

Problem #9.10

A popular children's riddle is "Brothers and sisters have I none, but that man's father is my father's son." Use the rules of family domain (Section 8.3.2 on page 301) to show who that man is. You may apply any of the inference methods described in this chapter. Why do you think that this riddle is difficult?

This problem in prenex normal form is:

$$\forall x \forall y \exists z \left(\neg \text{Brother}(me, x) \wedge \neg \text{Sister}(me, y) \wedge \text{Son}(\text{Father}(z), \text{Father}(me)) \right)$$

This is also in conjunctive normal form.

The existential quantifier can be removed by making z into a function of x and y through **Skolemization**. Hence:

$$\forall x \forall y \left(\neg \text{Brother}(me, x) \wedge \neg \text{Sister}(me, y) \wedge \text{Son}(\text{Father}(f(x, y)), \text{Father}(me)) \right)$$

Since there are only universal quantifiers remaining, these can be dropped resulting in:

$$\neg \text{Brother}(me, x) \wedge \neg \text{Sister}(me, y) \wedge \text{Son}(\text{Father}(f(x, y)), \text{Father}(me))$$

If a person a is the son of person b (i.e. $\text{Son}(a, b)$ is true), then the relation can be rewritten:

$$\text{Father}(a) = b$$

This is still a binary expression since if a different constant other than a was inside the Father function, then the relation may not be true. This substitution allows us to rewrite the riddle expression as:

$$\neg \text{Brother}(me, x) \wedge \neg \text{Sister}(me, y) \wedge \left(\text{Father}(\text{Father}(f(x, y))) = \text{Father}(me) \right)$$

Note the requirement of the Father objects being *Male* is not included for brevity.

Any person only has one Father ; what is more, I have no siblings who could also have the same father. Hence, the outer Father functions can be dropped. This simplifies the equation to:

$$\neg \text{Brother}(me, x) \wedge \neg \text{Sister}(me, y) \wedge (\text{Father}(f(x, y)) = me)$$

Using the previously described relation that transformed the Son predicate to the Father function, this operation can be reversed to change the expression to:

$$\neg \text{Brother}(me, x) \wedge \neg \text{Sister}(me, y) \wedge \text{Son}(f(x, y), me)$$

Therefore, $f(x, y)$ (which was the original z) is simply the my son by substitution (i.e. $\{f(x, y)/\text{son of } me\}$).

This riddle is not terribly difficult. However, it obfuscates $\text{Father}(z) = me$ by wrapping the me object in what are complementary operations since me has no brothers. What is more, the use of any function symbols makes inference inherently more difficult; this difficulty is solved when using **Datalog Knowledge Bases**.

Problem #9.23

From “Horses are animals,” it follows that “The head of a horse is the head of an animal.” Demonstrate that this inference is valid by carrying out the following steps:

- a. Translate the premise and the conclusion into the language of first order logic. Use three predicates: *HeadOf*(*h*, *x*) (meaning “*h* is the head of *x*”), *Horse*(*x*), and *Animal*(*x*).

The premise of this statement is “Horses are animals”. Rewritten in first-order logic with the defined predicates, this statement is:

$$\forall x (Horse(x) \Rightarrow Animal(x))$$

The conclusion of this statement is:

$$\forall y \forall h \exists z (HeadOf(h, y) \wedge Horse(y) \Rightarrow HeadOf(h, z) \wedge Animal(z))$$

- b. Negate the conclusion, and convert the premise and the negated conclusion into conjunctive normal form.

By definition:

$$Premise \Rightarrow Conclusion$$

To perform refutation, negate the conclusion and show that:

$$Premise \wedge \neg Conclusion \Leftrightarrow \{\}$$

We will remove the quantifiers before converting to CNF by removing the quantifiers on the premise and conclusion individually then removing the implication. This is possible since the premise and the conclusion do not rely on any shared variables (i.e. the premise uses only *x* while the conclusion uses *y*, *h*, and *z*).

The premise is already in prenex normal form so the quantifiers can be dropped resulting in:

$$Horse(x) \Rightarrow Animal(x)$$

This can be made into a single clause through implication elimination.

$$\overline{Horse(x)} \vee Animal(x)$$

In the conclusion, the existential quantifier can be replaced by making *z* a function of *y* and *h* (i.e. *f*(*y*, *h*)). Hence, the conclusion becomes:

$$\forall y \forall h (HeadOf(h, y) \wedge Horse(y) \Rightarrow HeadOf(h, f(y, h)) \wedge Animal(f(y, h)))$$

Again, since all variables are bounded by a universal quantifier, the universal quantifier(s) can be dropped making the statement:

$$HeadOf(h, y) \wedge Horse(y) \Rightarrow HeadOf(h, f(y, h)) \wedge Animal(f(y, h))$$

When implication elimination is applied to this equation, the result is:

$$\rightarrow (HeadOf(h, y) \wedge Horse(y)) \vee (HeadOf(h, f(y, h)) \wedge Animal(f(y, h)))$$

To perform resolution refutation, the conclusion is negated. This results in:

$$HeadOf(h, y) \wedge Horse(y) \wedge (\overline{HeadOf(h, f(y, h))} \vee \overline{Animal(f(y, h))})$$

The conjunction of the premise and the negation of the conclusion is taken. It results in:

$$(\overline{Horse(x)} \vee \overline{Animal(x)}) \wedge HeadOf(h, y) \wedge Horse(y) \wedge (\overline{HeadOf(h, f(y, h))} \vee \overline{Animal(f(y, h))})$$

This is in CNF format.

- a
- c. Use resolution to show that the conclusion follows from the premise.

Unification involves applying substitutions to the clauses in an expression in order to use resolution.

Step #1: Apply substitution $\{f(y, h)/y\}$. This simplifies the expression to:

$$(\overline{Horse(x)} \vee \overline{Animal(x)}) \wedge HeadOf(h, y) \wedge Horse(y) \wedge (\overline{HeadOf(h, y)} \vee \overline{Animal(y)})$$

Step #2: The second and fourth clauses can be resolved to achieve the new clause:

$$\frac{HeadOf(h, y), \overline{HeadOf(h, y)} \vee \overline{Animal(y)}}{Animal(y)}$$

Step #3: Apply substitution $\{y/x\}$. This simplifies the expression to:

$$(\overline{Horse(x)} \vee \overline{Animal(x)}) \wedge HeadOf(h, x) \wedge Horse(x) \wedge (\overline{HeadOf(h, x)} \vee \overline{Animal(y)}) \wedge \overline{Animal(x)}$$

Step #4: The first and third clauses can be combined to achieve the new clause:

$$\frac{\overline{Horse(x)} \vee \overline{Animal(x)}, Horse(x)}{Animal(x)}$$

Step #5: The clauses from step #2 and step #4 resolve to the empty set proving this statement by resolution.

$$\frac{Animal(x), \overline{Animal(x)}}{\{\}}$$

Additional Problem #1

Draw the planning graph for the problem in figure 10.3 in the book. Solve the problem step-by-step using the GraphPlan algorithm.

Figure 1 shows the initial and goal states of the Block World.

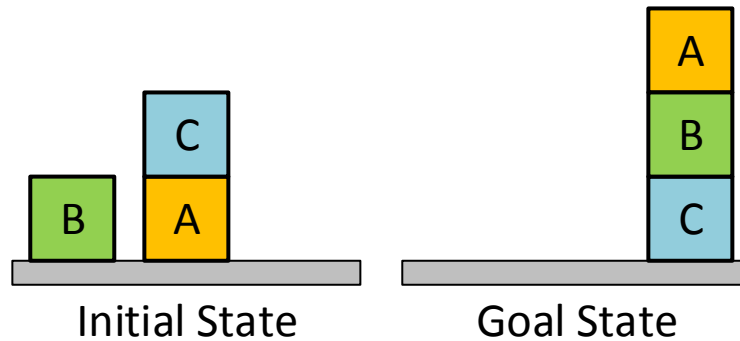


Figure 1 – Block World Initial and Goal States

The literals and actions in this world are below.

Literals:

- $Block(x)$ – A predicate for whether x is a block. **Note:** In the subsequent figures, the precondition conditions from the $Block$ literals to the actions are not shown for increased readability.
- $On(x, y)$ – A predicate for whether block x is on top of y , where y can be another block or the *Table*.
- $Clear(x)$ – A predicate for whether there is a clear space above block x where another block could be placed.

Actions:

- $Move(x, y, z)$ – Moves block x from y to z .
- $MoveToTable(x, y)$ – Moves block x from block y to the *Table*.

Additional Notes: The inequality preconditions (e.g. $x \neq y$) are not shown in the following figures also for increased readability. What is more, $Clear(Table)$ literals are not shown since according to the interpretation in the textbook, this literal is always true.

Figure 2 is the planning graph for the ground actions for the Blocks world. From the initial state, there are three possible, non-persistence actions. They are: moving block C to the table, moving block C on top of block B, and moving block B on top of block C.

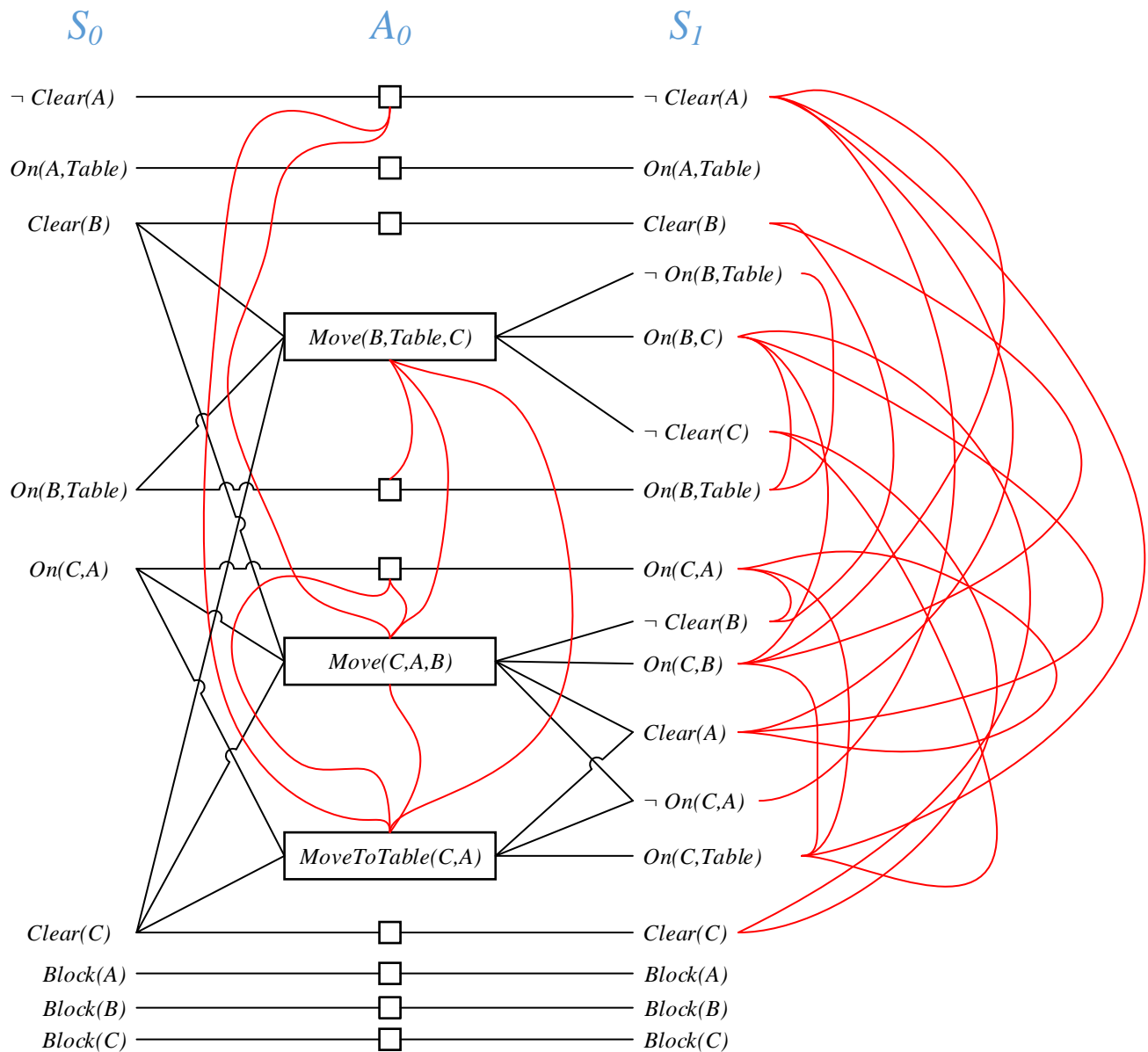


Figure 2 – Block World Ground Actions (A_0) and Mutex Relations

In line with the standard planning graph notation from class, preconditions are on the left side of the actions (actions are shown inside rectangles) while the effects are on the right side of the actions. Mutex relations are shown as red curved lines; additional mutex relations that are not shown in this figure include: $Move(B, Table, C) \leftrightarrow Clear(C)$ and $Move(C, A, B) \leftrightarrow Clear(B)$. In subsequent levels, the existing (i.e. preceding) mutex relations decrease monotonically; actions increase monotonically, and literals increase monotonically. Therefore, any literals or actions shown between S_i and S_{i+1} will also be present between S_{i+1} and S_{i+2} ; however, some (but not all) mutex relations have the potential to be dropped.

For all actions after the ground action (i.e. A_i where $i > 0$), Figure 3 shows the set of possible moves for an arbitrary block z .¹ If block z is clear, then other than the persistence actions, the two movement actions that can be performed on block z are:

1. $Move(z, x, y)$ – This represents the two actions where block z is moved from x (where x can be either a block other than z or the *Table*²) to block y .
2. $MoveToTable(z, w)$ – Action where block z is moved from on top of another block w to the *Table*.

Note w in the action $MoveToTable(z, w)$ could be the same as x from the action $Move(z, x, y)$. However, a different symbol (i.e. w) is used here to denote that x is either the *Table* or a block while w is exclusively a block. Depending on whether x and w are the same blocks, then there may be additional mutex relations between $On(z, w)$, $\neg On(z, w)$, $On(z, x)$, and $\neg On(z, x)$ which are not shown in Figure 3. In addition, as with Figure 2, the preconditions for the *Block* literals are excluded for increased readability.

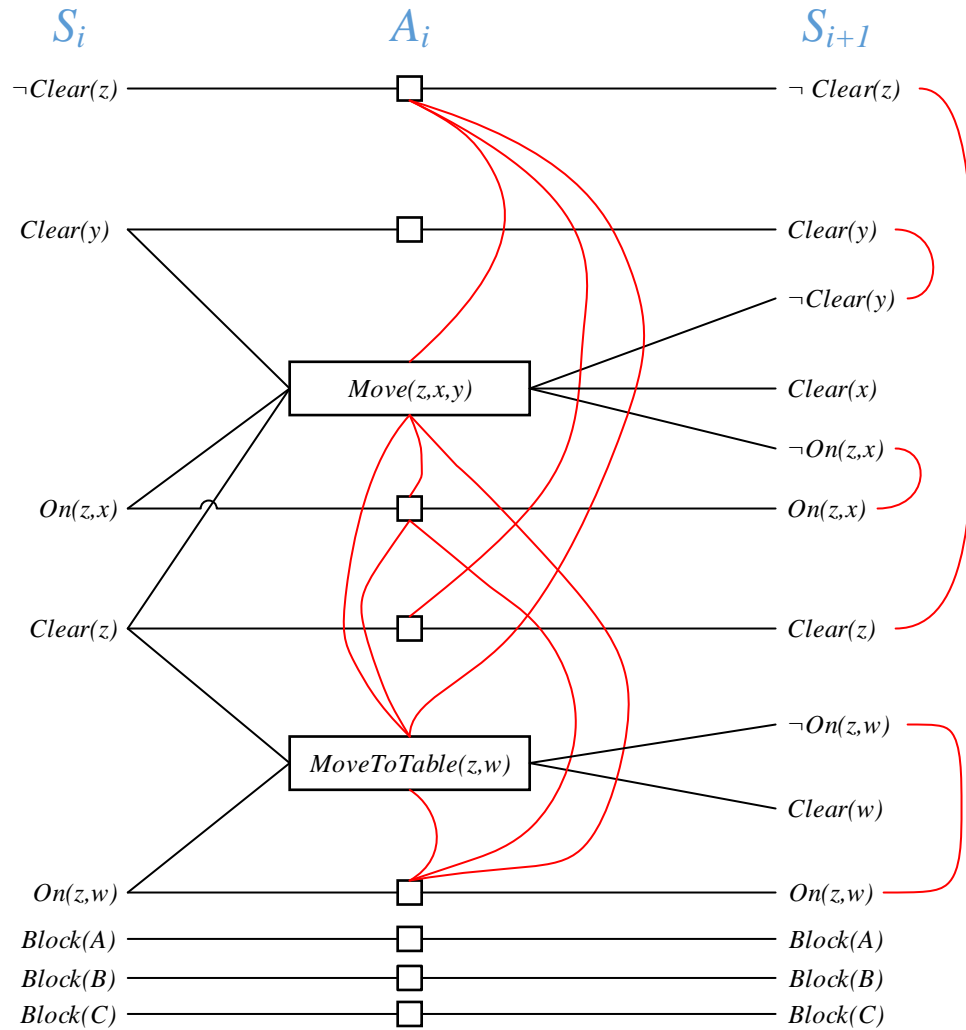


Figure 3 – Simplified Set of Generic Actions for a Block z in Action A_i where $i > 0$

¹ Block A in action A_1 is an exception to this statement because after A_0 , block A cannot perform the $MoveToTable$ action; this is because regardless of what A_0 was, block A will always be on the table in state S_1 .

² Note that if x is the *Table*, then the effect literal $Clear(x)$ is not applicable as the *Table* is always clear by the problem definition.

Figure 3 represents only the actions for block z . When the actions for blocks other than z are included, then there will be additional mutex relations as not all actions and literals for this state become legal. For example, the action $Move(z, x, y)$ is mutually exclusive with the actions $Move(x, y, z)$ and $Move(y, z, x)$. Similarly, a persistence action for $Clear(x)$ would be mutually exclusive with the action $Move(z, x, y)$.

Similar to the additional mutex relations on actions, there are additional mutex relations on literals that would necessarily be added once the blocks other than z are added for level A_i . For example, $On(z, w)$ is mutually exclusive with $On(w, z)$. What is more, $On(z, w)$ is mutually exclusive with $Clear(w)$ in the same way that $On(w, z)$ is mutually exclusive with $Clear(z)$. These additional mutex relations are not captured in the single block actions shown in Figure 3.

The arbitrary move for block z would apply to all three blocks A , B , and C for actions A_1 , A_2 , and A_3 at which point the graph would have leveled-off.

Solving the Problem Using Graph Plan

Figure 4 is pseudocode for the GraphPlan algorithm.

```

function GraphPlan(problem) returns a solution or failure
  graph := INITIAL_PLANNING_GRAPH(problem)
  goals := CONJUNCTS(problem.GOAL)
  nogoods := {} # Empty hash table
  for  $t = 0$  to  $\infty$  do
    if goals all non-mutex to  $S_t$  of graph then
      solution := EXTRACT-SOLUTION(graph, goals, NUMLEVELS(graph), nogoods)
      if solution  $\neq$  failure then return solution

    if graph and nogoods have both leveled off then return failure
    graph := EXPAND_GRAPH(graph, problem)

```

Figure 4 – Pseudocode for the Graph Plan Algorithm

Step #1: Build the Initial Planning Graph

The ground actions in the planning graph are shown in Figure 2, and subsequent actions for blocks after A_0 are shown in Figure 3. Figure 5 is a simplified planning graph with no mutex relations and the block preconditions excluded. Excluding the persistence actions, it contains only the necessary moves to reach the goal.

Step #2: Express the Goal as a Conjunction of Literals

The goal can be expressed as:

$$Goal := On(C, Table) \wedge On(B, C) \wedge On(A, B)$$

Step #3: Check if the Goals are All Non-Mutex in S_0

In S_0 , none of the goal literals are met. Moreover, the graph has not yet leveled off. As such, EXPAND_GRAPH is called to add the actions from A_0 , update the effects (i.e. literals), and update the set of mutex relations.

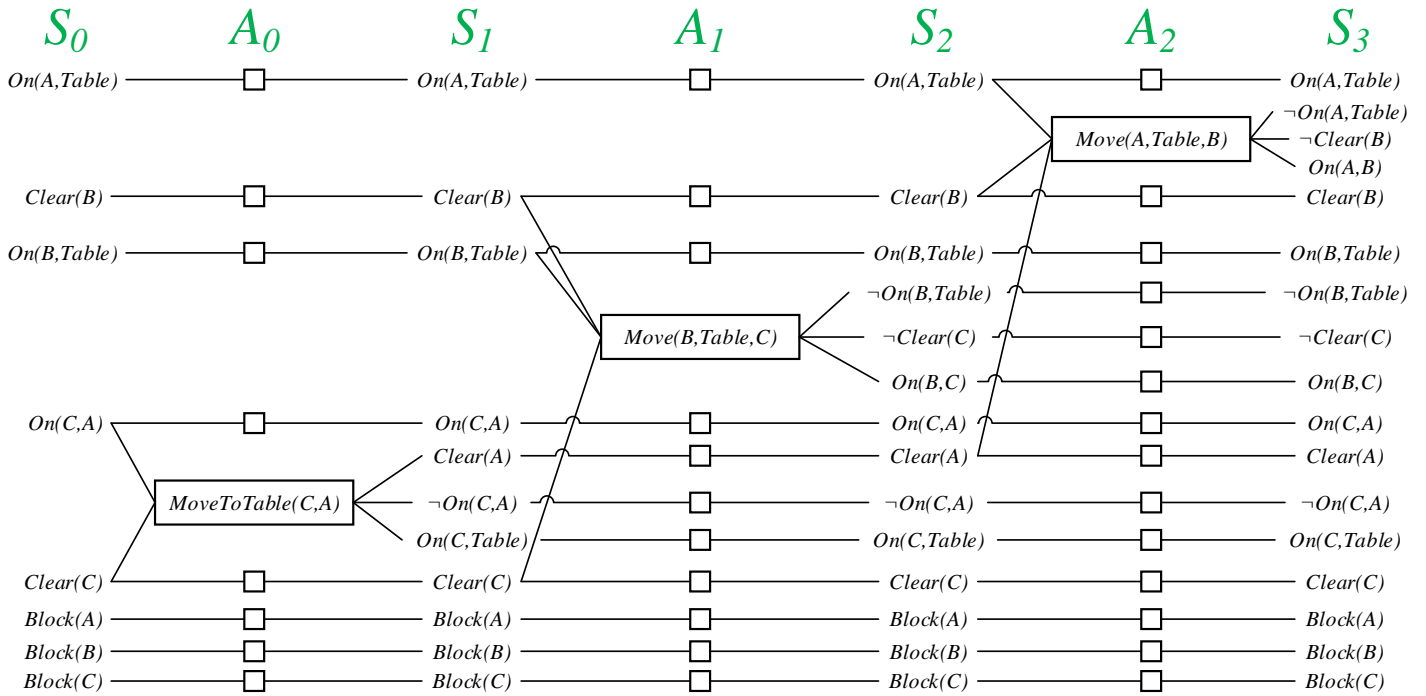


Figure 5 – Simplified Graph of the Necessary Actions to Reach the Goal for the Blocks World Problem

Step #4: Check if the Goals are All Non-Mutex in S_1

In S_1 , the goal literal, $On(A, B)$, is not yet achievable since block A is not clear in the initial state so block A cannot be moved until action A_1 at the earliest. Moreover, the graph has not yet leveled off. As such, `EXPAND_GRAPH` is called to add the actions from A_1 , update the effects (i.e. literals), and update the set of mutex relations.

Step #5: Check if the Goals are All Non-Mutex in S_2

In S_2 , the only way to achieve $On(A, B)$ is to perform that action $Move(A, Table, B)$. Similarly, in S_2 , there are two ways to achieve the state $On(B, C)$.

1. Move block B on top of block C in A_0 . Next, perform the persistence action in A_1 . (Note this is not shown in Figure 5). This persistence action is mutually exclusive with $Move(A, Table, B)$ since the requisite precondition of the move, $Clear(A)$, would be false creating a mutually exclusive relation.
2. Perform the move $Move(B, Table, C)$ or $Move(A, Table, B)$ in A_1 . These actions are mutually exclusive under the **Interference** cause since $Move(B, Table, C)$ has the precondition $Clear(B)$ while $Move(A, Table, B)$ has the negation (i.e. $\neg Clear(B)$) as its effect.

Hence, all goals are not mutex in S_2 due to **inconsistent support**. As such, `EXPAND_GRAPH` is called to add the actions from A_2 , update the effects (i.e. literals), and update the set of mutex relations.

Step #6: Check if the Goals are All Non-Mutex in S_3

In S_3 , all goal literals are non-mutex. Hence, `Extract_Solution` can be called for the first time.

Step #7: Run `Extract_Solution`

Extract-Solution can be in one of two forms:

1. Constraint Satisfaction Problem (CSP) – The variables are the actions at each level. All the variables have the domain $\{Included, Excluded\}$, which represents whether that action is included or excluded from the plan. The constraints are the mutex relations.
2. Backward Search Problem – The initial state is the final level of the planning graph (in this case S_3). The goal is to cover the set of goal literals (e.g. $On(C, Table) \wedge On(B, C) \wedge On(A, B)$). Actions in the search problem are a set of non-mutex actions that for each level in the graph covers one or more of the literals.

We will consider approach #1. The solution of the CSP would be to set the variables $\{MoveToTable(C, A), Move(B, Table, C), Move(A, Table, B)\}$ would be *Included* for actions A_0 , A_1 , and A_2 respectively; there would also be a series of persistence actions (e.g. blocks A and B performed persistence actions in A_0 , blocks A and C performed persistence actions in A_1 , blocks B and C performed persistence actions in A_2). All other actions would be *Excluded*. This solution would solve the problem without violating any mutex relations. This would then be returned by the algorithm.

Additional Problem #2

Briefly explain how PDDL solves the frame problem. Given some disadvantages of formulating problems in PDDL.

As with the definition of a generic search problem, the four core items that the Planning Domain Definition Language (PDDL) utilizes are:

1. Initial State
2. Actions available in each state
3. Result of applying an action
4. Goal Test

A state is a conjunction of fluents (i.e. facts that may change from situation to situation). The fluents are ground in that they do not rely on variables.

The result of any action must explicitly define those aspects of the state that changed and those which stayed the same. In classical planning, it is normally the case that more aspects of a state remain the same after an action than actually change. The frame problem encapsulates the issue of trying to enumerate all of the potentially numerous aspects of the state that remained the same after an action was performed. To address this problem, PDDL only enumerates those aspects of the state that change as a result of an action. Any unmentioned aspect of the state is by definition unchanged by the action. This in effect is the minimum information required to fully describe the result of an action and reduces the complexity of defining any action by entirely eliminating the need to specifically enumerate the usually more numerous aspects of the state that did not change.

While PDDL addresses the frame problem well, it does have limitations. First, PDDL fluents do not explicitly include time. While preconditions refer to a generic time t and effects to a time $t + 1$, this discretized representation of time will not be sufficient for all types of problems. Scheduling problems require information about time including how long an action takes and when it occurs. For example, with the “Air Cargo Transport” problem, actions can be ordered, but the PDDL representation has no sense of things like departure and arrival times of the aircraft. A temporal language would be better suited to this role.

Second, PDDL does not effectively capture the cost associated with an action. Instead, it generalizes action costs to a discretized “level cost”, which is the distance in levels from the initial state to the level in the planning graph where the action appears. This oversimplification will be insufficient if the planning agent behaves more as a utility based agent than a goal based agent. For example, consider a variant of the air cargo problem where cargo must be moved from JFK to SFO with the minimum possible cost. If the only routes from JFK to SFO were through London or Kansas City, PDDL would not capture that the route through Kansas City would cost significantly less than the London itinerary.

Two additional general limitations of all planning languages, including PDDL, are the qualification and ramification problems. The **qualification problem** highlights that there are some aspects of the environment that may cause an action to fail. What is more, these implicit and necessary preconditions for the success of an action can be innumerable and unknowable for practical purposes. For example, the *Fly* action in the “Air Cargo Transport” problem requires sufficient fuel in the tank, a competent pilot, good weather, no sabotage, etc.; otherwise the *Fly* action will fail. However, the textbook’s PDDL description of this action does not capture these dependencies. Similarly, the **ramification problem** states that when performing an action, there are many secondary effects that are not always captured. For example, when the *Fly* action is performed, some of the airline’s gasoline reserve is consumed. Moreover, after a *Fly* action, in addition to the movement of a package, some airline staff as well as possibly customers are moved to a new location. However, these tertiary effects can not all be practically captured by PDDL or any other planning language.

Additional Problem #3

Extend the default rules for the Nixon-Diamond problem presented in the book on page 460 so that rather than having two extensions, the resulting system has three. Give what those three extensions are and show carefully they are in fact extensions.

This problem is inspired by Dave Thomas, founder of the fast food restaurant chain Wendy's. Dave Thomas worked in fast food, was a military veteran who eventually was given the military rank of Colonel, and was a successful business man. Consider these attributes are turned into three predicates:

1. *FastFoodEmployee*
2. *VeteranColonel*
3. *SuccessfulBusinessPerson*

An individual's net economic worth is defined as his/her total assets (e.g. cash, property, stock, possessions, etc.) minus any liabilities (e.g. debts). Consider dividing individuals into three non-overlapping categories based on their net worth: poor, middle class, and rich. These attributes are described as predicates below with an example mutually exclusive classification:

1. *Poor* - An individual with less than \$50,000 in net worth.
2. *MiddleClass* - An individual with a net worth of \$50,000 or more but less than \$500,000
3. *Rich* - A net worth of \$500,000 or more

Most people who are fast food employees are poor; however, this is not always the case as some managers or corporate executives may be middle class for example. Hence, a default logic rule is:

$$\frac{FastFoodEmployee(x) : Poor(x)}{Poor(x)}$$

$$FastFoodEmployee(x) \wedge \neg Abnormal_1(x) \Rightarrow Poor(x)$$

Similarly, most military veterans who reached a high rank such as colonel are financially stable but did not make enough to be classified as rich. Rather, most such individuals usually fall into the category of middle class. Hence:

$$\frac{VeteranColonel(x) : MiddleClass(x)}{MiddleClass(x)}$$

$$VeteranColonel(x) \wedge \neg Abnormal_2(x) \Rightarrow MiddleClass(x)$$

Most successful business people eventually become rich; however, this is not always true if, for example, they have a great deal of outstanding debt. Hence, a default logic rule is:

$$\frac{SuccessfulBusinessPerson(x) : Rich(x)}{Rich(x)}$$

$$SuccessfulBusinessPerson(x) \wedge \neg Abnormal_3(x) \Rightarrow Rich(x)$$

Consider the case of Dave Thomas. The following is a fact³:

³ Source: Dave Thomas Wikipedia page: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dave_Thomas_\(businessman\)](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dave_Thomas_(businessman))

$$\text{FastFoodEmployee}(\text{DaveThomas}) \wedge \text{VeteranColonel}(\text{DaveThomas}) \\ \wedge \text{SuccessfulBusinessPerson}(\text{DaveThomas})$$

If Abnormal_1 , Abnormal_2 , and Abnormal_3 are circumscribed, then there are three preferred models since all human beings are either poor, middle class, or rich by the previously established definition. They are:

1. $\text{Poor}(\text{DaveThomas})$, $\text{Abnormal}_2(\text{DaveThomas})$, and $\text{Abnormal}_3(\text{DaveThomas})$ are true with all other predicates false. This corresponds to extension:

$$\{\text{FastFoodEmployee}(\text{DaveThomas}) \wedge \text{VeteranColonel}(\text{DaveThomas}) \\ \wedge \text{SuccessfulBusinessPerson}(\text{DaveThomas}) \wedge \text{Poor}(\text{DaveThomas})\}$$

2. $\text{Abnormal}_1(\text{DaveThomas})$, $\text{MiddleClass}(\text{DaveThomas})$, and $\text{Abnormal}_3(\text{DaveThomas})$ are true with all other predicates false. This corresponds to extension:

$$\{\text{FastFoodEmployee}(\text{DaveThomas}) \wedge \text{VeteranColonel}(\text{DaveThomas}) \\ \wedge \text{SuccessfulBusinessPerson}(\text{DaveThomas}) \wedge \text{MiddleClass}(\text{DaveThomas})\}$$

3. $\text{Abnormal}_1(\text{DaveThomas})$, $\text{Abnormal}_2(\text{DaveThomas})$, and $\text{Rich}(\text{DaveThomas})$ are true with all other predicates false. This corresponds to extension:

$$\{\text{FastFoodEmployee}(\text{DaveThomas}) \wedge \text{VeteranColonel}(\text{DaveThomas}) \\ \wedge \text{SuccessfulBusinessPerson}(\text{DaveThomas}) \wedge \text{Rich}(\text{DaveThomas})\}$$

This reasoner is unable to determine Dave Thomas's net worth category since all models have the same number of abnormal objects. Given only the original known facts and a set of conclusions from the three default rules, every default conclusion is consistent. A set of precedence rules to resolve the ambiguity is possible (for example *SuccessfulBusinessPerson* has the highest precedence with *VeteranColonel* the next highest and *FastFoodEmployee* the lowest precedence), but that is beyond the scope of this question.