Knowledge Representation

Introduction

- Real knowledge representation and reasoning systems come in several major varieties.
- They all based on FOL but departing from it in different ways
- They differ in their intended use, degree of formal semantics, expressive power, practical considerations, features, limitations, etc.
- Some major families of reasoning systems are
 - Theorem provers
 - Logic programming languages
 - Rule-based or production systems
 - Semantic networks
 - Frame-based representation languages
 - Description logics
 - Databases (deductive, relational, object-oriented, etc.)
 - Constraint reasoning systems
 - Truth maintenance systems

Production Systems (forward-chaining)

- The notion of a "production system" was invented in 1943 by Post to describe re-write rules for symbol strings
- Used as the basis for many rule-based expert systems
- Most widely used KB formulation in practice
- A production is a rule of the form:

$$C1, C2, ... Cn => A1 A2 ... Am$$

Left hand side (LHS)
Conditions/antecedents

Condition which must hold before the rule can be applied

Right hand side (RHS)
Conclusions/consequences
Actions to be performed
or conclusions to be drawn

when the rule is applied

Three Basic Components of PS

Rule Base

- (Un)ordered set of user-defined "if-then" rules.
- Form of rules: *if P1* [^] ... [^] *Pm then A1*, ..., *An*
- the *Pi's* are conditions (often facts) that determine when rule is applicable.
- Actions can add or delete facts from the Working Memory.

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- Example rule (in CLIPS format)
  (defrule determine-gas-level
        (working-state engine does-not-start)
        (rotation-state engine rotates)
        (maintenance-state engine recent)
        => (assert (repair "Add gas.")))
```

- Working Memory (WM) -- A set of "facts", represented as literals, defining what's known to be true about the world
 - Often in the form of "flat tuples" (similar to ground predicates), e.g., (age Fred 45)
 - WM initially contains case specific data (not those facts that are always true in the world)
 - Inference may add/delete fact from WM
 - WM will be cleared when a case is finished
- **Inference Engine** -- Procedure for inferring changes (additions and deletions) to Working Memory.
 - Can be both forward and backward chaining
 - Usually a cycle of three phases: match, conflict resolution, and action, (in that order)

Basic Inference Procedure

While changes are made to Working Memory do:

- Match the current WM with the rule-base
 - Construct the Conflict Set -- the set of all possible (*rule*, *facts*) pairs where rule is from the rule-base, facts from WM that unify with the conditional part (i.e., LHS) of the rule.
- Conflict Resolution: Instead of trying all applicable rules in the Conflict set, select one from the Conflict Set for execution. (depth-first)
- Act/fire: Execute the actions associated with the conclusion part of the selected rule, after making variable substitutions determined by unification during match phase
- **Stop** when conflict resolution fails to returns any (rule, facts) pair

Conflict Resolution Strategies

Refraction

 A rule can only be used once with the same set of facts in WM. This strategy prevents firing a single rule with the same facts over and over again (avoiding loops)

Recency

Use rules that match the facts that were added most recently to WM,
 providing a kind of "focus of attention" strategy.

Specificity

- Use the most specific rule,
- If one rule's LHS is a superset of the LHS of a second rule, then the first one is more specific
- If one rule's LHS implies the LHS of a second rule, then the first one is more specific

Explicit priorities

- E.g., select rules by their pre-defined order/priority

• Precedence of strategies

Example

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- R1: P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x); R2: Q(y) \Rightarrow S(y);
                                                             WM = \{P(a), P(b)\}\
  conflict set: \{(R1, P(a)), (R1, P(b))\}
  by rule order: apply R1 on P(a);
                                                       WM = \{ O(a), P(a), P(b) \}
  conflict set: {(R2, Q(a)), (R1, P(a)), (R1, P(b))}
  by recency: apply R2 on Q(a)
                                                  WM = \{S(a), Q(a), P(a), P(b)\}\
  conflict set: {(R2, Q(a)), (R1, P(a)), (R1, P(b))}
  by refraction, apply R1 on P(b): WM = \{Q(b), S(a), Q(a), P(a), P(b)\}
  conflict set: {(R2, Q(b)), (R2, Q(a)), (R1, P(a)), (R1, P(b))}
  by recency, apply R2 on P(b): WM = \{S(b), Q(b), S(a), Q(a), P(a), P(b)\}
```

• Example

Specificity

R1: bird(x) => fly(x) $WM=\{bird(tweedy), penguin(tweedy)\}$

R2: $penguin(z) \Rightarrow bird(z)$

R3: $penguin(y) => \sim fly(y)$

R3 is more specific than R1 because according to R2, penguin(x) implies bird(x)

Default Reasoning

- Reasoning that draws a plausible inference on the basis of less than conclusive evidence in the absence of information to the contrary
 - If WM = {bird(tweedy)}, then by default, we can conclude that fly(tweedy)
 - When also know that penguin(tweedy), then we should change the conclusion to ~fly(tweedy)
 - Bird(x) => fly(x) is a **default rule** (true in general, in most cases, almost)
 - Default reasoning is thus non-monotonic
 - Formal study of default reasons: default logic (Reiter), nonmonotonic logic (McDermott), circumscription (McCarthy)
 one conclusion: default reasoning is totally undecidable
 - Production system can handle simple default reasoning
 - By specificity: default rules are less specific
 - By rule priority: put default rules at the bottom of the rule base
 - Retract default conclusion (e.g., fly(tweedy)) is complicated

Other Issues

- PS can work in backward chaining mode
 - Match RHS with the goal statement to generate subgoals
 - Mycin: an expert system for diagnosing blood infectious diseases
- Expert system sell
 - A rule-based system with empty rule base
 - Contains data structure, inference procedures, AND user interface to help encode domain knowledge
 - Emycin (backward chaining) from Stanford U
 - OPP5 (forward chaining) from CMU and its descendents CLIPS, Jess.

Metarules

- Rules about rules
- Specify under what conditions a set of rules can or cannot apply
- For large, complex PS
- Consistency check of the rule-base is crucial (as in FOL)
- Uncertainty in PS (to be discussed later)

Comparing PS and FOL

Advantages

- Simplicity (both KR language and inference),
- Inference more efficient
- Modularity of knowledge (rules are considered, to a degree, independent of each other), easy to maintain and update
- Similar to the way humans express their knowledge in many domains
- Can handle simple default reasoning

Disadvantages

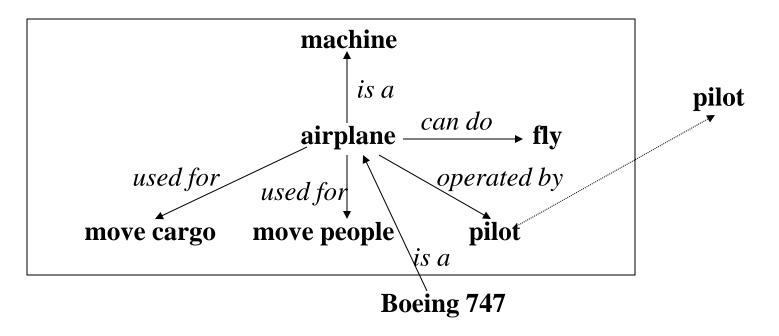
- No clearly defined semantics (may derive incorrect conclusions)
- Inference is not complete (mainly due to the depth-first procedure)
- Inference is sensitive to rule order, which may have unpredictable side effects
- Less expressive (may not be suitable to some applications)
- No explicit structure among pieces of knowledge in both FOL (a un-ordered set of clauses) and PS (a list of rules)

Structural Representations

- Semantic networks
- Frame systems
- Description logic
- Semantic Web

Semantic Networks

- Structured representations (semantic networks and frame systems)
 - Put structures into KB (capture the interrelations between pieces of knowledge
 - Center around object/classes
 - More for what it is than what to do, typically for taxonomical K
- History of semantic networks (Quillian, 1968)
 - To represent semantics of natural language words by dictionary-like definitions in a graphic form
 - Defining the meaning of a word in terms of its relations with other words
 - Semantic networks were very popular in the 60's and 70's and enjoy a much more limited use today.
 - The graphical depiction associated with a semantic network is a big reason for their popularity.
 - Recent Semantic Web is an application of SN to WWW



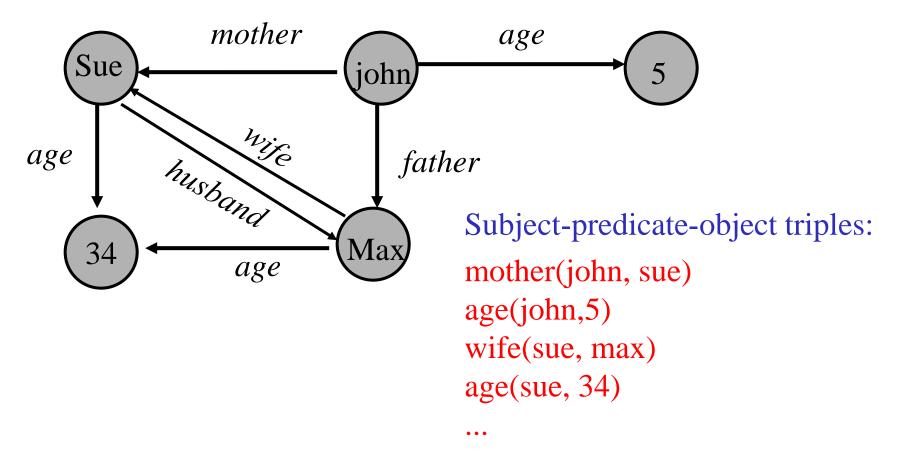
- Nodes for words
- Directed links for relations/associations between words
 - Each link has its own meaning
- You know the meaning (semantics) of a word if you know the meaning of all nodes that are used to define that word and the meaning of the associated links
- Otherwise, follow the links to the definitions of related words

Semantic Networks

- A semantic (or associative) network is a simple representation scheme which uses a graph of **labeled** nodes and **labeled**, **directed** arcs to encode knowledge.
 - Labeled nodes: objects/classes/concepts.
 - Labeled links: relations/associations between nodes
 - Labels define the semantics of nodes and links
 - Large # of node labels (there are many distinct objects/classes)
 - Small # of link labels (types of associations can be merged into a few)
 E.g. buy, sale, give, steal, confiscation, etc., can all be represented as a single relation of "transfer ownership" between recipient and donor
 - Usually used to represent static, taxonomic, concept dictionaries
- Semantic networks are typically used with a special set of accessing procedures which perform "reasoning"
 - e.g., inheritance of values and relationships
- often much less expressive than other KR formalisms

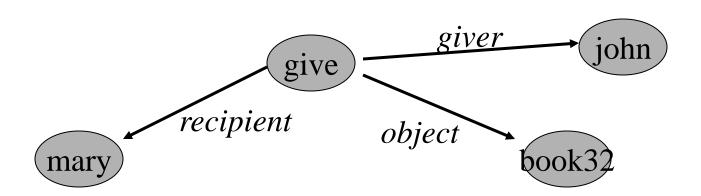
Nodes and Arcs

- Nodes denote objects/classes
- arcs define binary relationships between objects.



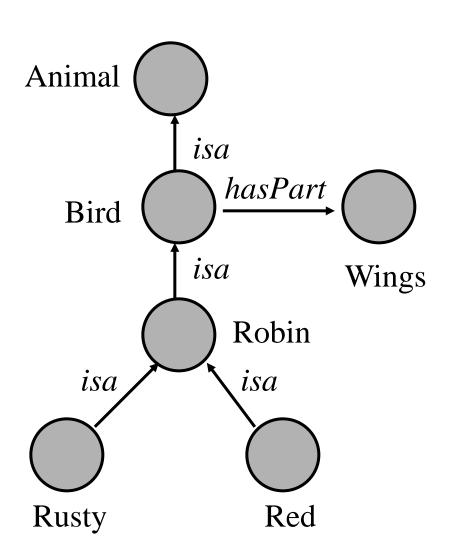
Reification

- Non-binary relationships can be represented by "turning the relationship into an object"
- This is an example of what logicians call "reification"
 reify v : consider an abstract concept to be real
- We might want to represent the generic "give" event as a relation involving three things: a giver, a recipient and an object, give(john, mary, book32)



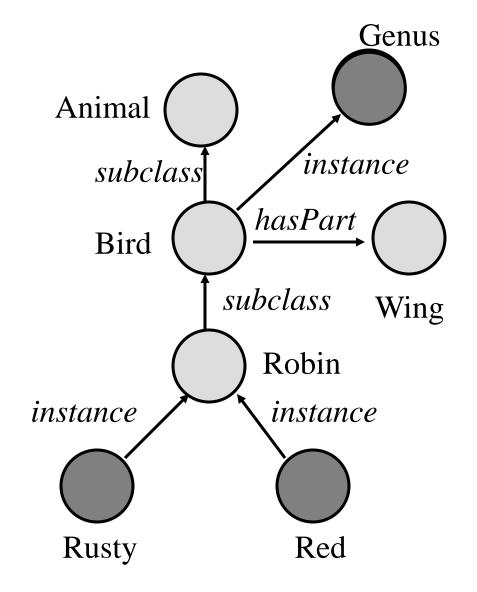
ISA hierarchy

- The ISA (is a) or AKO (a kind of) relation is often used to link a class and its superclass.
- And sometimes to link an instance and it's class.
- Some links (e.g. hasPart) are inherited along ISA paths.
- The semantics of a semantic net can be relatively informal or very formal
 - often defined at the implementation level



Individuals and Classes

- Many semantic networks distinguish
 - nodes representing individuals and those representing classes
 - the "subclass" relation from the "instance-of" relation



Inference by Inheritance

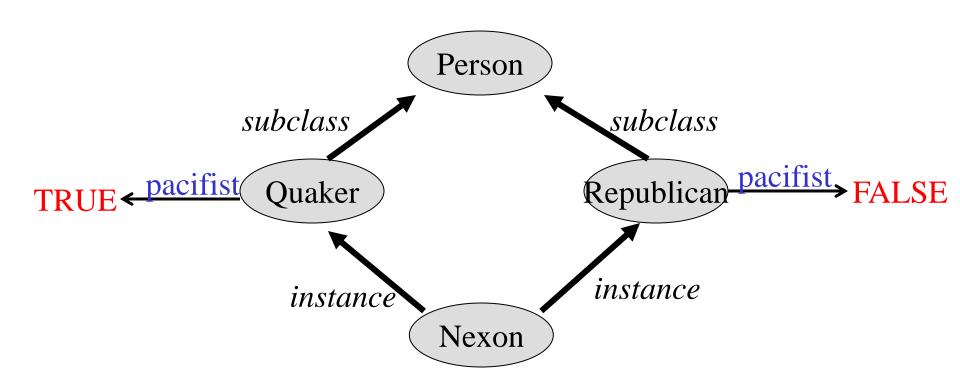
- One of the main types of reasoning done in a semantic net is the inheritance of values (properties) along the subclass and instance links.
- Semantic Networks differ in how they handle the case of inheriting multiple different values.
 - All possible properties are inherited
 - Only the "lowest" value or values are inherited

Multiple inheritance

- A node can have any number of superclasses that contain it, enabling a node to inherit properties from multiple "parent" nodes and their ancestors in the network.
- Conflict or inconsistent properties can be inherited from different ancestors
- Rules are used to determine inheritance in such "tangled" networks where multiple inheritance is allowed:
 - if $X \subseteq A \subseteq B$ and both A and B have property P (possibly with different variable instantiations), then X inherits A's property P instance (closer ancestors override far away ones).
 - If $X \subseteq A$ and $X \subseteq B$ but neither $A \subseteq B$ nor $B \subseteq A$ and both A and B have property P with different and inconsistent values, then X will not inherit property P at all; or X will present both instances of P (from A and B) to the user

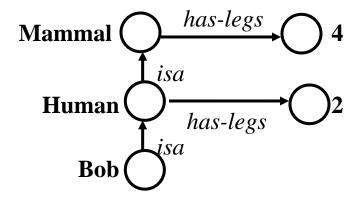
Nixon Diamond

• This was the classic example circa 1980.

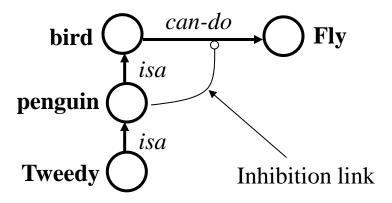


Exceptions in ISA hierarchy

- Properties of a class are often default in nature (there are exceptions to these associations for some subclasses/instances)
- Closer ancestors (more specific) overriding far way ones (more general)



• Use explicit inhibition links to prevent inheriting some properties

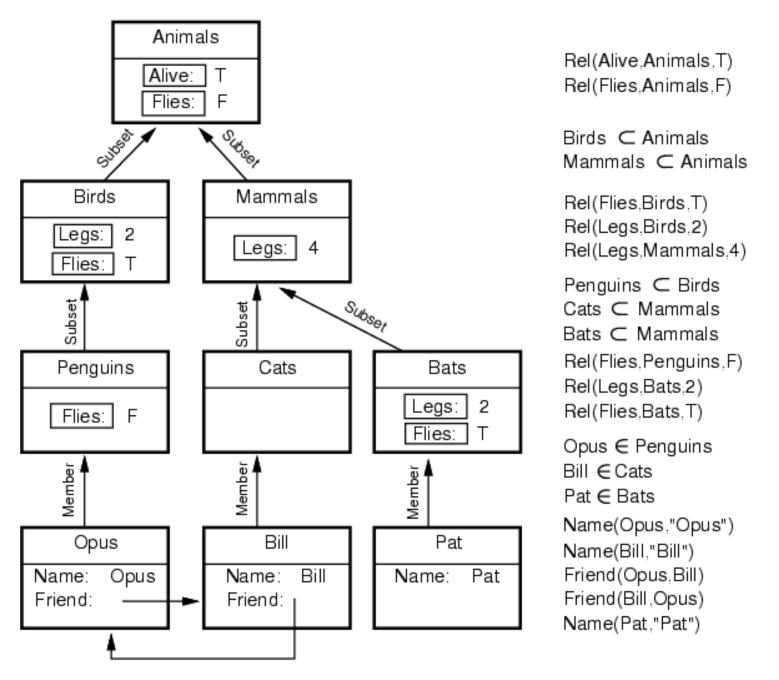


From Semantic Nets to Frames

- Semantic networks morphed into **Frame** Representation Languages in the 70's and 80's.
- A Frame is a lot like the notion of an object in OOP, but has more meta-data.
- A frame represents a **stereotypical/expected/default** view of an object
- Frame system can be viewed as adding additional structures into semantic network, a frame includes the object node and all other nodes which directly related to that object, organized in a record like structure
- A frame has a set of **slots**, each represents a relation to another frame (or value).
- A slot has one or more **facets**, each represents some aspect of the relation

Facets

- A slot in a frame holds more than a value.
- Other facets might include:
 - current fillers (e.g., values)
 - default fillers
 - minimum and maximum number of fillers
 - type restriction on fillers (usually expressed as another frame object)
 - attached procedures (if-needed, if-added, if-removed)
 - salience measure
 - attached constraints or axioms
 - pointer or name of another frame



(a) A frame-based knowledge base

Other issues

Procedural attachment

- In early time, AI community was against procedural approach and stress declarative KR
- Procedures came back to KB systems when frame systems were developed, and later also adopted by some production systems (action can be a call to a procedure)
- It is not called by a central control, but triggered by activities in the frame system
- When an attached procedure can be triggered?

if-added: when a new value is added to one of the slot in the frame

if-needed: when the value of this slot is needed

if-updated: when value(s) that are parameters of this procedure is

changed

Other issues

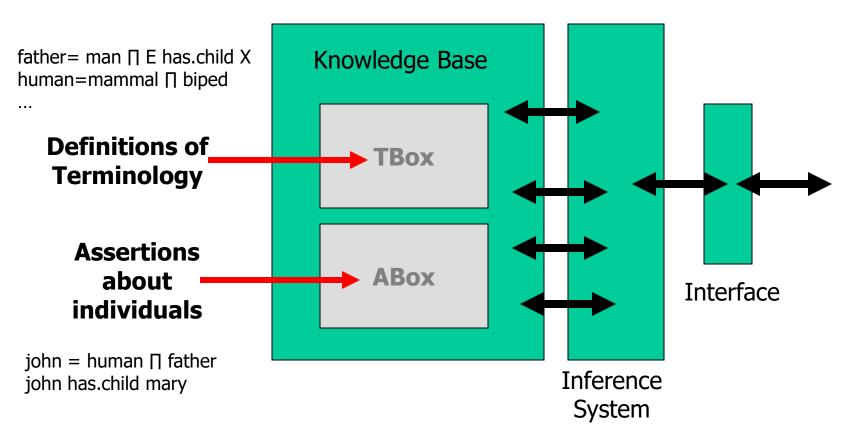
Objects with multiple perspectives

- An object or a class may be associated with different sets of properties when viewed from different perspectives.
- A passenger in an airline reservation system can be viewed as
 - A *traveler*, whose frame should include slots such as the date of the travel, departure/arrive airport; departure/arrive time, ect.
 - A *customer*, whose frame should include slots such as fare amount credit card number and expiration date frequent flier's id, etc.
- Both traveler frame and customer frame should be children of the *passenger* frame, which has slots for properties not specific to each perspective. They may include name, age, address, phone number, etc. of that person

Description logic

- There is a family of Frame-like KR systems with a formal semantics. E.g., KL-ONE, LOOM, Classic, ...
- Subset of FOL, particularly for describing categories
 - Concepts for classes/categories
 - Roles for relations between classes
 e.g., Bachelor = And(unmarried, Adult, Male) in DL
 Bachelor(x) ⇔ Unmarried(x) ^ Adult(x) ^ Male(x) in FOL
- Inference:
 - Subsumption: B subsumes A if A is an instant or a subclass of B
 - Classification: x is classified in A if A is the most specific subsumer
- Keep the language simple, so that all inference can be done in polynomial time (in the number of objects)
 - ensuring tractability of inference

Typical DL Architecture



The division into TBox and ABox doesn't have a logical significance, but is made for conceptual and implementation convenience.