

Artificial Intelligence Lecture 4a: Knowledge Representation and Reasoning

Henrique Lopes Cardoso, Luís Paulo Reis

hlc@fe.up.pt, lpreis@fe.up.pt



Knowledge-based Agents

- Humans know things, which helps them do things!
 - Processes of reasoning that operate on internal representations of knowledge
- Logic: a general class of representations to support knowledge-based agents
 - Combine and recombine information to suit myriad purposes
- Knowledge-based agents can accept new tasks in the form of explicitly described goals
 - Being told or learning new knowledge about the environment
 - Adapt to changes in the environment by updating the relevant knowledge

The Knowledge Base

- Knowledge base (KB)
 - A set of "sentences", each representing some assertion about the world
 - Expressed in a knowledge representation language
 - Initial content: background knowledge
- Adding new sentences to the knowledge base (assertions): TELL
- Querying what is known: ASK
- Inference: deriving new sentences from existing ones
 - When asking a question of the knowledge base, the answer should *follow* from what has been told to the knowledge base (previous assertions)

Knowledge-based Agent Program

```
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
return action
```

- TELL the KB what it perceives
- ASK the KB what action to perform
 - Reasoning about the current state of the world, outcomes of possible actions, ...
- TELL the KB which action was performed in the world

Knowledge vs. Implementation Level

- A knowledge-based agent can be described at the knowledge level
 - We need only to specify what the agent knows and what its goals are
 - Example:
 - An automated taxi has the goal of taking a passenger from Porto to Gaia and might know that it must cross one of the beautiful bridges on the Douro river.
 - We can expect it to cross a bridges because it knows this will achieve its goal!
 - Declarative approach to system building: TELLing the agent what it needs to know

- Implementation level: data structures inside the KB and algorithms that work on them
 - Procedural approach: encode behaviors directly as program code

The Wumpus World

3

2

 A cave consisting of rooms connected by passageways

 Player must take the gold and return to the start position without entering any room with a bottomless pit or wumpus

 Wumpus can be killed, but the agent has only one arrow

Breeze **PIT** Breeze Breeze **PIT** Breeze \$5555 \$Stench\$ Breeze Breeze **PIT** 3

Wumpus World PEAS Description

Performance measure

- Gold and at [1,1] +1000; death -1000
- -1 per step; -10 for using the arrow

Environment

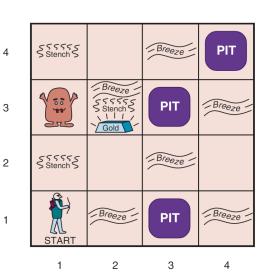
4x4 grid, agent starts at [1,1], gold and wumpus at random locations, pit with prob 0.2

Actuators

- Forward, Turn left 90°, Turn right 90°
- Grab gold (only at gold position)
- Shoot (only once, kills wumpus if it is in that direction)

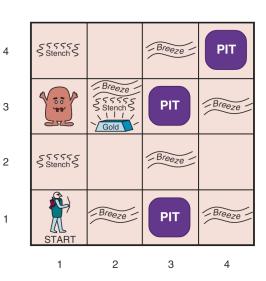
Sensors

- Stench at cells adjacent to the wumpus
- Breeze at cells adjacent to a pit
- *Glitter* at gold position
- Bump when hitting a wall
- Scream when wumpus is killed



Wumpus World Environment

- Observable?
 - Partially: only local perception
- Deterministic?
 - Yes (for the actions actually available)
- Episodic?
 - Sequential: rewards may come only after many actions are taken
- Static?
 - Yes
- Discrete?
 - Yes
- Single-agent?
 - Yes (wumpus doesn't move)



4	\$5555 Stench\$		-Breeze -	PIT
3	100	SSSSS Stench S	PIT	_Breeze
2	SSTSS Stench S		-Breeze	
1	START	-Breeze -	PIT	_Breeze _
	1	2	3	4

1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2
1,1 A OK	2,1	3,1	4,1

[None, None, None, None, None]

A = Agent

B = Breeze

G = Glitter, Gold

OK = Safe square

P = Pit

S = Stench

V = Visited

W = Wumpus

Wu

Exploring a	SSTSTS Stench S		-Breeze	PIT
3	100	SSSSS Stench S	PIT	- Breez
ampus World	SSTSS Stench S		-Breeze -	
1	START	-Breeze -	PIT	-Bree
	1	2	3	4

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1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2 OK	2,2	3,2	4,2
1,1 A OK	2,1 OK	3,1	4,1

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= Wumpus

1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4				
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3				
1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2	1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
OK	_,_	0,2	,,_	1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
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ок	ок			1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2
				ок			
				1,1 V	2,1 A	3,1	4,1
				OK	OK		4

[None,Breeze,None,None,None]

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\$5555 Stench\$

PIT

-Breeze

Breeze

					w w		
1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4				ıpu
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3				
				1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
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1,1 A	2,1	3,1	4,1				
OK	OK			1,2	2,2 P?	3,2	4,2
				ок			
				1,1	2,1 A	3,1 P?	4,1
				V OK	OK		

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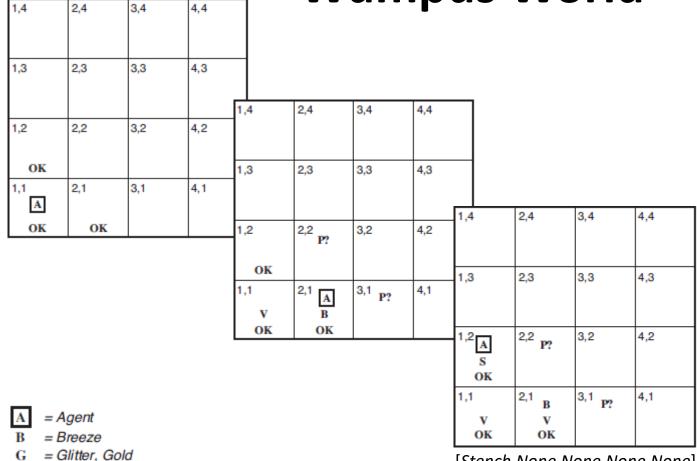
\$5555 Stench\$

PIT

-Breeze

PIT

Breeze



[Stench, None, None, None, None]

= Pit

= Stench

= Visited

= Wumpus

OK = Safe square

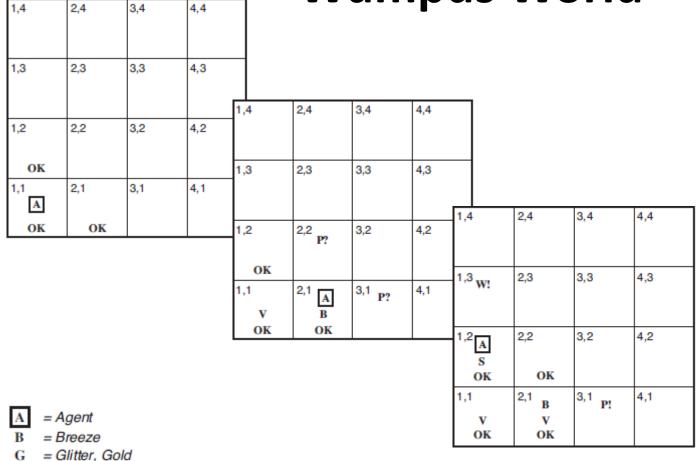
\$5555 Stench \$

PIT

Breeze -

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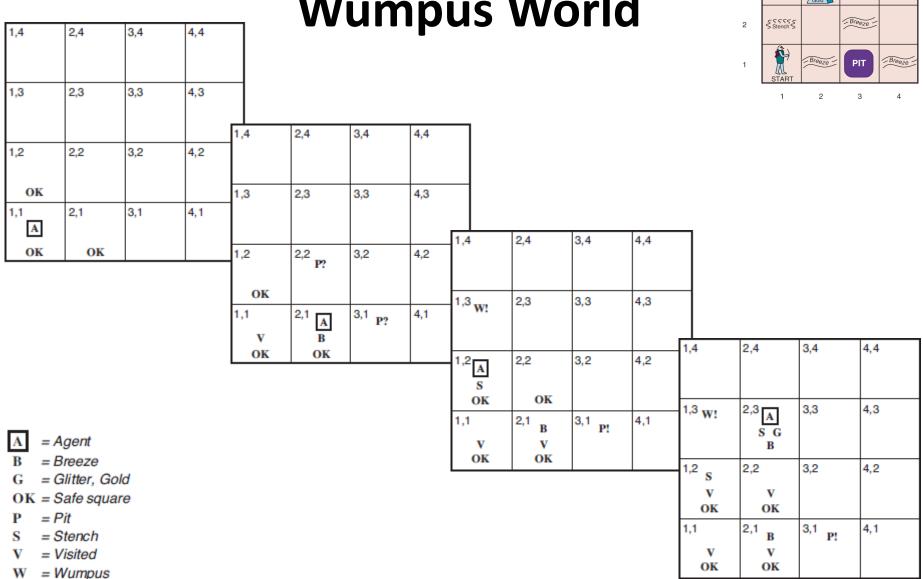


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S = Stench

V = Visited

W = Wumpus

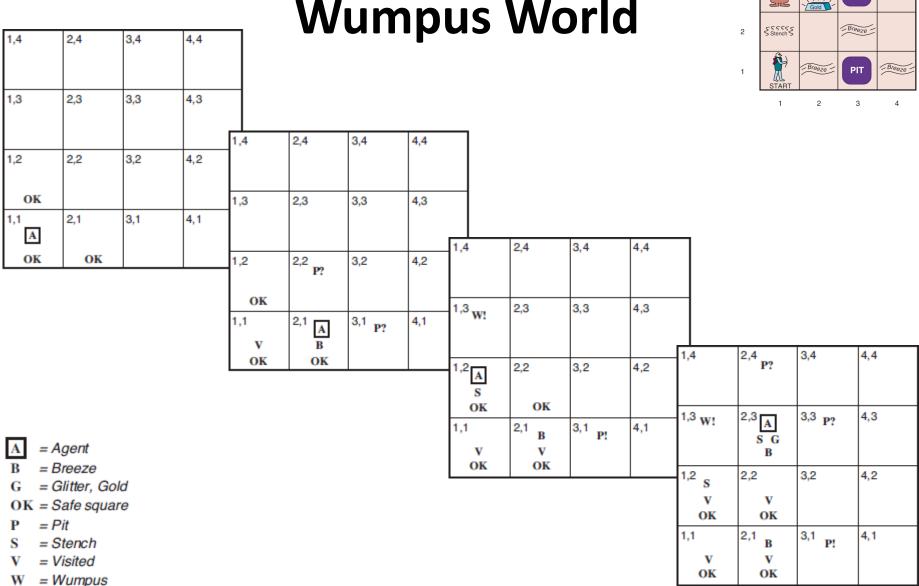


[Stench, Breeze, Glitter, None, None]

\$5555 Stench \$

PIT

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\$5555 Stench \$

PIT

Logic

- Representing the sentences in the KB
 - Syntax: specifies the sentences that are well formed
 - e.g., "x + y = 4", not "x4y +="
 - Semantics: assigns meaning to sentences, determining their truthfulness in respect to each possible world, or model
 - e.g., "x + y = 4" is true in a world in which both x and y are 2, but false in a world where they are both 1
- Sentence α is true in a model m
 - m satisfies α , or m is a model of α
- $M(\alpha)$: the set of all models of α

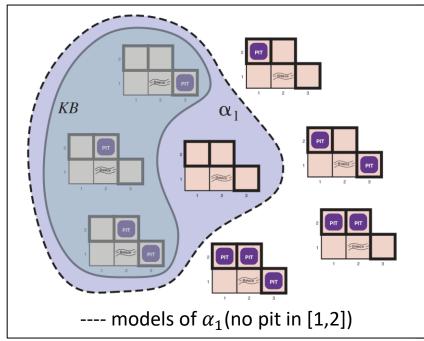
Entailment

- Entailment: $\alpha \models \beta$
 - α entails β (or β follows logically from α)
 - $\alpha \vDash \beta$ if and only if $M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$
 - α is a stronger assertion than β
- Adding knowledge to a KB:
 - $KB \models \alpha$
- Example:
 - KB: nothing in [1,1] and a breeze in [2,1]
 - Is there a pit in [1,2], [2,2], or [3,1]?

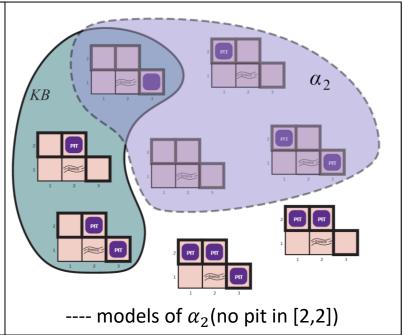
1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
	,		,
4.0	0.0	0.0	4.0
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2	2,2 P?	3,2	4,2
	P?		
OK			
1,1	2.1	3,1 22	4,1
.,.	2,1 A	3,1 P?	.,.
v	В		
OK	OK		

Entailment in the Wumpus World

- Is there a pit in [1,2], [2,2], or [3,1]? \rightarrow = 2³ = 8 states
 - models of KB (nothing in [1,1] and a breeze in [2,1])



- In every model in which KB is true, α_1 is also true
 - $KB \models \alpha_1$: there is no pit in [1,2]



1,2

oĸ

2,1 A B 3,1 P?

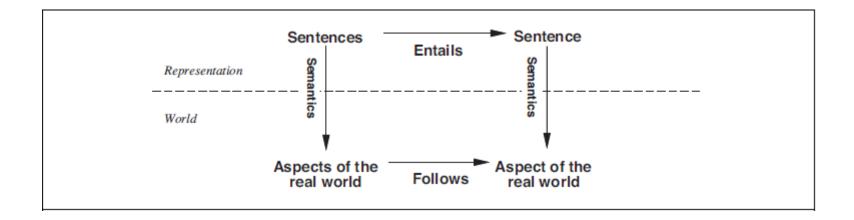
4.2

- In some model in which KB is true, α_2 is false
 - $KB \not\models \alpha_2$: cannot conclude whether there is a pit in [2,2]

Logical Inference

- Entailment can be applied to derive conclusions: logical inference
- Algorithm i that can derive α from KB
 - $KB \vdash_i \alpha_1$
- Properties of inference algorithms:
 - Soundness (or truth preserving): derive only entailed sentences
 - Completeness: derive any sentence that is entailed
- If KB is true in the real world, then any sentence α derived from KB by a **sound inference procedure** is also true in the real world

Correspondence



- The inference procedure:
 - Operates on the syntactic representations (sentences), but corresponds to the real-world relationship
 - Constructs new sentences from existing ones
 - To be sound, should entail only sentences representing facts that follow from the facts represented by the KB

Propositional Logic: Syntax

- Symbols:
 - Logical constants True and False
 - Propositional symbols such as P and Q
 - Logical connectives: ∧ V ⇒ ⇔ ¬
 - Parentheses (and)
- Sentences are sequences of symbols, such that:
 - *True*, *False*, *P* or *Q* are sentences by themselves (atomic sentences)
 - Complex sentences are constructed from simpler sentences, using parenthesis and logical connectives:
 - \land (and). A sentence whose main connective is \land is called a **conjunction**: $P \land (Q \lor R)$
 - \vee (or). A sentence whose main connective is \vee is called a **disjunction**: $A \vee (P \wedge Q)$
 - \Rightarrow (implies). A sentence in the form $(P \land Q \Rightarrow R)$ is called an **implication**
 - \Leftrightarrow (if and only if). A sentence in the form $(P \land Q) \Leftrightarrow (Q \land P)$ is an **equivalence**
 - \neg (not). A sentence in the form $\neg P$ is called a **negation** of P
 - Operator precedence: ¬ ∧ ∨ ⇒ ⇔
 - Sentence $\neg P \lor Q \land R \Rightarrow S$ is equivalent to sentence $((\neg P) \lor (Q \land R)) \Rightarrow S$

Propositional Logic: Semantics

- *True* represents a true fact; *False* represents a false fact
- Truth table for the logical connectives:

P	Q	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \lor Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
false false true	false $true$ $false$	true $true$ $false$	$false \\ false \\ false$	$false \ true \ true$	$true \ true \ false$	$true \\ false \\ false$
true	true	false	true	true	true	true

- The meaning of a complex sentence is derived from the meaning of its parts by a process of decomposition
 - $(P \lor Q) \land \neg S$: first determine the meaning of $(P \lor Q)$ and of $\neg S$, then combine the two using the definition of \land

Propositional Logic: Semantics

• The truth value of every other proposition symbol must be specified directly in the model

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

- Evaluated in m_1 :
 - $\neg P_{1,2} \land (P_{2,2} \lor P_{3,1})$ gives $true \land (false \lor true) = true \land true = true$

- Defining rules of the wumpus world:
 - $B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1})$

1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
^{1,3} w!	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2A S OK	2,2 OK	3,2	4,2
1,1	2,1 B	3,1 P!	4,1
V OK	v ok		

1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
.,.	_, .	0, .	.,.
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2	2,2 P?	3,2	4,2
·	P?		,
OT			
OK			
1,1	2,1 A	3,1 P?	4,1
v	В		
OK	OK		

Wumpus World Knowledge Base

Symbols for each [x, y] location:

 $P_{x,y}$ 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 there is a breeze in [x,y].

 $S_{x,y}$ is true if there is a stench in [x,y].

 $L_{x,y}$ is true if the agent is in location [x,y].

• 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 neighboring square:

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

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

Breeze percepts for the first two squares visited:

 $R_4: \neg B_{1,1}$.

 $R_5: B_{2,1}$.

1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2	2,2 P?	3,2	4,2
	P?		
OK			
1,1	2,1 A	3,1 P?	4,1
	A	Pi	
V	В		
OK	OK		

Model Checking through Enumeration

• $KB = \neg P_{1,2}$?

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{2,1}$	$P_{1,1}$	$P_{1,2}$	$P_{2,1}$	$P_{2,2}$	$P_{3,1}$	R_1	R_2	R_3	R_4	R_5	I	KΒ	
false	false	false	false	false	false	false	true	true	true	true	false	11 .	ılse	
false	false	false	false	false	false	true	true	true	false	true	false	fe	ulse	
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:		:	
false	true	false	false	false	false	false	true	true	false	true	true	fa	ulse	
false	true	false	false	false	false	true	true	true	true	true	true	t	rue	
false	true	false	false	false	true	false	true	true	true	true	true	<u>t1</u>	rue	
false	true	false	false	false	true	true	true	true	true	true	true	<u>t1</u>	rue	
false	true	false	false	true	false	false	true	false	false	true	true	fe	ulse	
:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
true	true	true	true	true	true	true	false	true	true	false	1,3	2.3	3.3	4.3
											1,5	-,0	3,3	4,0
KD '		:t D	Ll	_l. D							1,2	2,2 P?	3,2	4,2
KB is true if $R_{f 1}$ through $R_{f 5}$ are true										ок				
•	$P_{1,2}$ is	alway	s false	: there	e is no	pit in	[1,2]				1,1 v	2,1 A B	3,1 P?	4,1

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Theorem Proving

- If KB and α contain n symbols, there are 2^n models
 - Time complexity: $O(2^n)$
- Can we do without model enumeration?
 - Yes!
- Logical equivalence
- Validity and satisfiability
- Inference rules

Logical Equivalence

- Two sentences α e β are **logically equivalent** if they are true in the same set of models: $M(\alpha) = M(\beta)$
- In other words: $\alpha \equiv \beta$ if and only if $\alpha \models \beta$ and $\beta \models \alpha$

```
(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\beta \wedge \alpha) \quad \text{commutativity of } \wedge \\ (\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\beta \vee \alpha) \quad \text{commutativity of } \vee \\ ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \wedge \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \wedge (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \quad \text{associativity of } \wedge \\ ((\alpha \vee \beta) \vee \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \vee (\beta \vee \gamma)) \quad \text{associativity of } \vee \\ \neg(\neg \alpha) \equiv \alpha \quad \text{double-negation elimination} \\ (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \beta \Rightarrow \neg \alpha) \quad \text{contraposition} \\ (\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \vee \beta) \quad \text{implication elimination} \\ (\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \wedge (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)) \quad \text{biconditional elimination} \\ \neg(\alpha \wedge \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \vee \neg \beta) \quad \text{De Morgan} \\ \neg(\alpha \vee \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \wedge \neg \beta) \quad \text{De Morgan} \\ (\alpha \wedge (\beta \vee \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \wedge \beta) \vee (\alpha \wedge \gamma)) \quad \text{distributivity of } \wedge \text{ over } \vee \\ (\alpha \vee (\beta \wedge \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \vee \beta) \wedge (\alpha \vee \gamma)) \quad \text{distributivity of } \vee \text{ over } \wedge \\ \end{pmatrix}
```

Validity and Satisfiability

- A sentence is valid if it is true in all models
 - Tautology: a necessarily true sentence
 - $P \vee \neg P$
 - **Deduction** theorem: $\alpha \models \beta$ if and only if $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta)$ is valid
- A sentence is satisfiable if it is true in some model
 - $KB = (R_1, R_2, R_3, R_4, R_5)$ is satisfiable because it is true in three models
- α is valid iff $\neg \alpha$ is **unsatisfiable**
- α is satisfiable iff $\neg \alpha$ is not valid
- $\alpha \models \beta$ if and only if the sentence $(\alpha \land \neg \beta)$ is unsatisfiable
 - Principle of the proof by contradiction

Inference Rules

- Truth tables can be used to test for valid sentences.
 - If the sentence is true in every row, then it is valid

•
$$((P \lor H) \land \neg H) \Rightarrow P$$

P	Н	$P \lor H$	$(P \lor H) \land \neg H$	$((P \lor H) \land \neg H) \Rightarrow P$
False	False	False	False	True
False	True	True	False	True
True	False	True	True	True
True	True	True	False	True

- Inference rules allow us to make inference without the need for building truth tables
 - An inference rule is sound if its conclusion is true whenever its premises are true

Inference Rules

we can infer the sentence

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

$$\frac{\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge \alpha_n}{\alpha_i}$$

$$\frac{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n}{\alpha_1 \wedge \alpha_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \alpha_n}$$

$$\frac{\alpha_i}{\alpha_1 \vee \alpha_2 \vee \dots \vee \alpha_n}$$

Double-Negation Elimination: from a doubly negated sentence,

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

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

Resolution: since β cannot be both true and false, one of the other disjuncts must be true

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

Inference and Proofs

- Searching for proofs is an alternative to enumerating models
- Finding a proof can be more efficient because the proof can ignore irrelevant propositions, no matter how many of them there are
- Monotonicity: the set of entailed sentences can only increase as information is added to the knowledge base
 - if $KB \models \alpha$, then $KB \land \beta \models \alpha$

Resolution

Full resolution rule:

$$\frac{\ell_1 \vee \cdots \vee \ell_k, \quad m_1 \vee \cdots \vee m_n}{\ell_1 \vee \cdots \vee \ell_{i-1} \vee \ell_{i+1} \vee \cdots \vee \ell_k \vee m_1 \vee \cdots \vee m_{j-1} \vee m_{j+1} \vee \cdots \vee m_n}$$

- where l_i and m_i are complementary literals
- Need all clauses in conjunctive normal form (CNF)
 (check the Logic Programming course)
- Resolution is complete
 - If a set of clauses is unsatisfiable, then the resolution closure of those clauses contains the empty clause

Resolution Example

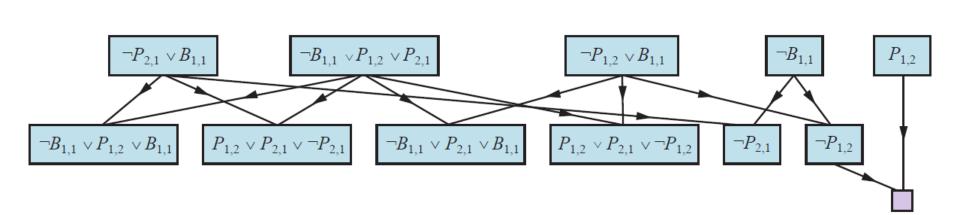
• Agent in [1,1]

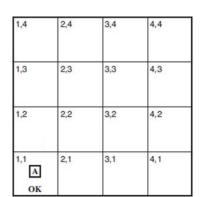
$$KB = R_2 \wedge R_4 = (B_{1,1} \Leftrightarrow (P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1})) \wedge \neg B_{1,1}$$

- Prove $KB = \neg P_{1,2}$
- Convert $(KB \land P_{1,2})$ into CNF

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

becomes $(\neg B_{1,1} \vee P_{1,2} \vee P_{2,1}) \wedge (\neg P_{1,2} \vee B_{1,1}) \wedge (\neg P_{2,1} \vee B_{1,1})$





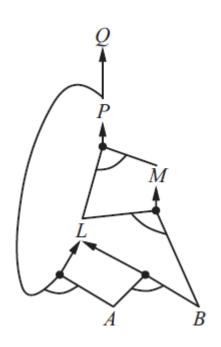
Horn Clauses

- In many cases, the KB can be expressed through Horn clauses
 - Implications in the form: $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge P_n \Rightarrow Q$
 - Special cases:
 - If Q is False, we get a sentence in the form $\neg P_1 \lor \neg P_2 \lor \cdots \lor \neg P_n$ (aka a query)
 - If n=1 and $P_1=True$, we get $True\Rightarrow Q$, which is the same as Q
 - (aka a fact)
- Inference with Horn clauses can be done through the forward-chaining and backward-chaining algorithms
 - These algorithms run in linear time

Forward Chaining

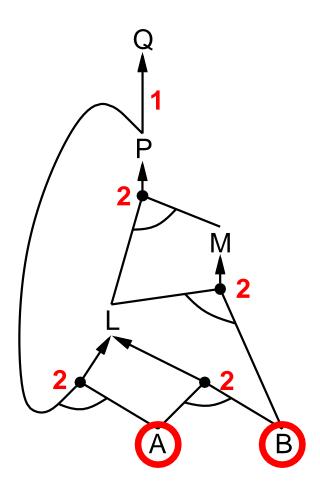
- Fire any rule whose premises are satisfied by the KB
- Add its conclusion to the KB

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

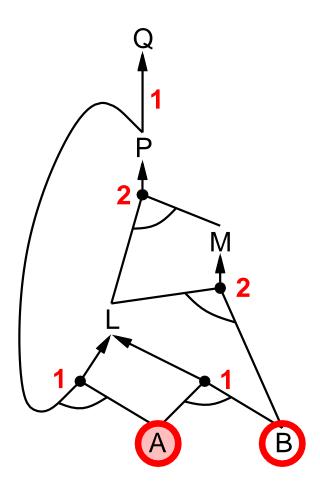


- Data-driven reasoning: start from the known data
 - Derive conclusions from incoming percepts, without a specific query in mind

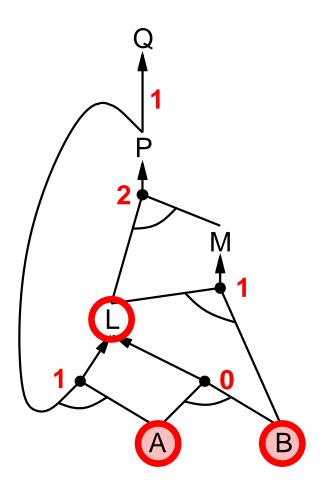
$$P \Rightarrow Q$$
 $L \land M \Rightarrow P$
 $B \land L \Rightarrow M$
 $A \land P \Rightarrow L$
 $A \land B \Rightarrow L$
 A



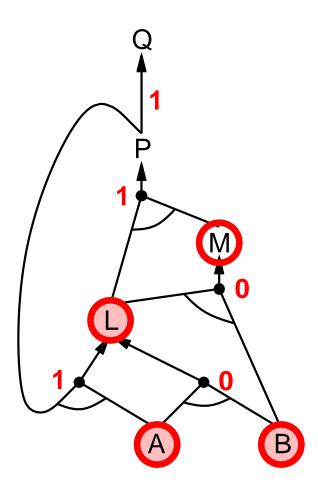
$$P \Rightarrow Q$$
 $L \land M \Rightarrow P$
 $B \land L \Rightarrow M$
 $A \land P \Rightarrow L$
 $A \land B \Rightarrow L$
 A



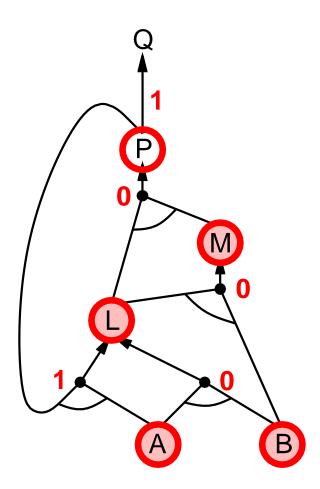
$$P \Rightarrow Q$$
 $L \land M \Rightarrow P$
 $B \land L \Rightarrow M$
 $A \land P \Rightarrow L$
 $A \land B \Rightarrow L$
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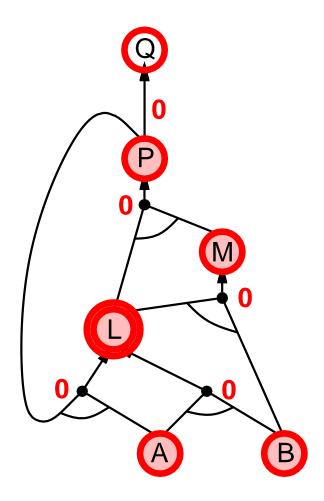
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 $B \land L \Rightarrow M$
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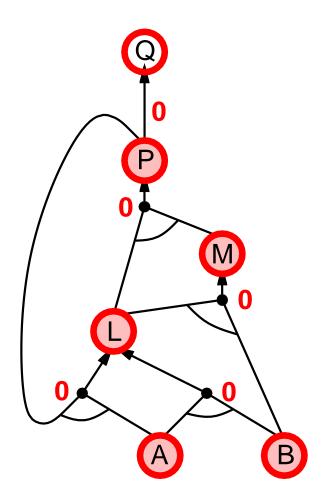
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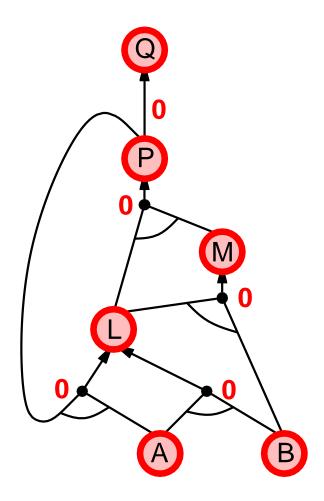
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$$P \Rightarrow Q$$
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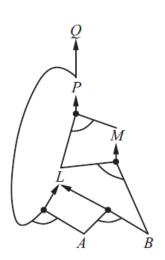


$$P \Rightarrow Q$$
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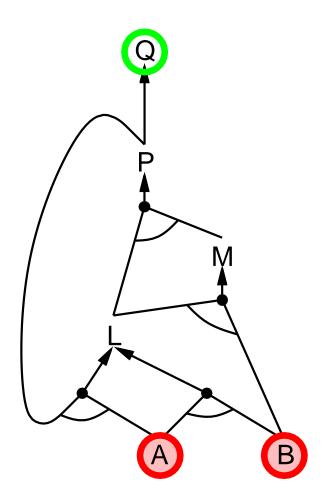
- Work backwards from a query q
 - If q is known to be true, no work needed
 - Otherwise find implications in the KB whose conclusion is q
 - Try to prove the premises of one of such implications (through backward chaining)

$$\begin{array}{l} P \, \Rightarrow \, Q \\ L \wedge M \, \Rightarrow \, P \\ B \wedge L \, \Rightarrow \, M \\ A \wedge P \, \Rightarrow \, L \\ A \wedge B \, \Rightarrow \, L \\ A \end{array}$$

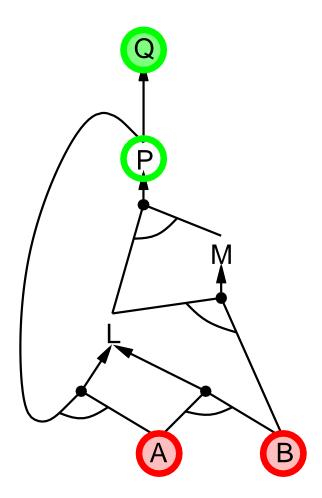


- Goal-directed reasoning: start from a query
 - Derive answers to specific goals
 - Often, the cost of backward chaining is much less than linear in the size of the KB, because the search process focuses on the query

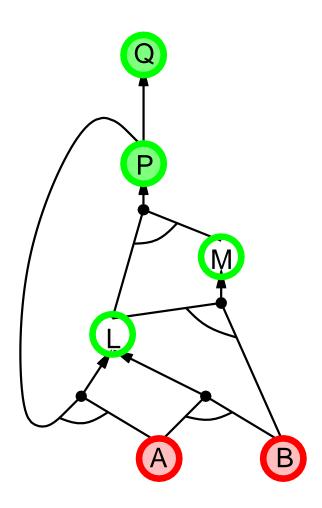
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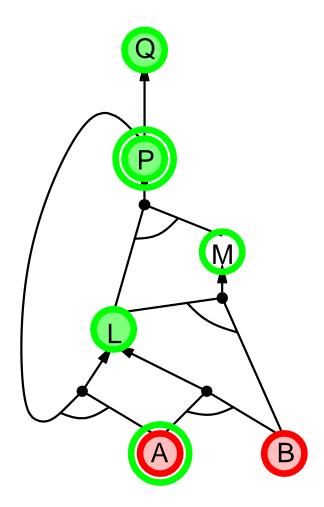
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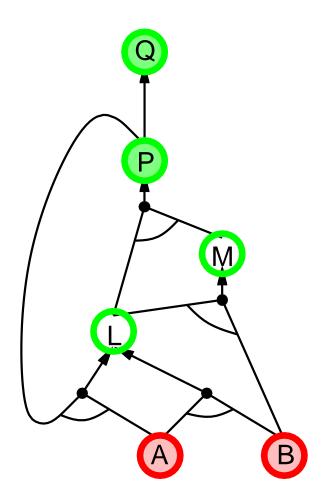
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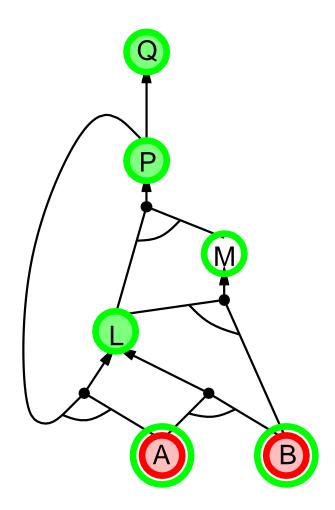
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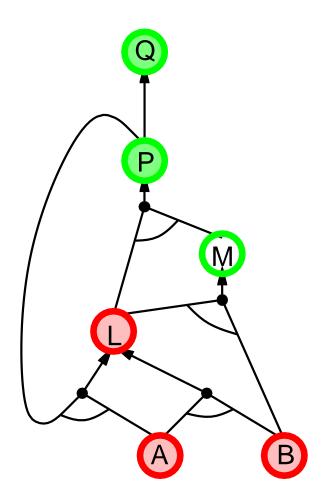
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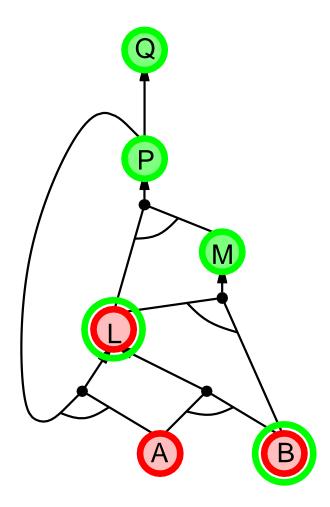
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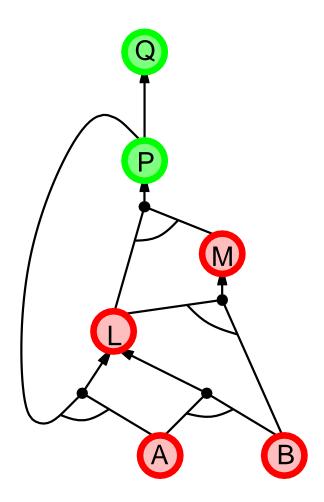
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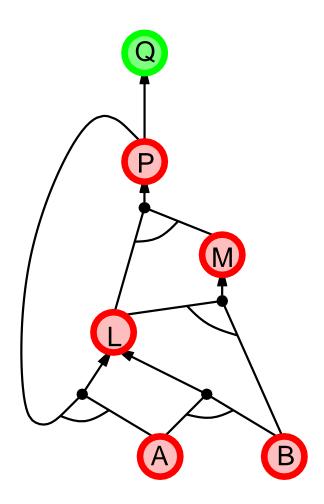
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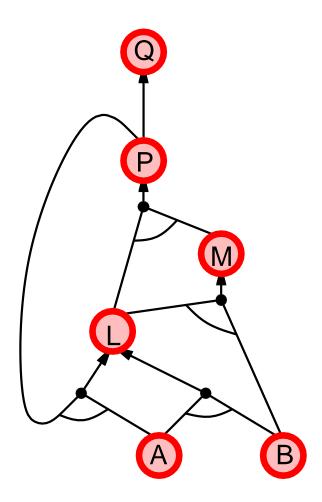
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Logics: Ontological and Epistemological Commitments

Language	Ontological Commitment (What exists in the world)	Epistemological Commitment (What an agent believes about facts)
Propositional logic First-order logic Temporal logic Probability theory Fuzzy logic	facts facts, objects, relations facts, objects, relations, times facts facts with degree of truth $\in [0,1]$	true/false/unknown true/false/unknown true/false/unknown degree of belief $\in [0,1]$ known interval value

First Order Logic

- The world consists of objects with properties and relations
- Symbols
 - Constants (represent objects): A, B, C, John, Father Of John, ...
 - Relations: Round, Brother, LowerThan, ...
 - Functions (relations with one possible value only): Cosine, Father, LeftLeg, ...
- Variables: *α*, *x*, *s*, ...
- Terms: made of constants, variables or functions
 - *John*, *x*, *LeftLeg(John)*, ...
- Atomic sentences: predicate and list of terms
 - Brother(Richard, John)
 - Married(Father(Richard), Mother(John))
- Complex sentences: use logical connectives
 - $\neg \land \lor \Rightarrow \Leftrightarrow$

Quantifiers (∀ and ∃)

- Universal (∀): express properties of collections of objects
 - "Every cat is a mammal": $\forall x \ Cat(x) \Rightarrow Mammal(x)$
- Existential (∃): state something about some object, without naming it
 - "John has got a married sister": $\exists x \ Sister(x, John) \land Married(x)$
- Nested quantifiers:
 - $\forall x, y \equiv \forall x \ \forall y \equiv \forall y \ \forall x$
 - $\forall x \exists y \neq \exists y \forall x$
 - $\forall x \exists y \ Likes(x,y)$ "Everyone likes somebody."
 - $\exists y \ \forall x \ Likes(x,y)$ "There is someone who everybody likes."
 - $\forall y \; \exists x \; Likes(x,y)$ "Everyone has someone who likes her/him."
 - $\exists x \ \forall y \ Likes(x,y)$ "There is someone that likes everybody."

Quantifiers (∀ and ∃)

- Connections between ∀ and ∃, through negation (De Morgan laws)
 - $\forall x \neg Likes(x, Exams) \equiv \neg \exists x \ Likes(x, Exams)$
 - $\forall x \ Likes(x, Health) \equiv \neg \exists x \ \neg Likes(x, Health)$
 - $\exists x \neg Likes(x, Soup) \equiv \neg \forall x \ Likes(x, Soup)$
 - $\exists x \ Likes(x, Soup) \equiv \neg \forall x \ \neg Likes(x, Soup)$

Inference Rules for Quantifiers

- Consist of substituting variables for specific objects
 - $SUBST(\theta, \alpha)$: apply substitution θ to sentence α
 - $SUBST(\{x/John, y/Cabbage\}, Likes(x, y)) = Likes(John, Cabbage)$
- Universal Instantiation:
 - For any sentence α , variable v and ground term g:

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

• From $\forall x \ Likes(x, Icecream)$, we can use substitution $\{x/John\}$ and infer Likes(John, Icecream)

Inference Rules for Quantifiers

- Existential Instantiation:
 - For any sentence α , variable v and constant k not yet used in the KB:

$$\frac{\exists v \ \alpha}{SUBST(\{v/k\}, \alpha)}$$

- We are giving a name to the object that satisfies the existential condition!
- From $\exists x \ Killed(x, Victim)$ we may infer Killed(Assassine, Victim), provided that Assassine is not the name for any other object

Generalized Modus Ponens

• For atomic sentences p_i , p_i' and q, if there is a substitution θ such that $SUBST(\theta, p_i') = SUBST(\theta, p_i)$ for every i:

$$\frac{p'_1, p'_2, \dots, p'_n, (p_1 \land p_2 \land \dots \land p_n \Rightarrow q)}{SUBST(\theta, q)}$$

 That is, if there is a substitution that makes the premises in the implication identical to sentences in the KB, we can infer the conclusion of the implication after applying the substitution

 Makes use of the unification algorithm, which takes two sentences and returns a substitution that makes them identical (if one exists)

Resolution

• For two disjunctions of any size, if one of the disjuncts in a clause unifies with the negation of a disjunct in the other clause, then we can infer the disjunction of the remaining disjuncts:

• For atomic sentences p_i and q_i , where $UNIFY(p_i, \neg q_k) = \theta$:

$$\frac{p_1 \vee \cdots \vee p_j \vee \cdots \vee p_m}{q_1 \vee \cdots \vee q_k \vee \cdots \vee q_n}$$

$$\overline{SUBST(\theta, p_1 \vee \cdots \vee p_{j-1} \vee p_{j+1} \vee \cdots \vee p_m \vee q_1 \vee \cdots \vee q_{k-1} \vee q_{k+1} \vee \cdots \vee q_n)}$$

• Any sentence in first-order logic can be converted into the form of the premises in the resolution rule: **conjunctive normal form (CNF)**

Resolution Proof

• Proof by contradiction: to prove P, assume P is false (add $\neg P$ to the KB)

• Example:

C1:
$$\neg P(w) \lor Q(w)$$
 $\equiv P(w) \Rightarrow Q(w)$
C2: $P(x) \lor R(x)$ $\equiv True \Rightarrow P(x) \lor R(x)$
C3: $\neg Q(y) \lor S(y)$ $\equiv Q(y) \Rightarrow S(y)$
C4: $\neg R(z) \lor S(z)$ $\equiv R(z) \Rightarrow S(z)$

• Prove *S*(*A*):

C5:
$$\neg S(A)$$
 $\equiv S(A) \Rightarrow False$

Resolution Proof

$$P(w) \Rightarrow Q(w)$$

$$True \Rightarrow P(x) \lor R(x)$$

$$Q(y) \Rightarrow S(y)$$

$$R(z) \Rightarrow S(z)$$

$$S(A) \Rightarrow False$$

$$P(w) \Rightarrow Q(w)$$

$$Q(y) \Rightarrow S(y)$$

$$P(w) \Rightarrow S(w)$$

$$True \Rightarrow P(x) \lor R(x)$$

$$R(z) \Rightarrow S(z)$$

$$Z/x$$

$$True \Rightarrow S(x)$$

$$S(A) \Rightarrow False$$

$$X/A$$

$$True \Rightarrow False$$

Knowledge Engineering

Intelligent Systems

Exhibit intelligent behavior

Knowledge Based Systems

Use explicit domain knowledge, stored separately

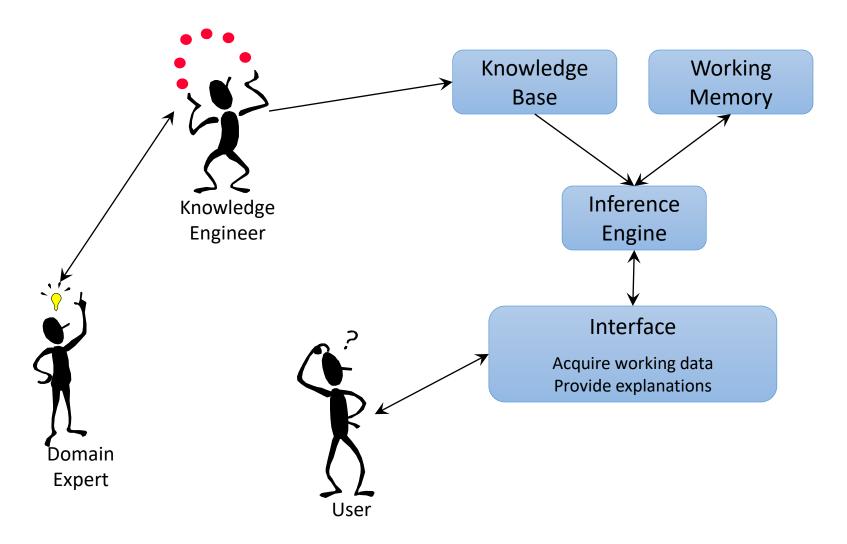
Expert Systems

Use expert knowledge to solve difficult realworld problems, replacing the human expert

Expert Systems

- Main advantages:
 - Availability: expertise becomes permanently and quickly available
 - Higher reliability: a computer will always give you the same answer
 - Explainability: the reasoning process can be traced to check the correctness of the decision
- Main tasks:
 - Knowledge acquisition: acquiring (expert) knowledge regarding problem solving in a specific domain
 - Knowledge representation: represent the knowledge in a computable representation language
 - Reasoning control and explanation
- Some application domains:
 - Chemistry (DENDRAL, ...), Electronics (ACE, ...), Medicine (MYCIN, ...), Engineering (REACTOR, ...), Geology (PROSPECTOR, ...), Computer systems (XCON, ...), ...

Components of an Expert System



Rule Chaining in Expert Systems

Backward chaining

- Diagnosis (e.g., MYCIN) or identification problems
- There is a moderate number of possible answers
- The system will try to prove or refute each possible answer, adding the needed information during execution
- It is easier to provide explanations, based on the chain of reasoning employed

- Prognostics, control, or configuration problems (e.g., XCON)
- The combinatorial explosion of the available data generates a virtually infinite number of possible answers
- These kinds of systems are known as **production systems** (their rules *produce* new data as output)