

# First-Order Logic

Compiled from multiple sources

# Why First-Order Logic?

- ▶ So far, we studied the simplest logic: propositional logic
- ▶ But for some applications, propositional logic is not expressive enough
- ▶ First-order logic is more expressive: allows representing more complex facts and making more sophisticated inferences

# A Motivating Example

- ▶ For instance, consider the statement “Anyone who drives fast gets a speeding ticket”
- ▶ From this, we should be able to conclude "If Joe drives fast, he will get a speeding ticket"
- ▶ Similarly, we should be able to conclude "If Rachel drives fast, she will get a speeding ticket" and so on.
- ▶ But Propositional Logic does not allow inferences like that because we cannot talk about concepts like "everyone", "someone" etc.
- ▶ **First-order logic** (predicate logic) allows making such kinds of inferences

# Building Blocks of FOL

- ▶ The building blocks of propositional logic were **propositions**
- ▶ In first-order logic, there are three kinds of basic building blocks: constants, variables, predicates
- ▶ **Constants:** refer to specific objects (in a universe of discourse)
- ▶ **Examples:** George, 6, Austin, CS311, ...
- ▶ **Variables:** range over objects (in a universe of discourse)
- ▶ **Examples:** x,y,z, ...
- ▶ If universe of discourse is cities in Texas,  $x$  can represent Houston, Austin, Dallas, San Antonio, ...

# Building Blocks of FOL

- ▶ **Predicates** describe properties of objects or relationships between objects
- ▶ **Examples:** ishappy, betterthan, loves,  $>$  ...
- ▶ Predicates can be applied to both constants and variables
- ▶ **Examples:** ishappy(George), betterthan(x,y), loves(George, Rachel),  $x > 3$ , ...
- ▶ A predicate  $P(x)$  is true or false depending on whether property  $P$  holds for  $x$
- ▶ **Example:** ishappy(George) is true if George is happy, but false otherwise

# Predicate Examples

- ▶ Consider predicate  $Q(x, y)$  which indicates that  $x = y + 3$
- ▶ What is the truth value of  $Q(3, 0)$ ?
- ▶ What is the truth value of  $Q(1, 2)$ ?

# Formulas in FOL

- ▶ Formulas in first-order logic are formed using predicates and logical connectives.
- ▶ Example:  $\text{even}(x) \vee \text{odd}(x)$  is a formula
- ▶ Example:  $(\text{odd}(x) \rightarrow \neg \text{even}(x)) \wedge \text{even}(x)$

# Semantics of FOL

- ▶ In propositional logic, the truth value of formula depends on a truth assignment to variables.
- ▶ In FOL, truth value of a formula depends **interpretation** of predicate symbols and variables over some domain  $D$
- ▶ Consider a FOL formula  $\neg P(x)$
- ▶ A possible interpretation:

$$D = \{\star, \circ\}, P(\star) = \text{true}, P(\circ) = \text{false}, x = \star$$

- ▶ Under this interpretation, what's truth value of  $\neg P(x)$ ?
- ▶ What about if  $x = \circ$ ?

# More Examples

- ▶ Consider interpretation  $I$  over domain  $D = \{1, 2\}$ 
  - ▶  $P(1, 1) = P(1, 2) = \text{true}$ ,  $P(2, 1) = P(2, 2) = \text{false}$
  - ▶  $Q(1) = \text{false}$ ,  $Q(2) = \text{true}$
  - ▶  $x = 1$ ,  $y = 2$
- ▶ What is truth value of  $P(x, y) \wedge Q(y)$  under  $I$ ?
- ▶ What is truth value of  $P(y, x) \rightarrow Q(y)$  under  $I$ ?
- ▶ What is truth value of  $P(x, y) \rightarrow Q(x)$  under  $I$ ?

# Quantifiers

- ▶ Real power of first-order logic over propositional logic:  
**quantifiers**
- ▶ Quantifiers allow us to talk about **all** objects or the existence of **some** object
- ▶ There are two quantifiers in first-order logic:
  1. Universal quantifier ( $\forall$ ): refers to **all** objects
  2. Existential quantifier ( $\exists$ ): refers to **some** object

# Universal Quantifiers

- ▶ **Universal quantification** of  $P(x)$ ,  $\forall x.P(x)$ , is the statement " $P(x)$  holds for all objects  $x$  in the universe of discourse."
- ▶  $\forall x.P(x)$  is true if predicate  $P$  is true for **every** object in the universe of discourse, and false otherwise
- ▶ Consider domain  $D = \{\circ, \star\}$ ,  $P(\circ) = \text{true}$ ,  $P(\star) = \text{false}$
- ▶ What is truth value of  $\forall x.P(x)$ ?
- ▶ Object  $o$  for which  $P(o)$  is false is **counterexample** of  $\forall x.P(x)$
- ▶ What is a counterexample for  $\forall x.P(x)$  in previous example?

# More Universal Quantifier Examples

- ▶ Consider the domain  $D$  of real numbers and predicate  $P(x)$  with interpretation  $x^2 \geq x$
- ▶ What is the truth value of  $\forall x.P(x)$ ?
- ▶ What is a counterexample?
- ▶ What if the domain is integers?
- ▶ **Observe:** Truth value of a formula depends on a universe of discourse!

# Existential Quantifiers

- ▶ Existential quantification of  $P(x)$ , written  $\exists x.P(x)$ , is "There exists an element  $x$  in the domain such that  $P(x)$ ".
- ▶  $\exists x.P(x)$  is true if there is at least one element in the domain such that  $P(x)$  is true
- ▶ In first-order logic, domain is required to be non-empty.
- ▶ Consider domain  $D = \{\circ, \star\}$ ,  $P(\circ) = \text{true}$ ,  $P(\star) = \text{false}$
- ▶ What is truth value of  $\exists x.P(x)$ ?

# Existential Quantifier Examples

- ▶ Consider the domain of reals and predicate  $P(x)$  with interpretation  $x < 0$ .
- ▶ What is the truth value of  $\exists x.P(x)$ ?
- ▶ What if domain is positive integers?
- ▶ Let  $Q(y)$  be the statement  $y > y^2$
- ▶ What's truth value of  $\exists y.Q(y)$  if domain is reals?
- ▶ What about if domain is integers?

# Quantified Formulas

- ▶ So far, only discussed how to quantify individual predicates.
- ▶ But we can also quantify entire formulas containing multiple predicates and logical connectives.
- ▶  $\exists x.(\text{even}(x) \wedge \text{gt}(x, 100))$  is a valid formula in FOL
- ▶ What's truth value of this formula if domain is all integers?
  - ▶ assuming  $\text{even}(x)$  means "x is even" and  $\text{gt}(x, y)$  means  $x > y$
- ▶ What about  $\forall x.(\text{even}(x) \vee \text{gt}(x, 100))$ ?

# More Examples of Quantified Formulas

- ▶ Consider the domain of integers and the predicates `even(x)` and `div4(x)` which represents if  $x$  is divisible by 4
- ▶ What is the truth value of the following quantified formulas?
  - ▶  $\forall x. (\text{div4}(x) \rightarrow \text{even}(x))$
  - ▶  $\forall x. (\text{even}(x) \rightarrow \text{div4}(x))$
  - ▶  $\exists x. (\neg \text{div4}(x) \wedge \text{even}(x))$
  - ▶  $\exists x. (\neg \text{div4}(x) \rightarrow \text{even}(x))$
  - ▶  $\forall x. (\neg \text{div4}(x) \rightarrow \text{even}(x))$

# Translating English into Quantified Formulas

Assuming  $\text{freshman}(x)$  means “ $x$  is a freshman” and  $\text{inCS311}(x)$  “ $x$  is taking CS311”, express the following in FOL

- ▶ Someone in CS311 is a freshman
- ▶ No one in CS311 is a freshman
- ▶ Everyone taking CS311 are freshmen
- ▶ Every freshman is taking CS311

# DeMorgan's Laws for Quantifiers

- ▶ Learned about DeMorgan's laws for propositional logic:

$$\begin{aligned}\neg(p \wedge q) &\equiv \neg p \vee \neg q \\ \neg(p \vee q) &\equiv \neg p \wedge \neg q\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ DeMorgan's laws extend to first-order logic, e.g.,

$$\neg(\text{even}(x) \vee \text{div4}(x)) \equiv (\neg \text{even}(x) \wedge \neg \text{div4}(x))$$

- ▶ Two new DeMorgan's laws for quantifiers:

$$\begin{aligned}\neg \forall x.P(x) &\equiv \exists x.\neg P(x) \\ \neg \exists x.P(x) &\equiv \forall x.\neg P(x)\end{aligned}$$

- ▶ When you push negation in,  $\forall$  flips to  $\exists$  and vice versa

# Using DeMorgan's Laws

- ▶ Expressed "Noone in CS311 is a freshman" as  
 $\neg\exists x.(inCS311(x) \wedge freshman(x))$
- ▶ Let's apply DeMorgan's law to this formula:
- ▶ Using the fact that  $p \rightarrow q$  is equivalent to  $\neg p \vee q$ , we can write this formula as:
- ▶ Therefore, these two formulas are equivalent!

# Nested Quantifiers

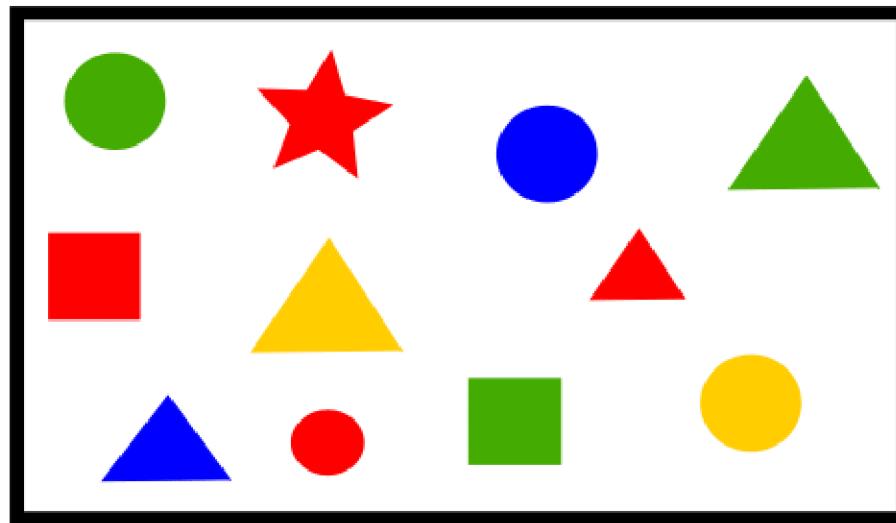
- ▶ Sometimes may be necessary to use multiple quantifiers
- ▶ For example, can't express "Everybody loves someone" using a single quantifier
- ▶ Suppose predicate  $\text{loves}(x, y)$  means "Person  $x$  loves person  $y$ "
- ▶ What does  $\forall x. \exists y. \text{loves}(x, y)$  mean?
- ▶ What does  $\exists y. \forall x. \text{loves}(x, y)$  mean?
- ▶ **Observe:** Order of quantifiers is **very** important!

# More Nested Quantifier Examples

Using the `loves(x,y)` predicate, how can we say the following?

- ▶ "Someone loves everyone"
- ▶ "There is someone who doesn't love anyone"
- ▶ "There is someone who is not loved by anyone"
- ▶ "Everyone loves everyone"
- ▶ "There is someone who doesn't love herself/himself."

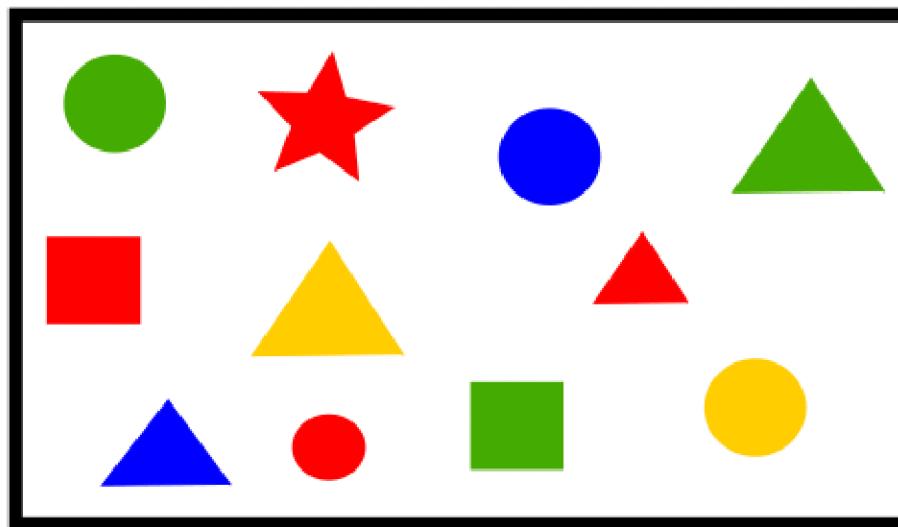
# Understanding Quantifiers



Which formulas are true/false? If false, give a counterexample

- ▶  $\forall x. \exists y. (\text{sameShape}(x, y) \wedge \text{differentColor}(x, y))$
- ▶  $\forall x. \exists y. (\text{sameColor}(x, y) \wedge \text{differentShape}(x, y))$
- ▶  $\forall x. (\text{triangle}(x) \rightarrow (\exists y. (\text{circle}(y) \wedge \text{sameColor}(x, y))))$

# Understanding Quantifiers contd.



Which formulas are true/false? If false, give a counterexample

- ▶  $\forall x. \forall y. ((\text{triangle}(x) \wedge \text{square}(y)) \rightarrow \text{sameColor}(x, y))$
- ▶  $\exists x. \forall y. \neg \text{sameShape}(x, y)$
- ▶  $\forall x. (\text{circle}(x) \rightarrow (\exists y. (\neg \text{circle}(y) \wedge \text{sameColor}(x, y))))$

# Well-Formed Formula (wff)

- A **free variable** is a variable that isn't bound by a quantifier
  - $\exists y \text{ Likes}(x, y)$   
 $x$  is free,  $y$  is bound
- A **well-formed formula** is a sentence where all variables are quantified

# Summary so far

- **Term:** Constant, variable, or Function( $\text{term}_1, \dots, \text{term}_n$ )  
denotes an object in the world  
**Ground Term** has no variables
- **Atom:** Predicate( $\text{term}_1, \dots, \text{term}_n$ ),  $\text{term}_1 = \text{term}_2$   
is smallest expression assigned a truth value
- **Sentence:** atom, quantified sentence with variables or  
complex sentence using connectives is assigned  
a truth value
- **Well-Formed Formula (wff):**  
sentence where all variables are quantified

# Equivalence

- ▶ Two formulas  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are equivalent if  $F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2$  is valid
- ▶ In PL, we could prove equivalence using truth tables, but not possible in FOL
- ▶ However, we can still use known equivalences to rewrite one formula as the other
- ▶ Example: Prove that  $\neg(\forall x. (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)))$  and  $\exists x. (P(x) \wedge \neg Q(x))$  are equivalent.
- ▶ Example: Prove that  $\neg\exists x.\forall y.P(x, y)$  and  $\forall x.\exists y.\neg P(x, y)$  are equivalent.

# Rules of Inference

- ▶ Proof rules are written as **rules of inference**:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Hypothesis1} \\ \text{Hypothesis2} \\ \dots \\ \hline \text{Conclusion} \end{array}$$

- ▶ An example inference rule:

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{All men are mortal} \\ \text{Socrates is a man} \\ \hline \therefore \text{Socrates is mortal} \end{array}$$

- ▶ We'll learn about more general inference rules that will allow constructing **formal** proofs

# Modus Ponens

- Most basic inference rule is **modus ponens**:

$$\frac{\phi_1}{\frac{\phi_1 \rightarrow \phi_2}{\phi_2}}$$

- Modus ponens applicable to both propositional logic and first-order logic

# Example Uses of Modus Ponens

- ▶ Application of modus ponens in propositional logic:

$$\frac{p \wedge q}{(p \wedge q) \rightarrow r}$$

- ▶ Application of modus ponens in first-order logic:

$$\frac{P(a)}{P(a) \rightarrow Q(b)}$$

# Modus Tollens

- ▶ Second important inference rule is **modus tollens**:

$$\frac{\phi_1 \rightarrow \phi_2}{\neg \phi_2} \quad \neg \phi_1$$

# Example Uses of Modus Tollens

- ▶ Application of modus tollens in propositional logic:

$$\frac{p \rightarrow (q \vee r) \\ \neg(q \vee r)}{\quad}$$

- ▶ Application of modus tollens in first-order logic:

$$\frac{Q(a) \\ \neg P(a) \rightarrow \neg Q(a)}{\quad}$$

# Hypothetical Syllogism (HS)

$$\frac{\phi_1 \rightarrow \phi_2 \\ \phi_2 \rightarrow \phi_3}{\phi_1 \rightarrow \phi_3}$$

- ▶ Basically says "implication is transitive"
- ▶ Example:

$$\frac{P(a) \rightarrow Q(b) \\ Q(b) \rightarrow R(c)}{P(a) \rightarrow R(c)}$$

# Or Introduction and Elimination

- ▶ Or introduction:

$$\frac{\phi_1}{\phi_1 \vee \phi_2}$$

- ▶ Example application: "Socrates is a man. Therefore, either Socrates is a man or there are red elephants on the moon."

- ▶ Or elimination:

$$\frac{\begin{array}{c} \phi_1 \vee \phi_2 \\ \neg \phi_2 \end{array}}{\phi_1}$$

- ▶ Example application: "It is either a dog or a cat. It is not a dog. Therefore, it must be a cat."

# And Introduction and Elimination

- ▶ And introduction:

$$\frac{\phi_1 \quad \phi_2}{\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2}$$

- ▶ And elimination:

$$\frac{\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2}{\phi_1}$$

# Resolution

- ▶ Final inference rule: **resolution**

$$\frac{\phi_1 \vee \phi_2}{\begin{array}{c} \neg\phi_1 \vee \phi_3 \\ \hline \phi_2 \vee \phi_3 \end{array}}$$

- ▶ To see why this is correct, observe  $\phi_1$  is either true or false.
- ▶ Suppose  $\phi_1$  is true. Then,  $\neg\phi_1$  is false. Therefore, by second hypothesis,  $\phi_3$  must be true.
- ▶ Suppose  $\phi_1$  is false. Then, by 1st hypothesis,  $\phi_2$  must be true.
- ▶ In any case, either  $\phi_2$  or  $\phi_3$  must be true;  $\therefore \phi_2 \vee \phi_3$

# Resolution Example

- ▶ Example 1:

$$\frac{P(a) \vee \neg Q(b)}{Q(b) \vee R(c)}$$

- ▶ Example 2:

$$\frac{p \vee q}{q \vee \neg p}$$

# Summary

Name	Rule of Inference
Modus ponens	$\frac{\phi_1 \\ \phi_1 \rightarrow \phi_2}{\phi_2}$
Modus tollens	$\frac{\phi_1 \rightarrow \phi_2 \\ \neg\phi_2}{\neg\phi_1}$
Hypothetical syllogism	$\frac{\phi_1 \rightarrow \phi_2 \\ \phi_2 \rightarrow \phi_3}{\phi_1 \rightarrow \phi_3}$
Or introduction	$\frac{\phi_1}{\phi_1 \vee \phi_2}$
Or elimination	$\frac{\phi_1 \vee \phi_2 \\ \neg\phi_2}{\phi_1}$
And introduction	$\frac{\phi_1 \\ \phi_2}{\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2}$
And elimination	$\frac{\phi_1 \wedge \phi_2}{\phi_1}$
Resolution	$\frac{\phi_1 \vee \phi_2 \\ \neg\phi_1 \vee \phi_3}{\phi_2 \vee \phi_3}$

# Using the Rules of Inference

Assume the following hypotheses:

1. It is not sunny today and it is colder than yesterday.
2. We will go to the lake only if it is sunny.
3. If we do not go to the lake, then we will go hiking.
4. If we go hiking, then we will be back by sunset.

Show these lead to the conclusion: "We will be back by sunset."

# Encoding in Logic

- ▶ First, encode hypotheses and conclusion as logical formulas.
- ▶ To do this, identify propositions used in the argument:
  - ▶  $s = \text{"It is sunny today"}$
  - ▶  $c = \text{"It is colder than yesterday"}$
  - ▶  $l = \text{"We'll go to the lake"}$
  - ▶  $h = \text{"We'll go hiking"}$
  - ▶  $b = \text{"We'll be back by sunset"}$

# Encoding in Logic contd.

- ▶ "It's not sunny today and colder than yesterday."
- ▶ "We will go to the lake only if it is sunny"
- ▶ "If we do not go to the lake, then we will go hiking."
- ▶ "If we go hiking, then we will be back by sunset."
- ▶ Conclusion: "We'll be back by sunset"

# Formal Proof Using Inference Rules

1.  $\neg s \wedge c$  Hypothesis
2.  $l \rightarrow s$  Hypothesis
3.  $\neg l \rightarrow h$  Hypothesis
4.  $h \rightarrow b$  Hypothesis

# Additional Inference Rules for Quantified Formulas

- ▶ Inference rules we learned so far are sufficient for reasoning about quantifier-free statements
- ▶ Four more inference rules for making deductions from quantified formulas
- ▶ These come in pairs for each quantifier (universal/existential)
- ▶ One is called **generalization**, the other one called **instantiation**

# Universal Instantiation

- ▶ If we know something is true for all members of a group, we can conclude it is also true for a **specific** member of this group
- ▶ This idea is formally called **universal instantiation**:

$$\frac{\forall x.P(x)}{P(c)} \text{ (for any } c\text{)}$$

- ▶ If we know "All CS classes at UT are hard", universal instantiation allows us to conclude "CS311 is hard"!

# Example

- ▶ Consider predicates  $\text{man}(x)$  and  $\text{mortal}(x)$  and the hypotheses:
  1. All men are mortal:
  2. Socrates is a man:
- ▶ Using rules of inference, prove  $\text{mortal}(\text{Socrates})$

# Universal Generalization

- ▶ Suppose we can prove a claim for an **arbitrary** element in the domain.
- ▶ Since we've made no assumptions about this element, proof should apply to all elements in the domain.
- ▶ This correct reasoning is captured by **universal generalization**

$$\frac{P(c) \text{ for arbitrary } c}{\forall x.P(x)}$$

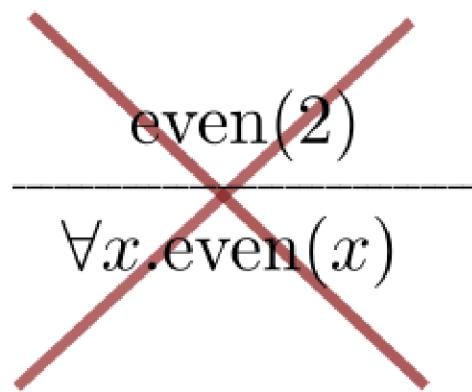
# Example

Prove  $\forall x. Q(x)$  from the hypotheses:

1.  $\forall x. (P(x) \rightarrow Q(x))$  Hypothesis
2.  $\forall x. P(x)$  Hypothesis
3.  $P(c) \rightarrow Q(c)$   $\forall\text{-inst } (1)$
4.  $P(c)$   $\forall\text{-inst } (2)$
5.  $Q(c)$  Modus ponens (3), (4)
6.  $\forall x. Q(x)$   $\forall\text{-gen } (5)$

# Caveat About Universal Generalization

- ▶ When using universal generalization, need to ensure that  $c$  is truly arbitrary!
- ▶ If you prove something about a specific person  $Mary$ , you cannot make generalizations about all people

$$\frac{\text{even}(2)}{\forall x.\text{even}(x)}$$
A large red 'X' is drawn across the entire proof structure, indicating that the conclusion  $\forall x.\text{even}(x)$  is invalid or incorrect based on the premises shown.

# Existential Instantiation

- ▶ Consider formula  $\exists x.P(x)$ .
- ▶ We know there is some element, say  $c$ , in the domain for which  $P(c)$  is true.
- ▶ This is called **existential instantiation**:

$$\frac{\exists x.P(x)}{P(c)} \text{ (for unused } c\text{)}$$

- ▶ Here,  $c$  is a **fresh** name (i.e., not used before in proof).
  - ▶ Otherwise, can prove non-sensical things such as: "There exists some animal that can fly. Thus, rabbits can fly"!

# Existential Instantiation Example

Consider the hypotheses  $\exists x.P(x)$  and  $\forall x.\neg P(x)$ . Prove that we can derive a contradiction (i.e., **false**) from these hypotheses.

1.  $\exists x.P(x)$  Hypothesis
2.  $\forall x.\neg P(x)$  Hypothesis
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.

# Existential Generalization

- ▶ Suppose we know  $P(c)$  is true for some constant  $c$
- ▶ Then, there exists an element for which  $P$  is true
- ▶ Thus, we can conclude  $\exists x.P(x)$
- ▶ This inference rule called **existential generalization**:

$$\frac{P(c)}{\exists x.P(x)}$$

# Existential Generalization Example

Consider the hypotheses  $\text{atUT}(\text{George})$  and  $\text{smart}(\text{George})$ .  
Prove  $\exists x. (\text{atUT}(x) \wedge \text{smart}(x))$

1.  $\text{atUT}(\text{George})$  Hypothesis
2.  $\text{smart}(\text{George})$  Hypothesis
- 3.
- 4.

# Summary of Inference Rules for Quantifiers

Name	Rule of Inference
Universal Instantiation	$\frac{\forall x.P(x)}{P(c)} \text{ (any } c\text{)}$
Universal Generalization	$\frac{P(c) \text{ (for arbitrary } c\text{)}}{\forall x.P(x)}$
Existential Instantiation	$\frac{\exists x.P(x)}{P(c) \text{ for fresh } c}$
Existential Generalization	$\frac{P(c)}{\exists x.P(x)}$

# Example 1

- ▶ Prove that these hypotheses imply  $\exists x.(P(x) \wedge \neg B(x))$ :
  1.  $\exists x. (C(x) \wedge \neg B(x))$  (Hypothesis)
  2.  $\forall x. (C(x) \rightarrow P(x))$  (Hypothesis)

# Example 2

- ▶ Prove the below hypotheses are contradictory by deriving `false`

1.  $\forall x.(P(x) \rightarrow (Q(x) \wedge S(x)))$  (Hypothesis)
2.  $\forall x.(P(x) \wedge R(x))$  (Hypothesis)
3.  $\exists x.(\neg R(x) \vee \neg S(x))$  (Hypothesis)

# Example 3

Prove  $\exists x. \text{father}(x, \text{Evan})$  from the following premises:

1.  $\forall x. \forall y. ((\text{parent}(x, y) \wedge \text{male}(x)) \rightarrow \text{father}(x, y))$
2.  $\text{parent}(\text{Tom}, \text{Evan})$
3.  $\text{male}(\text{Tom})$

# Inference in FOL

## Universal instantiation (UI)

Every instantiation of a universally quantified sentence is entailed by it:

$$\frac{\forall v \ \alpha}{\text{SUBST}(\{v/g\}, \alpha)}$$

for any variable  $v$  and ground term  $g$

E.g.,  $\forall x \ King(x) \wedge Greedy(x) \Rightarrow Evil(x)$  yields

$$King(John) \wedge Greedy(John) \Rightarrow Evil(John)$$

$$King(Richard) \wedge Greedy(Richard) \Rightarrow Evil(Richard)$$

$$King(Father(John)) \wedge Greedy(Father(John)) \Rightarrow Evil(Father(John))$$

⋮

## Existential instantiation (EI)

For any sentence  $\alpha$ , variable  $v$ , and constant symbol  $k$   
that does not appear elsewhere in the knowledge base:

$$\frac{\exists v \ \alpha}{\text{SUBST}(\{v/k\}, \alpha)}$$

E.g.,  $\exists x \ Crown(x) \wedge OnHead(x, John)$  yields

$$Crown(C_1) \wedge OnHead(C_1, John)$$

provided  $C_1$  is a new constant symbol, called a Skolem constant

Another example: from  $\exists x \ d(x^y)/dy = x^y$  we obtain

$$d(e^y)/dy = e^y$$

provided  $e$  is a new constant symbol

## Existential instantiation contd.

UI can be applied several times to **add** new sentences;  
the new KB is logically equivalent to the old

EI can be applied once to **replace** the existential sentence;  
the new KB is **not** equivalent to the old,  
but is satisfiable iff the old KB was satisfiable

## Reduction to propositional inference

Suppose the KB contains just the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \ King(x) \wedge Greedy(x) &\Rightarrow Evil(x) \\ King(John) \\ Greedy(John) \\ Brother(Richard, John) \end{aligned}$$

Instantiating the universal sentence in **all possible** ways, we have

$$\begin{aligned} King(John) \wedge Greedy(John) &\Rightarrow Evil(John) \\ King(Richard) \wedge Greedy(Richard) &\Rightarrow Evil(Richard) \\ King(John) \\ Greedy(John) \\ Brother(Richard, John) \end{aligned}$$

The new KB is **propositionalized**: proposition symbols are

*King(John), Greedy(John), Evil(John), King(Richard)* etc.

## Problems with propositionalization

Propositionalization seems to generate lots of irrelevant sentences.

E.g., from

$$\forall x \ King(x) \wedge Greedy(x) \Rightarrow Evil(x)$$

*King(John)*

$\forall y \ Greedy(y)$

*Brother(Richard, John)*

it seems obvious that *Evil(John)*, but propositionalization produces lots of facts such as *Greedy(Richard)* that are irrelevant

With  $p$   $k$ -ary predicates and  $n$  constants, there are  $p \cdot n^k$  instantiations

With function symbols, it gets much much worse!

## Unification

We can get the inference immediately if we can find a substitution  $\theta$  such that  $King(x)$  and  $Greedy(x)$  match  $King(John)$  and  $Greedy(y)$

$\theta = \{x/John, y/John\}$  works

$\text{UNIFY}(\alpha, \beta) = \theta$  if  $\alpha\theta = \beta\theta$

$p$	$q$	$\theta$
$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(John, Jane)$	
$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(y, OJ)$	
$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(y, Mother(y))$	
$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(x, OJ)$	

## Unification

We can get the inference immediately if we can find a substitution  $\theta$  such that  $King(x)$  and  $Greedy(x)$  match  $King(John)$  and  $Greedy(y)$

$\theta = \{x/John, y/John\}$  works

$\text{UNIFY}(\alpha, \beta) = \theta$  if  $\alpha\theta = \beta\theta$

$p$	$q$	$\theta$
$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(John, Jane)$	$\{x/Jane\}$
$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(y, OJ)$	
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$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(y, OJ)$	$\{x/OJ, y/John\}$
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$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(y, OJ)$	$\{x/OJ, y/John\}$
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$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(y, OJ)$	$\{x/OJ, y/John\}$
$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(y, Mother(y))$	$\{y/John, x/Mother(John)\}$
$Knows(John, x)$	$Knows(x, OJ)$	$fail$

Standardizing apart eliminates overlap of variables, e.g.,  $Knows(z_{17}, OJ)$

## Generalized Modus Ponens (GMP)

$$\frac{p_1', p_2', \dots, p_n', (p_1 \wedge p_2 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n \Rightarrow q)}{q\theta} \quad \text{where } p_i'\theta = p_i\theta \text{ for all } i$$

$p_1'$  is *King(John)*       $p_1$  is *King(x)*  
 $p_2'$  is *Greedy(y)*       $p_2$  is *Greedy(x)*  
 $\theta$  is  $\{x/John, y/John\}$     $q$  is *Evil(x)*  
 $q\theta$  is *Evil(John)*

GMP used with KB of definite clauses (**exactly** one positive literal)  
All variables assumed universally quantified

## Example knowledge base

The law says that it is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations. The country Nono, an enemy of America, has some missiles, and all of its missiles were sold to it by Colonel West, who is American.

Prove that Col. West is a criminal

## **Example knowledge base contd.**

... it is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations:

## Example knowledge base contd.

... it is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations:

$$\text{American}(x) \wedge \text{Weapon}(y) \wedge \text{Sells}(x, y, z) \wedge \text{Hostile}(z) \Rightarrow \text{Criminal}(x)$$

Nono ... has some missiles

## Example knowledge base contd.

... it is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations:

$American(x) \wedge Weapon(y) \wedge Sells(x, y, z) \wedge Hostile(z) \Rightarrow Criminal(x)$

Nono ... has some missiles, i.e.,  $\exists x \ Owns(Nono, x) \wedge Missile(x)$ :

$Owns(Nono, M_1)$  and  $Missile(M_1)$

... all of its missiles were sold to it by Colonel West

## Example knowledge base contd.

... it is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations:

$$\text{American}(x) \wedge \text{Weapon}(y) \wedge \text{Sells}(x, y, z) \wedge \text{Hostile}(z) \Rightarrow \text{Criminal}(x)$$

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$$\text{Owns}(\text{Nono}, M_1) \text{ and } \text{Missile}(M_1)$$

... all of its missiles were sold to it by Colonel West

$$\forall x \text{ Missle}(x) \wedge \text{Owns}(\text{Nono}, x) \Rightarrow \text{Sells}(\text{West}, x, \text{Nono})$$

Missiles are weapons:

## Example knowledge base contd.

... it is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations:

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Missiles are weapons:

$$\text{Missile}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Weapon}(x)$$

An enemy of America counts as “hostile”:

## Example knowledge base contd.

... it is a crime for an American to sell weapons to hostile nations:

$$\text{American}(x) \wedge \text{Weapon}(y) \wedge \text{Sells}(x, y, z) \wedge \text{Hostile}(z) \Rightarrow \text{Criminal}(x)$$

Nono ... has some missiles, i.e.,  $\exists x \text{ Owns}(\text{Nono}, x) \wedge \text{Missile}(x)$ :

$$\text{Owns}(\text{Nono}, M_1) \text{ and } \text{Missile}(M_1)$$

... all of its missiles were sold to it by Colonel West

$$\forall x \text{ Missle}(x) \wedge \text{Owns}(\text{Nono}, x) \Rightarrow \text{Sells}(\text{West}, x, \text{Nono})$$

Missiles are weapons:

$$\text{Missile}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Weapon}(x)$$

An enemy of America counts as “hostile”:

$$\text{Enemy}(x, \text{America}) \Rightarrow \text{Hostile}(x)$$

West, who is American ...

$$\text{American}(\text{West})$$

The country Nono, an enemy of America ...

$$\text{Enemy}(\text{Nono}, \text{America})$$

## Forward chaining algorithm

```
function FOL-FC-Ask( $KB, \alpha$ ) returns a substitution or false
    repeat until  $new$  is empty
         $new \leftarrow \{ \}$ 
        for each sentence  $r$  in  $KB$  do
             $(p_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n \Rightarrow q) \leftarrow \text{STANDARDIZE-APART}(r)$ 
            for each  $\theta$  such that  $(p_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n)\theta = (p'_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p'_n)\theta$ 
                for some  $p'_1, \dots, p'_n$  in  $KB$ 
                     $q' \leftarrow \text{SUBST}(\theta, q)$ 
                    if  $q'$  is not a renaming of a sentence already in  $KB$  or  $new$  then do
                        add  $q'$  to  $new$ 
                         $\phi \leftarrow \text{UNIFY}(q', \alpha)$ 
                        if  $\phi$  is not fail then return  $\phi$ 
                    add  $new$  to  $KB$ 
    return false
```

## Forward chaining proof

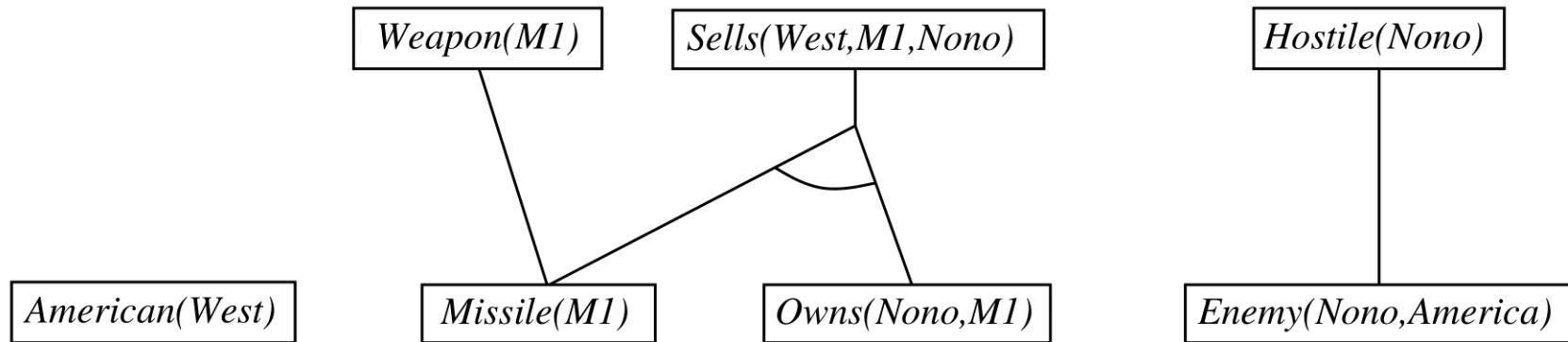
*American(West)*

*Missile(M1)*

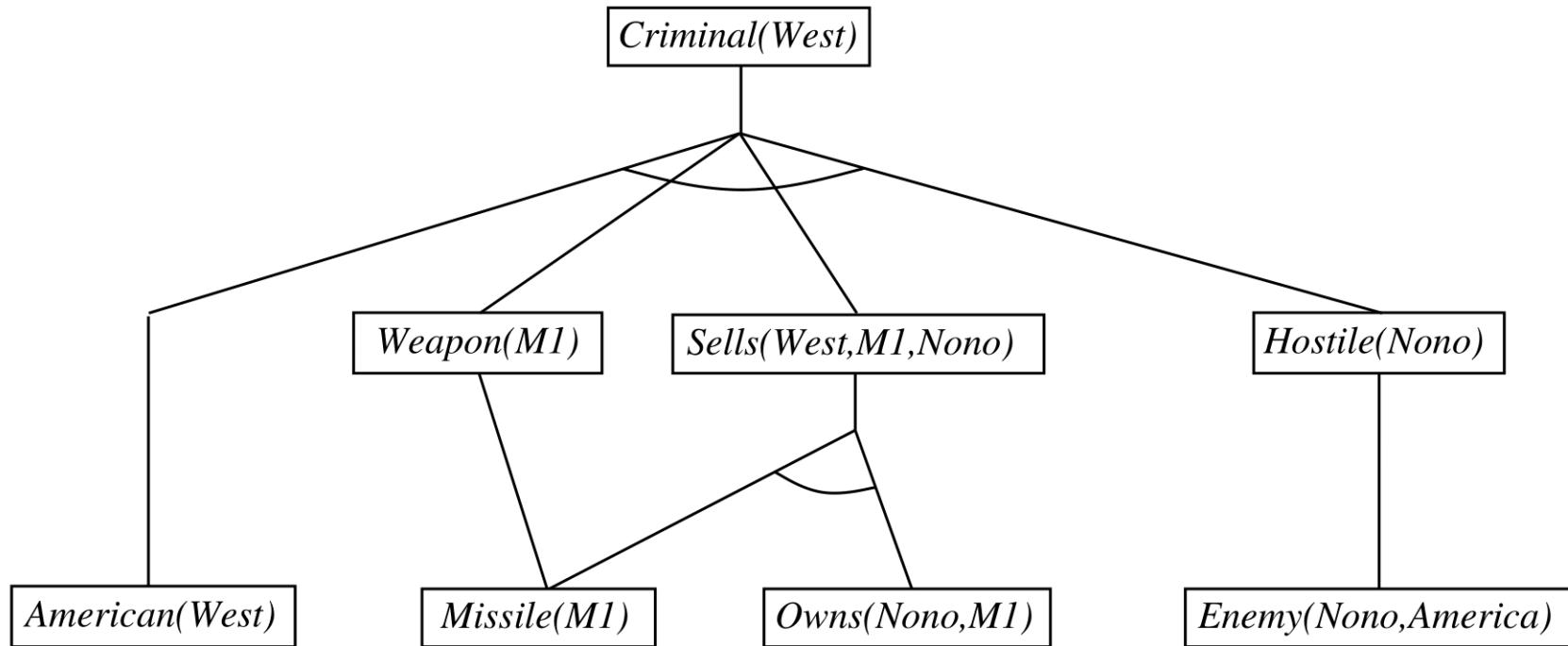
*Owns(Nono,M1)*

*Enemy(Nono,America)*

## Forward chaining proof



## Forward chaining proof



## Properties of forward chaining

Sound and complete for first-order definite clauses  
(proof similar to propositional proof)

Datalog = first-order definite clauses + **no functions** (e.g., crime KB)  
FC terminates for Datalog in poly iterations: at most  $p \cdot n^k$  literals

May not terminate in general if  $\alpha$  is not entailed

This is unavoidable: entailment with definite clauses is semidecidable

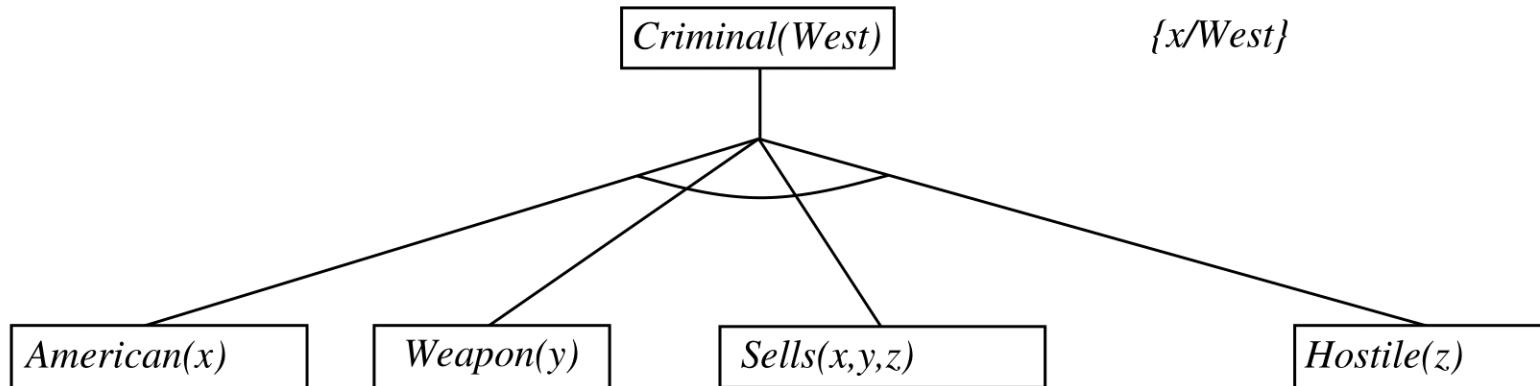
## Backward chaining algorithm

```
function FOL-BC-ASK( $KB, goals, \theta$ ) returns a set of substitutions
  inputs:  $KB$ , a knowledge base
           $goals$ , a list of conjuncts forming a query ( $\theta$  already applied)
           $\theta$ , the current substitution, initially the empty substitution  $\{ \}$ 
  local variables:  $answers$ , a set of substitutions, initially empty
  if  $goals$  is empty then return  $\{\theta\}$ 
   $q' \leftarrow \text{SUBST}(\theta, \text{FIRST}(goals))$ 
  for each sentence  $r$  in  $KB$ 
    where STANDARDIZE-APART( $r$ ) =  $(p_1 \wedge \dots \wedge p_n \Rightarrow q)$ 
    and  $\theta' \leftarrow \text{UNIFY}(q, q')$  succeeds
     $new\_goals \leftarrow [p_1, \dots, p_n | REST(goals)]$ 
     $answers \leftarrow \text{FOL-BC-ASK}(KB, new\_goals, \text{COMPOSE}(\theta', \theta)) \cup answers$ 
  return  $answers$ 
```

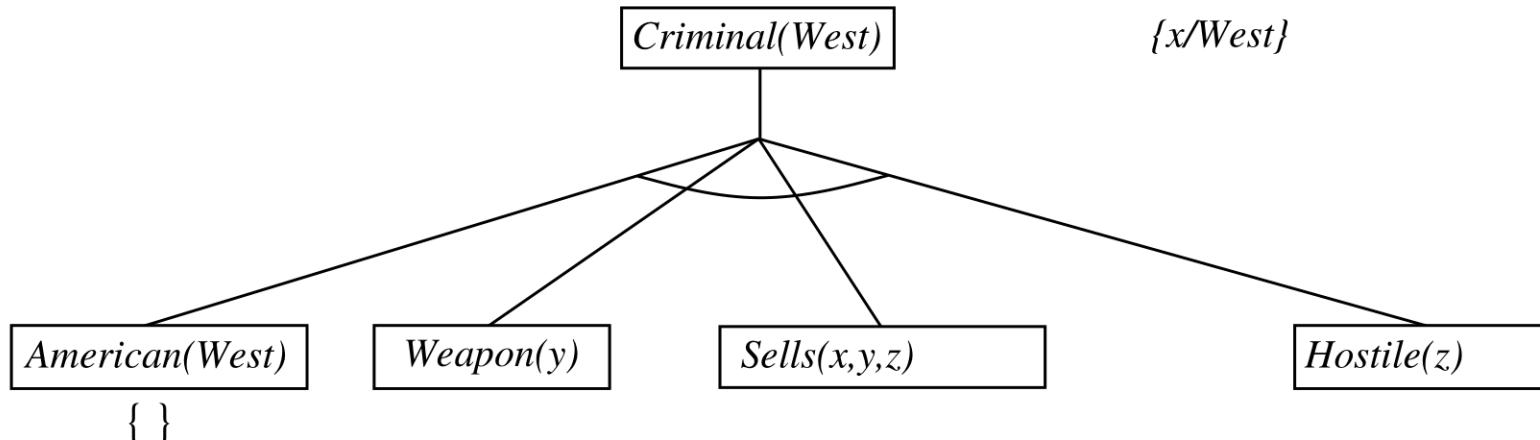
## Backward chaining example

*Criminal(West)*

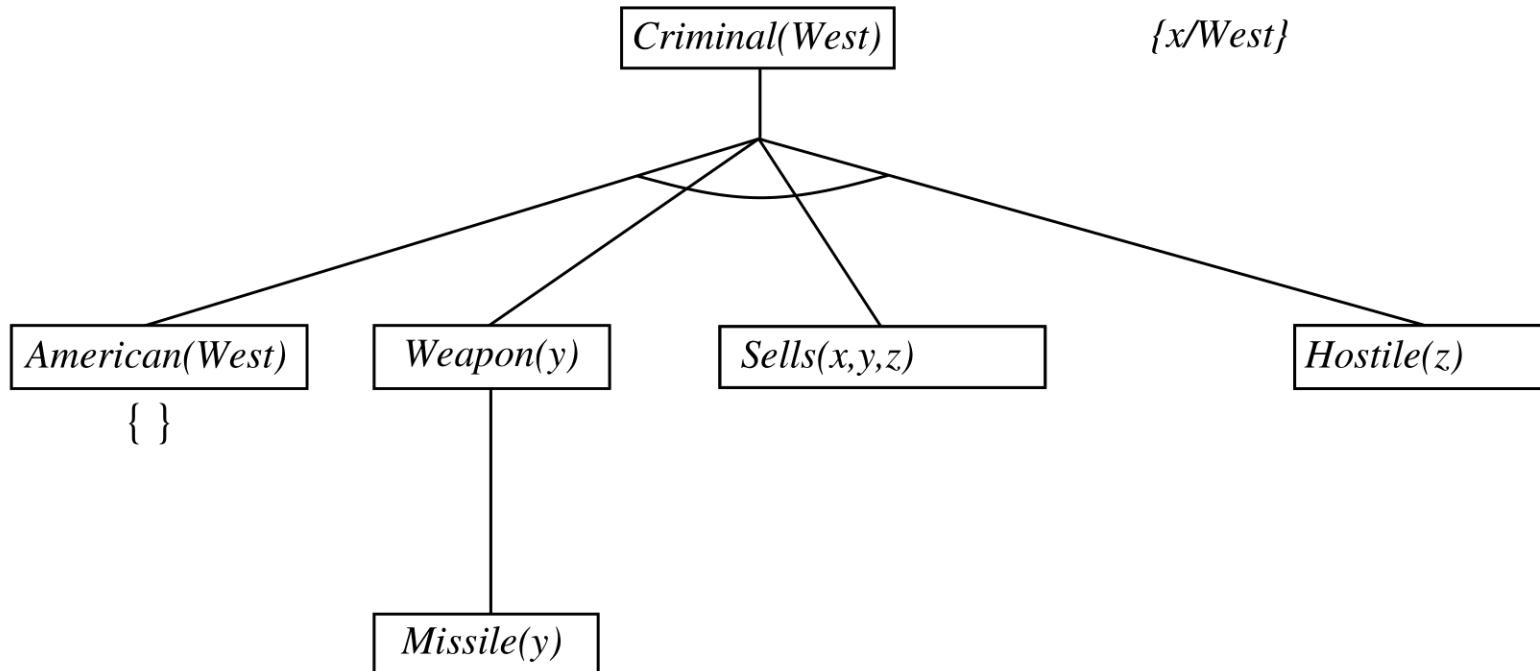
## Backward chaining example



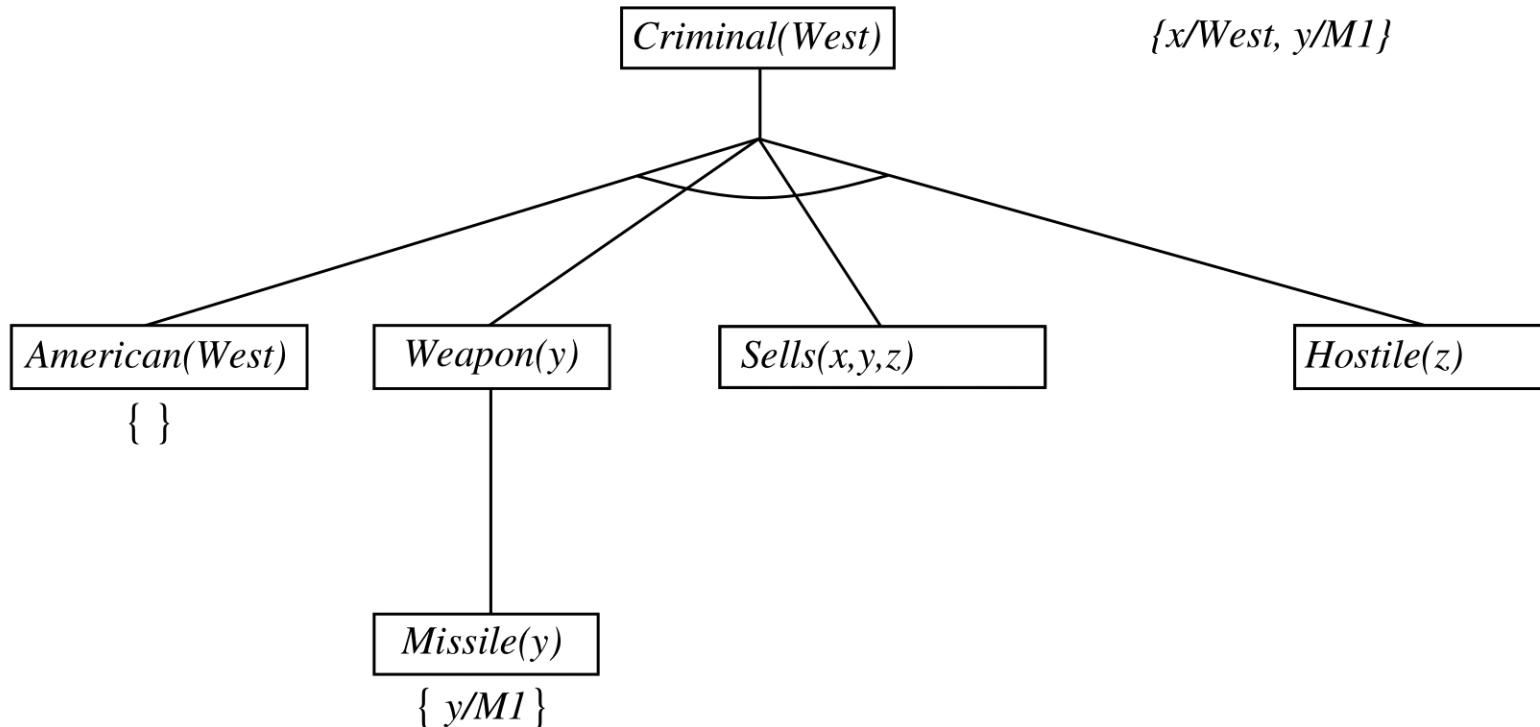
## Backward chaining example



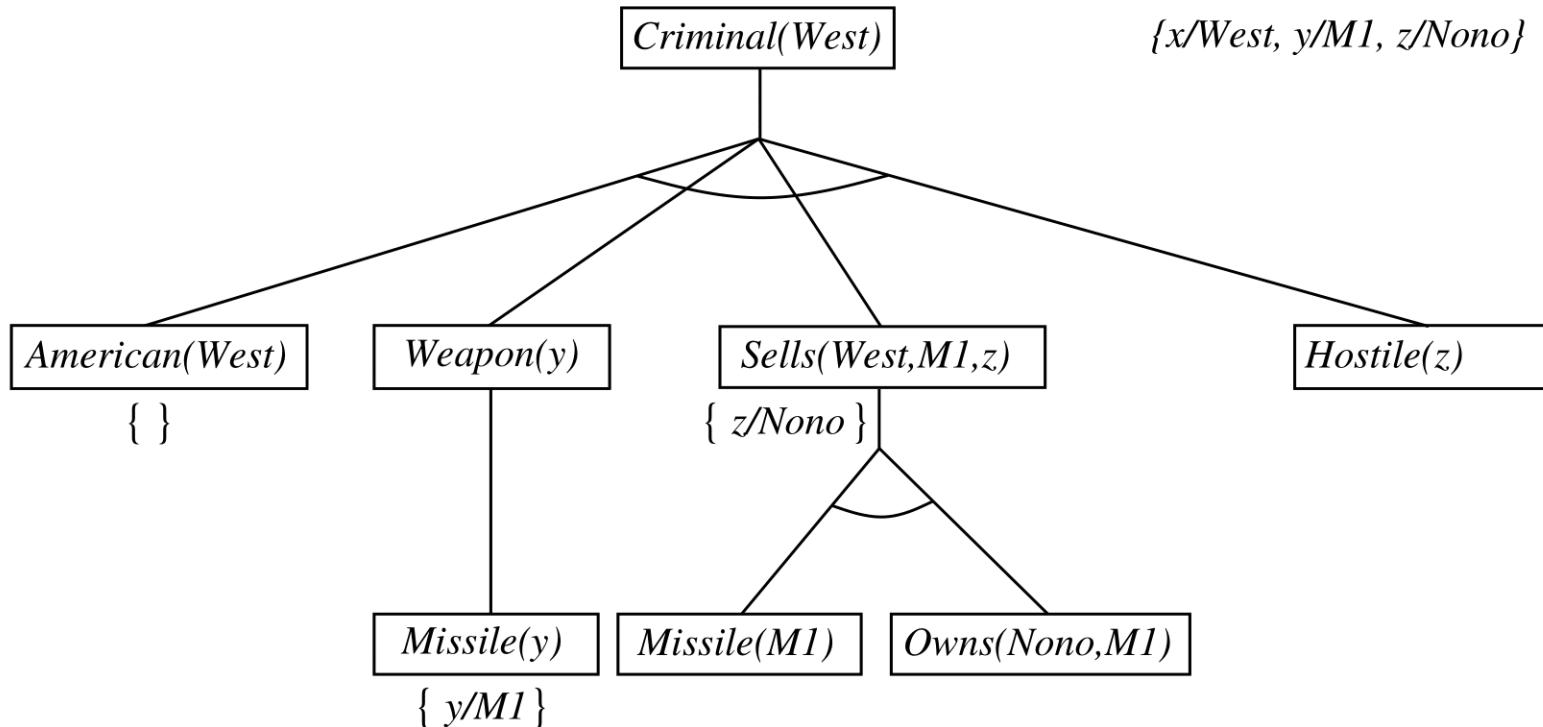
## Backward chaining example



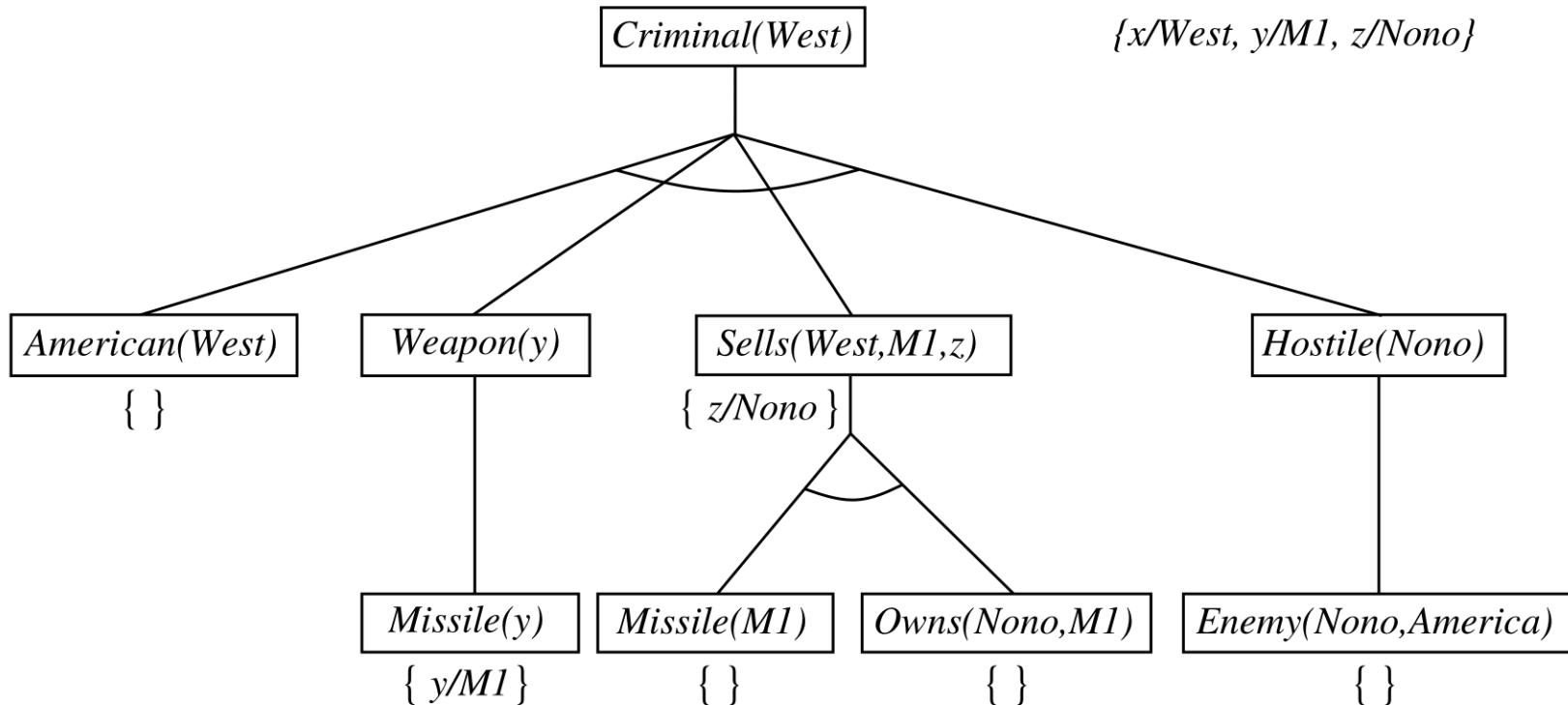
## Backward chaining example



## Backward chaining example



## Backward chaining example



## Properties of backward chaining

Depth-first recursive proof search: space is linear in size of proof

Incomplete due to infinite loops

⇒ fix by checking current goal against every goal on stack

Inefficient due to repeated subgoals (both success and failure)

⇒ fix using caching of previous results (extra space!)

Widely used (without improvements!) for logic programming

## Resolution: brief summary

Full first-order version:

$$\frac{\ell_1 \vee \cdots \vee \ell_k, \quad m_1 \vee \cdots \vee m_n}{(\ell_1 \vee \cdots \vee \ell_{i-1} \vee \ell_{i+1} \vee \cdots \vee \ell_k \vee m_1 \vee \cdots \vee m_{j-1} \vee m_{j+1} \vee \cdots \vee m_n)\theta}$$

where  $\text{UNIFY}(\ell_i, \neg m_j) = \theta$ .

For example,

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} \neg \text{Rich}(x) \vee \text{Unhappy}(x) \\ \text{Rich}(\text{Ken}) \end{array}}{\text{Unhappy}(\text{Ken})}$$

with  $\theta = \{x/\text{Ken}\}$

Apply resolution steps to  $CNF(KB \wedge \neg\alpha)$ ; complete for FOL

## Conversion to CNF

Everyone who loves all animals is loved by someone:

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

1. Eliminate biconditionals and implications

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

2. Move  $\neg$  inwards:  $\neg\forall x, p \equiv \exists x \ \neg p$ ,  $\neg\exists x, p \equiv \forall x \ \neg p$ :

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

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

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

## Conversion to CNF contd.

3. Standardize variables: each quantifier should use a different one

$$\forall x \ [\exists y \ Animal(y) \wedge \neg Loves(x, y)] \vee [\exists z \ Loves(z, x)]$$

4. Skolemize: a more general form of existential instantiation.

Each existential variable is replaced by a **Skolem function** of the enclosing universally quantified variables:

$$\forall x \ [Animal(F(x)) \wedge \neg Loves(x, F(x))] \vee Loves(G(x), x)$$

5. Drop universal quantifiers:

$$[Animal(F(x)) \wedge \neg Loves(x, F(x))] \vee Loves(G(x), x)$$

6. Distribute  $\wedge$  over  $\vee$ :

$$[Animal(F(x)) \vee Loves(G(x), x)] \wedge [\neg Loves(x, F(x)) \vee Loves(G(x), x)]$$

# Resolution proof: definite clauses

