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### FIT5047: Fundamentals of Al

# Knowledge Representation Chapters 6, 8-9

### Knowledge representation: Learning objectives

- Knowledge-based agents
- Logic in general models and entailment
- Propositional (Boolean) logic
- Equivalence, validity, satisfiability
- First-order logic
- Inference rules and theorem proving
  - forward chaining
  - backward chaining
  - resolution refutation systems
    - > substitution
    - > unification
    - > resolution

**Propositional logic** 

First order logic



# Assumptions about the environment

- Observable
- Known
- Single/multi agent
- Deterministic
- Sequential/episodic
- Static
- Discrete



# Knowledge representation

- How do we represent facts about the world?
- How do we reason about these facts?
- Some widely accepted formal calculi
  - Propositional logic
  - First-order logic
  - Probability calculus



# Knowledge bases



- Knowledge base = set of sentences in a formal language
- Declarative approach to building an agent:
  - Tell it what it needs to know
  - Ask it a question answers follow by inference from the KB
- Agents may be viewed
  - at the knowledge level what they know
  - at the implementation level data structures in the KB and algorithms that manipulate them



# A simple knowledge-based agent

#### The agent must be able to:

- Represent states, actions, etc
- Incorporate new percepts
- Update internal representations of the world
- Deduce hidden properties of the world
- Deduce appropriate actions



# Logic in general

- Logics are formal languages for representing information such that conclusions can be drawn
- Syntax defines the sentences in the language
- Semantics define the meaning of sentences
  - the truth of a sentence in each possible world
- E.g., the language of arithmetic
  - $x+2 \ge y$  is a sentence;  $x2+y > {}$  is not a sentence
  - x+2 ≥ y is true in all the worlds where the number x+2 is no less than the number y
    - >  $x+2 \ge y$  is true in a world where x = 7, y = 1
    - $> x+2 \ge y$  is false in a world where x = 0, y = 6



# Logical entailment

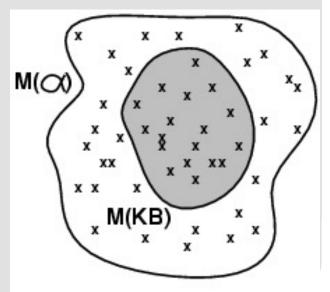
Entailment means that one thing follows logically from another:
 KB | α
 knowledge base KB entails sentence α iff α is true in all worlds where KB is true

- E.g.,
  - the KB containing "the Giants won" and "the Reds won" entails "the Giants won or the Reds won"
  - x+y = 4 entails 4 = x+y
- Entailment is a relationship between sentences (i.e., syntax) that is based on semantics



### Models

- Models are formally structured worlds with respect to which truth can be evaluated
- If a sentence  $\alpha$  is true in a model m, we say that
  - m is a model of  $\alpha$ , or
  - m satisfies α
- $M(\alpha)$  = the set of all models of  $\alpha$ 
  - $KB \models \alpha \text{ iff } M(KB) \subseteq M(\alpha)$ 
    - > E.g., KB = Giants won & Reds won α = Giants won



### Inference

- $KB \mid_i \alpha$  means that sentence  $\alpha$  can be derived from KB by procedure i
- Soundness: procedure *i* is sound if whenever  $KB \mid_{i} \alpha$ , it is also true that  $KB \models \alpha$
- Completeness: procedure *i* is complete if whenever  $KB \models \alpha$ , it is also true that  $KB \models_i \alpha$
- First-order logic (FOL) is expressive enough to say almost anything of interest, and there exists a sound and complete inference procedure for it



# Grounding

# About the connection between logical reasoning processes and real environments

- How do we know that KB is true in the real world?
  - By creating a connection using the agent's sensors, i.e.,
     the meaning and truth of percept sentences are defined
     by the processes of sensing and sentence construction
- Where do we get the rest of an agent's knowledge?
  - By learning (generalizing) from experience







### FIT5047: Fundamentals of Al

# **Propositional Logic**

# Propositional Logic: Some definitions

- Literal: a proposition or its negation
  - E.g., P, ¬P
- Clause: a disjunction of literals
  - E.g.,  $\neg P \lor Q \lor A$

# Propositional Logic: Syntax

- Propositional logic is the ``simplest" logic
- The proposition symbols P<sub>1</sub>, P<sub>2</sub>, ... are sentences
  - Negation: If S is a sentence, ¬S is a sentence
  - Conjunction: If  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are sentences,  $S_1 \wedge S_2$  is a sentence
  - Disjunction:
     If S<sub>1</sub> and S<sub>2</sub> are sentences, S<sub>1</sub> ∨ S<sub>2</sub> is a sentence
  - Implication: If  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are sentences,  $S_1 \Rightarrow S_2$  is a sentence
  - **Biconditional**: If  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are sentences,  $S_1 ⇔ S_2$  is a sentence



# Propositional Logic: Semantics

Each model specifies true/false for each proposition

- E.g., 
$$S_1$$
  $S_2$   $S_3$  false true false

Rules for evaluating truth with respect to a model m:

```
\neg S is true iff S is false S_1 \wedge S_2 is true iff S_1 is true and S_2 is true S_1 \vee S_2 is true iff S_1 is true or S_2 is true S_1 \Rightarrow S_2 \equiv \neg S_1 \vee S_2 is true iff S_1 is false or S_2 is true S_1 \Leftrightarrow S_2 is true iff S_1 \Rightarrow S_2 \Rightarrow S_3 is true and S_2 \Rightarrow S_3 \Rightarrow S_
```

Simple recursive process evaluates any sentence

```
- E.g., \neg S_1 \land (S_2 \lor S_3) = true \land (true \lor false) = true \land true = true
```



### Truth tables for connectives

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

# Logical equivalence

• Two sentences are logically equivalent iff they are both true in the same models:  $\alpha \equiv \beta$  iff  $\alpha \models \beta$  and  $\beta \models \alpha$ 

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



# Validity and Satisfiability

- A sentence is valid if it is true in all models
  - E.g., *True*, A∨¬A, A  $\Rightarrow$  A
- Validity is connected to inference via the Deduction Theorem
  - $-\alpha \models \beta$  iff  $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$  is valid
- A sentence is satisfiable if it is true in some model
  - E.g., A∨B, C
- A sentence is unsatisfiable if it is true in no model
  - E.g., A∧¬A
- Satisfiability and validity are connected
  - $\alpha$  is valid iff  $\neg \alpha$  is unsatisfiable
  - $\alpha$  is satisfiable iff  $\neg \alpha$  is not valid
  - $-\alpha \models \beta$  iff  $\alpha \land \neg \beta$  is unsatisfiable



# Validity: Example proof

- Prove that (A ∧ (A ⇒ B)) ⇒ B is valid
  - $-(A \land (\neg A \lor B)) \Rightarrow B$
  - $-((A \land \neg A) \lor (A \land B)) \Rightarrow B$
  - $-(A \land B) \Rightarrow B$
  - $-\neg(A \land B) \lor B$
  - $-\neg A \lor \neg B \lor B$
  - True

### Validity and Satisfiability: Example proofs

#### • Prove that $\alpha$ is valid iff $\neg \alpha$ is unsatisfiable

- If  $\alpha$  is valid, it is true in all models  $\rightarrow$  there does not exist a model for which  $\neg \alpha$  is true  $\rightarrow \neg \alpha$  is unsatisfiable
- − If  $\neg \alpha$  is unsatisfiable → there does not exist a model for which  $\neg \alpha$  is true →  $\alpha$  is true in all models →  $\alpha$  is valid

#### • Prove that $\alpha$ is satisfiable iff $\neg \alpha$ is not valid

- − If α is satisfiable, it is true in some models  $\rightarrow$  ¬α is not true in these models  $\rightarrow$  ¬α is not valid
- − If  $\neg \alpha$  is not valid → there exist some models for which  $\neg \alpha$  is false →  $\alpha$  is true in these models →  $\alpha$  is satisfiable



### Proof methods

### Model checking

Enumerates all possible models to check that a sentence  $\alpha$  is true in all models where KB is true

- Truth table enumeration  $(2^n$ , where n is the number of symbols)
- Backtracking
   (recursive enumeration of all models) with logic-related heuristics

### Application of inference rules

Sound generation of new sentences from old

- Proof = a sequence of inference rule applications
  - > use inference rules as operators in a standard search algorithm
  - > typically require transformation of sentences into a *normal form*



### Common rules of inference

Parent clauses	Resolvent	Name
P and ¬PvQ	Q	<b>Modus Ponens</b>
¬Q and ¬PvQ	¬P	<b>Modus Tollens</b>
P and Q	P or Q	And Elimination
PvQ and ¬PvQ	Q	
PvQ and ¬Pv¬Q	Qv¬Q or	Tautology
	Pv⊣P	
P and ¬P	NIL	
¬PvQ and ¬QvR	¬PvR	Chaining
PvQ and ¬PvR	QvR	



### Resolution: Example

- 1. Eat ⇒ HaveLessMoney
- 2.  $\neg$ Eat  $\Rightarrow$  Hungry

¬HaveLessMoney⇒ Hungry

**Resolvent**: HaveLessMoney ∨ Hungry

Eat	HLM	Hungry	<b>¬Eat ∨ HLM</b>	<b>Eat</b> ∨ <b>Hungry</b>	<b>HLM</b> ∨ Hungry
F	F	F	T	F	F
F	F	Т	Т	Т	T
F	Т	F	Т	F	T
F	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	F	Т	F
Т	F	Т	F	T	T
Т	Т	F	Т	Т	T
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т	Т

### Proof as search

- Initial state: initial KB
- Actions: the inference rules applied to all the sentences that match the LHS of the rule
- Result: add the sentence on the RHS of a rule to the KB
- Goal: a state where the KB contains the sentence we are trying to prove

**Monotonicity**: the set of entailed sentences can only increase as information is added to the KB



### Resolution

 Resolution – an inference rule applied to clauses that yields a complete inference algorithm when coupled with any complete search algorithm

parent clauses 
$$l_1 \lor \dots \lor l_i \lor \dots \lor l_k \qquad m_1 \lor \dots \lor m_j \lor \dots \lor m_n$$
 
$$l_1 \lor \dots \lor l_{i-1} \lor l_{i+1} \lor \dots \lor l_k \lor m_1 \lor \dots \lor m_{j-1} \lor m_{j+1} \lor \dots \lor m_n$$
 resolvent

- where  $l_i$  and  $m_j$  are complementary literals  $(l_i = \neg m_j)$
- the resolvent should contain only one copy of each literal
- Resolution is sound for propositional logic



### Conversion to conjunctive normal form

- Every sentence in propositional logic is logically equivalent to a conjunction of clauses
- Converting a sentence to Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)
  - 1. Eliminate  $\Leftrightarrow$ , replacing  $\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta$  with  $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \land (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)$
  - 2. Eliminate  $\Rightarrow$ , replacing  $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$  with  $\neg \alpha \lor \beta$
  - 3. Move inwards by repeated application of the following equivalences:
    - > double-negation:  $\neg (\neg \alpha) \equiv \alpha$
    - > de Morgan  $\neg(\alpha \land \beta) \equiv \neg\alpha \lor \neg\beta$
    - > de Morgan  $\neg(\alpha \lor \beta) \equiv \neg\alpha \land \neg\beta$
  - 4. Apply the distributivity law (∧ over ∨) and flatten



# Conversion to CNF: Example

- $A \Leftrightarrow (B \lor C)$ 
  - 1. Eliminate  $\Leftrightarrow$ :  $(A \Rightarrow (B \lor C)) \land ((B \lor C) \Rightarrow A)$
  - 2. Eliminate  $\Rightarrow$ :  $(\neg A \lor (B \lor C)) \land (\neg (B \lor C) \lor A)$
  - 3. Move  $\neg$  inwards:  $(\neg A \lor (B \lor C)) \land ((\neg B \land \neg C) \lor A)$  $(\neg A \lor B \lor C) \land ((\neg B \land \neg C) \lor A)$
  - 4. Apply the distributivity law:

$$(\neg A \lor B \lor C) \land (\neg B \lor A) \land (\neg C \lor A)$$

# Resolution-refutation systems

### Proof by refutation

- Negate the goal and add the negation to the set of clauses
- 2. Apply resolution to the clauses in the set of clauses until a contradiction is reached

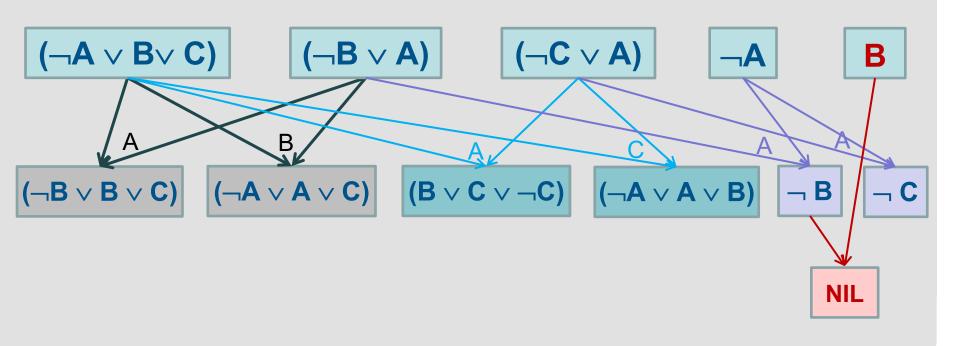
#### Answer extraction

- Build a tautology by appending the goal itself to the negation of the goal
- 2. When the negated goal is contradicted, the answer resides in the goal



# Resolution-refutation: Example

- $KB = (A \Leftrightarrow (B \lor C)) \land \neg A$  $(\neg A \lor B \lor C) \land (\neg B \lor A) \land (\neg C \lor A) \land \neg A$
- Prove:  $\alpha = \neg B$





# Resolution-refutation algorithm

 Proof by contradiction, i.e., given a goal α, show that KB∧¬α is unsatisfiable

```
function PL-RESOLUTION(KB, \alpha) returns true or false clauses \leftarrow the set of clauses in the CNF representation of KB \land \bigcirc \alpha new \leftarrow \{ \} loop do for each C_i, C_j in clauses do resolvents \leftarrow \operatorname{PL-RESOLVE}(C_i, C_j) if resolvents contains the empty clause then return true new \leftarrow new \cup resolvents if new \subseteq clauses then return false clauses \leftarrow clauses \cup new
```

### Soundness and Completeness

### Resolution refutation is sound and complete

- Resolution Closure RC(S) of a set of clauses S
  is the set of <u>all</u> clauses derivable by repeated
  application of the resolution rule to the clauses
  in S or their derivatives
  - RC(S) is finite → Resolution always terminates
- Ground resolution theorem: if a set of clauses is unsatisfiable, then the resolution closure of those clauses contains the empty clause
  - → Resolution-refutation is complete for propositional logic



# Resolution refutation: Example

#### • KB:

- $-R1: P \Rightarrow Q$
- $R2: L \wedge M \Rightarrow P$
- $R3: B \wedge L \Rightarrow M$
- $R4: A \wedge P \Rightarrow L$
- $R5: A \wedge B \Rightarrow L$
- A
- B
- Prove Q

#### • KB:

- R1: ¬P ∨ Q
- $R2: \neg L \lor \neg M \lor P$
- $R3: \neg B \lor \neg L \lor M$
- $R4: \neg A \lor \neg P \lor L$
- $R5: \neg A \lor \neg B \lor L$
- A
- B
- ¬Q

R2: 
$$\neg L \lor \neg M \lor \underline{P}$$
  
 $\neg L \lor \underline{\neg M}$ 

R3: 
$$\neg B \lor \neg L \lor \underline{M}$$
  
 $\neg B \lor \underline{\neg L}$ 

<u>A</u>

<u>B</u>

<u>\_E</u>

nil

### Horn clauses and Definite clauses

- Definite clause a disjunction of literals of which <u>exactly one</u> is positive
  - E.g.,  $\neg A \lor \neg B \lor C$
  - Definite clauses can be written as implications (A∧B) ⇒ C
- Horn clause a disjunction of literals of which <u>at</u> most one is positive
  - All definite clauses are Horn clauses
  - Clauses with no positive literals are goal clauses
  - Inference with Horn clauses can be done with forward or backward chaining
  - Deciding entailment with Horn clauses can be done in time that is linear on the size of the KB



# Backward chaining

- IDEA: Work backwards from the query q:
  - to prove q by Backward Chaining, check if q is known already, or prove by Backward Chaining all premises of some rule concluding q
- Avoid loops: check if new subgoal is already on the goal stack
- Avoid repeated work: check if a new subgoal
  - 1. has already been proved true, or
  - has already failed

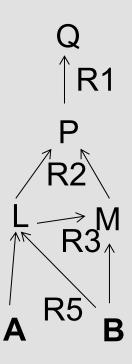
Backward chaining is sound and complete for Horn KBs



# Backward chaining: Example

#### KB:

- $-R1: P \Rightarrow Q$
- R2: L ∧ M  $\Rightarrow$  P
- $R3: B \wedge L \Rightarrow M$
- $R4: A \land P \Rightarrow L$
- $R5: A \wedge B \Rightarrow L$
- -A
- B
- Prove Q



# Forward chaining algorithm

#### IDEA: Work forwards from the facts in KB

```
function PL-FC-Entails? (KB, q) returns true or false
  local variables: count, a table, indexed by clause, initially the number of premises
                      inferred, a table, indexed by symbol, each entry initially false
                      agenda, a list of symbols, initially the symbols known to be true
   while agenda is not empty do
        p \leftarrow \text{Pop}(agenda)
        unless inferred[p] do
            inferred[p] \leftarrow true
            for each Horn clause c in whose premise p appears do
                 decrement count[c]
                 if count[c] = 0 then do
                      if HEAD[c] = q then return true
                      Push(Head[c], agenda)
   return false
```

### Forward chaining is sound and complete for Horn KBs

# Forward chaining: Example

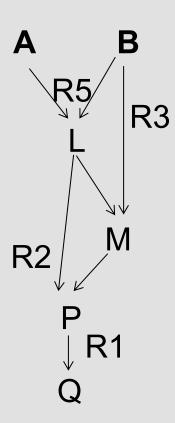
#### • KB:

$$- R2: L \wedge M \Rightarrow P$$

$$- R3: B \wedge L \Rightarrow M$$

$$-R4: A \land P \Rightarrow L$$

- $R5: A \wedge B \Rightarrow L$
- -A
- B
- Prove Q



Agenda	Count					Inferred
	R1	R2	R3	R4	R5	
АВ	1	2	2	2	2	

### Forward versus Backward chaining

### Forward chaining

- data-driven, automatic, unconscious processing
- may do lots of work that is irrelevant to the goal

### Backward chaining

- goal-driven, appropriate for problem-solving
- complexity can be much less than linear in size of KB
- Both are sound and complete for Horn KBs



# Pros and Cons of Propositional Logic

- **declarative**
- allows partial/disjunctive/negated information
- © compositional:
  - meaning of  $A \wedge B$  is derived from meaning of A and of B
- Meaning is context-independent
- Propositional logic has very limited expressive power
  - E.g., cannot say "all men are mortal"







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# First Order Logic

# First-order logic (FOL)

### First-order logic assumes the world contains

- Objects: people, houses, numbers, colors, baseball games, wars, ...
- Relations: red, round, prime, brother of, bigger than, part of, comes between, ...
- Functions: father of, best friend, one more than, plus, ...

### → FOL has increased expressive power



# First order logic – Syntax (I)

- term constant, variable or function
- atomic formula predicate symbol and terms
  - Example: MARRIED(John, Mother(x))
    - > Predicate symbol MARRIED
    - > Constant John or A
    - > Function *Mother* or *f*
    - > Variable x
- literal atomic formula or its negation
   E.g., ¬MARRIED(John, Mother(x))
- ground literal literal without variables



# First order logic – Syntax (II)

#### connectives

- disjunction P(x) v Q(y) v W(x,y)
- conjunction  $P(x) \wedge Q(y)$
- implication P(x)  $\Rightarrow$  W(x,y)  $\equiv$  ¬P(x) v W(x,y)
- clause disjunction of literals
   E.g., MARRIED(John, Mother(x)) v MARRIED(John, y)
- conjunctive normal form (CNF) a conjunction of a finite set of clauses

E.g.,  $(P1(x) \vee P2(y)) \wedge P3(x)$ 



# Well formed formulas (wffs)

### Legitimate expressions in predicate calculus

- 1. Any conjunction of wffs is a wff (/\)
- 2. Any disjunction of wffs is a wff (V)
- If both the antecedent and the consequent are wffs, so is the implication (=>)
- 4. The negation of a wff is also a wff



### **FOL: Quantification**

#### Quantification

predicate

constant

- Universal (∀) –∀x [ELEPHANT(x) ⇒ COLOUR(x,Gray)]
- Existential (∃) –∃x WRITE(x,Computer-Chess)

variable

- 1. Any conjunction of wffs is a wff
- 2. Any disjunction of wffs is a wff
- 3. If both the antecedent and the consequent are wffs, so is the implication
- 4. The negation of a wff is a wff
- 5. Any expression obtained by quantifying a wff is a wff



# Which of these expressions is a wff?

$$\exists x (\forall y [P(x,y) \land Q(x,y)] \Rightarrow R(x))$$
$$\neg f(A)$$
$$\neg P(A, g(A, B, A))$$
$$f(P(A))$$
$$\forall P P(A)$$



# FOL: Nesting of quantifiers

- Existential inside the scope of universal E.g., ∀s∃c Eats(s,c)
- Universal inside the scope of existential E.g., ∃c∀s Eats(s,c)



### FOL: Some equivalences

- $\neg$ ( $\exists$ x)P(x)  $\equiv$  ( $\forall$ x) [ $\neg$ P(x)] There does not exist an x such that P(x) is true  $\equiv$  For all x, P(x) is false
- ¬(∀x)P(x) ≡ (∃x) [¬P(x)]
   It is not true that for all x P(x) is true ≡
   There exists an x, such that ¬P(x)
- $(\forall x)[P(x) \land Q(x)] \equiv (\forall x)P(x) \land (\forall x)Q(x)$ For all x, P(x) and Q(x) are true  $\equiv$ For all x, P(x) is true, and, for all x, Q(x) is true
- (∃x)[P(x) v Q(x)] ≡ (∃x)P(x) v (∃x)Q(x)
   There is an x, such that, P(x) is true or Q(x) is true ≡
   There is an x, such that, P(x) is true, or there is an x, such that, Q(x) is true



### Are these wffs equivalent?

 $(\forall x)[P(x) \vee Q(x)]$ 

 $(\forall x)P(x) \vee (\forall x)Q(x)$ 



### Rules of inference: Example

- Modus Ponens:
   [P and P⇒Q] → Q
- Modus Tollens:
   [¬Q and P⇒Q] → ¬P
- Universal Specialization
   ∀x W(x) → W(A), where A is a constant
- Example: Universal Specialization + Modus Ponens
  - 1.  $\forall x [DOG(x) \Rightarrow BARKS(x)]$
  - 2. DOG(FIDO)

From 1 and 2: BARKS(FIDO)



### General inference: Resolution refutation

#### Resolution

- Unification
  - > Substitution
- Converting wffs to clauses



### Substitution

- Substitution is a set of ordered pairs
   s={v<sub>1</sub>|t<sub>1</sub>, v<sub>2</sub>|t<sub>2</sub>, ..., v<sub>n</sub>|t<sub>n</sub>}
   where v<sub>i</sub>|t<sub>i</sub> means term t<sub>i</sub> substitutes variable v<sub>i</sub>
  - Example: P(x,y)  $\{x|A, y|B\}$  → P(A,B)

- Semantics: all parts are applied simultaneously
  - Example: P(w, y, g(z), x)  $\{x|g(y), y|h(z), z|x\} \rightarrow P(w, h(z), g(x), g(y))$



### Composition of substitutions

### s<sub>i</sub>s<sub>k</sub> – composition of two substitutions

- Apply s<sub>k</sub> to the terms of s<sub>i</sub>
- Add any pairs of s<sub>k</sub> without variables in s<sub>i</sub>

#### **Example:**

term variable

$$s1 = \{z|g(x,y)\}\$$
  $s2 = \{x|A, y|B, w|C, z|D\}$ 

 $s1s2 = \{z|g(x,y)\}\{x|A, y|B, w|C, z|D\}=\{z|g(A,B), x|A, y|B, w|C\}$ 

$$s2s1 = \{x|A, y|B, w|C, z|D\} \{z|g(x,y)\} = \{x|A, y|B, w|C, z|D\}$$

### Properties of compositions of substitutions

- L(s1s2) = (Ls1)s2
- Associative: (s1s2)s3 = s1(s2s3)
- NOT commutative: s1s2 ≠ s2s1



### Unification

- Unification is a process that finds substitutions of terms for variables, such that two expressions are identical
- A set {E<sub>i</sub>} of expressions is unifiable, if there exists a substitution s such that E<sub>1</sub>s= E<sub>2</sub>s= ...
   In this case, s is a unifier of the set {E<sub>i</sub>}
- mgu (most general unifier) the mgu g of  $\{E_i\}$  has the property that if s is a unifier of  $\{E_i\}$ , yielding  $\{E_i\}s$ , then there exists a substitution s such that  $\{E_i\}s = \{E_i\}gs$
- Example: s={x|A, y|B} unifies P(x,f(y)) with P(x,f(B)) but the mgu is {y|B}



# Algorithm unify (list-structured expressions)

#### **Algorithm Unify(E1,E2)**

- 1. If either E1 or E2 is a variable or symbol, then interchange E1 and E2 if necessary, so that E1 is a variable or symbol
  - a. If E1 and E2 are identical then return { } // no substitution
  - **b.** If E1 is a variable do
    - i. If E1 occurs in E2 then return FAIL
    - ii. return {E1|E2} // E2 may be a compound expression
  - c. If E2 is a variable then return {E2|E1}
  - d. return FAIL
- 2. F1 ← the first element of E1, T1 ← rest of E1
- 3. F2 ← the first element of E2, T2 ← rest of E2
- 4. **Z1** ← Unify(F1,F2)
- 5. If Z1 = FAIL, then return FAIL
- 6. G1← result of applying Z1 to T1; G2 ← result of applying Z1 to T2
- 7. **Z**2 ← Unify(G1,G2)
- 8. If Z2 = FAIL, then return FAIL
- 9. return the composition of Z1 and Z2



predicate, function, negation, constant

### Unification example: Unify(P(y,g(y)),P(z,g(x)))

```
(P y (g y)) (P z (g x))
4. Z1 \leftarrow Unify(P,P)
   1.a P and P are identical → return NIL
7. Z2 \leftarrow Unify((y(gy)), (z(gx)))
   4. Z1 \leftarrow Unify(y,z): 1.b.ii return \{y|z\}
   6. G1 \leftarrow ((g y)){y|z} \rightarrow ((g z)), G2 \leftarrow ((g x)){y|z} \rightarrow ((g x))
   7. Z2 \leftarrow Unify(((g z)), ((g x))):
       4. Z1 \leftarrow Unify((gz), (gx))
          4. Z1 \leftarrow Unify(g,g)
             1.a g and g are identical → return NIL
          7. Z2 \leftarrow Unify((z),(x))
             4. Z1 \leftarrow Unify(z,x): 1.b.ii return\{z|x\}
```

#### 9. return composition of $\{y|z\}\{z|x\} = \{y|x,z|x\}$



### Converting wffs into clauses

- 1. Eliminate implication symbols
- 2. Reduce scopes of negation symbols
- 3. Standardize variables (for each quantifier)
- 4. Eliminate existential quantifiers (skolemize)
- 5. Move all universal quantifiers to the front
- 6. Put result in conjunctive normal form (CNF)
- 7. Eliminate universal quantifiers
- 8. Eliminate ∧ symbols
- 9. Rename variables (standardize variables <u>apart</u> for each clause)



### Converting wffs into Clauses: Example 1

```
\forall x [CanRead(x) \Rightarrow Intelligent(x)]
```

- Eliminate ⇒: ∀x [ ¬CanRead(x) v Intelligent(x) ]
- 7. Eliminate ∀: ¬CanRead(x) v Intelligent(x)



### Converting wffs into Clauses: Example 2

```
\forall x [\neg (\forall y) [ P(x,y) \Rightarrow Q(x,y)] ]
                                   \forall x [\neg (\forall y) [\neg P(x,y) \lor Q(x,y)]]
     Eliminate \Rightarrow:
     Reduce scope of \neg: \forall x [\exists y \neg [\neg P(x,y) \lor Q(x,y)]]
                                   \forall x \exists y [P(x,y) \land \neg Q(x,y)]
     Eliminate ∃:
                                   \forall x [ P(x,g(x)) \land \neg Q(x,g(x)) ]
     Eliminate ∀:
                                          P(x,g(x)) \wedge \neg Q(x,g(x))
     Eliminate \Lambda symbols: { P(x,g(x)), \neg Q(x,g(x)) }
8.
     Standardize variables apart: { P(x_1,g(x_1)), \neg Q(x_2,g(x_2)) }
```



### General resolution

- Let the prospective parent clauses be  $\{L_j\}$  and  $\{M_i\}$  (with variables standardized apart)
- Suppose that {I<sub>j</sub>} is a subset of {L<sub>j</sub>} and that {m<sub>i</sub>} is a subset of {M<sub>i</sub>} such that a most general unifier s exists for the sets {I<sub>i</sub>} and {¬m<sub>i</sub>}
- The clauses  $\{L_j\}$  and  $\{M_i\}$  resolve and the new clause  $\{\{L_j\}-\{I_j\}\}$  U  $\{\{M_i\}-\{m_i\}\}$  is a resolvent of the two clauses



### General resolution: Example

1. Everyone who can read is literate

 $\forall x [ CANREAD(x) \Rightarrow LITERATE(x) ]$ 

2. Whoever goes to school can read

 $\forall x [ GOSCHOOL(x) \Rightarrow CANREAD(x) ]$ 

$$\neg GOSCHOOL(x_1) \lor \underline{CANREAD(x_1)} \ \neg \underline{CANREAD(x_2)} \lor LITERATE(x_2)$$

mgu s= $\{x_2|x_1\}$ 

 $\neg$ GOSCHOOL( $x_1$ ) v LITERATE( $x_1$ )



# Resolution-refutation: Example (I)

1. If a unit is easy, there are some students who are enrolled in it who are happy

```
\forall u [ EASY(u) \Rightarrow \exists s [ ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) ] ]
```

2. If a unit has a final exam, no students that are enrolled in it are happy

```
\forall u \text{ [ HASFINAL(u)} \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \text{ [ ENROLLED(s,u)} \land HAPPY(s) \text{ ] ]} or
```

```
\forall u [ HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \forall s [ ENROLLED(s,u) \Rightarrow \neg HAPPY(s) ] ]
```

3. Prove that if a unit has a final exam, the unit is not easy

```
\forall u [ HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg EASY(u) ]
```



# Resolution-refutation: Example (II)

### **Converting to clauses**

```
1. \forall u \ [ EASY(u) \Rightarrow \exists s \ [ ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) ] ]
  Eliminate \Rightarrow: \forall u [ \neg EASY(u) v \exists s [ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s)]]
  Eliminate ∃: ∀u [ ¬ EASY(u) v [ ENROLLED(g(u),u) ∧ Happy(g(u)) ] ]
  Turn into CNF: \forall u [ [ \neg EASY(u) v ENROLLED(g(u),u) ] \land
                         [\neg EASY(u) \lor HAPPY(g(u))]]
  Eliminate \forall: [ \neg EASY(u) v ENROLLED(g(u),u) ] \land
                    [ -EASY(u) v HAPPY(g(u)) ]
  Eliminate Λ and standardize variables apart:
    1.1 - EASY(u_1) \times ENROLLED(g(u_1), u_1)
    1.2 - EASY(u_2) v HAPPY(g(u_2))
```



# Resolution-refutation: Example (III)

2.  $\forall u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists s \mid ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s) \mid \exists u \mid HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \exists u \mid$ Eliminate  $\Rightarrow$ : ∀u [ ¬ HASFINAL(u) v ¬ ∃s [ ENROLLED(s,u) ∧ HAPPY(s) ] ] Reduce scope of  $\neg$ :  $\forall u [\neg HASFINAL(u) \lor \forall s \neg [ENROLLED(s,u) \land HAPPY(s)]]$ ∀u [¬ HASFINAL(u) v ∀s[ ¬ENROLLED(s,u) v ¬HAPPY(s) ] ] Move  $\forall$  to the front:  $\forall u \ \forall s \ [ \neg HASFINAL(u) \ v \neg ENROLLED(s,u) \ v \neg HAPPY(s) \ ]$ Eliminate ∀: ¬ HASFINAL(u) v ¬ENROLLED(s,u) v ¬HAPPY(s) Standardize variables apart:  $\neg$  HASFINAL(u<sub>3</sub>) v  $\neg$ ENROLLED(s<sub>3</sub>,u<sub>3</sub>) v  $\neg$ HAPPY(s<sub>3</sub>)



# Resolution-refutation: Example (IV)

# Using resolution to prove statement 3 Negate the goal:

```
3'. \neg \forall u \ [ \ HASFINAL(u) \Rightarrow \neg \ EASY(u) \ ]

Eliminate \Rightarrow: \neg \forall u \ [\neg \ HASFINAL(u) \land \neg \ EASY(u) \ ]

Reduce scope of \neg: \exists u \ [ \ HASFINAL(u) \land EASY(u) \ ]

Eliminate \exists: \vdash HASFINAL(A) \land EASY(A)

Eliminate \land: 3'.1 \vdash HASFINAL(A)

3'.2 \vdash EASY(A)
```



# Resolution-refutation: Example (V)

3'.1 <u>HASFINAL(A)</u> 2.  $\underline{\neg}$  HASFINAL( $\underline{u}_3$ )  $v \neg ENROLLED(s_3, u_3)$   $v \neg HAPPY(s_3)$  $\{u_3|A\}$ 4.  $\neg \text{ENROLLED}(s_3, A) \vee \neg \text{HAPPY}(s_3)$ 1.2  $\neg$  EASY(u<sub>2</sub>) v <u>HAPPY(g(u<sub>2</sub>))</u>  $\{s_3|g(u_2)\}$ 1.1  $\neg$  EASY(u<sub>1</sub>) v <u>ENROLLED(g(u<sub>1</sub>),u<sub>1</sub>)</u> 5.  $\neg$ ENROLLED(g(u<sub>2</sub>),A) v  $\neg$  EASY(u<sub>2</sub>)  $\{u_2|u_1\}\{u_1|A\} = \{u_2|A,u_1|A\}$ 6. <u>¬ EASY(A)</u> 3'.2 <u>EASY(A)</u> NIL



### Resolution-refutation strategies

- Unit preference: prefer resolutions where one of the sentences is a unit clause (single literal)
  - Unit resolution: every resolution must involve a unit clause
- Set of support: every resolution step should involve at least one element of a special set of clauses, the set of support. The resolvent is added to the set of support
  - E.g., set of support =  $\{\neg Q\}$
- Input resolution: every resolution combines one of the original input sentences (from the KB or query) with another sentence
- Subsumption: eliminates all sentences subsumed by (more specific than) an existing sentence in the KB



### Uses of FOL in Al

### Theorem proving

- 1. ON(C,A)
- 2. ONTable(A), ONTable(B)
- 3. CLEAR(C), CLEAR(B)
- 4.  $\forall x [CLEAR(x) \Rightarrow \neg \exists y ON(y,x)]$
- **5. Goal:** Prove  $\neg \exists y ON(y,C)$

### Question answering

- 1. MANAGER(Purchasing-dept., John-Jones)
- 2. WORKSIN(Purchasing-dept., Joe-Smith)
- 3.  $\forall x \ \forall y \ \forall z \ [WORKSIN(x,y) \ \Lambda \ MANAGER(x,z)] \Rightarrow BOSSOF(y,z)$
- **4. Goal:** Who is the boss of Joe Smith? ∃x BOSSOF(Joe-Smith,x)

### Planning



### Theorem proving: Example

```
1. ON(C,A)
    2. (a) ONTABLE(A), (b) ONTABLE(B)
    3. (a) CLEAR(C), (b) CLEAR(B)
    4. \forall x [CLEAR(x) \Rightarrow \neg \exists y ON(y,x)]
        \neg CLEAR(x_1) \lor \neg ON(y,x_1)
    5. Goal: Prove \neg \exists y \ ON(y,C)
         Negate goal: ∃y ON(y,C)
                            ON(M,C)
4. \neg CLEAR(x_1) \lor \neg ON(y_1x_1)
                                          5. ON(M,C)
                                                \{y|M, x_1|C\}
                         6. - CLEAR(C)
```



# Question answering: Example

NIL

```
3. \neg WORKSIN(x<sub>1</sub>,y) v \neg MANAGER(x<sub>1</sub>,z) v BOSSOF(y,z)
                          4. \neg BOSSOF(Joe-Smith,x<sub>2</sub>) v BOSSOF(Joe-Smith,x<sub>2</sub>)
                                       \{y|Joe-Smith, x_2|z\}
5. \neg WORKSIN(x<sub>1</sub>, Joe-Smith) v \neg MANAGER(x<sub>1</sub>, z)
                                                              BOSSOF(Joe-Smith,z)
                                  1. MANAGER(Purchasing-dept., John-Jones)
                                             {x₁|Purchasing-dept, z|John-Jones}
6. — WORKSIN(Purchasing-dept, Joe-Smith)
                                                   BOSSOF(Joe-Smith, John-Jones)
                                             2. WORKSIN(Purchasing-dept, Joe-Smith)
```



### Reading

- Russell, S. and Norvig, P. (2010), Artificial Intelligence – A Modern Approach (3<sup>rd</sup> edition), Prentice Hall
  - Chapter 6, Sections 6.1-6.5
  - Chapter 8
  - Chapter 9, Sections 9.1, 9.2 and 9.5



### **Next Lecture Topic**

- Lecture Topic 5
  - Probability

