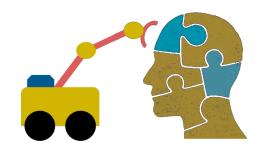
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First-Order Logic (FOL) part 1

FOL Overview

- First Order logic (FOL) is a powerful knowledge representation (KR) system
- Used in AI systems in various ways, e.g., to
- Directly represent & reason about concepts & objects
- Formally specify meaning of KR systems (e.g., <u>OWL</u>)
- For programming languages (e.g., <u>Prolog</u>) and <u>rule-</u>
 <u>based systems</u>
- Make semantic database systems (<u>Datalog</u>) and Knowledge graphs (<u>Wikidata</u>)
- Provide features useful in neural network deep learning systems

First-order logic

- First-order logic (FOL) models the world in terms of
 - Objects, which are things with individual identities
 - Properties of objects that distinguish them from others
 - Relations that hold among sets of objects
 - Functions, a subset of relations where there is only one "value" for any given "input"
- Examples:
 - Objects: students, lectures, companies, cars ...
 - Relations: isa, hasBrother, biggerThan, outside, hasPart, color, occursAfter, owns, visits, precedes, ...
 - Properties: blue, oval, even, large, ...
 - Functions: hasFather, hasSSN, ...

User provides

- Constant symbols representing individuals in world
 - BarackObama, Green, John, 3, "John Smith"
- Predicate symbols map individuals to truth values
 - -greater(5,3)
 - green (Grass)
 - -color(Grass, Green)
 - –hasProperty(Grass, Color, Green)

How to represent properties and relations depends on our goals

- Function symbols map individuals to individuals
 - hasFather(SashaObama) = BarackObama
 - -colorOf(Sky) = Blue

What do these mean?

- We must indicate what these mean in ways humans will understand
 - i.e., map to their own internal representations
- May be done via a combination of
 - Choosing good names for formal terms, e.g., calling a concept HumanBeing instead of <u>Q5</u>
 - Comments in the definition #human being
 - Descriptions and examples in documentation
 - Reference to other representations , e.g., sameAs <u>Q5</u> in Wikidata and <u>Person</u> in schema.org
 - Give examples like *Donald Trump* and *Luke Skywalker* to help distinguish concepts of real and fictional person



FOL Provides

- Variable symbols
 - -e.g., X, Y, ?foo, ?number
- Connectives
 - -Same as propositional logic: not (\neg), and (\land), or (\lor), implies (\rightarrow), iff (\leftrightarrow), equivalence (\equiv), ...

Quantifiers

- –Universal $\forall x \text{ or } (Ax)$
- -Existential ∃x or (Ex)

Sentences: built from terms and atoms

- term (denoting an individual): constant or variable symbol, or n-place function of n terms, e.g.:
 - -Constants: john, umbc
 - Variables: X, Y, Z
 - -Functions: mother_of(john), phone(mother(x))
- Ground terms have no variables in them
 - -Ground: john, father_of(father_of(john))
 - -Not Ground: father_of(X)
- Syntax varies, e.g., variables start with a "?" or a capital letter, or are identified by quantifiers

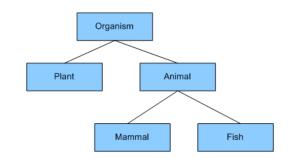
Sentences: built from terms and atoms

- atomic sentences (which are either true or false) are n-place predicates of n terms, e.g.:
 - -green(kermit)
 - -between(philadelphia, baltimore, dc)
 - -loves(X, mother(X))
- complex sentences formed from atomic ones connected by the standard logical connectives with quantifiers if there are variables, e.g.:
 - -loves(mary, john) \sc loves(mary, bill)
 - $-\forall x \text{ loves}(mary, x)$

What do atomic sentences mean?

- Unary predicates typically encode a type
 - muppet(Kermit): kermit is a kind of muppet
 - -green(kermit): kermit is a kind of green thing
 - -integer(X): x is a kind of integer
- Non-unary predicates typically encode relations or properties
 - –Loves(john, mary)
 - -Greater_than(2, 1)
 - -Between(newYork, philadelphia, baltimore)
 - -hasName(john, "John Smith")

Ontology



- Designing a logic representation is like designing a model in an object-oriented language
- Ontology: a "formal naming and definition of the types, properties, and relations of entities for a domain of discourse"
- E.g.: <u>schema.org</u> ontology used to put semantic data on Web pages to help search engines
 - Here's the <u>semantic markup</u> Google sees on our site
 - -It's encoded as JSON, but the model is logic

Sentences: built from terms and atoms

- quantified sentences adds quantifiers ∀ and ∃ ∀x loves(x, mother(x))
 ∃x number(x) ∧ greater(x, 100), prime(x)
- well-formed formula (wff): a sentence with no free variables or where all variables are bound by a universal or existential quantifier
 In (∀x)P(x, y) x is bound & y is free so it's not a wff

Quantifiers: \forall and \exists

- Universal quantification
 - -(∀x)P(X) means P holds for all values of X in the domain associated with variable¹
 - $-E.g., (\forall X) dolphin(X) \rightarrow mammal(X)$
- Existential quantification
 - –(∃x)P(X) means P holds for some value of X in domain associated with variable
 - -E.g., ($\exists X$) mammal(X) \land lays_eggs(X)
 - This lets us make statements about an object without identifying it

¹ a variable's domain is often not explicitly stated and is assumed by the context

Universal Quantifier: \forall

• Universal quantifiers typically used with *implies* to form *rules*:

Logic: $\forall X \ student(X) \rightarrow smart(X)$ Means: All students are smart

- Universal quantification *rarely* used without implies:
 - Logic: $\forall X \ student(X) \land smart(X)$

Means: Everything is a student and is smart

• What about this, though:

-Logic: $\forall X a live(X) \lor dead(X)$

-Means: everything is either alive or dead

Universal Quantifier: ∀

• What about this, though:

- -Logic: $\forall X a live(X) \lor dead(X)$
- -Means: everything is either alive or dead

Can be rewritten using a standard tautology

$$-\mathsf{A} \lor \mathsf{B} \equiv {}^{\sim}\mathsf{A} \longrightarrow B$$

• Giving both of these (since $A \lor B \equiv B \lor A$)

 $-\forall X \sim alive(X) \rightarrow dead(X)$

 $-\forall X alive(X) \rightarrow \sim dead(X)$

Existential Quantifier: ∃

- Existential quantifiers usually used with and to specify a list of properties about an individual Logic: (∃X) student(X) ∧ smart(X) Meaning: There is a student who is smart
- Common mistake: represent this in FOL as:
 Logic: (∃X) student(X) → smart(X)
 Meaning: ?

Existential Quantifier: ∃

- Existential quantifiers usually used with and to specify a list of properties about an individual Logic: (∃X) student(X) ∧ smart(X) Meaning: There is a student who is smart
- Common mistake: represent this in FOL as:

Logic: $(\exists X)$ student(X) \rightarrow smart(X)

 $P \rightarrow Q = \sim P \vee Q$

 $\exists X \text{ student}(X) \rightarrow \text{smart}(X) = \exists X \text{~student}(X) \text{ v smart}(X)$ Meaning: There's something that is either not a student or is smart

Quantifier Scope

- FOL sentences have structure, like programs
- In particular, variables in a sentence have a **scope**
- Suppose we want to say "everyone who is alive loves someone"
 - $(\forall X) alive(X) \rightarrow (\exists Y) loves(X, Y)$
- Here's how we scope the variables

$$(\forall X) alive(X) \rightarrow (\exists Y) loves(X, Y)$$

Scope of x Scope of y

Quantifier Scope

- Switching order of two universal quantifiers *does not* change the meaning
 - $-(\forall X)(\forall Y)P(X,Y) \leftrightarrow (\forall Y)(\forall X) P(X,Y)$
 - Dogs hate cats (i.e., all dogs hate all cats)
- You can switch order of existential quantifiers
 - $(\exists X)(\exists Y)P(X,Y) \leftrightarrow (\exists Y)(\exists X) P(X,Y)$
 - A cat killed a dog
- Switching order of universal and existential quantifiers *does* change meaning:
 - Everyone likes someone: $(\forall X)(\exists Y)$ likes(X,Y)
 - Someone is liked by everyone: $(\exists Y)(\forall X)$ likes(X,Y)

def verify1():

Everyone likes someone: (∀x)(∃y) likes(x,y)

for p1 in people():
 foundLike = False
 for p2 in people():
 if likes(p1, p2):
 foundLike = True
 break

Every person has at least one individual that they like.

if not foundLike:

print(p1, 'does not like anyone ⊗') return False

return True

Procedural example 1

def verify2():

Someone is liked by everyone: (∃y)(∀x) likes(x,y)

for p2 in people():

foundHater = False

for p1 in people():

if not likes(p1, p2):

foundHater = True break There is a person who is liked by every person in the universe.

if not foundHater

print(p2, 'is liked by everyone ^(C))

return True

return False

Procedural example 2

Connections between \forall and \exists

 We can relate sentences involving ∀ and ∃ using extensions to <u>De Morgan's laws</u>:

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

4. (∃x) P(x) ↔ ¬(\forall x) ¬P(x)

• Examples

- 1. All dogs don't like cats ↔ No dog likes cats
- 2. Not all dogs bark ↔ There is a dog that doesn't bark
- 3. All dogs sleep ↔ There is no dog that doesn't sleep
- 4. There is a dog that talks ↔ Not all dogs can't talk

Notational differences

• Different symbols for and, or, not, implies, ...

$$\neg$$
 \neg \neg \neg \Rightarrow \Leftrightarrow \leftarrow \vdash \neg \neg

- -pv(q^r) -p+(q*r)
- **Different syntax** for variables vs. constants, predicates vs. functions, etc.

Notational differences

Typical logic notation

 $\forall x \exists y \text{ furry}(x) \land \text{meows}(x) \land \text{has}(x, y), \text{claw}(y) \Rightarrow \text{cat}(x)$

• Prolog

cat(X) :- furry(X), meows (X), has(X, Y), claw(Y).

• Lisp notations

(forall ?x (implies (and (furry ?x) (meows ?x) (has ?x ?y) (claw ?y))

(cat ?x)))

• Python code

e.g., AIMA python, logic.ipynb

• Knowledge graph triples

e.g., in RDF/OWL

#Graph from http://www.doefamily.com/

@prefix doefamily: <http://www.doefamily.com/> .
@prefix foaf: <http://xmlns.com/foaf/0.1/> .
@prefix rdf: <http://www.w3.org/1999/02/22-rdf-syntax-ns#>
@prefix owl: <http://www.w3.org/2002/07/owl#> .
@prefix dbpedia: <http://dbpedia.org/resource/> .

doe:John rdf:type foaf:Person .
doe:John owl:sameAs dbpedia:John_Doe .
doe:John foaf:age 72 .
doe:John foaf:mbox <mailto:john@doe.com> .

doe:Jane rdf:type foaf:Person .
doe:Jane owl:sameAs dbpedia:Jane_Doe .
doe:Jane foaf:age 12 .
doe:Jane foaf:phone "512-475-6656" .

