ME 620: Fundamentals of Artificial Intelligence

Lecture 18: Inference in FOL - Part II



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Resolution



- □ Resolution is an important rule of inference that can be applied to a certain class of well-formed formulas called clauses.
 - First step in applying resolution is to convert **FOPC** well-formed formula to clausal normal form.
 - A clause is a set of literals representing their disjunction.
 - □ A literal is an atomic sentence or the negation of an atomic sentence.
- □ The resolution process, when applicable, is applied to a pair of parent clauses to produce a derived clause.

Resolution for Ground Clauses



☐ We have two ground clauses:

1.
$$P_1 \vee P_2 \vee P_3 \dots \vee P_N$$
 No terms contain variables; we have a ground instance of the literal. 2. $\neg P_1 \vee Q_1 \vee Q_2 \vee Q_3 \dots \vee Q_M$

- Assume in above ground clauses all of P_i and Q_j are distinct.
- One of these clauses contains a literal that is the exact negation of one of the literals in the other clause.

From the two above parent clauses; infer a new clause, called the resolvent of the two.

- The resolvent is computed by taking the disjunction of the two clauses after eliminating the complementary pair P1 and ¬ P1.
- □ Resolution allows for incorporation of several operations into one simple inference rule.

Clauses and Resolvents



Parent Clause	Resolvents	Comments
1. P	Q	Modus Ponens
2. ¬P ∨ Q		
1. P v Q	Q	Merge
2. ¬P ∨ Q		
1. P v Q	$Q \vee \neg Q$	Tautologies
2. ¬P ∨ ¬Q	P∨¬P	
1. P		Empty Clause
2. ¬P		
1. ¬P ∨ Q	¬P v R	Chaining
2. ¬Q ∨ R		

General Resolution Principle



<u>Definition</u>: Suppose Φ and Ψ are two clauses. If there is a literal ϕ in Φ a literal $\neg \psi$ in Ψ such that ϕ and ψ have a most general unifier γ , then we can **infer the clause** obtained by **applying the substitution** γ to the **union of** Φ and Ψ minus the complementary literals.

Φ	with $\phi \in \mathbf{\Phi}$
Ψ	with $\neg\psi\in\Psi$
$((\Phi - \{\phi\}) \cup (\Psi - \{\neg \psi\})) \gamma$	where $\phi \gamma = \psi \gamma$

Resolution Derivation



<u>Definition</u>: The **resolution derivation** of a clause Φ from a set of clauses Δ is a **sequence of clauses** in which

- a. Clause Φ is the last element of the sequence, and
- b. Each element is either a member of Δ or result of applying the resolution principle to clauses earlier in the sequence.

We write

$$\Delta \vdash \Phi$$

if there exits a derivation of Φ from Δ .

Resolution Derivation



Example

1. \neg I(x) \lor H(x)

Δ

2. $\neg H(D)$

Δ

3. I(D)

Δ

4. \neg I(D)

1,2

5. □

3,4

I(x): `x' is intelligent

H(x): `x' has commonsense

D: Deep Blue

Clause in line 4 is derived from clauses in line 1 and 2.

The empty clause is derived from clauses in line 3 and 4.

We can write $\Delta \vdash \Box$

The following sequence of clauses is a resolution derivation of the empty clause from the set of clauses labelled $\boldsymbol{\Delta}$

Resolution Graph



1. P

Δ

Three-Level Resolution Graph

 $2. \neg P \lor Q$

Δ

 $3. \neg Q \lor R$

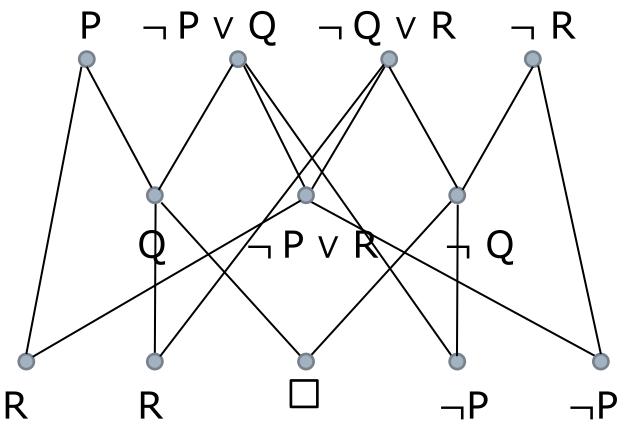
Δ

4. ¬R

Λ

Figure on the right shows the Resolution graph: graph of possible resolutions from the initial database.

Expanded to three levels of deduction.



We want to encode such graphs in a linear form.

One of the problems of with such inference graphs is that they are difficult to be followed!

Resolution Trace



<u>Definition</u>: The <u>resolution</u> trace is a <u>sequence</u> of annotated clauses separated into levels.

- a. The first level contains the clauses in the initial database.
- b. Each subsequent level contains all clauses with at least one parent at the previous level.
- c. The annotations specify the clauses from which they are derived.

A resolution trace captures the information of a resolution graph, in a linear form.

Resolution Trace



1. P

Δ

2. $\neg P \lor Q$

Δ

3. $\neg Q \lor R$

Δ

4. ¬R

Δ

5. Q

1,2

6. ¬P ∨ R

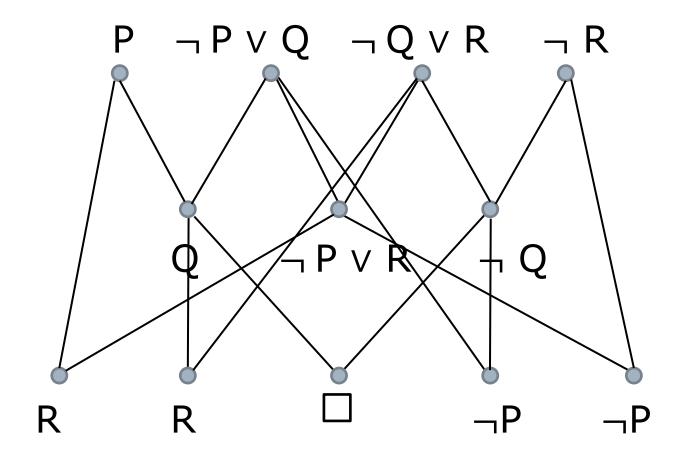
2,3

7. ¬Q

3,4

A resolution trace captures the information of a resolution graph, in a linear form.

Three-Level Resolution Graph



Resolution Trace



1. P

Δ

2. ¬P ∨ Q

Δ

 $3. \neg Q \lor R$

Δ

4. ¬R

Δ

5. Q

1,2

6. ¬P ∨ R

2,3

7. ¬Q

3,4

8. R

3,5

9. R

1,6

10. ¬P

4,6

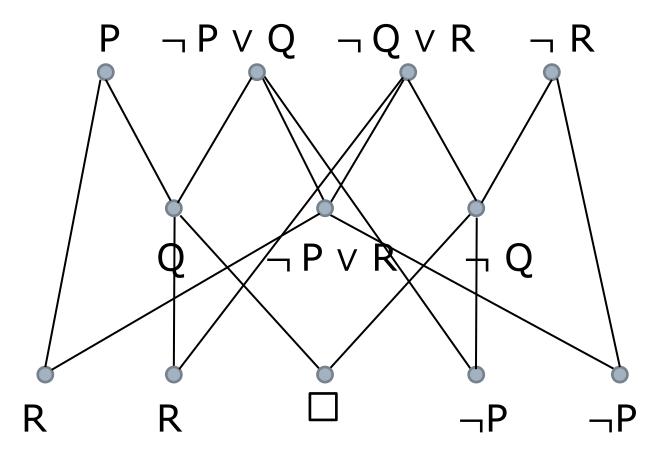
11. ¬P

2,7

12. □

5,7

Three-Level Resolution Graph



The resolution trace searches the inference graph in a breadth-first fashion.

Resolution Refutation



<u>Definition</u>: The **resolution refutation** of a set Δ of clauses, is a sequence $\Phi_1, \Phi_2 \dots \Phi_n$ of clauses such that

- a. Every Φ_i is either in Δ or follows by resolution (i.e., it is a resolvent) of prior clauses in the sequence.
- b. In addition, we require that $\Phi_n = \square$.

If there is a resolution refutation of Δ , then we say that Δ is refutable.

Resolution Refutation



1. P

Δ

2. ¬P ∨ Q

Δ

3. $\neg Q \lor R$

Δ

4. ¬R

Δ

5. Q

1,2

6. ¬P ∨ R

2,3

7. ¬Q

3,4

8. R

3,5

9. R

1,6

10. ¬P

4,6

11. ¬P

2,7

12. □

5,7

Sequence $\Phi_1, \Phi_2 \dots \Phi_n$ of clauses with

 $\Phi_n = []$.

Resolution refutation of Δ .

Set of clauses is unsatisfiable.

Unsatisfiability



- Resolution is used in demonstrating unsatisfiability.
 - If a set of clauses is unsatisfiable, it is always possible by resolution to derive a contradiction from clauses in the set.

In clausal form, a contradiction takes the form of an empty clause, which is equivalent to a disjunction of no literals.

- Demonstrating unsatisfiability for a set of clauses can also be used to demonstrate that a formula is logically implied by a set of formula.
 - \square For a set of clauses Δ , we can show that Δ logically implies a formula Φ by finding a proof of Φ from Δ i.e., by establishing $\Delta \vdash \Phi$
 - \square By the **refutation theorem**, we can establish $\Delta \vdash \Phi$ by showing that $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$ is inconsistent (unsatisfiable).
- If we show that the set of formula $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$ is unsatisfiable, we have demonstrated that Δ logically implies Φ

Unsatisfiability



From the standpoint of Models

If $\Delta \models \Phi$

The domain paired with an interpretation is a *model* for the language. A model for a first-order language is directly analogous to a truth assignment for propositional logic, because it provides all the information we need to determine the truth value of each sentence in the language.

Then all models of Δ are also models of Φ . None of these can be models of $\neg \Phi$, and thus $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$ is unsatisfiable.

Conversely, $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$ is unsatisfiable; Δ is satisfiable.

Let I be an interpretation that satisfies Δ ; I does not satisfy $\neg \Phi$; for if it did, $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$ would be satisfiable. Therefore I satisfies Φ .

Since this holds for arbitrary I satisfying Δ , it holds for all I satisfying Δ . Thus **all models of** Δ **are also models of** Φ , and Δ logically implies Φ .

Resolution Refutation Systems



- □ To turn this into a **proof technique**, we take a **set of clauses** Δ **together with negation of the goal** $\{\neg\Phi\}$; and try to show that it is inconsistent and hence **lead to a contradiction**.
 - If there is no contradiction then the clauses must be satisfiable.
 - If there is a contradiction then the $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$ must be unsatisfiable. The **process of finding a contradiction is called finding a refutation**.
 - If empty clause is produced from the clause set $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$ then $\Delta \vdash \Phi$

Resolution Refutation Systems



 \square In a **resolution refutation**, we first negate the goal wff, Φ . Negated goal is added to the set of wffs, Δ , from which we wish to prove Φ .

$$\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$$

 \square If Φ logically follows from Δ , the set $\Delta \cup \neg \Phi$ is unsatisfiable. Applying resolution repeatedly to a set of unsatisfiable clauses, eventually produces the empty clause.

 $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\} \vDash \square$

- □ If Φ logically follows from Δ , then resolution eventually will produce \Box from the clause representation of $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$
- \square Conversely, if the empty clause \square is produced from the clause representation of $\Delta \cup \{\neg \Phi\}$, then Φ logically follows from Δ .



Basic steps for proving a conclusion Φ given premises

Premise₁, ..., Premise_n

All of the premises expressed in FOL.

- 1. Convert all sentences to Clausal Normal Form (CNF)
- 2. Negate conclusion Φ and convert result to CNF
- 3. Add negated conclusion $\neg \Phi$ to the premise clauses.
- 4. Repeat until **contradiction** or no progress is made:
 - a. Select 2 clauses (call them parent clauses)
 - b. Resolve them together, performing all required unifications
 - c. If resolvent is the empty clause, a contradiction has been found (i.e., Φ follows from the premises)
 - d. If not, add resolvent to the premises.

If we succeed in Step 4, we have proved the conclusion.

Soundness and Completeness



Resolution is Sound

□ Resolution is sound in that any clause that can be derived from a database using resolution is logically implied by that database.

Soundness Theorem: If there is a resolution derivation of a clause Φ from a set of clauses Δ , then Δ logically implies Φ .

Special case of this theorem; the check for unsatisfiability.

■ If there is a **deduction of the empty clause** from a database, then the database must logically imply the empty clause and, therefore, is **unsatisfiable**.

Soundness and Completeness



Resolution is not Complete

- Resolution is not complete! By itself, it would not generate every clause that is logically implied by a given set of clauses.

 Tautology something that is always true: [P v ¬P].
 - For example, Tautology is logically implied by every set of clauses but resolution will not produce this clause from the empty clause.
 - It provides no way of using sentences involving the equality and inequality relations.
 - \square For example, Given a database consisting of sentences P(A) and A=B; resolution cannot prove P(B). This is because as far as the database, the relation constant = is arbitrary.

To give its standard interpretation, additional axioms are required.

Soundness and Completeness



Resolution is Refutation Complete

□ For a database without sentences involving the equality and inequality relations, the procedure is refutation complete, i.e.,

Given an unsatisfiable set of sentences, it is guaranteed to produce the empty clause.

Consequently, we can turn it into a proof technique to determine logical implication by negating the clause to be proved, adding it to the database, and proving its unsatisfiability.

The proof of refutation completeness is a little complicated and involves the introduction of several new concepts and lemmas. It is outside the scope of this discussion on Introduction to KR & R.

Resolution and Equality



- □ Refutation completeness of resolution does not hold for databases containing the relation constant = intended to be interpreted as equality relation.
 - No mechanism for substitution of nonvariable terms that are known to be equal.
- One way of dealing with sentences involving equality is to axiomatize the equality relation

Reflexive

 $\forall x \ x = x$

□ Symmetric

 $\forall x \forall y [x = y \rightarrow y = x]$

Transitive

 $\forall x \forall y \forall z \ [x = y \land y = z \rightarrow x = z]$

- Supply appropriate substitution axioms
 - Substitute terms for terms in each of functions and relations.

Resolution and Equality



- Of course, this would work if we have substitution axiom for every function and relation within which we want substitutions to occur.
 - Tedious to write these axioms in situations involving numerous functions and relations.
- □ Rule of inference, called paramodulation when added to resolution principle, guarantees refutation completeness, even when involving equality.
 - Weaker version of paramodulation, called demodulation which is easier to understand and efficient.
 - Demodulation is the basis for the semantics of functional programming languages such as LISP.



Example 1

Premise

- 1. If a course is easy, some students are happy.
- 2. If a course has a final exam, no students are happy.

Prove: If a course has a final exam, the course is not easy.

Predicates

Recall that a predicate is an assertion that some property or relationship holds for one or more arguments,

easy(x): Course x' is a easy.

happy(x): Student `x' is happy.

final(x) : Course `x' has a final exam.



1. If a course is easy, some students are happy.

```
\forall x [easy(x) \rightarrow \exists y happy(y)]
\forall x [\neg easy(x) \lor \exists y happy(y)]
\forall x [\neg easy(x) \lor happy(f(x))]
[\neg easy(x) \lor happy(f(x))]
C1. [\neg easy(x_1) \lor happy(f(x_2))]
```

2. If a course has a final exam, no students are happy.

```
\forall x \text{ [final}(x) \rightarrow \neg \exists y \text{ happy}(y)]
\forall x \text{ [final}(x) \rightarrow \forall y \neg \text{happy}(y)]
\forall x \forall y \text{ [final}(x) \rightarrow \neg \text{happy}(y)]
[\neg \text{ final}(x) \lor \neg \text{happy}(y)]
C2. [\neg \text{ final}(x_3) \lor \neg \text{happy}(y_1)]
```



Φ : If a course has a final exam, the course is not easy.

```
\forall x [final(x) \rightarrow \neg \exists y easy(y)]

\forall x [final(x) \rightarrow \forall y \neg easy(y)]

\forall x \forall y [final(x) \rightarrow \neg easy(y)]
```

```
. [\neg final(x_4) \lor \neg easy(y_2)]
```

```
Negate the goal: \neg [\neg final(x_4) \lor \neg easy(y_2)]

[final(x_4) \land easy(y_2)]
```

C3. final(x_4)

C4. easy (y_2)



Resolution Trace

1.	$[\neg easy(x_1) \lor happy(f(x_2))]$	C1
2.	$[\neg final(x_3) \lor \neg happy(y_1)]$	C2
3.	final(x ₄)	C3
4.	easy(y ₂)	C4
5.	$\neg happy(y_1)$	2,3
6.	happy(f(x ₂))	1,4
7.		5,6

Intuitively, 5 states that no student is happy; 6 states that a particular student $f(x_2)$ is happy.

We have arrived at a contradiction. AFTER the goal was negated and added to the clause set. Hence, the statement is proved.



Example 2

Premise

- 1. The father of someone or the mother of someone is an ancestor of that person.
- 2. An ancestor of someone's ancestor is also the ancestor of that person.
- 3. Jesse is the father of David.
- 4. David is the ancestor of Mary
- 5. Mary is the mother of Jesus

Prove: Jesse is an ancestor of Jesus.



Predicates

A predicate is an assertion that some property or relationship holds for one or more arguments,

- 1. father(x,y) : `x' is the father of `y'.
- 2. mother(x,y): `x' is the mother of `y'.
- 3. ancestor(x,y) : `x' is the ancestor of `y'.

Constants

- 1. Jesse
- 2. David
- 3. Mary
- 4. Jesus

A constant is a symbolic name for a real-world person, object or event.



1. The father of someone or the mother of someone is an ancestor of that person

```
\forall x \forall y [(father(x,y) \lor mother(x,y)) \rightarrow ancestor(x,y)]

\forall x \forall y [\neg (father(x,y) \lor mother(x,y)) \lor ancestor(x,y)]

\forall x \forall y [(\neg father(x,y) \land \neg mother(x,y)) \lor ancestor(x,y)]

\forall x \forall y [(\neg father(x,y) \lor ancestor(x,y)) \land (\neg mother(x,y)) \lor ancestor(x,y)]
```

- C1. [\neg father(x_1, y_1) \lor ancestor(x_1, y_1)]
- C2. $[\neg mother(x_2,y_2) \lor ancestor(x_2,y_2)]$
- 2. An ancestor of someone's ancestor is also an ancestor of that person.

```
\forall r \forall s \forall t [ (ancestor(r,s) \land ancestor(s,t)) \rightarrow ancestor(r,t)] 
\forall r \forall s \forall t [\neg (ancestor(r,s) \land ancestor(s,t)) \lor ancestor(r,t)] 
\forall r \forall s \forall t [\neg ancestor(r,s) \lor \neg ancestor(s,t) \lor ancestor(r,t)]
```

C3. $[\neg ancestor(r,s) \lor \neg ancestor(s,t) \lor ancestor(r,t)]$



- 3. Jesse is the father of David.
 - C4. father(Jesse, David).
- 4. David is an ancestor of Mary.
 - C5. ancestor(David, Mary).
- 5. Mary is the mother of Jesus.
 - C6. mother(Mary, Jesus).
- Φ : Jesse is an ancestor of Jesus.

ancestor(Jesse, Jesus).

Negate the goal: ¬ancestor(Jesse, Jesus).

C7. ¬ ancestor(Jesse, Jesus).



Resolution Trace

We have arrived at a contradiction; Hence, the statement is proved.

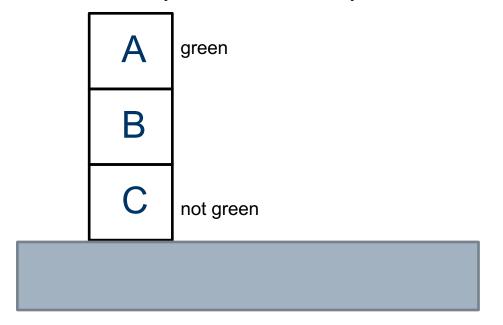
<u>Resolution frace</u>	we have anned at a contradiction, hence, the statement is proved.
1. $[\neg father(x_1, y_1) \lor ancestor(x_1, y_1)]$	C1
2. $[\neg mother(x_2,y_2) \lor ancestor(x_2,y_2)$] C2
3. $[\neg ancestor(r,s) \lor \neg ancestor(s,t)$	v ancestor(r,t)] C3
4. father(Jesse, David)	C4
ancestor(David, Mary)	C5
mother(Mary, Jesus)	C6
7. \neg ancestor(Jesse, Jesus).	C7
8. \neg ancestor(Jesse,s) $\lor \neg$ ancestor(s,Jesus) 3,7 {Jesse/r, Jesus/t}
9. \neg father(Jesse,s) $\lor \neg$ ancestor(s,J	esus) 1,8 {Jesse/ x_1 , s/ y_1 }
10. ¬ ancestor(David,Jesus)	4,9 {David/s}
11. \neg ancestor(David,s) $\lor \neg$ ancestor	(s,Jesus) 3,10 {David/r, Jesus/t}
12. ¬ ancestor(Mary,Jesus)	5,11 {Mary/s}
13. ¬ mother(Mary,Jesus)	$2,12 \{Mary/x_2, Jesus/y_2\}$
14. 🗆	6,13



Example 3

Suppose there are three coloured blocks stacked as shown, where the top one is `green' and the bottom is `not green'. Is there a `green' block on top of a `non-green' block?

on: holds if and only if block is immediately above the other.



Predicates

on(x,y): holds if and only if block `x'

is immediately above 'y'

green(x): block `x' is green.

Query

 $\exists x \exists y \ on(x,y) \land green(x) \land \neg green(y)$

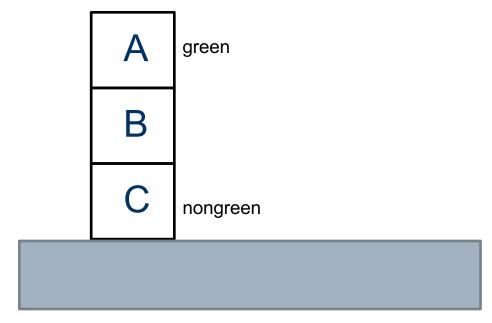


Example 3

Negation of the Query

$$\neg \exists x \exists y (on(x, y) \land green(x) \land \neg green(y))$$

C5.
$$\neg \text{ on}(x,y) \lor \neg \text{ green}(x) \lor \text{ green}(y)$$



Refutation Trace

1.	on(A,B)	C1
2.	on(B,C)	C2
3.	green(A)	C3
4.	¬ green(C)	C4
5.	$\neg on(x,y) \lor \neg green(x) \lor green(y)$	C5
6.	¬ green(A) ∨ green(B)	1,5
7.	¬ green(B) ∨ green(C)	2,5
8.	green(B)	3,6
9.	¬ green(B)	4,7
10.		8,9

In this problem the KB entails that there is some block which must be green and on top of a nongreen block.

However, it does not make any commitment to any specific one;

A general method that has been proposed for dealing with such situations is answer extraction.