First-Order Predicate Logic

Introduction to Intelligent Systems

First-Order (Predicate) Logic

- Propositional logic assumes the world contains facts
- Predicate logic (like natural language) assumes the world contains:
 - Objects: people, houses, numbers, colors, baseball games, wars, ...
 - Relations: red, round, prime, brother of, bigger than, part of, comes between, ...
 - Functions: father of, best friend, one more than, plus, ...

Syntax of Predicate Calculus

Symbols represent constants, variables, functions, or predicates:

- Constants begin with a lower-case letter
 - bill, john, etc.
 - The constants 'true' and 'false' are reserved as truth symbols
- Variables begin with an upper-case letter
 - For example, X, is a variable that can represent *any* constant
- Functions have input and produce an output
 - plus(5,4)
 - The *arity* of a function is the number of arguments
 - For example, 'plus' has an arity of 2
- Predicates are similar to functions, but return true
 - A predicate names a relationship between objects in the world
 - For example, father(bill, john) means that "bill is the father of john"
 - father(bill, X) refers to any child of bill

Semantics of Predicate Calculus

- Quantification of variables is important
- When a variable appears in a sentence, that variable serves as a placeholder
 - For example, the "X" in likes(george, X)
 - Any constant allowed under the interpretation can be substituted for it in the expression
 - Substituting "kate" or "susie" for "X" forms the statement likes(george, kate) or likes(george, susie)

Sentences in Predicate Calculus

- Sentences are created by combining predicates using logical operators (the same as used for propositional calculus) and quantifiers
- Examples:

```
likes(george, kate) ∧ friend(X, george)

¬helps(X, X)
has_children(ben, plus(2, 3))
friend(father_of(david, X), father_of(andrew, Y))
```

- likes, friend, helps and father_of are predicates
- plus is a function

Sentences in Predicate Calculus

 When a variable appears in a sentence, it refers to unspecified objects in the domain.
 First order predicate calculus includes two additional symbols, the variable quantifiers ∀ and ∃, that constrain the meaning of a sentence:

∃Y friend(Y, peter)

∀X likes(X, ice_cream)

Quantifiers ∀ and ∃

- ∀ The universal quantifier
 ∀X p(X) is read "For all X, p(X) is true"
- ∃ The existential quantifier ∃X p(X) is read "There exists an X such that p(X) is true"
- Relationship between the quantifiers:

$$\exists X \ p(X) \equiv \neg(\forall X) \neg p(X)$$

"There exists an X for which p(X) is true" is equivalent to "it is not true that for all X p(X) does not hold"

Universal Quantification

Typically, → is the main connective with ∀
 Example: "Everyone at RIT is smart":
 ∀X at(X, rit) → smart(X)

 Common mistake: using ∧ as the main connective with ∀:

 $\forall X \text{ at}(X, \text{rit}) \land \text{smart}(X)$

means "Everyone is at RIT and everyone is smart"

Existential Quantification

- Typically, ∧ is the main connective with ∃
 Example: "Someone at RIT is smart":
 ∃X at(X, rit) ∧ smart(X)
- Common mistake: using → as the main connective with ∃:

 $\exists X \text{ at}(X, \text{ rit}) \rightarrow \text{smart}(X)$

This means:

"If RIT has a student then that student is smart."

Properties of Quantifiers

- $\forall X \ \forall Y \text{ is the same as } \forall Y \ \forall X$
- ∃X ∃Y is the same as ∃Y ∃X
- $\exists X \forall Y \text{ is not the same as } \forall Y \exists X$
- ∃X ∀Y loves(X,Y)
 - "There is a person who loves everyone"
- ∀Y ∃X loves(X,Y)
 - "Everyone is loved by someone"
- Quantifier duality: each can be expressed using the other:
 - \forall X likes(X, iceCream)= $\neg \exists$ X \neg likes(X, iceCream)
 - $-\exists X \text{ likes}(X, \text{broccoli}) = \neg \forall X \neg \text{likes}(X, \text{broccoli})$

Equality

- $term_1 = term_2$ is true under a given interpretation if and only if $term_1$ and $term_2$ refer to the same object
- For example, the definition of sibling in terms of parent is:

```
\forall X,Y (\neg(X = Y) \land \exists M,F \neg(M = F) \land parent(M,X) \land parent(F,X) \land parent(M,Y) \land parent(F,Y) \rightarrow sibling(X,Y))
```

Using First-Order Logic

First-order rules for the kinship domain:

- Brothers are male siblings $\forall X,Y \ (male(X) \land sibling(X,Y) \rightarrow brother(X,Y))$
- "sibling" is symmetric $\forall X,Y \ (sibling(Y,X) \rightarrow sibling(X,Y))$
- One's mother is one's female parent
 ∀M,C (female(M) ∧ parent(M,C) → mother(M,C))

Using First-Order Logic

For example, given the following facts:

```
mother(eve, abel)
```

mother(eve,cain)

father(adam,abel)

father(adam,cain)

And the following rules:

```
\forall X,Y (father(X,Y) \lor mother(X,Y) \rightarrow parent(X,Y))
```

 $\forall X,Y,Z (parent(X,Y) \land parent(X,Z) \rightarrow sibling(Y,Z))$

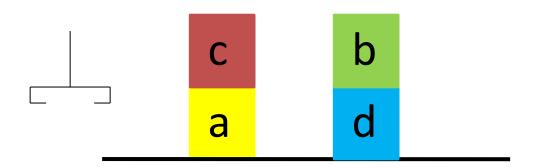
One can conclude that cain and abel are siblings (or half-siblings)

Examples of First-Order Predicates

- "If it doesn't rain on Monday, Tom will go to the mountains."
 -weather(rain, monday) → go(tom, mountains)
- "Emma is a Doberman pinscher and a good dog."
 is_a(emma,doberman) ∧ good_dog(emma)
- "All basketball players are tall."

 ∀ X (basketball_player(X) → tall(X))
- "Some people like anchovies."
 ∃ X (person(X) ∧ likes(X, anchovies))
- "If wishes were horses, beggars would ride."
 equal(wishes, horses) → ride(beggars)
- "Nobody likes taxes."
 ¬∃ X likes(X, taxes)

Blocks World Example



A collection of logical clauses describes the important properties and relationships in a Blocks World:

> on(c,a) on(b,d) onTable(a)

onTable(d)

clear(b)

clear(c)

hand_empty

Suppose you want to define a test to determine whether all blocks are clear (have nothing stacked on top of them):

 \forall X ($\neg \exists$ Y on (Y, X)) \rightarrow clear(X).

"For all X, if there does not exist a Y such that Y is on X, then X is clear."