First-Order Logic

Outline

- First-order logic
 - Properties, relations, functions, quantifiers, ...
 - Terms, sentences, axioms, theories, proofs, ...
- Extensions to first-order logic
- Logical agents
 - Reflex agents
 - Representing change: situation calculus, frame problem
 - Preferences on actions
 - Goal-based agents

First-order logic

- First-order logic (FOL) models the world in terms of
 - Objects, which are things with individual identities
 - **Properties** of objects that distinguish them from other objects
 - **Relations** that hold among sets of objects
 - Functions, which are a subset of relations where there is only one "value" for any given "input"
- Examples:
 - Objects: Students, lectures, companies, cars ...
 - Relations: Brother-of, bigger-than, outside, part-of, has-color, occurs-after, owns, visits, precedes, ...
 - Properties: blue, oval, even, large, ...
 - Functions: father-of, best-friend, second-half, one-more-than ...

User provides

- Constant symbols, which represent individuals in the world
 - Mary
 - -3
 - Green
- Function symbols, which map individuals to individuals
 - father-of(Mary) = John
 - $-\operatorname{color-of}(\mathrm{Sky}) = \mathrm{Blue}$
- Predicate symbols, which map individuals to truth values
 - -greater(5,3)
 - green(Grass)
 - color(Grass, Green)

FOL Provides

- Variable symbols
 - E.g., x, y, foo
- Connectives
 - Same as in PL: not (\neg) , and (\land) , or (\lor) , implies (\rightarrow) , if and only if (biconditional \leftrightarrow)
- Quantifiers
 - Universal $\forall x \text{ or } (Ax)$
 - Existential **∃x** or **(Ex)**

Sentences are built from terms and atoms

- A term (denoting a real-world individual) is a constant symbol, a variable symbol, or an n-place function of n terms.
 x and f(x₁, ..., x_n) are terms, where each x_i is a term.
 A term with no variables is a ground term
- An **atomic sentence** (which has value true or false) is an n-place predicate of n terms
- A complex sentence is formed from atomic sentences connected by the logical connectives:
 ¬P, P∨Q, P∧Q, P→Q, P↔Q where P and Q are sentences
- A **quantified sentence** adds quantifiers \forall and \exists
- A **well-formed formula (wff)** is a sentence containing no "free" variables. That is, all variables are "bound" by universal or existential quantifiers.

 $(\forall x)P(x,y)$ has x bound as a universally quantified variable, but y is free.

Quantifiers

- Universal quantification
 - $-(\forall x)P(x)$ means that P holds for **all** values of x in the domain associated with that variable
 - $-E.g., (\forall x) dolphin(x) \rightarrow mammal(x)$
- Existential quantification
 - $-(\exists x)P(x)$ means that P holds for **some** value of x in the domain associated with that variable
 - -E.g., ($\exists x$) mammal(x) \land lays-eggs(x)
 - Permits one to make a statement about some object without naming it

Quantifiers

- Universal quantifiers are often used with "implies" to form "rules":
 (∀x) student(x) → smart(x) means "All students are smart"
- Universal quantification is *rarely* used to make blanket statements about every individual in the world:

 $(\forall x)$ student(x) \land smart(x) means "Everyone in the world is a student and is smart"

• Existential quantifiers are usually used with "and" to specify a list of properties about an individual:

 $(\exists x)$ student $(x) \land$ smart(x) means "There is a student who is smart"

• A common mistake is to represent this English sentence as the FOL sentence:

 $(\exists x)$ student $(x) \rightarrow$ smart(x)

– But what happens when there is a person who is *not* a student?

Quantifier Scope

• Switching the order of universal quantifiers *does not* change the meaning:

 $-(\forall x)(\forall y)P(x,y) \leftrightarrow (\forall y)(\forall x) P(x,y)$

• Similarly, you can switch the order of existential quantifiers:

 $- (\exists x)(\exists y)P(x,y) \leftrightarrow (\exists y)(\exists x) P(x,y)$

- Switching the order of universals and existentials *does* change meaning:
 - Everyone likes someone: $(\forall x)(\exists y)$ likes(x,y)
 - Someone is liked by everyone: $(\exists y)(\forall x)$ likes(x,y)

Connections between All and Exists

We can relate sentences involving \forall and \exists using De Morgan's laws:

 $(\forall x) \neg P(x) \leftrightarrow \neg(\exists x) P(x)$ $\neg(\forall x) P \leftrightarrow (\exists x) \neg P(x)$ $(\forall x) P(x) \leftrightarrow \neg(\exists x) \neg P(x)$ $(\exists x) P(x) \leftrightarrow \neg(\forall x) \neg P(x)$

Quantified inference rules

- Universal instantiation
 - $\forall x P(x) \therefore P(A)$
- Universal generalization
 - $P(A) \wedge P(B) \dots \therefore \forall x P(x)$
- Existential instantiation
 - $\exists x P(x) \therefore P(F)$

- $\leftarrow skolem \ constant \ F$
- Existential generalization
 - $P(A) \therefore \exists x P(x)$

Universal instantiation (a.k.a. universal elimination)

- If (∀x) P(x) is true, then P(C) is true, where C is *any* constant in the domain of x
- Example:

 $(\forall x)$ eats $(Ziggy, x) \Rightarrow$ eats(Ziggy, IceCream)

• The variable symbol can be replaced by any ground term, i.e., any constant symbol or function symbol applied to ground terms only

Existential instantiation (a.k.a. existential elimination)

- From $(\exists x) P(x)$ infer P(c)
- Example:
 - $(\exists x) eats(Ziggy, x) \rightarrow eats(Ziggy, Stuff)$
- Note that the variable is replaced by a **brand-new constant** not occurring in this or any other sentence in the KB
- Also known as skolemization; constant is a skolem constant
- In other words, we don't want to accidentally draw other inferences about it by introducing the constant
- Convenient to use this to reason about the unknown object, rather than constantly manipulating the existential quantifier

Existential generalization (a.k.a. existential introduction)

- If P(c) is true, then $(\exists x) P(x)$ is inferred.
- Example

eats(Ziggy, IceCream) \Rightarrow (\exists x) eats(Ziggy, x)

- All instances of the given constant symbol are replaced by the new variable symbol
- Note that the variable symbol cannot already exist anywhere in the expression

Translating English to FOL

Every gardener likes the sun.

 $\forall x \text{ gardener}(x) \rightarrow \text{likes}(x, \text{Sun})$

You can fool some of the people all of the time.

 $\exists x \forall t \text{ person}(x) \land \text{time}(t) \rightarrow \text{can-fool}(x,t)$

You can fool all of the people some of the time.

 $\forall x \exists t (person(x) \rightarrow time(t) \land can-fool(x,t))$

 $\forall x (person(x) \rightarrow \exists t (time(t) \land can-fool(x,t)))$

Equivalent

All purple mushrooms are poisonous.

 $\forall x (mushroom(x) \land purple(x)) \rightarrow poisonous(x)$

No purple mushroom is poisonous.

 $\neg \exists x \text{ purple}(x) \land \text{mushroom}(x) \land \text{poisonous}(x)$

There are exactly two purple mushrooms.

 $\exists x \exists y \text{ mushroom}(x) \land \text{purple}(x) \land \text{mushroom}(y) \land \text{purple}(y) \land \neg(x=y) \land \forall z$ $(\text{mushroom}(z) \land \text{purple}(z)) \rightarrow ((x=z) \lor (y=z))$

Clinton is not tall.

X is above Y iff X is on directly on top of Y or there is a pile of one or more other objects directly on top of one another starting with X and ending with Y.

 $\forall x \forall y above(x,y) \leftrightarrow (on(x,y) \lor \exists z (on(x,z) \land above(z,y)))$

Monty Python and The Art of Fallacy

Cast

- -Sir Bedevere the Wise, master of (odd) logic
- -King Arthur
- -Villager 1, witch-hunter
- -Villager 2, ex-newt
- -Villager 3, one-line wonder
- -All, the rest of you scoundrels, mongrels, and nere-do-wells.

An example from Monty Python by way of Russell & Norvig

- **FIRST VILLAGER:** We have found a witch. May we burn her?
- ALL: A witch! Burn her!
- **BEDEVERE:** Why do you think she is a witch?
- SECOND VILLAGER: She turned *me* into a newt.
- **B:** A newt?
- V2 (after looking at himself for some time): I got better.
- ALL: Burn her anyway.
- **B:** Quiet! Quiet! There are ways of telling whether she is a witch.

Example: A simple genealogy KB by FOL

- Build a small genealogy knowledge base using FOL that
 - contains facts of immediate family relations (spouses, parents, etc.)
 - contains definitions of more complex relations (ancestors, relatives)
 - is able to answer queries about relationships between people

• Predicates:

- parent(x, y), child(x, y), father(x, y), daughter(x, y), etc.
- spouse(x, y), husband(x, y), wife(x,y)
- ancestor(x, y), descendant(x, y)
- male(x), female(y)
- relative(x, y)

• Facts:

- husband(Joe, Mary), son(Fred, Joe)
- spouse(John, Nancy), male(John), son(Mark, Nancy)
- father(Jack, Nancy), daughter(Linda, Jack)
- daughter(Liz, Linda)
- etc.

Rules for genealogical relations

- $\begin{array}{l} (\forall x, y) \text{ parent}(x, y) \leftrightarrow \text{child } (y, x) \\ (\forall x, y) \text{ father}(x, y) \leftrightarrow \text{ parent}(x, y) \wedge \text{male}(x) \text{ (similarly for mother}(x, y)) \\ (\forall x, y) \text{ daughter}(x, y) \leftrightarrow \text{child}(x, y) \wedge \text{female}(x) \text{ (similarly for son}(x, y)) \end{array}$
- $\begin{array}{l} (\forall x, y) \text{ husband}(x, y) \leftrightarrow \text{spouse}(x, y) \land \text{male}(x) \text{ (similarly for wife}(x, y)) \\ (\forall x, y) \text{ spouse}(x, y) \leftrightarrow \text{spouse}(y, x) \text{ (spouse relation is symmetric)} \end{array}$
- $\begin{array}{l} (\forall x, y) \text{ parent}(x, y) \rightarrow \text{ancestor}(x, y) \\ (\forall x, y)(\exists z) \text{ parent}(x, z) \land \text{ancestor}(z, y) \rightarrow \text{ancestor}(x, y) \end{array}$
- $(\forall x, y) \operatorname{descendant}(x, y) \leftrightarrow \operatorname{ancestor}(y, x)$
- $(\forall x, y)(\exists z) \text{ ancestor}(z, x) \land \text{ ancestor}(z, y) \rightarrow \text{relative}(x, y)$ (related by common ancestry)

 $(\forall x, y)$ spouse(x, y) \rightarrow relative(x, y) (related by marriage) $(\forall x, y)(\exists z)$ relative(z, x) \wedge relative(z, y) \rightarrow relative(x, y) (**transitive**) $(\forall x, y)$ relative(x, y) \leftrightarrow relative(y, x) (**symmetric**)

• Queries

- ancestor(Jack, Fred) /* the answer is yes */
- relative(Liz, Joe) /* the answer is yes */
- relative(Nancy, Matthew)

/* no answer in general, no if under closed world assumption */

 $- (\exists z) \operatorname{ancestor}(z, \operatorname{Fred}) \land \operatorname{ancestor}(z, \operatorname{Liz})$

Semantics of FOL

- **Domain M:** the set of all objects in the world (of interest)
- Interpretation I: includes
 - Assign each constant to an object in M
 - Define each function of n arguments as a mapping $M^n => M$
 - Define each predicate of n arguments as a mapping $M^n \Longrightarrow \{T, F\}$
 - Therefore, every ground predicate with any instantiation will have a truth value
 - In general there is an infinite number of interpretations because |M| is infinite
- **Define logical connectives:** \sim , $^, \lor$, =>, <=> as in PL
- Define semantics of $(\forall x)$ and $(\exists x)$
 - $-(\forall x) P(x)$ is true iff P(x) is true under all interpretations
 - $-(\exists x) P(x)$ is true iff P(x) is true under some interpretation

- **Model:** an interpretation of a set of sentences such that every sentence is *True*
- A sentence is
 - satisfiable if it is true under some interpretation
 - valid if it is true under all possible interpretations
 - inconsistent if there does not exist any interpretation under which the sentence is true
- Logical consequence: S |= X if all models of S are also models of X

Axioms, definitions and theorems

- •Axioms are facts and rules that attempt to capture all of the (important) facts and concepts about a domain; axioms can be used to prove theorems
 - -Mathematicians don't want any unnecessary (dependent) axioms -ones that can be derived from other axioms
 - -Dependent axioms can make reasoning faster, however
 - -Choosing a good set of axioms for a domain is a kind of design problem
- •A **definition** of a predicate is of the form " $p(X) \leftrightarrow \dots$ " and can be decomposed into two parts
 - -Necessary description: " $p(x) \rightarrow \dots$ "
 - -Sufficient description " $p(x) \leftarrow \dots$ "
 - -Some concepts don't have complete definitions (e.g., person(x))

More on definitions

- A necessary condition must be satisfied for a statement to be true.
- A sufficient condition, if satisfied, assures the statement's truth.
- Duality: "P is sufficient for Q" is the same as "Q is necessary for P."
- Examples: define father(x, y) by parent(x, y) and male(x)
 - parent(x, y) is a necessary (**but not sufficient**) description of father(x, y)
 - $father(x, y) \rightarrow parent(x, y)$
 - parent(x, y) ^ male(x) ^ age(x, 35) is a sufficient (but not necessary) description of father(x, y):

 $father(x, y) \leftarrow parent(x, y) \land male(x) \land age(x, 35)$

parent(x, y) ^ male(x) is a necessary and sufficient description of father(x, y)

 $parent(x, y) \land male(x) \leftrightarrow father(x, y)$

More on definitions

S(x) is a necessary condition of P(x)



$$(\forall x) P(x) \Rightarrow S(x)$$

S(x) is a sufficient condition of P(x)



$$(\forall x) P(x) \leq S(x)$$

S(x) is a necessary and sufficient condition of P(x)



 $(\forall x) P(x) \ll S(x)$

Thank You