Chapters 5: Propositions and Inference DIT410/TIN172 Artificial Intelligence

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1 April, 2015

Outline

1 Propositions (5.1–5.2)

- 2 Proofs (5.2.2)
 - Bottom-up proof procedure (5.2.2.1)
 - Top-down proof procedure (5.2.2.2)

3 Complete knowledge assumption (5.5)

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For when I am presented with a false theorem, I do not need to examine or even to know the demonstration, since I shall discover its falsity *a posteriori* by means of an easy experiment, that is, by a calculation, costing no more than paper and ink, which will show the error no matter how small it is...

And if someone would doubt my results, I should say to him: "Let us calculate, Sir," and thus by taking to pen and ink, we should soon settle the question.

—Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz [1677]

Syntax of propositional calculus

Propositions are built from simpler propositions using logical connectives. A proposition is either:

- an atomic proposition (also called atom, symbol or a boolean variable),
- or a compound proposition of the form:

```
\neg p: the negation of p
p \wedge q: the conjunction of p and q
p \vee q: the disjunction of p and q
p \rightarrow q: the implication of q from p
p \leftrightarrow q: the equivalence of p and q
```

The precedence of the connectives is in the above order.

Interpretations, models and propositions

- An *interpretation* is an assignment of values to all symbols.
- A model is an interpretation that satisfies the constraints.
- Often we don't want to just find a model, but want to know what is true in all models.
- A proposition is statement that is true or false in each interpretation.
- Propositions are built using logical connectives.



Semantics of propositional calculus

An interpretation is a function π that maps atoms to $\{true, false\}$:

- if $\pi(a) = true$ (false), we say atom a is true (false) in the interpretation
- we can also think of π as the set of atoms that map to true

The interpretation maps each proposition to a truth value. The truth value of a compound proposition is built using this *truth table*:

p	q	$\neg q$	$p \wedge q$	$p \lor q$	p ightarrow q	$p\leftrightarrow q$
true	true	false	true	true	true	true
true	false	true	false	true	false	false
false	true		false	true	true	false
false	false		false	false	true	true

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Simple language: Propositional definite clauses

- An atom is a symbol starting with a lower case letter
- A body is of the form $b_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge b_k$ where $b_1 \dots b_k$ are atoms
 - \triangleright k can be 1, in which case the body is a single atom
- A definite clause is an atom or is an implication of the form
 - $b \rightarrow h$ where b is a body and h is an atom
 - usually we write the clause backwards, $h \leftarrow b$
- A knowledge base is a set of definite clauses



Definite Clauses

Which of the following are definite clauses?

- (a) $happy \leftarrow sad$
- (b) blimsy
- (c) $old \land wise \leftarrow teenager$
- (d) $happy \wedge sad$
- (e) $qlad \leftarrow happy \land sad$
- (f) green \vee blue $\leftarrow \neg red$
- (g) $glad \leftarrow happy \land sad \land mad \land bad$
- (h) $glad \leftarrow happy \land rad \leftarrow sad \land mad \land bad$
- (i) $happy \leftarrow happy$



Human's view of semantics

- Step 1 Begin with a task domain.
- Step 2 Choose atoms in the computer to denote propositions.
 - These atoms have meaning to the KB designer.
- Step 3 Tell the system knowledge about the domain.
- Step 4 Ask the system questions.
 - The system will answer whether the question is a logical consequence.
- Step 5 Interpret the answers with the meaning associated with the atoms



Role of semantics

In computer:

```
light1\_broken \leftarrow sw\_up
\land power \land unlit\_light1.
sw\_up.
power \leftarrow lit\_light2.
unlit\_light1.
lit\_light2.
```

In user's mind:

- light1_broken: light #1 is broken
- sw_up : switch is up
- power: there is power in the building
- unlit_light1: light #1 isn't lit
- lit light2: light #2 is lit

Conclusion: light1 broken

- The computer doesn't know the meaning of the symbols
- The user can interpret the symbol using their meaning

Semantics

Simplified semantics for definite clauses:

- An interpretation I assigns a truth value to each atom.
- A body $b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_k$ is *true* in *I* if all b_i 's are *true* in *I*, and is *false* otherwise.
- A rule h ← b is false in I if b is true in I and h is false in I.
 The rule is true otherwise.
- A knowledge base KB is true in I if and only if every clause in KB is true in I.

Models and logical consequence

- A model of a set of clauses is an interpretation in which all the clauses are *true*.
- Assuming that KB is a set of clauses and g is a body:
 - ▶ g is a logical consequence of KB, written $KB \models g$, if g is true in every model of KB.
- That is, $KB \models g$ if there is no interpretation in which KB is true and g is false.



Simple example

$$KB = \begin{cases} p \leftarrow q. \\ q. \\ r \leftarrow s. \end{cases}$$

	p	-	r		model?
I_1	true	true	true	true	
I_2	false	false	false	false	
I_3	true false true true	true	false	false	
I_4	true	true	true	false	
I_5	true	true	false	true	

Which of p, q, r, s, t logically follow from KB?



Simple example

$$KB = \begin{cases} p \leftarrow q. \\ q. \\ r \leftarrow s. \end{cases}$$

	p	q	r	s	model?
I_1	true	true	true	true	is a model of KB
I_2	false	false	false	false	not a model of KB
I_3	true	true	false false true	false	is a model of KB
I_4	true	true	true	false	is a model of KB
I_5	true	true	false	true	not a model of KB

Which of p, q, r, s, t logically follow from KB?

$$\mathit{KB} \models \mathit{p}, \, \mathit{KB} \models \mathit{q}, \, \mathit{KB} \not\models \mathit{r}, \, \mathit{KB} \not\models \mathit{s}, \, \mathit{KB} \not\models \mathit{t}$$

User's view of semantics

- Step 1 Choose a task domain: intended interpretation.
- Step 2 Associate an atom with each proposition you want to represent.
- Step 3 Tell the system clauses that are true in the intended interpretation: axiomatizing the domain.
- Step 4 Ask questions about the intended interpretation.
 - If $KB \models g$, then g must be true in the intended interpretation.
- Step 5 Users can interpret the answer using their intended interpretation of the symbols.

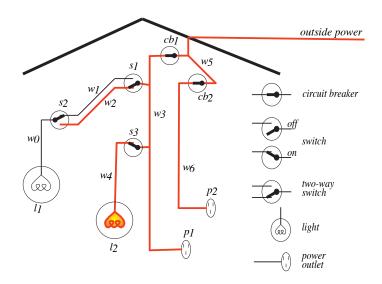


Computer's view of semantics

- The computer doesn't have access to the intended interpretation.
 - ▶ All it knows is the knowledge base *KB*.
- It can determine if a formula is a logical consequence of KB.
- If $KB \models g$ then g must be true in the intended interpretation.
- If $KB \not\models g$ then there is a model of KB in which g is false.
 - This could be the intended interpretation!



Example: Electrical environment





Representing the electrical environment

$light_l_1$
$light_l_2$.
$down_s_1.$
up_s_2 .
up_s_3 .
ok_l_1 .
ok_l_2 .
ok_cb_1 .
ok_cb_2 .
$live_outside.$

$$\begin{array}{l} lit_l_1 \leftarrow live_w_0 \wedge ok_l_1 \\ live_w_0 \leftarrow live_w_1 \wedge up_s_2. \\ live_w_0 \leftarrow live_w_2 \wedge down_s_2. \\ live_w_1 \leftarrow live_w_3 \wedge up_s_1. \\ live_w_2 \leftarrow live_w_3 \wedge down_s_1. \\ lit_l_2 \leftarrow live_w_4 \wedge ok_l_2. \\ live_w_4 \leftarrow live_w_3 \wedge up_s_3. \\ live_p_1 \leftarrow live_w_3. \\ live_p_1 \leftarrow live_w_3. \\ live_w_3 \leftarrow live_w_5 \wedge ok_cb_1. \\ live_p_2 \leftarrow live_w_6. \\ live_w_6 \leftarrow live_w_5 \wedge ok_cb_2. \\ live_w_6 \leftarrow live_w_5 \wedge ok_cb_2. \\ live_w_5 \leftarrow live_outside. \end{array}$$

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Proofs

- A proof is a mechanically derivable demonstration that a formula logically follows from a knowledge base.
- $KB \vdash g$ means that g can be derived from knowledge base KB, using a proof procedure.
- Recall that $KB \models g$ means g is true in all models of KB.
- A proof procedure is sound if $KB \vdash g$ implies $KB \models g$.
- A proof procedure is complete if $KB \models g$ implies $KB \vdash g$.



Bottom-up proof procedure

• There is one single rule of derivation, a generalized form of *modus ponens*:

If " $h \leftarrow b_1 \land ... \land b_m$ " is a clause in the knowledge base, and each b_i has been derived, then h can be derived.

• This is called forward chaining on the clause. (This rule also covers the case when m = 0.)

Bottom-up proof procedure

After this procedure, $KB \vdash g$ iff $g \in C$:

$$C:=\{\}$$

repeat

select clause " $h \leftarrow b_1 \land \ldots \land b_m$ " in KB such that $b_i \in C$ for all i, and $h \notin C$ $C := C \cup \{h\}$

until no more clauses can be selected



Example

$$a \leftarrow b \wedge c$$
.

$$a \leftarrow e \wedge f$$
.

$$b \leftarrow f \wedge k.$$

$$c \leftarrow e$$
.

$$d \leftarrow k$$
.

e.

$$f \leftarrow j \wedge e$$
.

$$f \leftarrow c$$
.

$$j \leftarrow c$$
.

Soundness of bottom-up proof procedure

Assume there is a g such that $KB \vdash g$ and $KB \not\models g$.

- Then there must be a *first* atom added to C that isn't true in every model of KB. Call it h.
 - Let's call this model I, in which h isn't true.
- There must be a clause in KB of form:

$$h \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_m$$

Each b_i is true in I, but h is false in I. So this clause is false in I. Therefore I isn't a model of KB.

Contradiction.

Therefore, if $KB \vdash g$ then $KB \models g$.



Fixed point

- The C generated at the end of the bottom-up algorithm is called a fixed point.
- Let *I* be the interpretation in which every element of the fixed point is true and every other atom is false.
- I is a model of KB.

Proof: Suppose $h \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_m$ in KB is false in I. Then h is false and each b_i is true in I. Thus h can be added to C. This is a contradiction to C being the fixed point.

• *I* is called a minimal model.



Completeness

Suppose $KB \models g$.

- Then q is true in all models of KB.
- Thus q is true in the minimal model.
- Thus *q* is in the fixed point.
- Thus q is generated by the bottom up algorithm.
- Thus $KB \vdash q$.

Therefore, if $KB \models g$ then $KB \vdash g$.

Top-down definite clause proof procedure

A query is a body that we want to determine if it is a logical consequence of KB.

Idea: search backward from the query.

• An answer clause is of the form:

$$yes \leftarrow a_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge a_i \wedge \cdots \wedge a_m$$

• SLD resolution of this answer clause on atom a_i with the clause:

$$a_i \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge b_p$$

results in the answer clause:

$$yes \leftarrow a_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge a_{i-1} \wedge b_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge b_n \wedge a_{i+1} \wedge \cdots \wedge a_m$$

Derivations

- An answer is an answer clause with m=0.
 - ▶ i.e., it is the answer clause "yes ←"
- A derivation of query "? $q_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge q_k$ " from KB is a sequence of answer clauses $\gamma_0, \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_n$ such that
 - \triangleright γ_0 is the answer clause "yes $\leftarrow q_1 \land \ldots \land q_k$ ",
 - $\triangleright \gamma_i$ is obtained by resolving γ_{i-1} with a clause in KB, and
 - $\triangleright \gamma_n$ is an answer.

Top-down definite clause interpreter

To solve the query $?q_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge q_k$:

$$ac := "yes \leftarrow q_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge q_k"$$
 repeat

select atom a_i from the body of ac choose clause C from KB with a_i as head replace a_i in the body of ac by the body of C

until ac is an answer



Nondeterministic choice

The top-down interpreter uses two kinds of nondeterministic choice:

- don't-care If one selection doesn't lead to a solution, there is no point trying other alternatives.
 - "select atom a_i from the body of ac"
- don't-know If one choice doesn't lead to a solution, there might be other choices that will.
 - "choose clause C from KB with a_i as head"



Example: Successful derivation

$$\begin{array}{lll} a \leftarrow b \wedge c & a \leftarrow e \wedge f & b \leftarrow f \wedge k \\ c \leftarrow e & d \leftarrow k & e \\ f \leftarrow j \wedge e & f \leftarrow c & j \leftarrow c \end{array}$$

Query: ?a



Example: Successful derivation

$$egin{array}{lll} a\leftarrow b\wedge c & a\leftarrow e\wedge f & b\leftarrow f\wedge k \\ c\leftarrow e & d\leftarrow k & e \\ f\leftarrow j\wedge e & f\leftarrow c & j\leftarrow c \end{array}$$

Query: ?a

$$\gamma_0: yes \leftarrow a \qquad (a \leftarrow e \land f)$$
 $\gamma_1: yes \leftarrow e \land f \qquad (e)$
 $\gamma_2: yes \leftarrow f \qquad (f \leftarrow c)$
 $\gamma_3: yes \leftarrow c \qquad (c \leftarrow e)$
 $\gamma_4: yes \leftarrow e \qquad (e)$

Example: Failing derivation

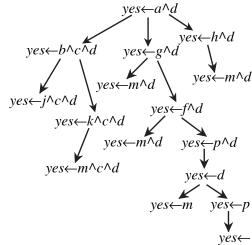
$$egin{array}{lll} a\leftarrow b\wedge c & a\leftarrow e\wedge f & b\leftarrow f\wedge k \\ c\leftarrow e & d\leftarrow k & e \\ f\leftarrow j\wedge e & f\leftarrow c & j\leftarrow c \end{array}$$

Query: ?a

$$egin{array}{lll} \gamma_0: & yes \leftarrow a & (a \leftarrow b \wedge c) \\ \gamma_1: & yes \leftarrow b \wedge c & (b \leftarrow f \wedge k) \\ \gamma_2: & yes \leftarrow f \wedge k \wedge c & (f \leftarrow c) \\ \gamma_3: & yes \leftarrow c \wedge k \wedge c & (c \leftarrow e) \\ \gamma_4: & yes \leftarrow e \wedge k \wedge c & (e) \\ \gamma_5: & yes \leftarrow k \wedge c & fail \end{array}$$



Search graph for SLD resolution



 $egin{array}{lll} a\leftarrow b\wedge c. & a\leftarrow g. \\ a\leftarrow h. & b\leftarrow j. \\ b\leftarrow k. & d\leftarrow m. \\ d\leftarrow p. & f\leftarrow m. \\ f\leftarrow p. & g\leftarrow m. \\ g\leftarrow f. & k\leftarrow m. \\ h\leftarrow m. & p. \end{array}$

 $?a \wedge d$

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Complete knowledge assumption

- Often you want to assume that your knowledge is complete.
 - ► Example: you can state what switches are up and the agent can assume that the other switches are down.
 - ► Example: assume that a database of what students are enrolled in a course is complete.
- The definite clause language is monotonic:
 - adding clauses can't invalidate a previous conclusion.
- Under the *complete knowledge assumption*, the system is non-monotonic:
 - ▶ adding clauses can invalidate a previous conclusion.

Completion of a knowledge base

• Suppose the rules for atom a are,

$$a \leftarrow b_1 \quad \dots \quad a \leftarrow b_n$$

or equivalently $a \leftarrow b_1 \lor \cdots \lor b_n$.

• The complete knowledge assumption (CKA) says that if a is true, one of the b_i must be true:

$$a \rightarrow b_1 \vee \cdots \vee b_n$$

• Under the CKA, the meaning of the clauses for a are:

$$a \leftrightarrow b_1 \lor \cdots \lor b_n$$

which is called Clark's completion.



Clark's completion of a KB

- Clark's completion of a knowledge base consists of the completion of every atom.
- If you have an atom a with no clauses, the completion is $a \leftrightarrow false$.
- You can interpret negations in the body of clauses:
 - $ightharpoonup \sim a$ means that a is false under the CKA
 - ▶ this is negation as failure

Bottom-up negation-as-failure interpreter

```
C := \{\}
repeat
      either
             select h such that there is a rule "h \leftarrow b_1 \land \ldots \land b_m" \in KB
                          where every b_i \in C, and h \notin C
             C := C \cup \{h\}
      \mathbf{or}
             select h such that for every rule "h \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_m" \in KB
                          either \sim b_i \in C for some b_i
                          or q \in C for some b_i = \sim q
             C := C \cup \{\sim h\}
until no more selections are possible
```

$Negation-as-failure\ example$

$$p \leftarrow q \land \sim r$$
.

$$p \leftarrow s$$
.

$$q \leftarrow \sim s.$$

$$r \leftarrow \sim t$$
.

t.

$$s \leftarrow w$$
.



Top-down negation-as-failure proof procedure

If the proof for a fails, you can conclude $\sim a$.

Failure can be defined recursively:

• Suppose you have rules for atom a:

$$a \leftarrow b_1 \quad \dots \quad a \leftarrow b_n$$

- If each body b_i fails, a fails.
- A body fails if one of the conjuncts in the body fails.
- Note that you need finite failure.
 - example $p \leftarrow p$

Default reasoning

- Birds fly.
- Emus and tiny birds don't.
- Hummingbirds are tiny birds that can fly.

```
flies \leftarrow bird \land \sim ab_{flying}
ab_{flying} \leftarrow emu \land \sim ab_{emu}
ab_{flying} \leftarrow tiny \land \sim ab_{tiny}
ab_{tiny} \leftarrow hummingbird \land \sim ab_{hummingbird}
```