



Artificial Intelligence

Knowledge Representation and Inference

LESSON 13

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Predicate Logic



Pros and Cons of Propositional Logic

- ✓ Propositional logic is **declarative**
 - pieces of syntax correspond to facts
- ✓ Propositional logic allows partial/disjunctive/negated information
- ✓ Propositional logic is **compositional**
 - meaning of $B_{1,1} \wedge P_{1,2}$ is derived from meaning of $B_{1,1}$ and of $P_{1,2}$
- ✓ Meaning in propositional logic is **context-independent** (unlike natural language, where meaning depends on context)
- ✓ Propositional logic has very limited expressive power (unlike natural language)
 - E.g., cannot say "*pits cause breezes in adjacent squares*" except by writing one sentence for each square



First-Order Logic

First-Order Logic

- Whereas propositional logic assumes the world contains **facts**, first-order logic (like natural language) assumes the world contains
 - **Objects**: people, houses, numbers, theories, Pinocchio, colors, football games, wars, centuries . . .
 - **Relations**:
 - **Unary** (also called **properties**)
 - red, round, bogus, prime, multistoried . . .
 - **n-ary**
 - brother of, bigger than, inside, part of, has color, occurred after, owns, comes between, . . .
 - **Functions** (relations with one **value** for a given **input**)
 - father of, best friend, third goal of, one more than, end of
 - . . .

Logics in General

- Ontological commitment
 - What a language assumes about the nature of reality
- Epistemological commitment
 - The possible states of knowledge that a logic allows with respect to each fact

Language	Ontological Commitment	Epistemological Commitment
Propositional logic	facts	true/false/unknown
First-order logic	facts, objects, relations	true/false/unknown
Temporal logic	facts, objects, relations, times	true/false/unknown
Probability theory	facts	degree of belief
Fuzzy logic	facts + degree of truth	known interval value

Syntax: Basic Elements

- The basic elements are symbols that are used to represent **domain elements** (a set of objects), relations, and functions
 - **Constant symbols** denote objects
 - *One, Two, Three, John, Mary*
 - **Predicate symbols** denote relations
 - *GreaterThan, Prime, Sum, Father*
 - **Functions symbols** denote functions
 - *Plus, FatherOf, LeftLegOf*

Syntax: Basic Elements

- Variables
 - x, y, a, b, \dots
- Connectives
 - $\wedge \vee \neg \Rightarrow \Leftrightarrow$
- Equality
 - $=$
- Quantifiers
 - $\forall \exists$

Atomic Sentences

- An atomic sentence is formed from a predicate symbol optionally followed by a parenthesized list of terms
- Atomic sentence = $predicate(term_1, \dots, term_n)$
or $term_1 = term_2$
 - Term = $function(term_1, \dots, term_n)$
or *constant* or *variable*
- Example

Brother(KingJohn, RichardTheLionheart)

GreaterThan (Length(LeftLegOf (Richard)), Length(LeftLegOf (KingJ ohn)))

Complex Sentences

- Complex sentences are made from atomic sentences using connectives
 - $\neg S$, $S_1 \wedge S_2$, $S_1 \vee S_2$, $S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$, $S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2$
- Example
 - $Sibling(KingJohn, Richard) \Rightarrow Sibling(Richard, KingJohn)$
 - $GreaterThan(1, 2) \vee LessOrEqual(1, 2)$
 - $GreaterThan(1, 2) \wedge \neg GreaterThan(1, 2)$

Syntax

- A formal grammar in Backus-Naur Form (BNF)

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Sentence} &\rightarrow \textit{AtomicSentence} \mid \textit{ComplexSentence} \\ \textit{AtomicSentence} &\rightarrow \textit{Predicate} \mid \textit{Predicate}(\textit{Term}, \dots) \mid \textit{Term} = \textit{Term} \\ \textit{ComplexSentence} &\rightarrow (\textit{Sentence}) \\ &\mid \neg \textit{Sentence} \\ &\mid \textit{Sentence} \wedge \textit{Sentence} \\ &\mid \textit{Sentence} \vee \textit{Sentence} \\ &\mid \textit{Sentence} \Rightarrow \textit{Sentence} \\ &\mid \textit{Sentence} \Leftrightarrow \textit{Sentence} \\ &\mid \textit{Quantifier} \textit{Variable}, \dots \textit{Sentence} \end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Term} &\rightarrow \textit{Function}(\textit{Term}, \dots) \\ &\mid \textit{Constant} \\ &\mid \textit{Variable} \end{aligned}$$
$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Quantifier} &\rightarrow \forall \mid \exists \\ \textit{Constant} &\rightarrow A \mid X_1 \mid \textit{John} \mid \dots \\ \textit{Variable} &\rightarrow a \mid x \mid s \mid \dots \\ \textit{Predicate} &\rightarrow \textit{True} \mid \textit{False} \mid \textit{After} \mid \textit{Loves} \mid \textit{Raining} \mid \dots \\ \textit{Function} &\rightarrow \textit{Mother} \mid \textit{LeftLeg} \mid \dots \end{aligned}$$

OPERATOR PRECEDENCE : $\neg, =, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$

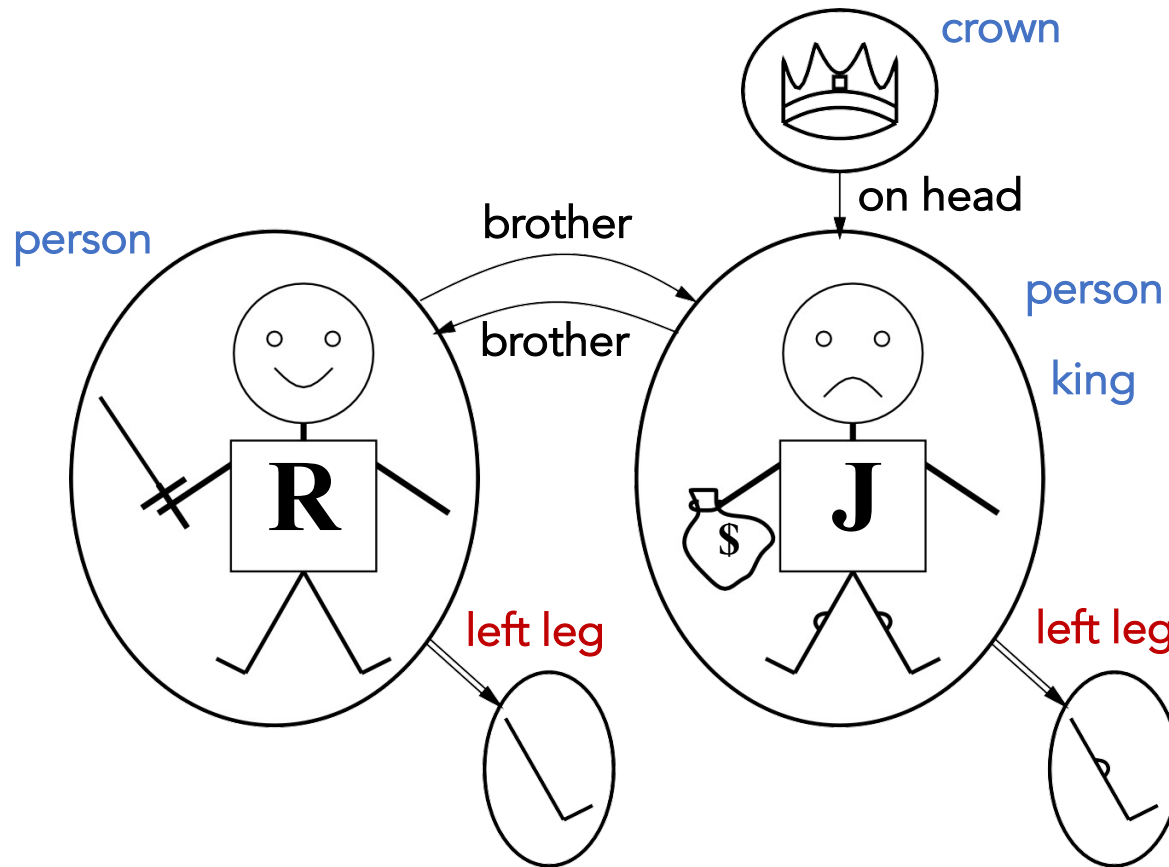
Truth in First-Order Logic

- Sentences are true with respect to a **model** and an **interpretation**
- A model contains objects (**domain elements**) and relations among them
- An interpretation specifies referents for
 - Constant symbols -> **objects**
 - Predicate symbols -> **relations**
 - Function symbols -> **functional relations**
- An atomic sentence **predicate**($term_1, \dots, term_n$) is true iff
 - the **objects** referred to by $term_1, \dots, term_n$ are in the **relation** referred to by **predicate**

Models in Practice

- In predicate logic, a model consists of
 - A **domain of discourse**, i.e., the set of all objects or individuals mentioned in the propositions, e.g.
 - The set of natural numbers
 - A set of individuals: Socrates, Plato, ...
 - **Relations** between domain elements, explicitly represented as the **set of tuples** among which a relation holds, e.g.
 - Being greater than (binary relation): $\{(2,1), (3,1), \dots\}$
 - Being a prime number (unary relation): $\{1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, \dots\}$
 - Unary relations are also called properties
 - Being the sum of (ternary relation): $\{(1, 1, 2), (1, 2, 3), \dots\}$
 - Being the father of (binary relation): $\{(John, Mary), \dots\}$
 - **Functions** mapping tuples of domain elements to a single one, e.g.
 - Plus: $(1,1) \rightarrow 2, (1, 2) \rightarrow 3, \dots$
 - Father of: John \rightarrow Mary, ...

Models: Example



Semantics: Interpretations

- Remember that semantics defines the truth of well-formed sentences, related to a particular model
- In predicate logic, this requires an **interpretation**:
 - Defining which domain elements, relations, and functions are referred to by symbols
- Examples
 - *One*, *Two*, and *Three* denote the natural numbers 1, 2, 3
 - *John* and *Mary* denote the individuals John and Mary
 - *GreaterThan* denotes the binary relation “to be greater than” ($>$) between numbers
 - *Father* denotes the fatherhood relation between individuals
 - *Plus* denotes the function mapping a pair of numbers to their sum

Semantics: Terms

- Terms are logical expressions denoting domain elements
- A **term** can be
 - **Simple**: a constant symbol, e.g., *One*, *Two*, *Three*
 - **Complex**: a function symbol applied (possibly, **recursively**) to other terms
 - *FatherOf(Mary)*
 - *Plus(One, Two)*
 - *Plus(One, Plus(One, One))*
- Worth noting
 - It is not necessary to assign a constant symbol to every domain element (domains can even be infinite): only elements **explicitly** mentioned in propositions (e.g., *Socrates*) should be assigned a constant symbol
 - A domain element can be denoted by more than one symbol

Semantics: Atomic sentences

- **Atomic sentences** are the simplest kind of propositions
 - A predicate symbol applied to a list of terms
- Examples
 - *GreaterThan(Two, One)*
 - *Prime(Two)*
 - *Prime(Plus(Two, Two))*
 - *Sum(One, One, Two)*
 - *Father(John, Mary)*
 - *Father(FatherOf(John), FatherOf(Mary))*

Semantics: Atomic sentences

- Definition

- An *atomic sentence is true*, in a *given model* and under a *given interpretation*, if the relation referred to by its predicate symbol holds between the *objects referred to by its argument (terms)*

- Example

- According to the above model and interpretation
- *GreaterThan(Two, One)* is **true**
- *Prime(Two)* is **true**
- *Prime(Plus(Two, Two))* is **false**
- *Sum(One, One, Two)* is **true**
- *Father(John, Mary)* is **true**

Truth Example

- Consider the interpretation in which
 - **Richard** → Richard the Lionheart
 - **John** → the evil King John
 - **Brother** → the brotherhood relation
- Under this interpretation
 - *Brother(Richard, John)* is **true** as Richard the Lionheart and the evil King John are in the brotherhood relation in the model

Semantics: Complex sentences

- **Complex sentences** are obtained as in propositional logic, using logical connectives
- Examples
 - $Prime(Two) \wedge Prime(Three)$
 - $\neg Sum(One, One, Two)$
 - $GreaterThan(Two, One) \Rightarrow (\neg GreaterThan(One, Two))$
 - $Father(John, Mary) \vee Father(Mary, John)$
- Semantics (truth value) is determined as in propositional logic
 - The second sentence is false, the others are true

Semantics: Quantifiers

- **Quantifiers** allow one to express propositions involving **collections** of domain elements, **without** enumerating them **explicitly**
- Two main quantifiers are used in predicate logic:
 - Universal quantifier, e.g.:
 - *All men are mortal*
 - *All rooms neighboring the wumpus are smelly*
 - *All even numbers are not prime*
 - Existential quantifier, e.g.:
 - *Some numbers are prime*
 - *Some rooms contain pits*
 - *Some men are philosophers*
- Quantifiers require a new kind of term: **variable symbols**, usually denoted with lowercase letters

Semantics: Universal quantifiers

- Example
 - Let's pretend that the domain is the set of natural numbers
 - All natural numbers are greater or equal to one

$$\forall x \text{ GreaterOrEqual}(x, \text{One})$$

Semantics: Universal quantifier

- The semantics of a sentence $\forall x \alpha(x)$, where $\alpha(x)$ is a sentence containing the variable x , is
 - $\alpha(x)$ is true for **each** domain element in place of x
- Example
 - If the domain is the set of natural numbers
 - $\forall x \text{ GreaterOrEqual}(x, \text{One})$ means that the following (infinite) sentences are **all** true
 - $\text{GreaterOrEqual}(\text{One}, \text{One})$
 - $\text{GreaterOrEqual}(\text{Two}, \text{One})$
 - ...
 - ...

Universal Quantification

- Example
 - $\forall x \text{ BelongsTo}(x, \text{Hogwarts}) \Rightarrow \text{Wizard}(x)$
- $\forall x P$ is true in a model m iff P is true with x being **each** possible object in the model
 - Equivalent to the conjunction of instances of P
 $(\text{BelongsTo}(\text{Dumbledore}, \text{Hogwarts}) \Rightarrow \text{Wizard}(\text{Dumbledore}))$
 $\wedge (\text{BelongsTo}(\text{Piton}, \text{Hogwarts}) \Rightarrow \text{Wizard}(\text{Piton}))$
 $\wedge \dots$

A Mistake to Avoid

- Typically, \Rightarrow is the main connective with \forall
- A common mistake is
 - Using \wedge as the main connective with \forall
 - $\forall x \text{ BelongsTo}(x, \text{Hogwarts}) \wedge \text{Wizard}(x)$ means “Everyone is at Hogwarts, and everyone is a wizard”

Semantics: Universal quantifier

- Let's take the proposition: *all even numbers greater than two are not prime*
- A common mistake is to represent it as follows:
$$\forall x \text{ Even}(x) \wedge \text{ GreaterThan}(x, \text{Two}) \wedge (\neg \text{Prime}(x))$$
- That sentence means
 - *all numbers are even, greater than two, and are not prime*, which is different from the original one (and is also false)
- The correct sentence can be obtained by noting that the original proposition can be restated as
 - *for all x, if x is even and greater than two, then it is not prime*, which is represented by an **implication**:
$$\forall x (\text{Even}(x) \wedge \text{ GreaterThan}(x, \text{Two})) \Rightarrow (\neg \text{Prime}(x))$$
- In general, propositions where "all" refers to all domain elements **that satisfy some condition** must be represented using an **implication**

Semantics: Universal quantifier

- Consider again this sentence:

$$\forall x (Even(x) \wedge GreaterThan(x, Two)) \Rightarrow (\neg Prime(x))$$

- Saying it is true means that sentences like these are true:

$$(Even(One) \wedge GreaterThan(One, Two)) \Rightarrow (\neg Prime(One))$$

- Note

- the antecedent of the implication is false (the number 'one' is not even, nor it is greater than the number 'two')
- This is not contradictory, since implications with false antecedents are true by definition

Semantics: Existential quantifier

- Assume that the domain is the set of natural numbers

- *Some numbers are prime*

$$\exists x \text{ Prime}(x)$$

- This is read as *there exists some x such that x is prime*

- *Some numbers are not greater than three, and are even*

$$\exists x \neg \text{GreaterThan}(x, \text{Three}) \wedge \text{Even}(x)$$

Existential Quantification

- Someone at Hogwarts is a wizard
 - $\exists x \text{BelongsTo}(x, \text{Hogwarts}) \wedge \text{Wizard}(x)$
- $\exists x P$ is true in a model m iff P is true with x being **some** possible object in the model
 - Equivalent to the **disjunction** of instances of P
 $(\text{BelongsTo}(\text{Dumbledore}, \text{Hogwarts}) \wedge \text{Wizard}(\text{Dumbledore}))$
 $\vee (\text{BelongsTo}(\text{Piton}, \text{Hogwarts}) \wedge \text{Wizard}(\text{Piton}))$

Yet Another Mistake to Avoid

- Typically, \wedge is the main connective with \exists
- Common mistake: using \Rightarrow as the main connective with \exists
 - $\exists x \text{ BelongsTo}(x, \text{Hogwarts}) \Rightarrow \text{Wizard}(x)$
 - is true if there is anyone who is not at Hogwarts!

Semantics: Existential quantifier

- Consider a proposition like the following: *some odd numbers are prime*
- A common mistake is to represent it using an implication:

$$\exists x \text{ Odd}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Prime}(x)$$

- That sentence means:
 - *there exists some number such that, if it is odd, then it is prime*
 - The latter proposition is weaker than the original since it is true (by definition of \Rightarrow) also if there were no odd numbers (i.e., if the antecedent $\text{Odd}(x)$ is false for all domain elements)
- The correct sentence can be obtained by noting that the original proposition can be restated as:

- *there exists some x such that x is odd and x is prime*

$$\exists x \text{ Odd}(x) \wedge \text{Prime}(x)$$

- In general, propositions introduced by “some” must be represented using a **conjunction**

Semantics: Nested quantifiers

- A sentence can contain more than one quantified variable
- If the quantifier is the same for all variables, e.g.:

$$\forall x(\forall y(\forall z \dots \alpha[x,y,z,\dots] \dots))$$

then the sentence can be rewritten more concisely as:

$$\forall x,y,z \dots \alpha[x,y,z,\dots]$$

- For instance, in the domain of natural numbers, the sentence
 - *If a number is greater than another number, then also the successor of the former is greater than the latter*

can be written (using the function *Successor*) as:

$$\forall x,y \text{ GreaterThan}(x,y) \Rightarrow \text{GreaterThan}(\text{Successor}(x),y)$$

Semantics: Connections Between Quantifiers

- The quantifiers \forall and \exists are related by negation, just as in natural language
- For example, to say that *every natural number is greater than or equal to zero* is the same as saying that *there does not exist some natural number which is not greater than or equal to zero*
- The two propositions can be translated into the following sentences, whose domain is assumed to be the set of natural numbers:

$$\forall x \text{ GreaterOrEqual}(x, \text{Zero})$$

$$\neg(\exists x \neg \text{GreaterOrEqual}(x, \text{Zero}))$$

Semantics: Connections Between Quantifiers

- In general, since \forall is a conjunction over all domain elements and \exists is a disjunct, they obey De Morgan's rules
 - shown below on the left, in the usual form involving two propositional variables

- $\neg P \wedge \neg Q \Leftrightarrow \neg(P \vee Q)$

$$\forall x(\neg \alpha[x]) \Leftrightarrow \neg(\exists x \alpha[x])$$

- $\neg(P \wedge Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P) \vee (\neg Q)$

$$\neg(\forall x \alpha[x]) \Leftrightarrow \exists x(\neg \alpha[x])$$

- $P \wedge Q \Leftrightarrow \neg(\neg P \vee \neg Q)$

$$\forall x \alpha[x] \Leftrightarrow \neg(\exists x(\neg \alpha[x]))$$

- $P \vee Q \Leftrightarrow \neg(\neg P \wedge \neg Q)$

$$\exists x \alpha[x] \Leftrightarrow \neg(\forall x(\neg \alpha[x]))$$

First-Order Logic

- Propositional Logic
 - Propositional symbols

MinervaGryffindor

MinervaHufflepuff

MinervaRavenclaw

MinervaSlytherin

...

First-Order Logic

Constant Symbol

Minerva

Pomona

Horace

Gilderoy

Gryffindor

Hufflepuff

Ravenclaw

Slytherin

Predicate Symbol

Person

House

BelongsTo

First-Order Logic

Person(Minerva)

Minerva is a person.

House(Gryffindor)

Gryffindor is a house.

\neg *House(Minerva)*

Minerva is not a house.

BelongsTo(Minerva, Gryffindor)

Minerva belongs to Gryffindor.

Universal Quantification

$\forall x. \text{BelongsTo}(x, \text{Gryffindor}) \rightarrow$
 $\neg \text{BelongsTo}(x, \text{Hufflepuff})$

For all objects x , if x belongs to Gryffindor,
then x does not belong to Hufflepuff.

Anyone in Gryffindor is not in Hufflepuff.

Existential Quantification

$\exists x. \textit{House}(x) \wedge \textit{BelongsTo}(\textit{Minerva}, x)$

There exists an object x such that x is a house and Minerva belongs to x .

Minerva belongs to a house.

Existential Quantification

$$\forall x. \textit{Person}(x) \rightarrow (\exists y. \textit{House}(y) \wedge \textit{BelongsTo}(x, y))$$

For all objects x , if x is a person, then there exists an object y such that y is a house and x belongs to y .

Every person belongs to a house.

Exercises

- Represent the following propositions using sentences in predicate logic, including the definition of the domain
 1. All men are mortal; Socrates is a man; Socrates is mortal
 2. All rooms neighboring a pit are breezy (Wumpus game)
 3. Peano-Russell's axioms of arithmetic that define natural numbers (nonnegative integers)
 - P1 zero is a natural number
 - P2 the successor of any natural number is a natural number
 - P3 zero is not successor of any natural number
 - P4 no two natural numbers have the same successor
 - P5 any property which belongs to zero, and to the successor of every natural number which has the property, belongs to all natural numbers