

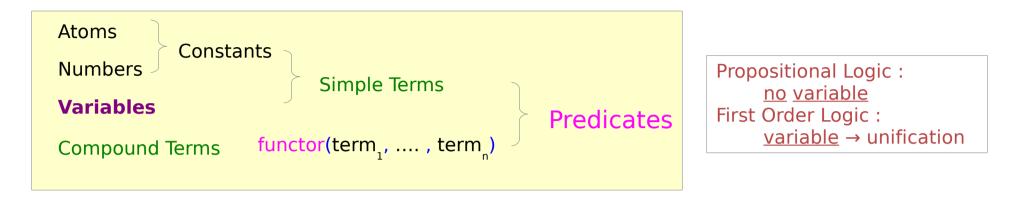
Copyright (c) 2013 Young W. Lim.

Permission is granted to copy, distribute and/or modify this document under the terms of the GNU Free Documentation License, Version 1.2 or any later version published by the Free Software Foundation; with no Invariant Sections, no Front-Cover Texts, and no Back-Cover Texts. A copy of the license is included in the section entitled "GNU Free Documentation License".

Please send corrections (or suggestions) to youngwlim@hotmail.com.

This document was produced by using OpenOffice.

Predicate Calculus



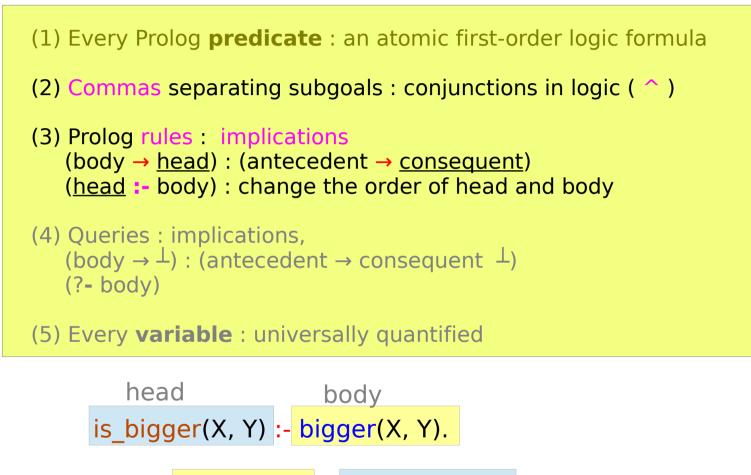
(1) Every Prolog **predicate** : an atomic first-order logic formula

(2) Commas separating subgoals : conjunctions in logic (^)

- (3) Prolog rules : implications
 (body → <u>head</u>) : (antecedent → <u>consequent</u>)
 (<u>head</u> :- body) : change the order of head and body
- (4) Queries : implications,
 (body → ⊥) : (antecedent → consequent ⊥)
 (?- body)

(5) Every variable : universally quantified

Rules

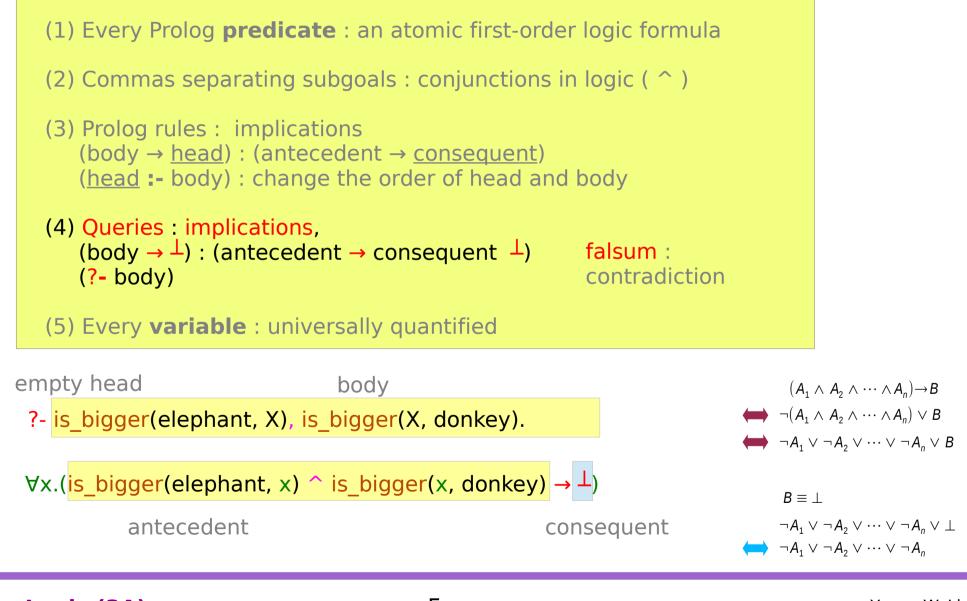


 $\forall x. \forall y. (bigger(x, y) \rightarrow is_bigger(x, y))$

antecedent consequent

Logic (3A)

Queries



Logic (3A)

First Order Logic Formulas

```
bigger(elephant, horse).

bigger(horse, donkey).

is_bigger(X, Y) :- bigger(X, Y).

is_bigger(X, Y) :- bigger(X, Z), is_bigger(Z, Y).

{

bigger(elephant, horse),

bigger(horse, donkey),

\forall x. \forall y. (bigger(x, y) \rightarrow is_bigger(x, y)),

\forall x. \forall y. \forall z. (bigger(x, z) ^ is_bigger(z, y) \rightarrow is_bigger(x, y))

}
```

Horn Formula

$$(A_{1} \land A_{2} \land \dots \land A_{n}) \rightarrow B$$

$$(\longrightarrow \neg (A_{1} \land A_{2} \land \dots \land A_{n}) \lor B$$

$$(\longrightarrow \neg A_{1} \lor \neg A_{2} \lor \dots \lor \neg A_{n} \lor B$$

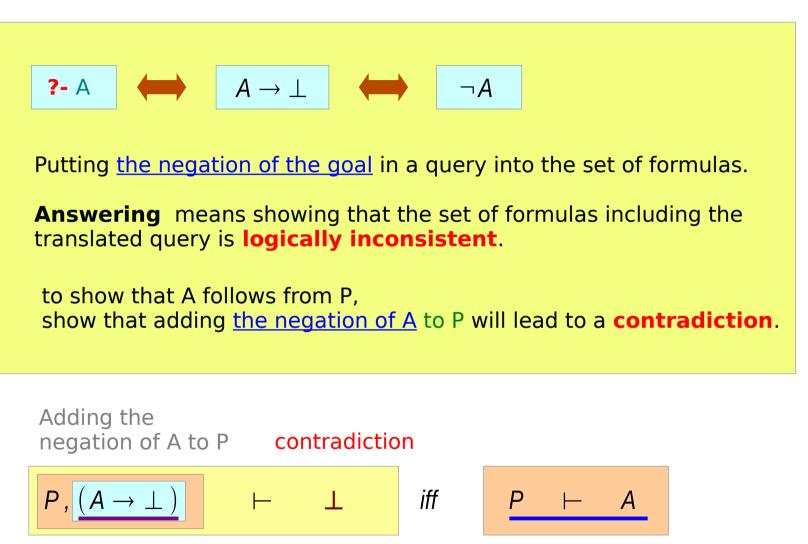
$$B \equiv \bot$$

$$\neg A_{1} \lor \neg A_{2} \lor \dots \lor \neg A_{n} \lor \bot$$

$$(\longrightarrow \neg A_{1} \lor \neg A_{2} \lor \dots \lor \neg A_{n}$$

 $\neg A_1 \lor \neg A_2 \lor \cdots \lor \neg A_n$: True when all A_i is false \rightarrow contradict This results from the negation of the goal B Therefore B follows from all A_i

Logic (3A)



the negation of A

A follows from P

Logic (3A)

Resolution in the Propositional Logic

Logic (3A)

Resolution in the First Order Logic

Propositional Logic : no variable First Order Logic : variable → unification Unification : matching in Prolog the variable instantiations for successful queries

PLANNER

if (not (goal p)), then (assert ¬p)

If the goal to prove p fails, then assert $\neg p$

NAF used to derive **not p** (p is assumed not to hold) from failure to derive p

not p can be different from the statement ¬**p** of the logical negation of p, depending on the **completeness** of the inference algorithm and thus also on the formal logic system

Prolog

NAF literals of the form of not p can occur in the <u>body of clauses</u>

Can be used to derive other NAF literals

 $p \leftarrow q \land not r$ $q \leftarrow s$ $q \leftarrow t$ t

not p : p is assumed not to hold

 $\neg \mathbf{p}$: the logical negation of p

completeness of the inference algorithm

semantically complete

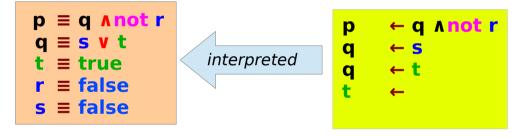
every tautology \rightarrow theorem

sound

every theorem \rightarrow tautology

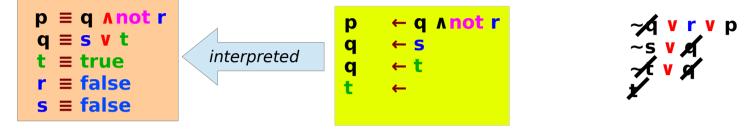
The semantics of NAF remained an open issue until Keith Clark [1978] showed that it is <u>correct</u> with respect to the <u>completion</u> of the logic program, where, loosely speaking, "only" and ← are interpreted as "if and only if", written as "iff" or "≡".

the completion of the four clauses above is



Negation As Failure – (3)

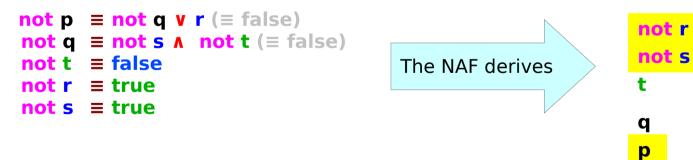
the completion of the four clauses above is



The NAF inference rule simulates reasoning explicitly with the completion,

where <u>both sides</u> of the equivalence are <u>negated</u> and <u>negation on the <u>right-hand side</u> is <u>distributed down</u> to atomic formulae.</u>

to show **not p**, NAF simulates reasoning with the equivalences



In the non-propositional case, (predicate logic with variables) the completion needs to be augmented with equality axioms, to formalise the assumption that individuals with distinct names are distinct. NAF simulates this by failure of unification.

For example, given only the two clauses

p(a) ← p(b) ← t

NAF derives not p(c).

The completion of the program is

 $p(X) \equiv X=a v X=b$ equality axioms

augmented with **unique names axioms** and **domain closure axioms**.

The completion semantics is closely related both to circumscription and to the closed world assumption.



Young W. Lifm

12/5/13

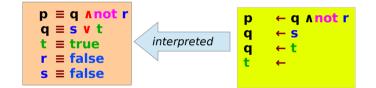
The concept of logical negation in Prolog is problematical, in the sense that the only method that Prolog can use to tell if a proposition is false is to try to prove it (from the facts and rules that it has been told about), and then if this attempt fails, it concludes that the proposition is false.

This is referred to as negation as failure.

An obvious problem is that Prolog may not have been told some critical fact or rule, so that it will not be able to prove the proposition.

In such a case, the falsity of the proposition is only relative to the "mini-world-model" defined by the facts and rules known to the Prolog interpreter. This is sometimes referred to as the <u>closed</u>-world assumption.

A less obvious problem is that, depending again on the rules and facts known to the Prolog interpreter, it may take a very long time to determine that the proposition cannot be proven. In certain cases, it might "take" infinite time.



Young W. Lim

12/5/13

Negation As Failure – (6)

Because of the problems of negation-as-failure, negation in Prolog is represented in modern Prolog interpreters using the symbol \+, which is supposed to be a mnemonic for not provable with the \ standing for not and the + for provable. In practice, current Prolog interpreters tend to support the older operator not as well, as it is present in lots of older Prolog code, which would break if not were not available.

Examples:

?- \+ (2 = 4).

true.

?- not(2 = 4).

true.

Arithmetic comparison operators in Prolog each come equipped with a **negation** which does not have a "negation as failure" problem, because it is always possible to determine, for example, if two numbers are equal, though there may be approximation issues if the comparison is between fractional (floating-point) numbers. So it is probably best to use the arithmetic comparison operators if numeric quantities are being compared. Thus, a better way to do the comparisons shown above would be:

?-2**=\=**4.

true.

Negation As Failure Example 1

```
bachelor(P) :- male(P), not(married(P)).
```

male(henry).

male(tom).

married(tom).

The first three responses are correct and as expected. The answer to the fourth query might have been unexpected at first. But consider that the goal ?-not(married(Who)) fails because for the variable binding Who=tom, married(Who) succeeds, and so the negative goal fails. Thus, negative goals ?-not(g) with variables cannot be expected to produce bindings of the variables for which the goal g fails.

Right Associative operator

```
?- bachelor(<mark>henry</mark>).
Yes
?-bachelor(tom).
```

No

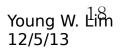
?-bachelor(**Who**). **Who=**henry; No

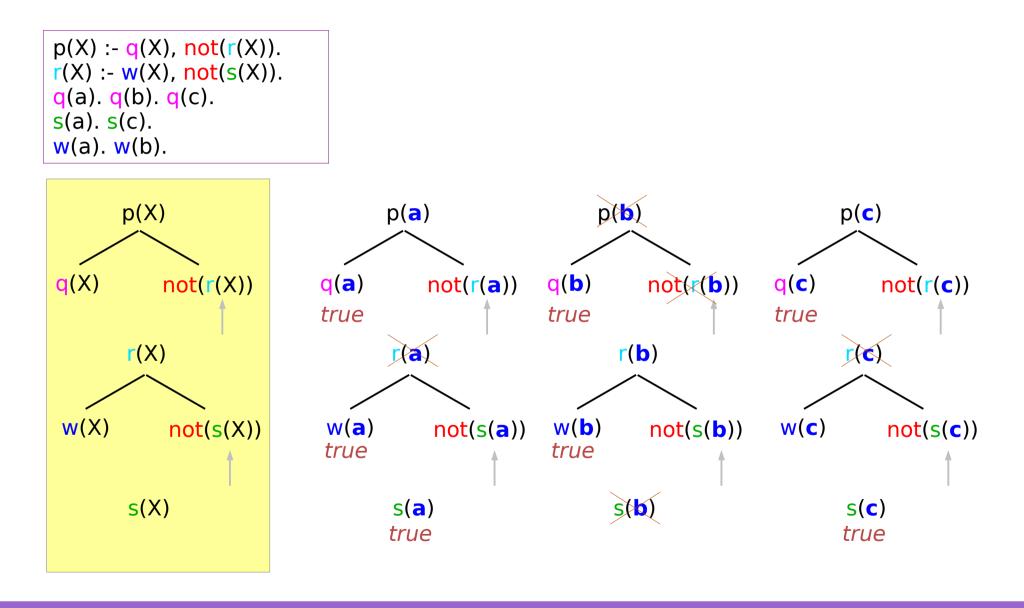
?- not(married(Who)).
No.

For the variable binding Who=tom, married(Who) succeeds <u>not(married(Who))</u> fails

Negative goals with variables **cannot** be expected to produce **bindings** of the variables for which the goals fails







^{12/05/13}(3A)

References

- [1] en.wikipedia.org
- [2] en.wiktionary.org
- [3] U. Endriss, "Lecture Notes : Introduction to Prolog Programming"
- [4] http://www.learnprolognow.org/ Learn Prolog Now!
- [5] http://www.csupomona.edu/~jrfisher/www/prolog_tutorial
- [6] www.cse.unsw.edu.au/~billw/cs9414/notes/prolog/intro.html
- [7] www.cse.unsw.edu.au/~billw/dictionaries/prolog/negation.html

Logic (3A)