LOGICAL AGENTS

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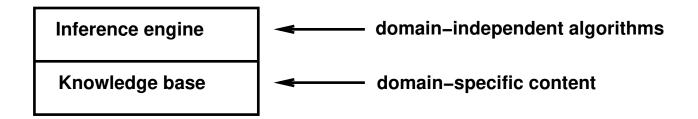
5 Logical Agents

- 5.1 Knowledge-based agents
- 5.2 Propositional logic
- 5.3 SAT problem
- 5.4 First-order logic
- 5.5 Logical foundation of AI

Knowledge-based agents

Logic: a study of thought, rational part of intelligence Knowledge: power of thinking

Before building knowledge-based systems (agents) before there can be learning, reasoning, planning, \cdots need to be able to represent knowledge Need a <u>formal</u> (precise declarative) language \rightarrow logical language



Knowledge base (KB) = set of sentences in a logical language Inference engine (IE) = algorithms by logical reasoning

Using logic: – no universal language / How about English or Chinese?

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Declarative approach to building an agent TELL it what it needs to know — into KB

Then it can $\displaystyle \underline{Ask}$ itself what to do

— from KB

Agents can be viewed at the knowledge level

i.e., what they know, regardless of how implemented

Or at the implementation level

i.e., data structure in ${\cal KB}$ and algorithms that manipulate them

A simple knowledge-based agent

```
def KB-AGENT( percept)

persistent: KB, a knowledge base

t, a counter, initially 0, indicating time

TELL(KB, MAKE-PERCEPT-SENTENCE( percept, t))

action \leftarrow ASK(KB, MAKE-ACTION-QUERY(t))

TELL(KB, MAKE-ACTION-SENTENCE( action, t))

t \leftarrow t + 1

return action
```

The agent must be able to represent states, actions, etc. incorporate new percepts update internal representations of the world deduce hidden properties of the world deduce appropriate actions

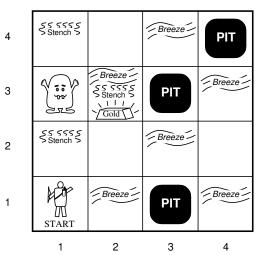
Example: Wumpus World

Performance measure

gold +1000, death -1000 -1 per step, -10 for using the arrow Environment

Squares adjacent to wumpus are smelly Squares adjacent to the pit are breezy Glitter iff gold is in the samesquare Shooting kills wumpus if you are facing it Shooting uses up the only arrow Grabbing picks up gold if in the square Releasing drops the gold in the square

Actuators Left turn, Right turn, Forward, Grab, Release, Shoot Sensors Breeze, Glitter, Smell



Observable??

Observable?? No — only local perception

Deterministic??

<u>Observable</u>?? No — only local perception

Deterministic?? Yes — outcomes exactly specified

Episodic??

Observable?? No — only local perception

Deterministic?? Yes — outcomes exactly specified

Episodic?? No — sequential at the level of actions

Static??

<u>Observable</u>?? No — only local perception

Deterministic?? Yes — outcomes exactly specified

Episodic?? No — sequential at the level of actions

<u>Static</u>?? Yes — Wumpus and Pits do not move

Discrete??

Observable?? No — only local perception

Deterministic?? Yes — outcomes exactly specified

Episodic?? No — sequential at the level of actions

<u>Static</u>?? Yes — Wumpus and Pits do not move

Discrete?? Yes

Single-agent??

Observable?? No — only local perception

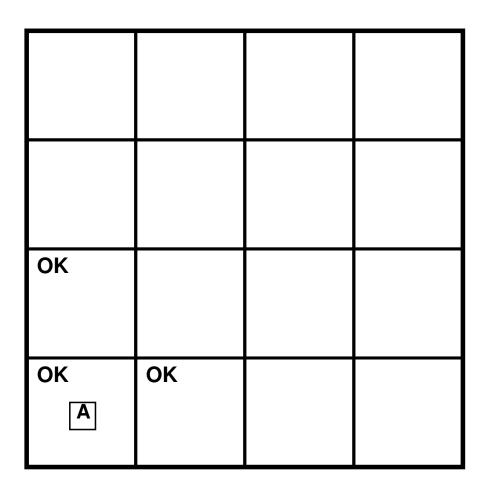
Deterministic?? Yes — outcomes exactly specified

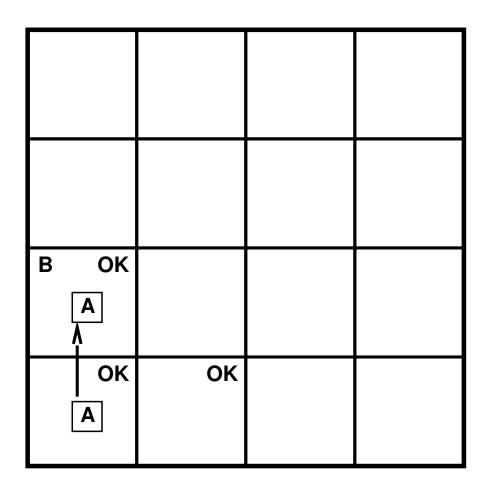
Episodic?? No — sequential at the level of actions

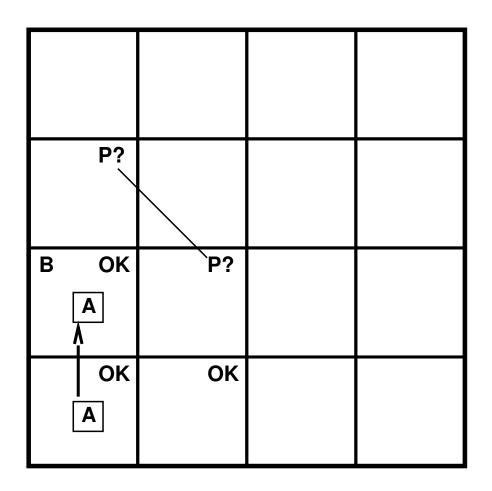
<u>Static</u>?? Yes — Wumpus and Pits do not move

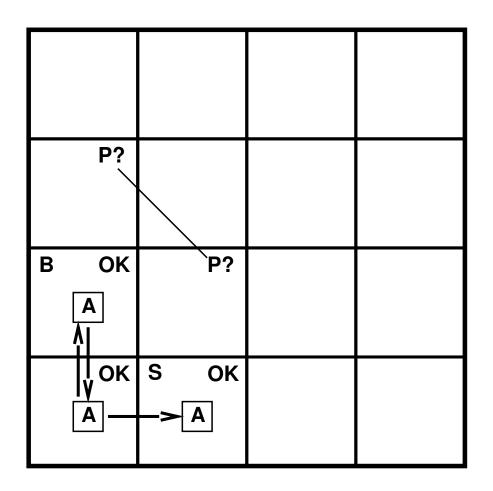
Discrete?? Yes

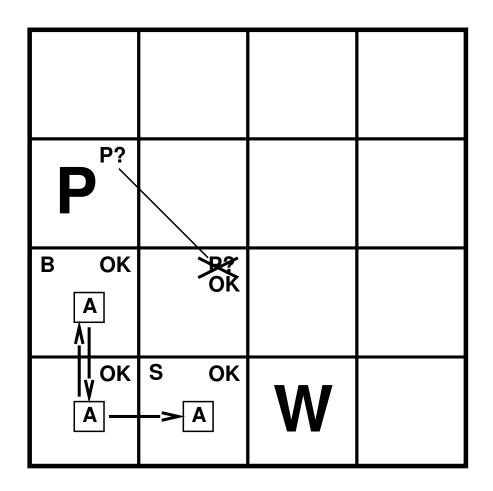
Single-agent?? Yes — Wumpus is essentially a natural feature



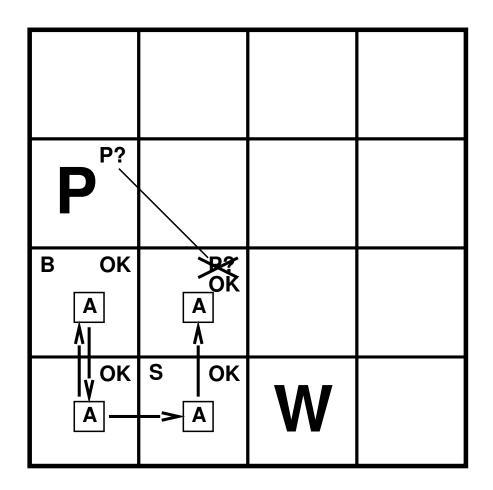


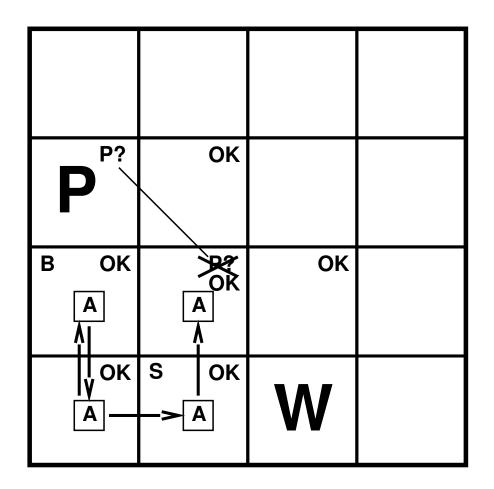


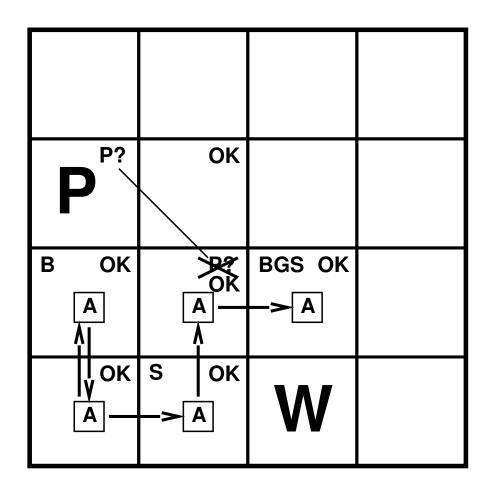




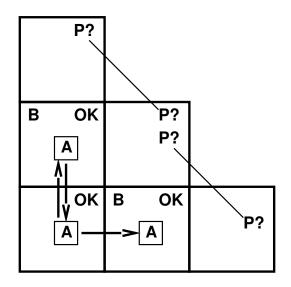
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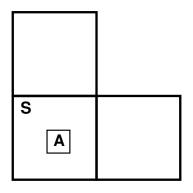
Other tight spots



Breeze in (1,2) and (2,1) \Rightarrow no safe actions

Assuming pits are uniformly distributed,

(2,2) has pit w/ prob 0.86, vs. 0.31



Smell in (1,1) \Rightarrow cannot move Can use a strategy of coercion: shoot straight ahead wumpus was there \Rightarrow dead \Rightarrow safe wumpus wasn't there \Rightarrow safe Logic (mathematical/symbolic logic) is a formal language for representing knowledge such that conclusions can be drawn

Syntax defines the sentences in the language

Semantics define the "meaning" of sentences; i.e., define truth of a sentence in a world

E.g., the language of arithmetic

 $x + 2 \ge y$ is a sentence; x2 + y > x is not a sentence

 $x+2 \ge y$ is true iff the number x+2 is no less than the number y

 $x + 2 \ge y$ is true in a world where x = 7, y = 1 $x + 2 \ge y$ is false in a world where x = 0, y = 6

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Logics are characterized by what they commit to as "primitives"

– Ontological commitment: what exists—facts? objects? time? beliefs?

- Epistemological commitment: what states of knowledge?

Language	Ontological Commitment	Epistemological Commitment
Propositional logic	facts	true/false/unknown
First-order logic	facts, objects, relations	true/false/unknown
Temporal logic	facts, objects, relations, times	true/false/unknown
Probability theory	facts	degree of belief 01
Fuzzy logic	degree of truth	degree of belief 01

Picking a logic has issues at the knowledge level Start with first-order (predicate calculus) logic (FOL) consider subsets/supersets and very different looking representation languages – propositional logic as subsets of FOL Propositional logic (PL) is the simplest logic but illustrates basic ideas and important applications

- Propositional language
- Syntax Proof theory
- Semantics Model theory
- Pragmatics

Reasoning Knowledge Representation

Propositional language

A propositional language L_0

• Syntax

- a set of (possibly infinite) symbols

 \neg , \Rightarrow , (,), *True*, *False*, P_1 , P_2 , \cdots

- -a set of (well-formed) formulas (Wffs) or sentences
- Semantics

- truth evaluations, i.e., truth functions (truth tables)

The proposition symbols P_1 , P_2 , \cdots are sentences (atom)

If S is a sentence, $\neg S$ is a sentence (negation)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \wedge S_2$ is a sentence (conjunction)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \vee S_2$ is a sentence (disjunction)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$ is a sentence (implication)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, $S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2$ is a sentence (biconditional)

Connectives precedence: \neg , $\land \lor$, \Rightarrow , \Leftrightarrow

A literal is a proposition (symbol) or its negation, i.e., P_i , or $\neg P_i$

Semantics

Each model specifies true/false for each proposition symbol $\begin{array}{ccc} {\sf E.g.} & P_{1,2} & P_{2,2} & P_{3,1} \\ true & true & false \end{array}$

(With these symbols, 8 possible models, can be enumerated automatically)

Rules for evaluating truth for a model m

$\neg S$	is true iff	S	is false		
$S_1 \wedge S_2$	is true iff	S_1	is true and	S_2	is true
$S_1 \vee S_2$	is true iff	S_1	is true or	S_2	is true
$S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$	is true iff	S_1	is false or	S_2	is true
i.e.,	is false iff	S_1	is true and	S_2	is false
$S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2$	is true iff	$S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$	is true and	$S_2 \Rightarrow S_1$	is true

A simple recursive process evaluates an arbitrary sentence, e.g. $\neg P_{1,2} \land (P_{2,2} \lor P_{3,1}) = true \land (false \lor true) = true \land true = true$

Truth tables for connectives

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \lor Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
false	false	true	false	false	true	true
false	true	true	false	true	true	false
true	false	false	false	true	false	false
true	true	false	true	true	true	true

Example: Wumpus world sentences

Let $P_{i,j}$ be true if there is a pit in [i, j]Let $B_{i,j}$ be true if there is a breeze in [i, j]

 $\neg P_{1,1}$ $\neg B_{1,1}$ $B_{2,1}$

"Pits cause breezes in adjacent squares"

Wumpus world sentences

Let $P_{i,j}$ be true if there is a pit in [i, j]Let $B_{i,j}$ be true if there is a breeze in [i, j]

 $\neg P_{1,1}$ $\neg B_{1,1}$ $B_{2,1}$

"Pits cause breezes in adjacent squares"

 $B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1})$ $B_{2,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,1} \lor P_{2,2} \lor P_{3,1})$

"A square is breezy if and only if there is an adjacent pit"

Building a (simple) knowledge base for the wumpus world

Entailment means that one thing follows from another $KB \models \alpha$

Knowledge base KB entails sentence α if and only if α is true in all worlds where KB is true

E.g., the KB containing "the Giants won" and "the Reds won" entails "Either the Giants won or the Reds won"

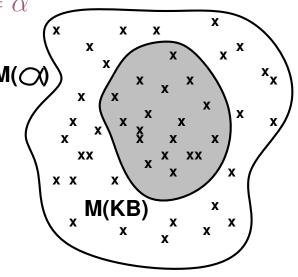
E.g., x + y = 4 entails 4 = x + y

Entailment is a relationship between sentences (i.e., syntax) that is based on semantics

Models are formally structured worlds in which truth can be evaluated

Say m is a model of a sentence α if α is true in m, written as $m \models \alpha$ $M(\alpha)$ is the set of all models of α

Then $KB \models \alpha$ iff $M(KB) \subseteq M(\alpha)$ i.e., for all model m, if $m \models KB$ then $m \models \alpha$ E.g. KB = Giants won and Reds won α = Giants won



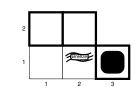
Example: Entailment in the wumpus world

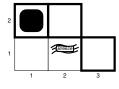
Situation after detecting nothing in [1,1], moving right, breeze in [2,1]

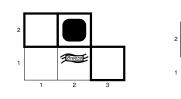
Consider possible models for ?s assuming only pits

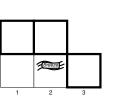
?	?		
A	В —> А	?	

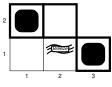
3 Boolean choices \Rightarrow 8 possible models

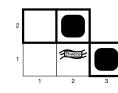


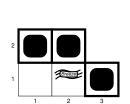


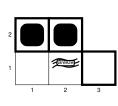






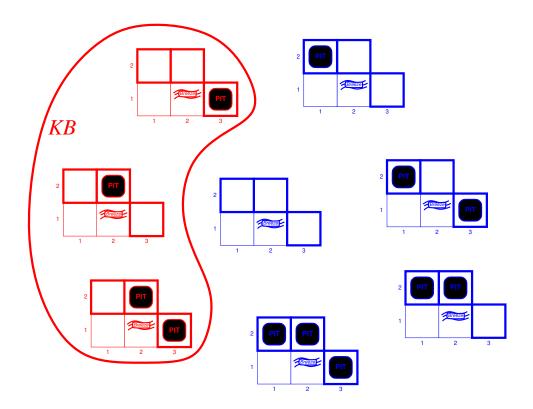






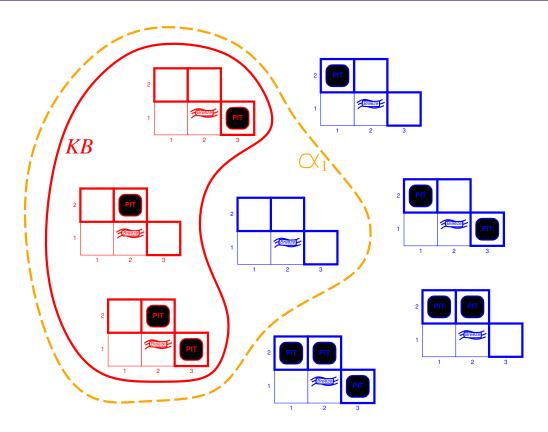
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Wumpus models



KB = wumpus-world rules + observations

Wumpus models

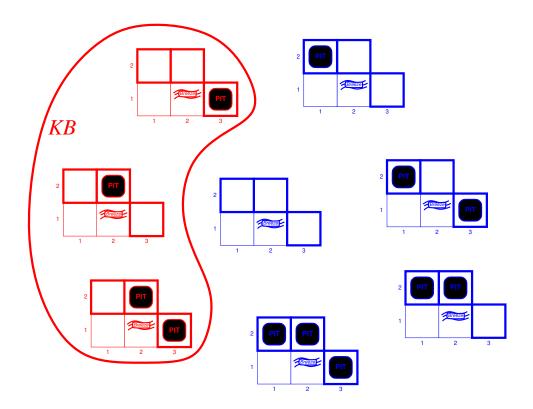


KB = wumpus-world rules + observations

 $\alpha_1 =$ "[1,2] is safe", $KB \models \alpha_1$, proved by model checking

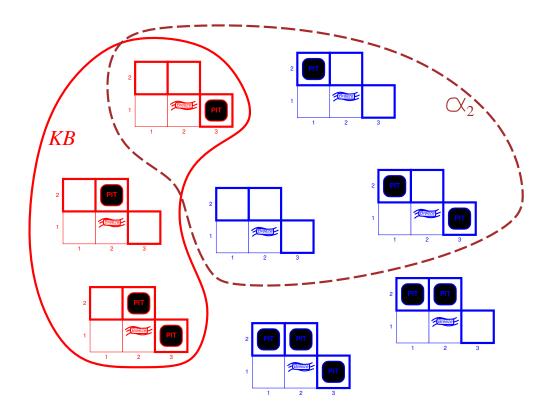
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Wumpus models



KB = wumpus-world rules + observations

Wumpus models



KB = wumpus-world rules + observations

 $\alpha_2 =$ "[2,2] is safe", $KB \not\models \alpha_2$

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Inference

```
KB \vdash_i \alpha = sentence \alpha can be derived from KB by procedure i
```

```
Consequences of KB are a haystack; \alpha is a needle.
Entailment = needle in a haystack; inference = finding it
```

```
Soundness: i is sound if
whenever KB \vdash_i \alpha, it is also true that KB \models \alpha
```

```
Completeness: i is complete if
whenever KB \models \alpha, it is also true that KB \vdash_i \alpha
```

Preview: FOL is expressive enough to say almost anything of interest, and for which there exists a sound and complete inference procedure.

That is, the procedure will answer any question whose answer follows from what is known by the KB.

Truth tables for inference

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{2,1}$	$P_{1,1}$	$P_{1,2}$	$P_{2,1}$	$P_{2,2}$	$P_{3,1}$	R_1	R_2	R_3	R_4	R_5	KB
false	true	true	true	true	false	false						
false	false	false	false	false	false	true	true	true	false	true	false	false
:	:	:	:	:	÷	÷	:	:	:	÷	:	:
false	true	false	false	false	false	false	true	true	false	true	true	false
false	true	false	false	false	false	true	true	true	true	true	true	true
false	true	false	false	false	true	false	true	true	true	true	true	true
false	true	false	false	false	true	true	true	true	true	true	true	true
false	true	false	false	true	false	false	true	false	false	true	true	false
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	E	:	
true	false	true	true	false	true	false						

Enumerate rows (different assignments to symbols), if KB is true in row, check that α is too

Inference by enumeration

Depth-first enumeration of all models is sound and complete

```
def TT-ENTAILS?(KB, \alpha)
```

```
symbols \leftarrow a list of the proposition symbols in KB and \alpha
return TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, symbols, [])
def TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, symbols, model)
if EMPTY?(symbols) then
if PL-TRUE?(KB, model) then return PL-TRUE?(\alpha, model)
else return true // When KB is false always return true
else
P \leftarrow FIRST(symbols); rest \leftarrow REST(symbols)
return TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, rest, \{P = true\} \cup model)
and TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, \alpha, rest, \{P = false\} \cup model)
```

```
{\cal O}(2^n) for n symbols, the problem is co-NP-complete
```

Two sentences are logically equivalent iff true in the same models $\alpha \equiv \beta$ if and only if $\alpha \models \beta$ and $\beta \models \alpha$

$$\begin{array}{l} (\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\beta \wedge \alpha) \quad \text{commutativity of } \wedge \\ (\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\beta \vee \alpha) \quad \text{commutativity of } \vee \\ ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \quad \text{associativity of } \wedge \\ ((\alpha \vee \beta) \vee \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \vee (\beta \vee \gamma)) \quad \text{associativity of } \vee \\ \neg (\neg \alpha) \equiv \alpha \quad \text{double-negation elimination} \\ (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \beta \Rightarrow \neg \alpha) \quad \text{contraposition} \\ (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \vee \beta) \quad \text{implication elimination} \\ (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \wedge (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)) \quad \text{biconditional elimination} \\ \neg (\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \wedge \neg \beta) \quad \text{De Morgan} \\ \neg (\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee (\alpha \wedge \gamma)) \quad \text{distributivity of } \wedge \text{ over } \vee \\ (\alpha \vee (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \vee \beta) \wedge (\alpha \vee \gamma)) \quad \text{distributivity of } \vee \text{ over } \wedge \end{array}$$

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Validity and satisfiability

A sentence α is valid if it is true in all models

e.g., True, A∨¬A, A ⇒ A, (A∧(A ⇒ B)) ⇒ B
written as ⊨ α

If the procedure i is completeness, = ⊢_i α

called α a theorem

Validity is connected to inference via the Deduction Theorem
KB ⊨ α if and only if (KB ⇒ α) is valid

A sentence is satisfiable if it is true in some model

e.g., A∨B, C

A sentence is unsatisfiable if it is true in no models

e.g., A∧¬A

Satisfiability is connected to inference via the following $KB \models \alpha$ if and only if $(KB \land \neg \alpha)$ is unsatisfiable i.e., prove α by *reductio ad absurdum*

SAT problem

SAT(isfiability) is the problem of determining the satisfiability of sentences in propositional logic

- The first problem was proved to be NP-complete (Cook Theorem, 1971)

- Many problems in computer science are SAT problems

– E.g., CSPs ask whether the constraints are satisfiable by some assignment

Roughly, any search task where what is searched for can be verified in polynomial time can be recast as a SAT problem

– Recall that $KB\models\alpha$ can be done by testing unsatisfiability of $KB\wedge\neg\alpha$

In general, SAT can be checked by enumerating the possible models until one is found that satisfies the sentences Most people believe SAT to be unsolvable in polynomial time Clause form

Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) conjunction of disjunctions of literals clauses E.g., $(A \lor \neg B) \land (B \lor \neg C \lor \neg D)$ Clause = disjunction of literals • proposition symbol; or • (conjunction of symbols) \Rightarrow symbol (i.e., conjunction of literals) E.g., $C \land (B \Rightarrow A) \land (C \land D \Rightarrow B)$ i.e., $C \land (\neg B \lor A) \land (\neg C \lor \neg D \lor B)$

Any sentence can be equivalently transformed to CNF (clauses) by the logical equivalence

SAT: the satisfiability of sentences in clause form

Notation $CNF_k(m, n)$: k-CNF sentence with m clauses (disjunction of literals) and n symbols, where the clauses are chosen uniformly, independently, and without replacement from among all clauses with k different literals, which are positive or negative at random

- E.g., 3SAT or $CNF_3(m,n)$
- 3SAT is also NP-complete

(2SAT can be solved in polynomial time)

DPLL algorithm is complete for solving SAT problem

There are a number of SAT solvers, say, WALKSAT, MAXSAT, SATZ, RSAT, MINISAT, GSAT, etc.

 $-~{\rm WALKSAT}$ algorithm: on every iteration, picking an unsatisfied clause and a symbol to flip at a "random walk" step

 $\begin{array}{l} \textbf{def WALKSAT}(clauses, p, max-flips) \\ \textbf{inputs: } clauses, a set of clauses in propositional logic \\ p, the probability of choosing to do a "random walk" move, typically 0.5 \\ max-flips, number of flips allowed before giving up \\ model \leftarrow a random assignment of true/false to the symbols in clauses \\ \textbf{for } i = 1 \textbf{ to } max-flips \textbf{ do} \\ \textbf{if } model \text{ satisfies } clauses \textbf{ then return } model \\ clause \leftarrow a \text{ randomly selected clause from } clauses \textbf{ that is false in } model \\ \textbf{with } probability p \text{ flip the value in } model \text{ of } \\ a \text{ random selected symbol from } clause \\ \textbf{else flip whichever symbol in } clause maximizes the number of satisfied clauses \\ \textbf{return } failure \end{array}$

if max-flips is infinity and the sentence is unsatisfiable, then the algorithm never terminates

SAT vs. CSP

 $\mathsf{SAT} \Leftrightarrow \mathsf{CSP}$

SAT problem with the clausal form can be represented by the constraint graph as CSP

- using CSP algorithms to solve SAP problems

CSP with the constraint graph can be translated into the clausal form as SAP problem

- using SAP solvers to solve CSPs

Both benefit from each other

Satisfiability modulo theories*

SMT problem is a decision problem for logical formulas w.r.t. combinations of background theories expressed in FOL, e.g.

- integers, real numbers · · ·
- data structures, such as lists, arrays, bit vectors \cdots

SMT can be viewed as a form of CSP and solved by applications of SAT solvers

SAT competitions since 2002

Ref: Biere et al., 2009, Handbook of Satisfiability

- From PL to FOL
- FOL
 - Syntax
 - Semantics
 - Completeness
 - Reduction FOL to PL

From PL to FOL

Why FOL: pros and cons of PL

- Solution PL is declarative: pieces of syntax correspond to facts
- PL allows partial/disjunctive/negated information (unlike most data structures and databases)

😌 PL is compositional:

meaning of $B_{1,1} \wedge P_{1,2}$ is derived from meaning of $B_{1,1}$ and of $P_{1,2}$

Solution Meaning in PL is context-independent

(unlike natural language, where meaning depends on context)

S PL has very limited expressive power

(unlike natural language)

E.g., cannot say "pits cause breezes in adjacent squares" except by writing one sentence for each square Mathematics: Hilbert's Thesis

There is no logic beyond first-order logic

- that when one is forced to make all one's mathematical (extralogical) assumption explicit, these axioms can always be expressed in FOL, and

- that the informal notion of provable used in mathematics is made precise by the formal notion of provable in FOL

AI: McCarthy's Thesis

There is no declarative knowledge representation beyond firstorder logic

FOL is very powerful

can be used as a full programming language

Whereas PL assumes world contains **facts**, FOL assumes the world contains

- Objects: people, houses, numbers, theories, Ronald McDonald, colors, baseball games, wars, centuries . . .
- Relations: red, round, bogus, prime, multistoried . . ., brother of, bigger than, inside, part of, has color, occurred after, owns, comes between, . . .
- Functions: father of, best friend, third inning of, one more than, end of . . .

Let L be a first-order language

	Constants	$kingJohn, 2, pku, \ldots$
	Predicates	$Brother, >, \ldots$
	Functions	$sqrt, \ leftLegOf, \ldots$
Vocabulary:	Variables	x, y, a, b, \ldots
	Connectives	$\land \ \lor \ \neg \ \Rightarrow \ \Leftrightarrow$
	Equality	=
	Quantifiers	$\forall \exists$

Note: all of vocabulary are symbols (countable infinity)

arity: number of arguments

- arity 0 predicates: propositional symbols
- arity 0 functions: constant symbols
- \Leftarrow PL as special case of FOL

The predicates and functions are non-logical symbols

- predicate: mixed case capitalized, e.g., OlderThan

functions: mixed case uncapitalized, e.g., brotherOf
 Sometimes no distinction if no confusion

Notation

- occasionally add or omit (,)

– use [,] and $\{,\}$ also

the parentheses are technical and not necessary (for readability)

Sentences (formulas) are defined from the vocabulary – declarative, compositional and context-independent

Atomic sentence (atoms) = $predicate(term_1, ..., term_n)$ or $term_1 = term_2$

> Term = $function(term_1, ..., term_n)$ or constant or variable

Complex sentences

Complex sentences (well-formed formulas, wffs) are inductively defined from atomic sentences using connectives

- 1. Every atomic sentence is a wff
- 2. If S_1 and S_1 are wffs, and x is a variable, then

 $\neg S, \quad S_1 \wedge S_2, \quad S_1 \vee S_2, \quad S_1 \Rightarrow S_2, \quad S_1 \ \Leftrightarrow \ S_2, \quad \forall x S_1(x), \quad \exists x S_1(x)$ are wffs

- E.g. $Sibling(kingJohn, richard) \Rightarrow Sibling(richard, kingJohn) > (1, 2) \lor \leq (1, 2)$
- Note: PL as FOL subset: no terms, no quantifiers $\forall \mathbf{x}S(\mathbf{x}) : \forall x_1 \dots \forall x_n S(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ stands for a tuple of variables (also terms) Higher-order (second-order) logic, e.g., $\forall predicatesS(predicates))$

Universal quantification

 $\forall \langle variables \rangle \ \langle sentence \rangle$

```
Everyone at Beida is smart:

\forall x \ At(x, beida) \Rightarrow Smart(x)
```

 $\forall x \ P$ is true in a model m iff P is true with x being each possible object in the model

Roughly speaking, equivalent to the conjunction of instantiations of P

```
 \begin{array}{l} (At(kingJohn, beida) \Rightarrow Smart(kingJohn)) \\ \land \ (At(richard, beida) \Rightarrow Smart(richard)) \\ \land \ (At(lin, Beida) \Rightarrow Smart(lin)) \\ \land \ \ldots \end{array}
```

Existential quantification

 $\exists \langle variables \rangle \ \langle sentence \rangle$

```
Someone at Qinghua is smart
\exists x \ At(x, qinghua) \land Smart(x)
```

 $\exists x \ P$ is true in a model m iff P is true with x being some possible object in the model

Roughly speaking, equivalent to the disjunction of instantiations of \ensuremath{P}

 $\begin{array}{l} (At(kingJohn,Qinghua) \land Smart(kingJohn)) \\ \lor \ (At(richard,Qinghua) \land Smart(richard)) \\ \lor \ (At(wang,qinghua) \land Smart(wang)) \\ \lor \ \ldots \end{array}$

Mistakes to avoid

Typically, \Rightarrow is the main connective with \forall

Mistake: using \wedge as the main connective with \forall

 $\forall x \; At(x, beida) \land Smart(x)$

means "Everyone is at Beida and everyone is smart"

Typically, \land is the main connective with \exists

Mistake: using \Rightarrow as the main connective with \exists

 $\exists x \; At(x, qinghua) \Rightarrow Smart(x)$

is true if there is anyone who is not at Qinghua

Properties of quantifiers

- $\forall x \ \forall y$ is the same as $\forall y \ \forall x$
- $\exists x \exists y \text{ is the same as } \exists y \exists x$
- $\exists x \ \forall y \ \text{ is not the same as } \forall y \ \exists x$

$\exists x \ \forall y \ Loves(x,y)$

"There is a person who loves everyone in the world"

 $\forall y \exists x \ Loves(x,y)$

"Everyone in the world is loved by at least one person"

Quantifier duality: each can be expressed using the other

 $\begin{array}{ll} \forall x \ Likes(x, iceCream) & \neg \exists x \ \neg Likes(x, iceCream) \\ \exists x \ Likes(x, broccoli) & \neg \forall x \ \neg Likes(x, broccoli) \end{array}$

The variables have a scope determined by the quantifiers

 $P(x) \land \forall x (P(x) \lor Q(x))$



free **bound** occurrences of variables

- sentences: wffs with no **free** variables (i.e., **closed** wffs)
- usually, free variables assumed to be universally quantified
- use dot "." for the scope, e.g., $\forall x.P(x) \lor Q(x)$ for $\forall x(P(x) \lor Q(x))$

Substitution:

– $\alpha[x/t]$ means α with all free occurrences of the x replaced by term t

- also, $\alpha[t_1, ..., t_n]$ means $\alpha[x_1/t_1, \cdots, x_n/t_n]$, or simple $\alpha[\mathbf{x}/\mathbf{t}]$

Consider how to interpret sentences

- what do sentences claim about the world?

- or, what does believing one amount to?

Without meaning, sentences cannot be used to represent knowledge

Compared with PL, cannot fully specify the interpretation of sentences because non-logical symbols reach outside

Logical interpretation

- specification of how to understand predicate and function symbols

Problem: cannot realistically expect to specify **once and for all** what a sentence means

the non-logical symbols are used in an application-dependent way

E.g., Happy(lin), who's lin, even if we were to agree on what "Happy" means

Abstract structure to specify interpretation

1. There are objects (in the world)

2. For any predicate P (of arity 1), some of the objects will satisfy

 \boldsymbol{P} and some will not

– each interpretation settles extension of \boldsymbol{P}

– each interpretation assigns to function f a mapping from objects to objects

functions always well-defined and single-valued

3. No other aspects of the world matter

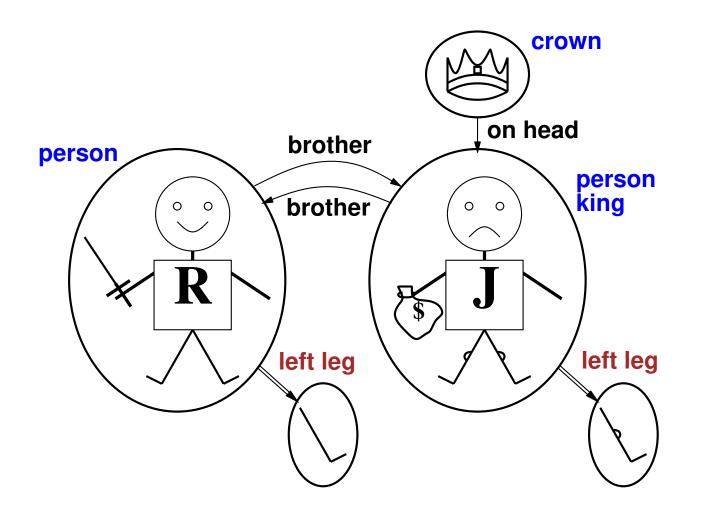
The FOL assumption

This is all you need to know about the non-logical symbols to understand which sentences of FOL are true or false Sentences are true w.r.t. a model and an interpretation

```
Model contains \geq 1 objects (domain elements) and relations among them
```

Interpretation specifies referents for constant symbols \rightarrow objects predicate symbols \rightarrow relations function symbols \rightarrow functional relations

An atomic sentence $predicate(term_1, \ldots, term_n)$ is true iff the objects referred to by $term_1, \ldots, term_n$ are in the relation referred to by predicate



Models: Truth

Consider the interpretation in which $richard \rightarrow$ Richard the Lionheart $john \rightarrow$ the evil King John $Brother \rightarrow$ the brotherhood relation

Under this interpretation, Brother(richard, john) is true just in case Richard the Lionheart and the evil King John are in the brotherhood relation in the model

Models: Entailment

Entailment in FOL can be computed by enumerating FOL models for a given KB vocabulary

Model checking For each number of domain elements n from 1 to ∞ For each k-ary predicate P_k in the vocabulary For each possible k-ary function on n objects For each constant symbol C in the vocabulary For each choice of referent for C from n objects ...

Computing entailment by checking FOL models is not easy (the domain is infinite or very large)

 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{Interpretation } I = < I, |I| > \\ \mbox{the domain } |I| \mbox{ given} \\ \mbox{ can be any non-empty set} \\ \mbox{not just formal/mathematical objects} \\ \mbox{ e.g., people, tables, numbers, sentences, the universe, etc.} \end{array}$

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${\bf Interpretation^*}$

I is an (interpretation) mapping

- 1. If σ is a constant (symbol), then $I(\sigma) \in |I|$
- 2. If π is an *n*-ary function (symbol), then $I(\pi) : |I|^n \to |I|$; for constant c, $I(c) \in |I|$
- 3. If ρ is an *n*-ary predicate (symbol), then $I(\rho) \subseteq |I|^n$; for propositional symbol *p*, $I(p) = \{ \}$
- In propositional level (PL), it is convenient to assume $I = I \in [prop.symbols \rightarrow \{true, false\}]$

```
Variable assignment U: given I
a mapping from the variables of L to objects of |I|
U \in [Variables \rightarrow |I|]
```

Term assignment T_{IU} : given I and U

- 1. If τ is an constant, then $T_{IU}(\tau) = I(\tau)$
- 2. If τ is a variable, then $T_{IU}(\tau) = U(\tau)$
- 3. If τ is a term of the form $\pi(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$ and $I(\pi) = g$ and $T_{IU}(\tau_i) = x_i$, then $T_{IU}(\tau) = g(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

Satisfaction*

Satisfaction $\models_I \phi[U]$ (simply \models)

a sentence ϕ is satisfied by an interpretation I and a variable assignment U

1.
$$\models (\sigma = \tau)$$
 iff $T_{IU}(\sigma) = T_{IU}(\tau)$
2. $\models \rho(\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$ iff $< T_{IU}(\tau_1), \dots, T_{IU}(\tau_n) > \in I(\rho)$
3. $\models \neg \phi$ iff $\nvDash \phi$
4. $\models \phi \land \psi$ iff $\models \phi$ and $\models \psi$
5. $\models \phi \lor \psi$ iff $\models \phi$ or $\models \psi$
6. $\models \phi \Rightarrow \psi$ iff $\nvDash \phi$ or $\models \psi$
7. $\models \forall x \phi(x)$ iff for all $d \in |I|$ it is the case that $\models \phi[V]$, where $V(x) = d$ and $V(y) = U(y)$ for $x \neq y$
8. $\models \exists x \phi(x)$ iff for some $d \in |I|$ it is the case that $\models \phi[V]$, where $V(x) = d$ and $V(y) = U(y)$ for $x \neq y$

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Models and entailment

Model I

If an interpretation I satisfies a sentence ϕ for all variable assignments, then I is said to be a *model* of ϕ , written $\models_I \phi$ or $I \models \phi$

Similarly (in PL), a sentence is true if it is satisfied in <u>a</u> models

a sentence is valid if it is true in <u>all</u> models

E.g., $\phi(x) \vee \neg \phi(x)$

A sentence is unsatisfiable (inconsistent, contradiction) if it is true in <u>no</u> models

E.g., $\phi(x) \wedge \neg \phi(x)$

Entailment |=

Let KB be a set of sentences and ϕ a sentence, $KB \models \phi$ iff ϕ is true (satisfied) in all models of KB Soundeness and Completeness Theorem of FOL $KB \vdash \alpha$ iff $KB \models \alpha$

Procedure *i* is complete if and only if $KB \vdash_i \alpha$ whenever $KB \models \alpha$

Historical hints

- Gödel completeness theorem
- Gödel incompleteness theorem

${\bf In completeness}^*$

By extending the language of FOL to allow for the **mathematical induction** scheme in arithmetic, Gödel proved that there are true arithmetic sentences that cannot be proved

Incompleteness theorem: If the formal arithmetic system N is $(\omega$ -) consistent, then there is a sentence S which is not a theorem of N, nor its negation

Hence, N is not complete

What does Gödel incompleteness theorem mean in AI??

Reduction FOL to PL

Suppose the KB contains just the following

 $\begin{array}{l} \forall x \ King(x) \wedge Greedy(x) \Rightarrow Evil(x) \\ King(john) \\ Greedy(john) \\ Brother(richard, john) \end{array}$

Instantiating the universal sentence in all possible ways, we have

$$\begin{split} &King(john) \wedge Greedy(john) \Rightarrow Evil(john) \\ &King(richard) \wedge Greedy(richard) \Rightarrow Evil(richard) \\ &King(john) \\ &Greedy(john) \\ &Brother(richard, john) \end{split}$$

The new KB is propositionalized: proposition symbols are

 $King(john),\ Greedy(john),\ Evil(john), King(richard)\, {\rm etc.}$

Reduction*

A literal (sentence) is ground if it contains no variables

Herbrand Theorem

a ground sentence is entailed by new KB iff entailed by original KB i.e., FOL KB can be propositionalized to preserve entailment

Idea: propositionalize KB and query, apply resolution, return result

<u>Problem</u>: with function symbols, there are infinitely many ground terms,

e.g., father(father(father(john)))

Theorem (Herbrand, 1930): If a sentence α is entailed by an FOL KB,

it is entailed by a **finite** subset of the propositional KB

Idea: For n = 0 to ∞ do

create a propositional KB by instantiating with depth-n terms see if α is entailed by this KB

<u>Problem</u>: works if α is entailed, loops if α is not entailed

Theorem (Turing/Church, 1936): Entailment in FOL is semidecidable can find a proof of α if $KB \models \alpha$ cannot always prove that $KB \not\models \alpha$

Cf. Halting Problem: proof procedure may be about to terminate with success or failure, or may go on forever

Problems with propositionalization

Propositionalization seems to generate lots of irrelevant sentences E.g., from

 $\begin{array}{l} \forall x \;\; King(x) \wedge Greedy(x) \Rightarrow Evil(x) \\ King(john) \\ \forall y \;\; Greedy(y) \\ Brother(richard, john) \end{array}$

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 worse

Logical foundation of AI

- Knowledge representation
- Knowledge engineering
- Agents in logic

KR (Knowledge Representation) is first and foremost about **knowledge**

- meaning and entailment

- find individuals and properties, then encode facts sufficient for entailments

Brothers are siblings

Brothers are siblings

 $\forall x, y \; Brother(x, y) \Rightarrow Sibling(x, y)$

"Sibling" is symmetric

Brothers are siblings

 $\forall x, y \; Brother(x, y) \Rightarrow Sibling(x, y)$

"Sibling" is symmetric

 $\forall x,y \ Sibling(x,y) \ \Leftrightarrow \ Sibling(y,x)$

One's mother is one's female parent

Brothers are siblings

 $\forall x, y \; Brother(x, y) \Rightarrow Sibling(x, y)$

"Sibling" is symmetric

 $\forall x, y \ Sibling(x, y) \Leftrightarrow Sibling(y, x)$

One's mother is one's female parent

 $\forall x,y \ Mother(x,y) \ \Leftrightarrow \ (Female(x) \land Parent(x,y))$

A first cousin is a child of a parent's sibling

Brothers are siblings

 $\forall x, y \; Brother(x, y) \Rightarrow Sibling(x, y)$

"Sibling" is symmetric

 $\forall x, y \ Sibling(x, y) \Leftrightarrow Sibling(y, x)$

One's mother is one's female parent

 $\forall x,y \ Mother(x,y) \ \Leftrightarrow \ (Female(x) \land Parent(x,y))$

A first cousin is a child of a parent's sibling

 $\begin{array}{lll} \forall x,y \;\; FirstCousin(x,y) \; \Leftrightarrow \; \exists \, p,ps \;\; Parent(p,x) \land Sibling(ps,p) \land \\ Parent(ps,y) \end{array}$

 $\lim s_n = c$, c is a real number

 $(\forall \varepsilon) (\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow (\exists n) (n \in \omega \land (\forall k) (k \in \omega \land k \ge n \Rightarrow |s_k - c| < \varepsilon)))$

Two sets are equal iff they have the same elements

$$(x_1 = x_2 \Leftrightarrow (\forall x_3)(x_3 \in x_1 \leftrightarrow x_3 \in x_2))$$

 $term_1 = term_2$ is true under a given interpretation if and only if $term_1$ and $term_2$ refer to the same object

- E.g., 1 = 2 and $\forall x \times (Sqrt(x), Sqrt(x)) = x$ are satisfiable 2 = 2 is valid
- E.g., definition of (full) Sibling in terms of Parent $\forall x, y \ Sibling(x, y) \Leftrightarrow [\neg(x = y) \land \exists m, f \neg(m = f) \land$ $Parent(m, x) \land Parent(f, x) \land Parent(m, y) \land Parent(f, y)]$

Knowledge engineering

Before implementation, needs to understand clearly

- What is to be computed?
- Why and where inference is necessary?
- Task: KB with appropriate entailments
 - What vocabulary?
 - What facts to represent?

Knowledge base

KB is set of sentences

explicit statement of sentences believed (including any assumed connections among non-logical symbols)

 $KB \models \phi$

 $\boldsymbol{\phi}$ is a further consequence of what is believed

- explicit knowledge: KB
- implicit knowledge: $\{\phi \mid KB \models \phi\}$

Knowledge-based systems

Building (larger) KB to represent what is explicitly known e.g. what the system has been told or has learned

Want to influence behavior based on what is implicit in the KB

Requires reasoning

- deductive inference
- -- process of calculating entailments of KB

i.e., $KB \models \phi$

(KB) 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.

 (α) Prove that Col. West is a criminal

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

... 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

... it is a crime for an American to sell we apons 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., $\exists x \ Owns(Nono, x) \land Missile(x)$ $Owns(Nono, M_1)$ and $Missile(M_1)$

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

... it is a crime for an American to sell we apons 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., $\exists x \ Owns(Nono, x) \land Missile(x)$ $Owns(Nono, M_1)$ and $Missile(M_1)$

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

 $\forall x \ Missile(x) \land Owns(Nono, x) \Rightarrow Sells(West, x, Nono)$ Missiles are weapons

... it is a crime for an American to sell we apons 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., $\exists x \ Owns(Nono, x) \land Missile(x)$ $Owns(Nono, M_1)$ and $Missile(M_1)$

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

 $\forall x \ Missile(x) \land Owns(Nono, x) \Rightarrow Sells(West, x, Nono)$

Missiles are weapons:

 $Missile(x) \Rightarrow Weapon(x)$

An enemy of America counts as "hostile"

... 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., $\exists x \ Owns(Nono, x) \land Missile(x)$ $Owns(Nono, M_1)$ and $Missile(M_1)$

 \ldots all of its missiles were sold to it by Colonel West

 $\forall x \ Missile(x) \land Owns(Nono, x) \Rightarrow Sells(West, x, Nono)$

Missiles are weapons

 $Missile(x) \Rightarrow Weapon(x)$

An enemy of America counts as "hostile"

 $Enemy(x, America) \Rightarrow Hostile(x)$

West, who is American . . .

American(West)

The country Nono, an enemy of America . . .

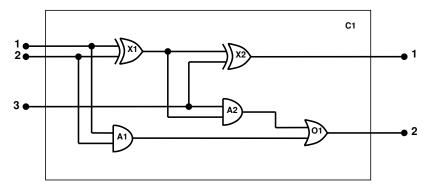
Enemy(Nono, America)

Agents in logic

- Logical agents in propositional level
- Logical agents in first-order case

Logical agents in propositional level

- Wumpus agent
 - The wumpus world ${\cal KB}$
 - Finding pits and wumpus using logical inference
 - Translating knowledge into action
- Circuit-based agent



digital (logical) circuit \Rightarrow components \Rightarrow CPU/GPU \Rightarrow VLSI = PL

• Database agent

Agents in first-order case

Suppose a wumpus-world agent is using an FOL KB and perceives a smell and a breeze (but no glitter) at t = 5

Tell(KB, Percept([Smell, Breeze, None], 5)) $Ask(KB, \exists a \ Action(a, 5))$

I.e., does KB entail any particular actions at t = 5?

Answer: Yes, $\{a/Shoot\} \leftarrow \text{substitution}$

In general, Ask(KB, S): $KB \models S$

Example: the wumpus world

Perception

 $\begin{array}{ll} \forall \, b, g, t \; \; Percept([Smell, b, g], t) \Rightarrow Smelt(t) \\ \forall \, s, b, t \; \; Percept([s, b, Glitter], t) \Rightarrow AtGold(t) \end{array}$

Reflex: $\forall t \ AtGold(t) \Rightarrow Action(Grab, t)$

Reflex with internal state: do we have the gold already? $\forall t \ AtGold(t) \land \neg Holding(Gold, t) \Rightarrow Action(Grab, t)$

 $\begin{array}{l} Holding(Gold,t) \text{ cannot be observed} \\ \Rightarrow \text{keeping track of change is essential} \end{array}$

Properties of locations

 $\begin{array}{ll} \forall \, x,t \ At(Agent,x,t) \wedge Smelt(t) \Rightarrow Smelly(x) \\ \forall \, x,t \ At(Agent,x,t) \wedge Breeze(t) \Rightarrow Breezy(x) \end{array}$

Squares are breezy near a pit

Diagnostic rule—infer cause from effect $\forall y \; Breezy(y) \Rightarrow \exists x \; Pit(x) \land Adjacent(x, y)$

Causal rule—infer effect from cause $\forall x, y \ Pit(x) \land Adjacent(x, y) \Rightarrow Breezy(y)$

Neither of these is complete—e.g., the causal rule doesn't say whether squares far away from pits can be breezy

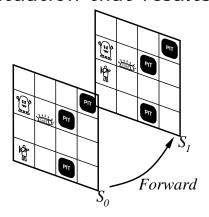
Definition for the *Breezy* predicate $\forall y \ Breezy(y) \Leftrightarrow [\exists x \ Pit(x) \land Adjacent(x, y)]$

Applications of FOL*

FOL is general enough to applications of intelligence with reason

Facts hold in situations, rather than eternally E.g., Holding(Gold, Now) rather than just Holding(Gold)

Situation calculus is one way to represent change in FOL Adds a situation argument to each non-eternal predicate E.g., Now in Holding(Gold, Now) denotes a situation Situations are connected by the *Result* function Result(a, s) is the situation that results from doing a in s



Example: \mathbf{EMI}^*

EMI (Experiments in Musical Intelligence, subsequent Emily Howell) is a computer program created by and collaborated with David Cope

- can analyze existing music and create new compositions in the style of the original input music

- rule-based (logic) "expert system" for music language understanding

Ref. Cope D, Experiments in Musical Intelligence, Madison, , 1996

ANTON (2011): an automatic system for the composition of renaissance-style music

- about 500 rules for musical knowledge

 in the form of logic programming: answer set programming (see the next lecture)