

Artificial Intelligence

Algorithms and Applications with Python

Chapter 05



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5 Knowledge Reasoning - Fundamental Algorithms and Concepts

5.1 Knowledge Reasoning

5.2 Propositional Logic

5.3 First Order Logic

5.4 Planning and Acting

5.5 Knowledge Representation and Engineering

Lectorial 3: Building a Rule-based Agent for Credit Scoring

► What we will learn:

- We will design logical agents that can form representations of the world
- For that purpose we will formalize knowledge and reasoning processes with representation languages like propositional or first-order logic
- Use inference processes to derive new representations about the world, and use these new representations for decision-making and planning



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► Duration:

- 270 min + 90 min (Lectorial)

► Relevant for Exam:

- 5.1 – 5.2, 5.4

5.1 Problem: Search-Approach Can Not Handle Many Real-World Problems



- In the previous chapter build intelligent agents by modelling problems as search problems, and using clever search algorithms to solve these problems
- **Problem:** Search algorithms generate graphs or trees with successors and evaluate them, but do not “understand” anything

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5.1 Motivation of Knowledge-Reasoning in Artificial Intelligence

- In the past we tried to create intelligent agents by modelling problems as search problems, and using clever search algorithms
- However, as we have discussed, most real-world problems do not have well-defined solutions and hence our „search-approach“ will not work for these kind of problems human can solve...
- What do humans do?
→ Humans know things and use it to act.
- Or, as AI researchers say, they have **real-world knowledge** and **do reasoning** to solve real-world problems



Adapted from Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016) | Quote and Image source: Tyrion Lannister, Game of Thrones, Season 6, Episode 2

5.1 New Approach: Using Knowledge to Create Artificial Intelligence


- Knowledge and reasoning is important when dealing with partially observable environments
- Knowledge-based agents and systems benefit from knowledge expressed in general forms combining in their inference process
- **Our new approach:** Find a way to represent knowledge and implement inference procedures to derive solutions in our agents

D


Knowledge-based System

An expert system or knowledge-based system is one that solves problems by applying knowledge that has been garnered from one or more experts in a field (Norvig, 1992)

5.1 Example: Credit Scoring System



The screenshot shows the Volkswagen Bank website with the text "Volkswagen Bank im KreditTestsieger.ORG - Test". Below this is the Volkswagen logo and "Volkswagen Financial Services". A blue button at the bottom says ">> KREDITANGEBOT ANFORDERN <<".



The image shows two people in business suits shaking hands in front of a blurred car, symbolizing a successful transaction or agreement.

? How can you / an AI conclude if a customer gets a credit or not?

Scenario

You work in a big car company and are asked to build a credit scoring agent to automate most of the car credits. Consider the following aspects:

- Customers have to register successfully with their credit card and correct pin when they want to buy the car with a financial leasing contract.
- Furthermore, the customer has to pay at least the minimum montly rate
- If he has no other open car credits, the contract is accepted, otherwise there has to be a manual check of the financial situation

Variable	Values
Credit Card	{accepted, not accepted}
PIN	{true, false}
Montly credit rate	{ \leq minimum amount, $>$ minimum amount}
Other open credits	{true, false}
Accept	{yes, no}
Manual check	{ok, not ok}

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014) | Image source: [Pixabay](#) (2019) / [CC0](#)

5.1 Implement Credit Reasoning

- The central point of a knowledge-based system is to represent the problem-related knowledge as directly as possible
- For that purpose we have to keep the actual processing separate from knowledge representation
- One very intuitive approach for such a direct knowledge representation is the use of rules.

D A rule is a logical statement that relates two or more objects and includes two parts, the premise and the conclusion (Castillo, E et al. 2012, p.23)

```
[CS.1]
if
    CREDIT_CARD = accepted and
    PIN = true and
    MONTHLY_CREDIT_RATE > MIN_AMOUNT and
    OTHER_CREDITS = false

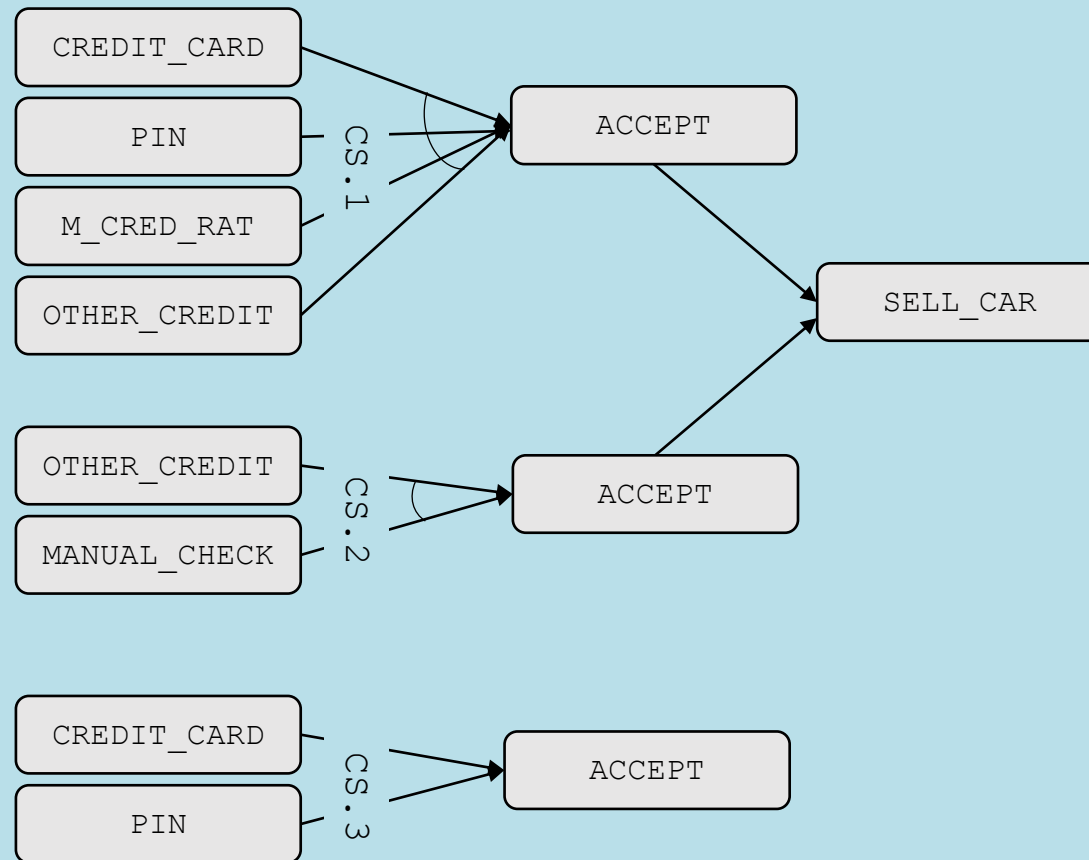
then
    ACCEPT = yes
```

```
[CS.2]
if
    OTHER_CREDITS = true and
    MANUAL_CHECK = not_ok

then
    ACCEPT = no
```

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014)

5.1 Rule Networks



[CS.1]

if

CREDIT_CARD = accepted **and**
PIN = true **and**
MONTHLY_CREDIT_RATE > MIN_AMOUNT **and**
OTHER_CREDITS = false

then

ACCEPT = yes

[CS.2]

if

OTHER_CREDITS = true **and**
MANUAL_CHECK = not_ok

then

ACCEPT = no

[CS.3]

if

CARD_DECLINED = true **or**
SCHUFA_WARNING = true

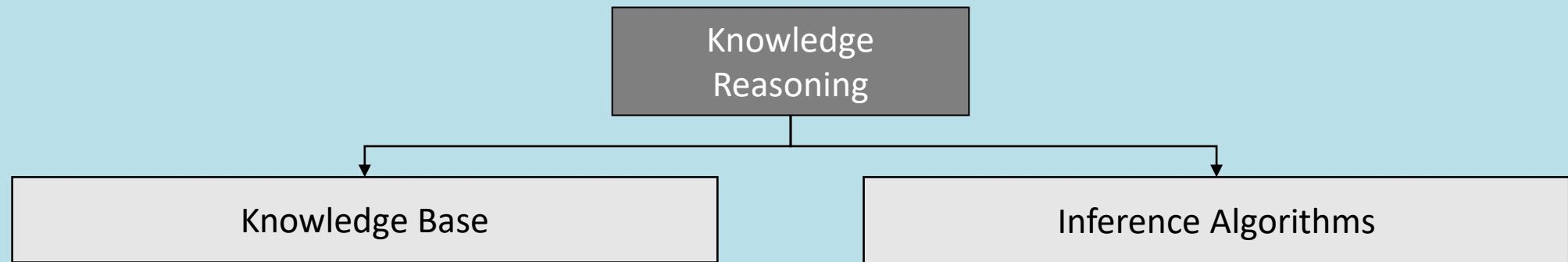
then

ACCEPT = no

5.1 Knowledge Reasoning as Researchfield in Artificial Intelligence

D Knowledge Reasoning

Knowledge Representation is the study of how “what we know” can at the same time be represented as comprehensibly as possible and reasoned with as effectively as possibly from an information system (based on Brachman & Levesque, 1992).



Seperation of concerns:

- clear distinction of problem description and problem solution
- knowledge of domain can be expressed directly

Adapted from Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.1 Using Knowledge Reasoning in Artificial Intelligence

Inference Algorithms
(Domain-independent algorithms)

+

Knowledge Base
(Domain-specific content)

= Intelligent Decision

- Knowledge base (KB) = set of sentences in a formal language
- There are mainly two approaches to implement the agent's logic (or other type of AI system):
 - Declarative approach
 - Procedural approach
- Distinction between data and program



Knowledge Base

The component of an expert system that contains the system's knowledge organized in collection of sentences about the system's domain.

Adapted from Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

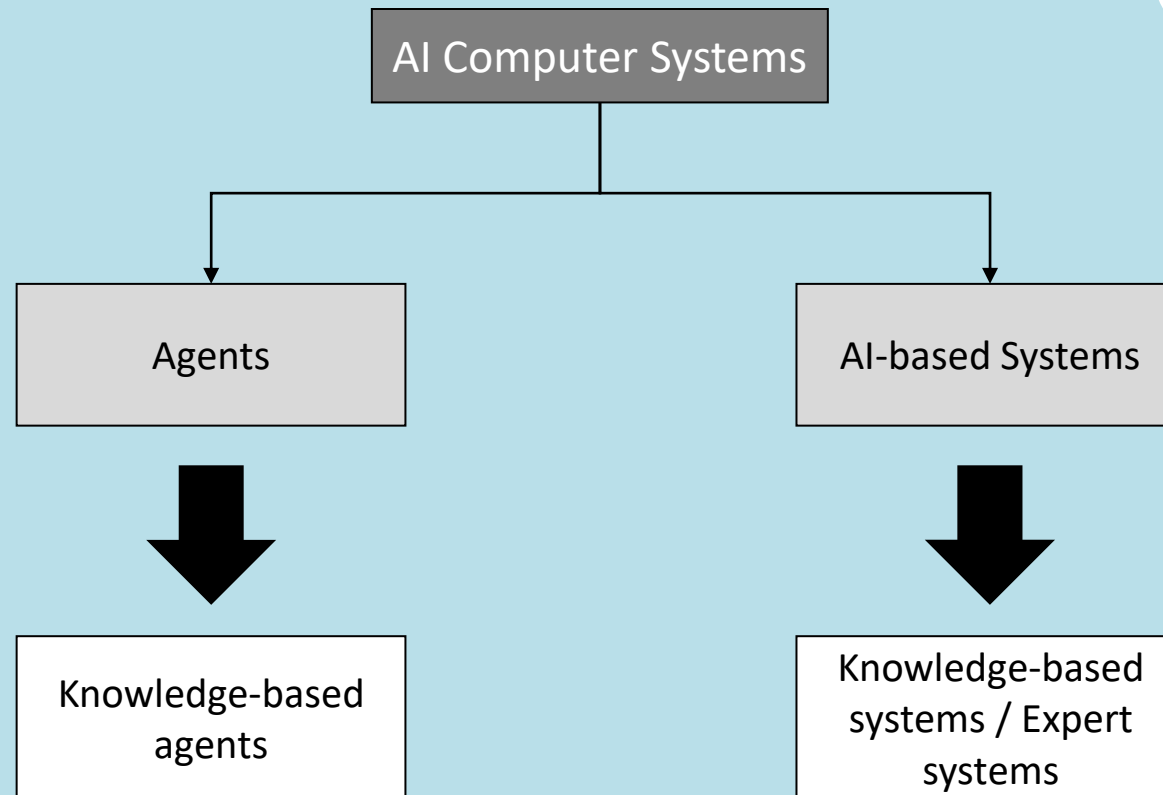
5.1 Various Levels of Knowledge-based Agents and Systems

- **Knowledge level:** What the agent knows, and the agent's goals.
- **Logical level:** how the knowledge representation of knowledge is stored. At this level, sentences can be encoded into different logics
- **Implementation level:** physical representation of logic and knowledge. At the implementation level agent perform actions as per logical and knowledge level.

5.1 Use Cases of Knowledge Reasoning

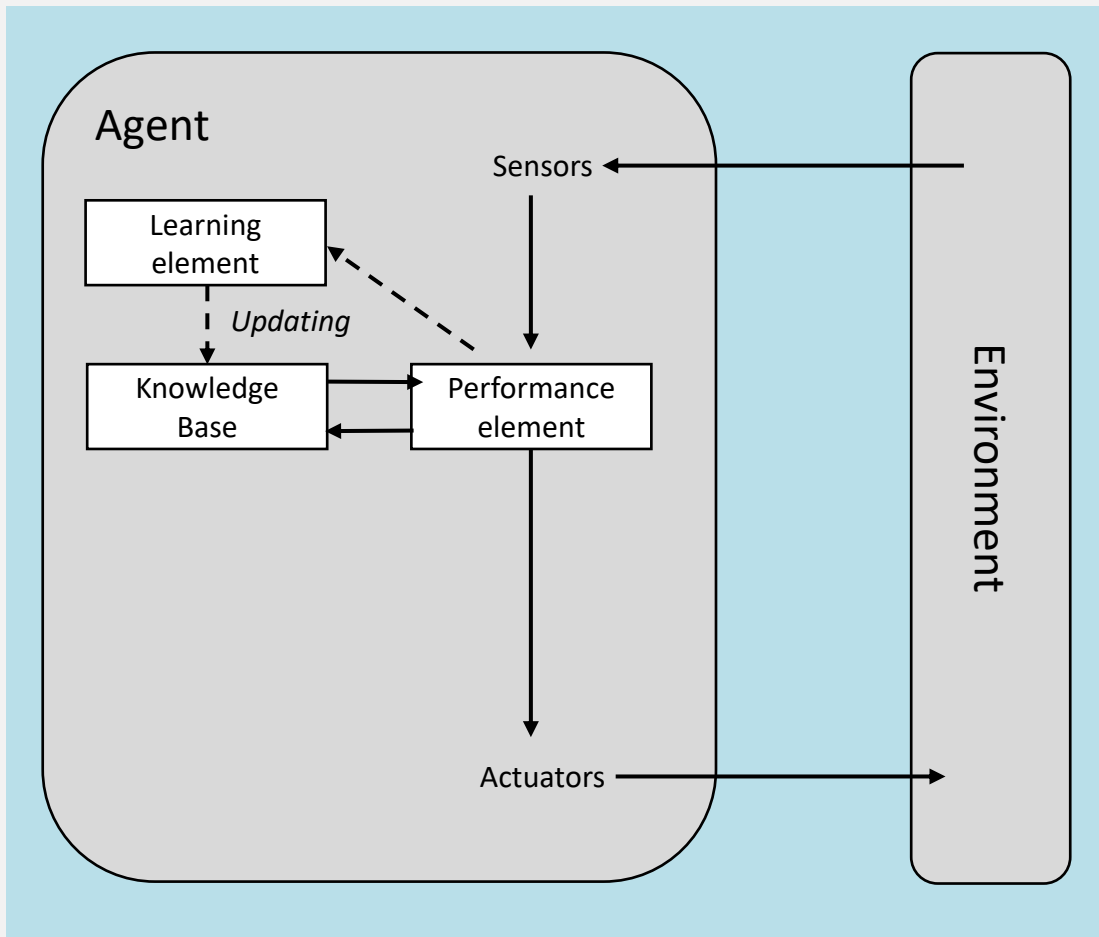


Go back to lecture 1 to learn more about these two types of computer systems



5.1 Knowledge-based Agent

- Adds percepts and action's results to knowledge base, and derives actions from the knowledge base



Adapted from Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

Inference Procedure

1. Agent TELLS the knowledge base what it perceives.
2. Agent ASKS the knowledge base what action it should perform
3. The Agent TELLS the knowledge base which action was chosen, and then executes the action.

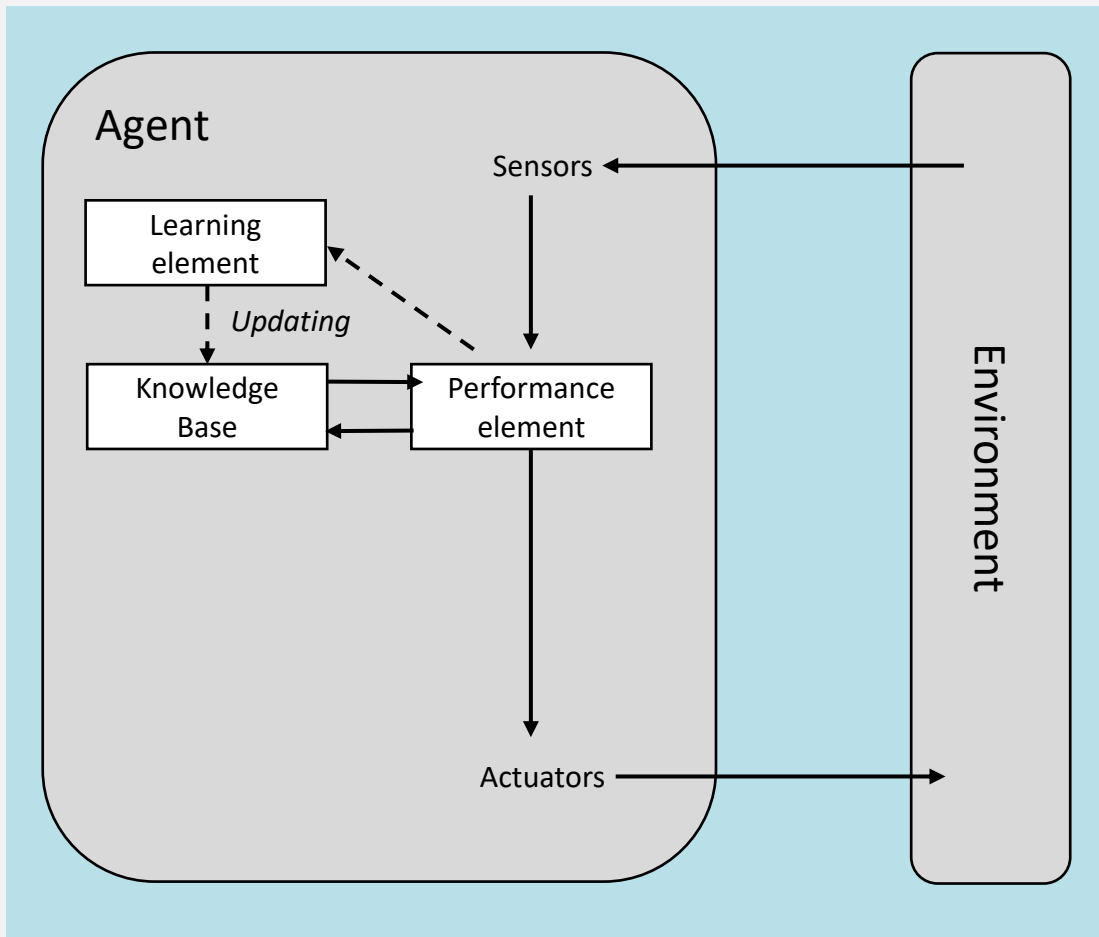
Knowledge Base

Knowledge is represented in the knowledge base

- Case-Specific knowledge (temporary)
- Rule-based knowledge
 - Domain knowledge
 - General knowledge

5.1 Knowledge-based Agent

- Adds percepts and action's results to knowledge base, and derives actions from the knowledge base



Algorithm: Knowledge-based Agent

persistent:

*KB, a knowledge base t ,
a counter, initially 0, indicating time*

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

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

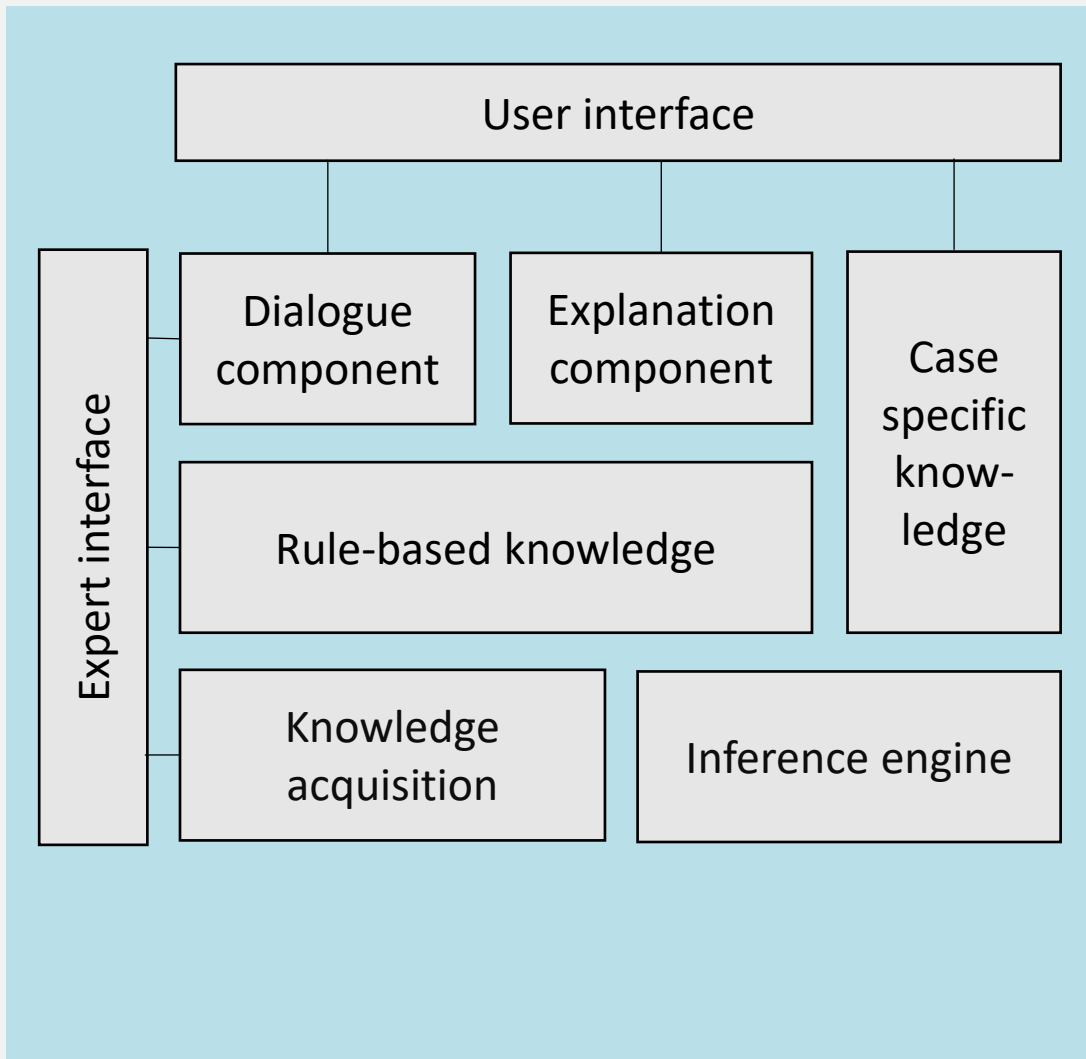
TELL($KB, MAKE - ACTION - SENTENCE(action, t)$)

$t \leftarrow t + 1$

return action

Adapted from Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.1 Architecture of Knowledge-based System (KBS)

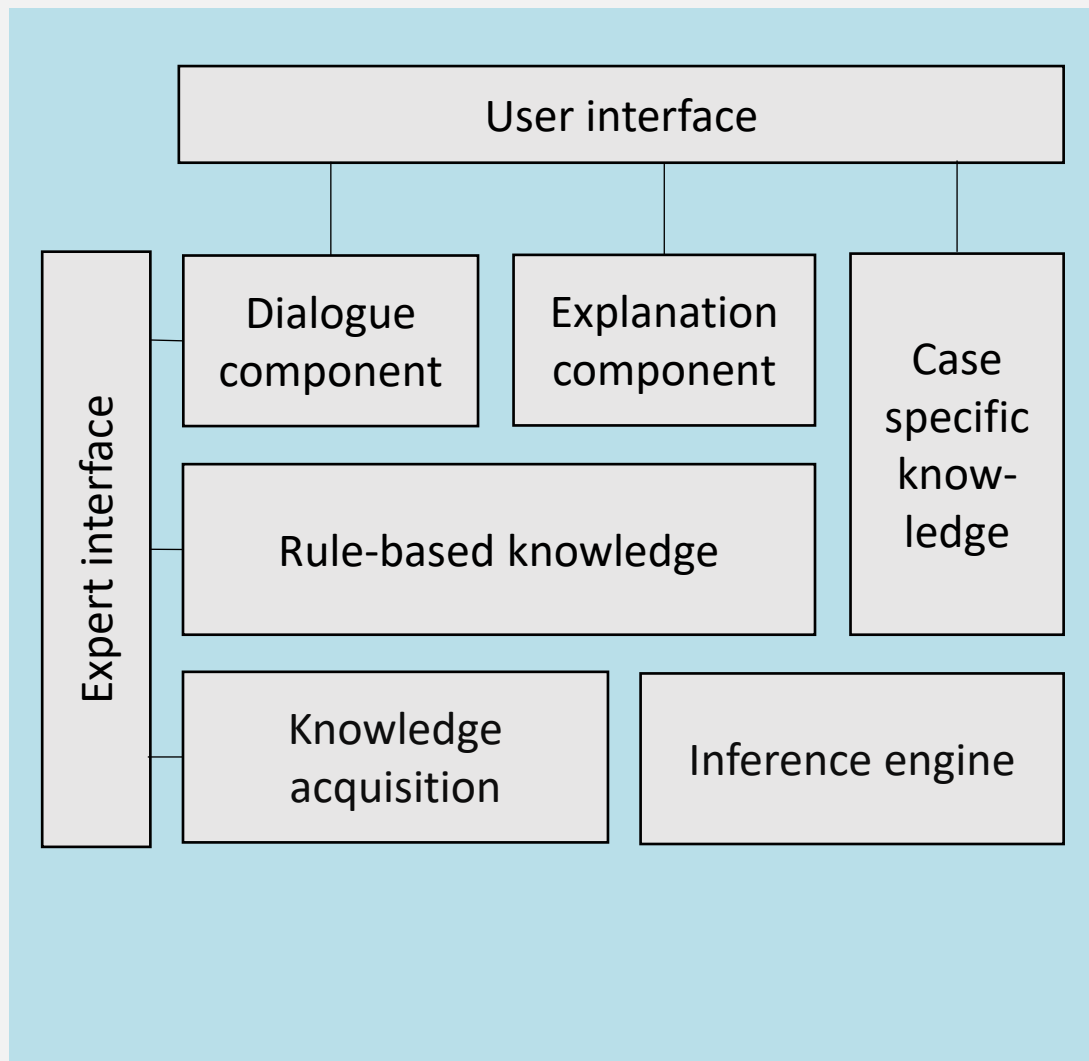


Adapted from Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014)

From Knowledge to Expert Knowledge

- We assume, that experts have above-average abilities to solve problems in a specific field
- Experts can solve problems using incomplete and uncertain Solving knowledge
- Experts use heuristic knowledge to solve specific problems and exploit their experience
- Experts are rare and expensive, and their knowledge can be lost if they are lost

5.1 Architecture of Knowledge-based System (KBS)



Adapted from Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014)

Inference Engine

- An inference engine tries to derive answers from a knowledge base
- It is the „brain“ of the expert system that provides a methodology for reasoning about the information in the knowledge base, and for formulating conclusions

Interfaces

- **Expert interface:** Add and store new expert knowledge in the knowledge base, revise existing knowledge
- **User interface:** Specify situation and ask for expert advice

5.1 Example: Popular Knowledge-based Systems

- **Dendral:** Pioneering work developed in 1965 for NASA at Stanford University
- **Drilling Advisor:** Developed in 1983 by Teknowledge for oil companies to replace human drilling advisors
- **Mycin:** Developed in 1970 at Stanford by Shortcliffe to assist internists in diagnosis and treatment of infectious diseases
- **Xcon/RI:** Developed in 1978 to assist the ordering of computer systems by automatically selecting the system components based on customer's requirements

Adapted from Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014)

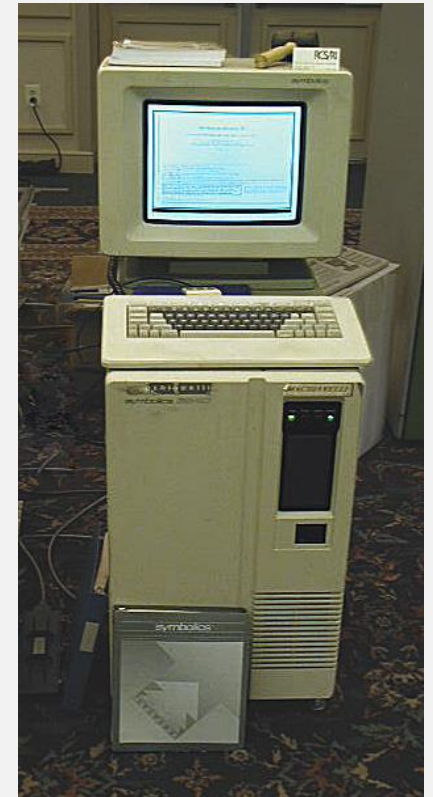


Image source: ↗ [A Symbolics Lisp Machine](#) (2019) by Michael L. Umbricht and Carl R. Friend (Retro-Computing Society of RI) / ↗ [CC BY-SA 3.0](#)

5.1 Todo Next Chapters: Knowledge-Based Agent Requirements

- To build knowledge-based agents we have to specify the knowledge (what an agent has to know), and the agent logic (how knowledge is processed in the agent)
- For that purpose:
 - An agent should be able to represent states, actions, etc.
 - An agent should be able to incorporate new percepts, and to update internal representations of the world
 - An agent can deduce hidden properties of the world, and deduce appropriate actions

Adapted from Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

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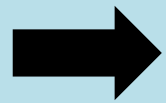
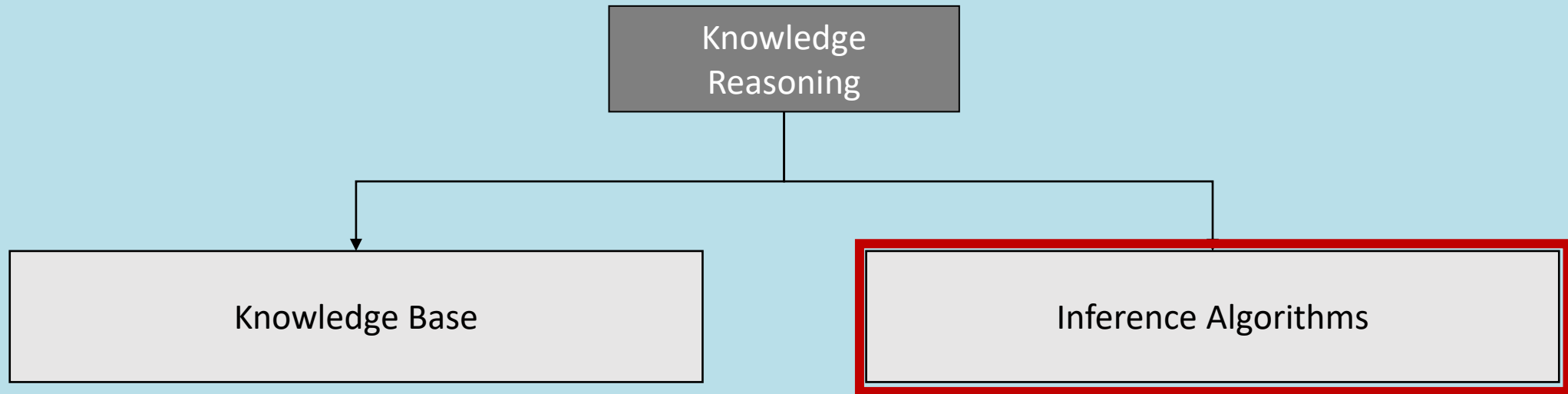
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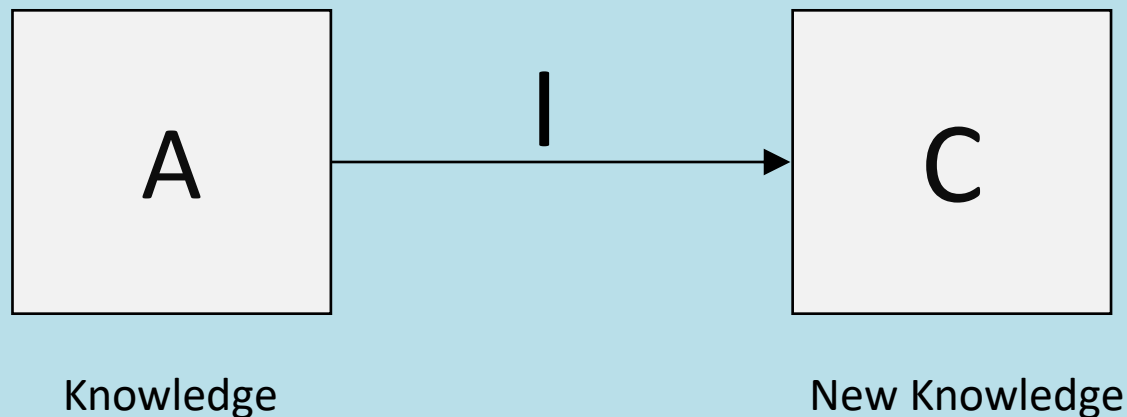
5.2 Inference



Define formal system for handling facts so that in each case where the agent draws conclusion from the available information, that conclusion is guaranteed to be correct if the available information is correct.

5.2 What is Reasoning?

- A reasoning process usually consists of two parts: antecedent, inference rule, and conclusion
- The objective of reasoning is to find the missing component

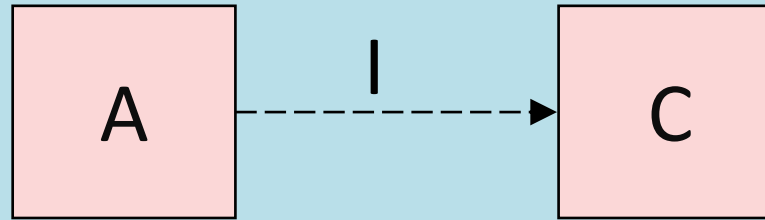


- Conclusion is missing: Deduction
- Inference is missing: Induction
- Antecedent is missing: Abduction

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Peirce, C (1931, 103 ff.)

5.2 Induction

Visualization



Characteristics

- Given a set of D of basic examples. The hypothesis H follows inductively from D and background knowledge B
- $\Leftrightarrow B \cup H \rightarrow D, B \not\models D, B \cup D \not\models \neg H.$
- **Application:** Data Mining, Economy

Case: These beans are [randomly selected] from this bag.

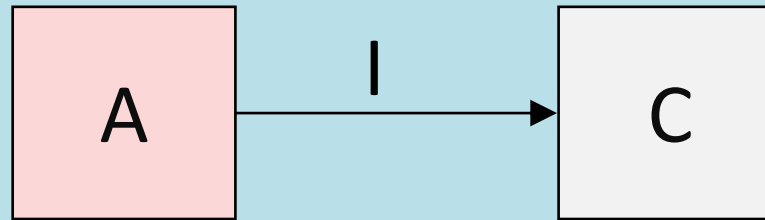
Result: These beans are white.

Rule: All the beans from this bag are white.

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Peirce, C (1931, 103 ff.)

5.2 Deduction

Visualization



Characteristics

- From a set of formulas F follows B
 \Leftrightarrow There is a sequence of rules to derive B

- $$\frac{F, F \rightarrow B}{B}.$$

- **Application:** Mathematics

Rule: All the beans from this bag are white.

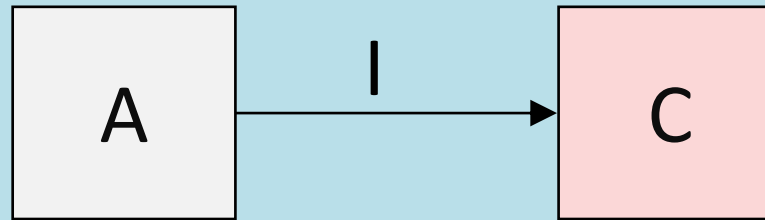
Case: These beans are from this bag.

Result: These beans are white.

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Peirce, C (1931, 103 ff.)

5.2 Abduction

Visualization



Characteristics

- H follows from background knowledge B and observations D
- $\text{abductive} \iff B \cup H \rightarrow D$
- **Application:** Medical Diagnosis, Car Repairing, Failure Explanation

Rule: All the beans from this bag are white.

Result: These beans [oddly] are white

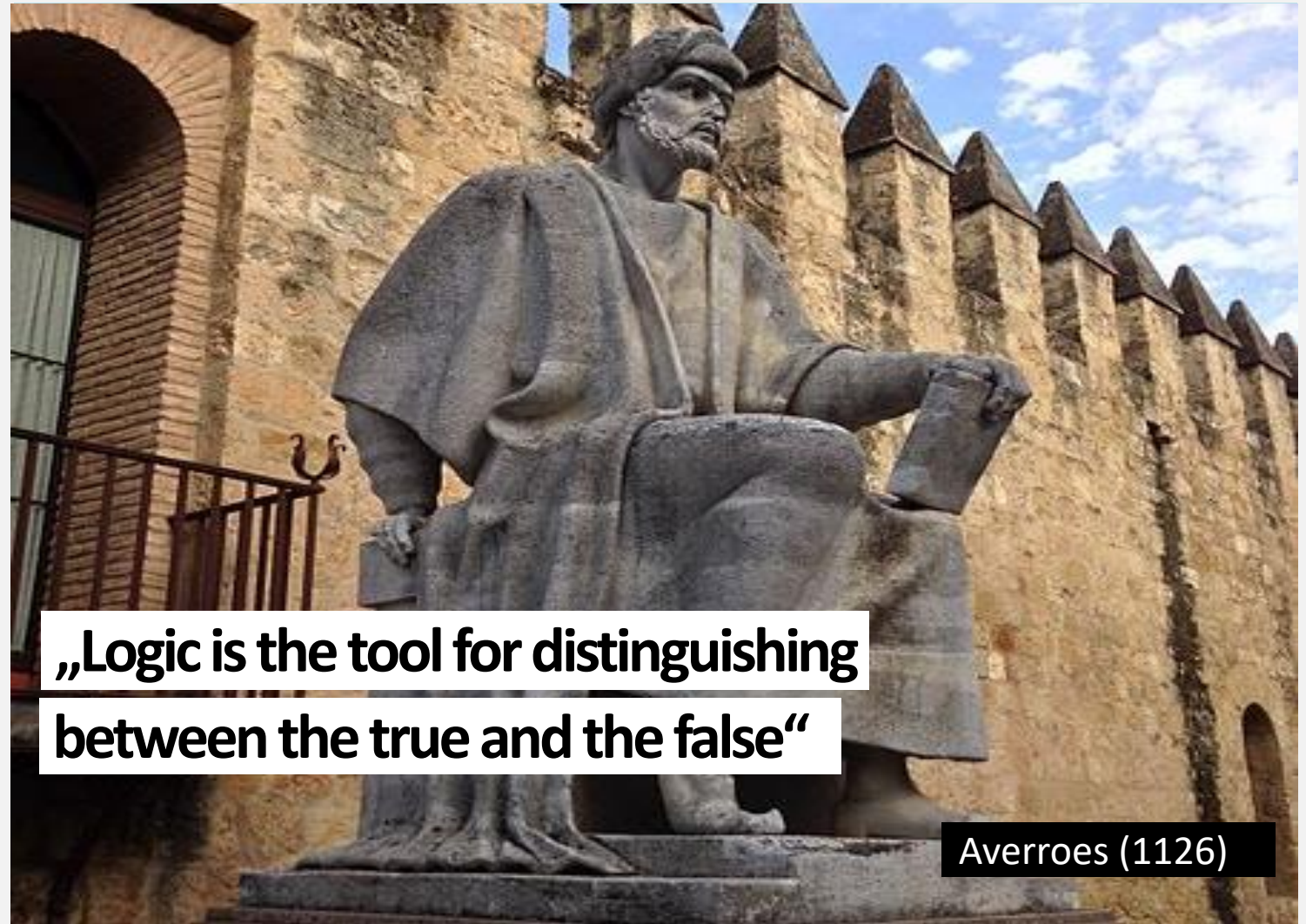
.

Case: These beans are from this bag.

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Peirce, C (1931, 103 ff.)

5.2 Logic and Formalization of Reasoning

- **We need rules** and systematics for manipulating facts **to allow computational reasoning**
- **Logic** is such a formal system for **handling facts so that true conclusions may be drawn**
- We can apply logical rules to our knowledge base to deduce new information



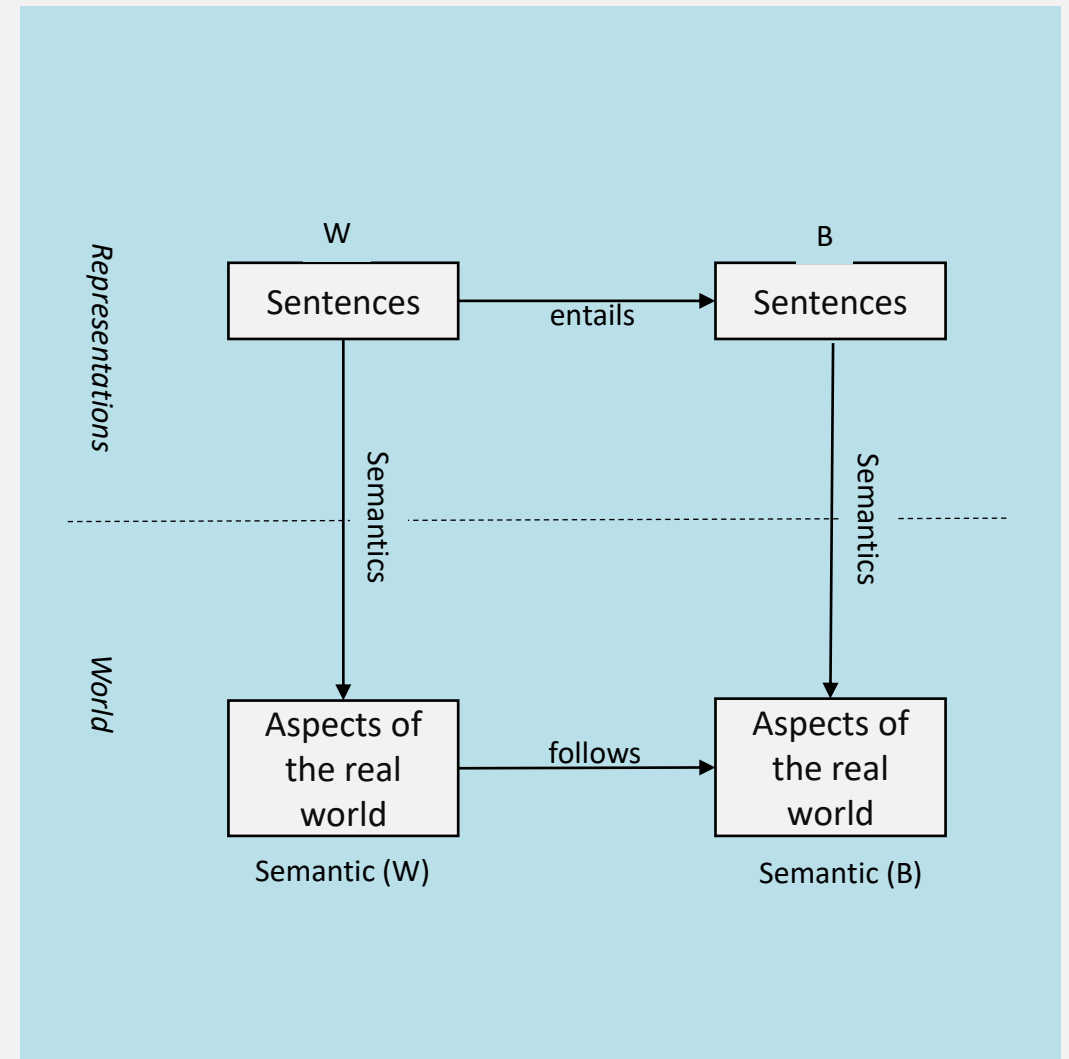
**„Logic is the tool for distinguishing
between the true and the false“**

Averroes (1126)

Adapted from Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016) | Image source: ↗ [Statue of Averroes in Córdoba, Spain](#) (2014) / ↗ [CC BY 3.0](#)

5.2 What is a Logic in Knowledge Reasoning?

- **Syntax:** rules for constructing valid sentences
 - e.g., $x + 2 = y$ is a valid arithmetic sentence
- **Semantics:** “meaning” of sentences, or relationship between logical sentences and the real world
 - Specifically, semantics defines truth of sentences
 - e.g., $x + 2 = y$ is true in a world (\approx model) where $x = 5$ and $y = 7$



Adapted from Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016) | Image source: Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.2 Syntax of Propositional Logic

- **Atomic sentence (literal):**
 - A *proposition symbol* representing a true or false statement
- **Negation:** If **A** is a sentence, $\neg A$ is a sentence
- **Conjunction:** If **A** and **B** are sentences, $A \wedge B$ is a sentence
- **Disjunction:** If **A** and **B** are sentences, $A \vee B$ is a sentence
- **Implication:** If **A** and **B** are sentences, $A \Rightarrow B$ is a sentence
- **Biconditional:** If **A** and **B** are sentences, $A \Leftrightarrow B$ is a sentence

The related symbols $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$ are called *logical connectives*

5.2 Semantics

- The semantic defines how the truth of a sentence is computed.
- For that, propositional logic has the following rules:

Given a model where...

A is true, $\neg \mathbf{A}$ is false

A and B is true, $\mathbf{A} \wedge \mathbf{B}$ is true

A or B are true, $\mathbf{A} \vee \mathbf{B}$ is true

A is true and **B** is false, $\mathbf{A} \Rightarrow \mathbf{B}$ is false

A and B are both true or false, $\mathbf{A} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{B}$ is true

5.2 Semantics and Truth Tables

- The semantic defines how the truth of a sentence is computed.
- A truth table specifies the truth value of a composite sentence for each possible assignments of truth values to its atoms

A	B	$\neg A$	$A \wedge B$	$A \vee B$	$A \Rightarrow B$
false	false	true	false	false	true
false	true	true	false	true	true
true	false	false	false	true	false
true	true	false	true	true	true

- The truth value of a more complex sentence can be evaluated *recursively* or *compositionally*

Adapted from Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.2 Logical Equivalences

- Two sentences are logically equivalent if they have the same truth value for every setting of their propositional variables

A	B		$A \vee B$	$\neg(\neg A \wedge \neg B)$
false	false		false	false
false	true		true	true
true	false		true	true
true	true		true	true

- $A \text{ OR } B$ and $\text{NOT } (\neg A \wedge \neg B)$ are logically equivalent;
Tautology = logically equivalent to True

5.2 Logical Equivalences

D

<i>Commutativity</i>	$(a \text{ OR } b) \equiv (b \text{ OR } a)$
	$(a \text{ AND } b) \equiv (b \text{ AND } a)$
<i>Associativity</i>	$((a \text{ AND } b) \text{ AND } c) \equiv (a \text{ AND } (b \text{ AND } c))$
	$((a \text{ OR } b) \text{ OR } c) \equiv (a \text{ OR } (b \text{ OR } c))$
<i>Double-negation elimination</i>	$\text{NOT}(\text{NOT}(a)) \equiv a$
<i>Contraposition</i>	$(a \Rightarrow b) \equiv (\text{NOT}(b) \Rightarrow \text{NOT}(a))$
<i>Implication elimination</i>	$(a \Rightarrow b) \equiv (\text{NOT}(a) \text{ OR } b)$
<i>De Morgan</i>	$\text{NOT}(a \text{ AND } b) \equiv (\text{NOT}(a) \text{ OR } \text{NOT}(b))$
	$\text{NOT}(a \text{ OR } b) \equiv (\text{NOT}(a) \text{ AND } \text{NOT}(b))$
<i>Distributivity</i>	$(a \text{ AND } (b \text{ OR } c)) \equiv ((a \text{ AND } b) \text{ OR } (a \text{ AND } c))$
	$(a \text{ OR } (b \text{ AND } c)) \equiv ((a \text{ OR } b) \text{ AND } (a \text{ OR } c))$

Adapted from Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

- **Entailment** means that a sentence follows from the premises contained in the knowledge base (or a model):

$$KB \models \alpha$$

- Knowledge base KB entails sentence α if and only if α is true in all models where KB is true
 - e.g., $x + y = 4$ entails $4 = x + y$

5.2 From Entailment to Logical Inference

- **Logical inference algorithm:** a procedure for generating sentences that follow from a knowledge base KB
- Two central characteristics: soundness and completeness

D

Soundness

Inference algorithm derives true conclusions given true premises

D

Completeness

Inference algorithm derives all true conclusions from a set of premises

5.2 Inference and Model Checking

- To make implement intelligent behavior our agent has to check whether a sentence α is entailed by its KB or model
- For that we could enumerate all possible models of the KB (truth assignments of all its symbols), and check that α is true in every model in which KB is true
 - Is this sound?
 - Is this complete?
- **Problem:** if KB contains n symbols, the truth table will be of size 2^n
- **Better idea:** use *inference rules*, or sound procedures to generate new sentences or *conclusions* given the *premises* in the KB

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014)

5.2 Reasoning patterns/ Inference rules

■ Modus Ponens

$$\frac{\alpha \Rightarrow \beta, \alpha}{\beta}$$

← premises

← conclusion

■ And-elimination

$$\frac{\alpha \wedge \beta}{\alpha}$$

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014)

5.2 Reasoning patterns/ Inference rules

And-introduction

$$\frac{\alpha, \beta}{\alpha \wedge \beta}$$

Double negative elimination

$$\frac{\neg \neg \alpha}{\alpha}$$

Or-introduction

$$\frac{\alpha}{\alpha \vee \beta}$$

Unit resolution

$$\frac{\alpha \vee \beta, \neg \beta}{\alpha}$$

5.2 Resolution

- Furthermore, we need to prove that our inference procedures are complete
- To prove a single sentence, e.g. $KB \models \alpha$, assume $KB \wedge \neg \alpha$ and derive a contradiction

$$\frac{\alpha \vee \beta, \neg \beta \vee \gamma}{\alpha \vee \gamma} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\alpha \vee \beta, \beta \Rightarrow \gamma}{\alpha \vee \gamma}$$

- For that purpose, we have to rewrite $KB \wedge \neg \alpha$ as a disjunctions of literals or conjunction of clauses (CNF)

5.2 Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

D

A sentence is in conjunctive normal form (CNF) if it is the conjunction of one or more clauses, where a clause is a disjunction of literals. A set of sentences is in CNF if each sentence is in CNF.

- $A \wedge B$
- $\neg A \wedge \neg B$
- $(A \vee B) \wedge (\neg C)$

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.2 Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

Example: $(p \Rightarrow q) \Leftrightarrow r$

Converting to CNF

1. Replace every occurrence of $\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta$ by $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \wedge (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)$
2. Replace every occurrence of $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ by $\neg\alpha \vee \beta$
3. Replace every occurrence of $\neg(\alpha \vee \beta)$ by $\neg\alpha \wedge \neg\beta$; every occurrence of $\neg(\alpha \wedge \beta)$ by $\neg\alpha \vee \neg\beta$; and every occurrence of $\neg\neg\alpha$ by α . Repeat as long as possible
4. Replace every occurrence of $(\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee \gamma$ by $(\alpha \vee \gamma) \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma)$, and every occurrence of $\alpha \vee (\beta \wedge \gamma)$ by $(\alpha \vee \beta) \wedge (\alpha \vee \gamma)$

Given:

1. $\neg(p \rightarrow q) \vee (r \rightarrow p)$
2. $\neg(\neg p \vee q) \vee (\neg r \vee p)$
3. $(p \wedge \neg q) \vee (\neg r \vee p)$
4. $(p \vee \neg r \vee p) \wedge (\neg q \vee \neg r \vee p)$

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.2 Resolution Algorithm

Algorithm: PL-RESOLUTION(KB, α)

Inputs: KB, a knowledge base

α sentence of propositional logic

clauses \leftarrow set of clauses in CNF of $\{KB \wedge \neg \alpha\}$

new $\leftarrow \{\}$

loop do

for each pair of clauses C_i, C_j in clauses do

resolvents \leftarrow PL-RESOLVE(C_i, C_j)

if resolvents contains $\{\}$ then return true

new \leftarrow new \cup resolvents

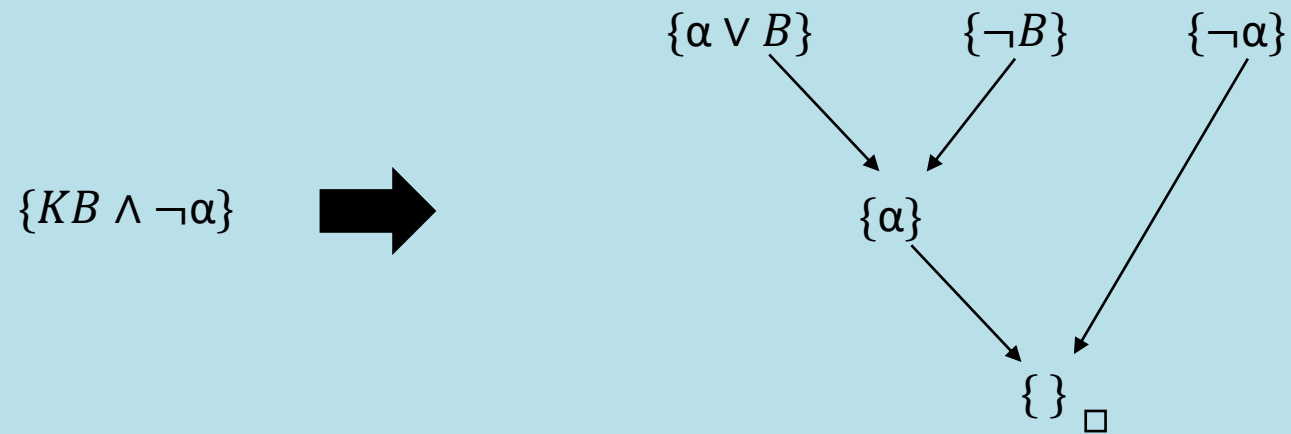
if new clauses then return false

clauses \leftarrow clauses \cup new

- Given formula in conjunctive normal form, repeat:
- Find two clauses with complementary literals,
- Apply resolution,
- Add resulting clause (if not already there)
- If the empty clause results, formula is not satisfiable
 - Must have been obtained from P and NOT(P)
- Otherwise, if we get stuck (and we will eventually), the formula is guaranteed to be satisfiable (proof in a couple of slides)

5.2 Resolution and Completeness

- Keep applying resolution to clauses that contain complementary literals and adding resulting clauses to the list
- Break If there are no new clauses to be added, then KB does not entail α
- Or If two clauses resolve to form an empty clause, we have a contradiction and $KB \models \alpha$



Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.2 Horn Clauses and Definite Clauses

- Horn clauses are implications with only positive literals

$$x_1 \text{ AND } x_2 \text{ AND } x_4 \Rightarrow x_3 \text{ AND } x_6$$
$$\text{TRUE} \Rightarrow x_1$$

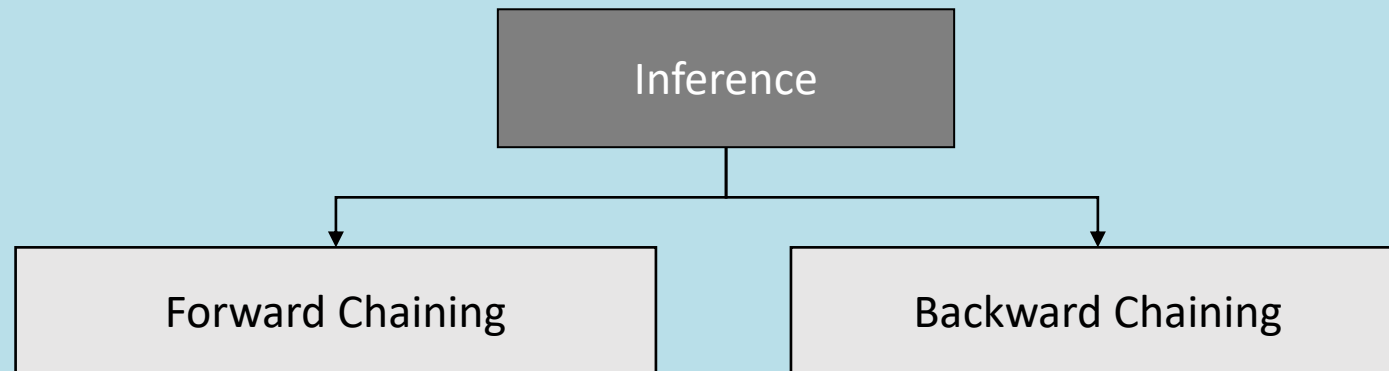
- A definite clause is a disjunction with exactly one positive literal
- Knowledge bases with only definitive clauses have many positive characteristics, which allow efficient inference mechanisms (see Russel & Norvig, 2016)

5.2 Inference in Logical Systems

- So far, we know the modus ponens for simple 1-rule inference

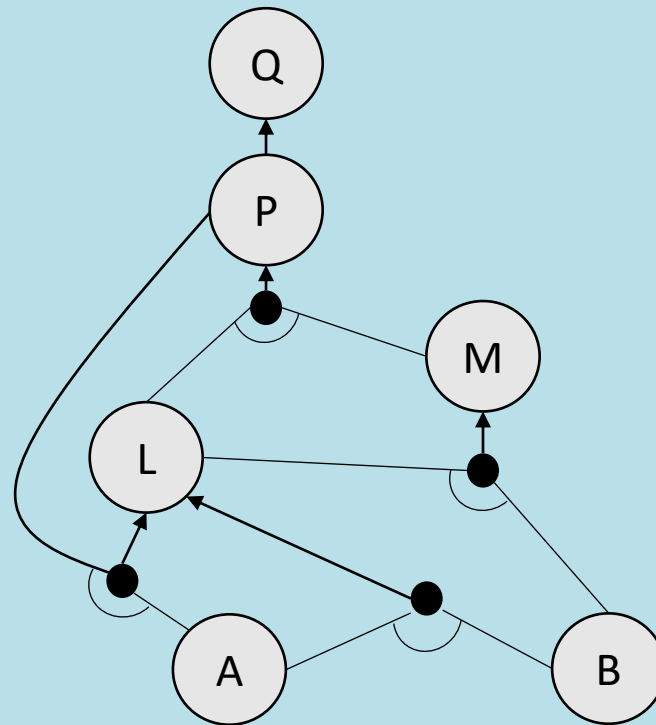
$$\frac{\alpha \Rightarrow \beta, \alpha}{\beta} \quad \rightarrow \quad \frac{\text{if } \text{MANUAL} - \text{CHECK} = \text{FAILED}, \text{ then } \text{ACCEPT} = \text{NO}}{\text{MANUAL} - \text{CHECK} = \text{FAILED}} \quad \text{ACCEPT} = \text{NO}$$

- However, rule-based Systems can use multiple rules for inference. There exists three popular approaches for that:



5.2 Forward Chaining

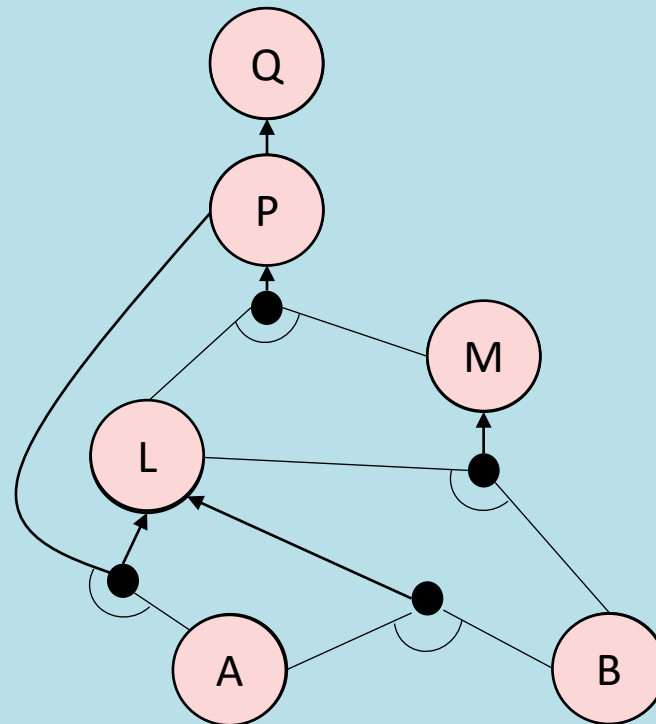
- **Idea:** find any rule whose premises are satisfied in the *KB*, add its conclusion to the *KB*, and keep going until query is found



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

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.2 Forward Chaining Animation

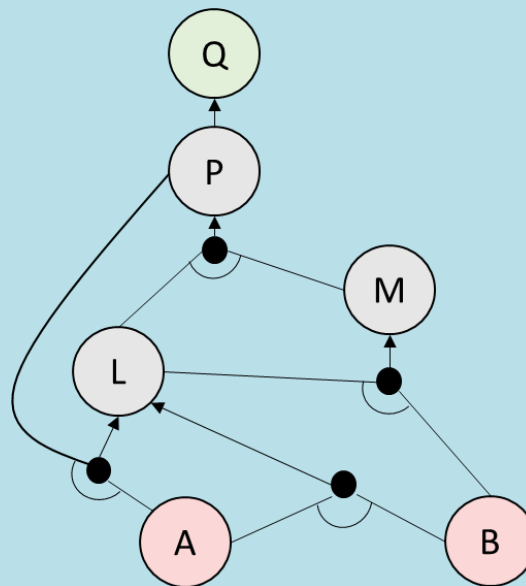


$P \Rightarrow Q$
 $L \wedge M \Rightarrow P$
 $B \wedge L \Rightarrow M$
 $A \wedge P \Rightarrow L$
 $A \wedge B \Rightarrow L$
 A
 B

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.2 Backward Chaining

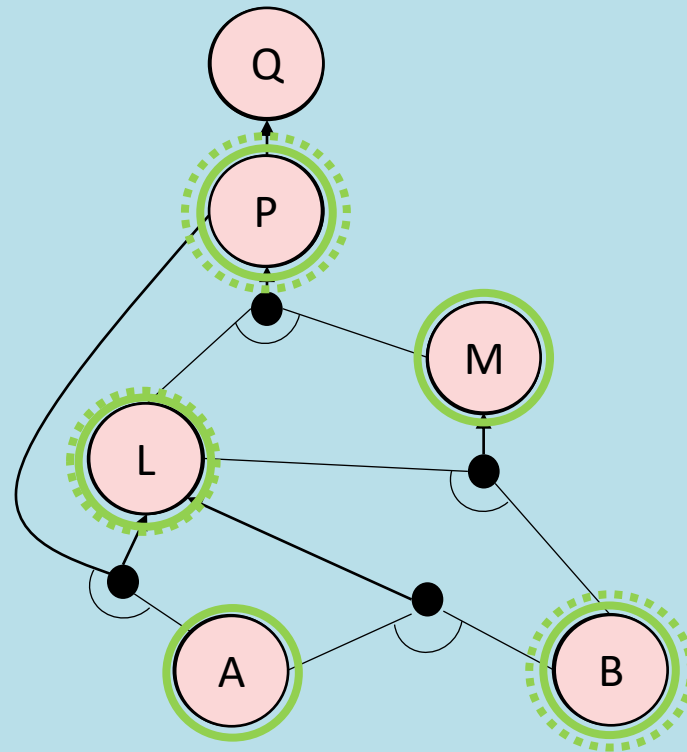
- **Idea:** work backwards from the query q to prove q ,
 - check if q is known already or
 - prove all premises of some rule concluding q



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

Adapted from Castillo, E. et al. (2012); Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014); Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.2 Backward Chaining Animation



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

5.2 Forward vs. backward chaining

- Forward chaining is data-driven, automatic processing
 - May do lots of work that is irrelevant to the goal
- Backward chaining is goal-driven, appropriate for problem-solving
 - Complexity can be much less than linear in size of KB

Your turn!

Task

Your colleague Sarah plans to buy a new sportcar, but she can not decide which one. You remember your AI course and the chapter about logic and try to help her. Model the following problem with propositional logic:

- She wants to buy a Porsche but struggles between 911 (N), Panamera (P) and Taycan (T)
- She says that she likes shopping (S), and hence she doesn't want buy a two-door car like the 911 because it has not enough place for shopping
- If you want to buy a Taycan, you need an electric fueling station in your garage (E)

She now assumes (H_1):

- If you like shopping, and have no electric fueling station you have to buy a Panamera

Modell this problem with propositional logic. Can you “prove” her assumption H_1 ? Explain.

5 Knowledge Reasoning - Fundamental Algorithms and Concepts

5.1 Knowledge Reasoning

5.2 Propositional Logic

5.3 First Order Logic

5.4 Planning and Acting

5.5 Knowledge Representation and Engineering

Lectorial 3: Building a Rule-based Agent for Credit Scoring

► What we will learn:

- We will design logical agents that can form representations of the world
- For that purpose we will formalize knowledge and reasoning processes with representation languages like propositional or first-order logic
- Use inference processes to derive new representations about the world, and use these new representations for decision-making and planning



Image source: [Pixabay](#) (2019) / [CC0](#)

► Duration:

- 270 min + 90 min (Lectorial)

► Relevant for Exam:

- 5.1 – 5.2, 5.4

5.3 Limitations of propositional logic

- Suppose you want to say “All humans are mortal”
 - In propositional logic, you would need about 6.7 billion statements
- Suppose you want to say “Some people can run a marathon”
 - You would need a disjunction of ~6.7 billion statements

5.3 Problems with propositional logic

- No notion of objects
- No notion of relations among objects
- RoommateCarryingUmbrella0 is instructive to us, suggesting
 - there is an object we call Roommate,
 - there is an object we call Umbrella0,
 - there is a relationship Carrying between these two objects
- Formally, none of this meaning is there
 - Might as well have replaced RoommateCarryingUmbrella0 by P

5.3 First-order logic

- Propositional logic assumes the world consists of atomic facts
- First-order logic assumes the world contains objects, relations, and functions

5.3 Elements of first-order logic

- Objects: can give these names such as Car, Nationalpark, USA, ...
- Relations: driving(., .), parkHasBeenVisited(.)
 - Driving(Person, Car), hasBeenVisited(Nationalpark)
 - Relations with one object = unary relations = properties
- Functions: Nationalpark(.)
 - Nationalpark(Car)
- Equality: Roommate(Person_A) = Person_B



5.3 Syntax of FOL

- **Constants:** Max_MPH, Dominik, Rocky Mountains, pi
- **Variables:** x, y, a, b
- **Predicates:** Person(Dominik), Siblings(Bart, Lisa), isNationalpark(RockyMountains),
- **Functions:** FatherOf(Lisa), Age(Bart), Sqrt(x)
- **Connectives:** $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$
- **Equality:** =
- **Quantifiers:** \forall, \exists
- **Term:** Constant or Variable or Function($\text{Term}_1, \dots, \text{Term}_n$)
- **Atomic sentence:** Predicate($\text{Term}_1, \dots, \text{Term}_n$) or $\text{Term}_1 = \text{Term}_2$
- **Complex sentence:** made from atomic sentences using connectives and quantifiers

5.3 Semantics of FOL

- Sentences are true with respect to a model and an interpretation
- Model contains 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(Term₁, ... , Term_n)** is true iff the objects referred to by **Term₁, ... , Term_n** are in the relation referred to by predicate

5.3 Things to note about functions

It could be that we have a separate name for Roommate(Person0)

E.g., Roommate(Person0) = Person1

... but we do not **need** to have such a name

A function can be applied to any object

E.g., Roommate(Umbrella0)

5.3 Reasoning about many objects at once

Variables: x, y, z, \dots can refer to multiple objects

New operators “for all” and “there exists”

Universal quantifier and existential quantifier

for all x : $\text{CompletelyWhite}(x) \Rightarrow \text{NOT}(\text{PartiallyBlack}(x))$

Completely white objects are never partially black

there exists x : $\text{PartiallyWhite}(x) \text{ AND } \text{PartiallyBlack}(x)$

There exists some object in the world that is partially white and partially black

5.3 Practice converting English to first-order logic

“John has an umbrella”

there exists y : $(\text{Has}(\text{John}, y) \text{ AND } \text{IsUmbrella}(y))$

“Anything that has an umbrella is not wet”

for all x : $((\text{there exists } y: (\text{Has}(x, y) \text{ AND } \text{IsUmbrella}(y))) \Rightarrow \text{NOT}(\text{IsWet}(x)))$

“Any person who has an umbrella is not wet”

for all x : $(\text{IsPerson}(x) \Rightarrow ((\text{there exists } y: (\text{Has}(x, y) \text{ AND } \text{IsUmbrella}(y))) \Rightarrow \text{NOT}(\text{IsWet}(x))))$

5.3 More practice converting English to first-order logic

“John has at least two umbrellas”

there exists x : (there exists y : (Has(John, x) AND IsUmbrella(x) AND Has(John, y) AND IsUmbrella(y) AND NOT($x=y$)))

“John has at most two umbrellas”

for all x, y, z : ((Has(John, x) AND IsUmbrella(x) AND Has(John, y) AND IsUmbrella(y) AND Has(John, z) AND IsUmbrella(z)) \Rightarrow ($x=y$ OR $x=z$ OR $y=z$))

5.3 Even more practice converting English to first-order logic...

“Duke’s basketball team defeats any other basketball team”

for all x : ((IsBasketballTeam(x) AND NOT(x =BasketballTeamOf(Duke)))
=> Defeats(BasketballTeamOf(Duke), x))

“Every team defeats some other team”

for all x : (IsTeam(x) => (there exists y : (IsTeam(y) AND NOT(x = y) AND
Defeats(x , y))))

5.3 Is this a tautology?

“Property P implies property Q, or property P implies property Q (or both)”

for all x: $((P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \text{ OR } (Q(x) \Rightarrow P(x)))$

$(\text{for all } x: (P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \text{ OR } (\text{for all } x: (Q(x) \Rightarrow P(x))))$

5.3 Universal quantification

- $\forall x P(x)$
- Example: “Everyone at UNC is smart”
 $\forall x \text{ At}(x, \text{UNC}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(x)$
Why not $\forall x \text{ At}(x, \text{UNC}) \wedge \text{Smart}(x)$?
- Roughly speaking, equivalent to the conjunction of all possible instantiations of the variable:
 $\text{At}(\text{John}, \text{UNC}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{John}) \wedge \dots$
 $\text{At}(\text{Richard}, \text{UNC}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(\text{Richard}) \wedge \dots$
- $\forall x P(x)$ is true in a model m iff $P(x)$ is true with x being each possible object in the model

5.3 Existential quantification

- $\exists x P(x)$
- Example: “Someone at UNC is smart”
 $\exists x \text{ At}(x, \text{UNC}) \wedge \text{Smart}(x)$
Why not $\exists x \text{ At}(x, \text{UNC}) \Rightarrow \text{Smart}(x)$?
- Roughly speaking, equivalent to the disjunction of all possible instantiations:
 $[\text{At}(\text{John}, \text{UNC}) \wedge \text{Smart}(\text{John})] \vee$
 $[\text{At}(\text{Richard}, \text{UNC}) \wedge \text{Smart}(\text{Richard})] \vee \dots$
- $\exists x P(x)$ is true in a model m iff $P(x)$ is true with x being some possible object in the model

5.3 Properties of quantifiers

- $\forall x \forall y$ is the same as $\forall y \forall x$
- $\exists x \exists y$ is the same as $\exists y \exists x$
- $\exists x \forall y$ is not the same as $\forall y \exists x$
 - $\exists x \forall y \text{ Loves}(x,y)$
 - “There is a person who loves everyone”
 - $\forall y \exists x \text{ Loves}(x,y)$
 - “Everyone is loved by at least one person”
- **Quantifier duality:** each quantifier can be expressed using the other with the help of negation
 - $\forall x \text{ Likes}(x, \text{IceCream}) \quad \neg \exists x \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{IceCream})$
 - $\exists x \text{ Likes}(x, \text{Broccoli}) \neg \forall x \neg \text{Likes}(x, \text{Broccoli})$

5.3 Equality

- **Term₁ = Term₂** is true under a given model if and only if **Term₁** and **Term₂** refer to the same object
- E.g., definition of **Sibling** in terms of **Parent**:
$$\forall x, y \text{ Sibling}(x, y) \Leftrightarrow$$
$$[\neg(x = y) \wedge \exists m, f \neg(m = f) \wedge \text{Parent}(m, x) \wedge \text{Parent}(f, x) \wedge \text{Parent}(m, y) \wedge \text{Parent}(f, y)]$$

5.3 Using FOL: The Kinship Domain

- Brothers are siblings
 $\forall x,y \text{ Brother}(x,y) \Rightarrow \text{Sibling}(x,y)$
- “Sibling” is symmetric
 $\forall x,y \text{ Sibling}(x,y) \Leftrightarrow \text{Sibling}(y,x)$
- One's mother is one's female parent
 $\forall m,c (\text{Mother}(c) = m) \Leftrightarrow (\text{Female}(m) \wedge \text{Parent}(m,c))$

5.3 Why “First order”?

- FOL permits quantification over variables
- Higher order logics permit quantification over functions and predicates:

$$\forall P, x [P(x) \vee \neg P(x)]$$

$$\forall x, y (x=y) \Leftrightarrow [\forall P (P(x) \Leftrightarrow P(y))]$$

5.3 Inference in FOL

- All rules of inference for propositional logic apply to first-order logic
- We just need to reduce FOL sentences to PL sentences by instantiating variables and removing quantifiers

5.3 Relationship between universal and existential

for all x : a
is equivalent to
 $\text{NOT}(\text{there exists } x: \text{NOT}(a))$

Adapted from Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.3 General Relations and Functions

We are **not** allowed to reason in general about relations and functions
The following would correspond to higher-order logic (which is more powerful):

“If John is Jack’s roommate, then any property of John is also a property of Jack’s roommate”

$(\text{John}=\text{Roommate}(\text{Jack})) \Rightarrow \text{for all } p: (p(\text{John}) \Rightarrow p(\text{Roommate}(\text{Jack})))$

“If a property is inherited by children, then for any thing, if that property is true of it, it must also be true for any child of it”

$\text{for all } p: (\text{IsInheritedByChildren}(p) \Rightarrow (\text{for all } x, y: ((\text{IsChildOf}(x,y) \text{ AND } p(y)) \Rightarrow p(x))))$

5.3 Axioms and Theorems in FOL

D

Axioms: basic facts about the domain, our “initial” knowledge base

Theorems: statements that are logically derived from axioms

SUBST replaces one or more variables with something else

For example:

$\text{SUBST}(\{x/\text{John}\}, \text{IsHealthy}(x) \Rightarrow \text{NOT}(\text{HasACold}(x)))$ gives us
 $\text{IsHealthy}(\text{John}) \Rightarrow \text{NOT}(\text{HasACold}(\text{John}))$

- **Substitution** of variables by *ground terms*:

$\text{SUBST}(\{v/g\}, P)$

- Result of $\text{SUBST}(\{x/\text{Harry}, y/\text{Sally}\}, \text{Loves}(x,y))$:
 $\text{Loves}(\text{Harry}, \text{Sally})$
- Result of $\text{SUBST}(\{x/\text{John}\}, \text{King}(x) \wedge \text{Greedy}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Evil}(x))$:
 $\text{King}(\text{John}) \wedge \text{Greedy}(\text{John}) \Rightarrow \text{Evil}(\text{John})$

5.3 Universal instantiation (UI)

- A universally quantified sentence entails every instantiation of it:

$$\frac{\forall v P(v)}{\text{SUBST}(\{v/g\}, P(v))}$$

for any variable v and ground term g

- E.g., $\forall x \text{ King}(x) \wedge \text{Greedy}(x) \Rightarrow \text{Evil}(x)$ yields:
 $\text{King}(\text{John}) \wedge \text{Greedy}(\text{John}) \Rightarrow \text{Evil}(\text{John})$
 $\text{King}(\text{Richard}) \wedge \text{Greedy}(\text{Richard}) \Rightarrow \text{Evil}(\text{Richard})$
 $\text{King}(\text{Father}(\text{John})) \wedge \text{Greedy}(\text{Father}(\text{John})) \Rightarrow \text{Evil}(\text{Father}(\text{John}))$

5.3 Existential instantiation (EI)

- An existentially quantified sentence entails the instantiation of that sentence with a new constant:

$$\frac{\exists v P(v)}{\text{SUBST}(\{v/C\}, P(v))}$$

- for any sentence P , variable v , and constant C that does not appear elsewhere in the knowledge base
- E.g., $\exists x \text{Crown}(x) \wedge \text{OnHead}(x, \text{John})$ yields:
 $\text{Crown}(C_1) \wedge \text{OnHead}(C_1, \text{John})$
- provided C_1 is a new constant symbol, called a *Skolem constant*

- Every FOL KB can be *propositionalized* so as to preserve entailment
 - A ground sentence is entailed by the new KB iff it is entailed by the original KB
- **Idea:** propositionalize KB and query, apply resolution, return result
- **Problem:** with function symbols, there are infinitely many ground terms
 - For example, $\text{Father}(X)$ yields $\text{Father}(\text{John})$, $\text{Father}(\text{Father}(\text{John}))$, $\text{Father}(\text{Father}(\text{Father}(\text{John})))$, etc.

5.3 Propositionalization

- **Theorem** (Herbrand 1930):
 - If a sentence α is entailed by an FOL KB, it is entailed by a *finite* subset of the propositionalized KB
- **Idea:** For $n = 0$ to Infinity do
 - Create a propositional KB by instantiating with depth- n terms
 - See if α is entailed by this KB
- **Problem:** works if α is entailed, loops if α is not entailed
- **Theorem** (Turing 1936, Church 1936):
 - Entailment for FOL is **semidecidable**: algorithms exist that say yes to every entailed sentence, but no algorithm exists that also says no to every nonentailed sentence

5.3 Instantiating quantifiers

From
for all x : a
we can obtain
 $\text{SUBST}(\{x/g\}, a)$

From
there exists x : a
we can obtain
 $\text{SUBST}(\{x/k\}, a)$
where k is a constant that does not appear elsewhere in the knowledge base (**Skolem constant**)
Don't need original sentence anymore

5.3 Instantiating quantifiers

for all x : there exists y : $\text{IsParentOf}(y, x)$

WRONG: for all x : $\text{IsParentOf}(k, x)$

RIGHT: for all x : $\text{IsParentOf}(k(x), x)$

Introduces a new function (**Skolem function**)

... again, assuming k has not been used previously

5.3 Generalized modus ponens

for all x : Loves(John, x)

John loves every thing

for all y : (Loves(y , Jane) \Rightarrow FeelsAppreciatedBy(Jane, y))

Jane feels appreciated by every thing that loves her

Can infer from this:

FeelsAppreciatedBy(Jane, John)

Here, we used the substitution $\{x/\text{Jane}, y/\text{John}\}$

Note we used different variables for the different sentences

General UNIFY algorithms for finding a good substitution

5.2 Keeping things as general as possible in unification

Consider EdibleByWith

e.g., EdibleByWith(Soup, John, Spoon) – John can eat soup with a spoon

for all x: for all y: EdibleByWith(Bread, x, y)

Anything can eat bread with anything

for all u: for all v: (EdibleByWith(u, v, Spoon) => CanBeServedInBowlTo(u,v))

Anything that is edible with a spoon by something can be served in a bowl to that something

Substitution: {x/z, y/Spoon, u/Bread, v/z}

Gives: for all z: CanBeServedInBowlTo(Bread, z)

Alternative substitution {x/John, y/Spoon, u/Bread, v/John} would only have given CanBeServedInBowlTo(Bread, John), which is not as general

5.3 Resolution for first-order logic

for all x : $(\text{NOT}(\text{Knows}(\text{John}, x)) \text{ OR } \text{IsMean}(x) \text{ OR } \text{Loves}(\text{John}, x))$

John loves everything he knows, with the possible exception of mean things

for all y : $(\text{Loves}(\text{Jane}, y) \text{ OR } \text{Knows}(y, \text{Jane}))$

Jane loves everything that does not know her

What can we unify? What can we conclude?

Use the substitution: $\{x/\text{Jane}, y/\text{John}\}$

Get: $\text{IsMean}(\text{Jane}) \text{ OR } \text{Loves}(\text{John}, \text{Jane}) \text{ OR } \text{Loves}(\text{Jane}, \text{John})$

Complete (i.e., if not satisfiable, will find a proof of this), **if** we can remove literals that are duplicates after unification

Also need to put everything in **canonical form** first

5.3 Notes on inference in first-order logic

Deciding whether a sentence is entailed is semidecidable: there are algorithms that will eventually produce a proof of any entailed sentence

It is not decidable: we cannot always conclude that a sentence is not entailed

5.3 (Extremely informal statement of) Gödel's Incompleteness Theorem

First-order logic is not rich enough to model basic arithmetic
For any consistent system of axioms that is rich enough to capture basic arithmetic (in particular, mathematical induction), there exist true sentences that cannot be proved from those axioms

Suppose:

There are exactly 3 objects in the world,
If x is the spouse of y , then y is the spouse of x (spouse is a function, i.e.,
everything has a spouse)

Prove:

Something is its own spouse

- **Propositional logic:** atomic statements are facts
 - Inference via resolution is sound and complete (though likely computationally intractable)
- **First-order logic:** adds variables, relations, and quantification
 - Inference is essentially a generalization of propositional inference
 - Resolution is still sound and complete, but not guaranteed to terminate on non-entailed sentences (semidecidable)
 - Simple inference procedures (forward chaining and backward chaining) available for knowledge bases consisting of *definite clauses*

Your turn!

Task

Please prove:

- there exist x, y, z : $(\text{NOT}(x=y) \text{ AND } \text{NOT}(x=z) \text{ AND } \text{NOT}(y=z))$
- for all w, x, y, z : $(w=x \text{ OR } w=y \text{ OR } w=z \text{ OR } x=y \text{ OR } x=z \text{ OR } y=z)$
- for all x, y : $((\text{Spouse}(x)=y) \Rightarrow (\text{Spouse}(y)=x))$
- for all x, y : $((\text{Spouse}(x)=y) \Rightarrow \text{NOT}(x=y))$ (for the sake of contradiction)
- Try to do this on the board...

5 Knowledge Reasoning - Fundamental Algorithms and Concepts

5.1 Knowledge Reasoning

5.2 Propositional Logic

5.3 First Order Logic

5.4 Planning and Acting

5.5 Knowledge Representation and Engineering

Lectorial 3: Building a Rule-based Agent for Credit Scoring

► What we will learn:

- We will design logical agents that can form representations of the world
- For that purpose we will formalize knowledge and reasoning processes with representation languages like propositional or first-order logic
- Use inference processes to derive new representations about the world, and use these new representations for decision-making and planning



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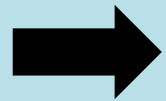
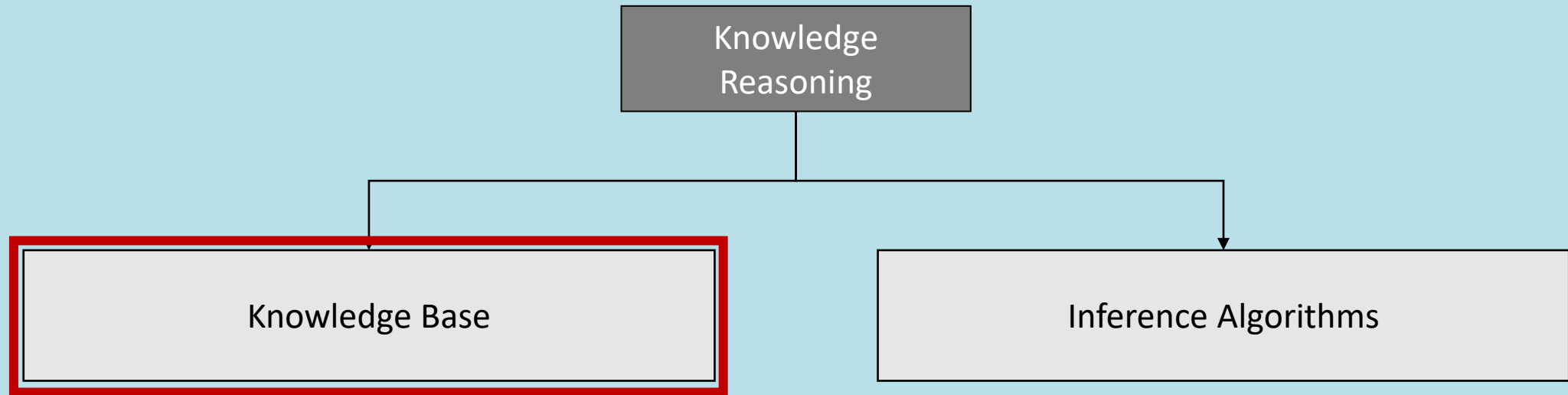
► Duration:

- 270 min + 90 min (Lectorial)

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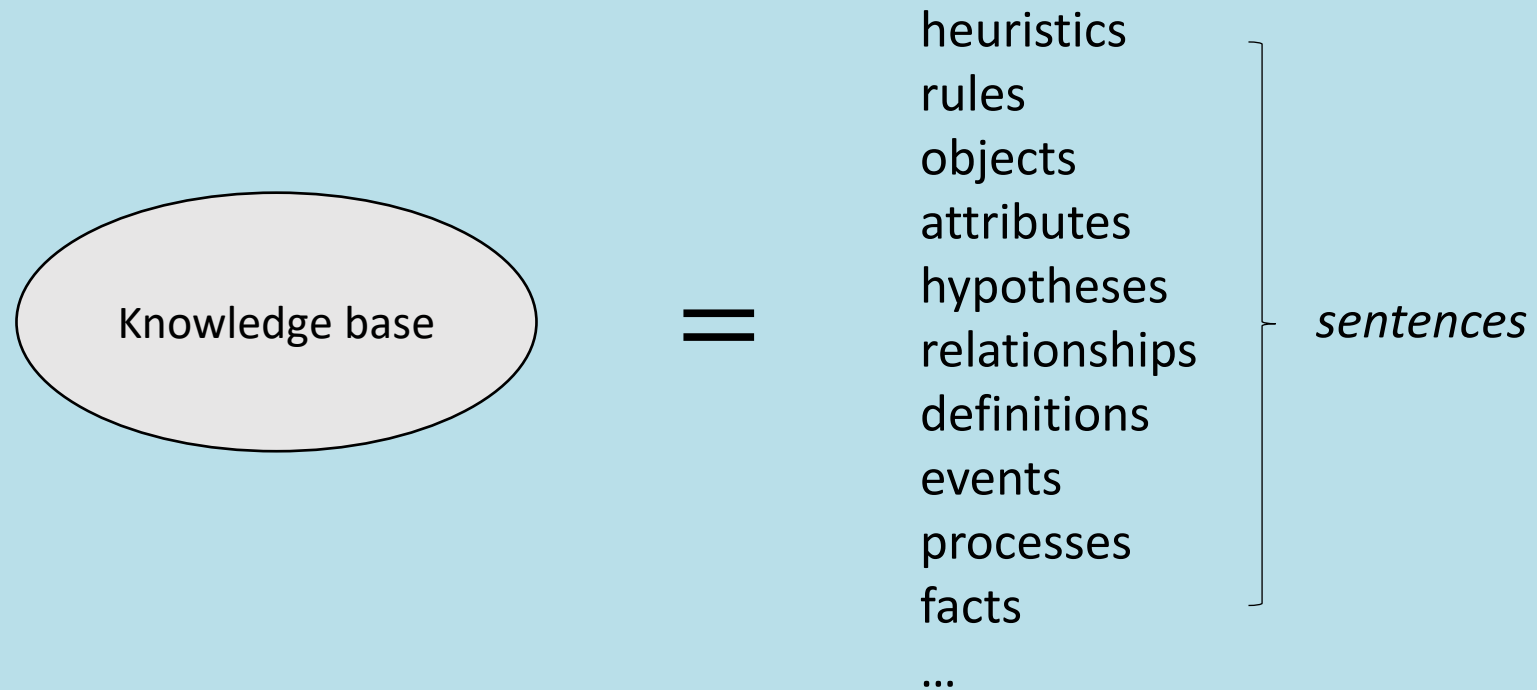
- 5.1 – 5.2, 5.4

5.5 What We Need that an AI Can Solve Our Task



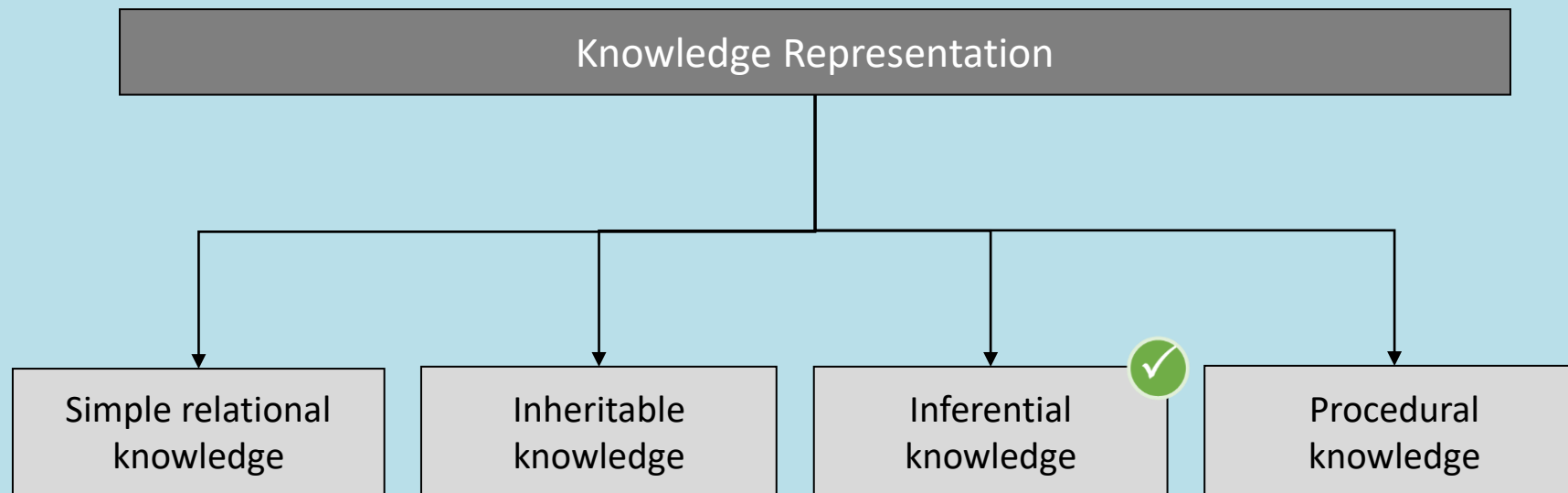
Represent information so that a computer can understand and can utilize this knowledge to solve the complex real world problems

5.5 What to Represent in Knowledge Bases



Adapted from Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

5.5 Approaches to Knowledge Representation



Adapted from Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

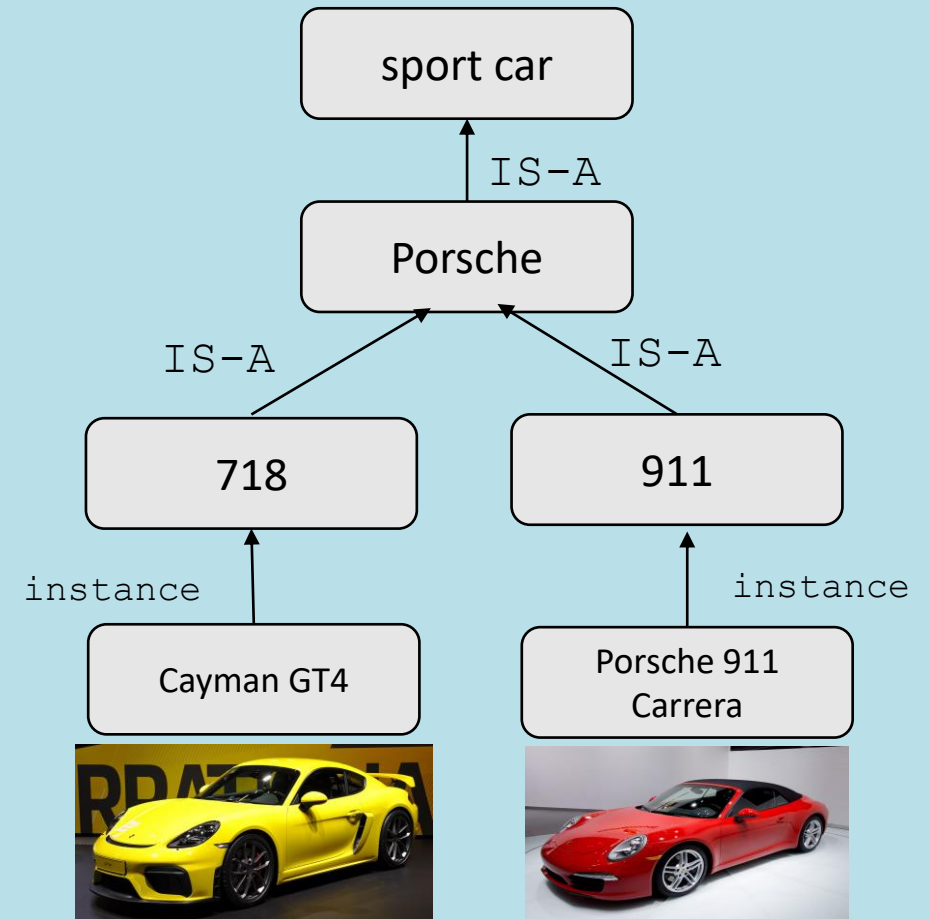
5.5 Simple Relational Knowledge

- It is the simplest way of storing facts which uses the relational method, and each fact about a set of the object is set out systematically in columns.
- This approach of knowledge representation is famous in database systems where the relationship between different entities is represented
- This approach has little opportunity for inference.
- **Example: The following is the simple relational knowledge representation.**

Player	Weight	Age
Player1	65	23
Player2	58	18
Player3	75	24

5.5 Inheritable Knowledge

- All data must be stored into a hierarchy of classes
- All classes should be arranged in a generalized form or a hierarchal manner.
- Elements inherit values from other members of a class.
- This approach contains inheritable knowledge which shows a relation between instance and class, and it is called instance relation.



Adapted from Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016) | Image sources: ↗ [2012 NAIAS Red Porsche 991 convertible \(world premiere\)](#) (2012) by [Calm Vistas](#); ↗ [Porsche 718 Cayman GT4 \(seit 2019\)](#) (2019) by Alexander Migl ↗ [CC BY-SA 4.0](#)

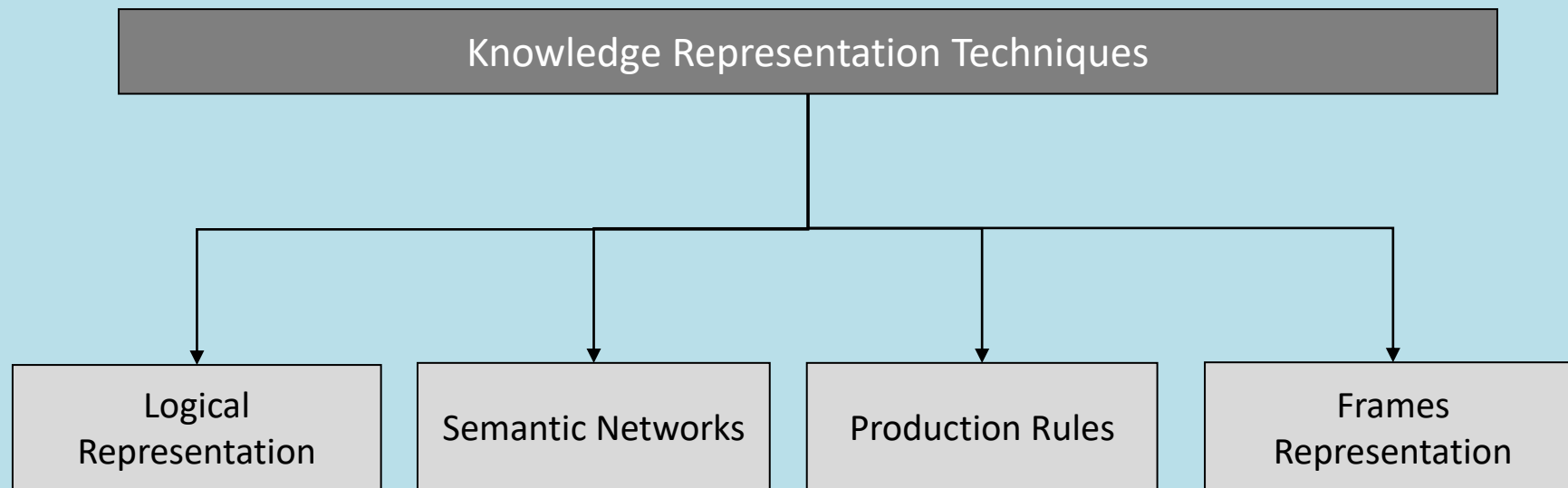
5.5 Procedural Knowledge

- Procedural knowledge approach uses small programs and codes which describes how to do specific things, and how to proceed
- In this approach, one important rule is used which is If-Then rule
- In this knowledge, we can use various coding languages such as LISP language and Prolog language
- We can easily represent heuristic or domain-specific knowledge using this approach
- But it is not necessary that we can represent all cases in this approach.

5.5 Requirements for Knowledge Representation System

- A good knowledge representation system must possess the following properties:
 - **Representational Accuracy:** KR system should have the ability to represent all kind of required knowledge
 - **Inferential Adequacy:** KR system should have ability to manipulate the representational structures to produce new knowledge corresponding to existing structure
 - **Inferential Efficiency:** The ability to direct the inferential knowledge mechanism into the most productive directions by storing appropriate guides
 - **Acquisitional efficiency:** The ability to acquire the new knowledge easily using automatic methods.

5.5 Techniques of Knowledge Representation



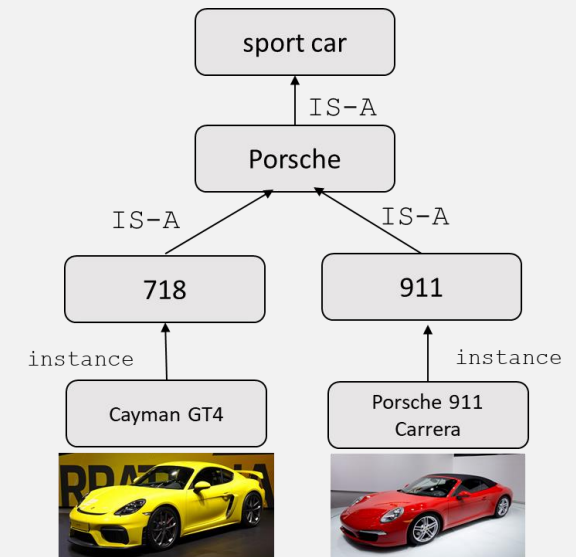
Adapted from Rusell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016)

Your turn!

Task

Please expand the inheritable knowledge base by the following sentences:

- Porsche Panamera
- Tesla, Tesla Model X
- VW Golf



As Long as There are Users of outdated Techniques, There is a Need of Specialist

welt

 Abonnement

 10

 Ticker

 Suche

 Anmelden



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Artificial Intelligence: Algorithms and Applications with Python - Dr. Dominik Jung

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Workbook Exercises

- Please read the chapters 7-12 from Russell, S., & Norvig, P. (2016) to understand the concepts and algorithms of knowledge reasoning and representation. Then work through the related exercises. Focus on the contents we discussed in lecture.
- Read and understand the Wumpus World Problem from chapter 7. Try to model it with the concepts from this lecture.

Coding Exercises

- Try to build a simple rule-based agent with Python by implementing the decision rules a simple if-else checks. What is the problem of this approach if you think at expanding the knowledge based? Make notes and prepare for the lectorial of this chapter, we will find a more convinient way to process and represent knowledge in Python

Literature

1. Beierle, C., & Kern-Isberner, G. (2014). Methoden wissensbasierter Systeme: Grundlagen, Algorithmen, Anwendungen. Springer-Verlag.
2. Brachman, R. J., Levesque, H. J., & Reiter, R. (Eds.) (1992): *Knowledge representation*. MIT press.
3. Castillo, E., Gutierrez, J. M., & Hadi, A. S. (2012). Expert systems and probabilistic network models. Springer Science & Business Media.
4. Peirce, C. S. (1931): Collected papers of charles sanders peirce. Harvard University Press, 1931.
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Images

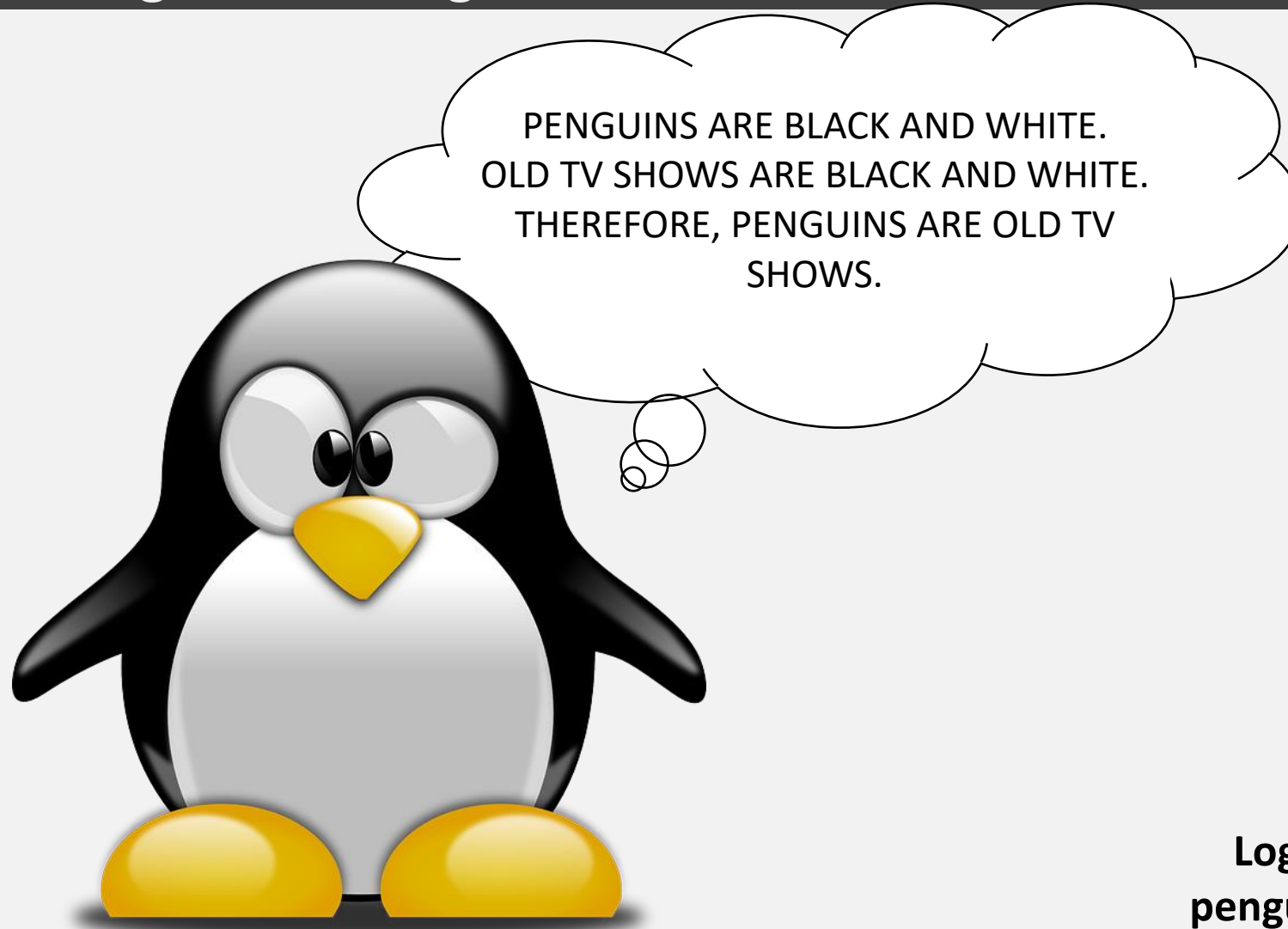
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Further reading

- Even if knowledge-based systems are a bit outdated, there exists still many frameworks to develop such systems with state of the art technology like Python, Java etc. If you are interested I recommend to take a look at the following frameworks and libraries:
 - C Language Integrated Production System (CLIPS): An environment used to make rule or object based expert systems developed by the NASA (↗ www.clipsrules.net)
 - Python Knowledge Engine Pyke (Pyke), which allows you to use logic programming to make expert systems in Python (↗ www.pyke.sourceforge.net)
 - D3web, Java Knowledge Base System that uses XML (↗ www.d3web.de)
- The popular game Age of Empires II from Microsoft Game Studios relies on CLIPS for its computer AI. I can recommend you to take a look at the guide from redmechanic (on ↗ [Steam](https://steamcommunity.com/sharedfiles/filedetails/?id=1111111)), from Leif Ericson (↗ aok.heavengames.com), or a copy of Microsoft's „Computer Player Strategy Builder Guide“ from my git hub repository (Media/CPSB.zip) to implement your own knowledge-based AI. Play against it and try to win against yourself ;-)

Entailment	<i>Necessary truth of one sentence given another</i>
Inference	<i>Deriving sentences from other sentences</i>
Logical Agents	<i>Logical agents apply inference to a knowledge base to derive new information and make decisions</i>
Knowledge Base	<i>The component of an expert system that contains the system's knowledge organized in collection of facts about the system's domain.</i>
Knowledge Representation	<i>The study of how "what we know" can at the same time be represented as comprehensibly as possible and reasoned with as effectively as possibly from an information system</i>
Soundness	<i>Derivations produce only entailed sentences</i>
Completeness	<i>Derivations can produce all entailed sentences</i>

When Knowledge-Based Penguins Fail...



Logic: another thing that penguins aren't very good at.

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