Artificial Intelligence

CS 165A
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Instructor: Prof. Yu-Xiang Wang

→ First Order Logic
Recap: KB Agents

- Need a formal logic system to work
- Need a data structure to represent known facts
- Need an algorithm to answer ASK questions
Recap: syntax and semantics

• Two components of a logic system

• Syntax --- How to construct sentences
  – The symbols
  – The operators that connect symbols together
  – A precedence ordering

• Semantics --- Rules the assignment of sentences to truth
  – For every possible worlds (or “models” in logic jargon)
  – The truth table is a semantics
Recap: Entailment

A is entailed by B, if A is true in all possible worlds consistent with B under the semantics.
Recap: Inference procedure

- **Inference procedure**
  - Rules (algorithms) that we apply (often recursively) to derive truth from other truth.
  - Could be specific to a particular set of semantics, a particular realization of the world.

- **Soundness and completeness of an inference procedure**
  - Soundness: All truth discovered are valid.
  - Completeness: All truth that are entailed can be discovered.
Recap: Propositional Logic

- **Syntax:**
  - *True, false,* propositional symbols
  - ( ), ¬ (not), ∧ (and), ∨ (or), ⇒ (implies), ⇔ (equivalent)

- **Semantics:**
  - Assigning values to the variables. Each row is a “model”.

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- **Inference rules:**
  - Modus Pronens etc. Most important: Resolution
Recap: Propositional logic agent

- **Representation:** Conjunctive Normal Forms
  - Represent them in a data structure: a list, a heap, a tree?
  - Efficient TELL operation

- **Inference:** Solve ASK question
  - Use “Resolution” only on CNFs is Sound and Complete.
  - Equivalent to SAT, NP-complete, but good heuristics / practical algorithms exist

- **Possible answers to ASK:**
  - Valid, Satisfiable, Unsatisfiable
This lecture: First order logic

- More expressive language
  - Relations and functions of objects.
  - Quantifiers such as, All, Exists.

- Easier to construct a KB.
  - Need much smaller number of sentences to capture a domain.

- Inference algorithms for First order logic (Skipped)
Propositional logic

- “All men are mortal”
- “Tom is a man”
- What can you infer?
  - Men => Mortal?
  - Tom => Man?
  - Tom => Mortal?
Propositional logic vs. FOL

• Propositional logic:
  – $P$ stands for “All men are mortal”
  – $Q$ stands for “Tom is a man”
  – What can you infer from $P$ and $Q$?
    • Nothing!

• First-order logic:
  – $\forall x \text{ Man}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Mortal}(x)$
  – $\text{Man}(Tom)$
  – What can you infer from these?
    • Can infer $\text{Mortal}(Tom)$
First-Order Logic (FOL)

- Also known as *First-Order Predicate Calculus*
  - Propositional logic is also known as *Propositional Calculus*

- An extension to propositional logic in which **quantifiers** can bind **variables** in sentences
  - Universal quantifier (\(\forall\))
  - Existential quantifier (\(\exists\))
  - Variables: \(x, y, z, a, joe, table\)...

- Examples
  - \(\forall x \text{ Beautiful}(x)\)
  - \(\exists x \text{ Beautiful}(x)\)
First-Order Logic (cont.)

• It is by far the most studied and best understood logic in use

• It does have limits, however
  – Quantifiers (∀ and ∃) can only be applied to objects, not to functions or predicates
    • Cannot write ∀P P(mom) = good
    • This is why it’s called first-order
  – This limits its expressiveness

• Let’s look at the syntax of first-order logic
  – I.e., what logical expressions can you legally construct?
FOL Syntax

• Symbols
  – Object symbols (constants): $P, Q, Fred, Desk, True, False, \ldots$
    • These refer to things
  – **Predicate** symbols: $Heavy, Smart, Mother, \ldots$
    • These are *true or false statements* about objects: $Smart(rock)$
  – **Function** symbols: $Cosine, IQ, MotherOf, \ldots$
    • These return objects, exposing *relations*: $IQ(rock)$
  – Variables: $x, y, \lambda, \ldots$
    • These represent unspecified objects
  – Logical connectives to construct complex sentences: $\neg, \land, \lor, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$
  – Quantifiers: $\forall$ (universal), $\exists$ (existential)
  – Equality: $=$

• Usually variables will be lower-case, other symbols capitalized
FOL Syntax (cont.)

• Terms
  – Logical expressions that refer to objects (evaluates to an object)
  – Can be constants, variables, functions

• Examples
  – \( P \)
  – 2001
  – \( Richard \)
  – \( x \)
  – \( y \)
  – BrotherOf(\( Richard \))
  – Age(NephewOf(\( x \)))  \[Why not AgeOf( )? (No reason...!)\]

Remember – syntax and semantics are different, and separate!!
FOL Syntax

• Note on predicates and functions: **typical** usage
  – Beautiful\((y)\) → “\(y\) is beautiful”
  – Mother\((x)\) → “\(x\) is a Mother”
  – BrotherOf\((x, y)\) → “\(x\) is a brother of \(y\)”
  – NextTo\((x, y)\) → “\(x\) is next to \(y\)”

  \}\text{Predicates}

  – BrotherOf\((x)\) → “the brother of \(x\)”
  – NextTo\((y)\) → “the thing next to \(y\)”
  – SquareRoot\((x)\) → “the square root of \(x\)”

  \}\text{Functions}
FOL Sentences

• **Sentences** state facts
  – Just like in propositional logic…

• 3 types of sentences:
  – Atomic sentences (atoms)
  – Logical (complex) sentences
  – Quantified sentences – $\forall$ (universal), $\exists$ (existential)
Sentences

1. **Atomic sentence**
   - A predicate applied to some terms
     - Brothers(Bill, FatherOf(John))
     - LessThan(3, 5)
   - Equality – states that two terms refer to the same object
     - \( x = \text{MotherOf}(y) \)
     - Instructor(cs165a) = Wang
     - This is equivalent to the predicate: \( \text{Equal}(\text{Instructor}(\text{cs165a}), \text{Wang}) \)

2. **Logical (complex) sentence** – logical combination of other sentences
   - \( \neg \text{Brothers}(\text{Bill}, \text{HusbandOf}(\text{Sue})) \)
   - Above(Sky, Ground) \( \Rightarrow \) Below(Ground, Sky)
   - Brothers(Bill, John) \( \Leftrightarrow \) Brothers(John, Bill)

3. **Quantified sentence** – sentences with quantified variables
   - \( \forall x, y \ \text{ParentOf}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{ChildOf}(y, x) \)
   - \( \exists x \ \text{US-President}(x) \)
Universal Quantifier ("For all...")

- $\forall <\text{variables}> <\text{sentence}>
  - $\forall x$ – “For all $x$...”
  - $\forall x, y$ – “For all $x$ and $y$...”

Examples
- “Everything is beautiful”
  - $\forall x$ Beautiful($x$)
  - Equivalent to: $\prod_i$ Beautiful($x_i$)
    - Beautiful(Joe) $\land$ Beautiful(Mary) $\land$ Beautiful(apple) $\land$
      Beautiful(dirt) $\land$ Beautiful(death) $\land$ ...
- “All men are mortal”
  - $\forall x$ Man($x$) $\Rightarrow$ Mortal($x$)
- “Everyone in the class is smart”
  - $\forall x$ Enrolled($x$, cs165a) $\Rightarrow$ Smart($x$)
- What does this mean:
  - $\forall x$ Enrolled($x$, cs165a) $\land$ Smart($x$)
Expansion of universal quantifier

- $\forall x \ Enrolled(x, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(x)$
- This is equivalent to
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{Tom}, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{Tom}) \land$
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{Mary}, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{Mary}) \land$
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{Chris}, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{Chris}) \land$
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{chair}, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{chair}) \land$
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{dirt}, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{dirt}) \land$
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{surfboard}, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{surfboard}) \land$
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{tooth}, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{tooth}) \land$
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{Mars}, \text{cs165a}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{Mars}) \land \ldots$
  - Everything!
- So, $\forall x \ Enrolled(x, \text{cs165a}) \land \text{Smart}(x)$ is equivalent to
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{Tom}, \text{cs165a}) \land \text{Smart}(\text{Tom}) \land$
  - $\neg \text{Enrolled}(\text{chair}, \text{cs165a}) \land \text{Smart}(\text{chair}) \land \ldots$
Existential Quantifier ("There exists...")

- \( \exists \text{ <variables> <sentence>} \)
  - \( \exists x \) – "There exists an x such that…"
  - \( \exists x, y \) – "There exist x and y such that…"

• Examples
  - "Somebody likes me"
    - \( \exists x \) Likes\( (x, \text{ Me}) \) ???
    - Equivalent to: \( \sum_i \text{ Likes}(x_i, \text{ Me}) \)
      - Likes\( (\text{ Joe}, \text{ Me}) \) \( \lor \) Likes\( (\text{ Mary}, \text{ Me}) \) \( \lor \) Likes\( (\text{ apple}, \text{ Me}) \) \( \lor \)
        Likes\( (\text{ dirt}, \text{ Me}) \) \( \lor \) Likes\( (\text{ death}, \text{ Me}) \) \( \lor \) …
  - Really "Something likes me"
    - \( \exists x \) Person\( (x) \) \( \land \) Likes\( (x, \text{ Me}) \)
    - \( \exists x \) Enrolled\( (x, \text{ cs165a}) \) \( \land \) WillReceiveAnA\( +(x) \)
Scope of Quantifiers

• Scope – the portion of the {program, function, definition, sentence…} in which the object can be referred to by its simple name

• Parentheses can clarify the scope (make it explicit)
  – \( \forall x ( \exists y <\text{sentence}> ) \)

• However, the scope of quantifiers is often implicit
  – \( \forall w \forall x \exists y \exists z <\text{sentence}> \)
    is the same as
  – \( \forall w ( \forall x ( \exists y ( \exists z <\text{sentence}> ) ) ) \)

  – \( \forall w \forall x \exists y \exists z <\text{term-1}> \land <\text{term-2}> \)
    is the same as
  – \( \forall w \forall x \exists y \exists z ( <\text{term-1}> \land <\text{term-2}> ) \)
Scope of Quantifiers (cont.)

- $\exists x <\text{sentence-1}> \land \exists x <\text{sentence-2}>
  - \exists x ( <\text{sentence-1}> ) \land \exists x ( <\text{sentence-2}> )$
  - $\exists x ( <\text{sentence-1}> ) \land \exists y ( <\text{sentence-2-subst-y-for-x}>)$
  - $\exists x \text{Rich}(x) \land \text{Beautiful}(x)$
    - “Someone is both rich and beautiful”
    - $\exists x \text{Rich}(x) \land \exists x \text{Beautiful}(x)$
      - “Someone is rich and someone is beautiful”
      - Same as $\exists x \text{Rich}(x) \land \exists y \text{Beautiful}(y)$

- How about
  - $\exists x ( \text{Rich}(x) \land \exists x (\text{Beautiful}(x)) )$
  - The same as $\exists x \text{Rich}(x) \land \exists x \text{Beautiful}(x)$

Same as in scope of variables in programming (C/C++, Java, etc.)
Order, nesting of Quantifiers

- Implied nesting:
  - $\forall x \forall y <sentence>$ is the same as $\forall x (\forall y <sentence>)$
  - $\exists x \forall y <sentence>$ is the same as $\exists x (\forall y <sentence>)$

- $\forall x \forall y <sentence>$ is the same as $\forall y \forall x <sentence>$
  - Also, $\forall x, y <sentence>$

- $\exists x \exists y <sentence>$ is the same as $\exists y \exists x <sentence>$
  - Also, $\exists x, y <sentence>$

- $\exists x \forall y <sentence>$ is **not** the same as $\forall y \exists x <sentence>$
  - Try $\exists x \forall y \text{Loves}(x, y)$ and $\forall y \exists x \text{Loves}(x, y)$
Example of quantifier order

- $\exists x \ \forall y \ Loves(x, y)$
  - $\exists x \ [ \ \forall y \ Loves(x, y) \ ]$
  - $\exists x \ [ \ Loves(x, Fred) \land Loves(x, Mary) \land Loves(x, Chris) \land … \ ]$
  - “There is at least one person who loves everybody”
    - Assuming the domain consists of only people

- $\forall y \ \exists x \ Loves(x, y)$
  - $\forall y \ [ \ \exists x \ Loves(x, y) \ ]$
  - $\forall y \ [ \ Loves(Joe, y) \lor Loves(Sue, y) \lor Loves(Kim, y) \lor … \ ]$
  - “Everybody is loved by at least one person”
Logical equivalences about $\forall$ and $\exists$

- $\forall$ can be expressed using $\exists$
  - $\forall \, x$ Statement-about-$x$ … is equivalent to …
  - $\neg \exists \, x \, \neg$Statement-about-$x$
  - Example: $\forall \, x \, \text{Likes}(x, \text{IceCream})$
    - $\neg \exists \, x \, \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{IceCream})$

- $\exists$ can be expressed using $\forall$
  - $\exists \, x$ Statement-about-$x$ … is equivalent to …
  - $\neg \forall \, x \, \neg$Statement-about-$x$
  - Example: $\exists \, x \, \text{Likes}(x, \text{Spinach})$
    - $\neg \forall \, x \, \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{Spinach})$
Examples of FOL

- Brothers are siblings
  - \( \forall x, y \ \text{Brother}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Sibling}(x, y) \)

- Sibling is transitive
  - \( \forall x, y, z \ \text{Sibling}(x, y) \land \text{Sibling}(y, z) \Rightarrow \text{Sibling}(x, z) \)

- One’s mother is one’s sibling’s mother
  - \( \forall x, y, z \ \text{Mother}(x, y) \land \text{Sibling}(y, z) \Rightarrow \text{Mother}(x, z) \)

- A first cousin is a child of a parent’s sibling
  - \( \forall x, y \ \text{FirstCousin}(x, y) \Leftrightarrow \exists v, w \ \text{Parent}(v, x) \land \text{Sibling}(v, w) \land \text{Parent}(w, y) \)
Implication and Equivalence

• Note the difference between \( \Rightarrow \) and \( \iff \)
  – Implication / conditional ( \( \Rightarrow \) )
    • \( A \Rightarrow B \) : “A implies B”, “If A then B”
  – Equivalence / biconditional ( \( \iff \) )
    • \( A \iff B \) : “A is equivalent to B”
    • Same as \( (A \Rightarrow B) \land (B \Rightarrow A) \) : “A if and only if B”, “A iff B”

• For “Sisters are siblings”, which one?

  \[ \forall x, y \quad \text{Sister}(x, y) \iff \text{Sibling}(x, y) \]
  \[ \forall x, y \quad \text{Sister}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Sibling}(x, y) \]
Where we are…

• Basics of logic: Propositional logic

• More general logic representation: First-order logic

• Now, let’s see how to use FOL to do logical inference
  – I.e., to reason about the world
Reminder

• Term
  – Constant, variable, function( )

• Atomic sentence
  – Predicate( ), $\text{term}_1 = \text{term}_2$

• Literal
  – An atomic sentence or a negated atomic sentence

• Sentence
  – Atomic sentence, sentences with quantifiers and/or connectives
Simple example of inference in FOL

Bob is a buffalo
Pat is a pig
Buffaloes outrun pigs

Does Bob outrun Pat?

\[ \text{KB entails } \text{Outrun}(\text{Bob}, \text{Pat})? \]

\[ \text{KB}_0 \]

\[ \text{Buffalo}(\text{Bob}) \]

\[ \text{Pig}(\text{Pat}) \]

\[ \text{Buffalo}(x) \land \text{Pig}(y) \Rightarrow \text{Outrun}(x, y) \]

\[ \text{KB}_1 \]

\[ \text{KB}_0 \]

\[ \text{And-Introduction} \]

\[ \text{KB}_1 \]

\[ \text{KB}_0 \]

\[ \text{Buffalo}(\text{Bob}) \land \text{Pig}(\text{Pat}) \Rightarrow \text{Outrun}(\text{Bob}, \text{Pat}) \]

\[ \text{Universal Instantiation} \ [\text{coming soon}] \]

\[ \text{KB}_2 \]

\[ \text{KB}_1 \]

\[ \text{KB}_0 \]

\[ \text{Outrun}(\text{Bob}, \text{Pat}) \]

\[ \text{Modus Ponens} \]
Using FOL to express knowledge

• One can express the knowledge of a particular domain in first-order logic

• Example: The “kinship domain”
  – **Objects:** people
  – **Properties:** gender, family relationships
  – **Unary predicates:** Male, Female
  – **Binary predicates:** Parent, Sibling, Brother, Sister, Son, Daughter, Father, Mother, Uncle, Aunt, Grandparent, Grandfather, Grandmother, Husband, Wife, Spouse, Brother-in-law, Stepmother, etc….
  – **Functions:** MotherOf, FatherOf…

• Note: There is usually (always?) more than one way to specify knowledge
**Kinship domain**

• Write down what we know (what we want to be in the KB)
  – One’s mother is one’s female parent
    • $\forall m, c \quad \text{Mother}(m, c) \iff \text{Female}(m) \land \text{Parent}(m, c)$
    • $\forall m, c \quad \text{TheMotherOf}(c) = m \iff \text{Female}(m) \land \text{Parent}(m, c)$
  – One’s husband is one’s male spouse
    • $\forall w, h \quad \text{Husband}(h, w) \iff \text{Male}(h) \land \text{Spouse}(h, w)$
  – One is either male or female
    • $\forall x \quad \text{Male}(x) \iff \neg \text{Female}(x)$
  – Parent-child relationship
    • $\forall p, c \quad \text{Parent}(p, c) \iff \text{Child}(c, p)$
  – Grandparent-grandchild relationship
    • $\forall g, c \quad \text{Grandparent}(g, c) \iff \exists p \quad \text{Parent}(g, p) \land \text{Parent}(p, c)$
  – Etc…

• Now we can reason about family relationships. (How?)
Kinship domain (cont.)

Assertions (“Add this sentence to the KB”)

\[ \text{tell}( \text{KB}, \forall m, c \text{ Mother}(c) = m \iff \text{Female}(m) \land \text{Parent}(m, c) ) \]

\[ \text{tell}( \text{KB}, \forall w, h \text{ Husband}(h, w) \iff \text{Male}(h) \land \text{Spouse}(h, w) ) \]

\[ \text{tell}( \text{KB}, \forall x \text{ Male}(x) \iff \neg \text{Female}(x) ) \]

\[ \text{tell}( \text{KB}, \text{Female}(\text{Mary}) \land \text{Parent}(\text{Mary}, \text{Frank}) \land \text{Parent}(\text{Frank}, \text{Ann}) ) \]

\[ - \text{ Note: } \text{tell}( \text{KB}, S1 \land S2 ) \equiv \text{tell}( \text{KB}, S1 ) \text{ and } \text{tell}( \text{KB}, S2 ) \]

(because of and-elimination and and-introduction)

Queries (“Does the KB entail this sentence?”)

\[ \text{ask}( \text{KB}, \text{Grandparent}(\text{Mary}, \text{Ann}) ) \rightarrow \text{True} \]

\[ \text{ask}( \text{KB}, \exists x \text{ Child}(x, \text{Frank}) ) \rightarrow \text{True} \]

\[ - \text{ But a better answer would be } \rightarrow \{ x / \text{Ann} \} \]

\[ - \text{ This returns a substitution or binding} \]
Implementing ASK: Inference

• We want a sound and complete inference algorithm so that we can produce (or confirm) entailed sentences from the KB

\[ \text{KB} \models \alpha \quad \text{KB} \vdash \alpha \]

• The resolution rule, along with a complete search algorithm, provides a complete inference algorithm to confirm or refute a sentence \( \alpha \) in propositional logic (Sec. 7.5)
  – Based on proof by contradiction (refutation)

• Refutation: To prove that the KB entails \( P \), assume \( \neg P \) and show a contradiction:

\[ (\text{KB} \land \neg P \Rightarrow \text{False}) \equiv (\text{KB} \Rightarrow P) \]

Prove this!
Inference in First-Order Logic

• Inference rules for propositional logic:
  – Modus ponens, and-elimination, and-introduction, or-introduction, resolution, etc.
  – These are valid for FOL also

• But since these don’t deal with quantifiers and variables, we need new rules, especially those that allow for substitution (binding) of variables to objects
  – These are called *lifted* inference rules
Substitution and variable binding

• Notation for substitution:
  – \text{\texttt{SUBST}}( \textbf{Binding list}, \textbf{Sentence} )
    • Binding list: \{ \textit{var} / \text{ground term}, \textit{var} / \text{ground term}, \ldots \}
    • “ground term” = term with no variables
  – \text{\texttt{SUBST}}( \{ \textit{var}/\text{gterm} \}, \text{Func}(\textit{var}) ) = \text{Func}(\text{gterm})
    • \text{\texttt{SUBST}}(\emptyset, p)

• Examples:
  • \text{\texttt{SUBST}}( \{x/Mary\}, \text{FatherOf}(x) ) = \text{FatherOf}(Mary)
  • \text{\texttt{SUBST}}( \{x/Joe, y/Lisa\}, \text{Siblings}(x,y) ) = \text{Siblings}(Joe, Lisa)
Three new inference rules using $\text{SUBST}(\theta, p)$

- Universal Instantiation
  \[
  \forall v \quad \alpha \\
  \text{SUBST}(\{v / g\}, \alpha)
  \]
  \(g\) – ground term

- Existential Instantiation
  \[
  \exists v \quad \alpha \\
  \text{SUBST}(\{v / k\}, \alpha)
  \]
  \(k\) – constant that does not appear elsewhere in the knowledge base

- Existential Introduction
  \[
  \alpha \\
  \exists v \quad \text{SUBST}(\{g / v\}, \alpha)
  \]
  \(v\) – variable not in \(\alpha\)
  \(g\) – ground term in \(\alpha\)
To Add to These Rules

◊ **Modus Ponens** or **Implication-Elimination**: (From an implication and the premise of the implication, you can infer the conclusion.)

\[
\alpha \Rightarrow \beta, \quad \alpha \\
\hline
\beta
\]

◊ **And-Elimination**: (From a conjunction, you can infer any of the conjuncts.)

\[
\alpha_1 \land \alpha_2 \land \ldots \land \alpha_n \\
\hline
\alpha_i
\]

◊ **And-Introduction**: (From a list of sentences, you can infer their conjunction.)

\[
\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_n \\
\hline
\alpha_1 \land \alpha_2 \land \ldots \land \alpha_n
\]

◊ **Or-Introduction**: (From a sentence, you can infer its disjunction with anything else at all.)

\[
\alpha_i \\
\hline
\alpha_1 \lor \alpha_2 \lor \ldots \lor \alpha_n
\]

◊ **Double-Negation Elimination**: (From a doubly negated sentence, you can infer a positive sentence.)

\[
\neg \neg \alpha \\
\hline
\alpha
\]

◊ **Unit Resolution**: (From a disjunction, if one of the disjuncts is false, then you can infer the other one is true.)

\[
\alpha \lor \beta, \quad \neg \beta \\
\hline
\alpha
\]

◊ **Resolution**: (This is the most difficult. Because \( \beta \) cannot be both true and false, one of the other disjuncts must be true in one of the premises. Or equivalently, implication is transitive.)

\[
\alpha \lor \beta, \quad \neg \beta \lor \gamma \\
\hline
\alpha \lor \gamma
\]
or equivalently

\[
\neg \alpha \Rightarrow \beta, \quad \beta \Rightarrow \gamma \\
\hline
\neg \alpha \Rightarrow \gamma
\]
Universal Instantiation – examples

\[ \forall v \alpha \quad \text{SUBST}\left(\{v / g\}, \alpha\right) \quad g \text{ – ground term} \]

- \( \forall x \) Sleepy\( (x) \)
  - SUBST\( (\{x/\text{Joe}\}, \alpha) \)
    - Sleepy(Joe)
- \( \forall x \) Mother\( (x) \) \( \Rightarrow \) Female\( (x) \)
  - SUBST\( (\{x/\text{Mary}\}, \alpha) \)
    - Mother(Mary) \( \Rightarrow \) Female(Mary)
  - SUBST\( (\{x/\text{Dad}\}, \alpha) \)
    - Mother(Dad) \( \Rightarrow \) Female(Dad)
- \( \forall x, y \) Buffalo\( (x) \) \( \wedge \) Pig\( (y) \) \( \Rightarrow \) Outrun\( (x,y) \)
  - SUBST\( (\{x/\text{Bob}\}, \alpha) \)
    - \( \forall y \) Buffalo\( (\text{Bob}) \) \( \wedge \) Pig\( (y) \) \( \Rightarrow \) Outrun\( (\text{Bob},y) \)
Existential Instantiation – examples

\[ \exists v \quad \alpha \quad \frac{\exists \forall v}{\text{SUBST}(\{v / k\}, \alpha)} \]

- \( \exists x \quad \text{BestAction}(x) \)
  - \( \text{SUBST}(\{x/B_A\}, \alpha) \)
  - \( \text{BestAction}(B_A) \)
    - “B_A” is a constant; it is not in our universe of actions

- \( \exists y \quad \text{Likes}(y, \text{Broccoli}) \)
  - \( \text{SUBST}(\{y/Bush\}, \alpha) \)
  - \( \text{Likes}(Bush, \text{Broccoli}) \)
    - “Bush” is a constant; it is not in our universe of people

\( k \) – constant that does not appear elsewhere in the knowledge base
Existential Introduction – examples

\[ \alpha \\
\exists \nu \ SUBST(\{g/\nu\}, \alpha) \]

\( \nu \) – variable not in \( \alpha \)

\( g \) – ground term in \( \alpha \)

- Likes(Jim, Broccoli)
  - \( \text{SUBST(\{Jim/x\}, \alpha)} \)
    - \( \exists x \ Likes(x, \text{Broccoli}) \)

- \( \forall x \ Likes(x, \text{Broccoli}) \Rightarrow \text{Healthy}(x) \)
  - \( \text{SUBST(\{Broccoli/y\}, \alpha)} \)
    - \( \exists y \ \forall x \ Likes(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Healthy}(x) \)
What’s our goal here?

- **Formulate a search process:**
  - Initial state
    - KB
  - Operators
    - Inference rules
  - Goal test
    - KB contains S
- What is a node?
  - KB + new sentences (generated by applying the inference rules)
  - In other words, the new state of the KB
- What kind of search to use?
  - I.e., which node to expand next?
- How to apply inference rules? $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$
  - Need to match the premise pattern $\alpha$
Historical AI figure in Logical Reasoning

• Built a calculating machine that could add and subtract (which Pascal’s couldn’t)
• But his dream was much grander – to reduce human reasoning to a kind of calculation and to ultimately build a machine capable of carrying out such calculations
• Co-inventor of the calculus  

Gottfried Leibniz (1646-1716)

“For it is unworthy of excellent men to lose hours like slaves in the labor of calculation which could safely be relegated to anyone else if the machine were used.”
George Boole (1815-1864)  British

- More than 100 years later, he didn’t know about Leibniz, but proceeded to bring to life part of Leibniz’ dream
- His insight: Logical relationships are expressible as a kind of algebra
  - Letters represent classes (rather than numbers)
  - So logic can be viewed as a form of mathematics
- Published *The Laws of Thought*

- He extended Aristotle's simple syllogisms to a broader range of reasoning
  - Syllogism: Premise_1, Premise_2 \(\rightarrow\) Conclusion
  - His logic: Propositional logic
Gottlob Frege (1848-1925)  

- He provided the first fully developed system of logic that encompassed all of the deductive reasoning in ordinary mathematics.
- He intended for logic to be the *foundation* of mathematics – all of mathematics could be based on, and derived from, logic.
- In 1879 he published *Begriffsschrift*, subtitled “A formula language, modeled upon that of arithmetic, for pure thought”
  - This can be considered the ancestor of all current computer programming languages
  - Made the distinction between *syntax* and *semantics* critical
- He invented what we today call predicate calculus (or first-order logic)
Inference algorithms in first order logic will not be covered in the final. (FOL will be!)

- However, it is a powerful tool.
  - Expert systems (since 1970s)
  - Large scale industry deployment.

- It is however fragile and rely on the correct / error-free representation of the world in black and white
  - This limits its use in cases when the evidence is collected stochastically and imprecisely by people’s opinions in large scale.

- Somewhat superseded by machine learning on many problems, but:
  - Research on logic agent is coming back.
  - Add knowledge and reasoning to ML-based solution
  - After all, ML are just reflex agents usually.