

Artificial Intelligence

5. First-Order Logic

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Artificial Intelligence



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What is first-order logic?

Soundary 2003

Think about expressing these phrases in propositional logic:

A := "Socrates is human."

B := "All humans are mortal."

C := "Thus, Socrates is mortal."

How can we see that A, B, C are related?

First-order logic is richer than propositional logic:

$$\begin{array}{l} H(a) \\ \forall x H(x) \rightarrow M(x) \\ M(a) \end{array}$$

where a stands for "Socrates", H for "is human", and M for "is mortal".

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Artificial Intelligence / 1. Introduction

What is first-order logic?

$$\begin{array}{l} H(a) \\ \forall x H(x) \rightarrow M(x) \\ M(a) \end{array}$$

So what do we have here?

- -x is a **variable**. Variables denote arbitrary elements (objects) of an underlying set.
- *a* is a **constant**. Constants denote specific elements of an underlying set.
- -H and M are *unary* relations.
- $-\forall$ is the **all quantifier**. It is read "for all".
- We can also use the connectives we already know from propositional logic.

In first-order logic, there are also relations with other arities, as well as *n*-ary **functions**. In addition to the all quantifier, there is the **existential quantifier**, read "there exists".





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Artificial Intelligence / 2. Syntax

Syntax: Symbols

- Let $\{f, g, h, \dots, f_1, f_2, \dots\}$ be the set of **function symbols**. Every function symbol has a given arity. Sometimes we write f^n to denote that f has arity n.
- Let $\{a, b, c, \ldots, a_1, a_2, \ldots\}$ be the set of **constant symbols**. Constant symbols can be seen as 0-ary function symbols.
- $\{P, R, S, \ldots, P_1, P_2, \ldots\}$ be the set of **relation symbols**. Every relation symbol (predicate) has a given arity. Sometimes we write P^n to denote that P has arity n.
- $\{x, y, z, x_1, x_2, \dots\}$ be the set of variable symbols.

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Syntax: Terms



A term is a logical expression that refers to an object.

(T1) Every variable or constant symbol is a term.

(T2) If f is an n-ary function symbol and t_1, \ldots, t_n are terms, then $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is also a term.

Examples:	More meaningful names for the symbols:
- a is a term, b as well.	- $aristotle$, $socrates$, $kallias$
- $f(a)$ is a term if f is unary.	- $succ(root)$
- $f^3(a, x)$ is not a term.	- $Likes(zeno, hockey)$,
- $P(x)$ and $P(x) \lor Q(x)$ are not	$Likes(steffen, soccer) \land$
terms.	Likes(steffen, hockey)
- $f^1(f(f(a)))$ is a term.	- $succ(succ(succ(0)))$

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Artificial Intelligence / 2. Syntax

Syntax: Formulas

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An **atomic formula** has the form $t_1 = t_2$ or $R(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is an *n*-ary relation symbol and t_1, \ldots, t_n are terms.

(F0) Every atomic formula is a **formula**.

(F1) If ϕ is a formula then so is $(\neg \phi)$.

(F2) If ϕ and ψ are formulas then so is $(\phi \land \psi)$.

(F3) If ϕ is a formula, then so is $(\exists x \phi)$ for any variable x.

We define \lor, \rightarrow , and \leftrightarrow the same way as in propositional logic. For any formula ϕ , $(\forall x \phi)$ and $(\neg \exists x \neg \phi)$ are interchangeable. Unnecessary brackets can be left out as in propositional logic. Precedence: $\neg, \exists, \forall, \land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$

Examples:

- P(x) and $P(x) \lor Q(x)$ are formulas if P and Q are unary.
- succ(succ(0)) = 3 is a formula.
- $\forall y P(x, y)$ is a formula and $x(P(z) \exists)$ is not.

Syntax: Subformulas

young 2003

Let ϕ be a formula of first-order logic. We inductively define what it means for θ to be a **subformula** of ϕ as follows:

- If ϕ is atomic, then θ is a subformula of ϕ if and only if $\theta = \phi$.
- If ϕ has the form $\neg \psi$, then θ is a subformula of ϕ if and only if $\theta = \phi$ or θ is a subformula of ψ .
- If ϕ has the form $\psi_1 \wedge \psi_2$, then θ is a subformula of ϕ if and only if $\theta = \phi$ or θ is a subformula of ψ_1 , or θ is a subformula of ψ_2 .
- If ϕ has the form $\exists x\psi$, then θ is a subformula of ϕ if and only if $\theta = \phi$ or θ is a subformula of ψ .

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Artificial Intelligence / 2. Syntax

Syntax: Free variables

The **free variables** of a formula are those variables occurring in it that are not quantified.

Example: In $\forall y R(x, y)$, x is free, but y is **bound** by $\forall y$.

For any first-order formula ϕ , let $free(\phi)$ denote the set of free variables of ϕ . We define $free(\phi)$ inductively as follows:

- If ϕ is atomic, then $free(\phi)$ is the set of all variables occurring in $\phi,$
- if $\phi = \neg \psi$, then $free(\phi) = free(\psi)$,
- if $\phi = \psi \wedge \theta$, then $free(\phi) = free(\psi) \cup free(\theta)$, and
- if $\phi = \exists x \psi$, then $free(\phi) = free(\psi) \{x\}$.

How would you define the set of bound variables of ϕ , $bnd(\phi)$?

A **sentence** of first-order logic is a formula having no free variables.





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Artificial Intelligence / 3. Semantics



Semantics: Vocabularies, structures and interpretations

A vocabulary is a set of function, relation, and constant symbols.

Let \mathcal{V} be a vocabulary. A \mathcal{V} -structure M = (U, I) consists of a nonempty underlying set U (the **universe**) along with an interpretation I of \mathcal{V} . An **interpretation** I of \mathcal{V} assigns:

- an element of U to each constant symbol in \mathcal{V} ,
- a function from U^n to U to each *n*-ary function in \mathcal{V} , and
- a subset of U^n to each *n*-ary relation in \mathcal{V} .

Examples:

- $$\begin{split} &-\mathcal{V}=\{f^1,R^2,c\},\,\mathbf{Z}=(\mathbb{Z},I_{\mathbf{Z}})\\ &\text{The universe is the set of integers }\mathbb{Z}.\\ &I_{\mathbf{Z}} \text{ could interpret }f(x) \text{ as }x^2,\,R(x,y) \text{ as }x < y \text{, and }c \text{ as }\mathbf{3}.\\ &-\mathcal{V}=\{f^1,R^2,c\},\,\mathbf{N}=(\mathbb{N},I_{\mathbf{N}})\\ &\text{The universe is the set of natural numbers }\mathbb{N}. \end{split}$$
 - $I_{\mathbf{N}}$ could interpret f(x) as x + 1, R(x, y) as x < y, and c as 0.

Semantics: \mathcal{V} -formulas and \mathcal{V} -sentences



Let \mathcal{V} be a vocabulary. A \mathcal{V} -formula is formula in which every function, relation, and constant symbol is in \mathcal{V} . A \mathcal{V} -sentence is a \mathcal{V} -formula that is a sentence.

If *M* is a \mathcal{V} -structure, then each \mathcal{V} -sentence ϕ is either true or false in M. If ϕ is true in M, then we say *M* **models** ϕ and write $M \models \phi$.

Example: $\mathcal{V}_{ar} = \{+, \cdot, 0, 1\}$ is the vocabulary of arithmetic. Then $\mathbf{R} = (\mathbb{R}, I_{\mathbf{R}})$ is an \mathcal{V}_{ar} -structure if $I_{\mathbf{R}}$ is a interpretation of \mathcal{V}_{ar} . $\mathbf{R} \models \forall x \exists y (1 + x \cdot x = y)$ What about $\forall y \exists x (1 + x \cdot x = y)$?

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Artificial Intelligence / 3. Semantics

Semantics: The value of terms



We define the value $V_M(t) \in U$ of a term *t* inductively as

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$$V_M(t) = I_M(t)$$
, if t is a constant symbol, and
- $V_M(t) = I_M(f)(V_M(t_1), \dots, V_M(t_n))$, if $t = f^n(t_1, \dots, t_n)$.

Example: $\mathcal{V} = \{f^1, R^2, c\}$, $\mathbf{N} = (\mathbb{N}, I_{\mathbf{N}})$, interpretation $I_{\mathbf{N}}$ as before What is the value of the term t = f(f(c))?

$$\begin{split} V_{\mathbf{N}}(f(f(c))) &= I_{\mathbf{N}}(f)(V_{\mathbf{N}}(f(c))) \\ &= I_{\mathbf{N}}(f)(I_{\mathbf{N}}(f)(V_{\mathbf{N}}(c))) \\ &= I_{\mathbf{N}}(f)(I_{\mathbf{N}}(f)(I_{\mathbf{N}}(c))) \\ &= I_{\mathbf{N}}(f)(I_{\mathbf{N}}(f)(0)) \\ &= I_{\mathbf{N}}(f)(1) \\ &= 2 \end{split}$$

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Semantics: Vocabulary/structure expansions and reducts



An **expansion** of a vocabulary \mathcal{V} is a vocabulary containing \mathcal{V} as a subset.

A structure M' is an expansion of the \mathcal{V} -structure M if M' has the same universe and interprets the symbols of \mathcal{V} in the same way as M.

If M' is an expansion of M, then we say that M is a **reduct** of M'.

Examples:

The $\{+, -, \cdot, <, 0, 1\}$ -structure $M' = (\mathbb{R}, I')$ is an expansion of the \mathcal{V}_{ar} -structure $M = (\mathbb{R}, I)$ if both I' and I interpret the symbols $+, \cdot, 0$, and 1 in the usual way.

A $\{+, -, \cdot, <, 0, 1\}$ -structure $M'' = (\mathbb{Q}, I'')$ cannot be an expansion of M.

Any structure is an expansion of itself.

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Artificial Intelligence / 3. Semantics

Semantics: The value of formulas

We define $M \models \phi$ by induction:

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$$M \models t_1 = t_2$$
 if and only if $V(t_1) = V(t_2)$,
- $M \models R^n(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ iff. $(V_M(t_1), \dots, V_M(t_n)) \in I_M(R^n)$,
- $M \models \neg \phi$ iff. M does not model ϕ ,
- $M \models \phi_1 \land \phi_2$ iff. both $M \models \phi_1$ and $M \models \phi_2$, and
- $M \models \exists x \phi(x)$ iff. $M_C \models \phi(c)$ for some constant $c \in \mathcal{V}(M)$.

 $\mathcal{V}(M) = \mathcal{V} \cup \{c_m | m \in U_M\}$ $M_C = (U_M, I_C)$ is the expansion of $M = (U_M, I)$ to a $\mathcal{V}(M)$ -structure where I_C interprets each c_m as the element m.





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Artificial Intelligence / 4. Example



Back to the Silly Example

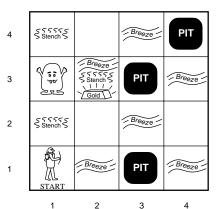
Toy example by Gregory Yob (1975), adapted by our textbook.

 -4×4 grid, tiles numbered (1,1) to (4,4),

- the agent starts in (1,1),
- the beast Wumpus sits at a random tile, unknown to the agent,
- a pile of gold sits at another random tile, unknown to the agent,
- some pits are located at random tiles, unknown to the agent.

- if the agent enters the tile of the Wumpus, he will be eaten,

- if the agent enters a pit, he will be trapped,



Encoding in propositional logic

64 variables:

 $P_{x,y}$ tile x, y contains a pit (x, y = 1, ..., 4). $W_{x,y}$ tile x, y contains the Wumpus (x, y = 1, ..., 4). $B_{x,y}$ tile x, y contains a breeze (x, y = 1, ..., 4). $S_{x,y}$ tile x, y contains stench (x, y = 1, ..., 4).

start is save: (2 formulas)

$$\neg P_{1,1}, \neg W_{1,1}$$

$$B_{x,y} \leftrightarrow P_{x-1,y} \lor P_{x+1,y} \lor P_{x,y-1} \lor P_{x,y+1}, \quad x, y = 1, \dots, 4$$

how stench arises: (16 formulas)

$$S_{x,y} \leftrightarrow W_{x-1,y} \lor W_{x+1,y} \lor W_{x,y-1} \lor W_{x,y+1}, \quad x, y = 1, \dots, 4$$

there is exactly one Wumpus: (121 formulas)

$$W_{1,1} \lor W_{1,2} \lor \ldots \lor W_{4,4} \neg W_{x,y} \lor \neg W_{x',y'}, \quad x, y, x', y' = 1, \ldots, 4, x \neq x' \text{ or } y \neq y'$$

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Artificial Intelligence / 4. Example

Encoding in first logic (1/2)

Vocabulary:

- constants 1, 2, 3, 4
- binary relations symbols P, W, B, S

Meaning of the predicates:

- P(x, y) tile x, y contains a pit.
- W(x,y) tile x, y contains the Wumpus.
- B(x, y) tile x, y contains a breeze.
- S(x, y) tile x, y contains stench.





Encoding in first logic (2/2)

start is save:

$$\neg P(1,1) \land \neg W(1,1)$$

how breeze arises:

$$\forall x \forall y B(x,y) \leftrightarrow P(x-1,y) \lor P(x+1,y) \lor P(x,y-1) \lor P(x,y+1)$$

there is exactly one Wumpus:

$$W(x,y) \to \forall x' \forall y' W(x',y') \to (x=x' \land y=y')$$

Further possibilities: Encode actions as functions, encode time steps.

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Summary



We introduced **first-order logic**, a representation language far more powerful than propositional logic.

- Knowledge representation should be declarative, compositional, expressive, context-independent, and unambiguous.
- Constant symbols name objects, relation symbols (predicates) name properties and relations, and function symbols name functions. Complex terms apply function symbols to terms to name an object.
- Given a \mathcal{V} -structure, the truth of a formula is determined.
- An atomic formula consists of a relation symbol applied to one or more terms; it is true iff. the relation named by the predicate holds between the objects named by the terms. Complex formulas use connectives just like propositional logic. Quantifiers allow the expression of general rules.

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Outlook	

Next lesson: Inference in first-order predicate logic.

Which other kind of logics exist?

- Temporal logic: $G\phi \to X\phi$
- Description logic: $C \subseteq D$
- Modal logic: $\Box p \rightarrow \Box \Box p$
- Higher-order predicate logic: $\forall P \forall x \forall y P(x, y) \land P(y, x) \rightarrow S(P)$

- Typed/intuitionistic/default/relevance logics

-...

(not covered in this course)

Literature



- Shawn Hedman: A First Course in Logic
- Heinz-Dieter Ebbinghaus, Jörg Flum, Wolfgang Thomas: Einführung in die mathematische Logik
- Uwe Schöning: Logik für Informatiker
- Stuart Russell, Peter Norvig: Artificial Intelligence. A Modern Approach

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