

Knowledge Representation

- Knowledge: It can be defined as the body of facts and principles accumulated by humankind or it can be understood as the fact or state of knowing.

Knowledge is having familiarity with language, concepts, procedures, rules, ideas, abstractions, places, customs, facts, associations coupled with an ability to use these notions effectively in modelling different aspects of the world.

3. The meaning of knowledge is closely related to the meaning of intelligence
eg: BLOOM's TAXONOMY

→ Cognitive (Related to Mind)
↳ Psychosensory



4) Intelligence requires the possession of an access to knowledge. A common way to represent knowledge external to a computer or human is in the form of written language.

5) For eg: Ramu is tall. This expresses a simple fact which is the attribute possessed by a person.

For eg: Ramu loves his mother. It is a complex binary relation b/w 2 persons. There are 2 entities related to representation of knowledge in AI.

① fact: fact is the truth in some relevant world. These are the things to be represented.

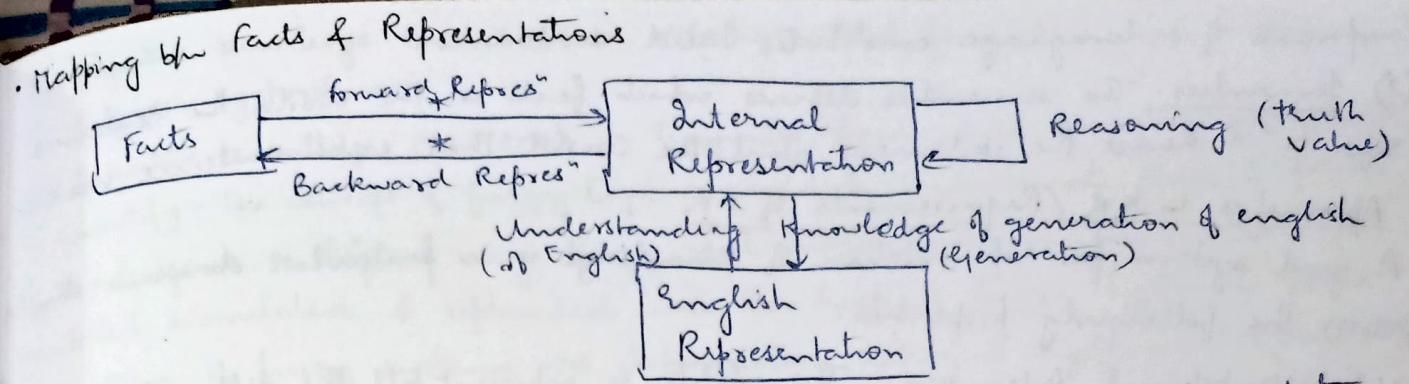
② Representation of facts: It must be done in some chosen formalism. There are the things that we ^{will} actually ~~are going~~ be able to manipulate.

6) The structuring of these entities are done at 2 levels:

① Knowledge level: facts including each agent's behaviours & current goals are described at this level.

② Symbol level: The representation of objects at the knowledge level are defined in terms of symbols that can be manipulated by programs.

LISP, PROLOG → Tools



(considers the statement, Marcus is a man. Using the logical representation,
 $\exists \text{ man}(\text{Marcus}) \rightarrow \text{man}(v)$)

Suppose we have a logical representation which says all men have legs.

① $\forall v : \text{man}(v) \rightarrow \text{haslegs}(v)$

② $\text{haslegs}(\text{marcus}) \leftarrow \text{from } ① \text{ & } ②$

This is called Deductive mathematical reasoning. (also inductive)

Using backward mapping, we can say that Marcus has legs. For eg: 2 statements are there: (i) All men have legs. (ii) every man has legs.

(example of many-many relationship)

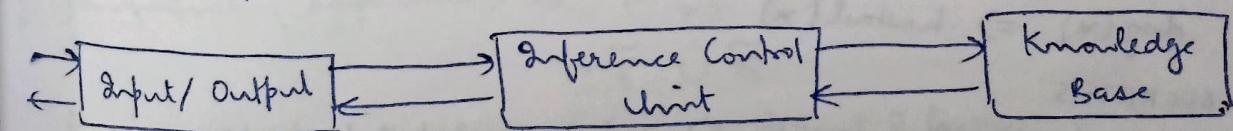
Conclusion: Every man has atleast 1 leg.

Note: we must 1st decide what facts the sentences represent & then convert those facts into the new representation.

12/10/22 Unit 2 → Richard Night

Knowledge Based System - These are all system that depends on rich base of knowledge to perform difficult tasks. It includes work in vision learning, general problem solving and natural language understandings. The systems get their power from the expert knowledge that has been coded into facts, heuristics & procedures. The knowledge is stored in a knowledge base that is separate from the control of inferencing components. It is possible to add new knowledge or refine existing knowledge without re-compiling the control of inferencing programs.

Components of Knowledge Based System



Representation of Knowledge

The objective of a knowledge representation is to express knowledge in computer tractable form so that it can be used to enable our AI agents to perform as per the expectations.

A knowledge rep. language is defined by 2 aspects:

(i) Syntax - The syntax of a language defines which configurations of the

Components of a language constitutes valid sentences.

(2) Semantics: The semantics defines which facts in the world the sentences refer to & hence the statement about the world that each sentence makes.

• Approaches to KR / Requirements of KR

A good system for representation of knowledge in a particular domain should possess the following properties:

(1) Representational Adequacy - The ability to represent all the different kinds of knowledge that might be needed in that domain.

(2) Inferential Adequacy - The ability to manipulate the representational structures in such a way as to derive new structures corresponding to new knowledge inferred from old ones.

(3) Inferential efficiency - The ability to incorporate additional information into the knowledge structure which can be used to focus the attention on the inference mechanisms in the most promising directions.

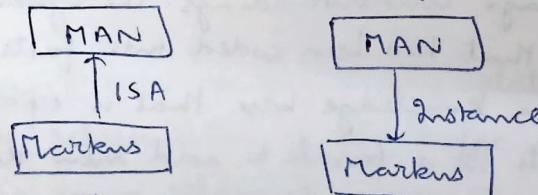
(4) Acquisitional efficiency - The ability to acquire new information easily. Ideally the agents should be able to control its own model acquisition. But direct insertion of information by knowledge engineer would be acceptable.

• Techniques of KR

(1) Simple Relational Knowledge - It is used in database systems to represent declarative facts. Declarative Knowledge is passive knowledge expressed as statements or facts about the world.

(2) Inheritable knowledge - It uses the concept of Property Inheritance

2 imp. Characteristics \rightarrow



(3) Inferential Knowledge - It uses the concept of standard logical rules of inference. 2 imp. rules: Modusponens, Modus tollens.

e.g.: $\forall x : \text{dog}(x) \Rightarrow \text{hasTail}(x)$

$x = \text{Socrates}$

(4) Procedural Knowledge - It is compiled knowledge related to performance of some tasks.
e.g.: To solve Algebraic equations

• Fuzzy logic

\hookrightarrow Unclear

① Fuzzy System - They include fuzzy logic & fuzzy set theory.
Knowledge exists in 2 distinct forms:

(1) objective knowledge that exists in mathematical form & is used to represent the engineering problems.

(2) subjective knowledge that exists in linguistic form & is usually impossible to quantify. The concept of fuzzy logic is used to co-ordinate these 2 forms of knowledge in a logical way. Many real world problems have been modelled simulated & replicated with the help of fuzzy systems. Some applications of fuzzy systems are Information Retrieval systems, Navigation systems, Robot vision etc.

Definition of Fuzzy logic: Fuzzy logic is derived from fuzzy set theory dealing with reasoning that is approximate rather than precisely deduced from classical ~~two~~ valued logic.

Note: A declarative sentence that is either true or false is a proposition.

Exceptions: Commands, Questions & Exclamations.

Rules of Inference

$$① \text{Modus Ponens: } (p \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow q$$

$$② \text{Modus Tollens: } (\sim q \wedge (p \rightarrow q)) \rightarrow \sim p$$

& Make Truth table for both

In fuzzy logic, the truth values are multivalued such as Absolute true, partially true, Absolute false etc.

Fuzzy Proposition

A fuzzy proposition is a statement \tilde{P} which acquires a fuzzy truth value, $T(\tilde{P})$

\tilde{P} : Ram is honest.

$$T(\tilde{P}) = 0.8 \quad (\text{If } T(P) = 1 \Rightarrow \text{absolute honesty})$$

Fuzzy Connectives

$$1) \text{ Negation} \longrightarrow 1 - T(\tilde{P})$$

$$2) \text{ Disjunction} \longrightarrow \max [T(\tilde{P}), T(\tilde{Q})] \text{ if have } \tilde{P}, \tilde{Q} \rightarrow 2 \text{ fuzzy propositions}$$

$$3) \text{ Conjunction} \longrightarrow \min [T(\tilde{P}), T(\tilde{Q})]$$

$$4) \text{ Conditional (Implication)} \rightarrow \tilde{P} \Rightarrow \tilde{Q}$$

$$\sim \tilde{P} \vee \tilde{Q}$$

$$\max [(1 - T(\tilde{P}), T(\tilde{P}))] \leftarrow \text{in terms of fuzzy}$$

$$\text{Ex: } \tilde{P}: \text{Marthy is efficient. } T(\tilde{P}) = 0.8$$

$$\tilde{Q}: \text{Ram is efficient. } T(\tilde{Q}) = 0.65$$

$$\text{Calculate Negation of } \tilde{P}. \Rightarrow 1 - T(\tilde{P}) = 1 - 0.8 = 0.2$$

$$\text{Calculate } \tilde{P} \cap \tilde{Q} \Rightarrow \min [0.8, 0.65] = 0.65$$

$$\tilde{P} \cup \tilde{Q} \Rightarrow 0.8$$

$$\tilde{P} \Rightarrow \tilde{Q} \Rightarrow 0.65$$

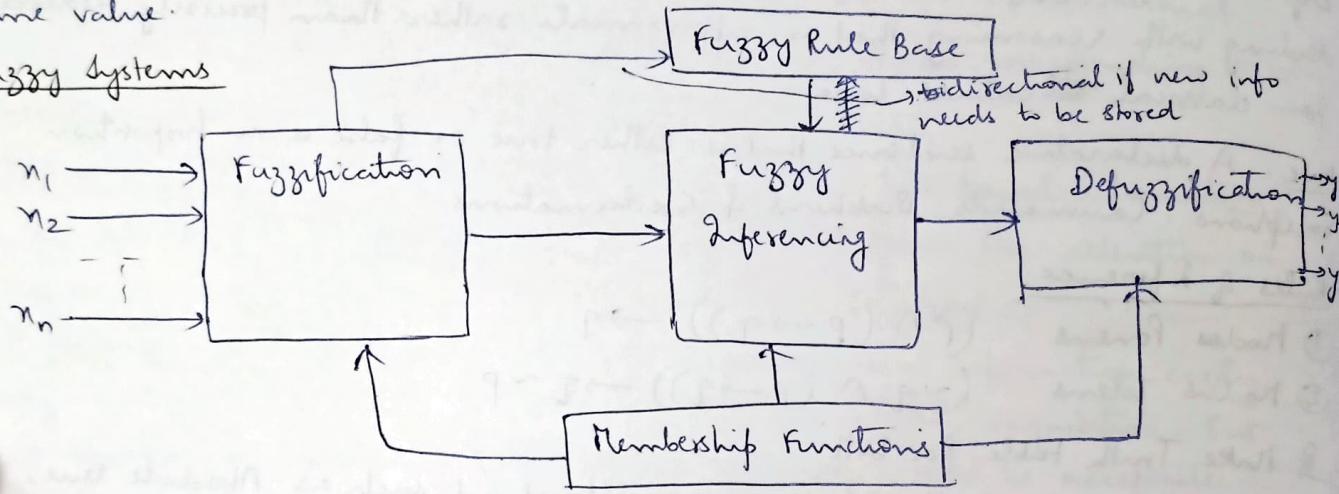
ordinary set in classical set/logic

- Fuzzy Quantifiers: In crisp logic, the predicates are quantified by quantifiers with the use of which you can similarly in fuzzy logic, the propositions are quantified by Quantifiers.

There are 2 classes of fuzzy quantifiers:

- 1) Absolute Quantifiers (around)
(much greater than) - specify with some value.
- 2) Relative Quantifiers (almost)
(about, most, atleast)

Fuzzy Systems



Some properties which will be utilized

Fuzzy System Elements

- 1) Input Vector: These are the crisp values which are transformed into fuzzy sets in the fuzzification block. It is represented by

$$X = [n_1, n_2, \dots, n_n]^T \quad (\text{as represented by vectors})$$

- 2) Output Vector: It comes out from the defuzzification block which transforms an output fuzzy set back to crisp value.

- 3) Fuzzification: It is a process of transforming crisp value into grades of membership for linguistic terms such as Far, Small, Near of fuzzy sets.

- 4) Fuzzy Rule Base: It is a collection of propositions containing linguistic variables.

If ... THEN

e.g.: IF $(x \text{ is } A) \wedge (y \text{ is } B)$ THEN $(z \text{ is } C)$. Here A, B, C are linguistic terms/variables

Variables

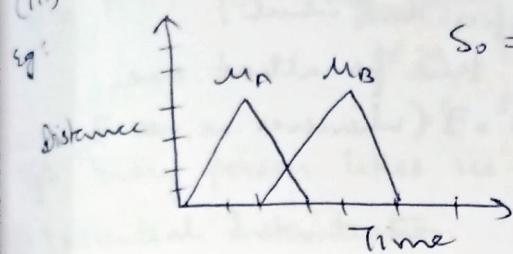
- 5) Membership Function: It provides a measure of the degree of similarity of elements in the universe of discourse (U) to fuzzy set.

- 6) Fuzzy Inference: It combines the facts obtained from the fuzzification with

The rule based & conducts the fuzzy reasoning process.

3) Defuzzification: It translates the results back to the real world values. In many situations for a system whose output is fuzzy it is easier to take a crisp decision if the output is represented as a single quantity. The typical defuzzification methods are:

- (i) Centroid Method
- (ii) Centre of Sums
- (iii) Mean of Maxima



$$S_0 = \text{No. of speed initial} = 70 \text{ km/hr}$$

$$M_A = 0.75$$

$$M_B = 0.25$$

Q Write short notes on knowledge based agents and read about example on wumpus world - Russel Norvig
 → First Order Predicate logic (FOL) is another way of knowledge representation in AI.

It is an extension to propositional knowledge. It is a powerful language, develops info about objects in a more easy way and also express relation between those objects. FOL talks about things:

→ Syntax of FOL:
 (i) Facts (ii) Objects involved in Fact (iii) Relationship b/w those obj
 (iv) Function to create for the relation to be used interoperably among facts
 Some basic elements are constants, variables, predicates, functions
 (1, 2, myd), (x, y), ($\text{brother}, >, =$), (\sqrt{x}, \exists)
 connectives, equality, quantifiers (universal and existential)
 $(\neg, \rightarrow, \vee, \wedge, \sim)$, ($x = 3, y = 4$), (\forall, \exists)

→ Atomic Sentences

Most basic sentences of FOL and are formed from a predicate symbol followed by parenthesis with a sequence of terms and represented as predicate (term 1, term 2, . . . term n)

e.g. Hari and Raghav are brothers. $\Rightarrow \text{brother}(\text{Hari}, \text{Raghav})$,
 Tommy is a dog $\Rightarrow \text{dog}(\text{Tommy})$

→ Complex Sentences

Made by combining atomic sentences using connectives. FOL statements divided in 2 parts.

- (i) Subject main part of statement \Rightarrow Subject, Predicate
- (ii) Predicate relation which binds atoms together in a statement.

→ Quantifiers

They are language which generates quantification symbols that permit to determine the identity of variable in terms of range and scope in the logic expression.

Quantifiers

Universal (Range)
[for all, for every, for each]

Existential (Scope)
[for some, there exists, atleast one]

Universal Quantifiers:

Symbol of logical representation which specifies that statement within its range is true for everything and every instance of particular thing represented as \forall (whenever we use \forall , we use \Rightarrow)

Existential Quantifiers: It is a type of quantifiers that which expresses that the statement within its scope is true for atleast one instance of something. ~~$\exists A$~~ is represented as \exists (whenever we use \exists , we use \wedge)
e.g. All men drink coffee.

n^* variable

n_1 coffee $\wedge n_2$ coffee

$\forall n$, man (n) \rightarrow drink (n , coffee)

atomic

complex

e.g. All birds fly (~~bird~~), $\forall n$ bird (n) \rightarrow fly (n) \rightarrow predicate: fly (bird)

e.g. Every man respects his parents \Rightarrow respects (n, y) \rightarrow parent

$\forall n$ man (n) \rightarrow respects (n, y)

$\forall n$ man (n) \rightarrow respect (n , parents)

$\forall y$ man (n) \rightarrow respects (n, y)

e.g. Some boys are intelligent.

$n \rightarrow$ variable

n_1 intelligent $\vee n_2$ intelligent

$\exists n$: boy (n) \wedge intelligent (n)

\rightarrow Inferences in FOL

Used to deduce new facts and sentence from existing one

\rightarrow Terminologies

① Substitution \rightarrow fundamental operation performed on terms and formulas.
, occurs on all inference systems in FOL.

\hookrightarrow substitute a for n , replace n by a . $F[a/n]$

② Equantifiability : hard clause

e.g. brother (john) \leftarrow son1

$n = y \Rightarrow n \neq y$

\rightarrow Inference Rules for Quantifiers

① Universal Generalisation
A valid inference rule which states that if $P(c)$ is true for any arbitrary element c in the universe of discourse then $\forall x P(x)$ is the conclusion.

② Universal Instantiation

- It is also called Universal Elimination.
- It can be applied to multiple times to add new sentence.
- We can infer any sentence $P(c)$ by substituting a ground term c $\forall x P(x)$ for any object in the universe of discourse.

$$\forall x P(x)$$

$$\therefore, c. P(c)$$

e.g. 'Every person likes ice cream' then 'Ram likes ice cream'

③ Existential Instantiation

- It is also called Existential elimination.
- A valid inference rule in FOL & can be only applied once to replace the existential sentences.
- We can infer $P(c)$ from the formula in the form

$$\exists x P(x) \text{ for a new constant } c.$$

$$\therefore, P(c)$$

④ Existential Generalization

- It is also known as Existential introduction.
- If there is some element $c \in U$ which has property P then we can infer that \exists something in U that has property P

$$P(c)$$

$$\therefore, \exists x P(x)$$

Unification

It is all about making the expressions look identical.

$$\begin{array}{l} P(x, F(y)) \\ P(y, F(z)) \end{array} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{These 2 are identical if } x=y \text{ & } y=z \end{array} \right\}$$

y/x and y/z

Conditions for Unification

- Predicate symbols must be same, atomic sentences/expression with different predicate symbols can never be unified.
- No of arguments in both expressions must be identical.
- Unification will fail if there are 2 similar variables present in same expression.

→ Unification Algorithm (2nd for exam)

Unify (L_1, L_2):

1) If L_1 or L_2 is a variable / constant then:

a) If L_1 and L_2 are identical then:

 return NIL;

b) else if L_1 is a variable then:

 (i) If L_1 occurs in L_2 then:

 return FAIL;

 (ii) else :

 return (L_2/L_1) ;

c) else if L_2 is a variable then:

 (i) If L_2 occurs in L_1 then:

 return FAIL;

 (ii) else

 return (L_1/L_2)

d) else:

 return FAIL;

2) If unifiable predicate symbol in L_1 and L_2 are not identical then:

 return FAIL;

3) If L_1 & L_2 have different number of arguments then:

 return FAIL;

4) Set SUBST to NIL;

5) Loop for $i \leftarrow 1$ to number of arguments in L_1

 a) Call UNIFY with i^{th} arg of L_1 & L_2 in s .

 b) If $s == \text{FAIL}$ then:

 return FAIL;

 c) If $s != \text{NIL}$ then :

 (i) apply s to remainder of both L_1 & L_2 ;

 (ii) $\text{SUBST} = \text{APPEND}(s, \text{SUBST})$;

6) return SUBST;

→ Implementation of Unification Algorithm

1) Initialize the SUBST = empty;

2) Recursively unify atomic sentences;

 (i) Check for identical expression match;

 (ii) If one expression is a variable V_i and other is a term t_i which

doesn't has v_i then:

- Substitute t_i/v_i in existing substitutions.
- Add t_i/v_i to the SUBST list.
- If both the expressions are functions then:
functions names must be similar & no. of arguments must be same in both expressions.

e.g.: $p(n, g(n))$

① $p(z, y)$, Is unification possible? \Rightarrow Yes, z/n , $y/g(n)$

② $p(z, g(z))$, Is unification possible? \Rightarrow Yes, z/n

③ $p(\text{prime}, f(\text{prime}))$ is not possible, f can't be replaced by F .

→ Predicate logic and Resolutions:

• Resolution in FOL:

- Resolution is a theorem proving technique that proves by contradiction.

- It is used when there are various statements given and there is a need to prove conclusions of those statement.

- Unification is a key concept in proof by resolution.

^{Proof by} Resolution is a single inference rule which can efficiently operate on CNF or Clausal form.

→ Conjunctive Normal form.

→ CNF

- A sentence that is represented using conjunction of clauses.

- Representation of OR's by virtue of AND's

- Eliminate all implication and rewrite.

Clausal form → disjunction of literals is called clause

→ Steps for Resolution

1) Conversion of facts into FOL.

2) Convert FOL into CNF

3) Negate the statements which need to be proved by Contradiction

4) Draw a Resolution graph.

e.g.: 1) 'If it is sunny and warm, you will enjoy'.

2) 'If it is raining you will get wet'

3) 'It is a warm day'

4) 'It is raining'

5) 'It is sunny'

To prove: 'You will enjoy'

Proof: Step 1

① sunny \wedge warm \rightarrow enjoy

② raining \rightarrow wet

③ warm

④ raining

⑤ sunny

Step 2:

① $\sim(\text{sunny} \wedge \text{warm}) \vee \text{enjoy}$

$\sim\text{sunny} \vee \sim\text{warm} \vee \text{enjoy}$

② $(\sim\text{raining}) \vee \text{wet}$

③ warm

④ raining

⑤ sunny

Step 3: $\sim\text{enjoy}$

Step 4: $\sim\text{enjoy}$

$\sim\text{sunny} \vee \cancel{\sim\text{warm}} \vee \text{enjoy} - ①$

$\sim\text{sunny} \vee \sim\text{warm}$

warm - ③

sunny - ⑤

$\sim\text{sunny}$ $\sim\text{sunny}$ \rightarrow contradiction

\therefore we reach {} we can say we will enjoy.

e.g.: ① John likes all kinds of food

② Apple and vegetable are food

③ Anything and anyone eats and not killed is food

④ Anil eats peanuts and is alive.

⑤ Harry eats everything Anil eats

⑥ John likes peanuts - To prove

⑦ If not killed then alive

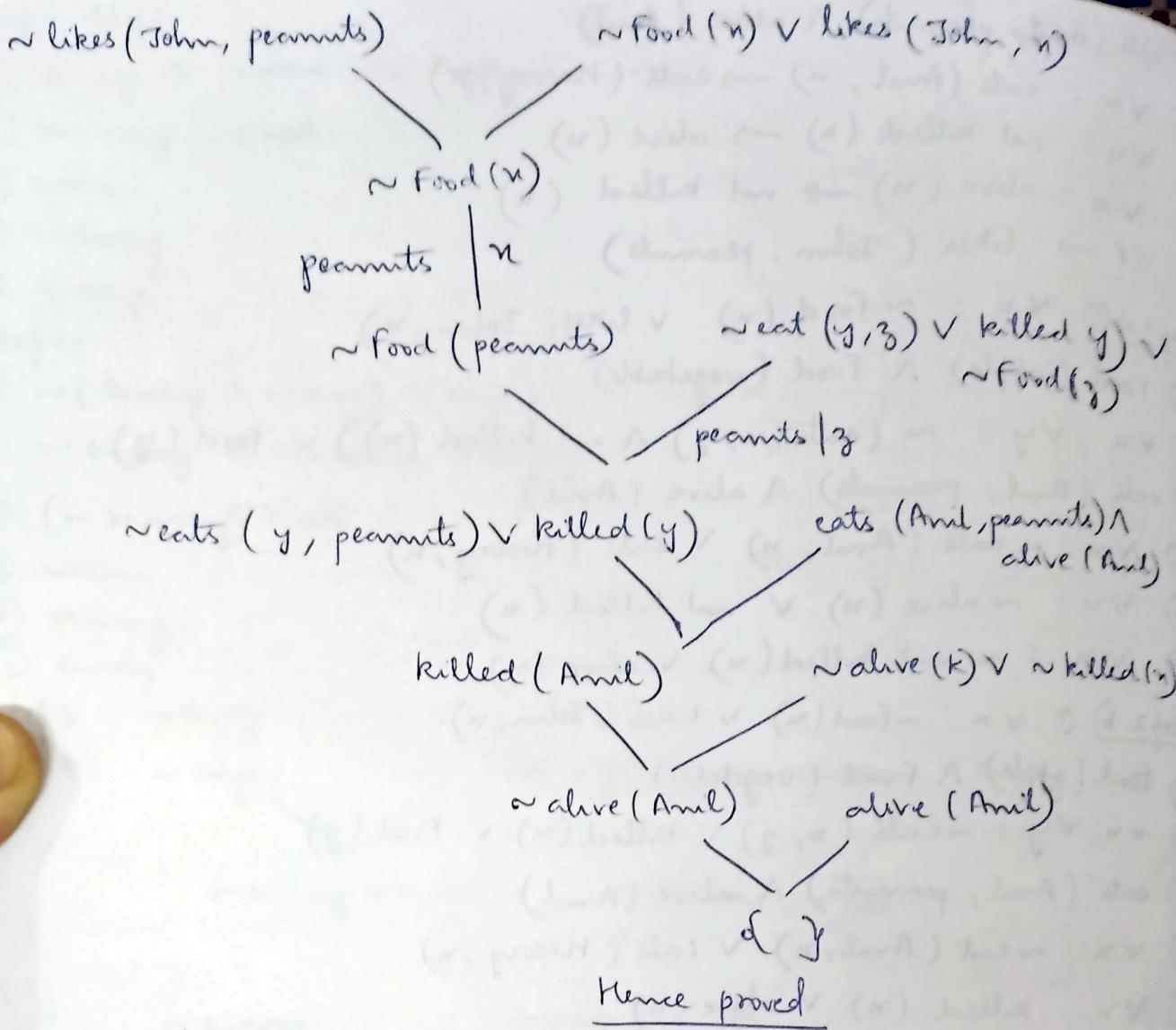
⑧ If alive then not killed.

Step 1: ① $\forall n : \text{Food}(n) \rightarrow \text{likes}(\text{John}, n)$

② $\text{Food}(\text{Apple}) \wedge \text{Food}(\text{Vegetable})$

③ $\forall n, \forall y : \text{eats}(n, y) \wedge \text{not killed}(n) \rightarrow \text{Food}(y)$

- ① eats (Anil, peanuts) \wedge alive (Anil)
 ② $\forall n : \text{eats}(\text{Anil}, n) \rightarrow \text{eats}(\text{Harry}, n)$
 ③ $\forall n : \text{not killed}(n) \rightarrow \text{alive}(n)$
 ④ $\forall n : \text{alive}(n) \rightarrow \text{not killed}(n)$
 ⑤ $\exists p \rightarrow \text{likes}(\text{John}, \text{peanuts})$
Step 2 a) ① $\forall n : \sim \text{Food}(n) \vee \text{likes}(\text{John}, n)$
 ② Food (apple) \wedge Food (vegetable)
 ③ $\forall n, \forall y : \sim (\text{eats}(n, y) \wedge \text{not killed}(n)) \vee \text{Food}(y)$
 ④ eats (Anil, peanuts) \wedge alive (Anil)
 ⑤ $\forall n : \sim \text{eats}(\text{Anil}, n) \vee \text{eats}(\text{Harry}, n)$
 ⑥ $\forall n : \sim \text{alive}(n) \vee \text{not killed}(n)$
 ⑦ $\forall n : \sim \text{not killed}(n) \vee \text{alive}(n)$
Step 2 b) ① $\forall n : \sim \text{Food}(n) \vee \text{likes}(\text{John}, n)$
 ② Food (apple) \wedge Food (vegetable)
 ③ $\forall n, \forall y : \sim \text{eats}(n, y) \vee \text{killed}(n) \vee \text{Food}(y)$
 ④ eats (Anil, peanuts) \wedge alive (Anil)
 ⑤ $\forall n : \sim \text{eats}(\text{Anil}, n) \vee \text{eats}(\text{Harry}, n)$
 ⑥ $\forall n : \text{killed}(n) \vee \text{alive}(n)$
 ⑦ $\forall n : \sim \text{alive}(n) \vee \text{not killed}(n)$
Step 2 c) ① $\forall n : \sim \text{Food}(n) \vee \text{likes}(\text{John}, n)$
 ② Food (Apple) \wedge Food (vegetable)
 ③ $\forall y, \forall z : \sim \text{eats}(y, z) \vee \text{killed}(y) \vee \text{Food}(z)$
 ④ eats (Anil, peanuts) \wedge alive (Anil)
 ⑤ $\forall w : \sim \text{eats}(\text{Anil}, w) \vee \text{eats}(\text{Harry}, w)$
 ⑥ $\forall q : \text{killed}(q) \vee \text{alive}(q)$
 ⑦ $\forall k : \text{alive}(k) \vee \sim \text{killed}(k)$
Step 2 d) Eliminate existential quantifier.
Step 2 e) Drop Universal Quantifier
Step 2 f) Distribute conjunction over disjunction
Step 3 $\sim \text{likes}(\text{John}, \text{peanuts})$



→ Forward Chaining

- Also known as forward reasoning.
- It is a form of reasoning which starts with atomic sentences in the knowledge base and applies inference rules in the forward direction to extract more data until a goal is reached.

- Properties

- (i) It moves from bottom to top.
- (ii) It is a process of making a conclusion based on known facts or data by starting from initial state and reach the goal state.
- (iii) Also known as data driven strategy as reaching to goal uses available data.

- Applications: Expert systems

→ Backward Chaining

- It starts with the goal and works backward, chaining through rules to find known facts which support the goals.

Properties

- (i) It is a top-down approach
- (ii) It is based on Modus Ponens inference rule.
- (iii) Goal is broken into sub goals to prove that the facts are true.
- (iv) It is a goal driven approach as a list of goals decide which rules are selected and used.
- Used in game theory, automatic theorem proving tools (resolutions) and inference engines, proofs assistant etc.
- Difference b/w Forward and Backward Reasoning

Forward Reasoning

- 1) Starts from known facts and applies inference rule to get more data until it reaches goal.

→ Bottom-up

- 2) Data driven as goal reached using available data

3) Uses bfs strategy

4) Tests for all available rules

5) Suitable for planning, monitoring, controlling & interpretation application

6) Can generate infinite no. of possible conclusion.

7) Aimed for any conclusion

8) Works in forward direction

→ Rules:

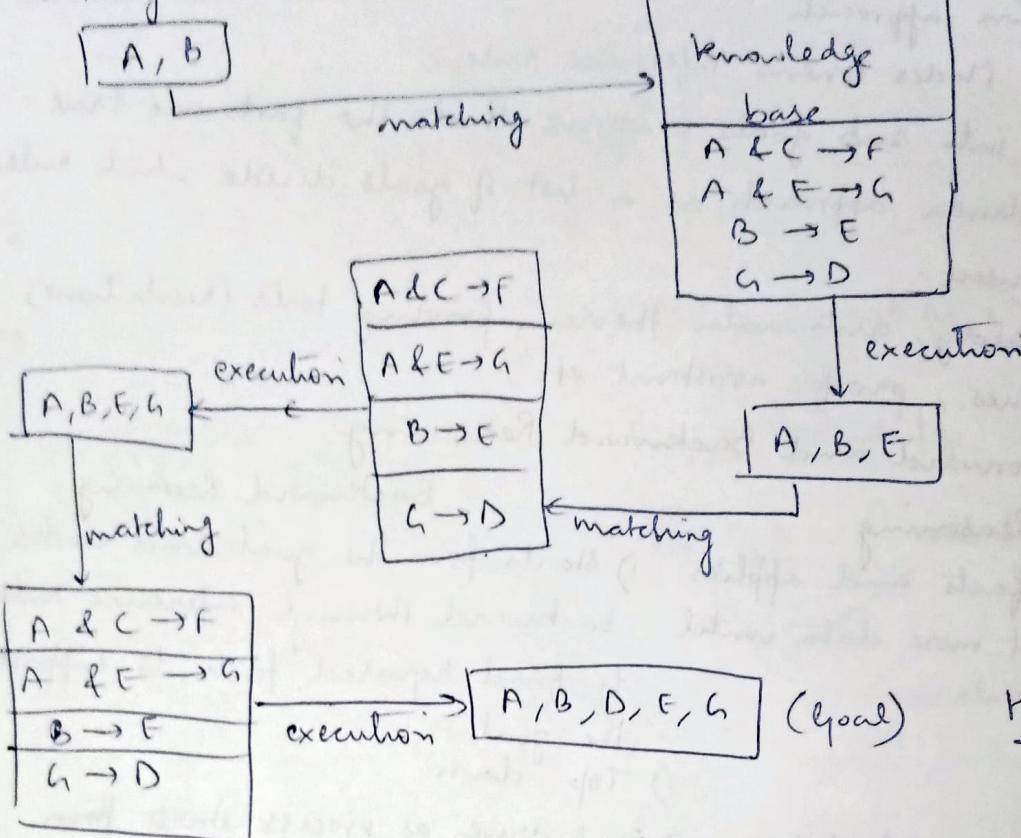
- Eg: ① IF A AND C THEN F
- ② IF A and E THEN G
- ③ IF B THEN E
- ④ IF G THEN D

Prove that if A and B are true then D is True.

Backward Reasoning

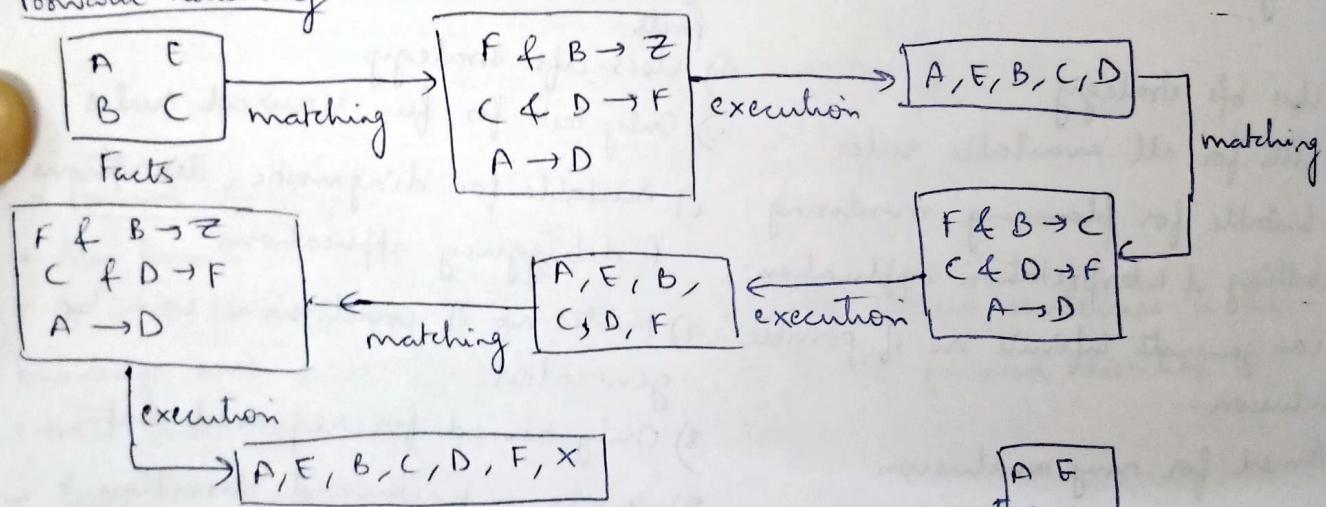
- 1) Starts from the goal and works backward through inference rule to find required facts to support the goal.
- 2) Top-down
- 3) Goal driven as process starts from goal and divided into sub goals to get facts.
- 4) Uses dfs strategy
- 5) Only tests for few required rules.
- 6) Suitable for diagnostic, descriptions & debugging applications
- 7) Finite no. of conclusions can be generated.
- 8) Only aimed for required data
- 9) Works in backward direction

Initially in DB

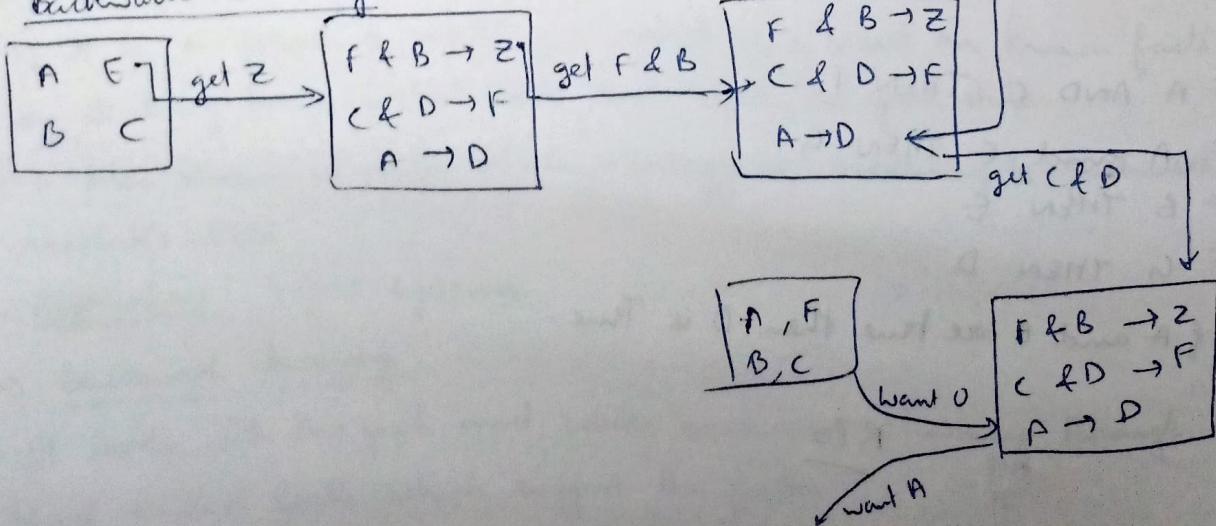


Eg. Goal state is Z and termination condition is stop if Z is DERIVED

Forward Reasoning



Backward Reasoning



- 3/1/22
- Horn Clause - A clause is called Horn clause if it contains atmost 1 positive literal usually written as:
- $$l_1, l_2, \dots, l_n \Rightarrow L (\equiv \sim l_1 \vee \dots \vee \sim l_n \vee L) \quad \text{where } n \geq 0$$
- ↑
Skolemization
2. A disjunction of literals with atmost one negative literal is known as Dual Horn clause.
 3. Horn clause with exactly 1 positive literal \rightarrow Definite clause / Strict Horn clause.
 4. A definite clause with no negative literal \rightarrow Unit clause
 5. A unit clause without variables \rightarrow Fact
 6. Horn clause without positive literal \rightarrow Goal clause
- \rightarrow Knowledge Base (KB)
1. KB is a set of sentences in a formal language.
 2. Syntax is the sentence of the language. & Semantics is the meaning of the sentence.
- Syntax \uparrow part of possible world
Semantics

Model

It is a mathematical abstraction each of which simply fixes the truth or falsehood of every relevant sentence.

Eg: In possible world, $x \rightarrow \text{boy}$ $x + y = 4 \Rightarrow$ There are 4 people in the world
 $y \rightarrow \text{girl}$

In model, assign some real values to x & $y \Rightarrow x \rightarrow R, y \rightarrow R$

If a sentence α is true in model m , we say that m satisfies α or m is a model of α . $M(\alpha)$ \rightarrow Set of models of α .

Entailment

A sentence follows logically from another sentence if represented as:

$$\alpha \models \beta, \quad \alpha, \beta \text{ are sentences}$$

\uparrow entails

Formally α entails β if and only if in every model where α is true, β is also true. $\Rightarrow M(\alpha) \subseteq M(\beta)$

\uparrow relation established

Model Checking

It enumerates all possible models to check that α is true in all models in which KB is true. represented by $M(KB) \subseteq M(\alpha)$

If an inference algorithm i can derive α from KB , then $KB \vdash_i \alpha$

(α is derived from KB using i or i derives α from KB) \leftarrow means

Soundness

Algorithm i is sound if whenever $KB \vdash_i \alpha$ is true; It is also true that $KB \models \alpha$.

Completeness

i is complete if whenever $KB \models \alpha$ it is also true that α is derived from KB using i or $KB \vdash_i \alpha$. Thus the procedure of model checking will answer any question whose answer follows from what is known by KB .

Validity

A sentence is valid if it is true in all models. ($A \models \alpha \wedge \neg A \rightarrow F$ in every universe)

- Validity is connected to inference via deduction Theorem. It says that $KB \models \alpha$ is true or valid if and only if $KB \Rightarrow \alpha$ is valid.

$$KB \Rightarrow \alpha \equiv \neg KB \vee \alpha$$

- A sentence is satisfiable if it is true in some model. $A \models \alpha$ Both should be valid

- A sentence is unsatisfiable if it is true in no models.

e.g: $A \wedge \neg A$ will never be true.

- Satisfiability is connected to inference as $\underbrace{KB \models \alpha}$ if and only if $(KB \wedge \neg \alpha)$ is unsatisfiable.

both should not be true & false at same time

2/1/2

UNIT - 4

① Planning - It is a process of computing several steps of problem solving before executing any one of them. It consists of:

- Choose the best rule. i.e Heuristics
- Apply the rule on the problem to get new state or problem
- Detect if solution is found and stop
- Detect dead end so that redirections are explored.

② How to choose the rule?

- Consider the goal state and compare with initial state
- Identify the relevant rules to be applied heuristically.

State - Space Search

It is used in problem solving and is a process used in AI in which successive configurations or states of an instance are considered with an intention of finding the goal state with desired property. The problems are modelled as state space which is a set of states in which a problem can be