HE2 := first element of E2; SUBS1 := unify(HE1,HE2); if SUBS1 : = FAIL then return FAIL; TE1 := apply(SUBS1, rest of E1); TE2 : = apply (SUBS1, rest of E2); SUBS2 := unify(TE1, TE2);if SUBS2 = FAIL then return FAIL; else return composition(SUBS1,SUBS2) end end end

%recursion stops

%the lists are of different sizes %both E1 and E2 are lists

#### Processed example

- (parents X (father X) (mother bill)), (parents bill (father bill) Y)
- parents =? Parents yes
- return nil
- (X (father X) (mother bill)), (bill (father bill) Y)
- X =? bill no, substitute
- return {bill/X}
- (bill (father bill) (mother bill)), (bill (father bill) Y)
- bill =? bill yes
- return nil

# Processed example (cont'd)

- ((father bill) (mother bill)), ((father bill) Y)
- bill =? bill yes
- return nil
- (father bill), (father bill)
- father =? father yes
- return nil
- (bill) (bill)
- bill =? bill yes
- return nil

# Processed example (cont'd)

- (mother bill), Y
- (mother bill) =? Y no, substitute
- return {(mother bill) / Y}
- The set of unifying substitutions for
- (parents X (father X) (mother bill)), (parents bill (father bill) Y)
- is
- {bill / X, (mother bill) / Y}.
- The result is
- (parents bill (father bill) (mother bill))

## Inference rules

- The ability to infer new correct expressions from a set of true assertions.
- An interpretation that makes a sentence true is said to satisfy that sentence.
- An expression X logically follows from a set of predicate calculus expressions (S) if every interpretation that satisfies S also satisfies X This notion gives us a basis for verifying the correctness of rules of inference.
- If the inference rule is able to produce every expression that logically follows from S, then it is said to be complete , modus ponens.

```
Ex p1=faster (bob , pat)
P2=faster (pat, steve)
p1^ p2 ===>q
= faster(X, Y) ^ faster (Y,Z) ==> faster(X,Z).
{bob|X, pat|Y, steve |Z}
q=faster(bob,steve)
```

# Satisfy, model, valid, inconsistent

- For a predicate calculus expression X and an interpretation I:
- If X has a value of T under I and a particular variable assignment, then I is said to *satisfy* X.
- If I satisfies X for all variable assignments, then
   I is a *model* of X.
- X is *satisfiable* iff there is an interpretation and variable assignment that satisfy it; otherwise it is *unsatisfiable*.

## Satisfy, model, valid, inconsistent (cont'd)

- A set of expressions is *satisfiable* iff there is an interpretation and variable assignment that satisfy every element.
- If a set of expressions is not satisfiable, it is said to be *inconsistent*.
- If X has a value T for all possible interpretations, X is said to be *valid*.

#### Logically follows, sound, and complete

- A predicate calculus expression X *logically follows* from a set S of predicate calculus expressions if every interpretation and variable assignment that satisfies S also satisfies X.
- An inference rule is *sound* if every predicate calculus expression produced by the rule from a set S of predicate calculus expressions also logically follows from S.
- An inference rule is *complete* if, given a set S of predicate calculus expressions, the rule can infer every expression that logically follows from S.

#### Modus ponens and modus tollens

 If the sentences P and P → Q are known to be true, then *modus ponens* lets us infer Q.

 If the sentence P → Q is known to be true, and the sentence Q is known to be false, *modus tollens* lets us infer ¬P.

## Example

•(S1) If John paid the electricity bill today, then he would have looked miserable when you saw him.

•(S2) John did not look miserable when you saw him.

•(S3) So John did not pay the electricity bill today.

(2) Validity & Soundness

## Modus Tollens

- The form of that argument...
  - If X, then Y
  - not-Y
  - So not-X

(2) Validity & Soundness

#### Example

- •(S1) If John paid the electricity bill today, then we do not have enough money to pay the gas bill.
- •(S2) If we do not have enough money to pay the gas bill, Lisa will be angry.
- •(S3) So if John paid the electricity bill today, then Lisa will be angry.

## Summary

- Propositional calculus: no variables or functions
- Predicate calculus: allows quantified variables as parameters of predicates or functions
- Higher order logics: allows predicates to be variables (might be needed to describe mathematical properties such as "every proposition implies itself" or "there are decidable propositions.)