

Introduction to AI

Lecture 14

First-Order Logic

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Definition of First-Order Logic

- First-order logic is a way of knowledge representation in artificial intelligence. It is an extension of propositional logic.
- FOL is sufficiently expressive to represent the natural language statements concisely.
- First-order logic is also known as **Predicate logic or First-order predicate logic**. Which develops information about the objects in a more easy way and can also express the relationship between those objects.
- First-order logic (like natural language) does not only assume that the world contains facts like propositional logic but also assumes the following things in the world:
 - **Objects:** A, B, people, numbers, colors, wars, trees, animals etc.
 - **Relations:**
 - **unary relation such as:** red, round, is adjacent,
 - **n-any relation such as:** the sister of, brother of, has color, comes between
 - **Function:** Father of, best friend, third inning of, end of etc.

Components of First-Order Logic

- Like natural language, first-order logic also has two main parts:
 - **Syntax**
 - **Semantics**

- **Syntax of First-Order Logic:**

The syntax of FOL determines which collection of symbols is a logical expression in first-order logic. The basic syntactic elements of first-order logic are symbols. We write statements in short-hand notation in FOL.

- **Semantics of First-Order Logic:**

Semantics is an interpretation that assigns a denotation to each non-logical symbol. i.e. it defines the relationships among objects.

Basic Elements of First-order logic

The following are the basic elements of FOL syntax:

Constant	1, 2, A, John, Mumbai, cat,....
Variables	x, y, z, a, b,....
Predicates	Brother, Father, >,....
Function	sqrt, LeftLegOf,
Connectives	\wedge , \vee , \neg , \Rightarrow , \Leftrightarrow
Equality	$=$
Quantifier	\forall , \exists

Atomic sentences

Atomic sentences are the most basic sentences of first-order logic. These sentences are formed from a predicate symbol followed by a parenthesis with a sequence of terms.

We can represent atomic sentences as **Predicate (term1, term2,, term n)**.

Example: Ravi and Ajay are brothers: => Brothers(Ravi, Ajay).

Chinky is a cat: => cat (Chinky).

Complex Sentences

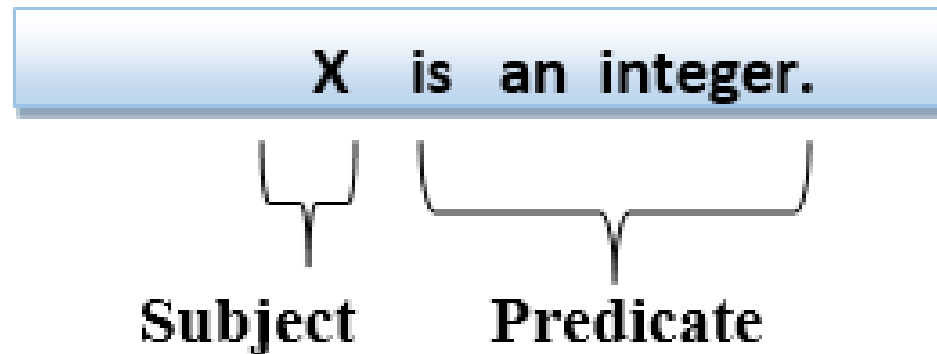
Complex sentences are made by combining atomic sentences using connectives.

First-order logic statements can be divided into two parts:

Subject: Subject is the main part of the statement.

Predicate: A predicate can be defined as a relation, which binds two atoms together in a statement.

Consider the statement: "x is an integer.", it consists of two parts, the first part x is the subject of the statement, and the second part "is an integer," is known as a predicate.



Quantifiers in First-order logic

- A quantifier is a language element that generates quantification, and quantification specifies the quantity of specimen in the universe of discourse.
- These are the symbols that permit to determine or identify the range and scope of the variable in the logical expression. There are two types of quantifiers:
 - **Universal Quantifier, (for all, everyone, everything)**
 - **Existential quantifier, (for some, at least one).**

Universal Quantifier:

A universal quantifier is a symbol of logical representation, which specifies that the statement within its range is true for everything or every instance of a particular thing.

The Universal quantifier is represented by a symbol \forall , which resembles an inverted A.

Types of Inference rules

If x is a variable, then $\forall x$ is read as:
For all x , For each x , For every x .

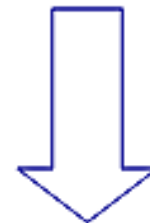
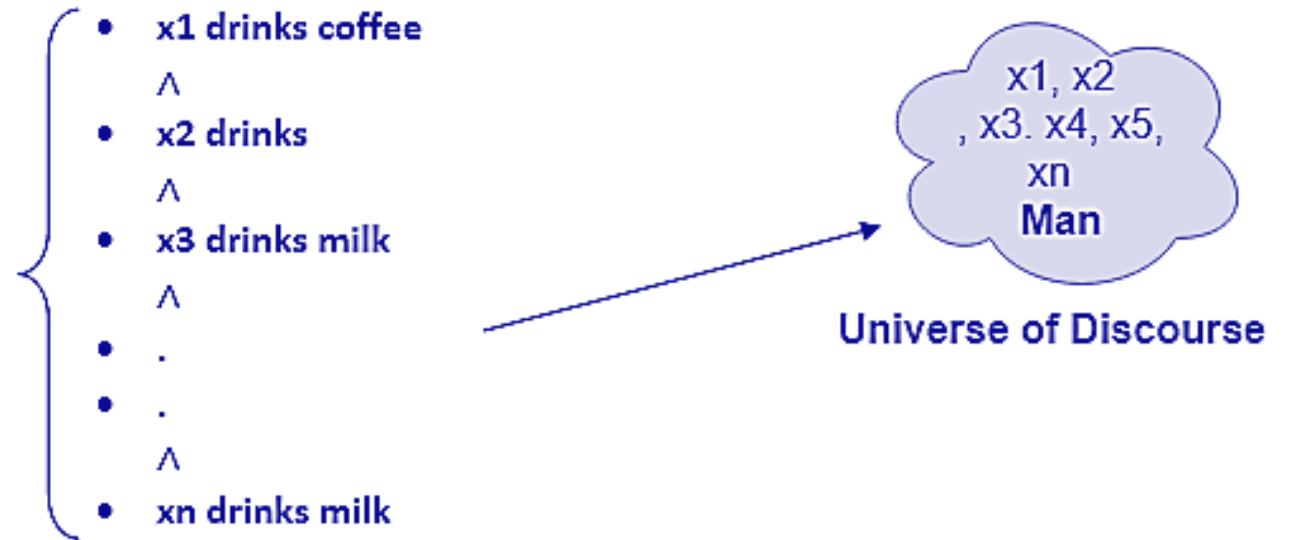
Example:

All men drink coffee.

Let a variable x which refers to a cat
so all x can be represented in UOD as
below:

$\forall x \text{ man}(x) \rightarrow \text{drink}(x, y)$

It will be read as: There are all x
where x is a man who drinks.



So in shorthand notation, we can write it as :



Existential Quantifier

- Existential quantifiers are the type of quantifiers, which express that the statement within its scope is true for at least one instance of something.
- It is denoted by the logical operator \exists , which resembles as inverted E. When it is used with a predicate variable then it is called as an existential quantifier.

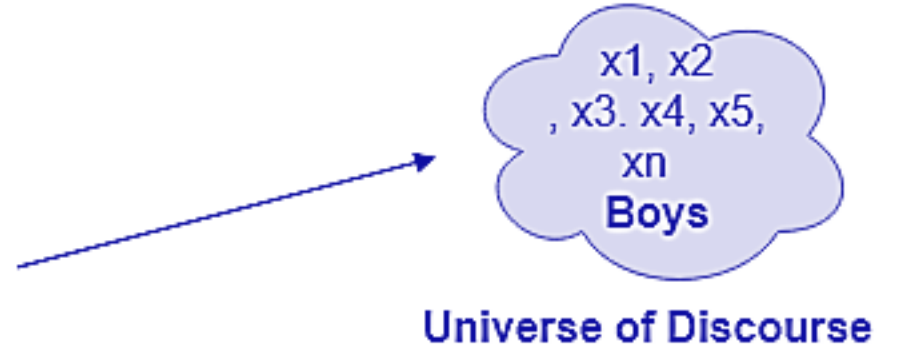
Note: In Existential quantifier we always use AND or Conjunction symbol (\wedge)

- If x is a variable, then existential quantifier will be $\exists x$ or $\exists(x)$. And it will be read as:
 - **There exists a 'x'**
 - **For some 'x'**
 - **For at least one 'x'**

Example

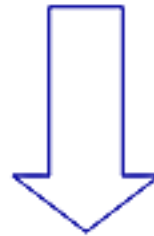
Some boys are intelligent.

- x_1 is intelligent
 \vee
- x_2 is intelligent
 \vee
- x_3 is intelligent
 \vee
- .
 \vee
- .
 \vee
- x_n is intelligent

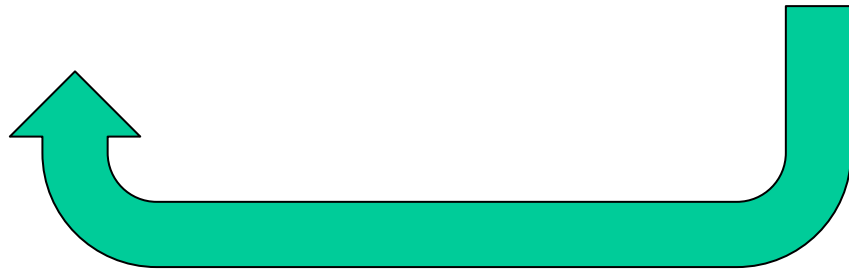


$\exists x: \text{boys}(x) \wedge \text{intelligent}(x)$

It will be read as: There are some x where x is a boy who is intelligent.



So in short-hand notation, we can write it as:



Points to remember

- The main connective for universal quantifier \forall is implication \rightarrow .
- The main connective for existential quantifier \exists is and \wedge .

Properties of Quantifiers:

- In a universal quantifier, $\forall x\forall y$ is similar to $\forall y\forall x$.
- In Existential quantifier, $\exists x\exists y$ is similar to $\exists y\exists x$.
- $\exists x\forall y$ is not similar to $\forall y\exists x$.

Example

- **1. All birds fly.**

In this question, the predicate is "**fly(bird).**"

And since all birds fly so it will be represented as follows.

$$\forall x \text{ bird}(x) \rightarrow \text{fly}(x).$$

- **2. Every man respects his parent.**

In this question, the predicate is "**respect(x, y),**" where **x=man, and y= parent.**

Since there is every man so will use \forall , and it will be represented as follows:

$$\forall x \text{ man}(x) \rightarrow \text{respects}(x, \text{parent}).$$

- **3. Some boys play cricket.**

In this question, the predicate is "**play(x, y),**" where **x= boys, and y= game.** Since there are some boys so we will use \exists , and it will be represented as:

$$\exists x \text{ boys}(x) \rightarrow \text{play}(x, \text{cricket}).$$

Example (Contd...)

- **4. Not all students like both Mathematics and Science.**

In this question, the predicate is "like(x, y)," where x= student, and y= subject. Since there are not all students, so we will use \forall with negation, so following representation for this:

$$\neg \forall (x) [\text{student}(x) \rightarrow \text{like}(x, \text{Mathematics}) \wedge \text{like}(x, \text{Science})].$$

- **5. Only one student failed in Mathematics.**

In this question, the predicate is "failed(x, y)," where x= student, and y= subject.

Since there is only one student who failed in Mathematics, so we will use the following representation for this:

$$\exists (x) [\text{student}(x) \rightarrow \text{failed} (x, \text{Mathematics}) \wedge \forall (y) [\neg (x=y) \wedge \text{student}(y) \rightarrow \neg \text{failed} (x, \text{Mathematics})].$$

Free and Bound Variables

- The quantifiers interact with variables within scope. There are two types of variables in First-order logic which are given below:
- **Free Variable:** A variable is said to be a free variable in a formula if it occurs outside the scope of the quantifier.
- **Example:** $\forall x \exists (y)[P(x, y, z)]$, where z is a free variable.
- **Bound Variable:** A variable is said to be a bound variable in a formula if it occurs within the scope of the quantifier.
- **Example:** $\forall x [A(x) B(y)]$, here x is the bound variable but y is not.