02180: Introduction to Artificial Intelligence Lecture 9: Logical Inference

Nina Gierasimczuk



OUTLINE

PROPOSITIONAL THEOREM PROVING

RESOLUTION

HORN CLAUSES AND DEFINITE CLAUSES

EFFECTIVE PROPOSITIONAL MODEL CHECKING

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Truth-table Method for Inference

The most intuitive way to check validity of inference by brut-force truth-tables.

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- φ : Robert is not prepared.
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0	0	1	1	0	1	1
0	1	0	1	0	1	0
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SEMANTIC VS SYNTACTIC APPROACH

- (Semantic) model checking: enumerating models and showing it holds in all models.
- (Syntactic) theorem proving: applying rules of inference directly to the sentences in our knowledge base to construct a proof of the desired sentence without consulting models.

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Reason: If the number of models is large but the length of the proof is short, then theorem proving can be more efficient than model checking.

Some Crucial Concepts

► Logical equivalence

two formulas φ and ψ are logically equivalent:

if they are true in the same set of models, or

if each of them entails the other: $\varphi \equiv \psi$ if and only if $\varphi \models \psi$ and $\psi \models \varphi$.

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Satisfiability

 φ is satisfiable if it is true in some model.

The SAT problem, determining the satisfiability of sentences, was the first problem shown to be NP-complete.

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(reductio ad absurdum, proof by refutation, proof by contradiction)

Inference and Proofs

Inference rules are applied to derive a proof of a formula:

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Examples of inference rules

$$\dfrac{arphi
ightarrow \psi, \; arphi}{\psi}$$
 (Modus Ponens)

$$\frac{\rho \wedge \psi}{\omega}$$
 (And-Elimination)

USING SEARCH ALGORITHMS TO FIND PROOFS

A friendly statement of the theorem proving problem as a search problem:

- ▶ Initial state: the initial knowledge base.
- ► Actions: the inference rules.
- ▶ **Result**: the result of an action is to add the conclusion to KB.
- ► Goal: the sentence we are trying to prove.

MONOTONICITY

In **monotonic logics** the set of entailed sentences can only increase as information is added to the knowledge base.

For any sentences φ and ψ , if $KB \models \varphi$ then $KB \cup \psi \models \varphi$.

Note: **non-monotonic logics**, which violate the monotonicity property, capture a common property of human reasoning: changing one's mind.

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RESOLUTION: ONE RULE TO RULE THEM ALL

$$\frac{\ell_1 \vee \ldots \vee \ell_k, m}{\ell_1 \vee \ldots \vee \ell_{i-1} \vee \ell_{i+1} \vee \ldots \vee \ell_k}$$
 (Unit Resolution)

where literals ℓ_i and \emph{m} are complementary (i.e., one is negation of the other).

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Practical comment: mind the Factoring (removing duplicates)!

E.g., if we resolve $(A \vee B)$ with $(A \vee \neg B)$, we obtain $(A \vee A)$.

Single *A* is enough!

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- ▶ So, KBs should then be coded as conjunctions of clauses (CNFs).
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CONJUNCTIVE NORMAL FORM (CNF)

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- 3. Move \neg inwards (De Morgan): $(\neg r \lor p \lor s) \land ((\neg p \land \neg s) \lor r)$.
- 4. Distribute \land over \lor : $(\neg r \lor p \lor s) \land (\neg p \lor r) \land (\neg s \lor r)$.

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- 3. Each pair that contains complementary literals is resolved to produce a new clause, which is added to the set if it is not already present.
- 4. The process continues until one of two things happens:
 - A there are no new clauses that can be added, in which case KB does not entail φ ; or,
 - B two clauses resolve to yield the empty clause, in which case KB entails φ .

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RESOLUTION ALGORITHM IS GOOD

- 1. Always terminates.
- Is complete, by the ground resolution theorem: If a set of clauses is unsatisfiable, then the resolution closure of those clauses contains the empty clause.

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SPECIAL KINDS OF CLAUSES

Sometimes it's enough if we restrict the language to special types of clauses:

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A **definite clause** is a clause of literals of which exactly one is positive. For example: $(\neg p \lor \neg s \lor r)$ is a definite clause, while $(p \lor s \lor \neg r)$ is not.

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All definite clauses are Horn clauses, as are clauses with no positive literals (goal clauses).

Horn clauses are closed under resolution:

if you resolve two Horn clauses, you get back a Horn clause.

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▶ Definite clause can be written as an implication whose premise is a conjunction of positive literals and whose conclusion is a single positive literal. E.g., $(\neg p \lor \neg s \lor r)$ is equivalent to $(p \land s) \to r$. The premise is called the **body** and the conclusion is called the **head**. A sentence consisting of a single positive literal, such as r, is called a **fact** $(\top \to r)$.

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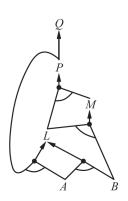
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- ► Inference with Horn clauses can be done by **forward** and **backward-chaining**.
- ► Deciding entailment with Horn clauses is **linear** in the size of the knowledge base.

FORWARD- AND BACKWARD-CHAINING ON AND-OR GRAPHS

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



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EFFECTIVE PROPOSITIONAL MODEL CHECKING

General Model-Checking Algorithms for Propositional Inference

- ▶ the algorithms checking satisfiability: the SAT problem
- testing entailment $\varphi \models \psi$, is done by testing unsatisfiability of $\varphi \land \neg \psi$

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- 1. **Early termination**, e.g., if $(A \lor B) \land (A \lor C)$ is true if A is true, regardless of B and C.
- 2. **Pure symbol heuristic**, e.g., in $(A \lor \neg B)$, $(\neg B \lor \neg C)$, $(C \lor A)$, the symbol A is pure. If a sentence has a model, then it has a model with the pure symbols assigned so as to make their literals true, because doing so can never make a clause false.

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- 3. Unit clause heuristic, e.g., if the model contains B = T, then $(\neg B \lor \neg C)$ simplifies to $\neg C$, which is a unit clause. Assigning one unit clause can create another unit clause, such 'cascade' of forced assignments is called unit propagation.

```
function DPLL-SATISFIABLE?(s) returns true or false
  inputs: s, a sentence in propositional logic
  clauses \leftarrow the set of clauses in the CNF representation of s
  symbols \leftarrow a list of the proposition symbols in s
  return DPLL(clauses, symbols, { })
function DPLL(clauses, symbols, model) returns true or false
  if every clause in clauses is true in model then return true
  if some clause in clauses is false in model then return false
  P, value \leftarrow \text{FIND-PURE-SYMBOL}(symbols, clauses, model)
  if P is non-null then return DPLL(clauses, symbols – P, model \cup {P=value})
  P, value \leftarrow \text{FIND-UNIT-CLAUSE}(clauses, model)
  if P is non-null then return DPLL(clauses, symbols – P, model \cup {P=value})
  P \leftarrow \text{FIRST}(symbols); rest \leftarrow \text{REST}(symbols)
  return DPLL(clauses, rest, model \cup {P=true}) or
          DPLL(clauses, rest, model \cup \{P=false\}))
```

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WalkSat: On every iteration, the algorithm picks an unsatisfied clause and picks a symbol in the clause to flip. It chooses randomly between two ways to pick which symbol to flip:

- 1. a **min-conflicts** step that minimises the number of unsatisfied clauses in the new state, and
- 2. a random walk step that picks the symbol randomly.

function WALKSAT($clauses, p, max_flips$) **returns** a satisfying model or failure **inputs**: clauses, a set of clauses in propositional logic p, the probability of choosing to do a "random walk" move, typically around 0.5 max_flips , number of flips allowed before giving up $model \leftarrow$ a random assignment of truelfalse to the symbols in clauses **for** i=1 **to** max_flips **do if** model satisfies clauses **then return** model $clause \leftarrow$ a randomly selected clause from clauses that is false in model **with probability** p flip the value in model of a randomly selected symbol from clause **else** flip whichever symbol in clause maximizes the number of satisfied clauses **return** failure

End of Lecture 9