Math Foundations: Predicate Calculus

- A symbolic form of logic that deals with expressing and reasoning about propositions
- Statements/queries about state of the "universe"
- Simplest form: **atomic proposition**
- Form: functor (parameters)
- man (jake) ■ Examples:
 - like (bob, redheads)
- Can either assert truth ("jake is a man") or query existing knowledge base ("is jake a man?")
- Can contain variables, which can become bound man(x)
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Compound Propositions

■ Contain two or more atomic propositions connected by various logical operators:

Name	Symbol	Example	Meaning
negation conjunction disjunction equivalence implication	∨ ≡ ⇒	\neg a a \wedge b a \vee b a \equiv b a \Leftrightarrow b a \Leftarrow b	not a a and b a or b a is equivalent to b a implies b b implies a

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Predicate Calculus: Quantifiers

- Quantifiers bind variables in propositions
 - Universal quantifier: ∀
 - ∀x.P -- means "for all x, P is true"
 - Existential quantifier: ∃ $\exists x.P$ -- means "there exists a value of x such that P is true"
 - Examples: $\forall x.(\mathsf{woman}(x) \Rightarrow \mathsf{human}(x))$ $\exists x.(mother(mary, x) \land male(x))$

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Clausal Form

- "Clausal form" is a canonical form for propositions: $B1 \vee B2 \vee ... \vee Bn \Leftarrow A1 \wedge A2 \wedge ... \wedge Am$
- Means: if all of the A's are true, at least one of the B's must be true
- Right side is the antecedent; left side is the consequent
- Examples:

 $likes(bob, mary) \Leftarrow likes(bob, redheads) \land redhead(mary)$

 $\begin{aligned} \text{father(louis, al)} &\vee \text{father(louis, violet)} \Leftarrow \text{father(al, bob)} \land \\ &\quad \text{mother(violet, bob)} \land \text{grandfather(louis,bob)} \end{aligned}$

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Horn Clauses

- A proposition with zero or one term in the consequent (left) is called a **Horn clause**
- If there are no terms, it is called a **headless** Horn clause:

man(jake)

■ If there is one term, it is a **headed** Horn clause: $person(jake) \Leftarrow man(jake)$

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Resolution

- The process of computing inferred propositions from given propositions
- Example:
- if we know:

older(joanne, jake) ← mother(joanne, jake)
wiser(joanne, jake) ← older(joanne, jake)
we can infer the proposition:

wiser(joanne, jake) ← mother(joanne, jake)

■ There are several logic rules that can be applied in resolution. In practice, the process can be quite complex.

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Prolog — Control

- The right hand sides of predicates are "evaluated" left to right
- On a right hand side, a false predicate causes the system to return to the last predicate to its left having a true value; a true result allows the evaluation of the right hand side to continue to the right.
- Collections of predicates are "examined" in their lexical (textual) order top to bottom, first to last
- Recursion!

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Prolog Control

- A reference to a predicate is like a "function call" to the collection of predicates of that name
- State of the program contains markers to last successful (i.e. True) instantiation in collections of facts or rules to support backtracking in recursion
- When all markers are beyond end of all applicable predicate collections, result is "no"

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Prolog — Modularity and Abstraction

- Facts and predicates of the same name (and same # of parameters) are collected by a Prolog system to form modules the pieces do not have to be textually contiguous
- Collections of facts and rules may be stored in separate named files
- Files are "consulted" to bring them into a workspace

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Imperatives Continued

- Comparison Operators=, \=, <, >, >=, =<, =:=■ Most Prologs support integer arithmetic expressions
- SWI Prolog supports integer and floating point math expressions well
- "Assignment" (local) uses the infix "is" operator; assigns right hand side value to variable on left: X is (3+4)

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