

Unit 3

KNOWLEDGE AND REASONING:

Reasoning -> processing of knowledge

⚙ << 1.50 >>

Techniques of knowledge representation

There are mainly four ways of knowledge representation

- ① logical representation
- ② Semantic n/w representation
- ③ Frame representation
- ④ Production rules

logical representation : (proposition)

- It is a lang with some concrete rules which deals with propositions & has no ambiguity in representation

→ It consists of precisely defined
syntax & semantics

which supports the sound inference. Each sentence can be translated into logics using syntax & semantics



- Syntax: defines well-formed sentence in the language
- Semantics: defines the truth or meaning of sentences in a world

logical Representation

- Propositional logic
- First order predicate logic

① Propositional logic: (PL)

→ PL is the simplest logic

in a world



logical Representation

→ Propositional logic ✓

→ First order predicate logic ✓

① Propositional logic: (PL)

→ PL is the simplest logic ✓

→ A proposition is a declarative statement that's either



⇒ Propositional logic cannot predicate, it can say either true or false.

⇒ Connectives

<u>Word</u>	<u>Symbol</u>	<u>Example</u>
→ Not	\neg	$\neg A$
→ and	\wedge	$A \wedge B$
→ OR	\vee	$A \vee B$
→ implies	\rightarrow	$A \rightarrow B$
→ if and only if (biconditional stmt)	\leftrightarrow	$A \leftrightarrow B$



A - It is hot

B - It is humid

C - It is raining

Condition: - If it is humid, then it is hot $\Rightarrow B \rightarrow A$ Proposition logic
- If it is hot and humid then it is not raining $\neg C = (A \wedge B) \rightarrow \neg C$

so, Proposition is a statement of a fact



Limits of propositional logic

→ We cannot represent relations like All, Some or None with propositional logic.

- a. All the girls are intelligent. } not declarative stat
- b. Some apples are sweet. } not declarative stat

→ Propositional logic has limited expressive power.

→ In PL, we cannot describe statements in terms of their properties or logical relationships



Knowledge base for Wumpus world

⚙ << 2.00 >>

Atomic Proposition Variables for Wumpus world

- ① let $P_{i,j}$ be true if there is a pit in the room $[i,j]$
- ② let $B_{i,j}$ be true if agent perceives breeze in $[i,j]$
- ③ let $W_{i,j}$ be true if there is Wumpus in square $[i,j]$
- ④ let $S_{i,j}$ be true if agent perceives stench in $[i,j]$
- ⑤ let $V_{i,j}$ be true if that square $[i,j]$ is visited



0:35 / 8:55



- ⑤ let $V_{i,j}$ be true if that square $[i,j]$ is visited
- ⑥ let $G_{i,j}$ be true if there is gold
- ⑦ let $O_{i,j}$ be true if room is safe



$$R_1 \Rightarrow \neg S_{11} \rightarrow \neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{21}$$

$$R_2 \Rightarrow \neg S_{21} \rightarrow \neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{21} \wedge \neg W_{22} \wedge \neg W_{31}$$

$$R_3 \Rightarrow \neg S_{12} \rightarrow \neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{22} \wedge \neg W_{13}$$

$$R_4 \Rightarrow S_{12} \rightarrow W_{13} \vee W_{12} \vee W_{22} \vee W_{11}$$

1,4 S	3,4 B	3,4 PIT	4,4 B
1,3 N	3,3 G	3,3 PIT	4,3 B
1,2 S	3,2 B	3,2 B	4,2 B
1,1 W	2,1 W	3,1 W	4,1 W

$R_1 \Rightarrow \neg S_{11} \rightarrow \neg w_{11} \wedge \neg w_{12} \wedge \neg w_{21}$

$R_2 \Rightarrow \neg S_{21} \rightarrow \neg w_{11} \wedge \neg w_{21} \wedge \neg w_{22} \wedge \neg w_{31}$

$R_3 \Rightarrow \neg S_{12} \Rightarrow \neg w_{11} \wedge \neg w_{12} \wedge \neg w_{22} \wedge \neg w_{13}$

$R_4 \Rightarrow S_{12} \rightarrow w_{13} \vee w_{12} \vee w_{22} \vee w_{11}$

1,u	3,4	3,4 B	4,4 PIT
1,3 N	2,3 S, B G	3,3 PIT	4,3 B
4,2 S	3,2	3,2 B	4,2
4,1	3,1 PIT	4,1 B	

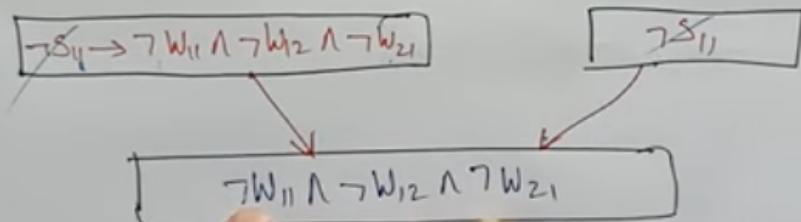
→ We can prove Wumpus is in the room (1,3) using propositional rules.

① Apply Modus ponens with $\neg S_{11}$ & R_1 :

→ We first apply MP rule with R, which is $\neg S_{11} \rightarrow \neg w_{11} \wedge \neg w_{12} \wedge \neg w_{21}$ & $\neg S_{11}$ which will give the o/p $\neg w_{11} \wedge \neg w_{12} \wedge \neg w_{12}$.

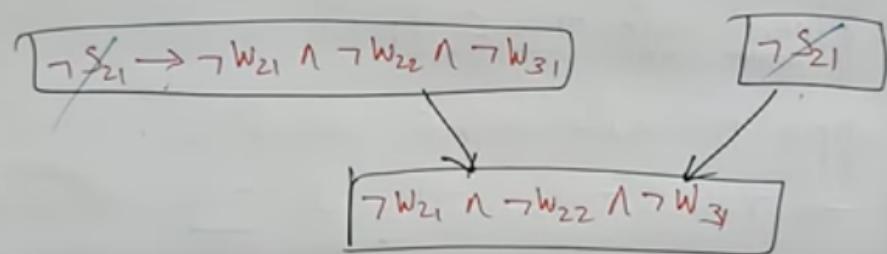
① Apply Modus ponens with $\neg S_{11}$ & R_1 :

⇒ We first apply MP rule with R_1 , which is
 $\neg S_{11} \rightarrow \neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{21}$ & $\neg S_{11}$ which will give the O/p $\neg W_{11} \wedge \neg W_{12} \wedge \neg W_{21}$.



$\neg W_{11}, \neg W_{12} \text{ & } \neg W_{21}$

⇒ Apply Modus ponens to $\neg S_{21}$ & R_2 :

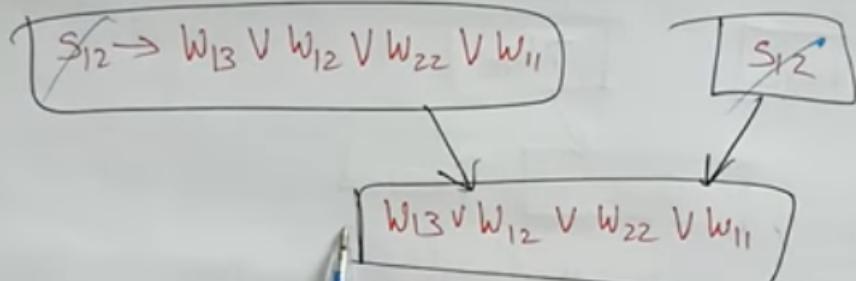


Apply & elimination rule we will get three statements

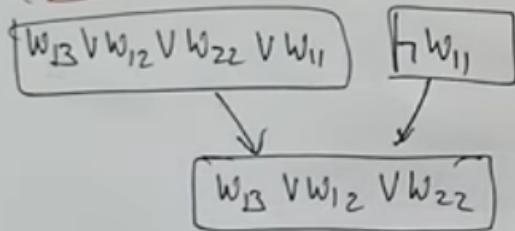
$\neg W_{21}, \neg W_{22}, \neg W_{31}$



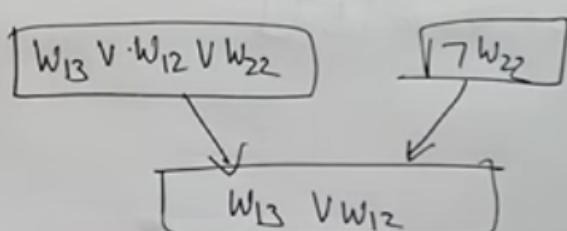
③ Apply Modus ponens to S_{12} & R_3 :



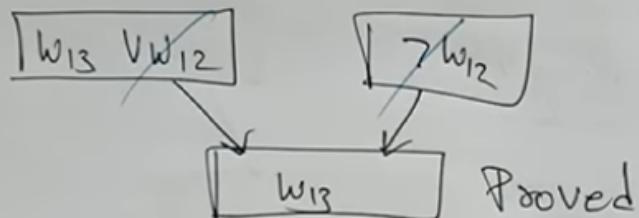
\Rightarrow Apply unit resolution on



\Rightarrow Apply unit resolution on



\Rightarrow Apply unit resolution on $w_{13} \vee w_{12} \wedge \neg w_{12}$:



Hence it is proved that the Wumpus is in
the room [1,3]

First-Order Logic in Artificial Intelligence

- FOL is another way of knowledge representation in A.I.
It is an extension to PL (Propositional Logic)
- FOL is also known as Predicate logic. It is a powerful language that develops information about the objects in a more easy way and can also express the relationship between those objects.
- FOL does not only assume that the world contains facts like PL but also assumes

~~FOL~~ does not only assume that the world contains facts like PL but also assumes

① Objects: A, B, people, no:, colors, wars, pits, Wumpus.

- ② Relations: It can be unary relation such as:
- many relation such as: the sister of,
brother of, has color.
- Function: Father of, best friend, end of, ...
- As a natural lang, FOL has two main parts:
 - a. Syntax
 - b. Semantics

Syntax of FOL: Basic Elements

- constant : 1, 2, A, Bhanu, Hyderabad, ...
- variables : x, y, z, a, b, ...
- Predicates : Brother, father, >, ...
- functions : sqrt, ...
- connectives : \neg , \Rightarrow , \wedge , \vee , \Leftrightarrow
- Equality : =
- Quantifiers : \forall , \exists

fol->atomic and complex sentences

Atomic Sentences:-

- Atomic sentences are the most basic sentences of FOL. These sentences are formed from a predicate symbol followed by parenthesis with square a sequence of terms.
- We can represent atomic sentences as predicate (term₁, term₂, ..., term_n).

Eg!: Hari and Raghav are brothers: \Rightarrow Brothers (Hari, Raghav)

Hari and Raghu are brothers: \Rightarrow Brothers (Hari, Raghu)

Tommy is a dog: \Rightarrow dog (Tommy)

Complex Sentences

Predicated term, term₂, ...)

- Complex Sentences are made by combining atomic sentences using Connectives ($\wedge, \vee, \neg, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$)

First order logic statements divided into 2 parts:-

Subject: It is the main part of stmt

Predicate: A predicate can be defined as a relation, which binds two atoms together in a stmt.

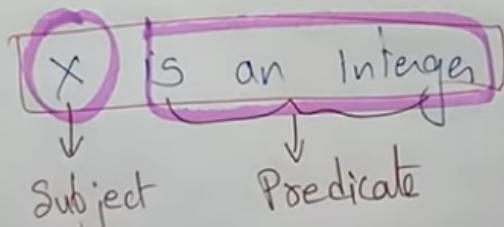
Consider the atm

stmt \rightarrow "X is an integer"

It consists of two parts,

first part: X is the subject of stmt

second part: "is an integer" is known as predicate.



Quantifiers in FOL :-

→ A quantifier is a lang ele which generates quantification
→ these are the symbols that permit to determine &
identify the range and scope of the variable in the
logic expression.

There are two types of quantifiers:-

- a. Universal Quantifier (for all, everyone, everything)
- b. Existential Quantifier (for some, at least one)

range

Scope



Universal Quantifier

It is a symbol of logical representation,
which specifies that the statement within its range
is true for everything or every instance of particular thing.

→ It is represented ~~as~~ by a symbol \forall .

(In UQ we use implication " \rightarrow ")

If x is a variable, the $\forall x$ is read as:

- for all x
- for each x



If x is a variable, the $\forall x$ is read as:

- for all x
- for each x
- for every x

range



Existential Quantifier

$\exists \rightarrow \text{Range is true}$

It is a type of Quantifier, which express that the statment within its scope is true for at least one instance of something.

It is denoted by \exists .

{ In Existential quantifier we always use AND or conjunction symbol (\wedge). }

\Rightarrow If n is a variable, then existential quantifier will be $\exists n$ is read as:

It is denoted by \exists .

{ In Existential quantifier we always use AND or conjunction symbol (\wedge). }

\Rightarrow If n is a variable, then existential quantifier will be $\exists n$ is read as:
- There exists a ' n ', for some ' n ', for atleast one

Eg: $\{ \text{All } \text{man} \text{ drink coffee} \}$ +
 - let α is variable.

α_1 drink coffee $\wedge \alpha_2$ drink coffee ...
 $\wedge \alpha_n$ drink coffee.

So, we can write this as,

$$\forall \alpha \text{ man}(\alpha) \rightarrow \boxed{\text{drink}(\alpha, \text{coffee})}$$

There are all α where α is a man
 who drink coffee

① All birds fly. +

Predicate is "fly(bird)"

$$\forall \alpha \text{ bird}(\alpha) \rightarrow \text{fly}(\alpha)$$

α -bird.

② Every man respects his parent +

Predicate is "respect(x, y)" where $x = \text{man}$,
 $y = \text{parent}$.

$$\forall \alpha \text{ man}(\alpha) \rightarrow \text{respects}(\alpha, \text{parent})$$

Here every man, so we use \forall

Eg: Some boys are intelligent. \exists

x_1 is intelligent $\vee x_2$ is intelligent $\dots \vee x_n$ is intelligent

$\exists x: \text{boy}(x) \wedge \text{intelligent}(x)$

\Rightarrow There are some ~~boy~~ x where x is a boy
who is intelligent.

* The main connective for \forall is ' \rightarrow '.

The main connective for \exists is ' \wedge '.



Inference in First order logic

\rightarrow Inference in FOL is used to deduce new facts
Sentences from existing sentences.

Before understanding FOL inference rule, let's understand
some basic terminologies used in FOL.

① Substitution

It is a fundamental operation performed on terms
and formulas. It occurs in all inference sys in FOL.



① Substitution

It is a fundamental operation performed on terms
and formulas. It occurs in all inference Sys in FOL.

$F[a/x]$

$F[b/x]$

Substitute a constant "a" in place of Variable "x"



② Equality:-

FOL logic does not only use predicate & terms making atomic sentences but also uses another way, which is equality in FOL

Eg:- Brother(John) = Smith

Hence the obj referred by Brother (John) is similar to obj referred by Smith. The equality symbol can also be used with negation to represent that two terms are not the same objects.

Eg:- $\neg(x=y)$ which is equivalent to $x \neq y$



FOL Inference rules for quantifiers

As PL we also have inference rules in FOL.

→ Universal Generalization.

→ Universal Instantiation

→ Existential Instantiation

→ Existential Introduction.

① Universal Generalization:

It is a valid inference rule which states if

if premise $P(c)$ is true for any arbitrary element c in

① Universal Generalization:

It is a valid inference rule which states that if premise $P(c)$ is true for any arbitrary element c in

universe of discourse, then we can have a conclusion as

$\forall x P(x)$.

- It can be represented as.
$$\frac{P(c)}{\forall x P(x)}$$

Eg:- let's represent, $P(c)$: "A byte contains 8 bits".

So, for $\forall x P(x)$ "All bytes contain 8 bits," it will also be true.

② Universal Instantiation → Elimination

It is also called universal elimination. It can be applied multiple times to add new sentences.

The v+ rule states that

$P(c)$ by substituting a ground term c (a constant within domain x) from $\forall x P(x)$ for any object in the universe of discourse.

$$v.i \quad \boxed{\frac{\forall x P(x)}{P(c)}}$$

$$v.i = \frac{P(c)}{\forall x P(x)}$$

e.g. If "every person likes ice-cream" $\Rightarrow \forall x P(x)$ so we can infer that, "John likes the ice-cream" $\Rightarrow P(c)$

3) Existential Instantiation \vdash Elimination

- It is also called Existential Elimination, which is a valid inference rule in FOL.
- It can be applied only once to replace the existential sentence.
- This rule states that one can infer $P(c)$ from the formula given in the form $\exists x P(x)$ for a new constant symbol c .

$$\frac{\exists x P(x)}{P(c)}$$



4) Existential introduction \vdash

- It is also called as existential generalization.
- This rule states that if there is some element c in the universe of discourse which has a property P , then we can infer that there exists something in the universe which has property P .

$$\frac{P(c)}{\exists x P(x)}$$

Eg:- ~~"Pinky"~~

"Pinky got good marks in math"

"Therefore, some one got good marks."



Unification

It is all about making the expressions look identical so, for the given expressions to make them look identical we need to do substitution.

e.g.: $p(x, f(y))$ $\underset{\textcircled{1}}{}$; $p(a, f(g(z)))$ $\underset{\textcircled{2}}{}$

unification: $[a/x, g(z)/y]$

$x=a$
 $y=g(z)$

⇒ In the above eg, substitute x with a, & y with g(z), & it will be represented as $a/x \& g(z)/y$.

⇒ With both the substitutions, the first expression will



identical to the second expression & the substitution set will be $[a/x, g(z)/y]$

Conditions for Unification

- ① Predicate symbol must be same, atoms or expressions with different predicate symbol can never be unified.
- ② Number of arguments in both Expressions must be identical.
- ③ Unification will fail if there are two similar variables present in same expression.



Unification Algorithm

⇒ Algorithm: Unify (L_1, L_2)

Step 1: If L_1 & L_2 is a variable or constant, then:

(a) If L_1 & L_2 are identical return NIL.

(b) Else if L_1 is a variable, then if L_1 occurs in L_2 then return FAIL, else return $\{ (L_2/L_1) \}$.

(c) Else if L_2 is a variable, then if L_2 occurs in L_1 , then return FAIL, else return $\{ (L_1/L_2) \}$.

(d) Else return FAIL.



Step 2: If the initial predicate symbol in L_1 & L_2 are not identical, then return FAIL.

Step 3: If L_1 & L_2 have a different number of arguments, then return FAIL.

Step 4: Set SUBST to NIL

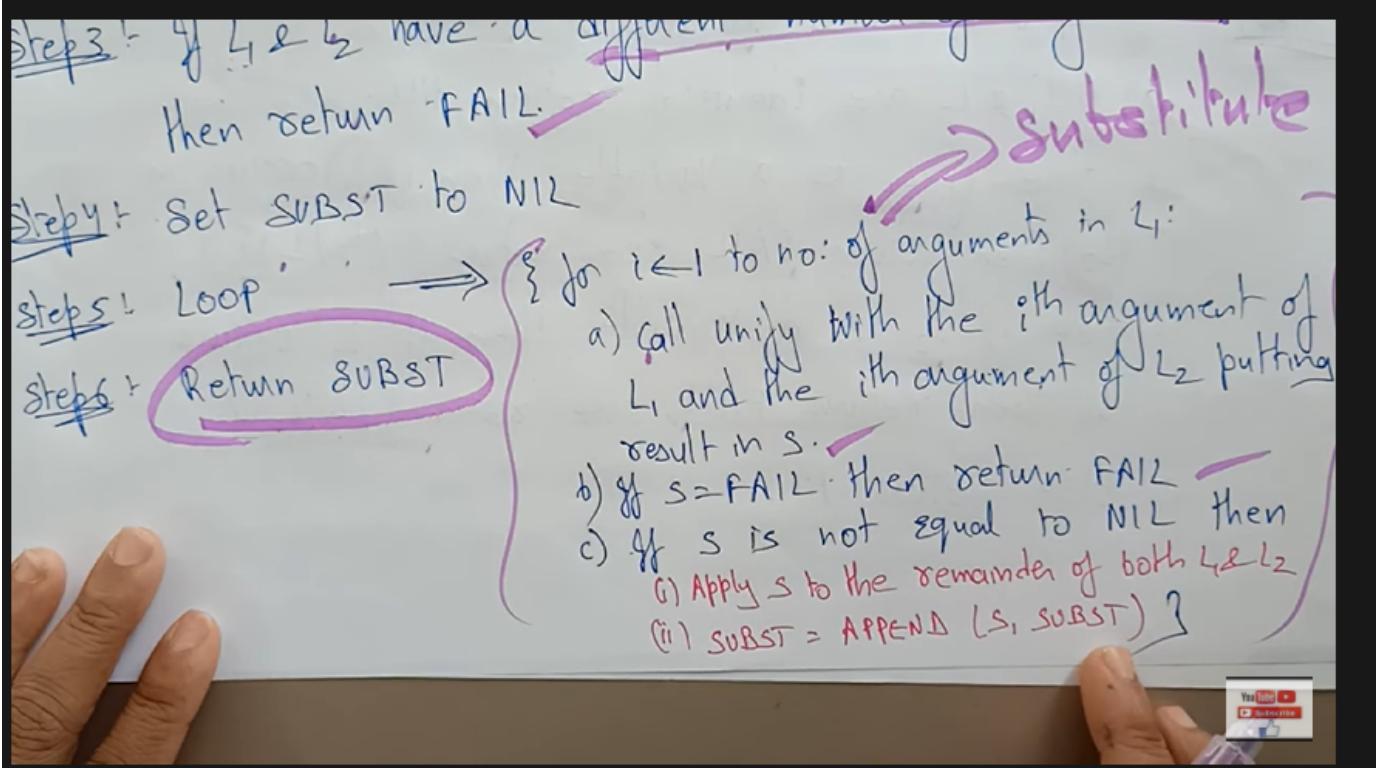
Step 5: Loop $\rightarrow \{ \text{for } i \leftarrow 1 \text{ to no: of arguments in } L_1 :$

a) call unify with the i th argument of L_1 and the i th argument of L_2 putting result in S .

b) If $S = \text{FAIL}$ then return FAIL

c) If S is not equal to NIL + $\{ \dots \}$ then remainder of both L_1, L_2





Implementation of the Algorithm

Step 1: Initialize the substitution set to be empty

Step 2: Recursively unify atomic sentences:

- check for identical expression match.
- If one expression is a variable v_i , & other is a term t_i which does not contain Variable v_i then:
 - Substitute t_i/v_i in existing substitutions
 - Add t_i/v_i to the substitution setlist.
 - If both the expressions are functions, Then function no must be similar, & no: of arguments must be same in both expression.

b) If one expression is a variable v_i which does not contain Variable v_i

~~$P(x, g(x))$~~ → Substitute t_i/v_i in existing
 ~~$P(a, g(3))$~~ → Add t_i/v_i to the substitution
 → If both the expressions are function must be similar, & no: of arguments same for both expression.

Examples:

Consider $P(\underline{x}, g(\underline{x})) = P(z, y)$

Solutions:

- (i) $P(z, y)$: unifies with $[x/z, g(x)/y]$
- (ii) $P(z, g(z))$: unifies with $[x/z \wedge z/x]$
- (iii) $P(\text{prime}, f(\text{prime}))$: does not unify
 (f and g does not match)

$x = z \quad g(x) =$

$x = z \quad g(x) =$

Resolution in FOL

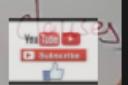
- Resolution is a theorem proving technique that ~~proceeds~~ by building a proof by contradictions.
- It is used, if there are various stmts are given, & need to prove a conclusion of those stmt.
- Unification is a key concept in proof by resolutions.
- Resolution is a single inference rule which can efficiently operate on conjunctive normal form or clausal form.
clause: Disjunction of literals is called clause.



→ Resolution is a single inference rule which can efficiently operate on conjunctive normal form or clausal form.

clause: Disjunction of literals is called clause.

conjunctive NF: A sentence represented as a conjunction of said to be CNF.



Steps for Resolution:-

1. Conversion of fact into FOL
2. Convert FOL Stmt into CNF
3. Negate the Stmt which needs to prove (by contradiction)
4. Draw resolution graph (unification)

Examples:-

- a. John likes all kind of food
- b. Apple & Vegetable are food
- c. Anything anyone eats and not killed is food
- d. Anil eats peanuts and still alive.



Prove resolution

0 1 0

Examples:-

- a. John likes all kind of food
- b. Apple & Vegetable are food
- c. Anything anyone eats and not killed is food
- d. Anil eats peanuts and still alive

e. Harry eats everything that Anil eats

Prove by resolution that:

f. John likes peanuts.

Sol:

Step 1:- Conversion of facts into FOL

- a. $\forall x: \text{food}(x) \rightarrow \text{likes}(\text{John}, x)$
- b. $\text{food}(\text{Apple}) \wedge \text{food}(\text{Vegetables})$
- c. $\forall x \forall y: \text{eats}(x, y) \wedge \neg \text{killed}(x) \rightarrow \text{Food}(y)$
- d. $\text{eats}(\text{Anil}, \text{peanuts}) \wedge \text{alive}(\text{Anil})$
- e. $\forall x: \text{eats}(\text{Anil}, x) \rightarrow \text{eats}(\text{Harry}, x)$
- f. $\forall x: \neg \text{killed}(x) \rightarrow \text{alive}(x)$
- g. $\forall x: \text{alive}(x) \rightarrow \neg \text{killed}(x)$
- h. $\text{likes}(\text{John}, \text{Peanuts})$



Step 2:- Conversion of FOL into CNF

(bcs CNF makes easier for resolution proofs.)

(i) eliminate all implications (\rightarrow) & rewrite

- (a) $\forall x \neg \text{food}(x) \vee \text{likes}(\text{John}, x)$
- (b) $\text{food}(\text{Apple}) \wedge \text{food}(\text{Vegetables})$
- (c) $\forall x \forall y [\text{eats}(x, y) \wedge \neg \text{killed}(x)] \vee \text{Food}(y)$
- (d) $\text{eats}(\text{Anil}, \text{peanuts}) \wedge \text{alive}(\text{Anil})$
- (e) $\forall x \neg \text{eats}(\text{Anil}, x) \vee \text{eats}(\text{Harry}, x)$
- (f) $\forall x \neg [\neg \text{killed}(x)] \vee \text{alive}(x)$
- (g) $\forall x \neg \text{alive}(x) \vee \neg \text{killed}(x)$



(ii) → Move negation (\neg) inwards and rewrite

- (a) $\forall x \neg \text{food}(x) \vee \text{likes}(\text{John}, x)$
- (b) $\text{food(apple)} \wedge \text{food(vegetables)}$
- (c) $\forall x \forall y \neg \text{eats}(x, y) \vee \text{killed}(x) \vee \text{food}(y)$
- (d) $\text{eats}(\text{Anil}, \text{peanuts}) \wedge \text{alive}(\text{Anil})$
- (e) $\forall x \neg \text{eats}(\text{Anil}, x) \vee \text{eats}(\text{Hany}, x)$
- (f) $\forall x \neg \text{killed}(x) \vee \text{alive}(x)$
- (g) $\forall x \neg \text{alive}(x) \vee \neg \text{killed}(x)$
- (h) $\text{likes}(\text{John}, \text{peanuts})$

(iii) Rename variables or standardize variables

- (a) $\forall x \forall y \forall z \forall w \forall g \forall k$ food(x) v likes(John, x)
- (b) food(Apple) \wedge food(Vegetables)
- (c) $\forall y \forall z \exists x \forall w \forall g \forall k$ eats(y, z) v killed(y) \wedge food(z)
- (d) $\exists x \forall y \forall z \forall w \forall g \forall k$ eats(Anil, peanuts) \wedge alive(Anil)
- (e) $\forall w \forall y \forall z \forall w \forall g \forall k$ eats(Anil, w) v eats(Hany, w)
- (f) $\forall g \forall y \forall z \forall w \forall g \forall k$ killed(g) v alive(g)
- (g) $\forall k \forall y \forall z \forall w \forall g \forall k$ alive(k) v \neg killed(k)
- (h) likes(John, peanuts)

(iv) eliminate existential instantiation quantifiers by elimination

{ but in this problem there are no \exists so all \exists 's remain so

(i) Drop universal quantifiers:

+

(i) Drop universal quantifiers:

- (a) $\forall \text{food}(\alpha) \vee \text{likes}(\text{John}, \alpha)$
- (b) $\text{food}(\text{Apple})$
- (c) $\text{food}(\text{Vegetables})$
- (d) $\forall \text{eats}(y, z) \vee \text{killed}(y) \vee \text{food}(z)$
- (e) $\text{eats}(\text{Anil}, \text{peanuts})$
- (f) $\text{alive}(\text{Anil})$
- (g) $\forall \text{eats}(\text{Anil}, w) \vee \text{eats}(\text{Hany}, w)$
- (h) $\text{killed}(g) \vee \text{alive}(g)$
- (i) $\forall \text{alive}(k) \vee \forall \text{killed}(k)$
- (j) $\text{likes}(\text{John}, \text{peanuts})$

This step will not make any change in the problem.

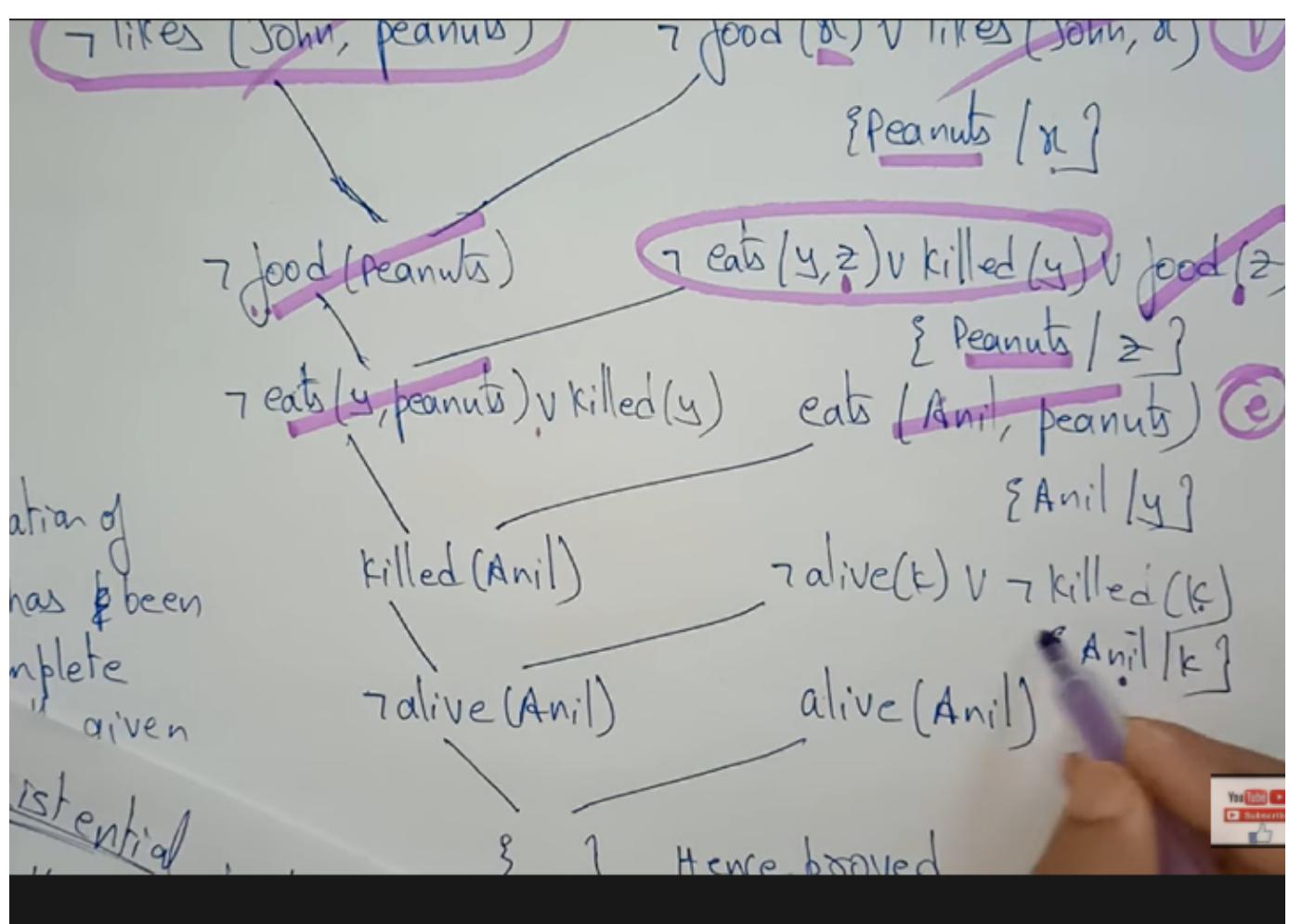
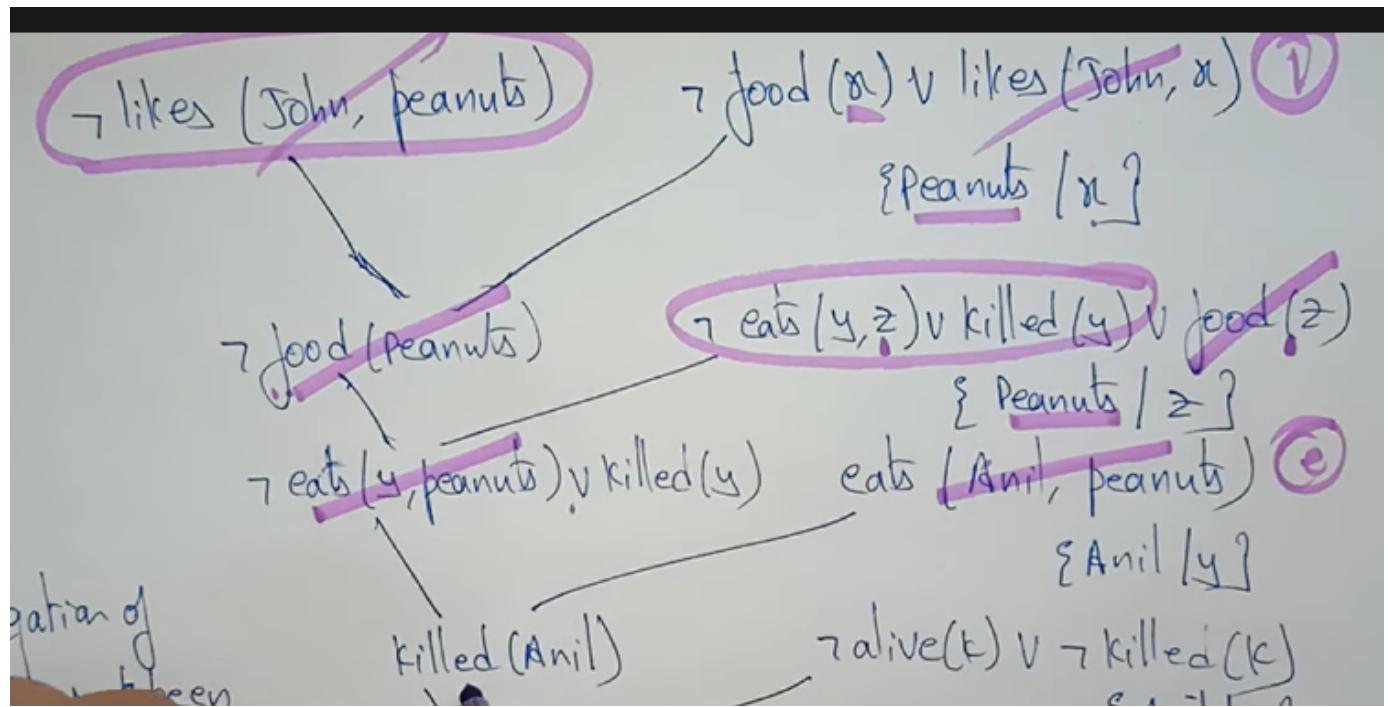
Step 3: Negate the statement to be proved.

In this step, we will apply negation to the conclusion statement, which will be written as $\neg \text{likes}(\text{John}, \text{peanuts})$.

Step 4: Draw Resolution graph:

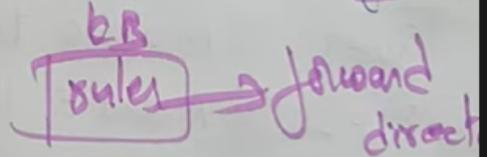
Now, in this step, we will solve the problem by resolution tree using Substitution, for the above problem it will be given as:





Forward Chaining:-

→ 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 :-

→ It moves from bottom to up (top)

→ It is a process of making a conclusion based on known facts of data, by starting from the initial state and reach the goal state.

Properties :-

→ It moves from bottom to up (top)

→ It is a process of making a conclusion based on known facts of data, by starting from the initial state and reach the goal state.

→ Forward chaining approach is also called as data-driven as

to the goal using available data.
 → Forward-chaining approach is commonly used in the expert system.

Example:

Rule 1: If A and C then F

Rule 2: If A and E then G

Rule 3: If B then E

Rule 4: If A then D

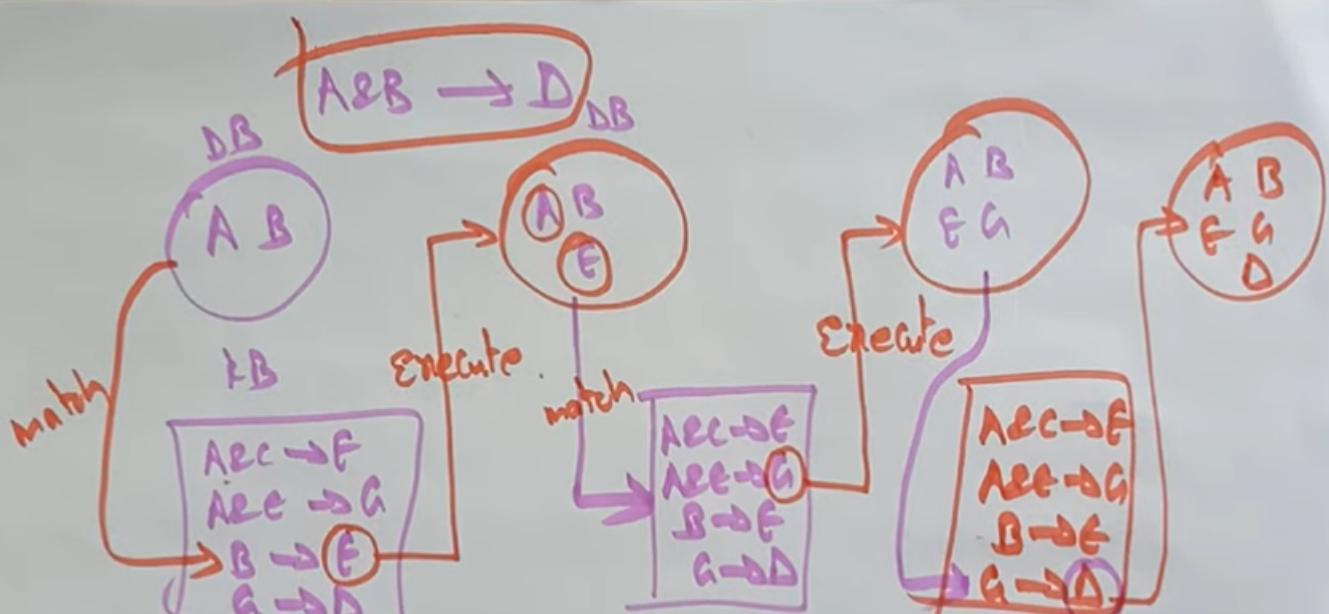
Database

A B

knowledge base

A & C \rightarrow F
 A & E \rightarrow G
 B \rightarrow E
 A \rightarrow D

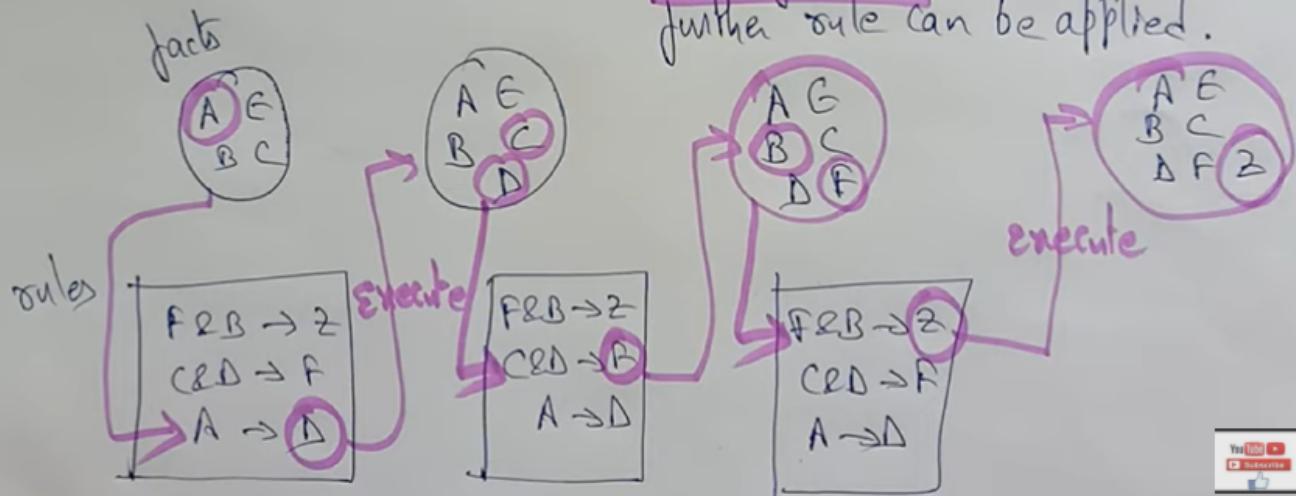
Problem: Prove if A and B true, then D is true.



Example 1 Forward chaining

Goal state: Z

Termination condition: Stop if Z is derived (① no further rule can be applied.



Backward Chaining

→ A Backward chaining algorithm is a form of reasoning, which starts with the goal and works backward, chaining through rules to find known facts support the goal.

Properties of backward chaining :-

- It is known as a top-down approach
- Backward-chaining is based on modus ponens inference rule.
- In backward chaining, the goal is broken into sub-goal or sub-goals to prove the facts true.
- It is called a goal-driven approach, as a list of goal



Properties of backward chaining :-

- It is known as a top-down approach.
- Backward-chaining is based on modus ponens inference rule.
- In backward chaining, the goal is broken into sub-goals or sub-goals to prove the facts true.
- It is called a goal-driven approach, as a list of goal decides which rules are selected and used.



Which rules are selected and used

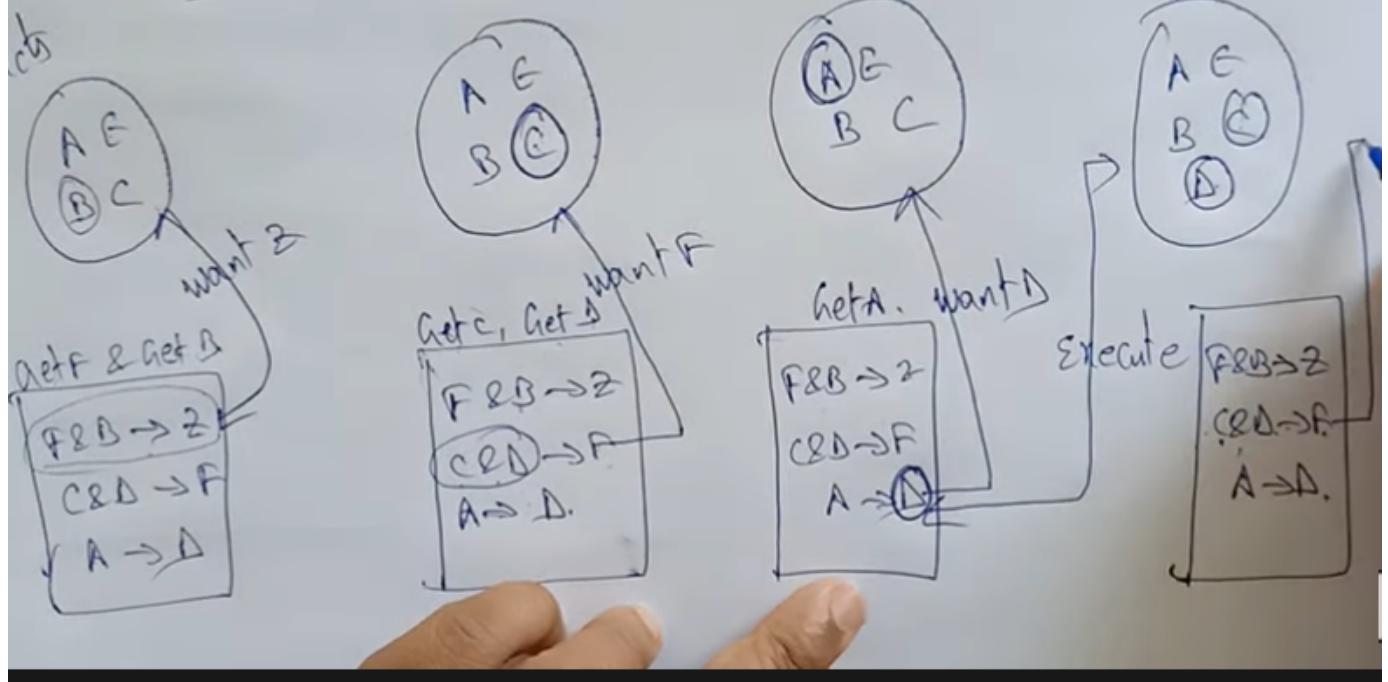
Backward-chaining algorithm is used in game theory,
automated theorem proving tools, inference engines, proof assistants, and various AI applications.

The backward-chaining method mostly used a depth-first search strategy for proof.

Backwards chaining

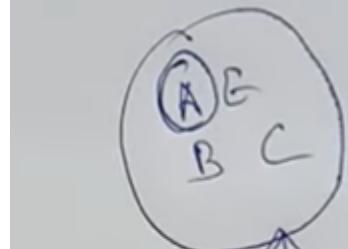
example

Get goal state: 2 facts



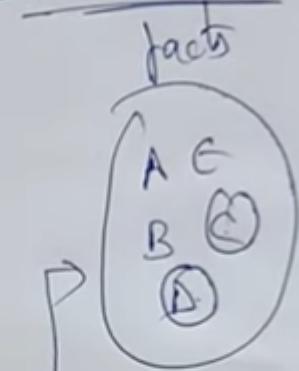
example

Get Goal State: 2

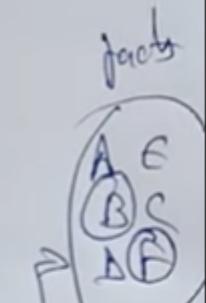


get A. want D

```
F&B->2  
C&D->F  
A->D
```



Execute



execute

```
F&B->2  
C&D->F  
A->D.
```

```
F & B -> 2
```

execute

```
A -> D.
```



Fc vs Bc

<p>forward chaining starts from <u>known facts</u> and applies <u>inference rule</u> to extract more data until it reaches to the goal.</p> <p>It is a <u>bottom-up approach</u>.</p> <p>It is known as data-driven inference technique as we reach to the goal using the available data.</p> <p>It applies breadth-first search strategy.</p>	<p>→ Backward chaining starts from the <u>goal</u> and works backward through inference rules to find the <u>required facts</u> that support the goal.</p> <p>→ It is a <u>top-down approach</u>.</p> <p>→ It is known as goal-driven technique as we start from the goal & divide into subgoals to extract the facts.</p> <p>→ It applies depth-first search strategy.</p>
--	---

<u>Forward chaining</u>	<u>Backward chaining</u>
<p>Forward chaining tests for all the <u>available rules</u>.</p> <p>Forward chaining suitable for the planning, monitoring, control and interpretation application.</p> <p>It can generate an infinite no: of possible conclusions.</p> <p>It operates in forward direction.</p> <p>Forward chaining is aimed for new conclusion.</p>	<p>Backward chaining only tests for few required rules.</p> <p>Backward chaining is suitable for diagnostic, prescription and debugging application.</p> <p>It generates a finite no: of possible conclusions.</p> <p>It operates in backward direction.</p> <p>Backward chaining is only concerned for required data.</p>

→ It operates in forward direction
Forward chaining is aimed for any conclusion

→ It operates in backward direction
Backward chaining is only aim for required data.



Planning problem in AI

What is STRIPS?

- The STanford Research Institute Problem Solver (**STRIPS**), is an automated planning technique used to find a goal, by executing a domain from the initial state of domain.
- With STRIPS, we can first describe the world, (Initial state and goal state) by providing objects, actions, preconditions, and effects
- To describe the world, we used two categories of terms
 - States – initial state and goal state
 - Action schema – objects, actions, preconditions, and effects



- Once the world is described, then provide a **problem set**.
- A problem consists of an initial state and a goal condition.
- STRIPS can then search all possible states, starting from the initial one, executing various actions, until it reaches the goal.

Planning Domain Definition Language (PDDL).

- A common language for writing STRIPS domain and problem sets, is the Planning Domain Definition Language (PDDL).
- In PDDL most of the codes are English words, so that it can be clearly read and well understood.
- It's a relatively easy approach to writing simple AI planning problems.



STRIPS - States, Goals and Actions

- **States:** conjunctions of ground, function-free, and positive literals, such as At(Home) ^ Have(Banana)
- To describe states, **Closed-world assumption** is used (the world model contains everything, the agent needs to know: there can be no surprise)
- **Goals:** conjunctions of literals, may contain variables (existential), goal may represent more than one state
 - E.g. At(Home) ^ \neg Have(Bananas)
 - E.g. At(x) ^ Sells(x, Bananas)
- **Actions:** preconditions that must hold before execution and the effects after execution



STRIPS Action Schema

- An action schema includes:
 - Action name & parameter list (variables)
 - Precondition: a conjunction of function-free positive literals. The action variables must also appear in precondition.
 - Effect: a conjunction of function-free literals (positive or negative)
- Add-list: positive literals
- Delete-list: negative literals
- Example:
 - Action: Buy (x)
 - Precondition: At (p), Sells (p, x)
 - Effect: Have(x)

$At(p) \ Sells(p, x)$

Buy(x)

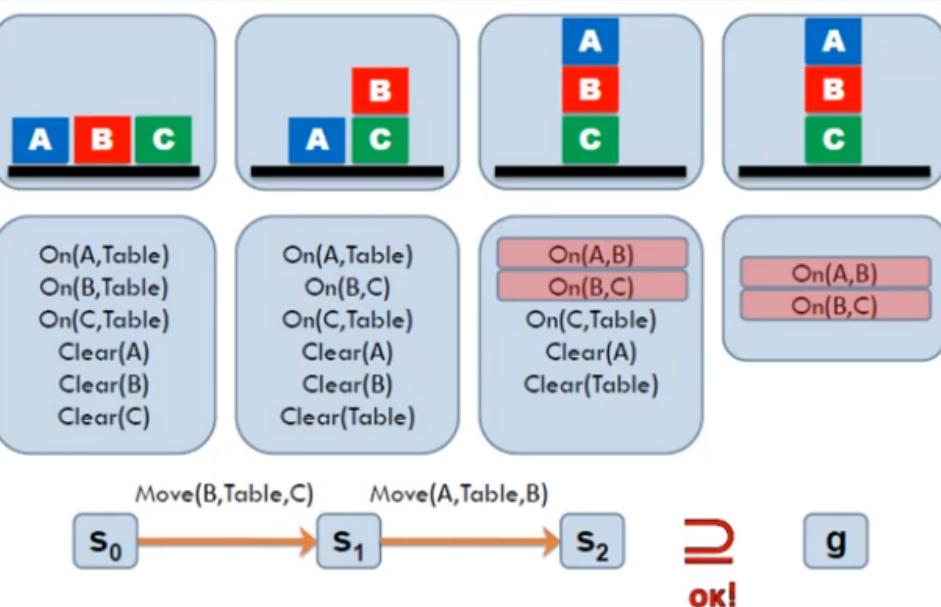
$Have(x)$



STRIPS planning



STRIPS planning



Air Cargo Transport

- An air cargo transport problem involving loading cargo onto planes, and unloading cargo off of planes, and flying the planes from one place to another place.
- The problem can be defined with three actions:
 - Load, Unload, and Fly.
- The actions affect two predicates:
 - In(c, p) means that cargo c is inside plane p, and At (x, a) means that object x (either plane or cargo) is at airport a.
- The following plan is a solution to the problem:
[Load(C1, P1, SFO), Fly(P1, SFO, JFK)
Load(C2, P2, JFK), Fly(P2, JFK, SFO)]

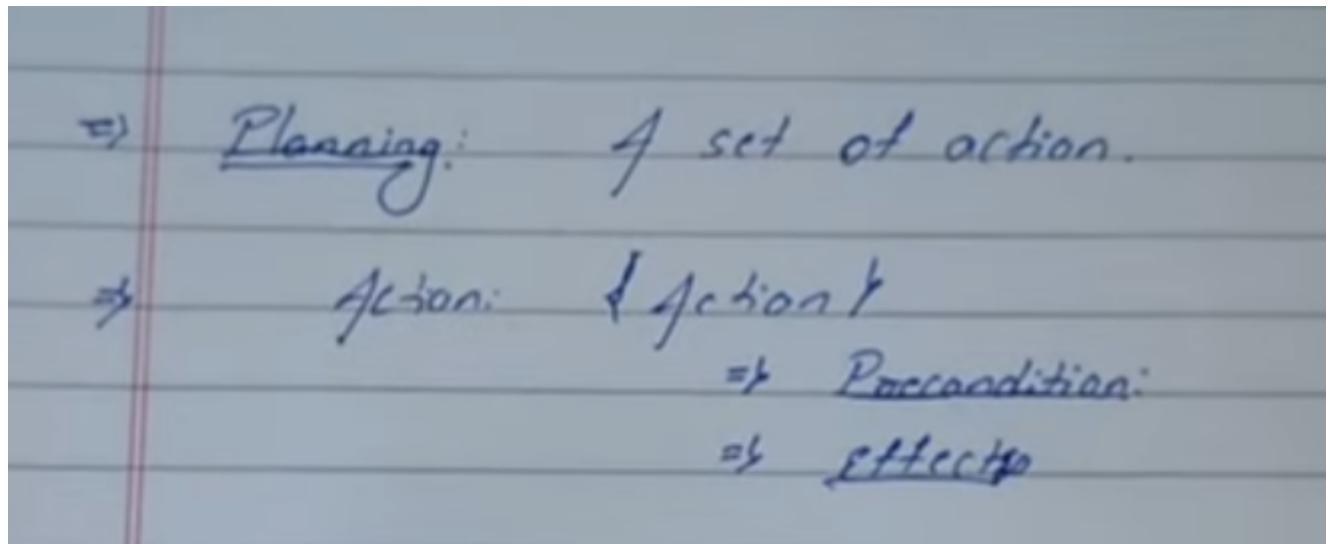


A STRIPS problem involving transportation of air cargo between airports.

```
Init(At(C1, SFO) ∧ At(C2, JFK) ∧ At(P1, SFO) ∧ At(P2, JFK)
     ∧ Cargo(C1) ∧ Cargo(C2) ∧ Plane(P1) ∧ Plane(P2)
     ∧ Airport(JFK) ∧ Airport(SFO))
Goal(At(C1, JFK) ∧ At(C2, SFO))
Action(Load(c, p, a),
    PRECOND: At(c, a) ∧ At(p, a) ∧ Cargo(c) ∧ Plane(p) ∧ Airport(a)
    EFFECT: ¬ At(c, a) ∧ In(c, p))
Action(Unload(c, p, a),
    PRECOND: In(c, p) ∧ At(p, a) ∧ Cargo(c) ∧ Plane(p) ∧ Airport(a)
    EFFECT: At(c, a) ∧ ¬ In(c, p))
Action(Fly(p, from, to),
    PRECOND: At(p, from) ∧ Plane(p) ∧ Airport(from) ∧ Airport(to)
    EFFECT: ¬ At(p, from) ∧ At(p, to))
```



Refer ppt for clear explanation of both examples



Q. Space tree problem:-

- Flat tree \rightarrow file.
- Space \rightarrow Trunk.

\Rightarrow Goal state : Space \rightarrow file.
Flat \rightarrow Trunk.

\Rightarrow STRIPS:

- 1) Remove Space
- 2) Remove Flat
- 3) Put Space \rightarrow file
- 4) Put Flat \rightarrow Trunk.

- > 1) Action ($\text{Remove}(\text{space}, \text{trunk})$)
• Precond: $\text{At}(\text{space}, \text{trunk})$.
• Effect: $\neg \text{At}(\text{trunk}, \text{space})$.
- 2) Action ($\text{Remove}(\text{flat}, \text{ax/c})$)
• Precond: $\text{At}(\text{flat}, \text{ax/c})$.
• Effect: $\neg \text{At}(\text{flat}, \text{ax/c})$.
- 3) Action ($\text{Put}(\text{flat}, \text{trunk})$)
• Precond: $\neg \text{At}(\text{flat}, \text{ax/c})$.
• Effect: $\text{At}(\text{flat}, \text{trunk})$.
- 4) Action ($\text{Put}(\text{space}, \text{ax/c})$).
• Precond: $\neg \text{At}(\text{space}, \text{trunk})$.
• Effect: $\text{At}(\text{space}, \text{ax/c})$.

Planning with State-Space Search

- The most straightforward approach of planning algorithm, is state-space search
 - Forward state-space search (Progression)
 - Backward state-space search (Regression)
- The descriptions of actions in a planning problem, and specify both preconditions and effects
- It is possible to search in both direction: either forward from the initial state or backward from the goal
- We can also use the explicit action and goal representations, to derive effective heuristics automatically.



Problem Formulation for Progression

- Initial state:
 - Initial state of the planning problem
- Actions:
 - Applicable to the current state.
 - First actions' preconditions are satisfied, Successor states are generated
 - Add positive literals to add list and negative literals to delete list.
- Goal test:
 - Whether the state satisfies the goal of the planning
- Step cost:
 - Each action is 1 (assumed)



Progression

- From initial state, search forward by selecting operators whose preconditions can be unified with literals in the state
- New state includes positive literals of effect; the negated literals of effect are deleted
- Search forward until goal unifies with resulting state
- This is forward state-space search using STRIPS operators



Eg:

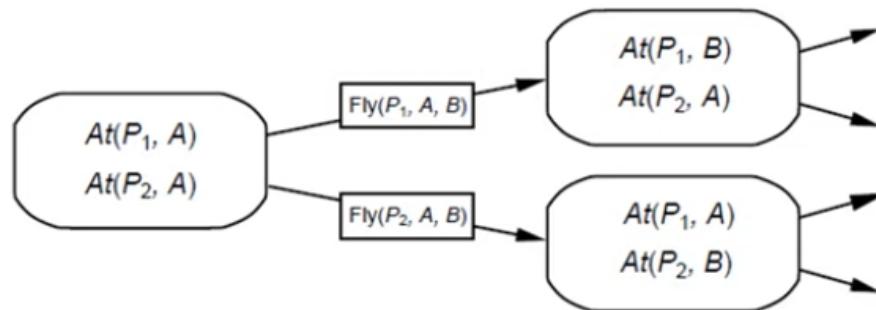
Example : Transportation of air cargo between airports.

```
Init(At(C1, SFO) ∧ At(C2, JFK) ∧ At(P1, SFO) ∧ At(P2, JFK)
     ∧ Cargo(C1) ∧ Cargo(C2) ∧ Plane(P1) ∧ Plane(P2)
     ∧ Airport(JFK) ∧ Airport(SFO))
Goal(At(C1, JFK) ∧ At(C2, SFO))
Action(Load(c, p, a),
       PRECOND: At(c, a) ∧ At(p, a) ∧ Cargo(c) ∧ Plane(p) ∧ Airport(a)
       EFFECT: ¬ At(c, a) ∧ In(c, p))
Action(Unload(c, p, a),
       PRECOND: In(c, p) ∧ At(p, a) ∧ Cargo(c) ∧ Plane(p) ∧ Airport(a)
       EFFECT: At(c, a) ∧ ¬ In(c, p))
Action(Fly(p, from, to),
       PRECOND: At(p, from) ∧ Plane(p) ∧ Airport(from) ∧ Airport(to)
       EFFECT: ¬ At(p, from) ∧ At(p, to))
```



Forward (progression) state-space search

- Starting from the initial state and using the problem's actions to search forward for the goal state.



FSSS Algorithm

- (1) compute whether or not a state is a goal state,
 - (2) find the set of all actions that are applicable to a state, and
 - (3) compute a successor state, that is the result of applying an action to a state
- Algorithm takes as input the statement $P = (O, s_0, g)$ of a planning problem P. (O contains a list of actions)
 - If P is solvable, then $\text{Forward-search}(O, s_0, g)$ returns a solution plan; otherwise it returns failure.



Algorithm for FSSS

1. Forward-search(O, s_0, g)
2. $s \leftarrow s_0$
3. $\pi \leftarrow$ the empty plan
4. loop
 1. if s satisfies g then return π
 2. applicable $\leftarrow \{a \mid a \text{ is a ground instance of an operator in } O, \text{ and precond}(a) \text{ is true in } s\}$
 3. if applicable = \emptyset then return failure
 4. Non-deterministically choose an action $a \in$ applicable
 5. $s \leftarrow \gamma(s, a)$
 6. $\pi \leftarrow \pi.a$



$O \rightarrow$ list of operations
S0 initial state

Problem Formulation for Regression

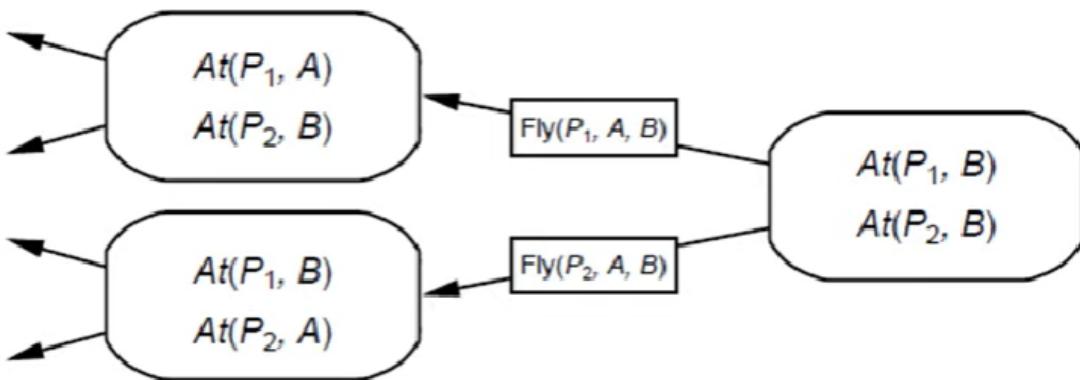
- Initial state:
 - Initial state of the planning problem
- Actions:
 - Applicable to the current state.
 - First actions' preconditions are satisfied, Successor states are generated
 - Add positive literals to add list and negative literals to delete list.
- Goal test:
 - Whether the state satisfies the goal of the planning
- Step cost:
 - Each action is 1 (assumed)

Regression

- The goal state must unify with at least one of the positive literals in the operator's effect
- Its preconditions must hold in the previous situation, and these become subgoals which might be satisfied by the initial conditions
- Perform backward chaining from goal
- Again, this is just state-space search using STRIPS operators

Backward (regression) state-space search:

- Backward state search starting from the goal state(s)
- Using the inverse of the actions to search backward for the initial state.



BSSS Algorithm

- Start at the goal,
- Test the goal is initial state, otherwise
- Apply inverses of the planning operators to produce subgoals,
- The algorithm will stop, if we produce a set of subgoals that satisfies the initial state.

BSSS Algorithm

1. Backward-search(O, s_0, g)
2. π the empty plan
3. loop
 1. if s_0 satisfies g then return π
 2. $applicable \leftarrow \{a \mid a \text{ is a ground instance of an operator in } O \text{ that is relevant for } g\}$
 3. if $applicable = \emptyset$ then return failure
 4. Non-deterministically choose an action $a \in applicable$
 5. $\pi \leftarrow a. \pi$
 6. $g \leftarrow \gamma^{-1}(g, a)$



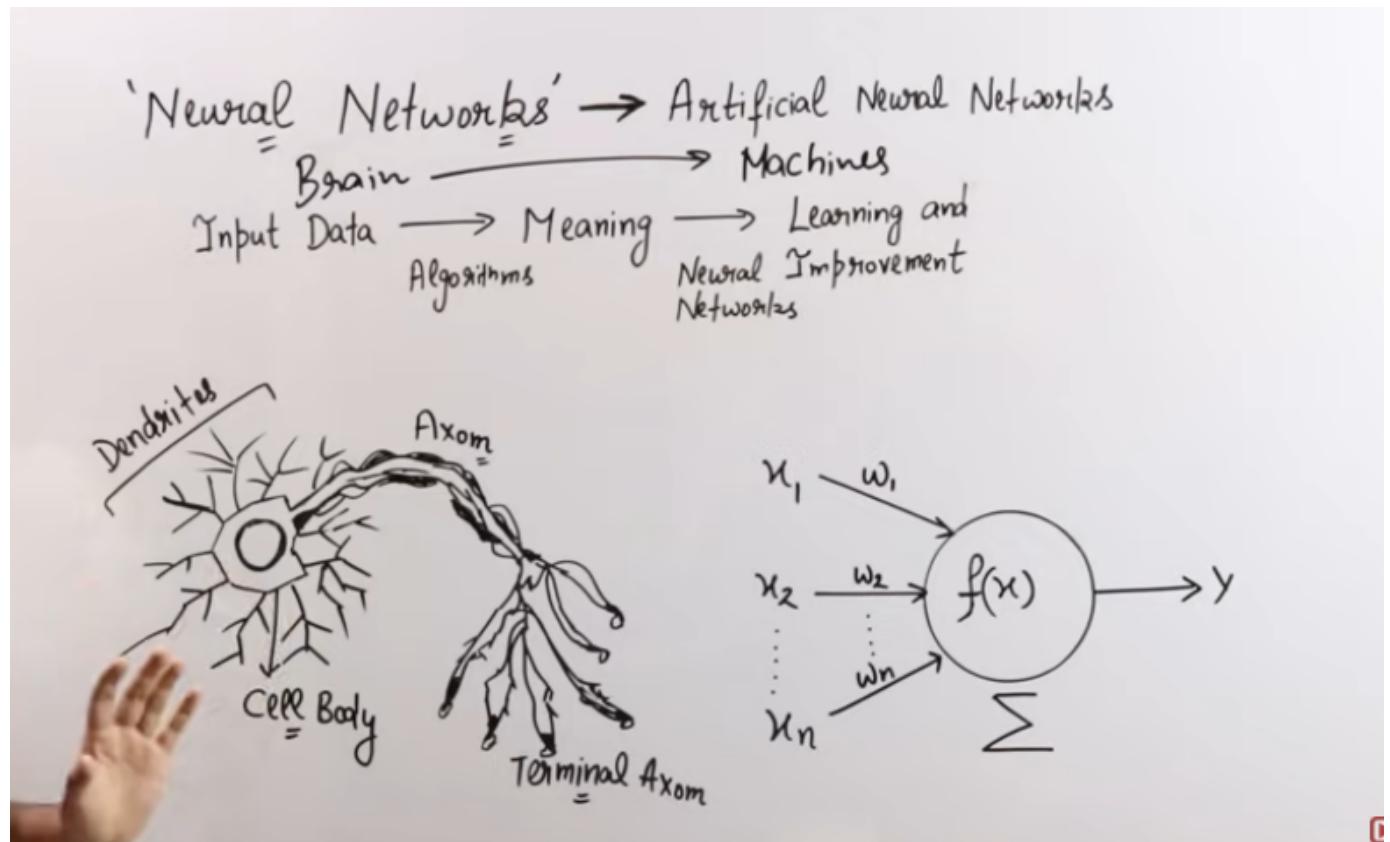
Heuristics for State-Space Search

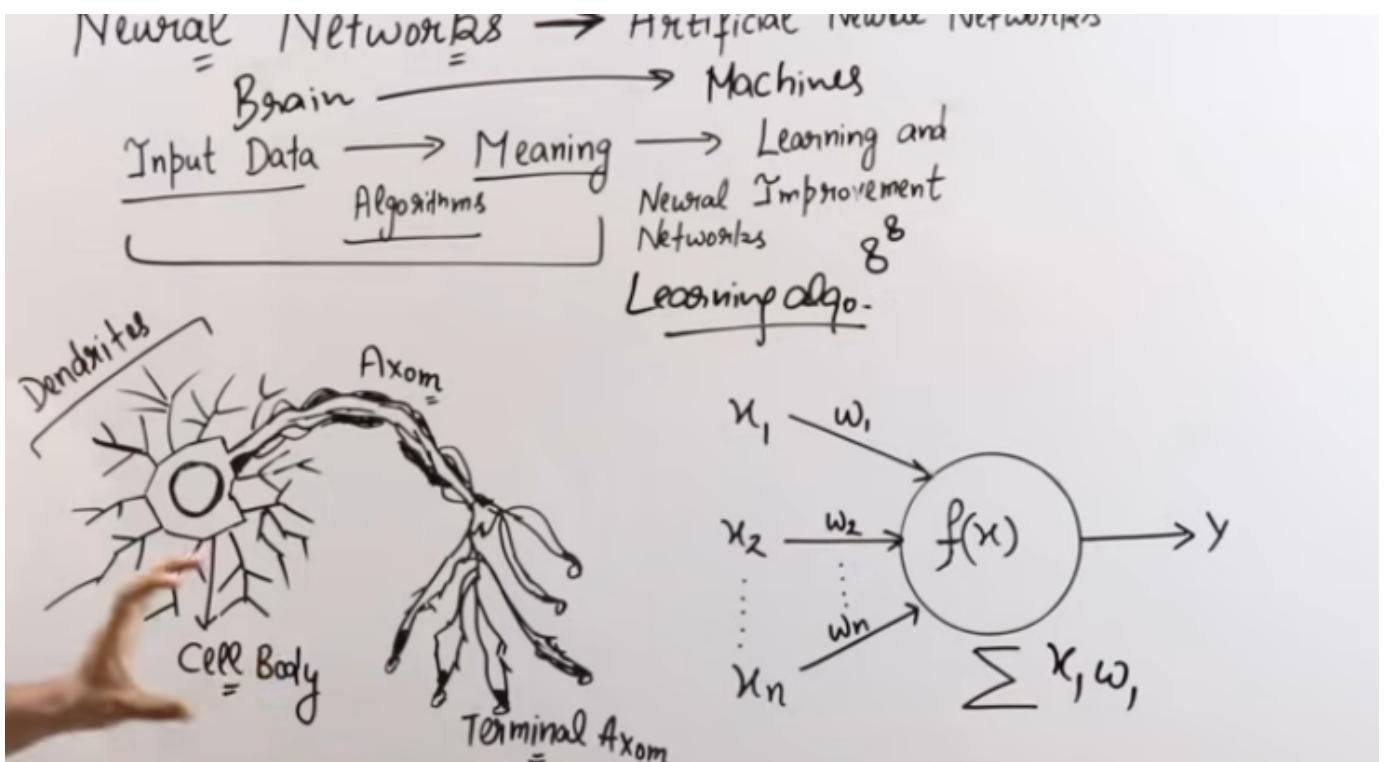
- How to find an admissible heuristic estimate?
 - Distance from a state to the goal?
 - Look at the effects of the actions and at the goals and guess how many actions are needed
- NP-hard
- Relaxed problem
- Subgoal independence assumption:
 - The cost of solving a conjunction of subgoals, is approximated by the sum of the costs of solving each subgoal independently

Relaxation Problem

- Idea: removing all preconditions from the actions
- Which implies, the number of steps required to solve a conjunction of goals, and the number of unsatisfied goals
 - There may be two actions,
 - Some actions deletes the goal literal achieved by the other actions
 - some action may achieve multiple goals
- Combining relaxation with subgoal → exact # of unsatisfied goals

Part2: ann





(A133) Easy Engineering Classes – Free YouTube Lectures
EEC Classes GGSPU, UPTU, Mumbai Univ., Pune Univ., GTU, Anna Univ., PTU and Others EEC Classes

Ques:- Draw and explain architecture of Artificial Neural NW. what is output and input for Artificial Neural NW? what are the advantages of Neural NW over Conventional Computers?

(ANN) is an info processing paradigm - that is inspired by the way of biological nervous system.

- Configured for specific appln → ii) Data Classification
- MODEL → iii) Activation Function
- ii) Interconnections
- iii) Learning Rules.

Characteristics of ANN:

- ii) Neurally implemented mathematical model.
- i) Huge no. of interconnected processing elements called neurons for processing.
- iii) i/p Signals arrive at processing elements through conn' and connected weights.

Advantages:

- i)
- ii)
- iii)
- iv)

Input = $i_0 w_0 + i_1 w_1$ Sum
Output = $f(I)$ activation func'

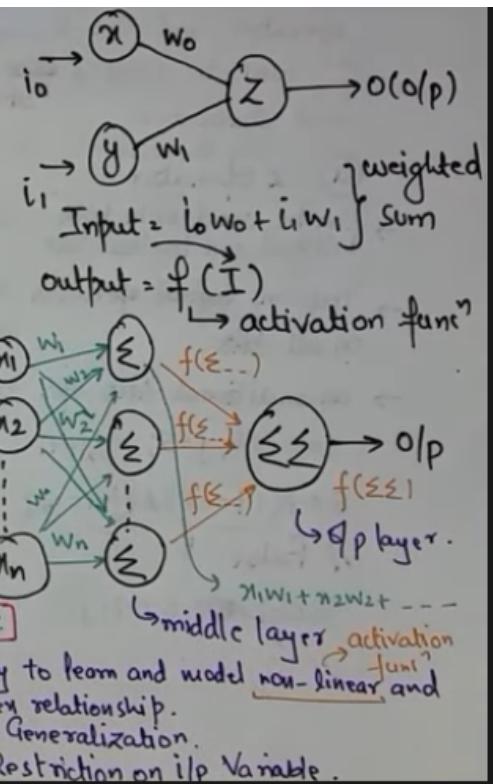
Ques:- Draw and explain architecture of Artificial Neural NW. what is output and input for Artificial Neural NW? what are the advantages of Neural NW over Conventional Computers?

(ANN) is an info processing paradigm that is inspired by the way of biological nervous system.

- Configured for specific appln
- MODEL
- i) Interconnections
- ii) Activation Function
- iii) Learning Rules.

Characteristics of ANN:

- ↳ i) Neurally implemented mathematical model.
- ii) Huge no. of interconnected processing elements called neurons for processing.
- iii) ip Signals arrive at processing elements through Conn' and connected Weights.



Advantages:

- ↳ i) Ability to learn and model non-linear and complex relationship.
- ii) Easy Generalization.
- iii) No Restriction on ip Variable.

(AI-17)

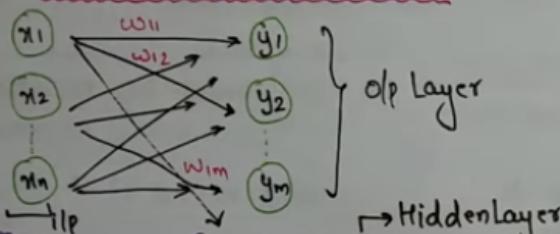
Easy Engineering Classes – Free YouTube Lectures

EEC Classes: GGSIPU, UPTU, Mumbai Univ., Pune Univ., GTU, Anna Univ., PTU and Others EEC Classes

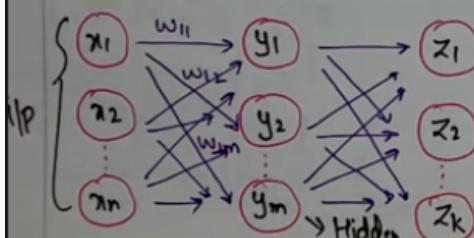
<< 2.75 >>

Ques:- Explain types of Artificial Neural architectures.

① SINGLE LAYER FEED FORWARD NW:

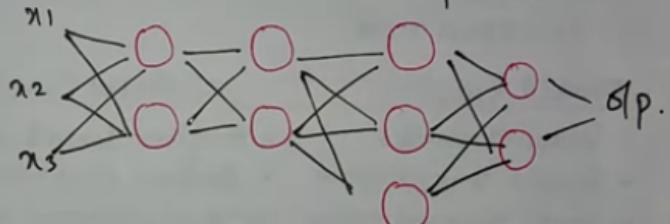


② MULTI LAYER FEED FORWARD NW:



③ MULTILAYER PERCEPTRON:

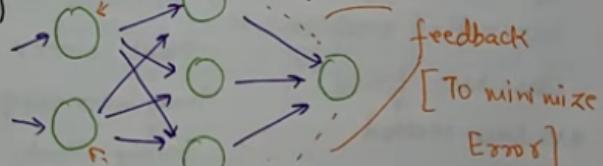
↳ 3 or more layers are used to classify non-linearly Separable data.



Computationally
more
Stronger.

④ FEEDBACK ANN:

feedback is provided to adjust parameters.



Ques:- Explain MCP Neuron Model. [Linear Threshold Gate Model].

McCulloch Pitts Neuron model. [in 1943 by Warren McCulloch and Walter Pitts]

Bias / Threshold :- Minimum

↳ First mathematical model of biological neuron.

Value of weighted active i/p for a neuron to fire.

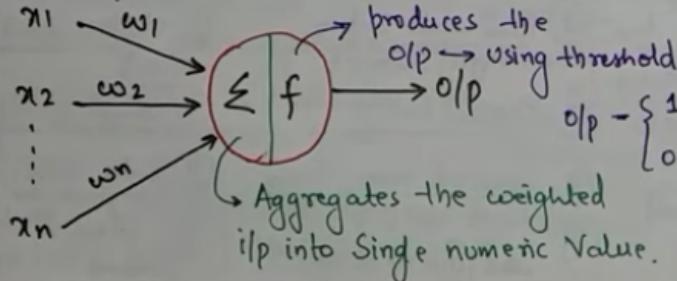
↳ Basic building block of neural n/w.

if effective i/p is larger than T,
then o/p $\rightarrow 1$ Else 0 .

↳ Directed Weight Graph is used for connecting neurons.

↳ Two possible States of neuron \rightarrow Active (1) \rightarrow Silent (0)

$o/p := f(a)$

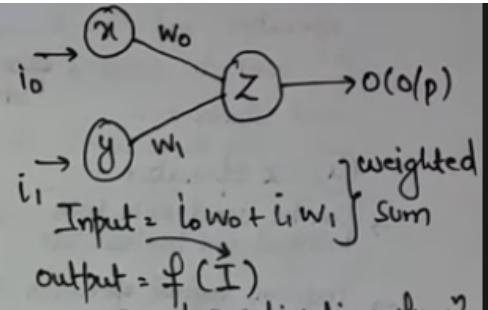


$$\begin{aligned} o/p &:= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X > T \\ 0 & \text{if } X < T \end{cases} \\ o/p &:= f(a) \\ &\downarrow \sum w_i x_i - T \\ \text{fun} & \quad] o(n) = 1 \text{ if } x > 0 \\ & \quad 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum x_1 w_1 + x_2 w_2 + \dots + x_n w_n \quad [X]$$

Ques:- Draw and explain architecture of Artificial Neural N/W. what is output and input for Artificial Neural N/W? what are the advantages of Neural N/W over Conventional Computers?

(ANN) is an info processing paradigm that is inspired by the way of biological nervous system.
 → Configured for specific appln \rightarrow ii. Data Classification
 → MODEL \rightarrow i. Interconnections \rightarrow iii. Activation Function
 → iii. Learning Rules.

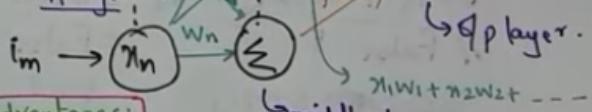


Characteristics of ANN:

- ↳ i) Neurally implemented mathematical model.
- ii) Huge no. of interconnected processing elements called neurons for processing.
- iii) i/p Signals arrive at processing elements through conn and connected weights.

Advantages:

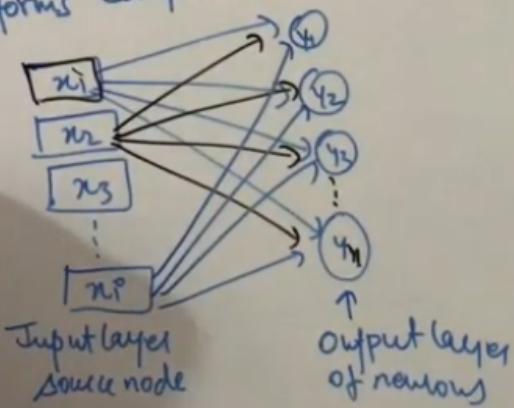
- i) Ability to learn and model non-linear and complex relationship.
- ii) Easy Generalization.
- iii) No Restriction on i/p Variable.



$$o/p = f(\sum \sum \dots)$$

↳ middle layer activation

⇒ Despite the two layers, the n/w is termed single layer since it is output layer, alone which performs computation.



Single layer feed forward n/w

⇒ This type of network comprises of two layers, namely the input layer and output layer

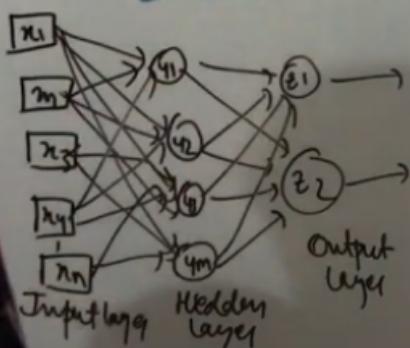
⇒ Input layer neurons receives the input signals and output layer neurons receives the output signal

⇒ The synaptic links carrying the weight connect every input neurons to output neurons but not vice-versa

⇒ Such type of n/w is called feed forward in type or acyclic in nature

⇒ weight j/h
0/h Input-hidden weight
Output-hidden weight

⇒ A multilayer feedforward network with 2 input neurons, m_1 neurons in first hidden layer, m_2 neurons in second hidden layer and n output can be written as
 $L - m_1 - m_2 - n$



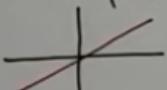
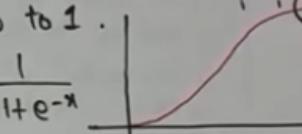
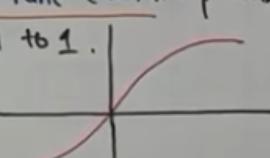
Multi layer feed forward n/w

⇒ This second class of feed forward n/w distinguishes itself by presence of one more hidden layer, whose computational nodes are correspondingly called hidden neurons or hidden units

⇒ Hidden layer neurons are present b/w input layer and output layer

⇒ Hidden layer helps in performing useful intermediary computations before directing the input to o/p layer

(A158)

- Ques:- What is the importance of activation funcⁿ? (iii) Binary Step funcⁿ: used in ANN? Explain diff. available activation funcⁿ in Single Layer NW to convert net detail. coweighted sum of i/p becomes i/p signal to AF to o/p [i/p to o/p] Activation funcⁿ is an internal state of neuron. give one o/p $f(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \geq t \\ 0 & \text{if } x < t \end{cases}$ threshold Value.
- ↳ used to convert the i/p signal on node of ANN to an o/p signal. [i/p to AF to o/p]
- ↳ They introduce non-linear properties to NW.
- [without Activation Function:] o/p Signal would be Simple linear funcⁿ. Easy to solve but limited in processing complex learning. [Images, video, audio] not work properly. ↳ polynomial of one degree.
- Types:-
- (ii) Identity funcⁿ: $f(x) = x$ for all x . ↳ linear funcⁿ, o/p is same as i/p.
- 
- (iii) Sigmoidal funcⁿ: used in Backpropagation NW. Range is 0 to 1. $f(n) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$
- 
- (iv) Hyperbolic Tangent funcⁿ (Tanh): optimization is easy. Range is -1 to 1. $f(n) = \frac{1 - e^{-2n}}{1 + e^{-2n}}$
- 
- (v) Ramp Funcⁿ: $R(n) = \begin{cases} n, & n \geq 0 \\ 0, & n < 0 \end{cases}$
- 

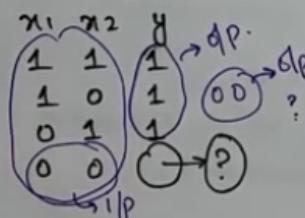
(A143)

- Ques:- Discuss Supervised, unsupervised and reinforced learning in neural nw.

Supervised Learning: Happens in presence of Supervisor.
 ↳ o/p is already known. [i/p \leftrightarrow o/p] ↳ Labelled Dataset.
 ↳ machine is fed with lots of i/p data.
 ↳ Model is built to predict the outcomes.

- ↳ Fast Learning mechanism with high accuracy.
 ↳ Includes Regression & Classification problems

- ↳ SVM
 ↳ KNN
 ↳ ANN
 ↳ Decision Trees.



unsupervised Learning:-

happens without help of supervisor.

- ↳ Independent learning process.
 ↳ no o/p mapping with i/p.
 ↳ Unlabelled dataset.
 ↳ Detect Hidden Patterns
 ↳ clustering and Association Rule mining.

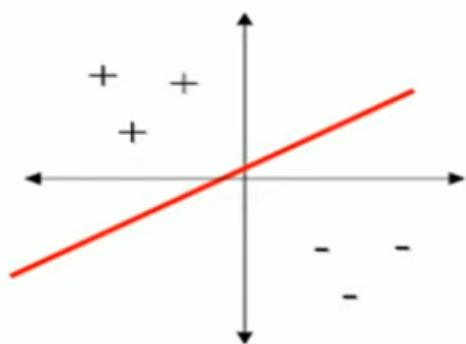
K-means

Reinforcement Learning:- Learns from feedback and past experiences.

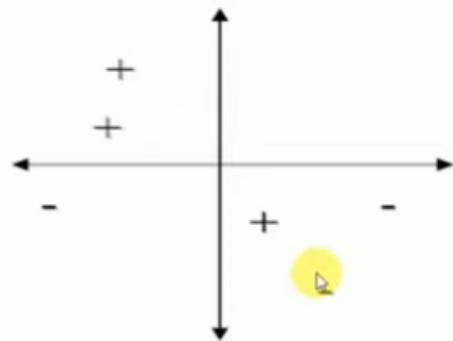
- ↳ long term iterative process.
 ↳ more feedback \Rightarrow More Accurate System
 ↳ Also called Markov Decision Process.
 ↳ Eg:- Robots Training, Self-Driving Cars
 ↳ Deep Adversarial NW, Q-Learning

Supervised Learning Algorithm	Unsupervised Learning Algorithm
i) o/p is known for every i/p	Unknown.
ii) Labelled dataset is used for Learning.	finds hidden Patterns or Association among data items .
iii) Predictive in Nature	Descriptive in nature
iv) Classification, Regression	Clustering, Association Algo
v) Linear Reg, NB, KNN, SVM ...	K-means, Apriori
vi) More Accurate	Less.

Gradient Descent and the Delta Rule



Linearly separable

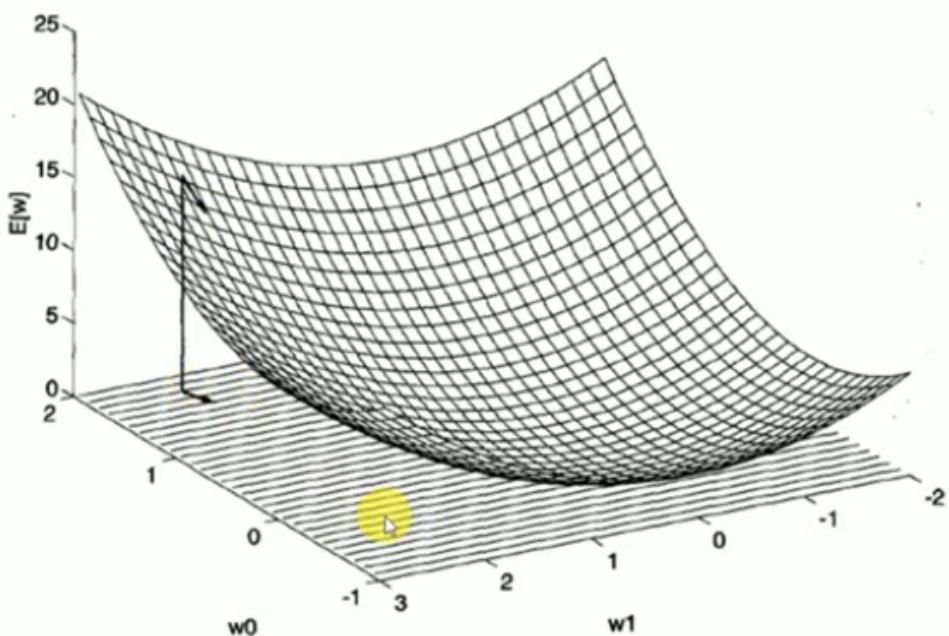


Non-linearly separable

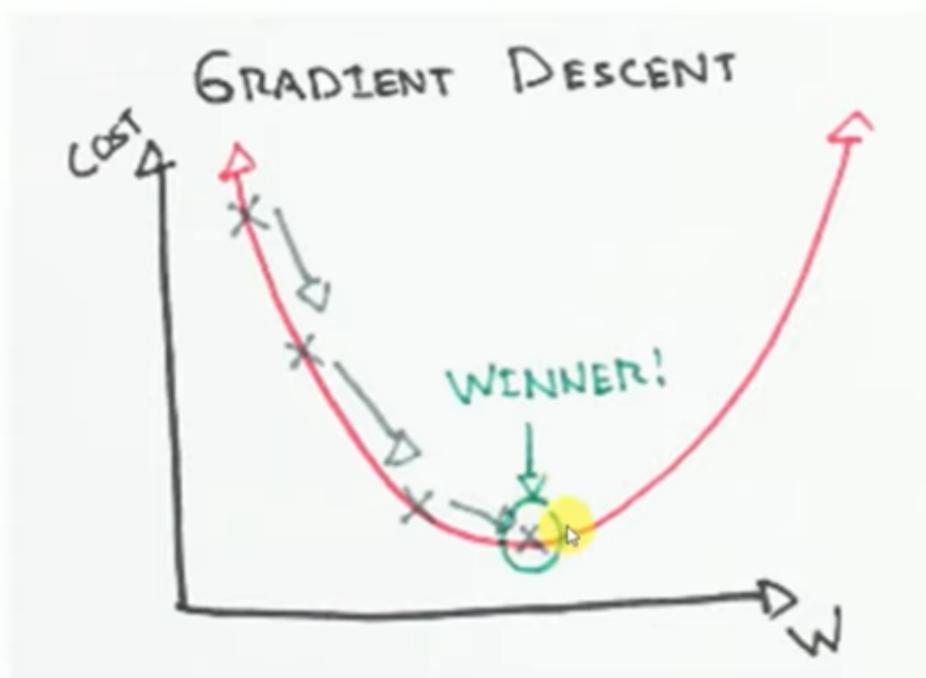
Gradient Descent and the Delta Rule

- Perceptron rule finds a successful weight vector when the training examples are linearly separable, but it can fail to converge if the examples are not linearly separable.
- A second training rule, called the ***delta rule***, is designed to overcome this difficulty.
- If the training examples are not linearly separable, the delta rule converges toward a best-fit approximation to the target concept.
- The key idea behind the delta rule is to use ***gradient descent*** to search the hypothesis space of possible weight vectors to find the weights that best fit the training examples.
- This rule is important because gradient descent provides the basis for the BACKPROPAGATION algorithm, which can learn networks with many interconnected units.
- It is also important because gradient descent can serve as the basis for learning algorithms that must search through hypothesis spaces containing many different types of continuously parameterized hypotheses.

Gradient Descent and the Delta Rule



Gradient Descent and the Delta Rule



Gradient Descent and the Delta Rule

- The delta training rule is best understood by considering the task of training an **unthresholded** perceptron; that is, a **linear unit** for which the output o is given by

$$o = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \cdots + w_n x_n$$

$$o(\vec{x}) = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}$$

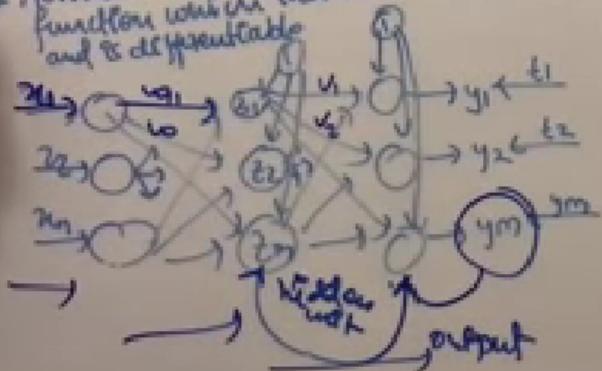
- Thus, a linear unit corresponds to the first stage of a perceptron, without the threshold.
- In order to derive a weight learning rule for linear units, let us begin by specifying a measure for the **training error** of a hypothesis (weight vector), relative to the training examples.
- Although there are many ways to define this error, one common measure is

$$E(\vec{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} (t_d - o_d)^2$$

- where D is the set of training examples, t_d is the target output for training example d , and o_d is the output of the linear unit for training example d .

Inkaa undi(malli chudali)

- neurons present in hidden and output layers have biases equal to 1
- during feed forward information flows in forward direction
- during back propagation input signals are sent back
- Activation function could be any function which increases monotonically and is differentiable



Back Propagation Network

- This learning algorithm is applied to multilayer feed forward network with continuous differentiable function.
- It also uses gradient-descent with differentiable function
- In this method error is propagated back to hidden unit.
- The training of BPN network is done in three stages: feed forward, back propagation of error, weight update.

NLP

We use the English lang to communication between an intelligent system and NLP. processing of NL plays an important role in various system.

Example:

A robot, it is used to perform as per your instructions. The i/p & o/p of an NLP system can be.

- ★ Speech
- ★ Written Text



Components of NLP

Basically there are two components of NLP sys:

(a) Natural language understanding (NLU):

- Basically, the mapping to given ip in NL into useful representation.

- Analyzing different aspects of the language.

(b) Natural language Generation (NLG):

We have to produce meaningful phrases and sentences.



(b) Natural language Generation (NLG):

We have to produce meaningful phrases and sentences. That is in the form of NL from internal representation.

Theater mode (t)

This process involves:

→ Text planning)

→ sentence planning)

→ Text Realization)



Natural Lang
generation

Difficulties in NLU

(a) Lexical ambiguity:

It's predefined at a very most primitive level
such as word-level

(b) Syntax level ambiguity

In this, we can define a sentence in a parsed way
in a different way

(c) Referential ambiguity:

Referential ambiguity says that we have to ref

Something using pronouns

Steps in NLP (5 steps)

→ lexical Analysis: We have to analyze the structure of words. The collection of words and phrases in lang
lexicon of a lang

→ Syntactic Analysis (Parsing): We use parsing for the analysis of the word. Although, have to arrange words in a particular manner. That shows the relationship b/w words

→ Semantic Analysis!

It describes a dictionary meaning which is mean
In the task domain, mapping syntactic structure and object

→ Discourse Integration

In this step, the meaning of any sentence depo
Upon the meaning of the previous sentence. In addition,
brings the meaning to immediately succeeding sentence.

→ Pragmatic Analysis!

In this step, data is interpreted on what is actual
meant. Although we have to derive aspects of lang which depends
real-world knowledge



Natural language processing (NLP)

- How Human communicate with each other
- Computer should replicate the same thing
- Applications of NLP
 - * Speech Recognition → Affirmative / Negative
 - * Sentimental Analysis
 - * Machine Translations
 - * Chatbots etc.

NLU → What do the users say?
their intent? Meaning?

Challenges:
Lexical Ambiguity
Syntactic Ambiguity
Semantic "
Pragmatic "

- The tank was full of water.
- Old men and women were taken to safe place.
- The car hit the pole while it was moving.
- The police are coming.



NLG → What should we say to User?
→ It should be Intelligent and Conversational.
→ Deal with Structured data.
→ Text / Sentence Planning

UNIT 5

NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING

X LANGUAGE MODELS:

- Language Models (LMs) estimate the relative likelihood of different phrases and are useful in many different NLP applications.
- For example: They have been used in Twitter Bots for 'robot' accounts to form their own sentences.

Defining Language Models:

- The goal of probabilistic language modelling is to calculate the probability of a sentence or sequence of words:

$$P(w) = P(w_1, w_2, w_3, \dots, w_n)$$

And can be used to find the probability of the next word in the sequence:

$$P(w_5 | w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4)$$

Initial Method for Calculating Probabilities:

Conditional Probability:

Let A and B be two events with $P(B) \neq 0$, the conditional probability of A given B is:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)}$$

Chain Rule:

In general cases, the formula is as follows:

$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = P(x_1)P(x_2|x_1) \dots P(x_n|x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

The chain rule applied to compute the jointed probability of words in a sequence is therefore:

$$P(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n) = \prod P(w_i | w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{i-1})$$

Gyan Pur

NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING

- Initial Method for Calculating Probabilities:

Conditional Probability:

Let A and B be two events with $P(B) \neq 0$, the conditional probability of A given B is:

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)}$$

Chain Rule:

In general cases, the formula is as follows

$$P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = P(x_1)P(x_2|x_1) \dots P(x_n|x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$$

The chain rule applied to compute the joined probability of words in a sequence is therefore:

$$P(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n) = \prod P(w_i | w_1, w_2, \dots, w_{i-1})$$


NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING

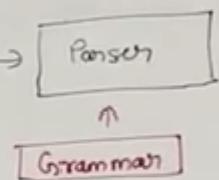
For example:

$$P(\text{"This water is so transparent"}) = P(\text{This}) * P(\text{water}|\text{This}) * P(\text{is}|\text{This water}) * P(\text{so}|\text{This water is}) * P(\text{transparent}|\text{This water is so})$$

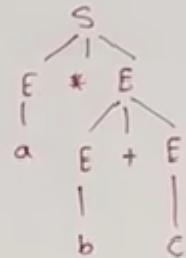
Natural language for communication 1. Text Embeddings 2. Dialogue and Conversation 3. Sentiment Analysis 4. Text Summarisation

Parser

input
data (text)
 $a * b + c$



structural
Representation
of text / dat



- It is a software component design for taking input data(text) and give structural representation of the input after checking for correct syntax or grammar
- Now it is used in NLP
 - Grammar checking
 - Intermediate stage of Semantic Analysis

Basic concept of Grammer and Parse tree (CFG)

- mathematically a grammer G can be written as four tuples (N, T, S, P)

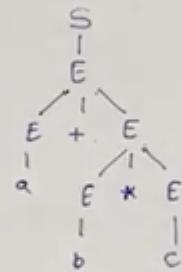
$\checkmark \Sigma$
 $N \rightarrow$ Non-terminal

$T \rightarrow$ terminal

$S \rightarrow$ start symbol

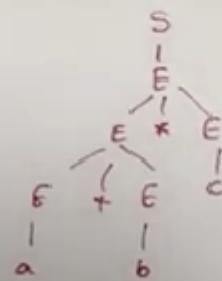
$P \rightarrow$ Production rules

Ex: $S \rightarrow E$
 $E \rightarrow E + E \mid E * E \mid a \mid b \mid c$
 input: $a + b * c$



Concept of Parse tree

- It is Graphical Representation of Derivation
- Start symbol is root of Parse tree
- Leaf nodes are terminals
- Interior nodes are non-terminal
- If Parse Properly will create input text



Parsing in NLP

I/p: The little boy ran quickly

<Sentence> → <noun phrase> <verb phrase>

<noun Phrase> → <adjective> <noun Phrase> | <adjective> <singular noun>

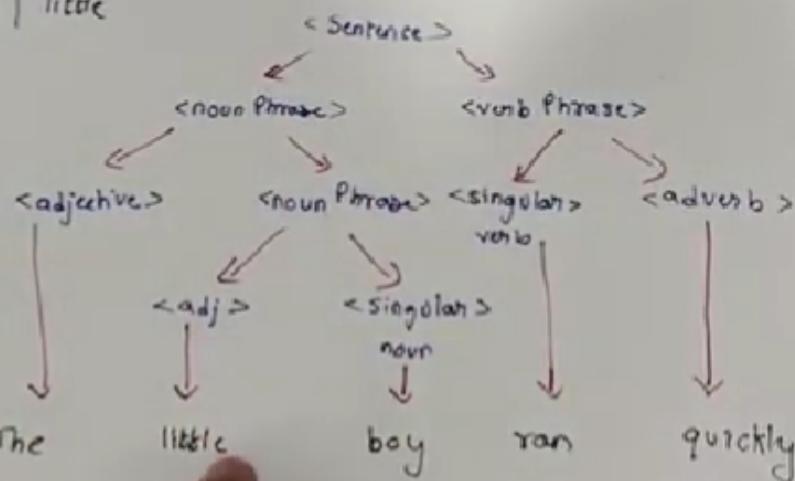
<verb Phrase> → <singular verb> <adverb>

<adjective> → a | the | little

<singular noun> → boy

<singular verb> → ran

<adverb> → quickly



Grammar

$S \rightarrow VP$

$VP \rightarrow Verb \ NP$

$NP \rightarrow Det \ Noun$

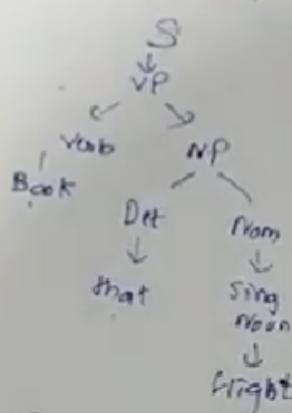
$Det \rightarrow that$

$Noun \rightarrow singular \ noun$

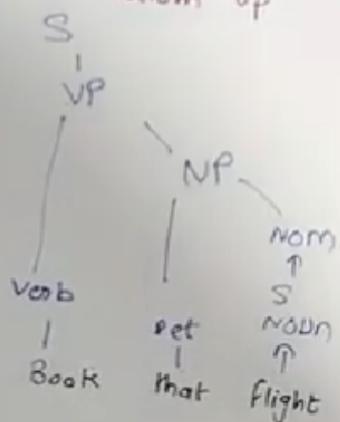
$Verb \rightarrow Book$

$S \ Noun \rightarrow Flight$

Top down



Bottom up



Input! Book that Flight

Augmented Grammar

If G is a grammar with start symbol S , then,
the augmented grammar for G is G' with a new start
symbol S' and production $S' \rightarrow S$ will be included.

The purpose of this new starting production is to indicate
to the parser when it should stop parsing and announce
acceptance of input. This would occur when the parser was
about to reduce by $S' \rightarrow S$.

⚙ << 2.50 >>

Given grammar G :

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow E + T \mid T \\ T &\rightarrow T * F \mid F \\ F &\rightarrow (E) \mid id \end{aligned}$$

So corresponding Augmented Grammar G' :

$$\begin{aligned} E' &\rightarrow E \\ E &\rightarrow E + T \mid T \\ T &\rightarrow T * F \mid F \\ F &\rightarrow (E) \mid id \end{aligned}$$

Semantic Analysis

- NLP is a field which aims to give machine the ability to understand natural language
- Semantic analysis is a sub topic of it
- Semantic analysis means giving exact meaning of text.
- Role of semantic analysis is to check text for meaningfulness

Semantic Analysis



meaning of
individual word
(Lexical semantics)

combination of
words
(Sentences)

- Relationship exist between words
- The word order
- Context
- Semantic structure
- Real world knowledge

Composition Semantics

- It involves how word combines to form larger meaning
- It says that meaning of each word matters but syntax and way in which the sentence are constructed plays an important role as well

• Example: I like you and you like me are same words but meaning are different

I → subject		you → subject
you → object		me → object

• Lexical semantic + composition semantic = semantic analysis

• This is called Principle of compositionality

Basic Building blocks of Semantic System

Entities: It represents the individual such as particular person, location, etc Example: Manya, Rampaari;

Concept: It represent general category of individuals like person, vehicle, animals, etc.

Relations : Relation between entities and concept
example:- Rampaari is a vehicle

Predicates : It represent verb structure, example: case grammar and semantic roles

Case grammars: A form of grammar in which structure of sentence is analyse.

Approaches

- First order Predicate logic
- Semantic Nets
- Case Grammar

1. F_{OPL} → It convert sentence into logical form

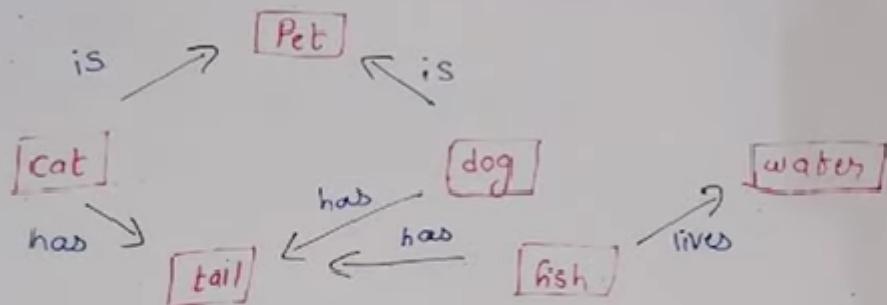
Ex: Jack loves jill → loves(jack, jill)

Ex 2: Sumon takes Engineering or Pharmacy

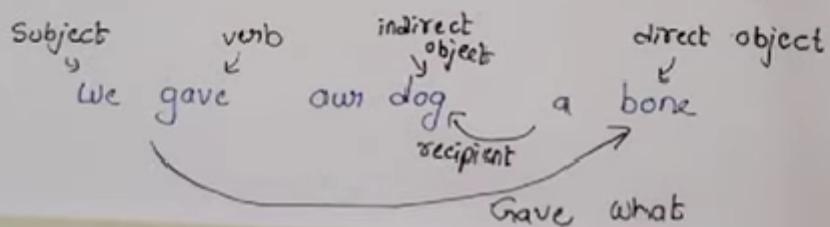
takes (Sumon, Engineering) ∨ takes(Sumon, Pharmacy)

Semantic Nets

- It shows semantic relations between concepts
- It is used for knowledge representation



Case Grammar (Structure of Sentence is Analyse)



Expert Systems

The Expert Systems are the computer applications developed to solve complex problems in a particular domain, at the level of extraordinary human intelligence and expertise.

Characteristics of E.S:

- High performance
- Understandable
- Reliable
- Highly responsive



Capabilities of Expert System

Expert Systems are capable of -

- Advising
- instructing and assisting human in decision making
- Demonstrating
- Deriving a solution
- Explaining
- Interpreting i/p
- Predicting result
- Suggesting alternative options to a problem

Incapable of

- Substituting human decision making
- Possessing human capability
- Producing accurate o/p for inadequate knowledge base
- Refining their own knowledge



The components of ES include-

- Knowledge Base

- Inference Engine

- User Interface

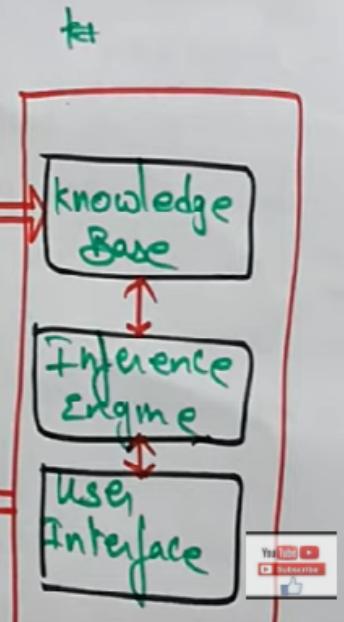
knowledge Base:-

It contains domain-specific & high quality knowledge

knowledge is required to exhibit intelligence.

Human Expert \Rightarrow knowledge base engineer

User
(may not be an expert)



The success of any ES majorly depends upon the collection of highly accurate and precise knowledge.

Inference Engine-

It is the brain of expert system. It contains rules to solve a specific problem. It selects facts and rules to apply when to answer the user's query. It provides reasoning about the information in the knowledge base. Inference Engine helps in deducing the problem to find the solution. This component is also helpful for formulating conclusions

User Interface:

The user interface is the most crucial part of the expert system. This component takes the user's query in a readable form and passes it to the inference engine.

- After that, it displays the results to the user. In other words, it's an interface that helps the user communicate with the expert system.

The Process of Building An Expert System

⚙ << 2.00 >>

- Determining the characteristics of the problem
- Knowledge engineer and domain expert work in coherence to define the problem.

Determining the characteristics of the knowledge engineer and domain expert work in coherence to define the problem. ^{human expert} $\xrightarrow{\text{El}}$ knowledge engineer \rightarrow knowledge base ^{computer knowledge}

The knowledge engineer translates the knowledge into a computer understandable lang. He designs an inference engine a reasoning structure, which can use knowledge when needed. Knowledge expert also determines how to integrate the use of uncertain knowledge in the reasoning process and what type of explanation would be useful.



- Information Management
- Hospitals & medical facilities
- Help desks management
- Employee performance evaluation.
- Loan analysis
- Virus detection
- Warehouse optimization
- planning & scheduling
- Stock market trading
- Airline scheduling & cargo scheduling
- Process monitoring & control