Foundations of Artificial Intelligence

9. Predicate Logic

Syntax and Semantics, Reduction to Propositional Logic

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Motivation

We can already do a lot with propositional logic. It is, however, annoying that there is no structure in the atomic propositions.

Example:

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"All blocks are red"
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"There is a block A"

It should follow that "A is red"

But propositional logic cannot handle this.

Idea: We introduce individual variables, predicates, functions, ...

→ First-Order Predicate Logic (PL1)

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Lecture Overview

Syntax and Semantics

2 Reduction to Propositional Theories

Summary

The Alphabet of First-Order Predicate Logic

- Symbols: Operators: \neg , \lor , \land , \forall , \exists , =
- Variables: $x, x_1, x_2, ..., x', x'', ..., y, ..., z...$
- Brackets: (), [], (), ||
- Function symbols (e.g., weight(), color())
- Predicate symbols (e.g., Block(), Red())
- Predicate and function symbols have an arity (number of arguments). 0-ary predicate = propositional logic atoms: P, Q, R, \dots 0-ary function = constants: a, b, c, \dots
- We assume a countable set of predicates and functions of any arity.
- "="\is usually not considered a predicate, but a logical symbol

The Grammar of First-Order Predicate Logic (1)

Terms (represent objects):

- 1. Every variable is a term.
- 2. If t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n are terms and f is an n-ary function, then

$$f(t_1,t_2,\ldots,t_n)$$

is also a term.

Terms without variables: ground terms.

Atomic Formulae (represent statements about objects)

- 1. If t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n are terms and P is an n-ary predicate, then $P(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ is an atomic formula.
- 2. If t_1 and t_2 are terms, then $t_1 = t_2$ is an atomic formula. Atomic formulae without variables: ground atoms. Contain only ground terms

The Grammar of First-Order Predicate Logic (2)

Formulae:

- 1. Every atomic formula is a formula.
- 2. If φ and ψ are formulae and x is a variable, then

$$\neg \varphi$$
, $\varphi \land \psi$, $\varphi \lor \psi$, $\varphi \Rightarrow \psi$, $\varphi \Leftrightarrow \psi$, $\exists x \varphi$ and $\forall x \varphi$

are also formulae.

 \forall , \exists are as strongly binding as \neg .

Propositional logic is part of the PL1 language:

- 1. Atomic formulae: only 0-ary predicates
- 2. Neither variables nor quantifiers.

Alternative Notation

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

Meaning of PL1-Formulae

Our example: $\forall x [Block(x) \Rightarrow Red(x)], Block(a)$

For all objects x: If x is a block, then x is red and a is a block.

Generally:

- Terms are interpreted as objects.
- Universally-quantified variables denote all objects in the universe.
- Existentially-quantified variables represent one of the objects in the universe (made true by the quantified expression).
- Predicates represent subsets of the universe.

Similar to propositional logic, we define interpretations, satisfiability, models, validity, . . .

Semantics of PL1-Logic

Interpretation: $I=\langle D, \bullet^I \rangle$ where D is an arbitrary, non-empty set and \bullet^I is a function that

• maps n-ary function symbols to functions over D: $f^I \in [D^n \mapsto D]$

• maps individual constants to elements of
$$D$$
: $a^I \in D$

maps n-ary predicate symbols to relations over D:

$$P^I \subset D^n$$

Interpretation of ground terms:

$$(f(t_1,\ldots,t_n))^I=f^I(t_1^I,\ldots,t_n^I)$$

Satisfaction of ground atoms $P(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$:

$$I \models P(t_1, \dots, t_n) \text{ iff } \langle t_1^I, \dots, t_n^I \rangle \in P^I$$

Example (1)

Interpret constant a as the element d1
$$D = \{d_1, \dots, d_n \mid n > 1\}$$

$$a^I = d_1$$

$$b^I = d_2$$

$$c^I = \dots$$

$$Block^I = \{d_1\}$$

$$Red^I = D$$

$$I \models Red(b) \implies b \in Red^T$$

$$I \not\models Block(b) \implies b \in D$$

Example (2)

$$D = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

$$1^{I} = 1$$

$$2^{I} = 2$$

$$\dots$$

$$Even^{I} = \{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$$

$$succ^{I} = \{(1 \mapsto 2), (2 \mapsto 3), \dots\}$$

$$I \models Even(2)$$

$$I \not\models Even(succ(2))$$

$$Oh.$$

Semantics of PL1: Variable Assignment

Set of all variables V. Function $\alpha: V \mapsto D$

Notation: $\alpha[x/d]$ is the same as α apart from point x.

For $x : \alpha[x/d](x) = d$.

Interpretation of terms under I, α :

$$x^{I,\alpha} = \alpha(x)$$

$$a^{I,\alpha} = a^I$$

$$(f(t_1, \dots, t_n))^{I,\alpha} = f^I(t_1^{I,\alpha}, \dots, t_n^{I,\alpha})$$

Satisfaction of atomic formulae:

$$I, \alpha \models P(t_1, \dots, t_n) \text{ iff } \langle t_1^{I,\alpha}, \dots, t_n^{I,\alpha} \rangle \in P^I$$

Example

$$Block^{I} = \{d_{1}\}$$

$$Red^{I} = D$$

$$\alpha = \{(x \mapsto d_{1}), (y \mapsto d_{2})\}$$

$$I, \alpha \models Red(x)$$

$$I, \alpha[y/d_{1}] \models Block(y)$$

$$A_{1} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{2} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{3} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{4} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{5} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{5} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{5} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{7} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{1} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{2} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{3} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{4} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

$$A_{5} \stackrel{?}{\in} U$$

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Semantics of PL1: Satisfiability

A formula φ is satisfied by an interpretation I and a variable assignment α , i.e., $I, \alpha \models \varphi$:

$$I, \alpha \models \top$$

$$I, \alpha \not\models \bot$$

$$I, \alpha \models \neg \varphi \text{ iff } I, \alpha \not\models \varphi$$

$$\cdots$$

and all other propositional rules as well as

$$\begin{split} I,\alpha &\models P(t_1,\dots,t_n) &\quad \text{iff} \quad \langle t_1^{I,\alpha},\dots,t_n^{I,\alpha} \rangle \in P^I \\ I,\alpha &\models \forall x\varphi &\quad \text{iff} \quad \text{for all } d \in D,\ I,\alpha[x/d] \models \varphi \\ I,\alpha &\models \exists x\varphi &\quad \text{iff} \quad \text{there exists a } d \in D \text{ with } I,\alpha[x/d] \models \varphi \end{split}$$

Example

$$D = \{d_1, \dots, d_n \mid n > 1\}$$

$$a^I = d_1$$

$$b^I = d_2$$

$$Block^I = \{d_1\}$$

$$Red^I = D$$

$$\alpha = \{(x \mapsto d_1), (y \mapsto d_2)\}$$

Questions:

- 1. $I, \alpha \models Block(b) \lor \neg Block(b)$?
- 2. $I, \alpha \models Block(x) \Rightarrow (Block(x) \lor \neg Block(y))$?
- 3. $I, \alpha \models Block(a) \land Block(b)$?
- 4. $I, \alpha \models \forall x(Block(x) \Rightarrow Red(x))$?

Free and Bound Variables

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

The boxed appearances of y and z are free. All other appearances of x,y,z are bound.

Formulae with no free variables are called closed formulae or sentences. We form theories from closed formulae.

Note: With closed formulae, the concepts *logical equivalence, satisfiability,* and implication, etc. are not dependent on the variable assignment α (i.e., we can always ignore all variable assignments).

With closed formulae, α can be left out on the left side of the model relationship symbol:

$$I \models \varphi$$

Terminology

An interpretation I is called a model of φ under α if

$$I, \alpha \models \varphi$$

A PL1 formula φ can, as in propositional logic, be satisfiable, unsatisfiable, falsifiable, or valid.

Analogously, two formulae are logically equivalent ($\varphi \equiv \psi$) if for all I, α :

$$I, \alpha \models \varphi \text{ iff } I, \alpha \models \psi$$

Note: $P(x) \not\equiv P(y)!$

Logical Implication is also analogous to propositional logic.

Question: How can we define derivation?

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Summary

Derivation in PL1: Possible Approaches

- We now know the semantics of PL1. How can we do inference in PL1?
- ullet One way: Normalization + Skolemization + Resolution with Unification
- Alternative: Reduction to propostional logic by instantiation based on the so-called Herbrand Universe (all possible terms) → infinite propositional theories
- It turns out that logical implication in PL1 is undecidable!
- Simple way for special case: If the number of objects is finite, instantiate all variables by possible objects (in fact, often used in Al systems, e.g. planning or ASP)

Finite Universes

- Let us assume that we only want to talk about a finite number of objects.
- Domain closure axiom (DCA):

$$\forall x[x = c_1 \lor x = c_2 \lor \ldots \lor x = c_n]$$

 Often one also assumes that different names denote different objects (unique name assumption/axiom or UNA):

$$\bigwedge_{i \neq j} [c_i \neq c_j]$$

- \rightarrow Only important when counting or using \neq or = as a predicate.
- Elimate quantification by instantiating all variables with all possible values.

Instantiation

- Notation: if φ is a formula, then $\varphi[x/a]$ is the formula with all free occurences of x replaced by a.
- Universally quantified formulas are replaced by a conjunction of formulas with the variable instantiated to all possible values (from DCA):

$$\forall x \varphi \leadsto \bigwedge_i \varphi[x/c_i]$$

- Existentially quantified variables are replaced by a disjunction of formulas with the variable instantiated to all possible values (from DCA): $\exists x \varphi \leadsto \bigvee_i \varphi[x/c_i]$
- Note: does blow up the formulas exponentially in the arity of the predicates!

Example

$$\forall x \quad (Block(x) \Rightarrow Red(x))$$

$$\forall x \quad (x = a \lor x = b \lor x = c)$$

$$\Rightarrow$$

$$(Block(a) \Rightarrow Red(a)) \land$$

$$(Block(b) \Rightarrow Red(b)) \land$$

$$(Block(c) \Rightarrow Red(c))$$

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Summary

- PL1 makes it possible to structure statements, thereby giving us considerably more expressive power than propositional logic.
- Logical implication in PL1 is undecidable.
- If we only reason over a finite universe, PL1 can be reduced to propositional logic over finite theories (but the reduction is exponential in the arity of the predicates).