Syntax Semantics Normal Forms Conclusion References

Artificial Intelligence 11. Predicate Logic Reasoning, Part I: Basics Do You Think About the World in Terms of "Propositions"?

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Autumn Term

Syntax Semantics Normal Forms Conclusion References

Agenda

- Introduction
- 2 Syntax
- Semantics
- 4 Normal Forms
- Conclusion

Let's Talk About Blocks, Baby . . .

Dear students: What do you see here?

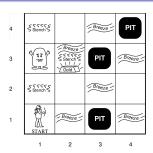


You say: "All blocks are red"; "All blocks are on the table"; "A is a block".

And now: Say it in propositional logic!

- \rightarrow "isRedA", "isRedB", ..., "onTableA", "onTableB", ..., "isBlockA", ...
- Wait a sec! Why don't we just say, e.g., "AllBlocksAreRed" and "isBlockA"?
- \rightarrow Could we conclude that A is red? No. These statements are atomic (just strings); their inner structure ("all blocks", "is a block") is not captured.
- \rightarrow Predicate Logic extends propositional logic with the ability to explicitly speak about objects and their properties.
- \rightarrow Variables ranging over objects, predicates describing object properties, ...
- \rightarrow " $\forall x[Block(x) \rightarrow Red(x)]$ "; "Block(A)"
- \rightarrow We consider first-order logic, and will abbreviate FOL.

Let's Talk About the Wumpus Instead?



 $\textbf{Percepts:} \ [Stench, Breeze, Glitter, Bump, Scream]$

- Cell adjacent to Wumpus: Stench (else: None).
- Cell adjacent to Pit: *Breeze* (else: *None*).
- Cell that contains gold: Glitter (else: None).
- You walk into a wall: Bump (else: None).
- Wumpus shot by arrow: Scream (else: None).

Say, in propositional logic: "Cell adjacent to Wumpus: Stench."

- $W_{1,1} \to S_{1,2} \land S_{2,1}$
- $W_{1,2} \to S_{2,2} \wedge S_{1,1} \wedge S_{1,3}$
- $W_{1,3} \to S_{2,3} \wedge S_{1,2} \wedge S_{1,4}$
- ...

Introduction

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 \rightarrow Even when we *can* describe the problem suitably, for the desired reasoning, the propositional formulation typically is way too large to write (by hand).

 \rightarrow FOL solution: " $\forall x [Wumpus(x) \rightarrow \forall y [Adjacent(x,y) \rightarrow Stench(y)]]$

Blocks/Wumpus, Who Cares? Let's Talk About Numbers!

 \rightarrow Even worse!

Introduction

Example "Integers": (A limited vocabulary to talk about these)

- The objects: $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.
- Predicate 1: "Even(x)" should be true iff x is even.
- Predicate 2: "Equals(x, y)" should be true iff x = y.
- Function: Succ(x) maps x to x+1.

Old problem: Say, in propositional logic, that "1 + 1 = 2".

- → Inner structure of vocabulary is ignored (cf. "AllBlocksAreRed").
- \rightarrow FOL solution: "Equals (Succ(1), 2)".

New problem: Say, in propositional logic, "if x is even, so is x + 2".

- \rightarrow It is impossible to speak about infinite sets of objects!
- \rightarrow FOL solution: " $\forall x [Even(x) \rightarrow Even(Succ(Succ(x)))]$ ".

Now We're Talking . . .

Introduction

$$\forall y, x_1, x_2, x_3 \ [Equals(Plus(PowerOf(x_1, y), PowerOf(x_2, y)), \\ PowerOf(x_3, y)) \\ \rightarrow (Equals(y, 1) \lor Equals(y, 2))]$$

Theorem proving in FOL! Arbitrary theorems, in principle.

Fermat's last theorem is of course infeasible, but interesting theorems can and have been proved automatically.

See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Automated_theorem_proving.

Note: Need to axiomatize "Plus", "PowerOf", "Equals".

See http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peano_axioms

What Are the Practical Relevance/Applications?

... even asking this question is a sacrilege: (Quotes from Wikipedia)

"In Europe, logic was first developed by Aristotle. Aristotelian logic became widely accepted in science and mathematics."

"The development of logic since Frege, Russell, and Wittgenstein had a profound influence on the practice of philosophy and the perceived nature of philosophical problems, and philosophy of mathematics."

Introduction

References

What Are the Practical Relevance/Applications?

You're asking it anyhow?

Introduction

- Logic programming. Prolog et al.
- Databases. Deductive databases where elements of logic allow to conclude additional facts. Logic is tied deeply with database theory.
- Semantic technology. Mega-trend since > a decade. Use FOL fragments to annotate data sets, facilitating their use and analysis.
 - → Prominent FOL fragment: Web Ontology Language OWL.
 - \rightarrow Prominent data set: The WWW. (\rightarrow Semantic Web)

Assorted quotes on Semantic Web and OWL:

"The brain of humanity."

"The Semantic Web will never work."

"A TRULY meaningful way of interacting with the Web may finally be here: the Semantic Web. The idea was proposed 10 years ago. A triumvirate of internet heavyweights - Google, Twitter, and Facebook - are making it real."

(A Few) Semantic Technology Applications

Web Queries



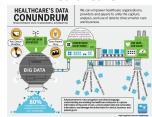
Context-Aware Apps



Jeopardy (IBM Watson)



Healthcare



Our Agenda for This Topic

ightarrow Our treatment of the topic "Predicate Logic Reasoning" consists of Chapters 11 and 12.

- This Chapter: Basic definitions and concepts; normal forms.
 - \rightarrow Sets up the framework and basic operations.
- Chapter 12: Compilation to propositional reasoning; unification; lifted resolution.
 - → Algorithmic principles for reasoning about predicate logic.

Introduction

References

Our Agenda for This Chapter

- Syntax: How to write FOL formulas?
 - \rightarrow Obviously required.
- Semantics: What is the meaning of FOL formulas?
 - → Obviously required.
- Normal Forms: What are the basic normal forms, and how to obtain them?
 - \rightarrow Needed for algorithms, which are defined on these normal forms.

The Alphabet of FOL

Common symbols:

Introduction

- Variables: $x, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x', x'', \ldots, y, \ldots, z, \ldots$
- Truth/Falseness: \top , \bot . (As in propositional logic)
- Operators: \neg , \lor , \land , \rightarrow , \leftrightarrow . (As in propositional logic)
- Quantifiers: ∀, ∃.
 - \rightarrow Precedence: $\neg > \forall, \exists > \dots$ (we'll be using brackets).

Application-specific symbols:

- Constant symbols ("object", e.g., BlockA, BlockB, a, b, c, ...)
- $\bullet \ \, \mathsf{Predicate \ symbols, \ arity} \geq 1 \quad \, \big(\mathsf{e.g.,} \ \mathit{Block}(.), \ \mathit{Above}(.,.)\big) \\$
- Function symbols, arity ≥ 1 (e.g., WeightOf(.), Succ(.))

Definition (Signature). A signature Σ in predicate logic is a finite set of constant symbols, predicate symbols, and function symbols.

 \rightarrow In mathematics, Σ can be infinite; not considered here.

Our "Silly Running Example": Lassie & Garfield

Constant symbols: Lassie, Garfield, Bello, Lasagna, ...

Predicate symbols: Dog(.), Cat(.), Eats(.,.), Chases(.,.), ...

Function symbols: FoodOf(.), ...

Syntax

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Example: $\forall x[Dog(x) \rightarrow \exists y Chases(x,y)]$, which in words means "Every dog chases something".

[We'll be showing the Lassie & Garfield example in this color and square brackets all over the lecture.]

Syntax of FOL

Introduction

 \rightarrow Terms represent objects:

Definition (Term). Let Σ be a signature. Then:

- 1. Every variable and every constant symbol is a Σ -term. [x, Garfield]
- 2. If t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n are Σ -terms and $f \in \Sigma$ is an n-ary function symbol, then $f(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n)$ also is a Σ -term. [FoodOf(x)]

Terms without variables are ground terms. [FoodOf(Garfield)]

- \rightarrow For simplicity, we usually don't write the " Σ -".
- → Atoms represent atomic statements about objects:

Definition (Atom). Let Σ be a signature. Then:

- 1. \top and \bot are Σ -atoms.
- 2. If t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n are terms and $P \in \Sigma$ is an n-ary predicate symbol, then $P(t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n)$ is a Σ -atom. [Chases(Lassie, y)]

Atoms without variables are ground atoms. [Chases(Lassie, Garfield)]

Introduction

Syntax

Syntax of FOL, ctd.

→ Formulas represent complex statements about objects:

Definition (Formula). Let Σ be a signature. Then:

- 1. Each Σ -atom is a Σ -formula.
- 2. If φ is a Σ -formula, then so is $\neg \varphi$.

The formulas that can be constructed by rules 1. and 2. are literals.

If φ and ψ are Σ -formulas, then so are:

4. $\varphi \wedge \psi$, $\varphi \vee \psi$, $\varphi \rightarrow \psi$, and $\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$.

If φ is a Σ -formula and x is a variable, then

- 5. $\forall x \varphi$ is a Σ -formula ("Universal Quantification").
- 6. $\exists x \varphi$ is a Σ -formula ("Existential Quantification").
- \rightarrow [E.g., $Cat(Garfield) \lor \neg Cat(Garfield)$; and $\exists x [Eats(Garfield, x)]$]

Alternative Notation

Here	Elsewhere
$\neg \varphi$	$\sim \varphi \overline{\varphi}$
$\varphi \wedge \psi$	$\varphi \& \psi \varphi \bullet \psi \varphi, \psi$
$\varphi \vee \psi$	$\varphi \psi \varphi; \psi \varphi + \psi$
$\varphi \to \psi$	$\varphi \Rightarrow \psi \varphi \supset \psi$
$\varphi \leftrightarrow \psi$	$\varphi \Leftrightarrow \psi \varphi \equiv \psi$
$\forall x \varphi$	$(\forall x)\varphi \wedge x\varphi$
$\exists x \varphi$	$(\exists x)\varphi \vee x\varphi$

Introduction

Example "Animals" Σ : Constant symbols

 $\{Lassie, Garfield, Bello, Lasagna\};$ predicate symbols $\{Dog(.), Cat(.),$ Eats(.,.), Chases(.,.); funtion symbols $\{FoodOf(.)\}$.

Question!

Which of these are Σ -formulas?

```
(A): \forall x [Chases(x, Garfield) \rightarrow
       Chases(Lassie, x)
```

(C):
$$\forall x[(Dog(x) \land Eats(x, Lasagna)) \rightarrow \exists y(Cat(y) \land Chases(y, x))]$$

(B): Eats(Bello, Cat(Garfield))

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(D): \exists x [Dog(x) \land
       Eats(x, Lasagna)
       \forall y (Cat(y) \rightarrow
       Chases(y,x))
```

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\rightarrow (A), (C): Yes.
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- \rightarrow (B): No, we can't nest predicates.
- \rightarrow (D): No, missing a connective between "Eats(x, Lasagna)" and " $\forall y (Cat(y) \rightarrow Chases(y, x))$ ".

Questionnaire, ctd.

Example "Integers" Σ : Constant symbols $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$; predicate symbols $\{Even(.), Equals(.,.)\}$; funtion symbols $\{Succ(.)\}$.

Question!

Introduction

Which of these are Σ -formulas?

- (A): $\exists x [Even(x) \rightarrow$ Even(Succ(Succ(x)))].
- (C): $Even(1) \rightarrow$ $\forall x Equals(x, Succ(x)).$

- (B): $\exists x [Even(x) \rightarrow$ Succ(Even(Succ(x)))].
- (D): $Even(1) \rightarrow \forall 2Equals(2,2)$.

- \rightarrow (A): Yes.
- \rightarrow (B): No, we can't apply a function to a predicate.
- \rightarrow (C): Yes.
- \rightarrow (D): No, we can't quantify over constants.

The Meaning of FOL Formulas

Example: $\forall x [Block(x) \rightarrow Red(x)], Block(A)$

 \rightarrow For all objects x, if x is a block, then x is red. A is a block.

More generally: (Intuition)

- Terms represent objects. [FoodOf(Garfield) = Lasagna]
- Predicates represent relations on the universe. $[Dog = \{Lassie, Bello\}]$
- Universally-quantified variables: "for all objects in the universe".
- Existentially-quantified variables: "at least one object in the universe".
- → Similar to propositional logic, we define interpretations, models, satisfiability, validity, ...

Definition (Interpretation). Let Σ be a signature. A Σ -interpretation is a pair (U, I) where U, the universe, is an arbitrary non-empty set $[U = \{o_1, o_2, \dots\}]$, and I is a function, notated as superscript, so that

- 1. I maps constant symbols to elements of $U: c^I \in U$ [Lassie^I = o_1]
- 2. I maps n-ary predicate symbols to n-ary relations over U: $P^I \subset U^n \quad [Doq^I = \{o_1, o_3\}]$
- 3. I maps n-ary function symbols to n-ary functions over U:

$$f^I \in [U^n \mapsto U] \quad [FoodOf^I = \{(o_1 \mapsto o_4), (o_2 \mapsto o_5), \dots\}]$$

 \rightarrow We will often refer to I as the interpretation, omitting U. Note that U may be infinite.

Definition (Ground Term Interpretation). The interpretation of a ground term under I is $(f(t_1,\ldots,t_n))^I = f^I(t_1^I,\ldots,t_n^I)$. $[(FoodOf(Lassie))^I =$ $FoodOf^{I}(Lassie^{I}) = FoodOf^{I}(o_{1}) = o_{4}$

Definition (Ground Atom Satisfaction). Let Σ be a signature and I a Σ -interpretation. We say that I satisfies a ground atom $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$, written $I \models P(t_1, \dots, t_n)$, iff $(t_1^I, \dots, t_n^I) \in P^I$. We also call I a model of $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$. $[I \models Dog(Lassie) \text{ because } Lassie^I = o_1 \in Dog^I]$

Interpretations: Example

Introduction

Example "Integers": $U = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}; 1^I = 1, 2^I = 2, 3^I = 3, ...;$ $Even^{I} = \{2, 3, 4, 6, \ldots\}, Equals^{I} = \{\langle 1, 1 \rangle, \langle 2, 2 \rangle, \ldots\};$ $Succ^{I} = \{(1 \mapsto 2), (2 \mapsto 3), \ldots\}.$

Question 1: $I \models Even(2)$? Yes.

Question 2: $I \models Even(Succ(2))$? Yes! $Succ(2)^I = 3 \in Even^I$.

Note: Nobody forces us to design I in accordance with the standard meaning of the predicates. Need to axiomatize them. [Remember:

$$\forall y, x_1, x_2, x_3 \ [Equals(Plus(PowerOf(x_1, y), PowerOf(x_2, y)), \\ PowerOf(x_3, y)) \\ \rightarrow (Equals(y, 1) \lor Equals(y, 2))]$$

→ Details: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peano_axioms]

Question 3: $I \models Equals(x, Succ(2))$? Interpretations do not handle variables. We must fix a variable assignment first.

Introduction

Semantics of FOL: Variable Assignments

Definition (Variable Assignment). Let Σ be a signature and (U,I) a Σ -interpretation. Let X be the set of all variables. A variable assignment α is a function $\alpha: X \mapsto U$. $[\alpha(x) = o_1]$

Definition (Term Interpretation). The interpretation of a term under I and α is:

- 1. $x^{I,\alpha} = \alpha(x)$ $[x^{I,\alpha} = o_1]$
- 2. $c^{I,\alpha} = c^I$ [Lassie^{I,\alpha} = Lassie^I]
- 3. $(f(t_1,\ldots,t_n))^{I,\alpha} = f^I(t_1^{I,\alpha},\ldots,t_n^{I,\alpha})$ $[(FoodOf(x))^{I,\alpha} = FoodOf^I(x^{I,\alpha}) = FoodOf^I(o_1) = o_4]$

Definition (Atom Satisfaction). Let Σ be a signature, I a Σ -interpretation, and α a variable assignment. We say that I and α satisfy an atom $P(t_1,\ldots,t_n)$, written $I,\alpha\models P(t_1,\ldots,t_n)$, iff $(t_1^{I,\alpha},\ldots,t_n^{I,\alpha})\in P^I$. We also call I and α a model of $P(t_1,\ldots,t_n)$.

$$[I, \alpha \not\models Dog(FoodOf(x)): (FoodOf(x))^{I,\alpha} = o_4 \not\in Dog^I]$$

Notation: In $\alpha \frac{x}{o}$ we overwrite x with o in α : for $\alpha = \{(x \mapsto o_1), (y \mapsto o_2), \ldots\}, \ \alpha \frac{x}{o} = \{(x \mapsto o), (y \mapsto o_2), \ldots\}.$

Definition (Formula Satisfaction). Let Σ be a signature, I a Σ -interpretation, and α a variable assignment. We set:

$$\begin{array}{lll} I,\alpha \models \top \text{ and } & I,\alpha \not\models \bot \\ I,\alpha \models \neg \varphi & \text{iff} & I,\alpha \not\models \varphi \\ I,\alpha \models \varphi \land \psi & \text{iff} & I,\alpha \models \varphi \text{ and } I,\alpha \models \psi \\ I,\alpha \models \varphi \lor \psi & \text{iff} & I,\alpha \models \varphi \text{ or } I,\alpha \models \psi \\ I,\alpha \models \varphi \to \psi & \text{iff} & \text{if } I,\alpha \models \varphi, \text{ then } I,\alpha \models \psi \\ I,\alpha \models \varphi \leftrightarrow \psi & \text{iff} & \text{if } I,\alpha \models \varphi \text{ if and only if } I,\alpha \models \psi \\ I,\alpha \models \forall x\varphi & \text{iff} & \text{for all } o \in U \text{ we have } I,\alpha \not\stackrel{x}{\circ} \models \varphi \\ I,\alpha \models \exists x\varphi & \text{iff} & \text{there exists } o \in U \text{ so that } I,\alpha \not\stackrel{x}{\circ} \models \varphi \end{array}$$

If $I, \alpha \models \varphi$, we say that I and α satisfy φ (are a model of φ).

 $[\varphi = \forall x[Dog(x) \rightarrow \exists y \mathit{Chases}(x,y)], \ \mathit{Dog}^{I,\alpha} = \{\mathit{Lassie}^{I,\alpha}, \mathit{Bello}^{I,\alpha}\}, \ \mathit{Chases}^{I,\alpha} = \{(\mathit{Lassie}^{I,\alpha}, \mathit{Garfield}^{I,\alpha})\}. \ \mathsf{Then} \ I, \alpha \not\models \varphi \ \mathsf{because} \ \mathsf{Bello} \ \mathsf{does} \ \mathsf{not} \ \mathsf{chase} \ \mathsf{anything.}]$

References

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FOL Satisfiability etc.

Satisfiability

Introduction

A FOL formula φ is:

- satisfiable if there exist I, α that satisfy φ .
- unsatisfiable if φ is not satisfiable.
- falsifiable if there exist I, α that do not satisfy φ .
- valid if $I, \alpha \models \varphi$ holds for all I and α . We also call φ a tautology.

Entailment and Equivalence

 φ entails ψ , $\varphi \models \psi$, if every model of φ is a model of ψ .

 φ and ψ are equivalent, $\varphi \equiv \psi$, if $\varphi \models \psi$ and $\psi \models \varphi$.

Attention: In presence of free variables!

 \rightarrow Do we have $Dog(x) \models Dog(y)$? No. Example: $Dog^I = \{o_1\}$, $\alpha = \{(x \mapsto o_1), (y \mapsto o_2)\}$. Then $I, \alpha \models Dog(x)$ but $I, \alpha \not\models Dog(y)$.

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Free and Bound Variables

$$\varphi := \forall x [R(\boxed{y}, \boxed{z}) \land \exists y (\neg P(y, x) \lor R(y, \boxed{z}))]$$

Definition (Free Variables). By vars(e), where e is either a term or a formula, we denote the set of variables occurring in e. We set:

```
free(P(t_1,\ldots,t_n)) := vars(t_1) \cup \cdots \cup vars(t_n)
      free(\neg \varphi) := free(\varphi)
     free(\varphi * \psi) := free(\varphi) \cup free(\psi) for * \in \{\land, \lor, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow\}
       free(\forall x\varphi) := free(\varphi) \setminus \{x\}
     free(\exists x\varphi) := free(\varphi) \setminus \{x\}
free(\varphi) are the free variables of \varphi. \varphi is closed if free(\varphi) = \emptyset.
```

- \rightarrow In the above φ , which variable appearances are free? The boxed ones.
- \rightarrow Knowledge Base (aka logical theory) = set of closed formulas. From now on, we asume that φ is closed.
- \rightarrow We can ignore α , and will write $I \models \varphi$ instead of $I, \alpha \models \varphi$.

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Questionnaire

Example "Animals": $U = \{o_1, o_2, o_3, o_4, o_5\}$; $Lassie^I = o_1$, $Garfield^I = o_2$, $Bello^I = o_3$, $Lasagna^I = o_4$, $Chappi^I = o_5$; $Dog^I = \{o_1, o_3\}$, $Cat^I = \{o_2\}$, $Eats^I = \{(o_1, o_4), (o_2, o_4), (o_3, o_5)\}$, $Chases^I = \{(o_1, o_3), (o_3, o_2), (o_2, o_1)\}$.

Question!

Introduction

For which of these φ do we have $I \models \varphi$?

- (A): $\forall x[\mathit{Chases}(x,\mathit{Garfield}) \rightarrow$ (B): $\mathit{Eats}(\mathit{Bello},\mathit{Cat}(\mathit{Garfield}))$
- - $Eats(x, Lasagna)) \rightarrow \forall y (Cat(y) \rightarrow \exists y (Cat(y) \land Chases(y, x))]$ Chases(y, x)
- → (A): Yes. (Only Bello chases Garfield; Lassie chases Bello.)
- \rightarrow (B): Not a formula (cf. slide 17).
- \rightarrow (C): Yes. (The only dog eating Lasagna is Lassie; Garfield chases Lassie.)
- \rightarrow (D): Yes. (Lassie is a dog eating Lasagna; it is chased by the only cat, Garfield.)

Questionnaire, ctd.

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Example "Integers": U=\{1,2,3,\ldots\};\ 1^I=1,\ 2^I=2,\ \ldots
Even^{I} = \{2, 4, 6, \ldots\}, Equals^{I} = \{\langle 1, 1 \rangle, \langle 2, 2 \rangle, \ldots\};
Succ^{I} = \{(1 \mapsto 2), (2 \mapsto 3), \ldots\}.
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Question!

Introduction

For which of these φ do we have $I \models \varphi$?

(A): $\exists x [Even(x) \rightarrow$ (B): $\exists x [Even(x) \rightarrow$ Even(Succ(Succ(x)))]. Succ(Even(Succ(x)))].

(C): $Even(1) \rightarrow$ (D): $Even(1) \rightarrow$ $\forall 2Equals(2, Succ(2)).$ $\forall x Equals(x, Succ(x)).$

- \rightarrow (A): Yes: x=2 does the job. Actually we can strengthen the formula to $\forall x [Even(x) \rightarrow Even(Succ(Succ(x)))].$
- \rightarrow (B): Not a formula (cf. slide 18).
- \rightarrow (C): Yes: While $\forall x Equals(x, Succ(x))$ is false, Even(1) is false as well and thus the overall implication is true.
- \rightarrow (D): Not a formula (cf. slide 18).

 Syntax
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Before We Begin

Introduction

Why normal forms?

- Convenient: full syntax when describing the problem at hand.
- Not convenient: full syntax when solving the problem.

"Solving the problem"? Decide satisfiability!

 \rightarrow Uniform decision problem to tackle deduction as well as other applications. (Same as in propositional logic, cf. Chapters 09 and 10.)

Which normal forms?

- Prenex normal form: Move all quantifiers up front.
- Skolem normal form: Prenex, + remove all existential quantifiers while preserving satisfiability.
- Clausal normal form: Skolem, + CNF transformation while preserving satisfiability.

Prenex Normal Form: Step 1

quantifier prefix
$$+$$
 (quantifier-free) matrix $Qx_1Qx_2Qx_3\dots Qx_n$

Step 1: Eliminate \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow , move \neg inwards

- $(\varphi \rightarrow \psi) \equiv (\neg \varphi \lor \psi)$ (Eliminate "\rightarrow")

Example: $\neg \forall x [(\forall x P(x)) \rightarrow R(x)]$

- \rightarrow Eliminate \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow : $\neg \forall x [\neg (\forall x P(x)) \lor R(x)]$.
- \rightarrow Move \neg across first quantifier: $\exists x \neg [\neg(\forall x P(x)) \lor R(x)].$
- \rightarrow Move \neg inwards: $\exists x [(\forall x P(x)) \land \neg R(x)].$

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Prenex Normal Form: Step 2

quantifier prefix
$$+$$
 (quantifier-free) matrix $Qx_1Qx_2Qx_3\dots Qx_n$

Step 2: Move quantifiers outwards

- $(\forall x \varphi) \land \psi \equiv \forall x (\varphi \land \psi)$, if x not free in ψ .
- $(\forall x \varphi) \lor \psi \equiv \forall x (\varphi \lor \psi)$, if x not free in ψ .
- $(\exists x \varphi) \land \psi \equiv \exists x (\varphi \land \psi)$, if x not free in ψ .
- $(\exists x \varphi) \lor \psi \equiv \exists x (\varphi \lor \psi)$, if x not free in ψ .

Example "Animals": $\forall x [\neg Dog(x) \lor \exists y Chases(x,y)]$

 \rightarrow Move " $\exists y$ " outwards: $\forall x \exists y [\neg Doq(x) \lor Chases(x,y)].$

Example: $\exists x [(\forall x P(x)) \land \neg R(x)]$

 \rightarrow We can't move " $\forall x$ " outwards because x is free in " $\neg R(x)$ "!

Prenex Normal Form: Variable Renaming

Notation: If x is a variable, t a term, and φ a formula, then the instantiation of x with t in φ , written $\varphi \frac{x}{t}$, replaces all <u>free</u> appearances of x in φ by t. If t=y is a variable, then $\varphi \frac{x}{y}$ renames x to y in φ .

Lemma. If $y \not\in vars(\varphi)$, then $\forall x\varphi \equiv \forall y\varphi \frac{x}{y}$ and $\exists x\varphi \equiv \exists y\varphi \frac{x}{y}$.

Step 2 Addition: Rename variables if needed

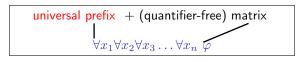
For each Step 2 rule: If x is free in ψ , then rename x in $(\forall x\varphi)$ respectively $(\exists x\varphi)$ to some new variable y. Then, the rule can be applied.

Example: $\exists x[(\forall x P(x)) \land \neg R(x)]$

- \rightarrow Rename $\frac{x}{y}$ in $(\forall x P(x))$: $\exists x [(\forall y P(y)) \land \neg R(x)]$.
- \rightarrow Move $\forall y$ outwards: $\exists x \forall y [P(y) \land \neg R(x)].$

Theorem. There exists an algorithm that, for any FOL formula φ , efficiently (i.e., in polynomial time) calculates an equivalent formula in prenex normal form. (Proof: We just outlined that algorithm.)

Skolem Normal Form



Theorem (Skolem). Let $\varphi = \forall x_1 \dots \forall x_k \exists y \psi$ be a closed FOL formula in prenex normal form, such that all quantified variables are pairwise distinct, and the k-ary function symbol f does not appear in φ . Then φ is satisfiable if and only if $\forall x_1 \dots \forall x_k \psi \frac{y}{f(x_1,\dots,x_k)}$ is satisfiable. (Proof omitted.)

Note: Here, "0-ary function symbol" = constant symbol.

Transformation to Skolem normal form

Rename quantified variables until distinct. Then iteratively remove the outmost existential quantifier, using Skolem's theorem.

Example. $\exists x \forall y \exists z R(x, y, z)$ is transformed to:

- \rightarrow Remove " $\exists x$ ": $\forall y \exists z R(f, y, z)$. Remove " $\exists z$ ": $\forall y R(f, y, g(y))$.
- \rightarrow Note the arity/arguments of f vs. g: " $x_1 \dots x_k$ " in the above!

Skolem Normal Form, ctd.

Notation: A formula is in Skolem normal form (SNF) if it is in prenex normal form and has no existential quantifiers.

Theorem. There exists an algorithm that, for any closed FOL formula φ , efficiently calculates an SNF formula that is satisfiable iff φ is. We denote that formula φ^* . (Proof: We just outlined that algorithm.)

Example 1: (a) $\varphi_1 = \exists y \forall x [\neg Dog(x) \lor Chases(x,y)]$: "There exists a y chased by every dog x". (b) $\varphi_1^* = \forall x [\neg Dog(x) \lor Chases(x,f)]$: "The object named f is chased by every dog x".

Example 2: (a) $\varphi_2 = \forall x \exists y [\neg Dog(x) \lor Chases(x,y)]$: "For every dog x, there exists y chased by x". (b) $\varphi_2^* = \forall x [\neg Dog(x) \lor Chases(x,f(x))]$: "For every dog x, we can interprete f(x) with a y chased by x".

- \rightarrow Satisfying existential quantifier for universally quantified variables x_1, \ldots, x_k
- = choosing a value for a function of x_1, \ldots, x_k .

Note: φ^* is *not* equivalent to φ . φ^* implies φ , but not vice versa. Example for $I \models \varphi$ but $I \not\models \varphi^*$: $\varphi = \exists x \ Dog(x), \ \varphi^* = Dog(f), \ Dog^I = \{Lassie\}, \ f^I = \{Garfield\}.$

Questionnaire

Question!

Introduction

Which are Skolem normal forms of

 $\forall x \exists y [\neg Dog(x) \lor \neg Eats(x, Lasagna) \lor (Cat(y) \land Chases(y, x))]$?

- (A): $\forall x \exists y [\neg Dog(x) \lor$ $\neg Eats(x, Lasagna) \lor$ $(Cat(f(x)) \wedge$ Chases(f(x),x))
- (C): $\forall x [\neg Dog(x) \lor$ $\neg Eats(x, Lasagna) \lor$ $(Cat(f(x)) \wedge$ Chases(f(x),x))

- (B): $\forall x [\neg Dog(x) \lor$ $\neg Eats(x, Lasagna) \lor$ $(Cat(f) \wedge Chases(f,x))$
- (D): $\forall x [\neg Dog(x) \lor$ $\neg Eats(x, Lasagna) \lor$ $(Cat(q(x)) \wedge Chases(q(x), x))]$
- \rightarrow (A): No, we need to remove the existential quantifier over y. (B): No, f needs x as an argument. (C): Yes: " $\exists y$ " is removed, and "y" is replaced by a new function symbol with argument x. (D): Same as (C).
- → Note the different function symbols in (C) and (D): The Skolem normal form is unique up to renaming of function symbols.

Clausal Normal Form

universal prefix
$$+$$
 disjunction of literals $\forall x_1 \forall x_2 \forall x_3 \ldots \forall x_n (l_1 \lor \cdots \lor l_n)$ \rightarrow Written $\{l_1, \ldots, l_n\}$.

Transformation to clausal normal form

- **1** Transform to SNF: $\forall x_1 \forall x_2 \forall x_3 \cdots \forall x_n \varphi$.
- ② Transform φ to satisfiability-equivalent CNF ψ . (Same as in propositional logic.)
- **3** Write as set of clauses: One for each disjunction in ψ .
- Standardize variables apart: Rename variables so that each occurs in at most one clause. (Needed for FOL resolution, Chapter 12.)

Theorem. There exists an algorithm that, for any closed FOL formula φ , efficiently calculates a formula in clausal normal form that is satisfiable iff φ is satisfiable. (Proof: We just outlined that algorithm.)

All 3 Transformations: Example

$$\forall x [\forall y (Animal(y) \to Loves(x,y)) \to \exists y Loves(y,x)]$$

- → Means what? "Everyone who loves all animals is loved by someone."
 - 1. Eliminate equivalences and implications:

$$\forall x [\neg \forall y (\neg Animal(y) \lor Loves(x,y)) \lor \exists y Loves(y,x)]$$

2. Move negation inwards:

$$\forall x [\exists y \neg (\neg Animal(y) \lor Loves(x,y)) \lor \exists y Loves(y,x)] \forall x [\exists y (\neg \neg Animal(y) \land \neg Loves(x,y)) \lor \exists y Loves(y,x)] \forall x [\exists y (Animal(y) \land \neg Loves(x,y)) \lor \exists y Loves(y,x)]$$

- 3. Move quantifiers outwards: \rightarrow Prenex normal form.
 - \rightarrow Note: y is **not** free in " $\exists y Loves(y, x)$ ": (Make variables distinct).

$$\forall x \exists y [(Animal(y) \land \neg Loves(x,y)) \lor \exists y Loves(y,x)]$$

- \rightarrow Note: y is free in " $(Animal(y) \land \neg Loves(x, y))$ ".
- $\forall x \exists y \exists z [(Animal(y) \land \neg Loves(x, y)) \lor Loves(z, x)]$

All 3 Transformations: Example, ctd.

$$\forall x \exists y \exists z [(Animal(y) \land \neg Loves(x,y)) \lor Loves(z,x)]$$

4. Remove existential quantifiers: \rightarrow Skolem normal form.

$$\forall x \exists z [(Animal(f(x)) \land \neg Loves(x, f(x))) \lor Loves(z, x)]$$

$$\forall x [(Animal(f(x)) \land \neg Loves(x, f(x))) \lor Loves(g(x), x)]$$

5. Transform to CNF:

$$\forall x [(Animal(f(x)) \lor Loves(g(x), x)) \land (\neg Loves(x, f(x)) \lor Loves(g(x), x))]$$

6. Write as set of clauses:

```
\{\{Animal(f(x)), Loves(g(x), x)\}, \{\neg Loves(x, f(x)), Loves(g(x), x)\}\}
```

7. Standardize variables apart: → Clausal normal form.

```
\{\{Animal(f(x)), Loves(g(x), x)\}, \{\neg Loves(y, f(y)), Loves(g(y), y)\}\}
```

Questionnaire

Example "Animals" (simplified):
$$U = \{o_1, o_2, o_3\}$$
; $Lassie^I = o_1$, $Garfield^I = o_2$, $Bello^I = o_3$; $Dog^I = \{o_1, o_3\}$, $Chases^I = \{(o_3, o_2), (o_1, o_3)\}$.

Question!

Introduction

Which of these φ (1) have $I \models \varphi$, or (2) are satisfiable by extending I with an interpretation of f?

- (A): $\forall x \exists y [Dog(x) \rightarrow Chases(x, y)]$
- (C): $\forall x[Dog(x) \rightarrow$
 - Chases(x, f(x))]

- (B): $\exists y \forall x [Dog(x) \rightarrow Chases(x, y)]$
- (D): $\forall x[Dog(x) \rightarrow Chases(x, f)]$
- \rightarrow (A): Yes, (1) because Bello chases Garfield and Lassie chases Bello. (B): No, because Bello respectively Lassie chase different y. (C): Yes, (2) by choosing $f(o_3) := o_2$ and $f(o_1) := o_3$ (cf. (A)). (D): No, because f has no argument (cf. (B)).
- \rightarrow Note that (C) is a SNF for (A), and (D) is a SNF for (B). Note also that (D) is a "flawed SNF" for (A) where we forgot to give f the argument x. (Compare slide 35)

 Syntax
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Summary

- Predicate logic allows to explicitly speak about objects and their properties.
 It is thus a more natural and compact representation language than propositional logic; it also enables us to speak about infinite sets of objects.
- Logic has thousands of years of history. A major current application in Al is Semantic Technology.
- First-order predicate logic (FOL) allows universal and existential quantification over objects.
- ullet A FOL interpretation consists of a universe U and a function I mapping constant symbols/predicate symbols/function symbols to elements/relations/functions on U.
- In prenex normal form, all quantifiers are up front. In Skolem normal form, additionally there are no existential quantifiers. In clausal normal form, additionally the formula is in CNF.
- Any FOL formula can efficiently be brought into a satisfiability-equivalent clausal normal form.

 Syntax
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Reading

Introduction

• Chapter 8: First-Order Logic, Sections 8.1 and 8.2 [Russell and Norvig (2010)].

Content: A less formal account of what I cover in "Syntax" and "Semantics". Contains different examples, and complementary explanations. Nice as additional background reading.

Sections 8.3 and 8.4 provide additional material on using FOL, and on modeling in FOL, that I don't cover in this lecture. Nice reading, not required for exam.

• Chapter 9: Inference in First-Order Logic, Section 9.5.1 [Russell and Norvig (2010)].

Content: A very brief (2 pages) description of what I cover in "Normal Forms". Much less formal; I couldn't find where (if at all) RN cover transformation into prenex normal form. Can serve as additional reading, can't replace the lecture.

References

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References I

Stuart Russell and Peter Norvig. Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach (Third Edition). Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 2010.

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