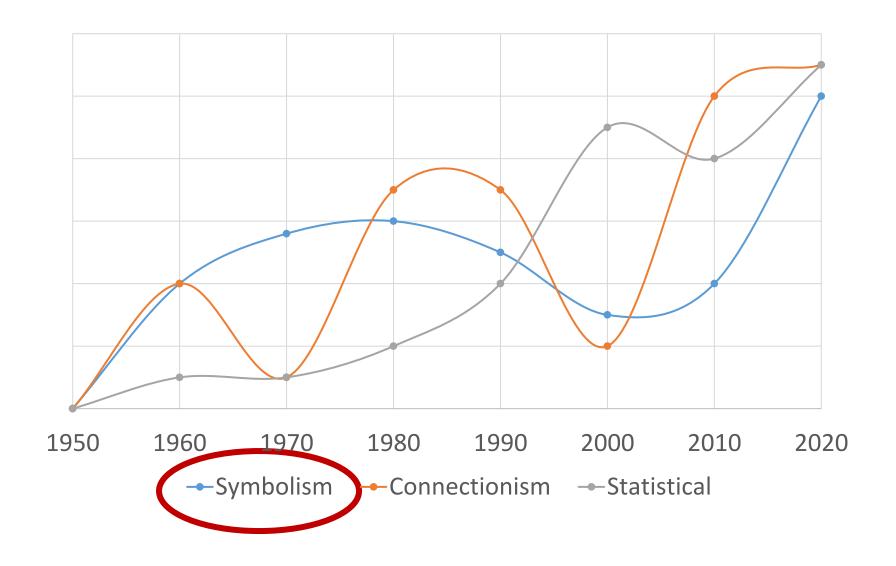
Three types of (strong) Al approaches



Propositional Logic

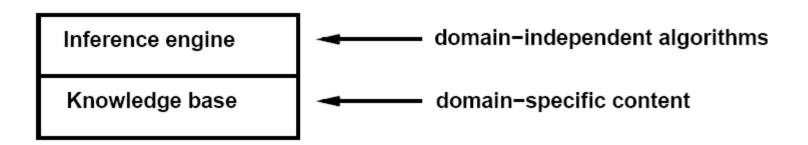
AIMA Chapter 7

Logic-based Symbolic Al

- Logic
 - Formal language in which knowledge can be expressed
 - A means of carrying out reasoning in the language

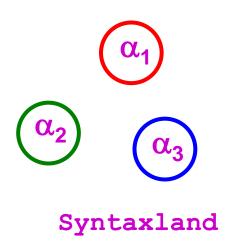
Logic-based Symbolic Al

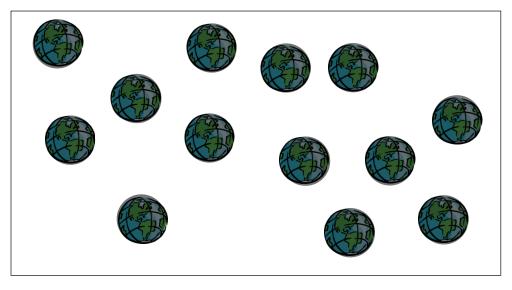
- Logic (Knowledge-Based) Al
 - Knowledge base
 - set of sentences in a formal language to represent knowledge about the "world"
 - Inference engine
 - answers any answerable question following the knowledge base



Formal Language

- Components of a formal language in a logic
 - Syntax: What sentences are allowed?
 - Semantics:
 - Which sentences are true/false in each model (possible world)?





Semanticsland

Formal Language

- Example: the language of arithmetic
 - Syntax
 - x+2 ≥ y is a sentence
 - x2+y > {} is not a sentence
 - Semantics
 - $x+2 \ge y$ is true in a world where x = 7, y = 1
 - $x+2 \ge y$ is false in a world where x = 0, y = 6

Propositional Logic

Propositional logic: Syntax

- Propositional logic is the "simplest" logic
 - The proposition symbols P1, P2, etc. are sentences
 - If S is a sentence, ¬S is a sentence (negation)
 - If S1 and S2 are sentences, S1 \(S2 \) is a sentence (conjunction)
 - If S1 and S2 are sentences, S1 ∨ S2 is a sentence (disjunction)
 - If S1 and S2 are sentences, S1 ⇒ S2 is a sentence (implication)
 - If S1 and S2 are sentences, S1 ⇔ S2 is a sentence (biconditional)

 \neg , \land , \lor , \Rightarrow , \Leftrightarrow are called logic connectives or operators

Sometimes \rightarrow and \leftrightarrow are used

Examples of PL sentences

- P means "It is hot."
- Q means "It is humid."
- R means "It is raining."
- $(P \land Q) \Rightarrow R$
 - "If it is hot and humid, then it is raining"
- Q ⇒ P
 - "If it is humid, then it is hot"

Propositional logic: Semantics

 Each model specifies true/false for each proposition symbol

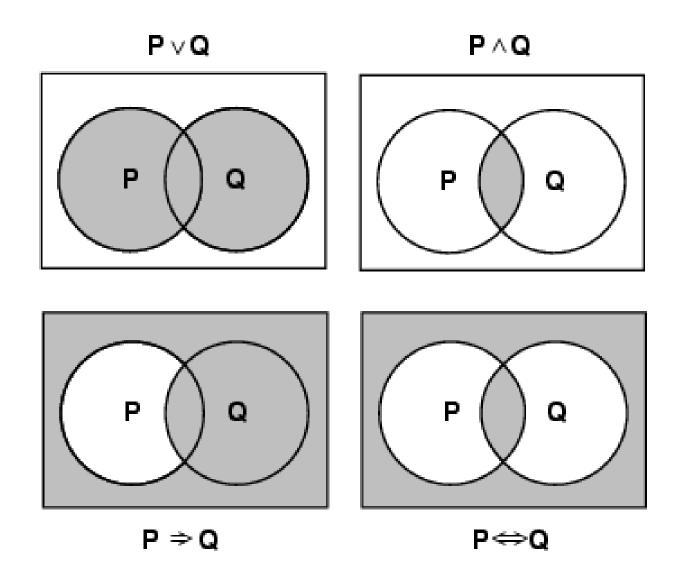
```
- E.g. P_1 P_2 P_3 false true false
```

- Rules for evaluating truth with respect to a model m:
 - − ¬S is true iff S is false
 - S1 ∧ S2 is true iff S1 is true and S2 is true
 - S1 v S2 is true iff S1 is true or S2 is true
 - S1 \Rightarrow S2 is true iff S1 is false or S2 is true
 - S1 ⇔ S2 is true iff S1⇒S2 is true and S2⇒S1 is 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

Venn Diagrams



Material Implication

- S1 ⇒ S2 is true iff S1 is false or S2 is true
- Given the following propositions, is "S1 ⇒ S2" true?
 - S1 means "the moon is made of green cheese"
 - S2 means "the world is coming to an end"
- Material implication does not capture the meaning of "if...
 then".
- See "Paradoxes of material implication" in Wikipedia

Logical equivalence

 Two sentences are logically equivalent iff true in same models

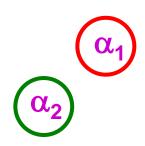
```
(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\beta \wedge \alpha) commutativity of \wedge
          (\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\beta \vee \alpha) commutativity of \vee
((\alpha \land \beta) \land \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \land (\beta \land \gamma)) associativity of \land
((\alpha \vee \beta) \vee \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \vee (\beta \vee \gamma)) associativity of \vee
            \neg(\neg \alpha) \equiv \alpha double-negation elimination
      (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \beta \Rightarrow \neg \alpha) contraposition
      (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \lor \beta) implication elimination
      (\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \land (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)) biconditional elimination
       \neg(\alpha \land \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \lor \neg \beta) de Morgan
       \neg(\alpha \lor \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \land \neg \beta) de Morgan
(\alpha \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee (\alpha \wedge \gamma)) distributivity of \wedge over \vee
(\alpha \vee (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \vee \beta) \wedge (\alpha \vee \gamma)) distributivity of \vee over \wedge
```

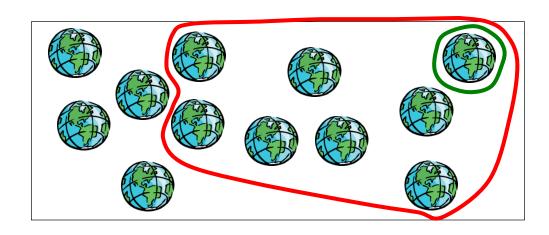
Validity and satisfiability

- A sentence is valid if it is true in all models
 - e.g., A $\vee \neg$ A, A \Rightarrow A, (A \wedge (A \Rightarrow B)) \Rightarrow B
- 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
- Obviously, S is valid iff. ¬S is unsatisfiable

Inference: entailment

- Entailment: $\alpha \models \beta$ (" α entails β " or " β follows from α ") means in every world where α is true, β is also true
 - i.e., the α-worlds are a subset of the β-worlds [models(α) ⊆ models(β)]
- In the example, $\alpha 2 = \alpha 1$





Inference: proof

- A proof (α |- β) is a demonstration of entailment from α to β
 - Method 1: model checking
 - Truth table enumeration to check if models(α) \subseteq models(β)
 - Time complexity always exponential in n ⊗

P1	P2		Pn	α	β				
F	F		F	F	Т				
F	F		Т	Т	Т				
Т	Т		F	Т	Т				
Т	Т		Т	F	F				

Inference: proof

- A proof (α |- β) is a demonstration of entailment from α to β
 - Method 2: application of inference rules
 - Search for a finite sequence of sentences each of which is an axiom or follows from the preceding sentences by a rule of inference
 - Axiom: a sentence known to be true
 - Rule of inference: a function that takes one or more sentences (premises) and returns a sentence (conclusion)

Inference: soundness & completeness

- Sound inference
 - everything that can be proved is in fact entailed
- Complete inference
 - everything that is entailed can be proved
- Method 1 (enumeration) is obviously sound and complete
- For method 2 (applying inference rules), it is much less obvious
 - Example: arithmetic is found to be not complete! (Gödel's theorem, 1931)

Quiz

- What's the connection between complete inference algorithms and complete search algorithms?
- Answer 1: they both have the words "complete...algorithm"
- Answer 2: Formulate inference α |- β as a search problem
 - Initial state: KB contains α
 - Actions: apply any inference rule that matches KB, add conclusion
 - Goal test: KB contains β

Hence any complete search algorithm can be used to produce a complete inference algorithm

Resolution: an inference rule in PL

- Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)
 - conjunction of <u>disjunctions of literals</u> (clauses)
 - Ex
 - (A ∨ ¬B) ∧ (B ∨ ¬C ∨ ¬D)
 - $(\neg B_{1,1} \lor P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \land (\neg P_{1,2} \lor B_{1,1}) \land (\neg P_{2,1} \lor B_{1,1})$

Conversion to CNF

$$\mathsf{B}_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (\mathsf{P}_{1,2} \vee \mathsf{P}_{2,1})$$

1. Eliminate \Leftrightarrow , replacing $\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta$ with $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \land (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)$.

$$(B_{1,1} \Rightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1})) \wedge ((P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1}) \Rightarrow B_{1,1})$$

2.Eliminate \Rightarrow , replacing $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ with $\neg \alpha \lor \beta$.

$$(\neg B_{1,1} \lor P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \land (\neg (P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \lor B_{1,1})$$

3.Move ¬ inwards using de Morgan's rules and double-negation:

$$(\neg B_{1,1} \lor P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \land ((\neg P_{1,2} \land \neg P_{2,1}) \lor B_{1,1})$$

4. Apply distributivity law (∧ over ∨) and flatten:

$$(\neg B_{1,1} \lor P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1}) \land (\neg P_{1,2} \lor B_{1,1}) \land (\neg P_{2,1} \lor B_{1,1})$$

Resolution: an inference rule in PL

Resolution inference rule (for CNF):

Suppose I_i is ¬m_i

$$\frac{I_1 \vee ... \vee I_k, \qquad m_1 \vee ... \vee m_n}{I_1 \vee ... \vee I_{i-1} \vee I_{i+1} \vee ... \vee I_k \vee m_1 \vee ... \vee m_{i-1} \vee m_{i+1} \vee ... \vee m_n}$$

Examples:

Resolution is sound and complete for propositional logic

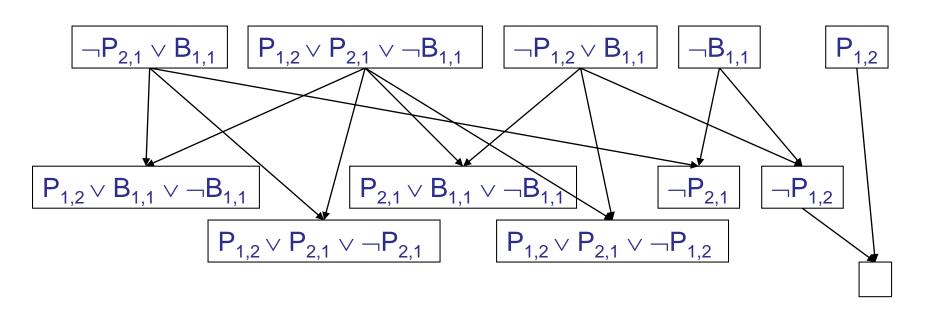
Resolution algorithm

- The best way to prove $KB = \alpha$?
 - Proof by contradiction, i.e., show $KB \land \neg \alpha$ is unsatisfiable
 - 1. Convert $KB \land \neg \alpha$ to CNF
 - Repeatedly apply the resolution rule to add new clauses, until one of the two things happens
 - Two clauses resolve to yield the empty clause, in which case KB entails α
 - b) There is no new clause that can be added, in which case KB does not entail α

Resolution example

$$KB = (B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \lor P_{2,1})) \land \neg B_{1,1}$$

 $\alpha = \neg P_{1,2}$



Horn Logic

Horn logic

- Inference in propositional logic is in general NP-complete!
- Solution: a subset of propositional logic that supports efficient inference Expressiveness vs. Inference difficulty!!
- · Horn logic: only (strict) Horn clauses are allowed
 - A Horn clause has the form:

```
P1 \land P2 \land P3 \dots \land Pn \Rightarrow Q
or alternatively
\neg P1 \lor \neg P2 \lor \neg P3 \dots \lor \neg Pn \lor Q
```

where Ps and Q are non-negated proposition symbols (atoms)

n can be zero, i.e., the clause contains a single atom

Inference in Horn logic

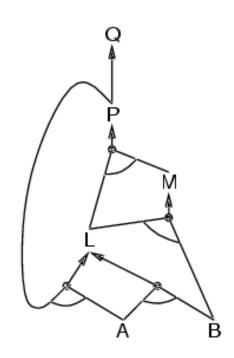
• Modus Ponens $\frac{\alpha 1, \dots, \alpha n, \quad \alpha 1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha n \Rightarrow \beta}{\beta}$

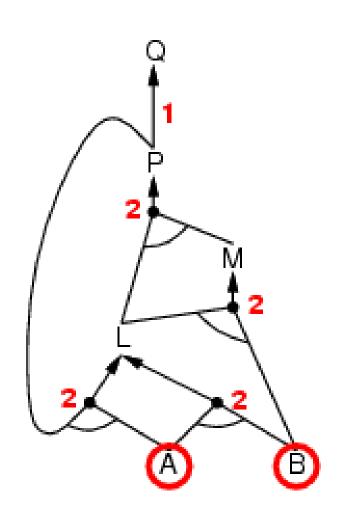
- Modus Ponens is sound and complete for Horn logic
- Inference algorithms (for Horn logic)
 - Forward chaining, backward chaining
 - These algorithms are very natural and run in linear time

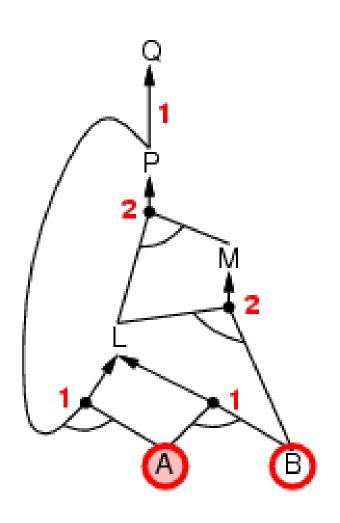
Forward chaining

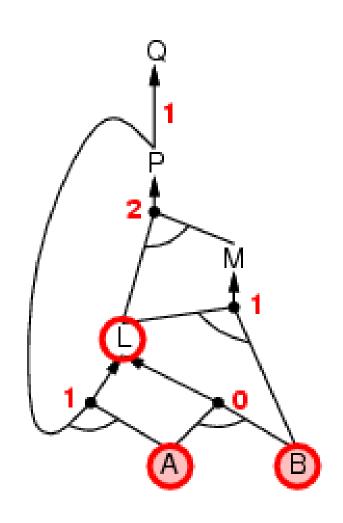
- Idea: to prove KB |= Q
 - Add new clauses into the KB by applying Modus Ponens, until Q is added

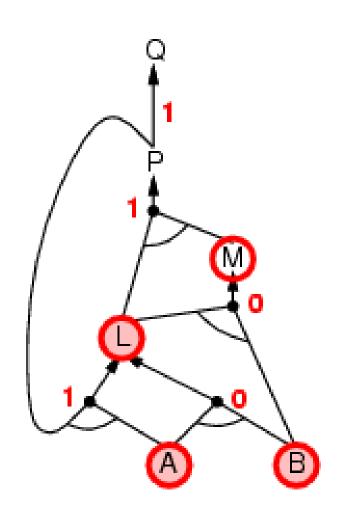
$$P \Rightarrow Q$$
 $L \land M \Rightarrow P$
 $B \land L \Rightarrow M$
 $A \land P \Rightarrow L$
 $A \land B \Rightarrow L$
 A

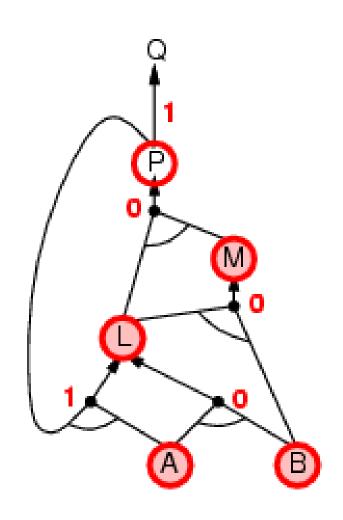


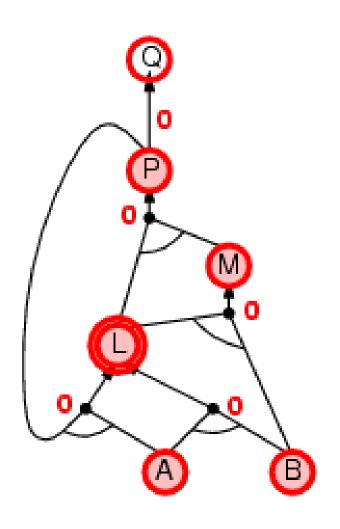


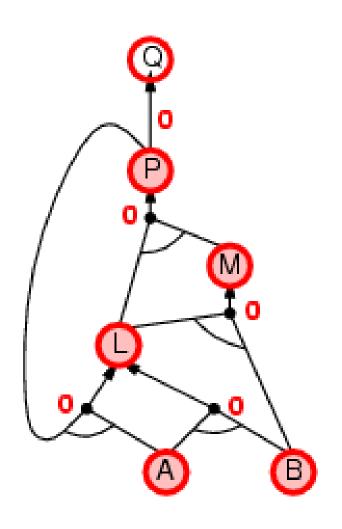




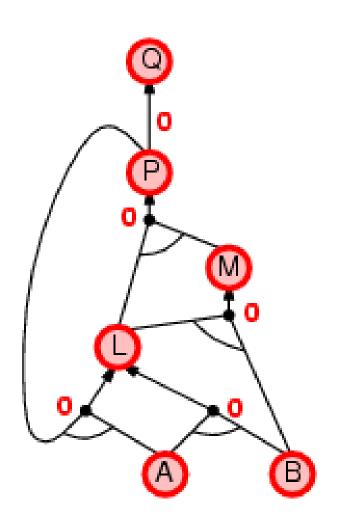






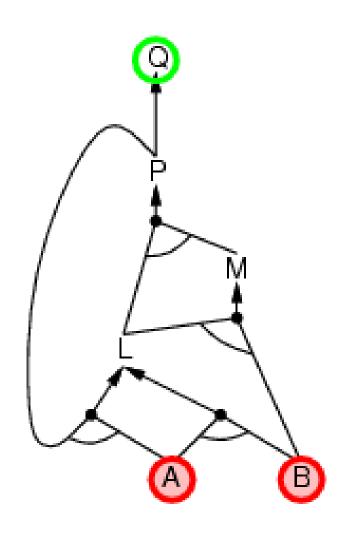


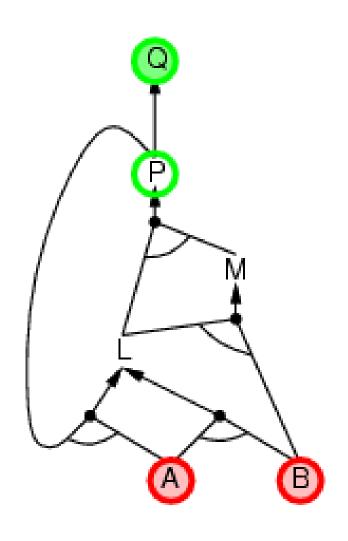
Forward chaining example

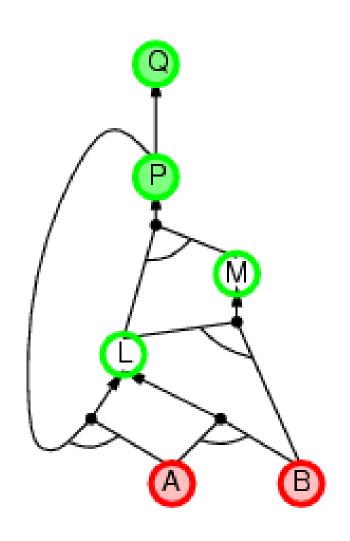


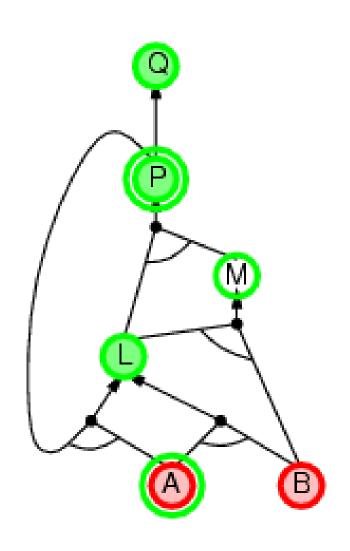
Backward chaining

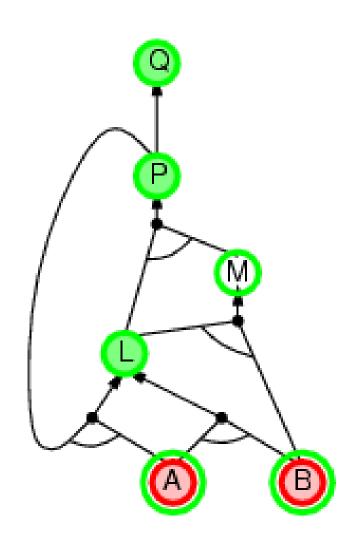
- Idea: work backwards from the query q:
 - to prove q by BC,
 - check if q is known to be true already, or
 - prove by BC all premises of some rule concluding q
- Avoid loops: check if new subgoal is already on the goal stack
- Avoid repeated work: check if new subgoal
 - 1. has already been proved true, or
 - 2. has already failed

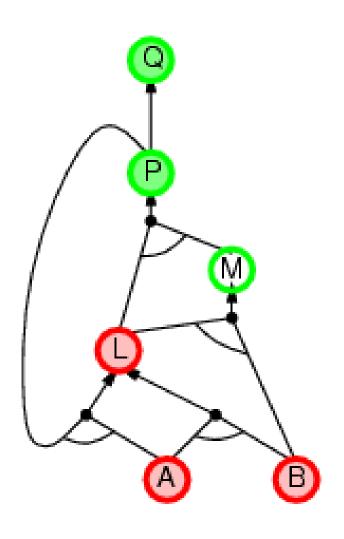


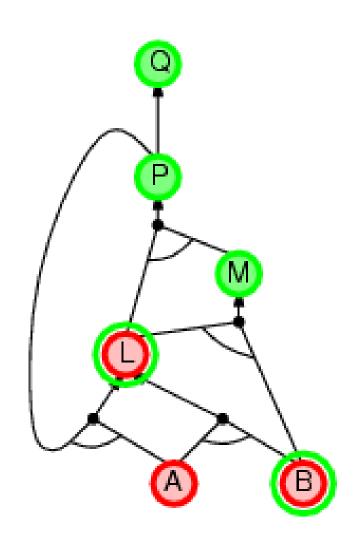


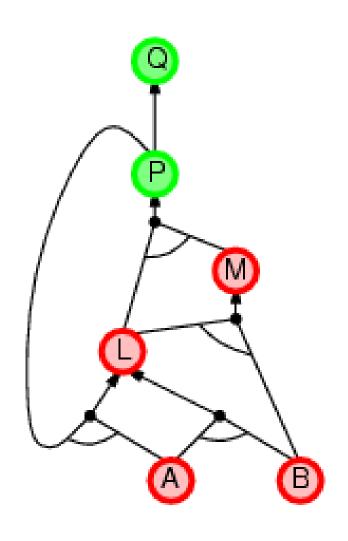


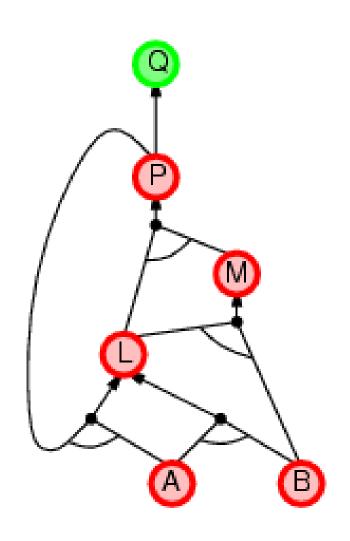


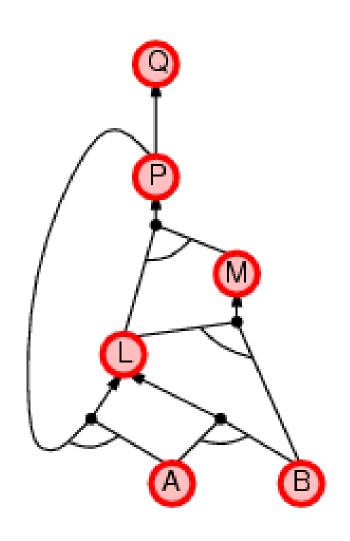












Forward vs. backward chaining

- FC is data-driven, automatic, unconscious processing,
 - e.g., object recognition, routine decisions
 - May do lots of work that is irrelevant to the goal
- BC is goal-driven, appropriate for problem-solving,
 - e.g., Where are my keys? How do I get into a PhD program?
 - Complexity of BC can be much less than linear in size of KB

A Logical Pacman



Partially observable Pacman

- Pacman perceives just the local walls/gaps
- Formulation: what proposition symbols do we need?
 - Pacman's location
 - At_1,1_0 (Pacman is at [1,1] at time 0) At_3,3_1 etc
 - Wall locations
 - Wall_0,0 Wall_0,1 etc
 - Percepts
 - Blocked_W_0 (blocked by wall to my West at time 0) etc.
 - Actions
 - W_0 (Pacman moves West at time 0) E_0 etc.
- NxN world for T time steps => N²T + N² + 4T + 4T = O(N²T) symbols

Sensor model

- State facts about how Pacman's percepts arise...
- Pacman perceives a wall to the West at time t if he is in x,y and there is a wall at x-1,y

```
((At_1,1_0 ∧ Wall_0,1) ∨
(At_1,2_0 ∧ Wall_0,2) ∨
(At_1,3_0 ∧ Wall_0,3) ∨ .... ) ⇒ Blocked_W_0
```

Sensor model

- State facts about how Pacman's percepts arise...
- Pacman perceives a wall to the West at time t if and only if he is in x,y and there is a wall at x-1,y

```
Blocked_W_0 \Leftrightarrow ((At_1,1_0 \land Wall_0,1) \lor (At_1,2_0 \land Wall_0,2) \lor (At_1,3_0 \land Wall_0,3) \lor ....)
```

Transition model

- How does each state symbol at each time get its value?
 - E.g., should At_3,3_17 be T or F?
- A state symbol gets its value according to a successorstate axiom

```
X_t \Leftrightarrow [X_{t-1} \land \neg(\text{some action}_{t-1} \text{ made it false})] \lor [\neg X_{t-1} \land (\text{some action}_{t-1} \text{ made it true})]
```

For Pacman location:

```
At_3,3_17 \Leftrightarrow [At_3,3_16 \land \neg((\negWall_3,4 \land N_16) \lor (\negWall_4,3 \land E_16) \lor ...)] \lor [\negAt_3,3_16 \land ((At_3,2_16 \land \negWall_3,3 \land N_16) \lor (At_2,3_16 \land \negWall_3,3 \land E_16) \lor ...)]
```

Initial state

The agent may know its initial location:

• Or, it may not:

$$At_1,1_0 \lor At_1,2_0 \lor At_1,3_0 \lor ... \lor At_3,3_0$$

Domain constraint

Pacman cannot be in two places at once!

$$\neg(At_1,1_0 \land At_1,2_0) \land \neg(At_1,1_0 \land At_1,3_0) \land \dots$$

 $\neg(At_1,1_1 \land At_1,2_1) \land \neg(At_1,1_1 \land At_1,3_1) \land \dots$

Pacman cannot take two actions at the same time!

$$\neg (E_0 \land S_0) \land \neg (E_0 \land W_0) \land \dots$$

 $\neg (E_1 \land S_1) \land \neg (E_1 \land W_1) \land \dots$

Pacman cannot go into a wall!

At_1,1_0
$$\wedge$$
 N_0 \Rightarrow ¬Wall_1,2

Planning as satisfiability

- SAT solver
 - Input: a logic expression
 - Output: a model (true/false assignments to symbols) that satisfies the expression if such a model exists
- Can we use it to make plans for Pacman (e.g., to move to a goal position)?
 - For T = 1 to infinity, set up the KB as follows and run SAT solver:
 - Initial state, domain constraints, sensor & transition model sentences up to time T
 - Goal is true at time T
 - If a model is returned, extract a plan from action assignment

Planning as satisfiability

- Q: Isn't this a search problem? Any advantage of using logic?
- A: We can use logic to solve not only search problems, but any problems that are representable using the logic.

Logic programming

- Ordinary programming
 - Identify problem
 - Assemble information
 - Figure out solution
 - Encode solution
 - Encode problem instance as data
 - Apply program to data

- Logic programming
 - Identify problem
 - Assemble information
 - − <coffee break> ©
 - Encode info in KB
 - Encode problem instance as facts
 - Ask queries (run SAT solver)

Summary

- Logic
 - Logical Al applies inference to a knowledge base to derive new information
- Propositional logic
 - Syntax
 - Semantics
 - Inference (resolution)
- Horn logic
 - Inference (forward/backward chaining)
- Application of logic to Pacman