

Chapter Four

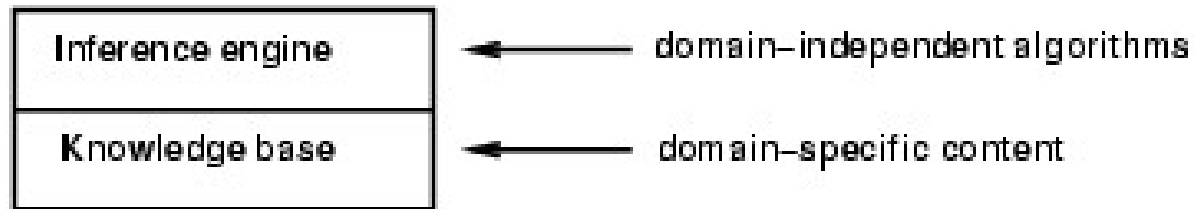
Knowledge and Reasoning

Outline

- KB agent and KB representation
 - General Idea about Logic
 - Kinds of logic
 - Propositional (Boolean) logic
 - PL connector priority
 - Types of sentences in Logic (Equivalence, validity, satisfiability)
 - Entailment
 - Inference rules and theorem proving
Logical equivalence
 - Forms of logical expression
 - Example of PL Knowledge representation and inferencing (The Wumpus world)
 - Model of a world
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Knowledge Base Agent

- **Knowledge base agent** is an agent that perform **action** using the **knowledge it has** and **reason** about their **action using** its **inference procedure**.



- **Knowledge base** is a set of **representation of facts** and **their relationships** called **rules** about the world.
- **Each fact/rules** are called **sentences** which is represented using a **language** called **knowledge representation language**.
- **Declarative** approach to building an agent (or other system):
 - Tell it what it needs to know (Knowledge base)
 - Ask what it knows
- answers should follow from the **KB**

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- Most AI systems are made up of two basic parts
 - **Knowledge base:** facts about **objects** in **the chosen domain**
 - **Inference mechanism(engine):** a set of procedures **that are used to examine** the knowledge base **in an orderly manner to answer questions, solve problems or make decisions** within **the domain**
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Knowledge Bases Agent

The agent must be able to:

- Represent states of the world, actions, etc.
 - Incorporate new percepts (facts and rules)
 - Update internal representations of the world
 - Deduce hidden properties of the world
 - Deduce appropriate actions
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Example of KB written in PROLOG

■ FACTS

1. female(azieb).
2. male(melaku).
3. female(selam).
4. parent(melaku,selam).
5. parent(azieb,selam).

■ RULE

1. father(X,Y):-male(X),parent(X,Y).
 2. mother(X,Y):-female(X),parent(X,Y).
 3. wife(X,Y):-parent(X,Z),parent(Y,Z).
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Example

- The above example consider *a world of human beings* and their relationships (gender, parent, etc). The complete representation of such information is state representation.
- Agent should **incorporate new percept** like if necessary
 - father(Kebede, selam).
 - Mother(Tsehay, selam).
 - Male(kebede).
- Agent should **update internal representation** of the world.
For example, if **died(melaku)** is given we should modify any fact that tells us about live history about **melaku**.
- The agent should **deduce hidden portion** of the world like **azieb** and **selam** are **beautiful**.
- **Deduce appropriate action** to **query**.
For example, for the query is aster beautiful? The agent will say yes or no.

Knowledge representation

- **Knowledge representation** refers to the **technique** how to express the **available facts** and **rules** inside a computer so that agent will use it to perform well.
 - Knowledge representation consists of:
 - **Syntax (grammar)**: possible **physical configuration** that constitute a **sentence** (fact or rule) inside the **agent architecture**.
 - For example one possible syntax rule may be **every sentence** must end **with full stop**.
 - **Semantics (concept)**: **determine the facts** in the world to which the sentence refers
 - **Without semantics** a sentence is just a **sequence of characters** or **binary sequences**
 - Semantic defines the **meaning of the sentence**
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Knowledge representation

E.g., In the language of arithmetic

- $x+2 \geq y$ is a sentence;
- $x^2+y > \{ \}$ is not a sentence
- $x+2 \geq y$ is **true** iff the number $x+2$ is not less than the number y
- $x+2 \geq y$ is **true** in a world where $x = 7, y = 1$
- $x+2 \geq y$ is **false** in a world where $x = 0, y = 6$
- Given clear definition of **semantics** and **syntax** of a language, we call that language: **logical language**.
- **Knowledge representation** is used to **represent part of the world** (facts and their association) into ideal computer system
- **KB** for **agent program** can be represented **using programming** language designed for this purpose like **LISP** and **PROLOG**

What is Logic

- **Logic** is concerned with **reasoning** and the **validity** of arguments.
 - **In general**, in logic, we are **not** concerned with the **truth of statements**, but rather with their **validity**.
 - That is to say, **although the following argument** is clearly logical, it is not something that we would consider **to be true**:
 - All lemons are blue
 - Eleni is a lemon
 - Therefore, Eleni is blue
 - This set of statements is considered to be **valid** because **the conclusion** (Eleni is blue) follows logically from the other two statements, which we often call the **premises**.
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Logic

- **Logic** in **AI** is the key idea for **KB design**, **KB representation** and **inferencing** (reasoning)
- **Logic** is **formal languages** use for **representing information** so that **conclusions** can be drawn.
- **Logic** is the study of the **principles** of **reasoning** and **arguments** towards the truth of a given conclusion given premises.
- **Logic** is the **systematic study** of the general conditions of **valid inferences**
- **Logic** includes...
 1. **Formal system of defining the world**
 - Syntax
 - Semantics
 2. **A proof theory:**
 - It is **Rules** for determining **all entailments** (given the hidden property of the world)
 - A **set of rules** for **deducing the entailment** of a set of sentences.

Kinds of Logic

- In mathematics there are **different kinds of logics**. Some of these according to order of their generality are
 - ⌘ Propositional logic
 - ⌘ First order logic
 - ⌘ Second order logic and more
 - **Propositional logic** and its application will be discussed in this now then we will discuss first order logic
 - **First order logic** can be used to **design**, **represent** or **infer** for **any environment in the real world**.
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Propositional (Boolean) logic (PL)

- Proposition is **statement** which is either **true** or **false** but not both at any time.
- A statement is a **sentence** which is either **true** or **false**.
- PL uses **declarative sentences only**
- PL **doesn't involve** quantifiers.
- **Not all** sentences are **statement** (interrogatives, imperatives and exclamatory)
- **Proposition** can be conditional or unconditional

Examples

Socrates is mortal

If the winter is severe, students will not succeed.

All are the same iff their color is black

- **In propositional logic**, symbols represent the **whole proposition**.

Examples:

☞ M = Socrates is mortal, W = winter is severe, S = students will not succeed

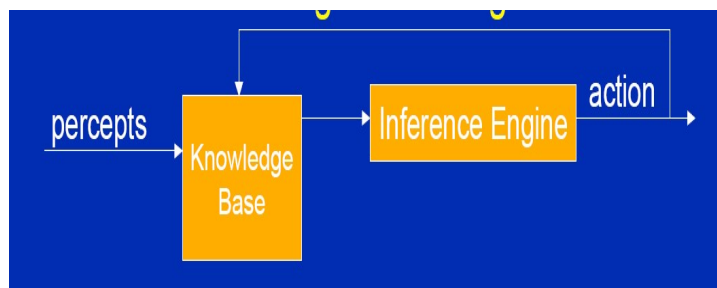
Propositional (Boolean) logic (PL)

- **Proposition symbols** can be combined using **Boolean connectives** to generate **new proposition** with complex meaning.
- Symbols involved in PL:
 - **Logical constants** (TRUE and FALSE)
 - **Proposition symbols** (also called atomic symbols) like M, W, S
 - **Logical connectives** \neg (**negation**), \wedge (**conjunction**), \vee (**disjunction**), \Leftrightarrow (**bi-implication or equivalence**), \Rightarrow (**implication**) and **parenthesis**
- Rules
 - **Logical constants** and **propositional symbols** are **sentence** by them selves.
 - Wrapping parenthesis around a sentence yield a sentence like (P \vee Q)
 - **Literal** are atomic **symbols** or **negated** atomic symbols
 - **Complex sentence** can be formed by **combining simpler** sentences with **logical connectors**

PL connector priority

- Priority of logical connectives from **highest** to **lowest**
 - Parenthesis
 - Negation
 - Conjunction
 - Disjunction
 - Implication
 - Bi-implication

General principle of KB agent function



Types of sentence

- Given a sentence α , this sentence according to the world considered can be
 - **Valid** (tautology)
 - **Invalid** (contradiction)
 - **Satisfiable** (neither valid nor invalid)
 - **Unsatisfiable** (equivalent to Invalid)
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Validity (tautology)

- A sentence is valid iff it is true under any interpretations in all possible world.
- **Proof methods: Truth -Tables and Inference Rules**
- Validity is connected to inference via the Deduction Theorem:

$KB \models \alpha$ if and only if $(KB \Rightarrow \alpha)$

Example:

$x > 4$ or $x \leq 4$;

Water boils at 100 degree centigrade

Human has two legs (may not be valid)

Books have page number (may not be valid)

Satisfiability

- A sentence is **satisfiable** iff there is **some interpretation** in **some world** for which it is **true**.
 - A set of sentences is **satisfiable** if there exists an interpretation in which **every sentence is true** (it has at least one model).
 - **Proof Methods: Truth-Tables**
 - **Every valid** sentence is **satisfiable**
 - Example: $x+2 = 20$
 - Every student of AI are in their class
 - A sentence which is **not satisfiable** is **unsatisfiable (contradiction)**.
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Entailment

- Entailment means that one thing follows from another:
- It can be represented by \models symbol (double turnstyle)
- $KB \models \alpha$ shows α can be entailed from KB
- Knowledge base KB entails sentence α if and only if α is true in all worlds where KB is true.
 - E.g., the KB containing “the Giants won” and “the Reds won” entails “Either the Giants won or the Reds won”
 - E.g., $x+y = 4$ entails $4 = x+y$
 - E.g., $x+y = 4$ entails $x=2$ and $y=2$
- Entailment is a relationship between sentences (i.e., syntax) that is based on semantics

Inference Procedure

- An **inference procedure** is a **procedure** used as **reasoning engine**.
 - It can do:
 - **Given KB**, generate **new sentence α** that can be **entailed** by KB and we call the inference procedure **entail α**
 - **Given KB** and **α** , it will **prove** whether **α** is entailed by **KB** or **not**
 - **$KB \vdash_i \alpha$** means sentence **α** can be **derived** from **KB** by **procedure i** (**\vdash** is called **turnstile or single turnstyle**)
 - The record of operation of a sound inference procedure is called a **proof**
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Inference Procedure property

- **Soundness**: inference procedure i is said to be **sound**:
if whenever $KB \vdash_i \alpha$, it is also **true** that $KB \models \alpha$
- **Completeness**: inference procedure i is said to be **complete** if whenever $KB \models \alpha$, it is also **true** that $KB \vdash_i \alpha$
- **Soundness** of an inference can be established through **truth table**
for example and inference procedure that entails **P** from a **KB** which consists of $P \rightarrow Q$ & **Q** is not sound as shown bellow

	P	Q	$P \rightarrow Q$	Remark
1	T	T	T	Q, $P \rightarrow Q$, & P are true
2	T	F	F	Premises doesn't satisfied
3	F	T	T	<i>Premises satisfied but not the conclusion</i>
4	F	F	T	Premises doesn't satisfied

Rules of inference for PL

- **Soundness of an inference** can be established through truth table

Example $(P \vee H) \wedge \neg H \Rightarrow P$

- To prove validity of a sentence, there are a **set of already identified patterns** called **inference rules**. These are:

1. **Modes Ponens or implication elimination**

$$\frac{\alpha \Rightarrow \beta, \alpha}{\beta}$$

2. **And Elimination**

$$\frac{\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_N}{\alpha_i}$$

3. **And introduction**

$$\frac{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_N}{\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_N}$$

4. **Or introduction**

$$\frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_1 \vee \alpha_2 \vee \dots \vee \alpha_N}$$

5. **Double negation elimination**

$$\frac{\neg \neg \alpha}{\alpha}$$

6. **Unit resolution**

$$\frac{\alpha \vee \beta, \neg \beta}{\alpha}$$

7. **Resolution**

$$\frac{\alpha \vee \beta, \neg \beta \vee \gamma}{\alpha \vee \gamma} \quad \text{or equivalently} \quad \frac{\neg \alpha \Rightarrow \beta, \beta \Rightarrow \gamma}{\neg \alpha \Rightarrow \gamma}$$

Following are some terminologies related to inference rules:

- **Implication:** It is one of the logical connectives which can be represented as $P \rightarrow Q$. It is a Boolean expression.
 - **Converse:** The converse of implication, which means the right-hand side proposition goes to the left-hand side and vice-versa. It can be written as $Q \rightarrow P$.
 - **Contrapositive:** The negation of converse is termed as contrapositive, and it can be represented as $\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$.
 - **Inverse:** The negation of implication is called inverse. It can be represented as $\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$.
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Rule of inference for propositional logic

Rules of Inference:- are the templates for constructing valid argument

Inference: deriving conclusion from evidences

Types of Inference Rules:

1. Modus Ponens:	$\begin{array}{c} \text{p} \rightarrow \text{q} \quad \text{T} \\ \text{p} \quad \text{T} \\ \hline \therefore \text{q} \quad \text{T} \end{array}$	OR	$[(\text{p} \rightarrow \text{q}) \wedge \text{p}] \rightarrow \text{q}$
2. Modus Tollens:	$\begin{array}{c} \text{p} \rightarrow \text{q} \quad \text{T} \\ \sim \text{q} \quad \text{T} \\ \hline \therefore \sim \text{p} \quad \text{T} \end{array}$	OR	$[(\text{p} \rightarrow \text{q}) \wedge \sim \text{q}] \rightarrow \sim \text{p}$
3. Hypothetical Syllogism	$\begin{array}{c} \text{p} \rightarrow \text{q} \quad \text{T} \\ \text{q} \rightarrow \text{r} \quad \text{T} \\ \hline \therefore \text{p} \rightarrow \text{r} \quad \text{T} \end{array}$	OR	$[(\text{p} \rightarrow \text{q}) \wedge (\text{q} \rightarrow \text{r})] \rightarrow (\text{p} \rightarrow \text{r})$
4. Disjunctive Syllogism	$\begin{array}{c} \text{p} \vee \text{q} \quad \text{T} \\ \sim \text{p} \quad \text{T} \\ \hline \therefore \text{q} \quad \text{T} \end{array}$	OR	$[(\text{p} \vee \text{q}) \wedge \sim \text{p}] \rightarrow \text{q}$

5. Addition

$$\frac{p \quad T}{\therefore p \vee q} = (T)$$

OR

$$p \rightarrow (p \vee q)$$

6. Simplification

$$\frac{\frac{p \quad T}{\therefore p} \quad \frac{q \quad T}{\therefore q}}{\therefore p \wedge q} = (T)$$

OR

$$\frac{p \wedge q}{\therefore p} \quad \text{OR} \quad \frac{p \wedge q}{\therefore q}$$

$$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow p \quad \text{or} \quad (p \wedge q) \rightarrow q$$

7. Conjunction

$$\frac{\frac{p \quad T}{\therefore p} \quad \frac{q \quad T}{\therefore q}}{\therefore p \wedge q} = (T)$$

OR

$$[(p) \wedge (q)] \rightarrow (p \wedge q)$$

8. Resolution

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} T/F \\ p \vee q \quad T \\ F/T \\ \sim p \vee r \quad T \end{array}}{\therefore q \vee r} = (T)$$

OR

$$[(p \vee q) \wedge (\sim p \vee r)] \rightarrow (q \vee r)$$

What rule is used for the conclusion?

1. If world population continues to grow, then cities will become hopelessly crowded; If cities become hopelessly overcrowded, then pollution will become intolerable. Therefore, if world population continues to grow then pollution will become intolerable.
 2. Either Yohanes or Thomas was in Ethiopia; Yohanes was not in Ethiopia. Therefore, Thomas was in Ethiopia.
 3. If twelve million children die yearly from starvation, then something is wrong with food distribution; Twelve million children die yearly from starvation. Therefore, something is wrong with food distribution.
 4. If Japan cares about endangered species, then it has stopped killing whales; Japan has not stopped killing whales. Therefore, Japan does not care about endangered species.
 5. If Napoleon was killed in a plane crash, then Napoleon is dead; Napoleon is dead. Therefore, Napoleon was killed in a plane crash.
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Logical equivalence

- Two sentences are **logically equivalent** iff they have the **same truth value** in all possible world
- equivalently $\alpha \equiv \beta$ **iff** $\alpha \models \beta$ and $\beta \models \alpha$

$$(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\beta \wedge \alpha) \quad \text{commutativity of } \wedge$$

$$(\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\beta \vee \alpha) \quad \text{commutativity of } \vee$$

$$((\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \quad \text{associativity of } \wedge$$

$$((\alpha \vee \beta) \vee \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \vee (\beta \vee \gamma)) \quad \text{associativity of } \vee$$

$$\neg(\neg\alpha) \equiv \alpha \quad \text{double-negation elimination}$$

$$(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg\beta \Rightarrow \neg\alpha) \quad \text{contraposition}$$

$$(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg\alpha \vee \beta) \quad \text{implication elimination}$$

$$(\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \wedge (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)) \quad \text{biconditional elimination}$$

$$\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\neg\alpha \vee \neg\beta) \quad \text{de Morgan}$$

$$\neg(\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\neg\alpha \wedge \neg\beta) \quad \text{de Morgan}$$

$$(\alpha \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee (\alpha \wedge \gamma)) \quad \text{distributivity of } \wedge \text{ over } \vee$$

$$(\alpha \vee (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \vee \beta) \wedge (\alpha \vee \gamma)) \quad \text{distributivity of } \vee \text{ over } \wedge$$

Prove that $(P \vee H) \wedge \neg H \Rightarrow P$ is valid

Prove **S**, given that:

$$(P \wedge Q)$$

$$(P \rightarrow R)$$

$$(Q \wedge R) \rightarrow S$$

Forms of Logical expression

There are different **standard** forms of **expressing PL statement**. Some of these are:

1. **Clausal normal form**: it is a set of **one** or **more** literals **connected** with the **disjunction operator** (disjunction of literals).
Example $\sim P \vee Q \vee \sim R$ is a **clausal form**
2. **Conjunctive normal forms (CNF)**: **conjunction** of **disjunction** of literals or **conjunction** of **clauses**.
Example $(A \vee B) \wedge (C \vee D)$
3. **Disjunctive normal form (DNF)**: **disjunction** of **conjunction** of literals.
Example $(A \wedge B) \vee (C \wedge D)$
4. **Horn form**: **conjunction** of **literals** implies a **literal**.
Example $(A \wedge B \wedge C \wedge D) \Rightarrow E$
5. A BNF (Backus-Naur Form) **grammar of sentences** in propositional logic.

Sentence \rightarrow Atomic Sentence | Complex Sentence

AtomicSentence \rightarrow True | False | P | Q | R | ...

ComplexSentence \rightarrow (Sentence) | Sentence Connective Sentence | \neg Sentence

Connective \rightarrow \wedge | \vee | \Leftrightarrow | \Rightarrow

Inference procedure and normal forms

- The inference procedure that we **have seen before** are all **sound**
 - If KB is represented in **CNF**, the **generalized resolution inference procedure** is **complete**
 - If KB is **represented in Horn form**, the **generalized modus ponens algorithm** is **complete**
 - It can be proved that **every sentence of human language** can be represented using logic as **CNF**. However, **it is not possible** in Horn form.
 - **Therefore, CNF** is a **more powerful representation** technique for **knowledge**
 - But, Horn form representation of knowledge is **easily understandable** and **convenient**. It also require polynomial time inference procedure.
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Generalized Resolution for PL

- Given any **two clauses** **A** and **B**, if there are any **literal P_1** in **A** which has a complementary **literal P_2** in **B**, delete **P_1** and **P_2** from A and B and **construct a disjunction** of the **remaining clauses**.
- The clause constructed is called the **resolvent of A and B**.

– **For example**, consider the following clauses

A: $P \vee Q \vee R$

B: $\sim P \vee Q \vee M$

C: $\sim Q \vee S$

From clause A and B, if we remove **P** and **$\sim P$** , it resolves into clause

D : $Q \vee R \vee Q \vee M \equiv \mathbf{Q \vee R \vee M}$.

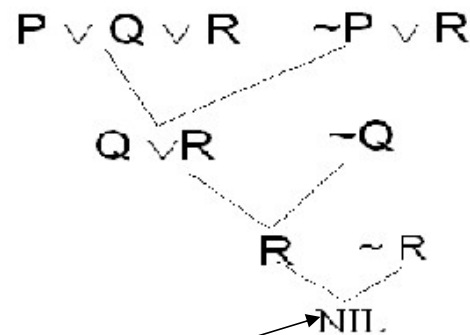
If Q of clause D and $\sim Q$ of clause C resolved, we get clause

E: $\mathbf{R \vee M \vee S}$

Generalized Resolution for PL

As another example, consider the following clauses

- ◆ A: $P \vee Q \vee R$
- ◆ B: $\sim P \vee R$
- ◆ C: $\sim Q$
- ◆ D: $\sim R$



An empty clause, which is false. This proves the contradiction.

Note: in order to apply resolution for proving a theory, make sure first all the knowledge is in its clausal form

Example: Resolution

Prove that r follows from:

$$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow (r \vee s) \quad -(1)$$

$$p \rightarrow \sim s \quad -(2)$$

$$p \wedge q \quad -(3)$$

Solution:

Clause (1) in Clausal form

$$\sim (p \wedge q) \vee (r \vee s)$$

$$\equiv \{\sim p \vee \sim q \vee r \vee s\} \quad -(1)$$

Clause (2) in Clausal form

$$\{\sim p \vee \sim s\} \quad -(2)$$

Clause (3) in Clausal form

$$\{p\} \quad -(3)$$

$$\{q\} \quad -(4)$$

Assume not r which $\{\sim r\}$ in Clausal form - (5)

Example: Resolution

Using inference rules: from unit resolution rule of (1) and (5)

$\{\sim p \vee \sim q \vee s\}$ - (6) (resolve r with $\sim r$ and get resolvent)

from unit resolution of (3) and (6)

$\{\sim q \vee s\}$ - (7) (resolve p with $\sim p$ and get resolvent)

from (4) and (7)

$\{s\}$ - (8) (resolve q with $\sim q$ and get resolvent)

from (2) and (8)

$\{\sim p\}$ - (9) (resolve p with $\sim p$ and get resolvent)

from (3) and (9)

$\{\}$ - (10)

Therefore r follows from the original clauses

Converting to CNF

Converting the following sentence to CNF:

$$a \wedge \sim b \rightarrow c \wedge d$$
$$\equiv (a \wedge \sim b) \rightarrow (c \wedge d)$$

Steps:

1. Remove Implication

$$\sim(a \wedge \sim b) \vee (c \wedge d)$$

2. Push Negations Inwards

$$\sim a \vee \sim \sim b \vee (c \wedge d)$$

3. Eliminate Double Negations

$$\sim a \vee b \vee (c \wedge d)$$

4. Push Disjunctions into Conjunctions

$$(\sim a \vee b \vee c) \wedge (\sim a \vee b \vee d)$$

Converting to CNF

Convert the following sentence to CNF:

$$((a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow c)$$

Eliminate Implication

$$\equiv (\sim a \vee b) \rightarrow c$$

$$\equiv \sim(\sim a \vee b) \vee c$$

Push Negations Inwards

$$\equiv (\sim\sim a \wedge \sim b) \vee c$$

Eliminate Double Negations, apply De Morgans law

$$\equiv (a \wedge \sim b) \vee c$$

Push Disjunctions into Conjunctions

$$\equiv (a \vee c) \wedge (\sim b \vee c)$$

Hence $(a \vee c) \wedge (\sim b \vee c)$ is CNF of $((a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow c)$

Converting to CNF

Convert the following sentence to CNF:

1. $(a \rightarrow ((b \wedge c) \rightarrow d))$
2. $P \leftrightarrow \neg(\neg P)$
3. $A \leftrightarrow (B \vee C)$

The Wumpus World

The Wumpus world is a simple world example to illustrate the worth of a knowledge-based agent and to represent knowledge representation.

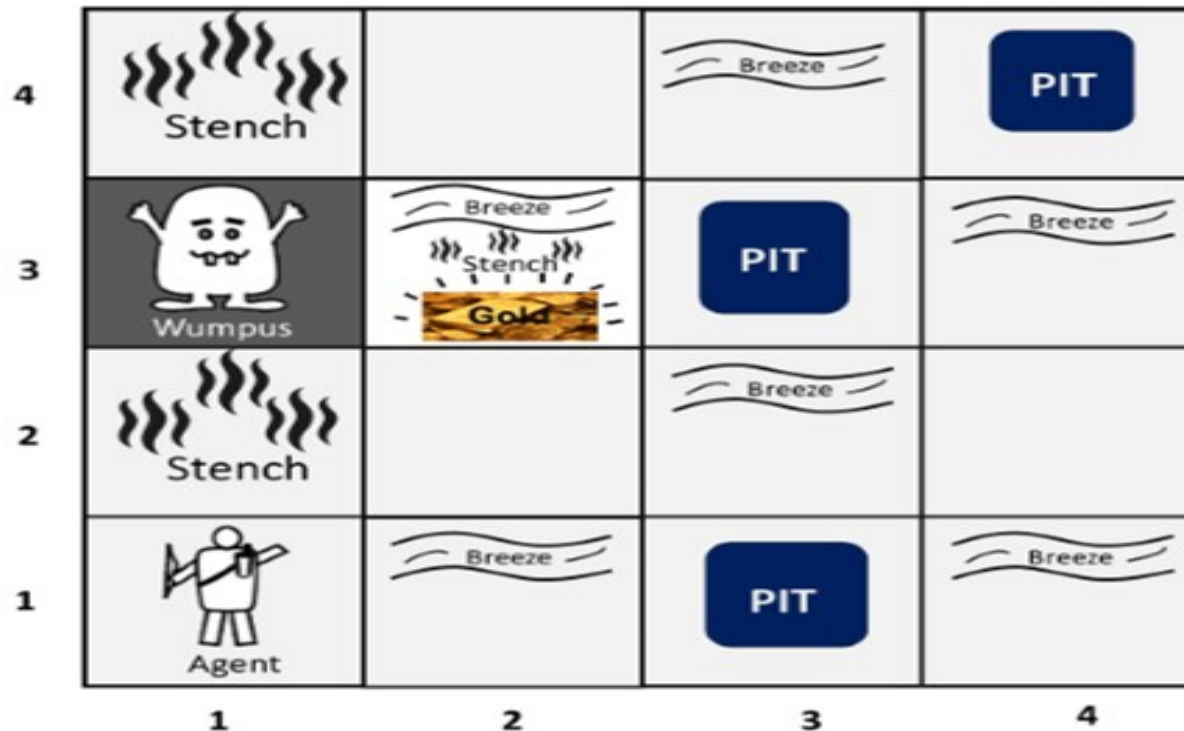
The Wumpus world is a cave which has 4/4 rooms connected with passageways. So there are total 16 rooms which are connected with each other.

We have a knowledge-based agent who will go forward in this world. The cave has a room with a beast which is called Wumpus, who eats anyone who enters the room.

The Wumpus can be shot by the agent, but the agent has a single arrow. In the Wumpus world, there are some Pits rooms which are bottomless, and if agent falls in Pits, then he will be stuck there forever.

The exciting thing with this cave is that in one room there is a possibility of finding a heap of gold. So the agent goal is to find the gold and climb out the cave without fallen into Pits or eaten by Wumpus. The agent will get a reward if he comes out with gold, and he will get a penalty if eaten by Wumpus or falls in the pit.

Following is a sample diagram for representing the Wumpus world. It is showing some rooms with Pits, one room with Wumpus and one agent at (1, 1) square location of the world.



There are also some components which can help the agent to navigate the cave. These components are given as follows:

- A. The rooms adjacent to the Wumpus room are smelly, so that it would have some stench.
 - B. The room adjacent to PITs has a breeze, so if the agent reaches near to PIT, then he will perceive the breeze.
 - C. There will be glitter in the room if and only if the room has gold.
 - D. The Wumpus can be killed by the agent if the agent is facing to it, and Wumpus will emit a horrible scream which can be heard anywhere in the cave.
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Sensors:

- ✓ The agent will perceive the stench if he is in the room adjacent to the Wumpus. (Not diagonally).
- ✓ The agent will perceive breeze if he is in the room directly adjacent to the Pit.
- ✓ The agent will perceive the glitter in the room where the gold is present.
- ✓ The agent will perceive the bump if he walks into a wall.
- ✓ When the Wumpus is shot, it emits a horrible scream which can be perceived anywhere in the cave.
- ✓ These percepts can be represented as five element list, in which we will have different indicators for each sensor.

Example if agent perceives stench, breeze, but no glitter, no bump, and no scream then it can be represented as:

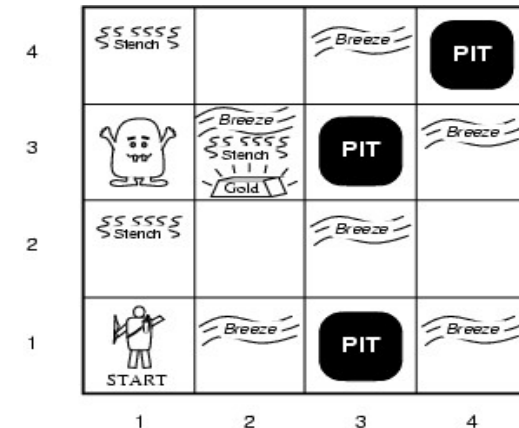
[Stench, Breeze, None, None, None].

Practical Example (The Wompus world)

- **Goal:** Agent wants to move to the square which holds Gold, grab it and come back to the original square and release it there
- Initially agent could be at any of the square

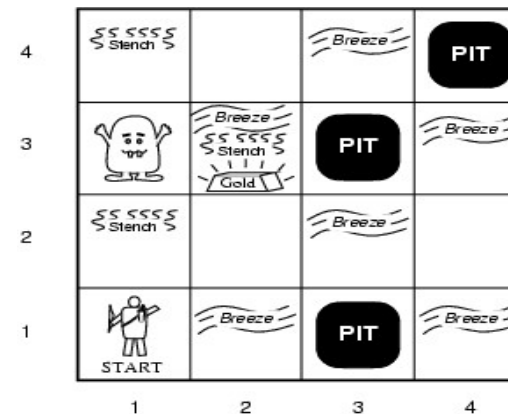
- **Environment**

- ◆ Squares adjacent to wumpus are smelly(stench)
- ◆ Squares adjacent to pit are breezy
- ◆ Glitter iff gold is in the same square
- ◆ Shooting kills wumpus if agent is facing to it
- ◆ Shooting uses up the only arrow
- ◆ Grabbing picks up gold if in same square
- ◆ Releasing drops the gold in same square



Practical Example (The Wompus world)

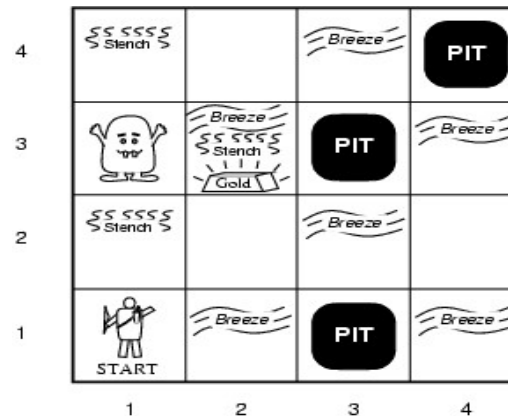
- Performance measure
 - Grab gold has score of 1000,
 - death by pits or wompus score -1000
 - using the arrow (shooting) score -10 and
 - the rest ation score -1
- Sensors: Stench, Breeze, Glitter, Bump, Scream
- Actuators: turn left 90°, turn right 90°, Forward, Grab, Release, Shoot



Practical Example (The Wompus world)

Characterization

- ⑩ Fully Observable No – only **local** perception
- ⑩ Deterministic Yes – outcomes exactly specified
- ⑩ Episodic No – sequential at the level of actions
- ⑩ Static Yes – Wumpus and Pits do not move
- ⑩ Discrete Yes
- ⑩ Single-agent? Yes – Wumpus is essentially a natural feature



Exploring the Wumpus world:

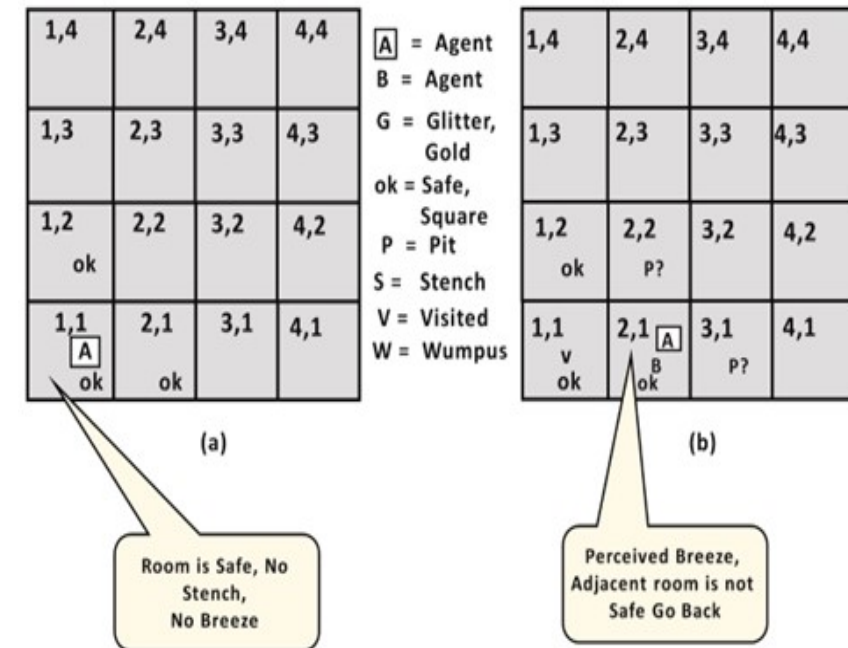
Now we will explore the Wumpus world and will determine how the agent will find its goal by applying logical reasoning.

Agent's First step:

Initially, the agent is in the first room or on the square [1,1], and we already know that this **room is safe** for the **agent**, so to represent on the below diagram (a) that room is safe we will add symbol OK.

Symbol **A** is used to represent **agent**, symbol **B** for the **breeze**, symbol **G** for **Glitter** or **gold**, symbol **V** for the **visited** room, **P** for **pits**, **W** for **Wumpus**.

At Room [1,1] agent **does not** feel any **breeze** or any **Stench** which means the **adjacent squares** are also OK.



Agent's second Step:

Now agent needs to move forward, so it will either move to [1, 2], or [2,1].

Let's suppose agent moves to the room [2, 1], at this room agent perceives some breeze which means Pit is around this room. The pit can be in [3, 1], or [2,2], so we will add symbol **P?** to say that, is this **Pit** room?

Now agent will stop and think and will not make any harmful move. **The agent will go back to the [1, 1] room.** The room [1,1], and [2,1] are visited by the agent, so we will use symbol **V** to represent the visited squares.

Agent's third step:

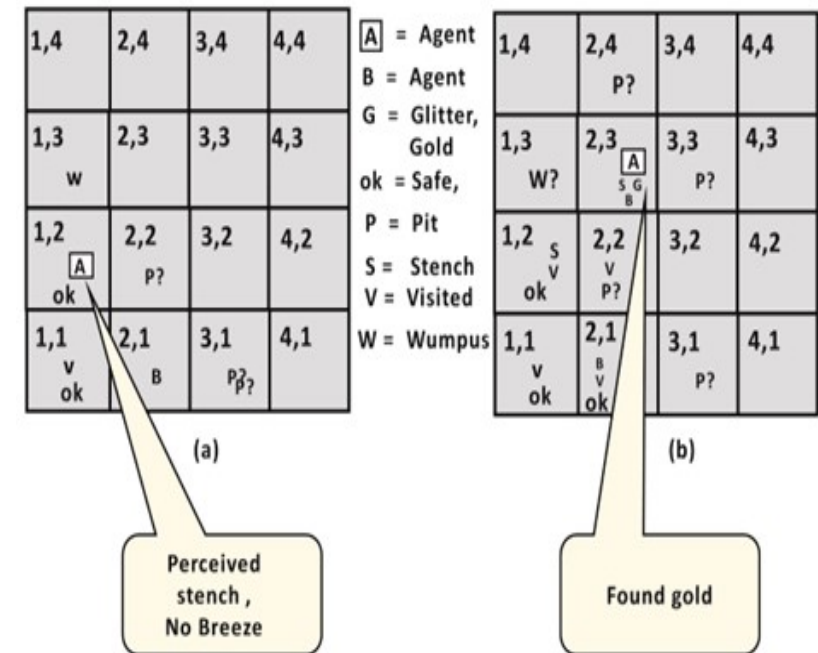
At the third step, now agent will move to the room [1,2] which is OK. In the room [1,2] agent perceives a stench which means there must be a Wumpus nearby.

But Wumpus cannot be in the room [1,1] as by rules of the game, and also not in [2,2] (Agent had not detected any stench when he was at [2,1]).

Therefore agent infers that Wumpus is in the room [1,3], and in current state, there is no breeze which means in [2,2] there is no Pit and no Wumpus. So it is safe, and we will mark it OK, and the agent moves further in [2,2].

Agent's fourth step:

At room [2,2], here no stench and no breezes present so let's suppose agent decides to move to [2,3]. At room [2,3] agent perceives glitter, so it should grab the gold and climb out of the cave.



Knowledge-base for Wumpus world

The agent starts visiting from first square [1, 1], and we already know that this room is safe for the agent. To build a knowledge base for wumpus world, we will use some rules and atomic propositions.

We need symbol $[i, j]$ for each location in the wumpus world, where i is for the location of rows, and j for column location.

1,4	2,4 P?	3,4	4,4
1,3 W?	2,3 S G B	3,3	4,3
1,2	2,2 V P?	3,2	4,2
1,1 A ok	2,1 B V ok	3,1 P?	4,1

Atomic proposition variable for Wumpus world:

Let $P_{i,j}$ be true if there is a Pit in the room $[i, j]$.

Let $B_{i,j}$ be true if agent perceives breeze in $[i, j]$, (dead or alive).

Let $W_{i,j}$ be true if there is wumpus in the square $[i, j]$.

Let $S_{i,j}$ be true if agent perceives stench in the square $[i, j]$.

Let $V_{i,j}$ be true if that square $[i, j]$ is visited.

Let $G_{i,j}$ be true if there is gold (and glitter) in the square $[i, j]$.

Let $OK_{i,j}$ be true if the room is safe.

Some Propositional Rules for the wumpus world:

$$(R1) \neg S_{11} \rightarrow \neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{21}$$

$$(R2) \neg S_{21} \rightarrow \neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{21} \wedge \neg W_{22} \wedge \neg W_{31}$$

$$(R3) \neg S_{12} \rightarrow \neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{22} \wedge \neg W_{13}$$

$$(R4) S_{12} \rightarrow W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22} \vee W_{11}$$

Following is the Simple KB for wumpus world when an agent moves from room [1, 1], to room [2,1]:

$\neg W_{11}$	$\neg S_{11}$	$\neg P_{11}$	$\neg B_{11}$	$\neg G_{11}$	V_{11}	OK_{11}
$\neg W_{12}$	----	$\neg P_{12}$	-----	----	$\neg V_{12}$	OK_{12}
$\neg W_{21}$	$\neg S_{21}$	$\neg P_{21}$	B_{21}	$\neg G_{21}$	V_{21}	OK_{21}

Here in the **first row**, we have mentioned propositional variables for room[1,1], which is showing that room does not have wumpus($\neg W_{11}$), no stench ($\neg S_{11}$), no Pit($\neg P_{11}$), no breeze($\neg B_{11}$), no gold ($\neg G_{11}$), visited (V_{11}), and the room is Safe(OK_{11}).

In the **second row**, we have mentioned propositional variables for room [1,2], which is showing that there is no wumpus, stench and breeze are unknown as an agent has not visited room [1,2], no Pit, not visited yet, and the room is safe.

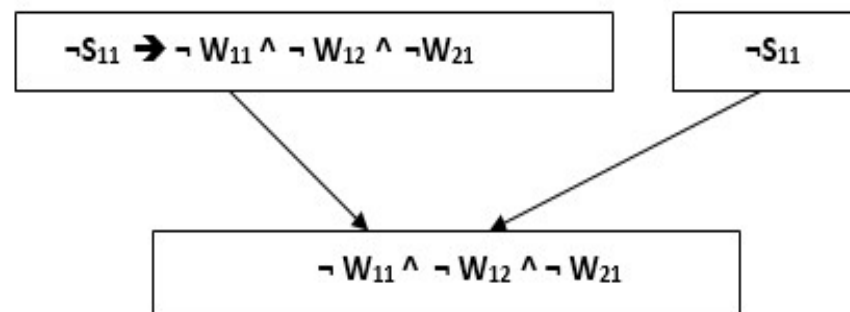
In the **third row** we have mentioned propositional variable for room[2,1], which is showing that there is no wumpus($\neg W_{21}$), no stench ($\neg S_{21}$), no Pit ($\neg P_{21}$), Perceives breeze(B_{21}), no glitter($\neg G_{21}$), visited (V_{21}), and room is safe (OK_{21}).

Prove that Wumpus is in the room (1,3) ?

- We can prove that wumpus is in the room (1, 3) using propositional rules which we have derived for the wumpus world and using inference rule.

Apply Modus Ponens with $\neg S_{11}$ and R1:

We will firstly apply MP rule with R1 which is $\neg S_{11} \rightarrow \neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{21}$, and $\neg S_{11}$ which will give the output $\neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{21}$.



Prove that Wumpus is in the room (1,3) cont'd

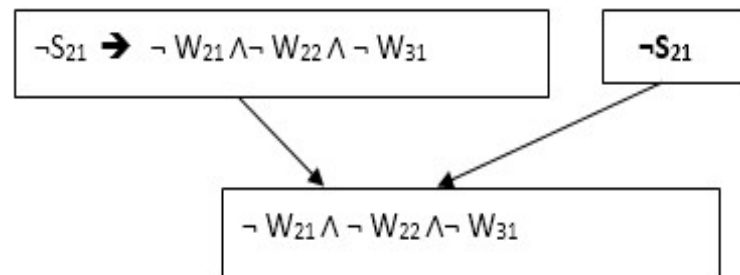
Apply And-Elimination Rule:

- After applying And-elimination rule to $\neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{21}$, we will get three statements:

$\neg W_{11}$, $\neg W_{12}$, and $\neg W_{21}$.

Apply Modus Ponens to $\neg S_{21}$, and R2:

- By applying Modus Ponens to $\neg S_{21}$ and R2 which is $\neg S_{21} \rightarrow \neg W_{21} \wedge \neg W_{22} \wedge \neg W_{31}$, which will give the Output as $\neg W_{21} \wedge \neg W_{22} \wedge \neg W_{31}$



Prove that Wumpus is in the room (1,3) cont'd

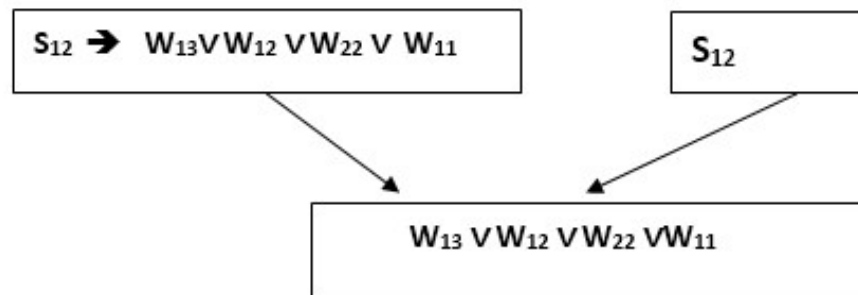
Apply And -Elimination rule:

Now again apply And-elimination rule to $\neg W_{21} \wedge \neg W_{22} \wedge \neg W_{31}$, We will get three statements:

$\neg W_{21}$, $\neg W_{22}$, and $\neg W_{31}$.

Apply MP to S_{12} and R_4 :

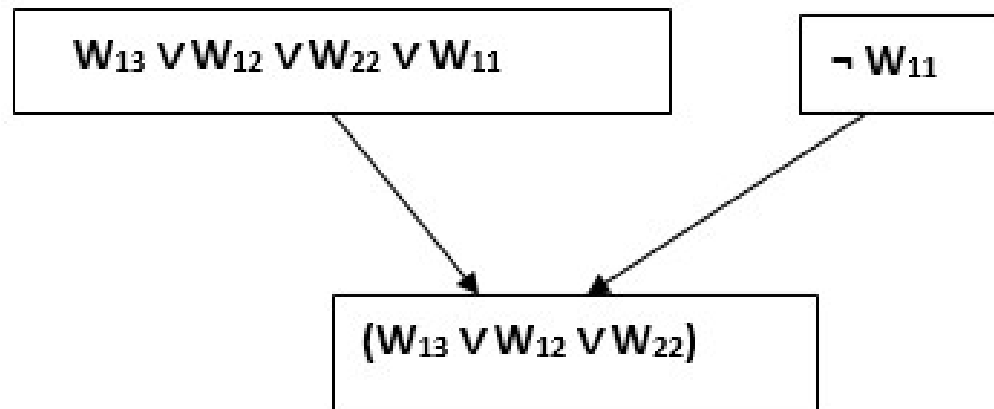
Apply Modus Ponens to S_{12} and R_4 which is $S_{12} \rightarrow W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22} \vee W_{11}$, we will get the output as $W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22} \vee W_{11}$.



Prove that Wumpus is in the room (1,3) cont'd

Apply Unit resolution on $W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22} \vee W_{11}$ and $\neg W_{11}$:

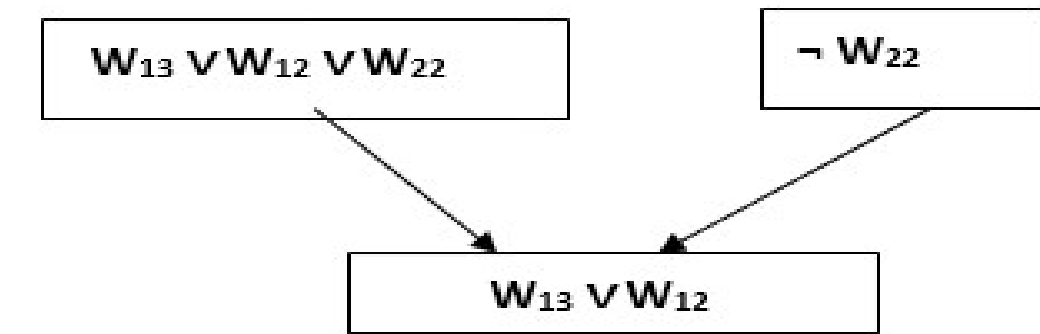
After applying Unit resolution formula on $W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22} \vee W_{11}$ and $\neg W_{11}$ we will get $W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22}$.



Prove that Wumpus is in the room (1,3) cont'd

Apply Unit resolution on $W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22}$ and $\neg W_{22}$:

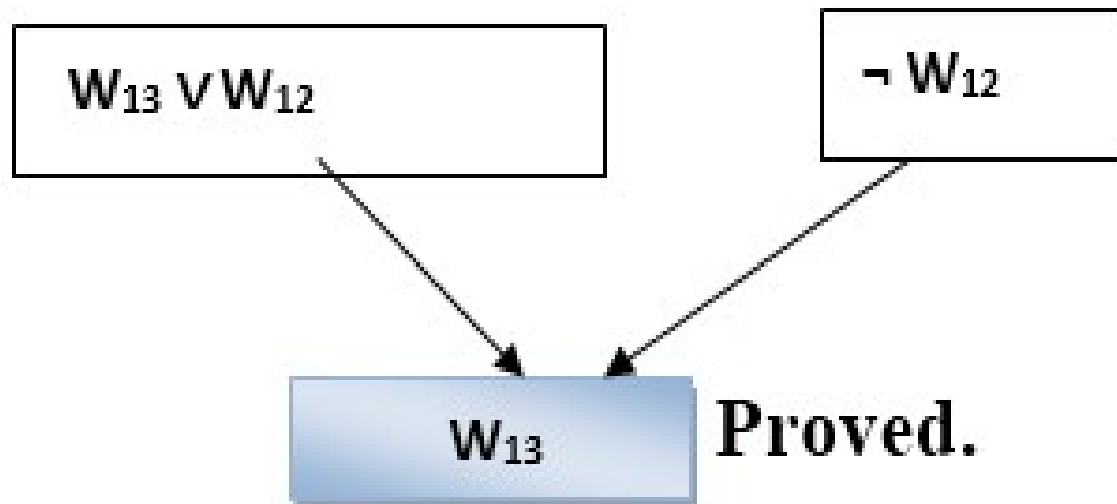
After applying Unit resolution on $W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22}$, and $\neg W_{22}$, we will get $W_{13} \vee W_{12}$ as output.



•Apply Unit Resolution on $W_{13} \vee W_{12}$ and $\neg W_{12}$:

After Applying Unit resolution on $W_{13} \vee W_{12}$ and $\neg W_{12}$, we will get W_{13} as an output, hence it is proved that the Wumpus is in the room [1, 3].

Prove that Wumpus is in the room (1,3) cont'd



The Wumpus World cont'd

- Note that in each case for which the agent draws a conclusion from the available information, that conclusion is *guaranteed* to be correct if the available information is correct. This is a fundamental property of logical reasoning.
-

First order logic (FOL)

Lecture Outline

- Limitations of Proposition Logic
 - Power of predicate logic
 - FOL function and predicate symbol
 - Syntax and semantics of FOL
 - FOL sentence
 - Quantifier in FOL
 - Property of Quantifier
 - Free and bounded variable
-

First Order Logic

Properties of Propositional Logic

- Propositional logic is **declarative**
Propositional logic allows partial/disjunctive/negated information
 - (unlike most data structures and databases)
 - 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
-

First Order Logic

Propositional logic is a weak language (limitations)

- Propositional logic quickly becomes impractical, even for very small worlds
 - Hard to identify “individuals” (e.g., Mary, 3)
 - Can’t directly talk about properties of individuals or relations between individuals (e.g., “Bill is tall”)
 - Generalizations, patterns, regularities can’t easily be represented (e.g., “all triangles have 3 sides”)
 - First-Order Logic (abbreviated FOL or FOPC) is expressive enough to concisely represent this kind of information
 - FOL adds relations, variables, and quantifiers,
-

Propositional Logic Limitations

- Some of the **limitations** of propositional logic includes
 - **Very limited expressive power:** unlike natural language, propositional logic has very limited expressive power
 - Example cannot say “pits cause breezes in adjacent squares” except by writing one sentence for each square
 - **It only represent declarative sentences:** Propositional logic is declarative (sentence always have truth value)
 - **Deals with only finite sentences:** propositional logic deals satisfactorily with finite sentences composed using *not, and, or, if . . . Then, iff*
 - e.g., if there are 3 students *A, B and C*
taking $p = \text{“}A \text{ has red hat”},$
 $q = \text{“}B \text{ has red hat”}$ and
 $r = \text{“}C \text{ has red hat”},$

the formula “*there exists a student with a red hat*” may be modeled as $p \vee q \vee r$.

Limitations....

- **On infinite models** this may require **infinite formulas**;

Example:- “*each natural number is even or odd*” has to be translated as $(p_0 \vee q_0) \wedge (p_1 \vee q_1) \wedge (p_2 \vee q_2) \wedge \dots$

where p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots are **even** and q_0, q_1, q_2, \dots are **odd**.

- The **propositional logic** assumes the world consists of **facts**.
- **Cannot express** the following:

All men are mortal

Socrates is a man

Therefore, Socrates is mortal

- **Propositional Logic** has thus **limited expressive power**.

First Order Logic

Objects, Relations, Functions

Whereas propositional logic assumes world contains facts, first order logic (like natural language) assumes the world contains: Objects, Relations, Functions.

- ◆ **Objects:** people, houses, numbers, theories, colors, football games, wars, centuries ...
 - ◆ **Relations:** red, round, multistoried, brother of, bigger than, inside, part of, has color, occurred after, owns, comes between, ...
 - ◆ **Functions:** father of, best friend, second half of, one more than, beginning of ...
-

Combining the best of formal and natural languages

- Indeed, almost any assertion can be thought of as referring to objects and properties or relations. Some examples follow:
 - “One plus two equals three.”
 - Objects: one, two, three, one plus two; Relation: equals; Function: plus. (“One plus two” is a name for the object that is obtained by applying the function “plus” to the objects “one” and “two.” “Three” is another name for this object.)
 - “Squares neighboring the wumpus are smelly.”
 - Objects: wumpus, squares; Property: smelly; Relation: neighboring.
 - “Evil King John ruled England in 1200.”
Objects: John, England, 1200; Relation: ruled; Properties: evil, king.
-

e.g., “Every elephant is gray”: $\forall x (\text{elephant}(x) \rightarrow \text{gray}(x))$

“There is a white alligator”: $\exists x (\text{alligator}(X) \wedge \text{white}(X))$

- Consider the problem of representing the following information:
 - Every person is mortal.
 - Confucius is a person.
 - Confucius is mortal.
- How can these sentences be represented so that we can infer the third sentence from the first two?

Example....

- In PL we have to create propositional symbols to stand for all or part of each sentence. For example, we might have: $P = \text{“person”}$; $Q = \text{“mortal”}$; $R = \text{“Confucius”}$
 - So the above 3 sentences are represented as: $P \rightarrow Q$; $R \rightarrow P$; $R \rightarrow Q$
 - Although the third sentence is entailed by the first two, we needed an explicit symbol, R , to represent an individual, Confucius, who is a member of the classes “person” and “mortal”
 - To represent other individuals we must introduce separate symbols for each one, with some way to represent the fact that all individuals who are “people” are also “mortal”
-

Predicate Logic power

- Equivalent names
 - Predicate logic
 - First Order Logic (FOL)
 - First Order Predicate Calculus (FOPC).
 - *Predicate logic* is an **extension** of **propositional logic** using variables for *objects*
 - It is much *richer* and *complex* than propositional logic.
 - *Predicate logic* has **complex expressive power**
- e.g., If x represents a natural number, then “*each natural number is even or odd*” ”; may be written shortly as
- $\forall x(E(x) \vee O(x))$
where $E(x)$ = “ **x is even**” and $O(x)$ = “ **x is odd**”

FOL function and predicate symbols

- **Function symbols** are **symbols** that takes **argument** as a **set of terms** (variables, constant, functions) that **represents** a **new object**
 - Father(John)
 - Sucessor(X)
 - Sucessor(Sucessor(2))
 - **A predicate symbols** is a symbol which **describes** a *relation* between **objects** or **property of an object**
 - Father(solomon, gizaw)
 - Male(teshome)
-

Example1

Represent the statement “Not all birds can fly”

Let $B(x)$ denotes “ x is a bird.”

Let $F(x)$: denotes “ x can fly”;

$$\sim(\forall x (B(x) \rightarrow F(x)))$$

Does this equivalent to

$$\exists x (B(x) \wedge \neg F(x))$$

some birds couldn't fly

Represent the statement “All men are mortal. Socrates is man. Therefore, Socrates is Mortal”

Let: $H(x)$ denotes “ x is man”;

$M(x)$ denotes “ x is mortal”, and s denotes Socrates;

The statement (2) may be described as:

$$\forall x (H(x) \rightarrow M(x)), H(s) \vdash M(s)$$

Syntax & Semantics of FOPC

❖ **Sentence** : Atomic Sentence | Sentence **Connective** Sentence | Quantifier Variable,... Sentence | \sim Sentence | (Sentence)

❖ **AtomicSentence** : Predicate(Term₁, Term₂,...,Term_n) | Term = Term

Term: Function(Term,...) | Constant | Variable

Connective : \wedge | \vee | \Leftrightarrow | \rightarrow

Quantifier : \forall | \exists

Constant : A | X₁ | KingJohn | ...

Variable : a | x | s | ...

Predicate : Before | HasColor | Raining | ...

Function : Mother | LeftLegOf | ...

Term

- A Term is a logical expression that refers to an **object** .
- It is a **name for a thing**.
- There are three kinds of terms which allows us to **name things** in the world.
 1. **Constant symbol**,
Example: John, Japan, Bacterium
 2. **Variable symbol**,
Example: x,y a, t,...
 3. **Function symbols**,
Example: f(f(x)); mother_of(John); LeftLegOf(*John*)

Note: A term with **no variables** is called a **ground term**.

For example

John, father(solomon)

Equality (=)

- Two terms $term_1$ and $term_2$ are **equal** under a given interpretation if and only if $term_1$ and $term_2$ **refer** to the **same object**.

Example1:

- If the object referred by **Father(Kaleb)** and the object referred to by Ayele are the same, then
 $Father(Kaleb) = Ayele$
-

Predicate symbols

Predicate symbols: are symbols that stand to show a **relationship** among **terms** or to indicate **property of a term**.

For example:

On(A,B) to mean A **is on** B (relation between A & B)

Sister(Senait, Biruk) to mean Senait is **sister** of Biruk

Female(Azeb) to mean Azeb is **female** (property of azeb being female)

Here '**On**', '**Sister**' and **Female** are **predicate symbols**, '*A*', '*B*', '*Senait*', '*Biruk*' and *Azeb* are **terms**.

Atomic sentences

- Atomic sentences **states** the **facts of world** and is formed from a **predicate symbol** followed by a **parenthesis** list of **terms**.

Example:

Brother(Ali, Kadir)

- Atomic sentences can **have arguments** that are **complex terms**:
 - *Sister(mother_of(John),Jane)*
 - *Married(FatherOf(Richard),MotherOf(John))*
 - An atomic sentence is **true** if the relation referred to by the **predicate symbol** holds between the **objects** referred to by the arguments.
-

Complex Sentence

-
- Complex sentences are **sentences** which is a **combination** of one or more **atomic sentences** with **logical connectives**

Example:

- Older(John,30) \vee Younger(John,30);
represents John is above 30
 - Brother(Robin,John)
represents Robin is Brother of John
 - Hana = daughter(brother(mother(Selam))) ;
represents Hana is Selam's cousin
 - Father(Solomon, Tesfaye) \rightarrow father(Solomon, Biruk)
Represents if solomon is father of Tesfaye then he is also father of Biruk
-

Quantifiers

- A quantifier is a symbol that **permits one to declare**, or identify the **range** or **scope** of the variables in a logical expression.
 - A quantifier express **properties** of **entire collection** of objects.
 - There are two types of quantifier
 - Universal quantifier \forall
 - Existential quantifier \exists
-

Universal Quantification (\forall)

- **Universal quantifier** defines the **domain of a variable** in a logical expression **to be any element in the universe**.
- If x is a **variable**, then, $\forall x$ is read as
 - **for all x** OR **for each x** OR **for every x**
- The **scope of universal quantifier** is the **whole element** in the **domain**

Syntax: $\forall <variables> <sentence>$

- **one or more variables** can be **quantified** by a **single quantifier** by separating with comma. Eg. $\forall x, y$

Example1: “Every student is smart:”

$\forall x (\text{Student}(x) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(x))$

Example2: “All cats are mammals”

$\forall x (\text{cats}(x) \rightarrow \text{Mammals}(x))$

Universal Quantification (\forall)

➤ Roughly speaking, \forall is equivalent to the *conjunction* of an *instantiations* of **P**

➤ $\forall x (\text{Student}(x) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(x))$ is equivalent to
 $(\text{Student}(\text{KingJohn}) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{KingJohn})) \wedge$
 $(\text{Student}(\text{Abera}) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{Abera})) \wedge$
 $(\text{Student}(\text{MyDog}) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{MyDog})) \wedge \dots$

➤ $\forall x (\text{cats}(x) \rightarrow \text{Mammals}(x))$ is equivalent to
 $(\text{Cat}(\text{Spot}) \rightarrow \text{Mammals}(\text{Spot})) \wedge$
 $(\text{Cat}(\text{Rebecca}) \rightarrow \text{Mammals}(\text{Rebecca})) \wedge$
 $(\text{Cat}(\text{Felix}) \rightarrow \text{Mammals}(\text{Felix})) \wedge$
 $(\text{Cat}(\text{John}) \rightarrow \text{Mammals}(\text{John})) \wedge \dots$

Universal Quantification (\forall)

- Note1: Typically, \rightarrow is the **main connective** with \forall
- Note2: **Avoid** the mistake of using \wedge as the **main connective** with \forall :

Example:

- $\forall x (\text{Student}(x) \wedge \text{Smart}(x))$ **means** “Everyone is a student and everyone is smart”
 - $\forall x (\text{cats}(x) \wedge \text{Mammals}(x))$ **means** “Everything is a cat and every thing is mammal”
 - This **doesn't agree** in concept with the **original sentence** which is every student is smart, every cat are mammal respectively.
-

Existential quantification (\exists)

➤ **Existential quantifier** defines the **domain of a variable** in a logical expression **to be a non empty set** which is the **subset** of the **universal set**.

➤ if **y** is a variable, then $\exists y$ is read as

There exists a y OR for some y OR for at least one y

Syntax: $\exists <variables> <sentence>$

➤ **one** or **more** variables can be quantified by a **single quantifier** by **separating** with **comma**.

Eg. $\exists x, y$

Example1: “Some students are smart”

$\exists x (student(x) \wedge Smart(x))$

Example2: “Spot has a sister who is a cat”

$\exists x (Sister(x, Spot) \wedge Cat(x))$

Existential quantification (\exists)

➤ Roughly speaking, \exists is equivalent to the **disjunction** of **instantiations** of P

➤ $\exists x(\text{student}(x) \wedge \text{Smart}(x))$ is equivalent to

$(\text{Student}(\text{KingJohn}) \wedge \text{Smart}(\text{KingJohn})) \vee$

$(\text{Student}(\text{Abera}) \wedge \text{Smart}(\text{Abera})) \vee$

$(\text{Student}(\text{MyDog}) \wedge \text{Smart}(\text{MyDog})) \vee \dots$

➤ $\exists x(\text{Sister}(x, \text{Spot}) \wedge \text{Cat}(x))$ is equivalent to

$(\text{Sister}(\text{Felix}, \text{Spot}) \wedge \text{Cat}(x)) \vee$

$(\text{Sister}(\text{Rabicca}, \text{Spot}) \wedge \text{Cat}(x)) \vee$

$(\text{Sister}(\text{chichu}, \text{Spot}) \wedge \text{Cat}(x)) \vee \dots$

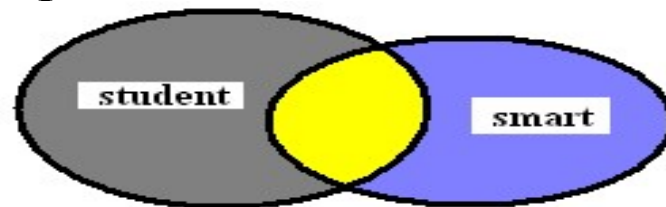
Existential quantification (\exists)

Note1: Typically, \wedge is the **main connective** with \exists .

Note2: **Avoid** the mistake of using \rightarrow as the main connective with \exists :

Example:

- **Some students are smart** is to mean that there are entities that satisfy the **property of both** being a **student** and **smart**.
- In the figure, the yellow part indicates the set of such groups



However, $\exists x(\text{student}(x) \rightarrow \text{Smart}(x))$ is to mean **any thing** which is **either smart** or **not a student**

Hence this doesn't infer what we need to say

Examples using Quantifiers

➤ $\text{Man}(\text{John})$

John is a man

➤ $\forall x(\text{Man}(x) \rightarrow \sim \text{Woman}(x))$

Every man is not a woman (there is no man who is a woman)

➤ $\exists x(\text{Man}(x) \wedge \text{Handsome}(x))$

Some man are handsome

➤ $\forall x(\text{Man}(x) \rightarrow \exists y(\text{Woman}(y) \wedge \text{Loves}(x,y)))$

Every man has a woman that he loves

➤ $\exists y(\text{Woman}(y) \wedge (\forall x)(\text{Man}(x) \rightarrow \text{Loves}(x,y)))$

There are some woman that are loved by every man

Nested quantifiers

- Universal and existential quantifiers can be nested one into another.
- It is possible to have one or more quantifier nested in another quantifier

Example1

“For all x and all y, if x is the parent of y then y is the child of x” can be represented as

$$\forall x, y (Parent(x, y) \rightarrow Child(y, x))$$

Note: Here $\forall x, y$ means $\forall x \forall y$

Example2

“There is someone who is loved by everyone

$$\exists y \forall x Loves(x, y)$$

Nested quantifiers

➤ Difficulty may arise when **two quantifiers** are used with the same variable name.

For example

$\forall x (Cat(x) \vee \exists x Brother(Richard, x))$

In the sentence above, **x** in $Brother(Richard, x)$ is **existentially qualified** and the **universal quantifier** has no effect on it.

Rule: To identify which **quantifier quantify** a variable if the variable is quantified by two or more of them, the **innermost** quantifier that mentions it will be chosen.

Examples of Translating English to FOL

1. Every gardener likes the sun.

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

2. All purple mushrooms are poisonous

$$(\forall x) [(\text{mushrooms}(x) \wedge \text{purple}(x)) \rightarrow \text{poisonous}(x)]$$

3. No purple mushroom is poisonous

$$\sim(\exists x) (\text{purple}(x) \wedge \text{mushroom}(x) \wedge \text{poisonous}(x))$$

4. There are exactly two purple mushrooms

$$(\exists x)(\exists y) \{ \text{mushroom}(x) \wedge \text{purple}(x) \wedge \text{mushroom}(y) \wedge \text{purple}(y) \wedge \sim(x=y) \wedge (\forall z)[(\text{mushroom}(z) \wedge \text{purple}(z)) \rightarrow ((x=z) \vee (y=z))] \}$$

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

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

6. Jane is a tall surveyor

$$\text{Tall}(\text{Jane}) \wedge \text{Surveyor}(\text{Jane})$$

Examples of Translating English to FOL

7. Everybody loves somebody

$\forall x \exists y \text{ Loves}(x,y)$

$\exists y \forall x \text{ Loves}(x,y)$

8. Nobody loves Jane

$\forall x \sim \text{Loves}(x, \text{Jane})$

$\sim \exists y \text{ Loves}(y, \text{Jane})$

9. Everybody has a father

$\forall x \exists y \text{ Father}(y,x)$

10. Everybody has a father and mother

$\forall x \exists y,z (\text{Father}(y,x) \wedge \text{Mother}(z,x))$

12. Whoever has a father has a mother

$\forall x \exists y (\text{Father}(y,x) \rightarrow \exists z \text{ Mother}(z,x))$

13. Every son of my father is my brother

$\forall x \forall y ((\text{MyFather}(x) \wedge \text{Son}(y,x)) \rightarrow \text{MYBrother}(y))$

Properties of quantifiers (commutativity)

$\forall x \forall y$ is the same as $\forall y \forall x$

$\exists x \exists y$ is the same as $\exists y \exists x$

$\exists x \forall y$ is **not the same** as $\forall y \exists x$,

Example

- $\exists x \forall y \text{ Loves}(x,y)$ means “There is a person who loves everyone in the world”
 - $\forall y \exists x \text{ Loves}(x,y)$ means “Everyone in the world is loved by at least one person”
-

Properties of quantifiers (duality)

- **Quantifier duality** refers to the **possibility** of expressing **one quantifier** with the **other** equivalently
- **Universal quantifier** can be **completely replaced** by **existential quantifier** without affected the meaning and vice versa

Example

$$\forall x \text{ Likes}(x, \text{IceCream}) \equiv \neg \exists x \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{IceCream})$$

$$\forall x \text{ Likes}(x, \text{IceCream}) \equiv \text{Everyone likes ice cream}$$

$$\neg \exists x \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{IceCream}) \equiv \text{there is no one who does not like ice cream.}$$

$$\exists x \text{ Likes}(x, \text{Broccoli}) \equiv \neg \forall x \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{Broccoli})$$

$$\exists x \text{ Likes}(x, \text{Broccoli}) \equiv \text{Some one likes Broccoli}$$

$$\neg \forall x \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{Broccoli}) \equiv \text{It is not true that every one doesn't like Broccoli}$$

Properties of quantifiers (duality)

➤ **Quantifiers** are intimately connected with each other, through negation.

Example: If one says that *everyone dislikes bitter guard* one is also saying that *there does not exists someone who likes them* or vice versa.

➤ \forall is really **conjunction** over the universe of objects and

➤ \exists is a **disjunction** over the universe, they obey De Morgan's rules.

➤ De Morgan rules for **quantified** & **un-quantified** sentences are as follows:

$$1. (\forall x \neg P(x)) \equiv \neg(\exists x P(x))$$

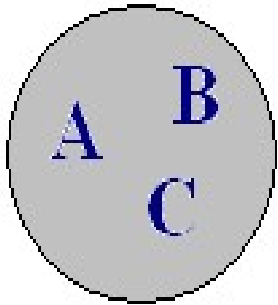
$$2. (\forall x Q(x)) \equiv \neg(\exists x \neg Q(x))$$

$$3. (\exists x \neg P(x)) \equiv \neg(\forall x P(x))$$

$$4. (\exists x Q(x)) \equiv \neg(\forall x \neg Q(x))$$

In fact, **one quantifier** can **do both works**, if used with negation in appropriate place.

Properties of quantifiers (duality)



Consider a world consists of only three object A

Hence $\forall x P(x) \equiv (P(A) \wedge P(B) \wedge P(C))$

$$\equiv \neg \neg (P(A) \wedge P(B) \wedge P(C))$$

$$\equiv \neg (\neg P(A) \vee \neg P(B) \vee \neg P(C))$$

$$\equiv \neg (\exists x \neg P(x))$$

Syntax & Semantics of FOPC

$\forall x$ $[\neg P(x)]$	P is false for all x
$\exists x [\neg P(x)]$	P is false for some x
$\forall x [P(x)]$	P is true for all x
$\exists x [P(x)]$	P is true for some x

Normal Forms:

A well formed formula can be represented in different **standard normal forms**

Some of the normal forms are

1. Clause Form: **disjunction of literals** (atomic sentences)
 2. Conjunctive Normal Forms (CNF): **conjunction** of **disjunction** of literals or atomic sentences.
 - It can also be defined as conjunction of clauses
 3. Disjunctive Normal Form (DNF): **disjunction** of conjunction of literals.
-

Normal Forms:

Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) is the **focus** of the chapter since:

1. **Any well formed formula** (logical expression) can be converted into CNF
2. **Generalized resolution** is a **complete inference procedure** on CNF expression KB
3. It provides **an easy way of inference procedure** for the computer through **resolution** and **refutation**

➤ **A single literal** (atomic sentence) or a **single clause** is in CNF form

$$Q \equiv Q \vee \text{False}$$

$$\sim Q \equiv \sim Q \vee \text{False}$$

Conjunctive Normal Forms

- Steps to convert from predicate logic formula to CNF.
 - 1) Eliminate implications and bi-conditionals.
$$(A \rightarrow B) = \sim A \vee B$$
$$(A \leftrightarrow B) = (A \rightarrow B) \wedge (B \rightarrow A)$$
 - 2) Reduce the scope of negation and apply De Morgan's theorem to bring negations before the atoms
$$\sim(A \vee B) = \sim A \wedge \sim B$$
$$\sim(A \wedge B) = \sim A \vee \sim B$$
 - 3) To bring the signs before the atoms, use the duality relation formulae
$$\sim \forall x(A(x)) = \exists x(\sim A(x))$$
$$\sim(\exists x(A(x))) = \forall x(\sim A(x))$$
 - 4) For the sake of clarity (to avoid repetition) rename bound variables if necessary.
 - 5) Use the equivalent formulae to move the quantifiers to the left of the formulae to obtain the normal form

Conversion exercise into its normal form

1. $\forall x (A(x) \rightarrow \exists y B(x,y)) \text{ ---(1)}$
 $\equiv \forall x (\sim A(x) \vee \exists y B(x,y))$ implication elimination
 $\equiv \forall x \exists y (\sim A(x) \vee B(x,y))$ pushing \exists to the front
- (solution)
2. $\exists x (A(x) \rightarrow \forall x B(x))$
 $\equiv \exists x (A(x) \rightarrow \forall y B(y))$ variable renaming
 $\equiv \exists x (\sim A(x) \vee \forall y B(y))$ eliminating \rightarrow
 $\equiv \exists x \forall y (\sim A(x) \vee B(y))$ pushing \forall to the front

Conversion exercise into its NF

3. $\exists x A(x) \rightarrow \forall x B(x)$

$$\equiv (\exists x A(x)) \rightarrow \forall y B(y)$$

$$\equiv \sim(\exists x A(x)) \vee \forall y B(y)$$

$$\equiv \forall x \sim A(x) \vee \forall y B(y)$$

$$\equiv \forall x \forall y (\sim A(x) \vee B(y))$$

$$\equiv \forall x, y (\sim A(x) \vee B(y))$$

scoping and renaming

\rightarrow elimination

pushing \sim inward

pushing \forall to the front

using single \forall quantifier

Propositional logic

➤ Assumes that the **world** contains **facts**

Problems with **propositional logic**

- **No notion of objects**
- **No notion of relations among objects**

In Propositional Logic, we define A1 as “American sits at seat 1.” The meaning of A1 is instructive to us, suggesting

- there is an object we call American,
 - there is an object we call “seat 1”,
 - there is a relationship “sit” between these two objects
 - Formally, none of these are in Propositional Logic.
-

First-Order Logic

It 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 map individuals in the domain to another in the domain.

Examples:

- Objects: Students, lectures, companies, cars ...
- Properties: blue, oval, even, large, ...
- Relations: Brother-of, bigger-than, outside, part-of, has-color, occurs-after, owns, visits, precedes, ...

Functions: father-of, best-friend, second-half, one-more-than

Quiz

1. What is first order logic, why we need it and how it models the world ?

Translating English to FOL

1. John and Michael are colleagues
2. Some boys play cricket.
3. Brothers are siblings
4. Only one student failed in Mathematics.
5. Each student is registered for at least one degree programme

Conversion exercise into its normal form

1. $\exists x (A(x) \rightarrow \forall x B(x))$
 2. $\forall Y (\forall X (\text{taller}(Y,X) \vee \text{wise}(X)) \Rightarrow \text{wise}(Y))$
-

Quiz

1. What is the limitation of propositional logic, what is the solution and how the solution models the world ?

Translating English to FOL

1. Some people like Football.
2. Every man respects his parent.
3. Brothers are siblings.
4. Not all students like both Mathematics and Science.
5. Each student is registered for at least one degree programme.

Conversion exercise into its normal form

1. $\forall x (A(x) \rightarrow \exists y B(x,y))$
 2. $\forall Y (\forall X (\text{taller}(Y,X) \vee \text{wise}(X)) \Rightarrow \text{wise}(Y))$
-

1. John and Michael are colleagues

Colleagues (John, Michael)

2. Some boys play cricket.

$\exists x \text{ boys}(x) \rightarrow \text{play}(x, \text{cricket}).$

3. Brothers are siblings.

$\forall x, y (\text{Brother}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Sibling}(x, y))$

4. Only one student failed in Mathematics.

$\exists (x) [\text{student}(x) \rightarrow \text{failed} (x, \text{Mathematics}) \wedge \forall (y) [\neg(x==y) \wedge \text{student}(y) \rightarrow \neg\text{failed} (x, \text{Mathematics})].$

5. Each student is registered for at least one degree programme'

$\forall x(\text{Student}(x) \rightarrow \exists y(\text{registeredfor}(x,y) \wedge \text{DegreeProgramme}(y)))$

1. Some people like Football.

$$\exists x: \text{people}(x) \wedge \text{likes Football}(x)$$

2. Every man respects his parent.

$$\forall x \text{ man}(x) \rightarrow \text{respects}(x, \text{parent}).$$

3. Brothers are siblings.

$$\forall x, y (\text{Brother}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Sibling}(x, y))$$

4. Not all students like both Mathematics and Science.

$$\neg \forall (x) [\text{student}(x) \rightarrow \text{like}(x, \text{Mathematics}) \wedge \text{like}(x, \text{Science})].$$

5. Each student is registered for at least one degree programme'

$$\forall x(\text{Student}(x) \rightarrow \exists y(\text{registeredfor}(x, y) \wedge \text{DegreeProgramme}(y)))$$

THANKS!!
