

Resolution

Introduction to Artificial Intelligence

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Deduction at the Knowledge Level

What should a deductive inference method compute?

Given a KB and α , determine whether $KB \models \alpha$ holds, or, given an open wff $\alpha(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$, find t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n such that

$$KB \models \alpha(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n).$$

(t_i are closed terms)

A KB is usually **finite**, i.e., $KB = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k\}$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} KB \models \alpha &\text{ iff } \models [(\alpha_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_k) \supset \alpha] \\ &\text{ iff } KB \cup \{\neg \alpha\} \text{ is unsatisfiable} \\ &\text{ iff } KB \cup \{\neg \alpha\} \models \text{FALSE} \end{aligned}$$

stands
($p \wedge \neg p$)

Hence we are looking for a mechanism which either tests for validity, satisfiability, or checks whether FALSE can be inferred.

We will now look at just such a method, using a language very close to FOL (ignoring quantifiers for now).

Clausal Form

Formulas: are sets of clauses.

Clauses: are sets of literals.

Literals: are atomic sentences or their negation
(**positive** or **negative** literals).

Notation:

- If l is a literal, then $\sim l$ is its complement:

$$\sim p \Rightarrow \neg p, \quad \sim (\neg p) \Rightarrow p$$

- To distinguish clauses from formulas:
 - use $[$ and $]$ for clauses: $[p, \sim r, s]$
 - use $\{$ and $\}$ for formulas: $\{[p, \sim r, s], [p, r, s], [\sim p]\}$
 - $[]$ is the **empty clause**, $\{\}$ the empty formula.

Interpreting clauses as FOL-formulas

A formula is understood as a **conjunction** of clauses.

A clause is understood as a **disjunction** of literals.

Literals have their usual meaning.

Hence,

- $\{[p, \sim q], [r], [s]\}$ represents $((p \vee \neg q) \wedge r \wedge s)$.
- $[]$ represents FALSE.
- $\{ \}$ represents TRUE.

In general, every formula (in the new sense) represents a wff in conjunctive normal form.

(i.e. conjunctions of disjunctions of literals)

CNF and DNF

Transformation to CNF

Every propositional wff α can be converted to an α' in conjunctive normal form (CNF) such that $\models \alpha \equiv \alpha'$.

- 1 Eliminate \supset and \equiv with $\alpha \supset \beta \Rightarrow (\neg \alpha \vee \beta)$ etc.
- 2 Push \neg "inwards" with $\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) \Rightarrow (\neg \alpha \vee \neg \beta)$ etc. *De Morgan's Law*
- 3 Distribute \vee over \wedge with $((\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee \gamma) \Rightarrow ((\alpha \vee \gamma) \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma))$.
- 4 Simplify: $(\alpha \vee \alpha) \Rightarrow \alpha$, $\neg \neg \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$, etc.

The result is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals.

Similarly, any wff can be transformed into an equivalent disjunctive normal form (DNF).

Note: Size of the CNF may be exponentially larger than the original.

CNF and Clausal Form

CNF wffs can be identified with clausal forms:

$$(p \vee \neg q \vee r) \wedge (s \vee \neg r) \Rightarrow \{[p, \sim q, r], [s, \sim r]\}.$$

Hence: given a finite KB and α , in order to test whether $\text{KB} \models \alpha$ holds, it suffices to do the following:

- 1 Transform $(\text{KB} \wedge \neg \alpha)$ into CNF.
- 2 Test whether this CNF is satisfiable.

$(\text{KB} \models \alpha \iff \text{KB} \wedge \neg \alpha \text{ is unsat.})$

$$\text{Let } \text{KB} = \alpha_1 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_k$$

$$\text{CNF}(\text{KB} \wedge \neg \alpha) = \text{CNF}(\alpha_1) \wedge \dots \wedge \text{CNF}(\alpha_k) \wedge \text{CNF}(\neg \alpha)$$

The Inference Rule of Resolution

Resolvent

Given two clauses, infer a new clause:

From $\{p\} \cup C_1$ and $\{\sim p\} \cup C_2$ infer $C_1 \cup C_2$.

$C_1 \cup C_2$ is called the **resolvent** of the **input clauses** relative to p .

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Example:

The resolvent of $[w, p, q]$ and $[w, s, \sim p]$ relative to p is $[w, q, s]$.

Special case:

$[p]$ and $[\sim p]$ resolve to $[\]$. (C_1 and C_2 are empty.)

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Derivation

A **derivation** of a clause c from a set of clauses S is a sequence c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n of clauses, where $c_n = c$ and for all c_i ,

- 1 $c_i \in S$ or
- 2 c_i is a resolvent of c_j and c_k with $j, k < i$.

We write $S \longrightarrow c$ for the derivation of c from S .

Why is Resolution Ok?

While resolution is an inference rule at the symbol level, there is a simple connection to logical interpretations at the knowledge level.

Resolvents are **implications** of the input clauses.

Suppose $I \models (p \vee \alpha)$ and $I \models (\neg p \vee \beta)$.

Case 1: Let $I \models p$. Then $I \models \beta$ and hence $I \models (\alpha \vee \beta)$.

Case 2: Let $I \not\models p$. Then $I \models \alpha$ and hence $I \models (\alpha \vee \beta)$.

Therefore, in any case, $I \models (\alpha \vee \beta)$. Thus $\{(p \vee \alpha), (\neg p \vee \beta)\} \models (\alpha \vee \beta)$.

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Special case:

$[p]$ and $[\sim p]$ resolve to $[\]$.

Hence $\{[p], [\sim p]\} \models \text{FALSE}$, or, $\{[p], [\sim p]\}$ is unsatisfiable.

Derivation and Implication (1)

Theorem:

The previous theorem can be generalized to derivations:

$$\text{If } S \longrightarrow c \text{ then } S \models c.$$

Proof idea: Induction over the length of a derivation. Show, using case analysis as above, that $S \models c$.

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Proof idea: Induction over the length of a derivation. Show, using case analysis as above, that $S \models c$.

Note:

The converse does **not** hold, that is, sometimes $S \models c$ holds, yet $S \longrightarrow c$ does not hold.

Example: $\{[\sim p]\} \models [\sim p, \sim q]$, i.e. $\neg p \models (\neg p \vee \neg q)$. But there is no derivation!

Derivation and Implication (2)

On the other hand. . .

Theorem:

Resolution is correct and complete for [].

$$S \longrightarrow [] \text{ iff } S \models \text{FALSE}.$$

[Theorem can be generalized to formulas with quantifiers (see later)].

Hence we have for arbitrary sets of clauses S :

S is unsatisfiable iff $S \longrightarrow []$.

Can be turned into a method to test for unsatisfiability (and, therefore, implication):

Search through the space of derivations and check if [] obtains.

Computing implications

To determine whether $KB \models \alpha$ holds:

- transform KB and $\neg\alpha$ into CNF (results in S);
- test whether $S \rightarrow []$ (If $KB = \{\}$, then test if α is valid.)

Non-deterministic method:

- 1 Test if $[]$ in S is.
If so, then return *unsatisfiable*.
- 2 Test if there are clauses c_1, c_2 in S resolving to c_3 where $c_3 \notin S$.
If not, then return *satisfiable*.
- 3 Add c_3 to S and goto 1.

will always terminate

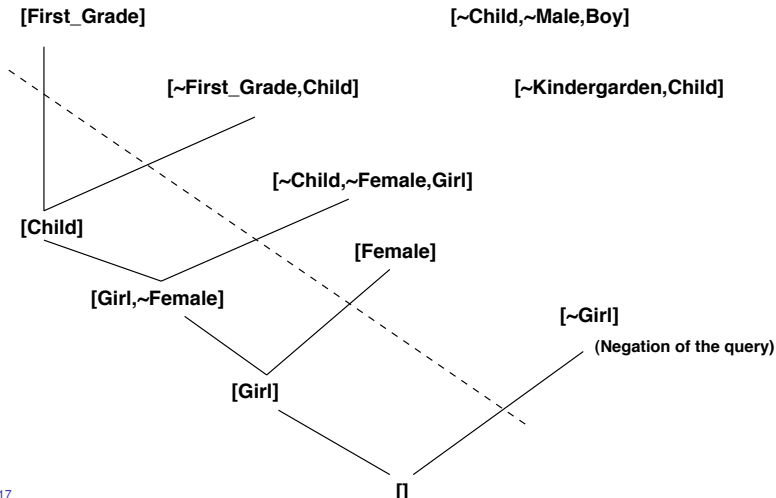
Note: KB needs to be converted to CNF only once.

- Handles multiple queries with the same KB .
- If KB is extended by α , then only the CNF of α needs to be computed.

Example 1

KB = {First_Grade, First_Grade \supset Child, Child \wedge Male \supset Boy,
Kindergarden \supset Child, Child \wedge Female \supset Girl, Female}

Show: $KB \models \text{Girl}$



Quantifiers

Clauses as before, but atoms are $P(t_1, \dots, t_n)$, where t_i may contain variables. (Equality atoms ($t_i = t_j$) are excluded.)

Interpretations as wffs as before, but variables are implicitly understood to be **universally** quantified.

Example: $\{[P(x), \sim R(a, f(b, x))], [Q(x, y)]\}$

stands for $\forall x \forall y \{[R(a, f(b, x)) \supset P(x)] \wedge Q(x, y)\}$.

$$\models \mathcal{R}(a, f(b, x)) \vee \mathcal{P}(x)$$

Substitutions: $\theta = \{x_1/t_1, x_2/t_2, \dots, x_n/t_n\}$.

Notation: If l is a literal and θ a substitution, then $l\theta$ is the result of the substitution. (Analogously we define $c\theta$ for clauses c .)

Ex.: $\theta = \{x/a, y/g(x, b, z)\}: P(x, z, f(x, y))\theta = P(a, z, f(a, g(x, b, z)))$.

A **ground literal** is a literal without variables.

A literal l is an **instance** of l' if there is a θ such that $l = l'\theta$.

Generalizing CNF

To generalize resolution, we first show how to convert FOL wffs into CNF.

FOL \rightarrow CNF

- 1 Eliminate \supset and \equiv .
 - 2 Push \neg inside. ($\neg\forall x\alpha \Rightarrow \exists x\neg\alpha$ etc.)
 - 3 Rename variables to make them syntactically distinct.
(E.g. $\exists x[P(x)] \wedge Q(x) \Rightarrow \exists z[P(z)] \wedge Q(x)$, z a new variable)
 - 4 Eliminate \exists 's (deferred to later).
 - 5 Move \forall 's to the left.
(example E.g. $\alpha \wedge \forall x\beta \Rightarrow \forall x[\alpha \wedge \beta]$, where α does not contain x .)
 - 6 Distribute \vee over \wedge .
 - 7 Simplify.
- } as in the case of prop. logic*

... results in quantified conjunctions of disjunctions.

To obtain clausal form simply eliminate all \forall 's.

Clauses with Variables

Main idea:

A literal with variables represents all its instances. We allow inference over all instances.

Hence, given

$$[P(x, a), \sim Q(x)] \text{ and } [\sim P(b, y), \sim R(b, f(y))],$$

we would like to infer

$$[\sim Q(b), \sim R(b, f(a))]$$

because

$[P(b, a), \sim Q(b)]$ is an instance of $[P(x, a), \sim Q(x)]$ and
 $[\sim P(b, a), \sim R(b, f(a))]$ of $[\sim P(b, y), \sim R(b, f(y))]$.

$$\text{use } \theta = \{x/b, y/a\}$$

First-Order Resolution

Given: clauses $\{l_1\} \cup C_1$ and $\{\sim l_2\} \cup C_2$.

- Rename the variables so that they are different in both clauses.
- For every θ with $l_1\theta = l_2\theta$ we can infer $(C_1 \cup C_2)\theta$.

We say that l_1 and l_2 are **unifiable** or that θ is a **unifier** of the literals.

Derivations are defined as before. Then,

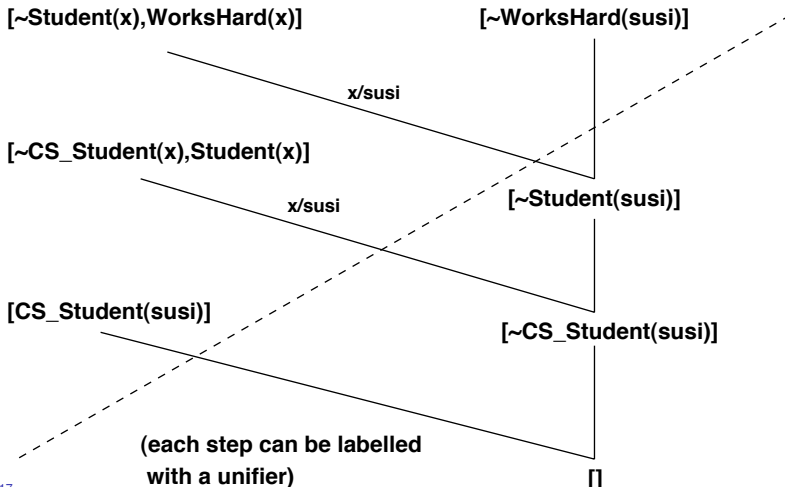
Theorem

$$S \longrightarrow [] \text{ iff } S \models \text{FALSE}.$$

Example 2

KB = $\{\forall x \text{ CS_Student}(x) \supset \text{Student}(x), \forall x \text{ Student}(x) \supset \text{WorksHard}(x),$
 $\text{CS_Student}(\text{susi})\}$

Question: $\text{WorksHard}(\text{susi})$

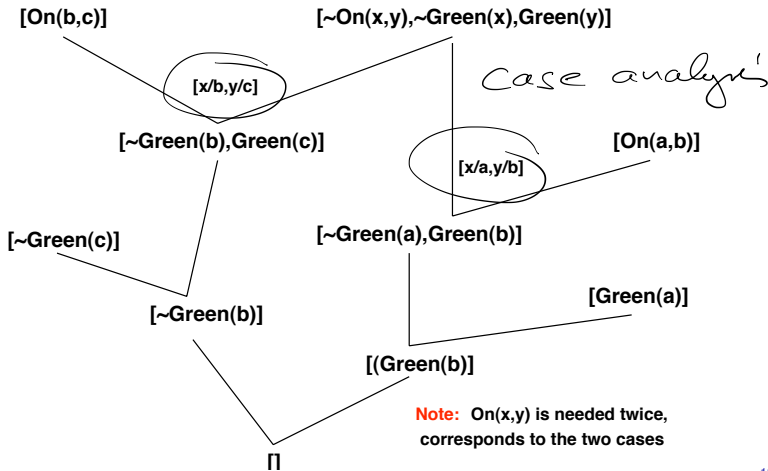


The 3-Blocks Example Revisited

$KB = \{On(a, b), On(b, c), Green(a), \neg Green(c)\}$ (is in CNF!)

$F = \exists x \exists y [On(x, y) \wedge Green(x) \wedge \neg Green(y)]$

Note: there are no \exists to eliminate in $\neg F$,
results in $\{[\sim On(x, y), \sim Green(x), Green(y)]\}$ in CNF.



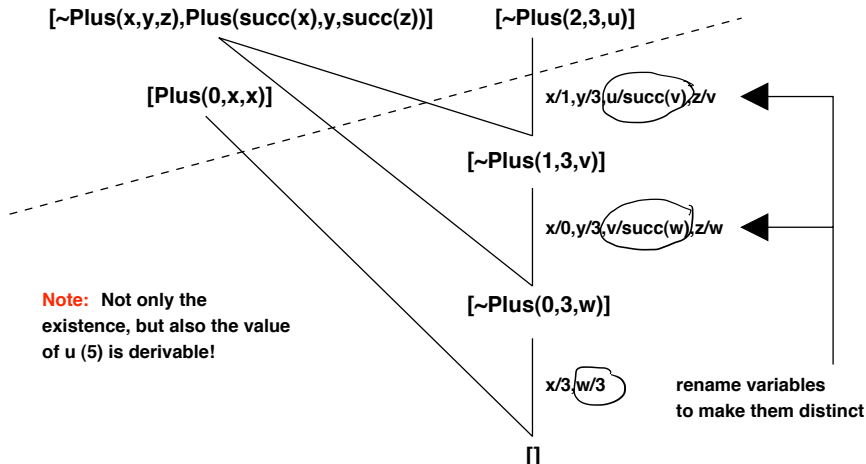
Arithmetic

$$0 + x = x$$

$$x + y = z \Rightarrow (x + 1) + y = z + 1$$

KB = $\{\forall x \text{ Plus}(\text{null}, x, x), \forall x \forall y \forall z \text{ Plus}(x, y, z) \supset \text{Plus}(\text{succ}(x), y, \text{succ}(z))\}$

$F = \exists u \text{ Plus}(2, 3, u)$ (here 0 stands for *null*, 1 for *succ(null)*, etc.)



Answer Extraction

In FOL it is possible to infer $\exists x P(x)$ without inferring $P(t)$ for any t .

e.g. in the 3-blocks problem:

$\exists x \exists y [On(x, y) \wedge Green(x) \wedge \neg Green(y)]$ follows,
yet we cannot say which block it is.

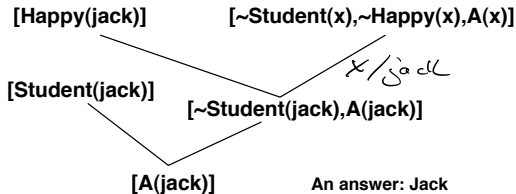
Solution: Answer-predicates

- Replace the query $\exists x P(x)$ by $\exists x [P(x) \wedge \neg A(x)]$,
where A (the **answer predicate**) occurs nowhere else.
- Instead of inferring $[]$ infer a clause which contains only the answer predicate.
- Still results in a sound and complete inference method.

Example Using an Answer Predicate

KB= { *Student(jack)*, *Student(susi)*, *Happy(jack)* }

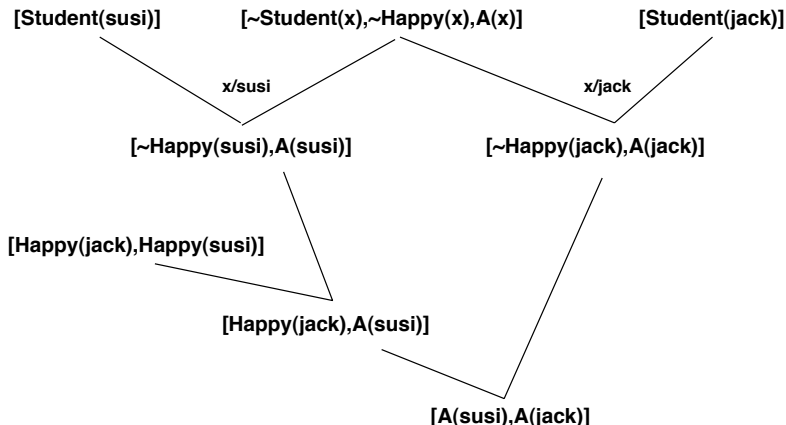
Query: $\exists x[Student(x) \wedge Happy(x)] \cup \neg A(x)$



Disjunctive Answers

Example: KB= { *Student(jack)*, *Student(susi)*, *Happy(jack)* \vee *Happy(susi)* }

Query: $\exists x[Student(x) \wedge Happy(x)]$



Note: Variables may appear in the answer.

Skolemization

So far we ignored \exists when converting into CNF.

e.g: $\exists x \forall y \exists z P(x, y, z)$

must not occur in the KB or the query!

Idea: Make up **names** for those individuals. These are called **Skolem**-constants and -functions.

There is an x : call it a .

For all y there is an z : call them $f(y)$.

(there may be a different z for every y)

Then we get $\forall y P(a, y, f(y))$.

In general:

$$\forall x_1 (\forall x_2 (\dots \forall x_n (\dots \exists y [\dots y \dots] \dots) \dots))$$

is replaced by

$$\forall x_1 (\forall x_2 (\dots \forall x_n (\dots [\dots f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \dots] \dots) \dots)),$$

where f is a function symbol occurring nowhere else.

Why Skolemization is Ok

Skolemization is not equivalence preserving.

e.g.: $\not\models \exists x P(x) \equiv P(a)$. $\models P(a) \supset \exists x P(x)$
 $\not\models \exists x P(x) \supset P(a)$

$$\begin{array}{l|l} \text{Let } I = \langle \mathbb{D}, \bar{\Phi} \rangle & I' = \langle \mathbb{D}, \bar{\Phi}' \rangle \\ \mathbb{D} = \{1, 2\} & \\ \bar{\Phi}(P) = \{1\} & \bar{\Phi}'(P) = \{1\} \\ \bar{\Phi}(a) = 2 & \bar{\Phi}'(a) = 1 \\ I \models P(a) & I' \not\models P(a) \\ I \models \exists x P(x) & \end{array}$$

Why Skolemization is Ok

Skolemizations is not equivalence preserving.

e.g.: $\not\models \exists x P(x) \equiv P(a)$.

But **satisfiability** is retained:

Theorem

α is satisfiable iff α' is satisfiable, where α' is the result of Skolemization.

That is sufficient for resolution!

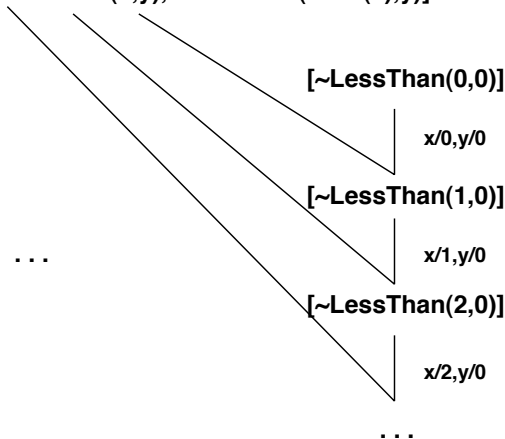
A Problem

$$(x+1) < y \Rightarrow x < y$$

KB = $\{\forall x \forall y \text{LessThan}(\text{succ}(x), y) \supset \text{LessThan}(x, y)\}$

$F = \text{LessThan}(\text{null}, \text{null})$ should **fail** because $\text{KB} \not\models F$. (since it fails for arithmetic)

[LessThan(x,y), ~LessThan(succ(x),y)]



An infinite branch of resolvents! Simple DFS won't work to derive [].

Undecidability

Is it possible in general to detect infinite branches?

No! FOL is too powerful.

FOL is as expressive as Turing machines.

The above problem is as hard as the [Halting Problem](#).

There is no function which does the following:

Function FOL-Sat [clauses] =

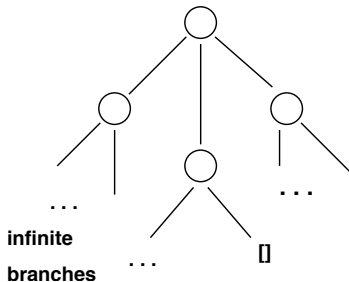
 If clauses are unsatisfiable

 then return YES

 else return NO.

Resolution is Complete

If the set of clauses is unsatisfiable, then there is a branch with $[]$ as a leaf node.



Hence **Breadth-First Search** guarantees that $[]$ will be found if derivable.
Search does not necessarily terminate if the clauses are satisfiable.

⇒ Satisfiability in FOL is **semi-decidable**.

Too Specific Unifiers

Termination or even efficiency cannot be guaranteed in general,
... but there is room for improvement.

One possibility:

Reduce search redundancy by keeping the search as general as possible.

Example:

$[\dots, P(g(x), f(x), z)] \quad [\sim P(y, f(w), a), \dots]$ is unifiable with

$\theta_1 = \{x/b, y/g(b), z/a, w/b\}$

yields: $P(g(b), f(b), a)$

but also with

$\theta_2 = \{x/f(z), y/g(f(z)), z/a, w/f(z)\}$

yields: $P(g(f(z)), f(f(z)), a)$

Sometimes $[]$ is not derivable because of too specific substitutions.

Most General Unifier

MGU

θ is a **most general unifier** (MGU) of the literals l_1 and l_2 iff

- 1 θ unifies l_1 and l_2
- 2 for every unifier θ' there is a substitution θ^* such that $\theta' = \theta\theta^*$

Example:

In the previous example the MGU is

$$\theta = \{x/w, y/g(w), z/a\}$$

and therefore

$$\theta_1 = \theta\{w/b\}$$

$$\theta_2 = \theta\{w/f(z)\}$$

MGU's make the least commitment as unifiers.

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*MGU is unique up to name of variables
(without "=")*

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and therefore

$$\theta_1 = \theta\{w/b\}$$

$$\theta_2 = \theta\{w/f(z)\}$$

Theorem

Resolution is complete when restricted to MGUs.

Computing the MGU

Computing the MGU for a set of literals l_i :

- 1 Start with $\theta = \{\}$.
- 2 If all $l_i\theta$ are identical, then **success**: θ is the MGU.

Otherwise look for the disagreement set DS ,

e.g. $P(a, f(a, g(z)), \dots) \quad P(a, f(a, u), \dots$

$DS = \{u, g(z)\}$.

- 3 Find a variable $v \in DS$ and a term $t \in DS$ which does not contain v (occur check). Otherwise **abort**: not unifiable.

- 4 $\theta = \theta\{v/t\}$

- 5 Goto 2.

not unifiable
because we can
only substitute
variables

$DS = \{f(x), g(y)\} \quad \text{✗}$
 $DS = \{u, g(u)\} \quad \text{✗}$

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worst case complexity: exponential (in the input)

Note:

There are faster **linear** MGU-algorithms.

Herbrand Theorem

Sometimes FOL theories (sets of FOL sentences) can be transformed into propositional sentences.

Let S be a set of clauses.

- The **Herbrand universe** of S is the set of all terms which can be formed from the functions and terms in S .

e.g.: if S contains the unary function f and constants c and d , then

$U = \{c, d, f(c), f(d), f(f(c)), f(f(d)), f(f(f(c))), \dots\}$. (if no constant mentioned, invent one)

- the **Herbrand base** of S is

$\{c\theta \mid c \in S \text{ and } \theta \text{ replaces variables by terms from the Herbrand univ.}\}$.

↑
ground clauses.

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Theorem

S is satisfiable iff the Herbrand base is satisfiable.

When is This Useful?

e.g. Datalog

Herbrand bases have no variables and are therefore **propositional**, but they are generally infinite.

- finite if the Herbrand universe is finite; (no function symbols besides constants)
- sometimes type restrictions can be used to obtain a finite Herbrand basis.
⇒ use $f(t)$ only if t is of the right type.

e.g. $\forall x \forall y \text{ fatherOf}(x) = y \Rightarrow \text{Person}(x) \wedge \text{Male}(y) \wedge x \neq y$
 $\forall x \text{ Person}(x) \equiv (x = \text{john} \vee x = \text{mary} \vee x = \text{ben} \vee \dots)$
 $\forall x \text{ Male}(x) \equiv (x = \text{john} \vee x = \text{ben} \vee \dots)$
+ unique names : $\text{john} \neq \text{mary}$

Resolution is Hard!

First-order resolution does not always terminate.

What about the propositional case?

Armin Haken showed that there are clauses $\{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$ such that the shortest derivation of \perp contains 2^n clauses.

Methods based on Resolution run in **exponential time** (in the worst case).

Is that a problem only of resolution?

Probably not!

Testing satisfiability of propositional clauses (SAT) is **NP-complete** [Cook 1971].

While not proven it seems unlikely that NP-complete problems can be solved in polynomial time.

today SAT-solvers are able to
handle clauses with millions of var.

What Does That Mean for KR?

Problem: The entailments of a KB are usually only useful when they can be derived fast.

Entailment in FOL is probably too hard for KR.

What to do?

- Leave search control to the user.
- Use less expressive languages (examplee.g. Horn clauses)

Description Logic (→ semantic web)

Note: Sometimes it's ok to wait a long time (e.g. when proving mathematical theorems).

In any case, it is important to avoid **redundancies**, or in general, to tune resolution in order to shorten the search.

Strategies for Resolution

1. Eliminating clauses

- Pure clauses

A clause contains a literal l , and $\sim l$ occurs nowhere.
Such a clause can never help to derive $[]$.

- Tautologies

Clauses which contain both a literal and its negation
are useless in deriving $[]$.

$$[p, \sim p]$$

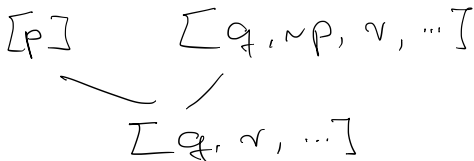
- Subsumed clauses

A clause which contains a superset of the literals of another clause:

- only the shorter clause is needed to derive $[]$;
- can be generalized to allow for substitutions.

$$[p, \sim r, s] \quad [x, p, s, q, \sim r]$$

Strategies 2



2. Ordering strategies

There are many ways to vary the order of search; a simple and effective way is the **unit clause preference**

Always try to resolve with unit clauses first, since those always “shorten” the resolvent.

3. Set of support

KB is usually satisfiable. Thus it makes little sense to resolve two clauses whose ancestors are from the KB only.

Contradictions result from the interaction with the negation of the query ($\neg F$).

Hence it is appropriate to require that one of the input clauses has an ancestor in $\neg F$.

Strategies 3

Prolog does
backward chaining.
(based on Horn clauses)
i.e. at most 1 positive literal
in a clause
 $p \supset q$

4. Operators with a sense of direction

$[\sim p, q]$ can be interpreted in two ways.

from p infer q

(forward)

to derive q first derive p

(backward)

In the first case

one would only resolve $[\sim p, q]$ with $[p, \dots]$ to obtain $[q, \dots]$.

In the second case

one would only resolve $[\sim p, q]$ with $[\sim q, \dots]$ to obtain $[\sim p, \dots]$.

$\forall x \text{ BattleShip}(x) \supset \text{Greg}(x)$
use only in forward direc.

$\forall x \text{ Herman}(x) \supset \text{Has}(x, \text{heart})$
use in backward direct.