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48th CSE...

Chapter

FOL \rightarrow Inference / Reasoning

\rightarrow material implication

\forall for all

\neg not

\exists there exists

\vee or

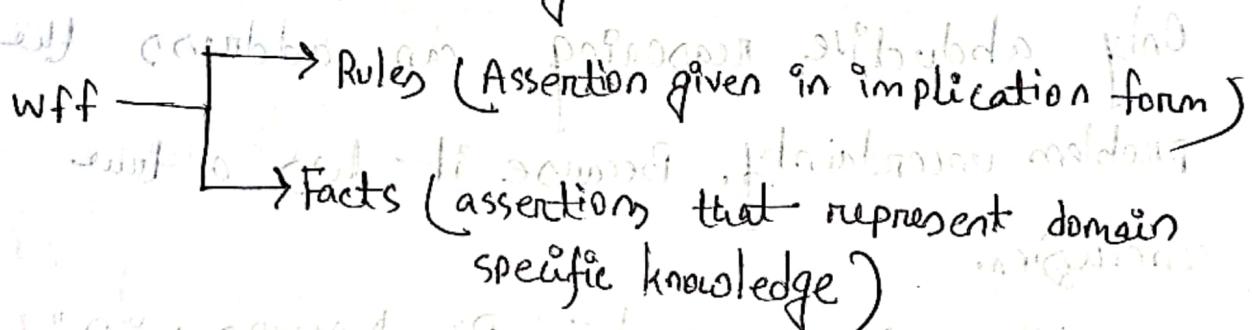
(AND) pattern

\wedge and

(OR) pattern

(wff) (AND) 9

Well-formed formula in propositional logic or FOL represent assertion knowledge.



Propositional logic (PL) is the simplest form of logic where all the statements are made by propositions. It consists of declarative statements which are either true or false.

A proposition is a declarative statement which is either true or false.

Example: $5+5=10$ (True proposition)

The sun rises from the West (False proposition)

Conclusion: All propositions are either true or false.

④ Basic facts about PL^o

- (i) It is also called Boolean logic as it basically works on 0 and 1. It's easier to implement.
- (ii) We can use symbolic variables to represent the logic such as A, B, C, P, Q, R, etc.
- (iii) Propositions can be either true or false, but it can't be both.
- (iv) A proposition formula which is always true is called tautology and it is also called a valid sentence.
- (v) A proposition formula which is always false is called "Contradiction".
- (vi) Statements which are questions, commands or opinions are not propositions. Ex: What is your name?

Propositions → Atomic (simple proposition)
Ex: The sun is hot (true proposition)

→ Compound (constructed by simpler/atomic proposition)
Ex: It is raining today, and street is wet.

2. Simple and complex proposition

Logical connectives:

Logical connectives are used to connect two simpler propositions or representing a sentence logically.

There are mainly five connectors:

(i) Negation (\neg): [Not] ($\neg P$)
→ if it is called negation of P , can be true or false.

(ii) Conjunction (\wedge): [And] ($P \wedge Q$)
 $P =$ He is intelligent
 $Q =$ He is hardworking

(iii) Disjunction (\vee): [Or] ($P \vee Q$)
 $P =$ Ritika is Doctor
 $Q =$ Ritika is Engineer
($P \vee Q$) (Ritika is a doctor or engineer)

(iv) Implication (\rightarrow): [Implies] ($P \rightarrow Q$)
 $P =$ It is raining
 $Q =$ Street is wet
($P \rightarrow Q$) (If it is raining, then the street is wet)

Biconditional (\leftrightarrow):

~~Biconditional~~ \rightarrow If and only if \leftrightarrow

$P = T$ am breathing

$Q = T$ am alive

$P \leftrightarrow Q$ (If I am breathing, then I am alive)

captures the concept of "if and only if"

list of First Order Logic in 2^o slides

FOL is a way of knowledge representation in artificial intelligence which is an extension to propositional logic.

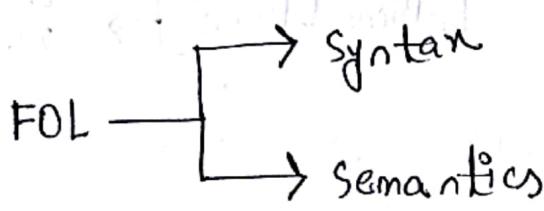
FOL is also known as Predicate logic or First-order predicate logic.

FOL does not only assume that the world contains facts like propositional logic but also assumes the following things in the world:

① Objects: A, B, people, numbers, colors, wars, theories, squares, pits, wumpus, ...

② Relations: It can be unary relation such as: red, round, E is adjacent to or any relation such as: the sister of, brother of, has color, comes between

③ Function: Father of, best friend, third inning of, end of, ...



Syntax

The syntax of FOL determines which collection of symbols is a logical expression in FOL.

In following are the basic elements of FOL syntax:

(i) Constant $\rightarrow 1, 2, A, \text{Name}, \text{city name}, \text{cat}, \dots$

(ii) Variables $\rightarrow x, y, a, b, \dots$

(iii) Brother, Father, >, =

(iv) ~~F~~ function, not truth function, plus the symbol

(v) Predicates \rightarrow Bor Brother, Father, >, =, etc.

(vi) Function \rightarrow sqrt, leftLegOf, etc.

(v) Connectives $\rightarrow \wedge, \vee, \neg, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$

(vi) Equality $\rightarrow =$

(vii) Quantifier $\rightarrow \forall, \exists$

Atomic sentences:

Atomic sentences are the most basic sentences of first-order logic. These sentences are formed from a predicate symbol followed by a parenthesis with a sequence of terms.

We can represent atomic sentences as predicate ($\text{term}_1, \text{term}_2, \dots, \text{term}_n$).

Ex: x and y are brothers $\Rightarrow \text{Brothers}(x, y)$

Chinky is a cat $\Rightarrow \text{cat}(\text{chinky})$

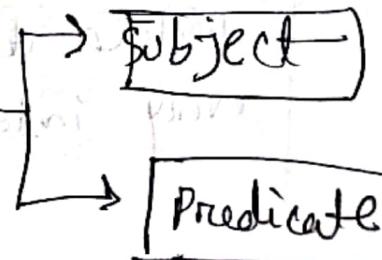
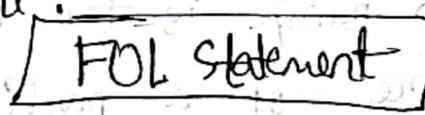
Complex sentences:

Complex sentences are made by combining atomic sentences using connectives.

FOL statements can be divided into two parts.

(i) Subject: The main part of the statement

(ii) Predicate: Can be defined as a relation, which binds two atoms together in a statement.



Example
A statement \rightarrow

" x is an integer." are called statements
to check if x is an integer.

X

subject

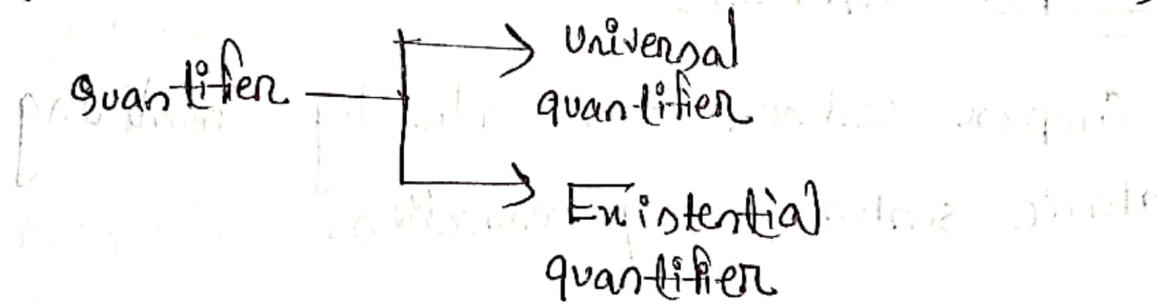
Predicate

is an integer.

When we want to check facts about x ,
we can say x is an integer.

(#) Quantifiers in FOL (constant and variable)

A quantifier is a language element which generates quantifications, and quantification specifies the quantity of specimen in the universe of discourse.



(#) Universal quantifiers

Universal quantifier is a symbol of logical representation, which specifies that the statement within its range is true for every instance of a particular thing.

The universal quantifier is represented by a symbol " \forall ".

In universal quantifier we use implication " \rightarrow ".

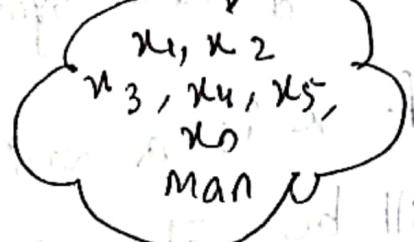
Example 8

If x is a variable, then $\forall x$ this is read as:

(i) For all x

(ii) For each x

(iii) For every x



Example 9

Universe of Discourse

All ~~men~~ men drink coffee.

Let a variable x which refers to a ~~man~~ so all x can be represented in Universe of Discourse (UOD) as below:

- x_1 drinks coffee
- x_2 drinks
- x_3 drinks coffee
- \vdots
- x_n drinks ~~coffee~~

So; in shorthand

in notation, we can write

It as:

$\forall x \text{ man}(x) \rightarrow \text{drunk}(x, \text{coffee})$

It will be read as:

There are all x where x is a man who drink coffee.

④ Existential quantifiers

Existential quantifiers are the type of quantifiers, which express that the statement within its scope is true for at least one instance of something.

It is denoted by the logical operator \exists .

In Existential quantifier we always use AND or conjunction symbol (\wedge).

If x is a variable, then existential quantifier will be $\exists x$ or $\exists(x)$. It will be read as,

- There exists an x ,
- For some x ,
- For at least one x

Example

Some boys are intelligent.

x_1 is intelligent

x_2 is intelligent

x_3 is intelligent

x_4 is intelligent

x_5 is intelligent

x_6 is intelligent

Universe of
Discourse

which is

affine club

affine club

affine club

In short-hand notation, we can write it as $\exists x \text{ boys}(x) \wedge \text{intelligent}(x)$

$\exists x \text{ boys}(x) \wedge \text{intelligent}(x)$

It will be read as:

There are some x (where x is a boy) who is intelligent.

④ ⑤ ⑥ Points to remember:

- The main connective for universal quantifier \forall is implication \rightarrow .
- The main connective for existential quantifier \exists is \wedge and \vee .

Properties of Quantifiers

- (i) In universal quantifier, $\forall x \forall y$ is similar to $\forall y \forall x$.
- (ii) In existential quantifier, $\exists x \exists y$ is similar to $\exists y \exists x$.
- (iii) $\exists x \forall y$ is not similar to $\forall y \exists x$.

(think of John < Catherine, \forall)

Examples of FOL using quantifiers

(i) All birds fly.

\Rightarrow Solution:

Here, the predicate is "fly(bird)".

And since there are all birds who fly so it will be represented as follows,

$$\forall x \text{bird}(x) \rightarrow \text{fly}(x)$$

(ii) Every man respects his parent.

Solution:

Here the predicate is "respects(x, y);",
where $x = \text{man}$

and $y = \text{parent}$

Since there is every man so we will use
 \forall (Universal quantifier) and it will be
represented as follows:

$$\forall x \text{man}(x) \rightarrow \text{respects}(x, \text{parent})$$

(iii) Some boys play cricket.

Solution:

Predicate is "play(x, y)"

x = boys

y = cricket

So, we will use \exists (existential quantifier) and it will be represented as:

$\exists x \text{ boys}(x) \rightarrow \text{play}(x, \text{cricket})$

(iv) Not all students like both Mathematics and Science.

Solution:

Here predicate is "like(x, y)" ;

where x = student ; y = subject

Since there are not all students, so we will use \forall with negation. So following representation for this:

$\neg \forall x [\text{student}(x) \rightarrow \text{like}(x, \text{Mathematics}) \wedge \text{like}(x, \text{Science})]$

(A) John likes cat \wedge (B) John \neg likes cat

(A) John likes cat \wedge (B) John \neg likes cat

(A) John likes cat \wedge (B) John \neg likes cat

(V) Only one student failed in Mathematics.

Solution

Here Predicate is "failed(x, y)" ; where

x = student

y = subject

ant subject

2nd arg "subject" part

categorized not the

$\exists(x) [student(x) \rightarrow failed(x, Mathematics)]$

$\wedge \forall(y) [\neg(x=y) \wedge student(y) \rightarrow$
 $\neg failed(y, Mathematics)]$

(VI) All dogs are faithful.

Solution

$\forall x (dog(x) \rightarrow faithful(x))$

(VII) Mammals drink milk.

Solution

$\forall x (mammal(x) \rightarrow drink(x, milk))$

(VIII) Some birds cannot fly.

Solution

$\neg (\exists x (bird(x)) \rightarrow fly(x))$

(IX) Fathers are male parents with children.

Solution

$\forall x (Father(x) \rightarrow male(x) \wedge has_children(x))$

(X) Students are people who are enrolled in courses.

Solution

$\forall x (Student(x) \rightarrow people(x) \wedge enrolled_in(x, courses))$

(xi)

Brothers are siblings.

Solution:

$\forall x, y$

$\text{Brother}(x, y) \rightarrow \text{siblings}(x, y)$

(xii) Everyone is loyal to someone.

Solution:

$\forall x \exists y \text{ loyal}(x, y)$

Extra:

(i) Man is mortal.

Solution:

$\forall x \text{ Man}(x) \rightarrow \text{mortal}(x)$

(ii) All birds cannot fly.

Solution:

$\neg (\forall x (\text{bird}(x) \rightarrow \text{fly}(x)))$

(iii) No dogs purr.

Solution:

$\neg [\exists x (\text{dog}(x) \wedge \text{purr}(x))]$

(iv) Some dogs bark.

Solution:

$\exists x (\text{dog}(x) \wedge \text{bark}(x))$

(v) All dogs have four legs.

Solution:

$$\forall x [\text{dog}(x) \rightarrow \text{have-four-legs}(x)]$$

(vi) There are at least two cats.

Solution:

$$\exists x \exists y [\text{cat}(x) \wedge \text{cat}(y) \wedge \neg(x=y)]$$

(vii) Every dog chases some cat.

Solution:

$$\forall x [\text{dog}(x) \rightarrow \exists y (\text{cat}(y) \wedge \text{chases}(x, y))]$$

Scanned with CamScanner

$$[\text{Cat}(x) \wedge \text{Dog}(y)] \rightarrow \text{chases}(x, y)$$

Scanned with CamScanner

Inference

Generating the conclusions from evidence and facts is termed as inference.

① Inference rules

Inference rules are the templates for generating valid arguments. Following are some terminologies related to inference rules.

(i) Implication: It is one of the logical connectives which can be represented as $P \rightarrow Q$. It is a Boolean expression.

ii) Converse

$Q \rightarrow P$; converse of implication

(iii) Contrapositive: The negation of converse is termed as contrapositive and it is represented as $\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$.

(iv) Inverse: The negation of implication is called inverse. It can be represented as $\neg P \rightarrow Q$.

Truth table

P	Q	$P \rightarrow Q$	$Q \rightarrow P$	$\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$	$\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$
T	T	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	T	F	T
F	T	T	F	T	F
F	F	T	T	T	T

From the above truth table, we can prove that (i)

that $P \rightarrow Q$ is equivalent to $\neg Q \rightarrow \neg P$

and $Q \rightarrow P$ is equivalent to $\neg P \rightarrow \neg Q$

④ Types of Inference rules

(i) Modus Ponens

The modus ponens rule states that if P and $P \rightarrow Q$ is true, then we can infer that Q will be true. It can be represented as:

$$\text{Notation for Modus Ponens: } \frac{P \rightarrow Q, P}{Q}$$

$$Q \leftarrow P$$

Example :-

Statement-1 :- "If I am sleepy then I go to bed" $\Rightarrow P \rightarrow Q$

Statement-2 :- "I am sleepy" $\Rightarrow P$

Conclusion :- "I go to bed." $\Rightarrow Q$

Hence, we can say that, if $P \rightarrow Q$ is true and P is true then Q will be true.

Proof by Truth table :-

P	Q	$P \rightarrow Q$
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	0
1	1	1

(2) Modus Tollens, (3) Hypothetical Syllogism,

(4) Disjunctive Syllogism, (5) Addition, (6) Simplification

(7) Resolution :-

The resolution rule state that if $P \vee Q$ and $\neg P \wedge R$ is true, then $Q \vee R$ will also be true. It can be represented as

Notation of Resolution:
$$\frac{P \vee Q, \neg P \wedge R}{Q \vee R}$$

Proof by Truth-Table

P	$\neg P$	Q	R	$P \vee Q$	$\neg P \wedge R$	$Q \vee R$
0	1	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	0	1
0	1	1	0	1	0	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	0	0
1	0	0	1	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	1	1	0	1

Game Playing

Min - Max Algorithm

It is a recursive or backtracking algorithm which is used in decision-making and game theory. It provides an optimal move for the player assuming that opponent is also playing optimally.

Chess, checkers, tic-tac-toe, go and various two-players game. This algorithm computes the ~~minimax~~ decision for the current state. In this algorithm two players play the game, one is called Max and other is called Min.

Pseudo-code for MinMax Algorithm

```
function minmax(node, depth, MaximizingPlayer) is
    if depth == 0 or node is a terminal node then
        return static evaluation of node
    if MaximizingPlayer then //for maximizer player
        maxEva = -infinity
        for each child of node do
            eva = minmax(child, depth - 1, false)
            maxEva = max(maxEva, eva) // gives maximum of the values
        return maxEva
    else //Minimizing Player
        minEva = infinity
        for each child of node do
            eva = minmax(child, depth - 1, true)
            minEva = min(minEva, eva) // gives minimum of the values
        return minEva
```

```

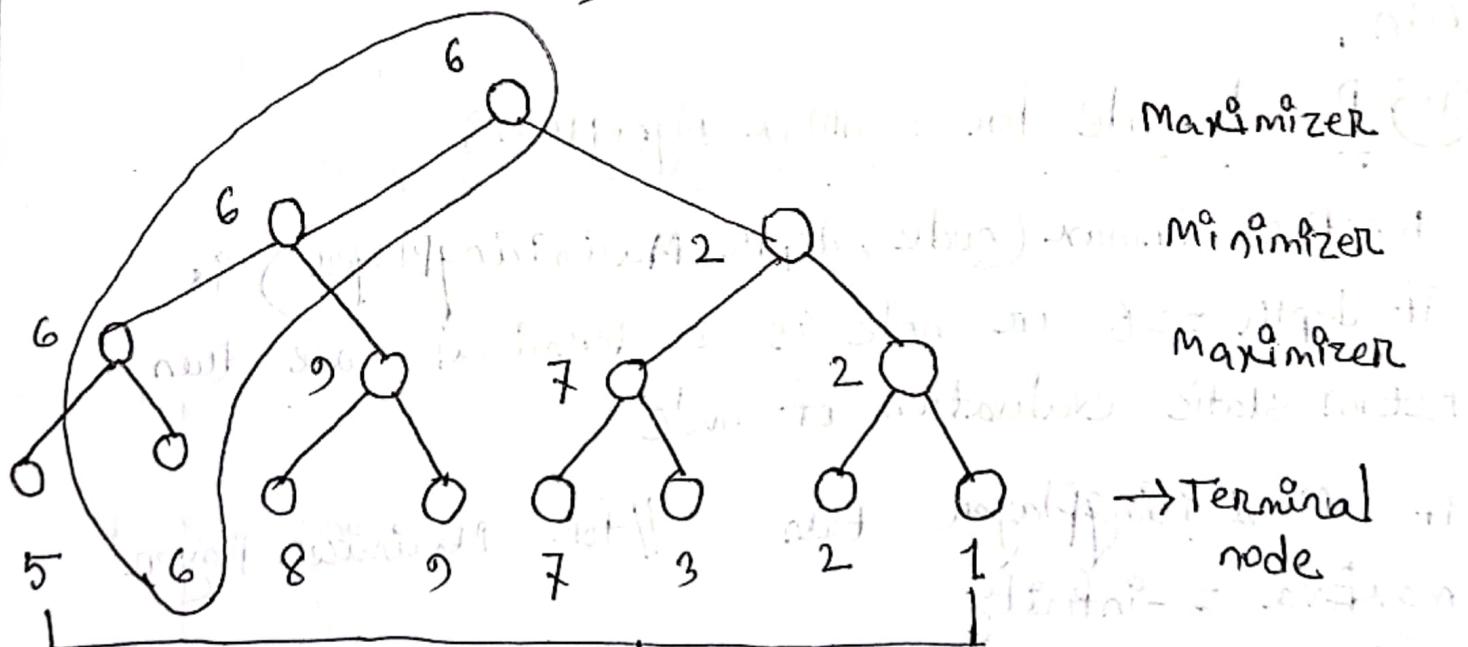
else //for Minimizer player
    minEva = +infinity
    for each child of node do
        eva = minmax (child, depth -1, false)
        minEva = min (minEva, eva) // gives minimum of
    return minEva

```

Initial call%

Initial call%

Minmax (node, 3, true)



Terminal values

Fig% max-min Algorithm

and for minimizer

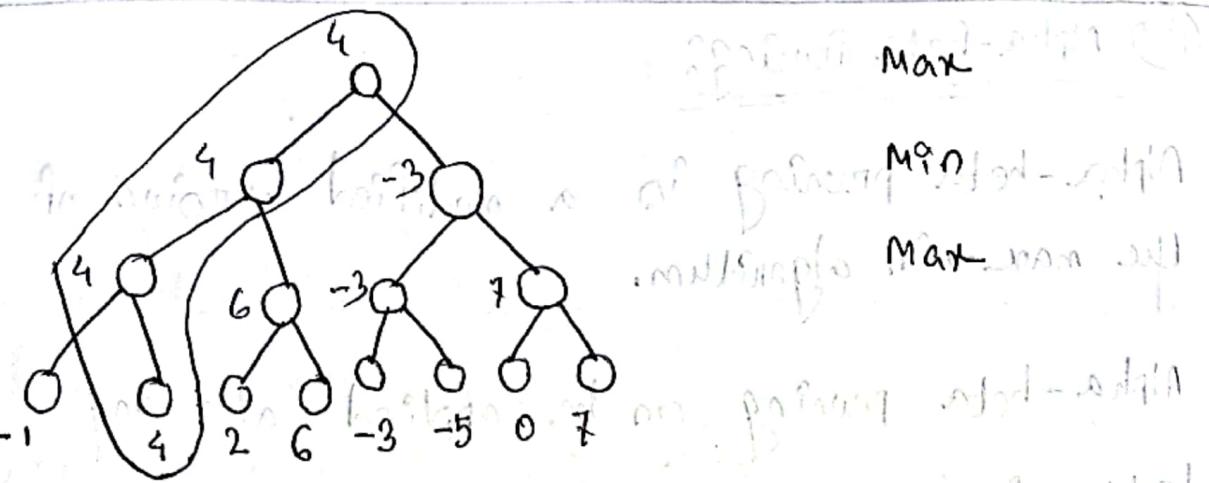


Fig : Max-Min Algorithm

Properties of Max-Min algorithm:

- ① Complete → There must be a solution in the finite search tree.
- ② Optimal → It is optimal if both opponents are playing optimally.
- ③ Time complexity → Time complexity is $O(b^n)$; where
 b = branching factor of the game-tree
 n = maximum depth of the tree.
- ④ Space complexity → Space complexity is $O(bn)$.

Limitation of the max-min algorithm:

The main drawback of this algorithm is that it gets really slow for complex games such as chess, go, etc. Because these games contain huge branching factor and the player has lots of choices to decide.

#) Alpha-Beta Pruning

Alpha-beta pruning is a modified version of the max-min algorithm.

Alpha-beta pruning can be applied at any depth of a tree, ~~and sometimes~~

* Alpha = The best (highest value) choice

The initial value of alpha is $-\infty$

* Beta = The best (lowest value) choice

The initial value of beta is $+\infty$

Condition of Alpha -beta pruning

$$\alpha > \beta$$

Key points

The max player will only update the value of alpha.

The min player will only update the value of beta.

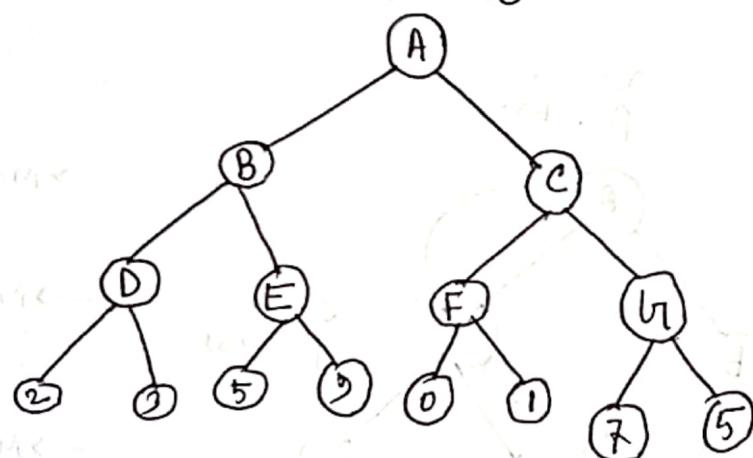
While backtracking the tree, the node values will be passed to upper nodes instead of values of alpha and beta.

- we will only pass the alpha, beta values to the child nodes.

Working of Alpha-Beta Pruning

Let's take an example of two-player search tree to understand the working of Alpha-beta pruning.

Step-1



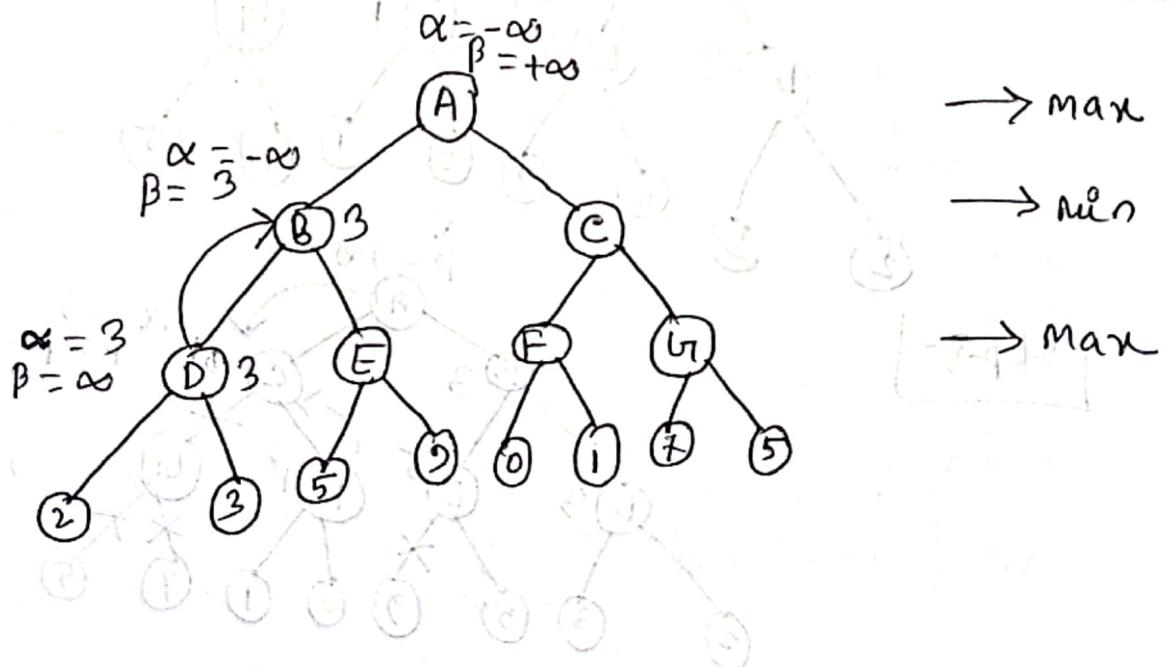
→ Max

→ Min

→ Max

→ Terminal node

Step-2

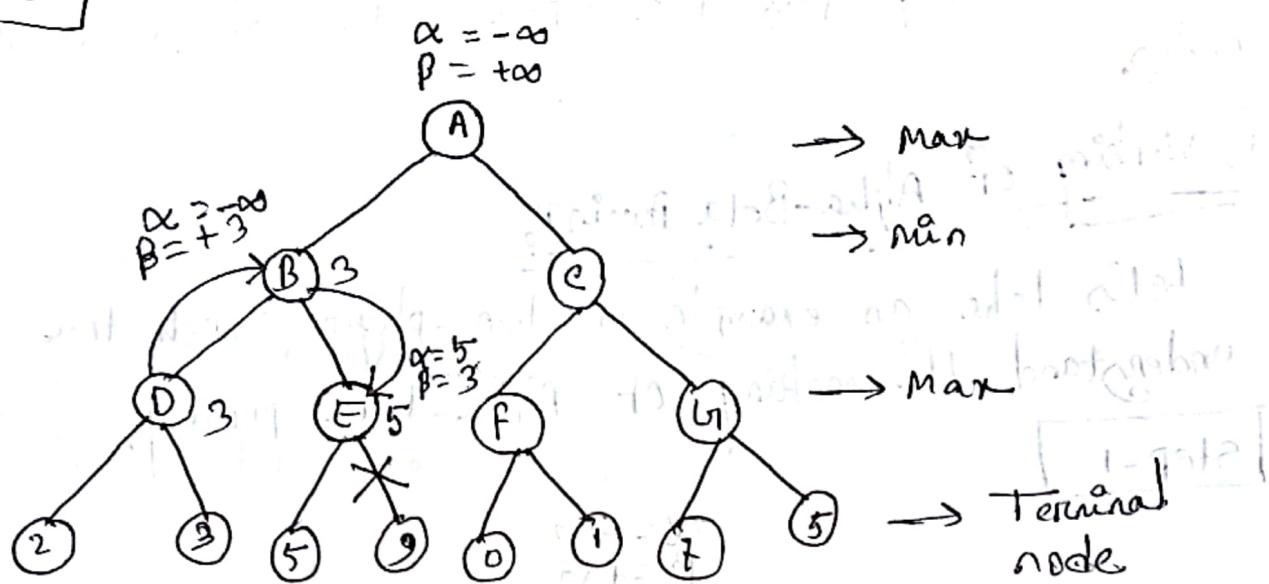


→ max

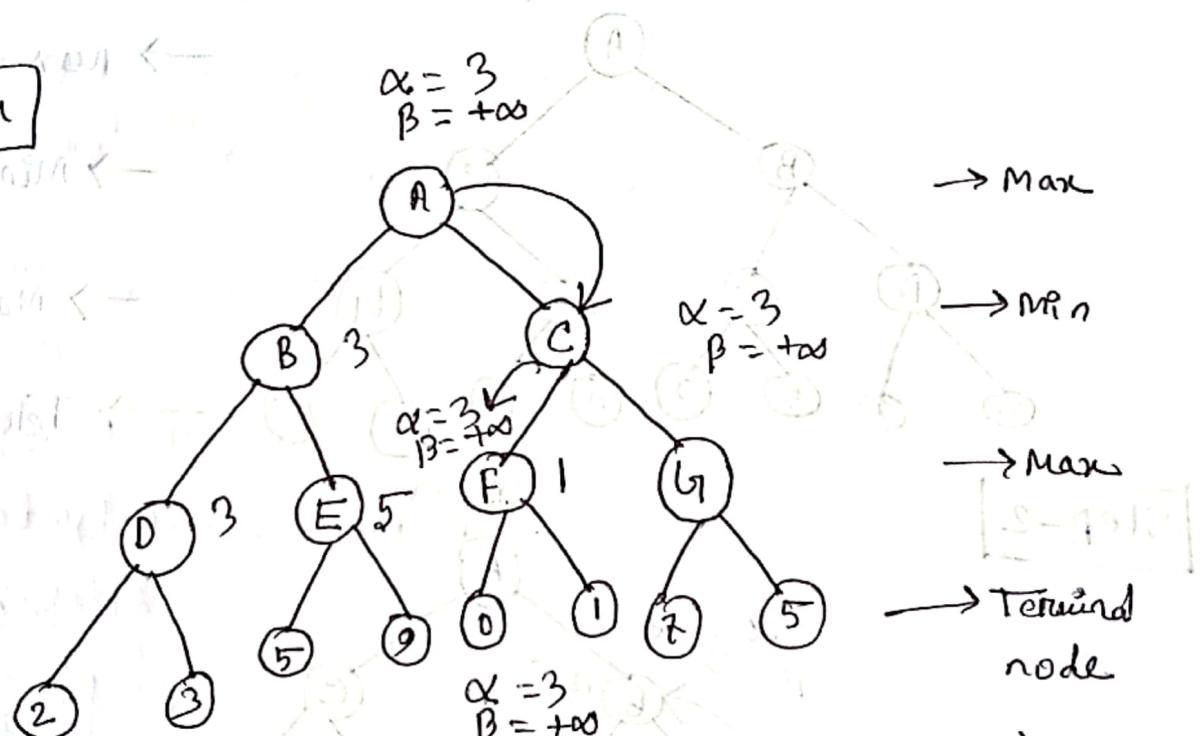
→ min

→ max

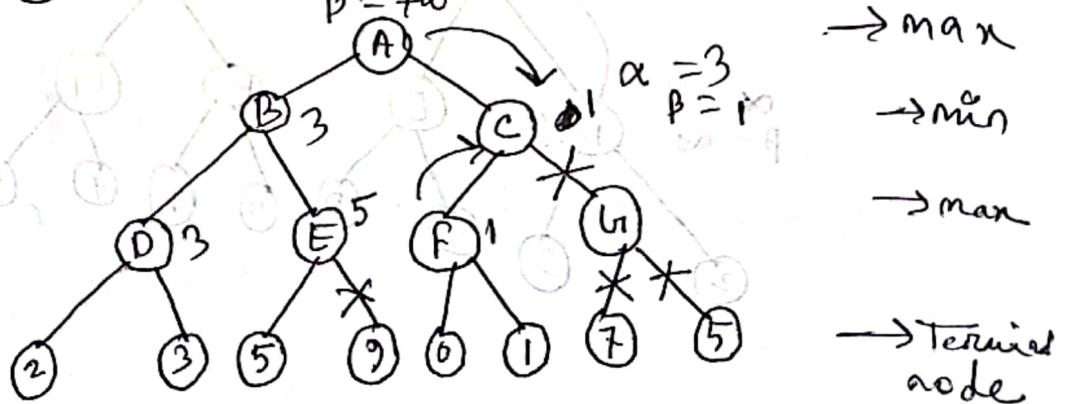
Step-3



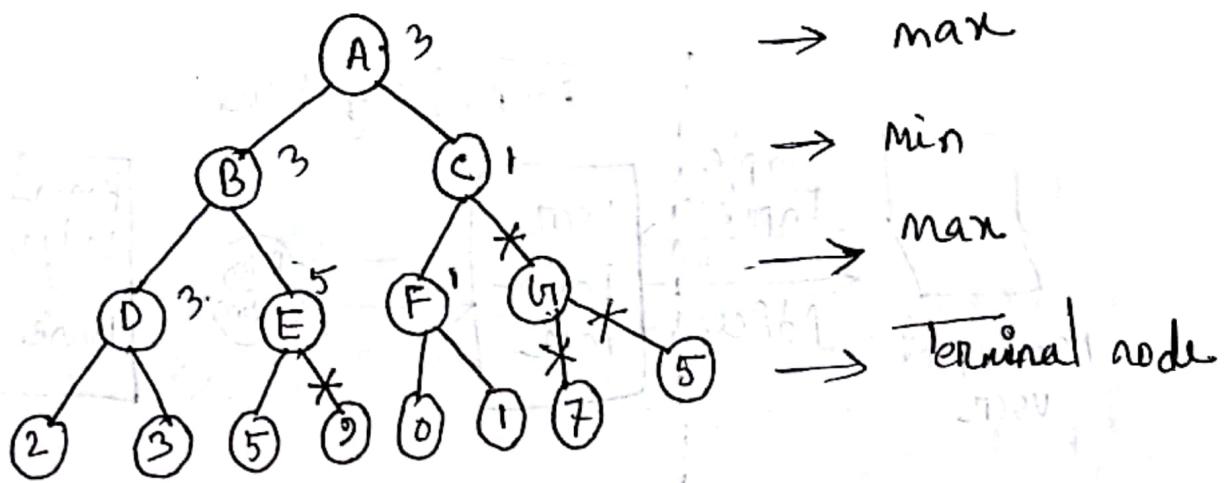
Step-4



Step-5



Step-6



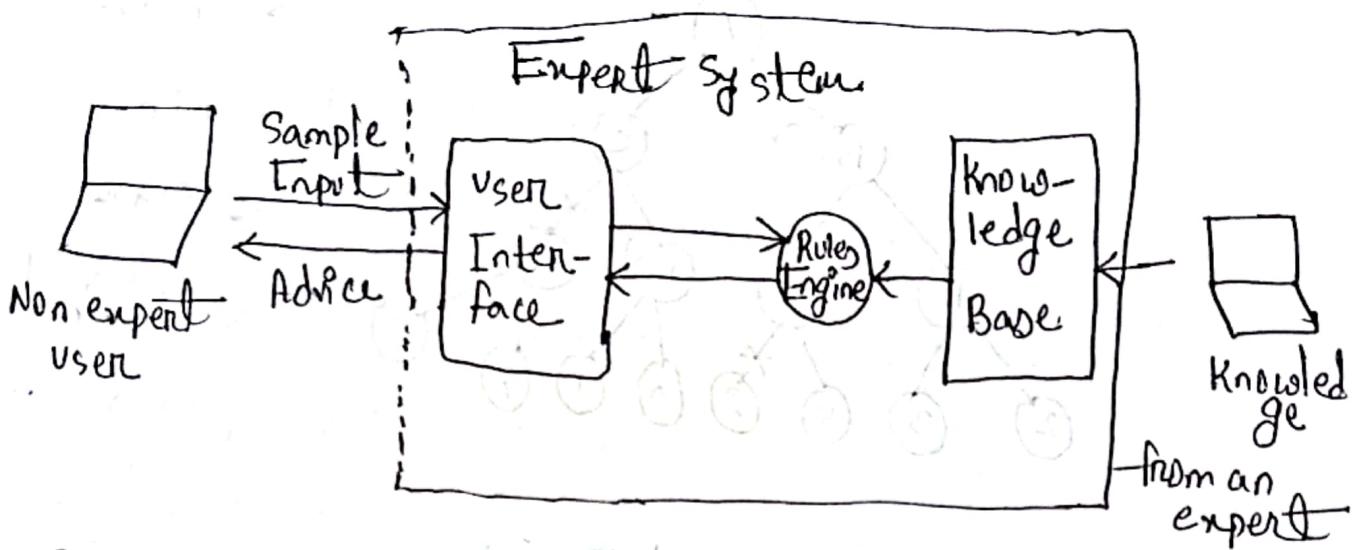
Rule-based Expert

Expert System

Q. What is an Expert System?

An expert system is a computer program that is designed to solve complex problems and to provide decision-making ability like a human expert.

The performance of an expert system is based on the expert's knowledge stored in its knowledge base. The more knowledge stored in the KB, the more that system improves its performance. Example: suggestion of spelling errors while typing in the Google search box.



Some popular examples of The Expert Systems

- ④ Dendral
- ④ Mycin
- ④ Prolog
- ④ Cadet

Characteristics of Expert Systems

④ High Performance

④ Understandable

④ Reliable

④ Highly responsive

Components

An expert system mainly consists of three components:

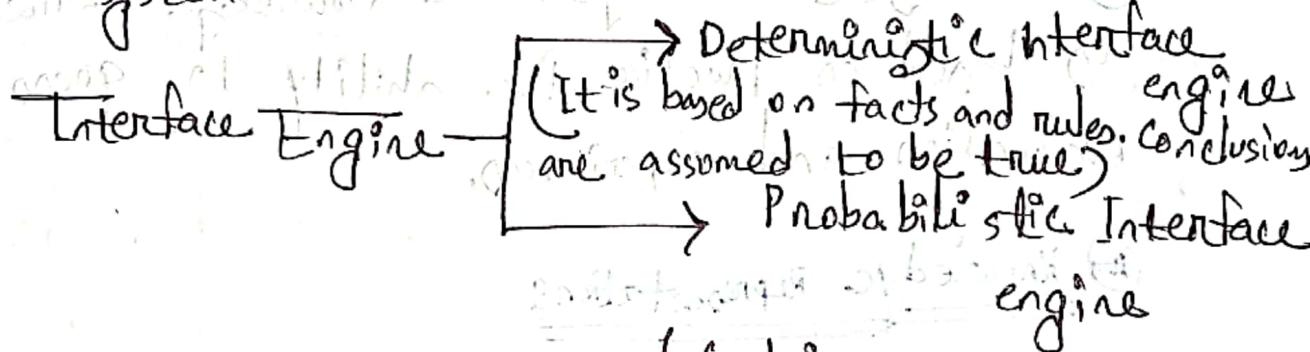
④ User interface

④ Interface Engine

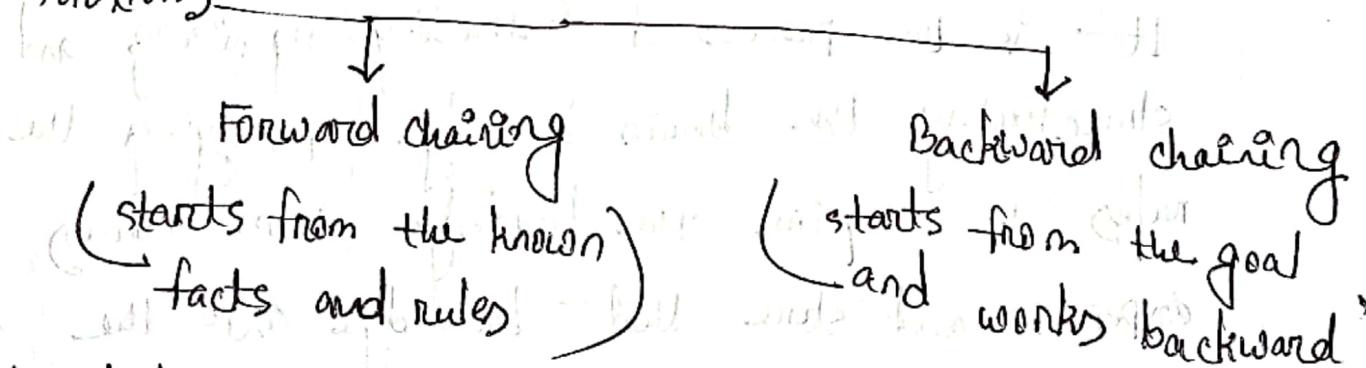
④ Knowledge Base

④ User Interface \Rightarrow It helps a non-expert user to communicate with the expert system to find a solution.

⑤ Interface Engine \Rightarrow It is the brain of the expert system as it is the main processing unit of the system.



Interface engine uses two modes to derive solutions



⑥ Knowledge Base \Rightarrow It is a type of storage that stores knowledge acquired from the different experts of the particular domain. It is considered as big storage of knowledge. The more the knowledge base, the more precise will be the Expert system.

Components of knowledge Base

① Factual knowledge: The knowledge which is based on facts and accepted by knowledge engineers comes under factual knowledge.

② Heuristic knowledge: The knowledge which is based on practice, the ability to guess, evaluation and experience.

Knowledge Representation

It is used to formalize the knowledge stored in the knowledge base using the if-else rules.

Knowledge Acquisitions

It is the process of extracting, organizing and structuring the domain knowledge, specifying the rules to acquire the knowledge from various experts and store that knowledge into the knowledge base.

- ④ Participants in the development of Expert System.
- ⑤ Expert: The success of an ES much depends on the knowledge provided by human experts. These experts are those persons who are specialized in that specific domain.
- ⑥ Knowledge Engineering: Knowledge engineer is the person who gathers the knowledge from the domain experts and then codifies that knowledge to the system according to the formalism.
- ⑦ End-user: This is a particular person or a group of people who may not be experts and working on expert system needs the solution or advice for his queries, which are complex.

④ Why we need Expert system?

- (i) No memory limitations: It can store as much data as required and can memorize it at the time of its application. But, for human experts, there are some limitations to memorize all things at every time.
- (ii) High Efficiency: If the knowledge base is updated with the correct knowledge, then it provides a highly efficient output, which may not be possible for a human.
- (iii) Expertise in a domain: There are lots of experts in each domain. They all have different skills, experiences. So it is not easy to get a final output for the query. But if we put the knowledge gained from human experts into the expert system, then it provides an efficient output by mixing all the facts and knowledge.

- (iv) Not affected by emotions: These systems are not affected by human emotions such as fatigue, anger, depression, anxiety, etc. Hence the performance remains constant.
- (v) High ~~sequ~~ security: These systems provide high security to resolve any query.
- (vi) ~~cons~~ Considers all the facts: To respond to any query, it checks and considers all the available facts and provides the result accordingly. But it is possible that a human expert may not consider some facts due to any reason.
- (vii) Regular updates improve the performance: If there is any issue in the result provided by the expert system, we can improve the performance of the system by updating the knowledge base.

Capabilities of the Expert System

- (i) Advising: It is capable of advising the human being for the query of any domain from the particular ES.
- (ii) Provide decision-making capabilities: It provides the capability of decision making in any domain, such as for making any financial decision, decisions in medical science, etc.
- (iii) Demonstrate a device: It is capable of demonstrating any new products such as its features, specifications, how to use that product, etc.
- (iv) Problem-solving: It has problem-solving capabilities, based on problem-solving.
- (v) Explaining a problem: It is also capable of providing a detailed description of an input problem.

- (vi) Interpreting the input: It is capable of interpreting the input given by the user.
- (vii) Predicting results: It can be used for the prediction of a result.
- (viii) Diagnosis: An ES designed for the medical field is capable of diagnosing a disease without using multiple components as it already contains various inbuilt medical tools.

Advantages of Expert System

- i) These systems are highly reproducible.
- ii) They can be used for risky places where the human presence is not safe.
- iii) Error possibilities are less if the KB contains correct knowledge.
- iv) The performance remains steady as it is not affected by emotions, tension or fatigue.
- v) They provide a very high speed to respond to a particular query.

Limitations of Expert Systems

- i) The response of the ES may get wrong if the knowledge base contains the wrong information.
- ii) Like human being, it can't produce a creative output for different scenarios.
- iii) Its maintenance and development costs are very high.
- iv) Knowledge acquisition for designing is much difficult.
- v) For each domain, we require a specific ES, which is one of the big limitations.
- vi) It can't learn from itself and hence requires manual update.

④ Applications of Expert System

- i) In designing and manufacturing domain: It can be broadly used for designing and manufacturing physical devices such as camera lenses and automobiles.
- ii) In the knowledge domain: These systems are primarily used for publishing the relevant knowledge to the user. The two popular ES used for this domain is an advisor and a tax advisor.
- iii) In the finance domain: In the finance industries, it is used to detect any type of possible fraud, suspicious activity and advise bankers that if they should provide loans for business or not.
- iv) In the diagnosis and troubleshooting of devices: In medical diagnosis, the ES system is used and it was the first area where these systems were used.
- v) Planning and Scheduling: The expert system can also be used for planning and scheduling some particular tasks for achieving the goal of that task.

⊕ When a rule becomes fact, ~~then it is consistent~~

⇒ When antecedent part becomes null, then what? ⊕
a rule becomes fact.

Planning

What is a plan?

Ans: A plan is considered a sequence of actions, and each action has its preconditions that must be satisfied before it can act and some effects that can be positive or negative.

What is planning in AI?

Ans: Planning in artificial intelligence is the process about decision making actions performed by robots or computer programs to achieve a specific goal.

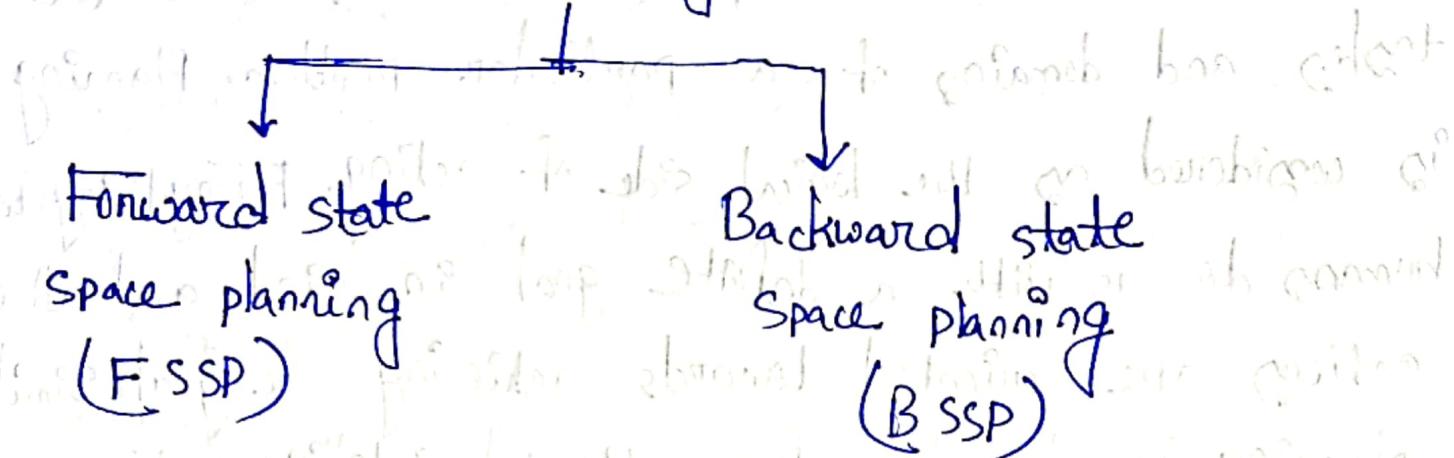
What is planning? Plan, Deepak! When we have to do something, we start with some thought and then take steps. What is planning? It's primarily about taking steps and probabilities. This planning is not always a fixed plan, it's a long-term flexible and step

What is the role of planning in artificial intelligence?

Ans: Planning is very much important to make any AI project. It is a part that deals with the tasks and domains of a particular problem. Planning is considered as the logical side of acting. Everything we humans do is with a definite goal in mind and all our actions are oriented towards achieving our goal. Similarly, planning is also done for artificial intelligence. For example, planning is required to reach a particular destination. It is necessary to find the best route in planning, but the tasks to be done at a particular time and why they are done are also very important. That is why planning is considered the logical side of acting. In other words, planning is about deciding the tasks to be performed by the artificial intelligence system and the system's functioning under domain-independent conditions.

There are two types of planning in AI.

Planning



FSSP:

It says that given an initial state s in any domain, we perform some necessary actions and obtain a new state s' (containing some new items), called a progression. It continues until we reach the target position. Action should be taken in this matter.

- ① Advantage: The algorithm is sound
- ② Disadvantage: Large branching factor

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BSSP^o

In this, we move from the target state g to the sub-goal g' , tracing the previous action to achieve that goal. This process is called regression (going back to the previous goal or sub-goal).

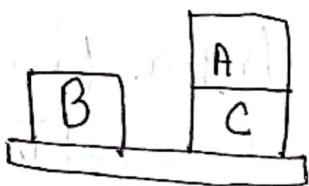
These sub-goals should also be checked for consistency. The action should be relevant in this case.

- (*) Advantage: Small branching factor (much smaller than FSSP)
- (**) Disadvantage: Not sound algorithm (sometimes inconsistency can be found)

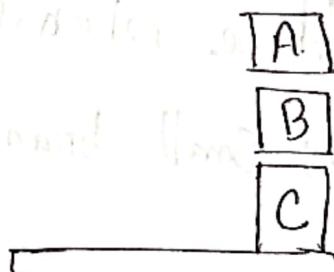
Block-world planning problem

The block-world problem is known as the Sussman anomaly. When two sub-goals, b_{11} and b_{12} , are given, a non-interleaved planner either produces a plan for b_{11} that is combined with a plan for b_{12} or vice-versa, resulting in a plan with no blocks being held at the start of the second part of the plan.

In the block-world problem, three blocks labeled 'A', 'B' and 'C' are allowed to rest on a flat surface. The given condition is that only one block can be moved at a time to achieve the target. The start position and target position are shown in the following diagram.



Start state



Goal state

Fig: world planning problem

#

Components of the planning system:

The plan includes the following steps:

- (i) Choose the best rule to apply the next rule based on the best available given.
- (ii) Apply the chosen rule to calculate the new problem condition.

- (iii) Find out when a solution has been found.
- (iv) Detect dead ends so they can be discarded and direct system effort in more useful directions.
- (v) Find out when a near-perfect solution is found.

Target stack planning

(i) It is one of the most important planning algorithms used by STRIPS.

(ii) Stacks are used in algorithms to capture the action and complete the target. A knowledge base is used to hold the current situation and actions.

(iii) A target stack is similar to a node in a search tree, where branches are created with a choice of action.

The important steps of the algorithm are mentioned below:

(i) Start by pushing the original target onto the stack. Repeat this until the pile is empty. If the stack top is a mixed target, push its unsatisfied sub-targets onto the stack.

(ii) If the stack top is a single unsatisfied target, replace it with action and push the action precondition to the stack to satisfy the condition.

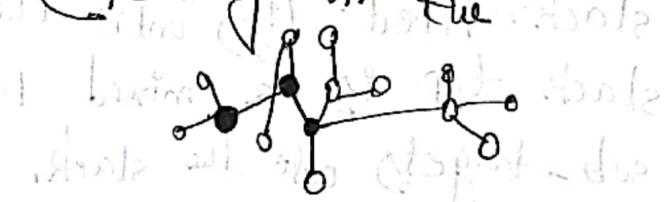
(iii) If the stack top is an action, pop it off the stack, execute it and replace the knowledge base with the action effect.

(iv) If the stack top is a single satisfactory target, pop it off the stack.

Non-linear Planning

This planning is used to set a goal stack and is included in the search space of all possible sub-goal orderings. It handles the goal interactions by the interleaving method.

* Advantages: It may be an optimal solution concerning planning length (depending on the search strategy used).



④ Disadvantages

It takes a larger search space since all impossible goal orderings are considered.

⑤ Complex algorithm to understand

Algorithm

1. Choose a goal ' g ' from the goal set.
2. If ' g ' does not match the state, then
 - o choose an operator ' O ' whose add-list matches goal g
 - o Push ' O ' on the OpStack
 - o Add the preconditions of ' O ' to the goal set
3. While all preconditions of the operator on top of OpenStack are met in a state
 - o Pop operator O from top of OpStack
 - o state = apply (O , state)
 - o plan = [plan; O]

Reasoning Under Uncertainty

Uncertainty

Considering a situation where we are not sure about whether A is true or not then we can not ~~sure about~~ express a related statement, this situation is called uncertainty.

Causes of uncertainty

- (i) Information occurred from unreliable sources.
- (ii) Experimental Error
- (iii) Equipment fault
- (iv) Temperature variation
- (v) Climate change

Probabilistic reasoning

Probabilistic reasoning is a way of knowledge representation where we apply the concept of probability to indicate the uncertainty in knowledge.

#3 Need of probabilistic reasoning in AI

- (i) When there are unpredictable outcomes.
- (ii) When specifications or possibilities of predicates become too large to handle.
- (iii) When an unknown error occurs during an experiment.

Probability: Probability can be defined as a chance that an uncertain event will occur.

$$\text{Probability of occurrence} = \frac{\text{Number of desired outcomes}}{\text{Total number of outcomes}}$$

$P(\neg A)$ = Probability of a not happening event

$$P(\neg A) + P(A) = 1$$

Event - Each possible outcome of a variable is called an event.

Sample Space - The collection of all possible events is called sample space.

Random variables: Random variables are used to represent the events and objects in the real world.

Prior probability: The prior probability of an event is probability computed before observing new information.

④ Bayes' theorem:

Bayes' theorem is also known as Bayes' rule, Bayes' law or Bayesian reasoning; which determines the probability of an event with uncertain knowledge.

It relates the conditional probability and marginal probability probabilities of two random events. It is a way to calculate the value of $P(B|A)$ with the knowledge of $P(A|B)$.

Solving this is called Bayes' rule - page 8

page 8 last of class

From the product rule;

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A|B) P(B)$$
$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$$

The above eqn is called as Bayes' rule.

$P(A|B)$ = Posterior $P(B|A)$ = likelihood

$P(A)$ = Prior probability

$P(B)$ = Marginal probability

Ex 10

What is the probability that a patient has meningitis with a stiff neck?

Soln A doctor is aware that disease meningitis causes a patient to have a stiff neck and it occurs 80% of the time. He is also aware of some more facts; →

The known probability that a patient has meningitis disease is $1/30,000$.

The known probability that a patient has a stiff neck is 2% .

Let;

a = Patient has stiff neck (AND)

b = Patient has meningitis (AND)

$$P(a|b) = 0.8$$

$$P(b) = 1/30,000$$

$$P(a) = 0.2$$

$$\therefore P(b|a) = \frac{P(a|b)P(b)}{P(a)} = \frac{0.8 \times \frac{1}{30,000}}{0.02} = 0.00133$$

Hence we can assume that 1 patient out of 750 patients has meningitis disease with a stiff neck.

Ex: 2:

From a standard deck of playing cards, a single card is drawn. The probability that the card is king is $\frac{4}{52}$, then calculate posterior probability $P(\text{King} | \text{Face})$, which means the drawn face card is a king card.

Solution:

$$P(\text{King} | \text{Face}) = \frac{P(\text{Face} | \text{King}) \times P(\text{King})}{P(\text{Face})}$$

$$P(\text{King}) = \text{Probability that the card is king} = \frac{4}{52} = \frac{1}{13}$$

$$P(\text{Face}) = \frac{3}{13}$$

$$P(\text{Face} | \text{King}) = [\text{Probability of face card when we assume it is a king} = 1]$$

Putting all the values in the eqn; \rightarrow

$$P(\text{King} | \text{Face}) = \frac{1 \times \left(\frac{1}{13}\right)}{\left(\frac{3}{13}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}; \text{ it is the probability that a face card is a king card.}$$

④ Application of Bayes theorem:

- (i) It is used to calculate the next step of how the robot when already executed step is how given.
- (ii) Bayes theorem is helpful in weather forecasting.
- (iii) It can solve the Monty Hall problem.