Artificial Intelligence AI 2002 Lecture 12

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Knowledge, Reasoning and Logic

Knowledge umans know things ...

⇒ the knowledge helps them to do various tasks.

⇒ The knowledge has been achieved

- not by purely reflex mechanisms
- but by the processes of reasoning
- In AI, the example is knowladge-based agent which contains set of sentences referred as knowledge-base.

Knowledge-based Agent

For a generic knowledge-based agent:

- A percept is given to the agent.
- The agent adds the percept to its knowledge base.
- Perform best action according to the knowledge base.
- Tells the knowledge base that it has in fact taken that action.

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Knowledge-based Agent

function KB-AGENT(percept) returns an action 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)) $t \leftarrow t + 1$ constructs a **sentence** asserting that the agent return action perceived the given percept at time t constructs a sentence that asks what action **should be done** at time **t** constructs a sentence that the chosen action was executed at time t

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Logic

We'll look at two kinds of logic:

Propositional Logic which is relatively simple.

First-order Logic

which is more complicated.

Propositional Logics

The syntax of propositional logic defines the allowable sentences.

What are the sentances?

- Sentance are well formed formulas
- True and False are sentances
- Propositional variables are sentences. P, Q, R, S etc.

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- The <u>atomic sentences</u> consist of a <u>single proposition</u> symbol.
- Each such symbol stands for a proposition that can be True or False.
- The <u>complex sentences</u> are constructed from simpler sentences, using parentheses and <u>logical connectives</u>.
- There are five connectives in common use:

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\neg (not), \land (and), \lor (or), \Rightarrow (implies), \Leftrightarrow (if and only if)
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- \neg (not) A sentence such as \neg W_{1,3} is called the negation of W_{1,3}.
- A literal is either an atomic sentence (a positive literal) or a negated atomic sentence (a negative literal).
- \land (and) A sentence whose main connective is \land , such as $W_{1,3} \land P_{3,1}$, is called a conjunction; its parts are the conjuncts.
- \vee (or) A sentence using \vee , such as $(W_{1,3} \wedge P_{3,1}) \vee W_{2,2}$, is a disjunction of the *disjuncts* $(W_{1,3} \wedge P_{3,1})$ and $W_{2,2}$.

 \Rightarrow (implies) A sentence such as $(W_{1,3} \land P_{3,1}) \Rightarrow \neg W_{2,2}$ is called an implication (or conditional). The premise or antecedent is $(W_{1,3} \land P_{3,1})$.

Implications are also known as rules or **if-then** statements.

The implication symbol is sometimes written as \supset or \rightarrow or \Rightarrow .

 \Leftrightarrow (if and only if) The sentence $W_{1,3} \Leftrightarrow \neg W_{2,2}$ is a biconditional. Sometime it is written as \equiv .

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If S is a sentence, \neg S is a sentence (negation)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, S_1 \wedge S_2 is a sentence (conjunction)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, S_1 \vee S_2 is a sentence (disjunction)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, S_1 \Rightarrow S_2 is a sentence (implication)

If S_1 and S_2 are sentences, S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2 is a sentence (biconditional)
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BNF (Backus-Naur Form) Grammar

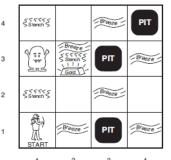
OPERATOR PRECEDENCE : $\neg, \land, \lor, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$

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Sentence 
ightarrow AtomicSentence | ComplexSentence | AtomicSentence | True | False | P | Q | R | ... | ComplexSentence | Sentence | Sentenc
```

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Precedence Example:





The semantics defines the rules for determining the truth value of a sentence with respect to a particular model.

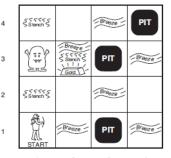
In propositional logic, a model simply fixes the truth value—true or false—for every proposition symbol

For example:

If the sentences in the knowledge base make use of the proposition symbols $P_{1,2}$, $P_{2,2}$, and $P_{3,1}$, then one possible model is:

$$m_1 = \{P_{1,2} = false, P_{2,2} = false, P_{3,1} = true\}$$

Propositional Logic: Semantics



The semantics for propositional logic must specify how to compute the truth value of any sentence, given a model.

For Atomic sentences:

- True is true in every model and False is false in every model.
- The truth value of every other proposition symbol must be specified directly in the model.
 - For example, in the model m_1 given earlier, $P_{1,2}$ is false.

$$m_1 = \{P_{1,2} = false, P_{2,2} = false, P_{3,1} = true\}$$

Propositional Logic: Semantics

For complex sentences

- We have five rules, which hold for any sub-sentences $m{P}$ and $m{Q}$ in any model $m{m}$
 - $\neg P$ is true iff P is false in m.
 - $P \wedge Q$ is true iff both P and Q are true in m.
 - $P \vee Q$ is true iff either P or Q is true in m.
 - $P \Rightarrow Q$ is false unless P is true and Q is false in m.
 - $P \Leftrightarrow Q$ is true iff P and Q are both true or both false in m.

Propositional Logic: Semantics

- The propositional logic does not require any relation of causation or relevance between P and Q.
 - For example, the sentence "5 is odd implies Tokyo is the capital of Japan" is a true sentence of propositional logic, even though it is not a well-formed English sentence.
- In case of implication, any implication is true whenever its antecedent is false.
 - For example, "5 is even implies Sam is smart" is true, regardless of whether Sam is smart or not.

Propositional Logic: Truth Table

Р	Q	¬ P	PAQ	PVQ	$P\toQ$	$Q\toP$	$P \leftrightarrow Q$
f	f	t	f	f	t	t	t
f	t	t	f	t	t	f	f
t	f	f	f	t	f	t	f
t	t	f	t	t	t	t	t

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A simple knowledge base

With propositional logic, we can construct a knowledge base for the Wumpus world.

For Example:

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P_{x,y} is true if there is a pit in [x,y].

W_{x,y} is true if there is a wumpus in [x,y], dead or alive.

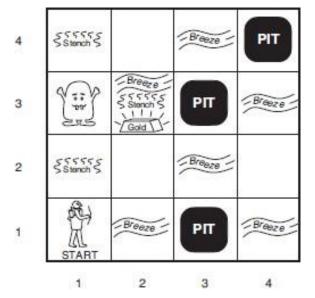
B_{x,y} is true if the agent perceives a breeze in [x,y].

S_{x,y} is true if the agent perceives a stench in [x,y].
```

A simple knowledge base

There is **no** pit in [1,1]:

$$R_1: \neg P_{1,1}$$
.



A square is breezy if and only if there is a pit in a neighbouring square. This has to be stated for each square; for now, we include just the relevant squares:

$$R_2: B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1}).$$

 $R_3: B_{2,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,1} \vee P_{2,2} \vee P_{3,1}).$

Standard Logical Equivalences

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

- Artificial Intelligence, A Modern Approach Stuart J. Russell and Peter Norvig
 - Chapter 7.