# Introduction to Symbolic AI

A summary for the lecture unfortunately known as "AI I"

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### 1 Mathematical Prolegomena

### Set Theory

Set theory is usually defined in terms of first-order logic, a topic which is covered in more depth in section 4.2.

The foundational relation between sets is that of membership. We write  $x \in A$  if x to express that x is a member of A. The empty set containing no elements is denoted as  $\varnothing$ .

The usual relations and operations are the following: **Set equality** Set equality is *extensional*, i.e. two sets are said to be equal iff they contain the same elements.

$$A = B \iff (\forall x. x \in A \iff x \in B)$$

**Set Inclusion** A set A is called a **subset** of a set B iff all elements of A are also elements of B. We write

$$A \subseteq B \iff (\forall x. \, x \in A \implies x \in B)$$

A set A is called a **proper subset** of a set B iff  $A \subseteq B$ and  $A \neq B$ . We write  $A \subset B$  or  $A \subseteq B$ .

### Union



Given two sets A and B we can form a new set, denoted as  $A \cup B$ , the set that contains all elements of both A and B. Its elements can be characterised as follows:

$$x \in A \cup B \iff x \in A \text{ or } x \in B$$

### Intersection



Given two sets A and B we can form a new set, denoted as  $A \cap B$ , the set that contains those elements which are members of both A and B. Its elements can be characterised as follows:

$$x \in A \cap B \iff x \in A \text{ and } x \in B$$

Two sets A and B are **disjoint** if their intersection  $A \cap B$  is empty.

### Difference



Given two sets A and B we can form a new set, denoted as  $A \setminus B$  (or sometimes A - B), the set of all elements of A that are not members of B.

**Set Comprehension** Given a set A and a formula P(x)over x we can form a new set, denoted as  $\{x \in A \mid P(x)\}\$ , the set of all elements  $x \in A$  for which P(x) holds.

Family of sets Given a set I called the index set, if we can associate to any  $i \in I$  a set  $A_i$  we call  $(A_i)_{i \in I}$  a **family** of sets indexed over I.

Big union/Big intersection Given a family  $(A_i)_{i \in I}$ we can form a new set, denoted as  $\bigcup_{i \in I} A_i$ , the set containing all elements of all  $A_i$ . Its elements can be

characterised as follows: 
$$x \in \bigcup_{i \in I} A_i \iff \exists \, i \in I. \, x \in A_i$$

Likewise, we can form the set  $\bigcap_{i \in I} A_i$  of those elements that are members of all  $A_i$ :

$$x \in \bigcap_{i \in I} A_i \iff \forall i \in I. \ x \in A_i$$

Note how the union and intersection of two sets are just special cases of their big counterparts with a two element index set.

**Disjoint Union** Let  $(A_i)_{i\in I}$  be a family of sets. Then

$$\biguplus_{i \in I} A_i := \{(i, a) \mid i \in I, a \in A_i\}$$

is their disjoint union. For a two-element index set  $I := \{0,1\}$  we write  $A_0 \uplus A_1$ .

Cartesian Product Given two sets A and B we can form a new set, denoted as  $A \times B$ , of all pairs of elements of A and B.

$$A \times B := \{(x, y) \mid x \in A, y \in B\}$$

**Power Set** Given a set A, the collection of all subsets of A is also a set, denoted as  $\mathcal{P}(A)$ .

$$\mathcal{P}(A) \coloneqq \{B \mid B \subseteq A\}$$

One may therefore use  $B \subseteq A$  and  $B \in \mathcal{P}(A)$ interchangeably.

**Kleene star** Given a set A of, the kleene star (or free monoid)  $A^*$  is the set of "words" using "characters" of A. The empty word is denoted as  $\varepsilon \in A^*$ .

## **Relations and Functions**

**Def.** A (binary) relation between two sets A and B is a subset  $R \subseteq A \times B$ . For  $x \in A$ ,  $y \in B$  one may write x R yinstead of  $(x, y) \in R$ .

**Def** (Inverse Relation). For any binary relation  $R \subseteq A \times A$ there exists the inverse relation

$$R^- := \{(y, x) \mid (x, y) \in R\}$$

**Def.** Given two binary relations  $R \subseteq A \times B$ ,  $S \subseteq B \times C$ , their **composition**  $(S \circ R) \subseteq A \times C$  is given by

$$S \circ R := \{(x,z) \mid \exists y \in B. (x,y) \in R \land (y,z) \in S\}$$

**Def.** Given a relation  $R\subseteq A\times A$  we define for  $n\in\mathbb{N}\setminus\{0\}$ :  $R^1:=R$ 

$$R^{n+1} := R \circ R^n$$

**Def** (Function). A relation  $f \subseteq A \times B$  is called

**left total** iff for any  $x \in A$  there exists a  $y \in B$  with  $x \notin A$ **right unique** iff for any  $x \in A$ ,  $y, z \in B$  with x f y and x f z it follows that y = z

A relation that is both left total and right unique is called a function. We denote such a relation as  $f: A \to B$ . For any  $x \in A$  there is a uniquely determined element in B, which we denote f(x), such that  $(x, f(x)) \in f$ .

We denote the **domain** dom(f) := A and the **codomain** codom(f) := B.

**Def.** Given two functions  $f: A \to B$  and  $g: B \to C$  their **composition**  $(g \circ f): A \to C^1$  is the function given by

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$$

**Def** (Image and Preimage). Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function and  $U \subseteq A$  a subset of A. We call the set

$$f(U) := \{ f(x) \mid x \in U \}$$

the **image** of U. Now let  $W \subset B$  be a subset of B. We call the set  $f^{-1}\left(W\right)\coloneqq\left\{ x\in A\,|\,f(x)\in W\right\}$  the **preimage** of W.

$$f^{-1}(W) := \{x \in A \mid f(x) \in W\}$$

**Def** (Properties of functions). Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function. We call f

**injective** iff for any  $x, y \in A$  with f(x) = f(y) it follows that x = y (i.e. the preimage  $f^{-1}(\{y\})$  contains at most one element for any  $y \in B$ )

 $<sup>^1 \</sup>text{Note that some authors use } f$  ; g (or even  $f \circ g)$  to denote the same function, switching the order of f and g from "applicative" (like in  $g \circ f$ ) to "diagrammatic".

surjective iff for any  $y \in B$  there exists a  $x \in A$  such that 1.1.2 Examples: Algebraic Structures f(x) = y (i.e. f(A) = B)

**bijective** iff it is both injective and surjective

**Def** ((Co)Restriction). Let  $f: A \to B$  be a function and  $U \subseteq A$  a subset of its domain. The **restriction**  $f|_U$  of fto U is the function

$$f|_U \colon U \to B$$
  
 $u \mapsto f(u)$ 

Now let  $S \subseteq B$  be a subset of f's codomain such that  $f(A) \subseteq S$ . Then the **corestriction**  $f|^{S}$  is the function

$$f|^S \colon A \to S$$
  
 $a \mapsto f(a)$ 

**Def** (Partial Function). A relation  $f \subseteq A \times B$  that is right unique is called a partial function  $f: A \rightarrow B$ . For  $x \in A$ , if it exists, the unique  $y \in B$  such that  $(x, y) \in f$  is denoted as f(x).

Equivalently, a partial function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is a function  $f: U \to B$  where  $U \subseteq A$ . The **domain** is then dom(f) := U.

**Def** (Properties of Relations). Let A be a set and  $R \subseteq A \times A$ be a relation. R is called

**reflexive** iff x R x for any  $x \in A$ 

**symmetric** iff for all  $x, y \in A$  with x R y it follows that y R x

**transitive** iff for all  $x, y, z \in A$  with x R y and y R z it follows that x R z

**antisymmetric** iff forall  $x, y \in A$  with x R y and y R xit follows that x = y

**Def.** A relation  $\sim \subseteq A \times$  that is reflexive, symmetric and transitive is called an equivalence.

**Def.** A relation  $\prec \subseteq A \times$  that is reflexive, antisymmetric and transitive is called a partial order.

**Def** (Reflexive Closure). Given a relation  $R \subseteq A \times A$ , its **reflexive closure**  $R \cup id$  is the smallest reflexive relation containing R.

**Def** (Symmetric Closure). Given a relation  $R \subseteq A \times A$ , its symmetric closure  $R \cup R^-$  is the smallest symmetric relation containing R.

**Def** (Transitive Closure). Given a relation  $R \subseteq A \times A$ , its transitive closure  $R^+$  is the smallest transitive relation containing R. It is given by

$$R^+ := R \cup (R \circ R) \cup (R \circ R \circ R) \cup \dots = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} R^n$$

**Def.** A set A is finite with cardinality  $|A| \in \mathbb{N}$  if there is a bijection  $\varrho \colon A \to \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n < |A|\}.$ 

Ex (Cardinalities).

- $|\varnothing| = 0$
- $|\{\text{foo, bar, baz}\}| = 3$

**Def.** A set A is **countable** if there is a bijection  $\varrho: A \to \mathbb{N}$ .

Equipping sets with operations and laws for those operations leads to several natural structures. Functions between those "sets with structure" that behave well (i.e. are "structure preserving") are called **homomorphisms**.<sup>2</sup>

**Def.** A magma  $(M, \otimes)$  is a set M with a binary operation  $\otimes \colon M \times M \to M.$ 

A magma-homomorphism  $\varrho$  between two magmas  $(M, \otimes), (N, \oplus)$  is a function  $\varrho \colon M \to N$  such that for all  $a, b \in M$ 

$$\varrho(a\otimes b)=\varrho(a)\oplus\varrho(b)$$

**Def.** A monoid  $(M, \otimes, e)$  is a magma  $(M, \otimes)$  together with a **neutral element**  $e \in M$  such that

•  $\otimes$ :  $M \times M \to M$  is associative:

$$\forall x, y, z \in M. (x \otimes y) \otimes z = x \otimes (y \otimes z)$$

•  $e \in M$  is neutral:

$$\forall\,x\in M.\,x\otimes e=x=e\otimes x$$

A monoid homomorphism  $\rho$  between two monoids  $(M, \otimes, e_M), (N, \oplus, e_N)$  is a magma-homomorphism  $\varrho \colon M \to N$  such that

$$\varrho(e_M) = e_N$$

Ex (Monoids).

 $A^*$ : For any set A, the kleene-star  $A^*$  forms a monoid with word concatenation and the empty word.

strings: In most programming languages strings with string concatenation and the empty string form a monoid. This is in fact a special case of the above example<sup>3</sup> with  $A := \operatorname{char}$ 

**endo-functions** For any set A, the set of "endo"-functions  $A^A := \{f : A \to A\}$  on A forms a monoid with function composition and the neutral element

$$id_A : A \to A$$
  
 $a \mapsto a$ 

### Computability Theory 1.2

## **Rational Agents**

**Def.** An **agent** is an entity that

- perceives (via sensors)
- acts (via actuators)

**Def** (Agent function). A **percept** is the perceptual input of an agent at some instant.

A **action** is an employment of actuators. Let a be an agent that perceives percepts from a set P and can perform actions from a set A. The **agent function**  $f_a$  of a is a function

$$f_a\colon P^*\to A$$

**Def.** An **agent program** is an algorithm that implements an agent function.

**Def.** A **performance measure** is a function evaluating a sequence of environments.

An agent acts **rationally** if its choice of actions maximise the expected value of the performance measure.

**Def** (PEAS). A task environment is given by

- Performance measure
- Environment
- Actuators
- Sensors

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>This would quite naturally lead to a discussion of category theory, but that is beyond the scope of this lecture and summary

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>shying away from any unicode shenanigans

**Environments** An environment E of an agent a is called

- fully observable if a's sensors have access to the complete state of E (else partially observable).
- **deterministic** if the next state of *E* is completely determined by its current state and *a*'s action (else **stochastic**).
- episodic if E can be divided into atomic (where a perceives and performs a single action) episodes (else sequential).
- **dynamic** if *E* can change without *a* performing an action, **semidynamic** if only the performance measure changes (else **static**)
- **discrete** if the set of states of *E* and the set of actions of *a* are countable (else **continuous**)
- **single agent** if only one agent acts on the environment (else **multi-agent**)

### 2.1 Agent Types

Simple reflex agent An agent that bases its actions only on the last percept. The agent function reduces to  $f_a: P \to A$ .

Model-based agent A reflex agent that maintains a world model to determine its actions. The agent function depends on

- $\bullet$  a set S of states
- a sensor model  $\varrho: S \times P \to S$  that determines the next state given the current state and a percept
- a transition model  $\tau \colon S \times A \to S$
- an action function  $f: S \to A$

The agent function is then given by  $p \mapsto f(\tau(\varrho(s, p), a))$ .

Goal-based agent A model-based agent with a transition model  $T: S \to S$  and a set  $G \subseteq S$  of goals. Its goal function f selects an action to best reach G.

**Utility-based agent** An agent with a world model and a utility function that evaluates states. The agent chooses actions to maximise the expected utility.

**Def.** A state representation is

- atomic if it has no internal structure
- factored if each state is characterized by attributes and their values
- **structured** if each state includes representations of objects and their relationships

# 3 Solving Problems by Searching

**Def** (Search Problem). A **search problem** is a tuple  $(S, A, \tau, I, G)$  where

- S is a set of **states**
- A is a set of actions
- $\tau: A \times S \to \mathcal{P}(S)$  is a **transition model** that assigns to an action and a state a set of successor states
- $I \subseteq S$  is a set of **initial states**
- $G \subseteq S$  is a set of **goal states**

A **solution** to a search problem  $(S, A, \tau, I, G)$  is a sequence  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  of actions such that there exists a sequence  $s_0, s_1, s_n$  of states where

- $s_0 \in I$
- $\tau(a_i, s_{i-1}) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $1 \leq i < n(a_i \text{ is applicable to } s_{i-1})$
- $s_i \in \tau(a_i, s_{i-1})$  for all  $1 \le i < n$
- $s_n \in G$

**Def.** Let  $\Pi := (S, A, \tau, I, G)$  be a search problem. A **cost function** is a function  $c: A \to \mathbb{R}^+$  that assigns a cost to an action. The cost of a solution  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  is given by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c(a_i)$$

**Def.** A search problem  $(S, A, \tau, I, G)$  is called **deterministic** if

- there is exactly one initial state,  $I = \{s_0\}$
- $\tau(a,s)$  contains at most one successor state

**Def.** Let  $\Pi := (S, A, \tau, I, G)$  be a search problem. A **heuristic** for  $\Pi$  is a function  $h \colon S \to \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{\infty\}$  so that h(s) = 0 for all  $s \in G$ .

**Def.** Let  $\Pi := (S, A, \tau, I, G)$  be a search problem. Then the **goal distance function**  $h^* : S \to \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{\infty\}$  maps a state s to the cost of the cheapest path from from s to some goal state.

**Def.** Let  $\Pi := (S, A, \tau, I, G)$  be a search problem and  $h: S \to \mathbb{R}^+ \cup \{\infty\}$  a heuristic for  $\Pi$ . h is called **admissible** if it always underestimates, i.e.

$$\forall s \in S. h(s) \leq h^{\star}(s)$$

### 3.1 Adversarial Search

### 3.2 Constraint Satisfaction

**Def** (Constraint Satisfaction Problem). A **constraint** satisfaction problem  $(V,(D_v)_{v\in V},C)$  consist of

- $\bullet$  a set of variables V
- a domain  $D_v$  for each variable  $v \in V$
- $\bullet\,$  a set C of "constraints" (a proposition containing finitely many variables)

**Def.** Constraints are classified by the number of constraint variables they involve:

- Unary constraints involve a single variable
- Binary constraints involve two variables
- Higher-Order constraints involve more than two variables

A constraint network is callled **binary** iff all of its constraints are binary.

**Prop.** Any higher-order constraint can be equivalently expressed by a finite set of binary constraints by introducing additional variables.

**Def.** Given a binary CSP, a constraint network  $(V,(D_v)_{v\in V},C)$  consist of

- $\bullet$  a set V of variables
- a domain  $D_v$  for each variable  $v \in V$
- a set of constraints

$$C := \{C_{u,v} \subseteq D_u \times D_v \mid u, v \in V, u \neq v\}$$

**Def.** Let  $\gamma := (V, (D_v)_{v \in V}, C)$  be a constraint network. A **variable assignment** is a partial function  $\varphi \colon V \to \bigcup_{v \in V} D_v$  such that  $\varphi(v) \in D_v$  for all  $v \in \text{dom}(\varphi)$ . If  $\varphi$  is left total, we call it a **total** variable assignment.

**Def.** Let  $\gamma := (V, (D_v)_{v \in V}, C)$  be a constraint network and  $\varphi \colon V \rightharpoonup \bigcup_{v \in V} D_v$  a variable assignment.

 $\varphi$  satisfies a constraint  $C_{u,v}$  iff  $u,v \in \text{dom}(\varphi)$  and  $(\varphi(u),\varphi(v)) \in C_{u,v}$ 

 $\varphi$  is **consistent** with  $\gamma$  iff it satisfies all constraints in  $\gamma$ .

**Def.** Let  $\varphi, \varrho$  be variable assignments.  $\varphi$  **extends**  $\varrho$  iff  $\operatorname{dom}(\varrho) \subseteq \operatorname{dom}(\varphi)$  and  $\varphi|_{\operatorname{dom}\varrho} = \varrho$  (i.e.  $\varrho$  agrees with the restriction of  $\varphi$  to  $\varrho$ 's domain)

**Def.** A solution of a constraint-network  $\gamma$  is a consistent (total) variable assignment.

#### Constraint Propagation 3.2.1

**Def.** Two constraint networks  $\gamma \coloneqq (V, (D_v)_{v \in V}, C)$  and  $\gamma' \coloneqq (V, (D'_v)_{v \in V}, C')$  are **equivalent** iff they have the same solutions. We write  $\gamma \equiv \gamma'$ 

 $\gamma'$  is **tighter** than  $\gamma$  iff

•  $D'_v \subseteq D_v$  for all  $v \in V$ •  $C'_{u,v} \notin C$  or  $C'_{u,v} \subseteq C_{u,v}$  for all  $u,v \in V$ ,  $u \neq v$  and  $C'_{u,v} \in C'$ 

We write  $\gamma' \sqsubseteq \gamma$ .

**Prop.** Let  $\gamma, \gamma'$  be constraint networks such that  $\gamma' \sqsubseteq \gamma$ and  $\gamma \equiv \gamma'$ . Then  $\gamma'$  has the same solutions, but fewer consistent assignments than  $\gamma$ .

**Def** (Forward Checking). Let  $\gamma:=(V,(D_v)_{v\in V},C)$  be a constraint network,  $u\in V$  a variable and  $\varphi$  be a variable assignment for  $\gamma$  such that  $u \in \text{dom}(\varphi)$ . The process of obtaining an equivalent constraint network

$$\gamma' := (V, (D'_v)_{v \in V}, C)$$
 where  $D'_v = \{d \in D_v \mid C_{u,v} \in C \implies (\varphi(u), d) \in C_{u,v}\}$  is called **forward checking**.

**Def** (Arc Consistency). Let  $\gamma \coloneqq (V, (D_v)_{v \in V}, C)$  be a constraint network. A variable  $u \in V$  is  $\operatorname{arc\ consistent}$  relative to  $v \in V$  if either  $C_{u,v} \not\in C$  or for every  $d \in D_u$  there exists a  $t \in D_v$  such that  $(d, t) \in C_{u,v}$ .  $\gamma$  is arc consistent if every variable  $u \in V$  is arc consistent to every variable  $v \in V$ .

The process of obtaining an equivalent constraint network  $\gamma' := (V, (D'_v)_{v \in V}, C)$  where

$$D'_{v} = \bigcap_{u \in V} \left\{ d \in D_{v} \mid C_{v,u} \in C \implies \exists d' \in D_{u}. (d, d') \in C_{v,u} \right\}$$

is called **arc consistency**.

### 4 Logic

### 4.1 Propositional Logic

The set  $P(\mathcal{V})$  of formulae of propositional logic are given by

$,B\coloneqq X$	variable
T	$\operatorname{truth}$
	falsity
$  \neg A$	negation
$ A \wedge B $	conjunction
$\mid A \lor B$	disjunction
$A \implies B$	implication
$A \iff B$	equivalence

where  $X \in \mathcal{V}$  is in the set of variables  $\mathcal{V}$ .

**Def.** A model  $(\mathcal{D}, [\![-]\!]_-)$  for propositional logic consist of

- a universe  $\mathcal{D}$  (typically the two-element boolean algebra)
- an interpretation function [-] that assigns meaning to all connectives
- a family of value functions  $\llbracket \rrbracket_{\varphi} : P(\mathcal{V}) \to \mathcal{D}$  where  $\varphi \colon \mathcal{V} \to \mathcal{D}$  is a variable assignment.

It is defined recursively using the interpretation function:

$$\begin{split} \llbracket X \rrbracket_{\varphi} &= \varphi(X) \\ \llbracket \neg A \rrbracket_{\varphi} &= \llbracket \neg \rrbracket \left( \llbracket A \rrbracket_{\varphi} \right) \\ \llbracket A \wedge B \rrbracket_{\varphi} &= \llbracket \wedge \rrbracket \left( \llbracket A \rrbracket_{\varphi} , \llbracket B \rrbracket_{\varphi} \right) \\ & \vdots \end{split}$$

Two formulae A and B are called **equivalent** iff  $[\![A]\!]_{\varphi} = [\![B]\!]_{\varphi}$  for all assignments  $\varphi$ .

						$\Longrightarrow$			
	I	$\perp$	$\perp$	T	$\top$	$\perp$	Т	T	
T	$\perp$	T	T	Т	$\vdash$	T		T	

**Def** (Entailment). Let  $\varphi$  be a variable assignment, A a propositional formula. We write  $\varphi \models A$  for  $[\![A]\!]_{\varphi} = \top$ .

Now let B be a propositional formula. If it holds that for all  $\varphi$  such that  $\varphi \models A$  it is also the case that  $\varphi \models B$ , then we write  $A \vDash B$ .

**Def.** Let  $\mathcal{M} := (\mathcal{D}, [\![-]\!]_-)$  be a model. A formula A is called

- true under  $\varphi$  if  $[\![A]\!]_{\varphi} = \top$
- false under  $\varphi$  if  $[\![A]\!]_{\varphi} = \bot$
- satisfiable in  $\mathcal{M}$  if there exists a  $\varphi$  such that  $[\![A]\!]_{\varphi} = \top$
- valid in  $\mathcal{M}$  if  $[\![A]\!]_{\varphi} = \top$  for all  $\varphi$
- falsifiable in  $\mathcal M$  if there exists a  $\varphi$  such that  $[\![A]\!]_{\varphi}=\bot$
- unsatisfiable in  $\mathcal{M}$  if  $[\![A]\!]_{\omega} = \bot$  for all  $\varphi$

**Def** (Deduction). A relation  $\vdash_C \subseteq \mathcal{P}(P(\mathcal{V})) \times P(\mathcal{V})$  is called a **derivation relation** iff

- $\Gamma \vdash_C A \text{ if } A \in \Gamma$
- if  $\Gamma \vdash_C A$  and  $\Gamma' \cup \{A\} \vdash_C B$  then  $\Gamma \cup \Gamma' \vdash_C B$  if  $\Gamma \vdash_C A$  and  $\Gamma \subseteq \Gamma'$  then  $\Gamma' \vdash_C A$

**Def.** A formula A is called a **theorem** in a calculus C if there exists a **proof**  $\vdash_C A$ .

**Def** (Inference Rule). Derivation relations are typically defined inductively, i.e. via a set C of **inference rules** like

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash_C A \quad \Gamma \vdash_C A \implies B}{\Gamma \vdash_C B}$$

An inference rule  $\frac{\Gamma \vdash A_1 \dots \Gamma \vdash A_n}{C}$  is called **derivable** in a calculus  $\vdash_C$  if there is a derivation  $A_1, \ldots, A_n \vdash_C C$ .

An inference rule is called **admissible** in a calculus Cif its addition does not produce new theorems.

**Def.** Let  $\vdash_C$  be a derivation relation. There are two ways to relate deduction and entailment:

**Soundness**  $\vdash_C$  is **sound** if whenever  $A \vdash_C B$  then  $A \models B$ . Completeness  $\vdash_C$  is complete if whenever  $A \vDash B$  then  $A \vdash_C B$ 

#### **Propositional Natural Deduction** 4.1.1

A bracketed formula like [A] indicates that its proof is in **context**. A context is a set of formulae that we currently assume to be true. Taking the introduction rule for implication as an example, we can see that this means that to prove  $A \implies B$  we must provide a proof of B, assuming A.

Sequent Style We can make this more explicit by switching to "sequent-style" natural deduction. This introduces the operator  $\vdash$ , which takes as its left argument a context and as its right argument a formula.  $\Gamma \vdash A$  asserts that A can be proven using only the context  $\Gamma$ . We can change most natural deduction rules that do not involve contexts quite easily, i.e.  $\wedge_I$  becomes

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \quad \Gamma \vdash B}{\Gamma \vdash A \land B} \land_{\mathrm{I}}$$

For notational convenience, we write  $\Gamma, A$  for the context obtained "extending" a context  $\Gamma$  with a formula A, i.e.  $\Gamma \cup \{A\}$ . For a singleton context  $\{A\}$  we will omit the curly braces and just write A.

Those rules where we previously used bracketed formulae to indicate assumptions are changed as follows:

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \lor B \qquad \Gamma, A \vdash C \qquad \Gamma, B \vdash C}{C} \lor_{\mathcal{E}}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma, A \vdash B}{A \Longrightarrow B} \Longrightarrow_{\mathcal{I}} \qquad \frac{\Gamma, A \vdash C \qquad \Gamma, A \vdash \neg C}{\neg A} \lnot_{\mathcal{I}}$$

Figure 1: Sequent-style propositional rules of natural deduction

Since we want to be more explicit about the use of contexts, we add a separate rule for proving a formula that is in the current context:

$$\frac{P \in \Gamma}{\Gamma \vdash P}$$
 ctx

Fitch Style This is another notation used prominently in the GLoIn lecture<sup>4</sup>. The calculus used is the same, namely natural deduction, but the proof tree is "linearized" such that it can be written down more easily. Consider the two proofs in Figure 2, done in fitch/sequent style: The proofs look similar, ignoring the obvious difference that the fitch "proof tree" grows from left to right, not bottom to top. The main difference is in how we deal with assumptions. Starting a subproof with an assumption in fitch-style corresponds to adding the formula to the current context in a new branch of the sequent-style proof tree. Using a formula from the context is implicit in the fitch proof.

**Def** (Test calculus). One can exploit the fact that A valid  $\iff \neg A$  unsatisfiable

This means that to prove a formula A valid, it suffices to show that  $\neg A \vdash_T \bot$ .

### 4.1.2 Propositional Tableau

$$\frac{(A \wedge B)^{\top}}{(A)^{\top}} \qquad \frac{(A \wedge B)^{\perp}}{(A)^{\perp}} \\
\frac{(-A)^{\top}}{(A)^{\perp}} \qquad \frac{(-A)^{\perp}}{(A)^{\top}} \\
\frac{(A \Rightarrow B)^{\top}}{(A)^{\perp}} \qquad \frac{(A \Rightarrow B)^{\perp}}{(A)^{\top}} \\
\frac{(A \Rightarrow B)^{\top}}{(A)^{\perp}} \qquad \frac{(A \Rightarrow B)^{\perp}}{(A)^{\top}} \\
\frac{(A \vee B)^{\top}}{(B)^{\perp}} \qquad \frac{(A \vee B)^{\perp}}{(A)^{\perp}} \\
\frac{(A)^{\alpha}}{(B)^{\perp}} \qquad \frac{(A)^{\alpha}}{(B)^{\perp}}$$

Figure 3: Rules of the analytical tableau calculus

**Def** (Tableau). A tree produces by the above inference rules of is called a tableau. A tableau is saturated if no rule adds new material. A branch is **closed** if it ends in  $\perp$ . A tableau is **closed** if all of its branches are.

### 4.1.3 Resolution

Resolution is a test calculus that operates on formulae in conjunctive normal form. The calculus then consist of just two rules:

$$\frac{(A)^{\top} \vee C \quad (B)^{\perp} \vee D \quad \sigma = \mathrm{mgu}(A, B)}{\sigma(C) \vee \sigma(D)}$$
$$\frac{A^{\alpha} \vee B^{\alpha} \vee C \quad \sigma = \mathrm{mgu}(A, B)}{\sigma(A) \vee \sigma(C)}$$

Figure 4: Rules of the resolution calculus

### Unification

$$\begin{split} S \cup \{x \doteq x\} \to S & \text{(delete)} \\ S \cup \{f(E_1, \dots, E_n) \doteq f(D_1, \dots, D_n)\} & \text{(decomp)} \\ \to S \cup \{E_1 \doteq D_1, \dots, E_n \doteq D_n\} & \\ S \cup \{f(E_1, \dots, E_n) \doteq g(D_1, \dots, D_m)\} \to \bot & \text{(conflict)} \\ S \cup \{E \doteq x\} \to S \cup \{x \doteq E\} & \text{(orient)} \\ S \cup \{x \doteq E\} \to & \\ \begin{cases} \bot & x \in \text{free}(E), x \neq E \\ S \ [E/x] \cup \{x \doteq E\} & x \not\in \text{free}(S), x \in \text{free}(S) \end{cases} & \\ & \text{(occurs/elim)} \end{split}$$

### 4.2 First-Order Logic

**Def** (Signature). A signature is a tuple  $\Sigma := (\Sigma^f, \Sigma^p, ar)$ 

- $\Sigma^f$  is a set of function symbols
- $\Sigma^p$  is a set of **predicate symbols**
- ar:  $\Sigma^f \uplus \Sigma^p \to \mathbb{N}$  is a function assigning each symbol an arity, i.e. the number of arguments it takes.

We write  $\Sigma_n^{\rm f}$  and  $\Sigma_n^{\rm p}$  for the sets of *n*-ary function and predicate symbols, respectively.

**Def** (Terms). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a set of variables,  $\Sigma$  a signature. The set of **terms**  $\operatorname{wf}_{\iota}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$  is defined by

- $\mathcal{V} \subseteq \operatorname{wf}_{\iota}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$  if  $f \in \Sigma_n^f$  and  $A_1, \dots A_n \in \operatorname{wf}_{\iota}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$  then  $f(A_1, \dots, A_n) \in \operatorname{wf}_{\iota}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$

**Def** (Propositions). Let  $\mathcal{V}$  be a set of variables,  $\Sigma$  a signature. The set of **propositions** wf( $\mathcal{V}, \Sigma$ ) is defined by

- if  $P \in \Sigma_n^p$  and  $A_1, \dots, A_n \in \operatorname{wf}_{\iota}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$  then  $P(A_1, \dots, A_n) \in \operatorname{wf}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$
- if  $A, B \in \text{wf}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$  then  $\neg A, A \land B, A \lor B, A \implies B \in$  $\operatorname{wf}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$
- $\top, \bot \in wf(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$
- if  $v \in \mathcal{V}$  and  $A \in \text{wf}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$  then  $\forall v. A, \exists v. A \in \text{wf}(\mathcal{V}, \Sigma)$

**Def** (Free Variables). Given a formula A, the set  $free(A) \subset \mathcal{V}$  of **free** variables of A contains those variables

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>This section is mainly intended to help students that have taken that lecture carry over their intution. Fitch style is not actually covered in the lecture at hand.

Figure 2: Comparison of Fitch and Sequent Styles

in A that are not **bound** by a quantifier.

$$free(v) = \{v\}$$

$$free(f(A_1, ..., A_n)) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n free(A_i)$$

$$free(P(A_1, ..., A_n)) = \bigcup_{i=1}^n free(A_i)$$

$$free(\bot) = free(\top) = \varnothing$$

$$free(A \wedge B) = free(A \vee B) = free(A) \cup free(B)$$

$$free(\forall v. A) = free(\exists v. A) = free(A) \setminus \{v\}$$

**Def** (Substitution). A substitution is a function  $\sigma \colon \mathcal{V} \to \mathcal{V}$  $\operatorname{wf}_{\iota}(\mathcal{V})$  with finite **support** (i.e the set  $\{x \mid x \neq \sigma(x)\}$  is finite). We denote by [A/X] the substitution that maps the variable X to the term A and behaves like the identity function on all other variables. A perhaps preferable notation would be [X := A], but we will stick with the above.

Applying a substitution  $\sigma$  to a term/formula is done via recursion over the syntatic structure:

# On terms

$$v \sigma = \sigma(v)$$
 (where  $v \in \mathcal{V}$ )  
 $f(A_1, \dots, A_n) \sigma = f(A_1 \sigma, \dots, A_n \sigma)$   
(where  $f \in \Sigma_n^f, A_1, \dots, A_n \in \operatorname{wf}_{\iota}(\mathcal{V})$ )

# On formulae

$$P(A_1, \dots, A_n) \sigma = P(A_1 \sigma, \dots, A_n \sigma)$$
(where  $P \in \Sigma_n^p$  and  $A_1, \dots, A_n \in \operatorname{wf}_{\iota}(V, \Sigma)$ )
$$\bot \sigma = \bot$$

 $(\neg A) \sigma = \neg (A \sigma)$  $(A \wedge B) \sigma = A \sigma \wedge B \sigma$ 

 $(\forall X. A) \sigma = \begin{cases} \forall X. (A \sigma) & X \not\in \{\text{free}(B) \mid B \in \mathbf{q}. \mathcal{G}. \mathbf{2}\} \\ \forall X'. ((A [X'/X]) \sigma) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$   $4.4 \quad \text{Planni}$ 

### First-Order Natural Deduction

We extend propositional natural deduction with the rules shown in Figure 5.

#### 422 Free Variable Tableau

This tableau calculus extends the propositional tableau with the rules shown in Figure 6.

$$\frac{(\forall X.A)^{\top} \quad Y \text{ fresh}}{(A \ [Y/X])^{\top}}$$

$$\frac{(\forall X.A)^{\bot} \quad \{X_1, \dots, X_k\} = \text{free}(\forall X.A) \quad f \in \Sigma_k^{\text{sk}} \text{ new}}{(A \ [f(X_1, \dots, X_k)/X])^{\bot}}$$

$$\frac{(\exists X.A)^{\top} \quad \{X_1, \dots, X_k\} = \text{free}(\exists X.A) \quad f \in \Sigma_k^{\text{sk}} \text{ new}}{(A \ [f(X_1, \dots, X_k)/X])^{\top}}$$

$$\frac{(\exists X.A)^{\bot} \quad Y \text{ fresh}}{(A \ [Y/X])^{\bot}}$$

Figure 6: Additional Rules of the Free Variable Tableau

### First-Order Resolution

$$\frac{\{\forall X. A \lor C\} \qquad Z \not\in (\operatorname{free}(A) \cup \operatorname{free}(C))}{\{(A \ [Z/X]) \lor C\}}$$

$$\frac{\{\exists X. A \lor C\} \qquad \{X_1, \dots, X_k\} = \operatorname{free}(\exists X. A) \qquad f \in \Sigma_k^{\operatorname{sk}}}{\{(A \ [f(X_1, \dots, X_k)/X]) \lor C\}}$$
Figure 7: First-Order CNF-Calculus

# 4.3 Knowledge Representation

#### 4.3.1 Semantic Networks

Def. A semantic network is a directed graph where nodes represent objects and concepts edges represent relations between nodes

# 4.4 Planning

### References

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\$Id: symbolic-ai.tex,v 1.28 2025/03/12 14:14:07 oc45ujef Exp \$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \ [C/X] \quad C \not\in \operatorname{free}(\Gamma)}{\Gamma \vdash \forall X.A} \ \forall_{\operatorname{I}} \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \forall X.A}{\Gamma \vdash A \ [B/X]} \ \forall_{\operatorname{E}}$$
 
$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash A \ [E/X]}{\Gamma \vdash \exists X.A} \ \exists_{\operatorname{I}} \qquad \qquad \frac{\Gamma \vdash \exists X.A \quad \Gamma, (A \ [c/X]) \vdash C \quad c \in \Sigma_0^{\operatorname{sk}} \ \operatorname{new}}{\Gamma \vdash C} \ \exists_{\operatorname{E}}$$

Figure 5: Additional Rules of FO Natural Deduction