Knowledge Representation

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Knowledge Representation

Knowledge base (KB):

- Knowledge that describe facts about the world in some formal (representational) language
- Domain specific

• Inference engine:

- A set of procedures that use the representational language to infer new facts from known ones or answer a variety of KB queries.
 Inferences typically require search.
- -Domain independent

Logics

A logic is a triple (L, S, R) where

- L, the logic's language, is a class of sentences described by a formal grammar
- S, the logic's semantics is a formal specification of how to assign meaning in the "real world" to the elements of L
- R, the logic's inference system, is a set of formal derivation rules over L
- There are several logics: propositional, first-order, higher-order, modal, temporal, intuitionistic, linear, equational, non-monotonic, fuzzy, . . .

We will concentrate on propositional logic and first-order logic

Knowledge Representation

- Objective: express the knowledge about the world in a computer-tractable form
- Knowledge representation languages (KRLs) Key aspects:
 - Syntax: describes how sentences in KRL are formed in the language
 - Semantics: describes the meaning of sentences, what is it the sentence refers to in the real world
- Computational aspect: describes how sentences and objects in KRL are manipulated in concordance with semantic conventions Many KB systems rely on some variant of logic

Knowledge Representation

- Propositional Logic
- Predicate Logic
- Semantic Networks
- Frames
- Fuzzy Logic



Propositional Logic

- A formal method of reasoning, which represents knowledge, allowing automated inference and problem solving.
- Concepts are translated into symbolic representations which closely approximate the meaning. These symbolic structures can then be manipulated in programs to deduce various facts, to carry out a form of automated reasoning.
- Propositional logic is the simplest.
 - Symbols represent whole propositions (facts): P, Q, R, S, etc..
 - These are joined by logical connectives (and, or, implication) e.g.,
 P Q; Q R
 - Given some statements in the logic we can deduce new facts (e.g., from above deduce R)

Propositional Logic: Examples

- My car is painted red.
- Snow is white.
- People live on the moon.
- Logical connectives:
- It is raining and the wind is blowing.
- I shall go there or ask kamal to visit him.
- If you study heard you will be successful.
- The sum of 20 and 30 is not 100.
- The car belongs to the VC is painted silver.

Propositional Logic

- Propositions are some elementary atomic sentences. Propositions may be either true or false. In propositional logic, a world is represented as knowledge using a list of facts.
- Formally propositional logic P:
- Is defined by Syntax + interpretation + semantics of P
- Syntax of PL:
- symbol -> P | Q | R | S | ...
- atomic sentence -> TRUE | FALSE
- sentence -> atomic sentence | complex sentence
- complex sentences -> ~ sentence | (sentence ^ sentence) | (sentence v sentence)
 |(sentence → sentence) |
- (sentence ↔ sentence)
- Precedence relation operators: \sim , $^{\wedge}$, v, \rightarrow .

Syntax of Propositional Logic

- The syntax of propositional logic defines the allowable sentences for the knowledge representation. There are two types of Propositions:
- 1. Atomic Propositions
- 2. Compound propositions
- Atomic Proposition: Atomic propositions are the simple propositions. It consists of a single proposition symbol. These are the sentences which must be either true or false.

- Example:

- a) 2+2 is 4, it is an atomic proposition as it is a true fact.
- b) "The Sun is cold" is also a proposition as it is a false fact.
- Compound proposition: Compound propositions are constructed by combining simpler or atomic propositions, using parenthesis and logical connectives.

- Example:

- a) "It is raining today, and street is wet."
- b) "Ankit is a doctor, and his clinic is in Dhaka."

Propositional Logic: Semantics

- Propositions
 - Sentences and truth values
 - Propositional connectives and their truth tables
 - Negation: ~P
 - Conjunction: P ^ Q
 - Disjunction: P Y Q (inclusive or)
 - Implication: $P \rightarrow Q$
 - Equivalence: $P \leftrightarrow Q$
 - Other propositional connectives
 - $P \oplus Q$ (exclusive or), $P \downarrow Q$ (nor), $P \uparrow Q$ (nand),...

Semantics of Propositional Logic

Logical connectives are used to connect two simpler propositions or representing a sentence logically.

- 1. Negation: A sentence such as ¬ P is called negation of P. A literal can be either Positive literal or negative literal.
- 2. Conjunction: A sentence which has \wedge connective such as, $\mathbf{P} \wedge \mathbf{Q}$ is called a conjunction.

Example: Rohan is intelligent and hardworking. It can be written as,

P= Rohan is intelligent,

Q= Rohan is hardworking. $\rightarrow P \land Q$.

3. **Disjunction:** A sentence which has \vee connective, such as $P \vee Q$. is called disjunction, where P and Q are the propositions.

Example: "Ritika is a doctor or Engineer",

Here P= Ritika is Doctor. Q= Ritika is Doctor, so we can write it as **P** \vee **O**.

Semantics of Propositional Logic

4. Implication: A sentence such as P → Q, is called an implication.
 Implications are also known as if-then rules. It can be represented as
 If it is raining, then the street is wet.

Let P= It is raining, and Q= Street is wet, so it is represented as $P \rightarrow Q$

5. Biconditional: A sentence such as P⇔ Q is a Biconditional sentence, example

If I am breathing, then I am alive

P= I am breathing, Q= I am alive, it can be represented as $P \Leftrightarrow Q$.

Semantic Rules for Statements

Rule No.	True Statements	False Statements
1	T	F
2	~ f	~ t
3	t&t'	f&a
4	tora	a & f
5	a or t	For f'
6	a□t	t□f
7	f□a	t□□f
8	t □ □ t'	f□□t
9	f□□f′	

Properties of Statements

- Satisfiable: A statement is satisfiable if there is some interpretation for which it is true.
- Contradiction: A statement is said to be contradictory (unsatisfiable) if there is no interpretation for which it is true.
- Valid: A statement is valid if it is true for every interpretations. Valid statements are also called tautologies.
- Equivalence: Two sentences are equivalent if they have the same truth value under every interpretation.

Semantics & Interpretations

P	Q	P / Q	$P \lor Q$	~ P	$P \rightarrow Q$	$P \leftrightarrow Q$
f	f	f	f	t	t	t
f	t	f	t	t	t	f
t	f	f	t	f	f	f
t	t	t	t	f	t	t

Meaning of Statements

What would be the meaning of the following statement, if some interpretation imply true to P, false to Q and false to R?:

$$((P \& \sim Q) \rightarrow R) \lor Q$$

Assignments:

1. Find the meaning of the statement:

 $(\sim PVQ) \& R \rightarrow SV (\sim R \& Q)$

for each of the interpretations given below:

I₁: P is true, Q is true, R is false, S is true.

I₂: P is true, Q is false, R is true, S is true.

2. Determine whether each of the following sentence is

(a) satisfiable (b) contradictory, or (c) valid

 $S_1: (P \& Q) \lor \sim (P \& Q) S_2: (P \lor Q) \rightarrow (P \& Q)$

 $S_3: (P \& Q) \rightarrow R \lor \sim Q \quad S_4: (P \lor Q) \& (P \lor \sim Q) \lor P$

 $S_5: P \rightarrow Q \rightarrow \sim P$ $S_6: P \lor Q \& \sim P \lor \sim Q \& P$

Meaning of Statements 1

Statement: If the earth moves round the sun or the sun moves round the earth, then Copernicus might be a mathematician but wasn't an astronomer.

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Let,
P = the earth moves round the sun = T
Q= the sun moves round the earth = F
R= Copernicus might be a mathematician = T
S= Copernicus was an astronomer = T
(P \lor Q) \rightarrow (R \land \sim S)
= (T \lor F) \rightarrow (T \land \sim T)
= T \rightarrow F
= \sim T \vee F
=F
So, the meaning of the statement is FALSE.
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Meaning of Statements 2

Exercise:

Inspite of having French nationality, B. Russel was a critic of imperilism, then either he was not a bachelor or he was a universal lover.

Rules of Inference

Modus Ponens

$$P \to Q, P \qquad \{((P \to Q) \land P) \to Q\}$$
$$\therefore Q$$

Modus Tollens

$$\begin{array}{ll}
P \to Q, \sim Q \\
\vdots \sim P
\end{array} \qquad \{((P \to Q) \land \sim Q) \to \sim P\}$$

• Hypothetical Syllogism (H. S.)

$$(P \to Q) & (Q \to R)$$
$$\therefore P \to R$$

• Disjunctive Syllogism (D. S.)

$$\frac{(P \ V \ Q) \sim P}{\therefore Q}$$

Modus Ponens

Modus Ponens

$$P \to Q, P \qquad \{((P \to Q) \land P) \to Q\}$$
$$\therefore Q$$

• Example:

- ☐ "If you have a current password, then you can log on to the network"
- "You have a current password"

Therefore:

"You can log on to the network"

This has the form:

$$P \rightarrow Q$$
 P

Modus Tollens

Modus Tollens

$$P \to Q, \sim Q \qquad \{((P \to Q) \land \sim Q) \to \sim P\}$$
$$\therefore \sim P$$

• Example:

- You can't log into the network
- ☐ If you have a current password, then you can log into the network Therefore

You don't have a current password.

This is an argument of the form:

$$\begin{array}{c}
\neg Q \\
P \rightarrow Q \\
\vdots \quad \neg \\
P
\end{array}$$

Hypothetical Syllogism

• Hypothetical Syllogism (H. S.)

$$(P \to Q) & (Q \to R)$$

$$\therefore P \to R$$

$$\{((P \to Q) \land (Q \to R)) \to (P \to R)\}$$

- ☐ If I do not wake up, then I cannot go to work.
- ☐ If I cannot go to work, then I will not get paid.
- Therefore,

If I do not wake up, then I will not get paid.

This is an argument of the form:

$$P \rightarrow Q$$

$$Q \rightarrow R$$

$$\vdots$$

$$P \rightarrow R$$

Disjunctive Syllogism

• Disjunctive Syllogism (D. S.)

$$(P V Q) \sim P$$

$$\therefore Q \qquad \{((P V Q) \land \sim P) \rightarrow Q\}$$

Example:

- ☐ The breach is a safety violation, or it is not subject to fines.
- \square The breach is not a safety violation.

Therefore,

it is not subject to fines.

This is an argument of the form:

PVQ

 $\sim P$

∴Q

Biconditional Statement

Conditional Statement:

$$P \rightarrow Q = \sim P \ V \ Q$$

Biconditional Statement:

$$P \leftrightarrow Q = (P \rightarrow Q) \& (Q \rightarrow P)$$

• Truth Table:

P	Q	$P \rightarrow Q = \sim P \ V \ Q$	$\mathbf{Q} \rightarrow \mathbf{P} = \sim \mathbf{Q} \ \mathbf{V} \ \mathbf{P}$	$P \leftrightarrow \mathbf{Q}$
Т	Т	Т	Т	Т
Т	F	F	Т	F
F	Т	Т	F	F
F	F	Т	Т	Т

Logical Equivalence

Equivalence	Name
$p \wedge T \equiv p$ $p \vee F \equiv p$	Identity laws
$p \lor T \equiv T$ $p \land F \equiv F$	Domination laws
$p \lor p \equiv p$ $p \land p \equiv p$	Idempotent laws
$\neg(\neg p) \equiv p$	Double negation law
$p \lor q \equiv q \lor p$ $p \land q \equiv q \land p$	Commutative laws
$p \lor (q \lor r) \equiv (p \lor q) \lor r$ $p \land (q \land r) \equiv (p \land q) \land r$	Associative laws
$p \lor (q \land r) \equiv (p \lor q) \land (p \lor r)$ $p \land (q \lor r) \equiv (p \land q) \lor (p \land r)$	Distributive laws
$\neg(p \land q) \equiv \neg p \lor \neg q$ $\neg(p \lor q) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q$	De Morgan's laws

Example 1

Prove that

$$\neg (p \lor (\neg p \land q)) \equiv \neg p \land \neg q \equiv \neg (p \lor q).$$

We proceed as follows

$$\neg(p \lor (\neg p \land q)) \equiv \neg p \land \neg(\neg p \land q) \qquad \text{De Morgan's law}$$

$$\equiv \neg p \land (\neg(\neg p) \lor \neg q) \qquad \text{De Morgan's law}$$

$$\equiv \neg p \land (p \lor \neg q) \qquad \text{double negation law}$$

$$\equiv (\neg p \land p) \lor (\neg p \land \neg q) \qquad \text{distributive law}$$

$$\equiv F \lor (\neg p \land \neg q) \qquad \text{since } \neg p \land p \equiv F$$

$$\equiv (\neg p \land \neg q) \lor F \qquad \text{commutative law}$$

$$\equiv (\neg p \land \neg q) \qquad \text{identity law}$$

$$\equiv \neg(p \lor q) \qquad \text{De Morgan's law}.$$

The above logical equivalence is proved.

Example 2

You have given the following knowledge:
 If it is hot and humid, then it is raining
 If it is humid, then it is hot
 It is humid

Is it possible to infer "Is it raining"?

Solution:

Step 1: Defining Proposition:

We can proceed as follows:

It is humid = P

It is raining=R

It is hot=H

• Step 2: Defining Propositional Logic Expression

Now we can represent the following knowledge as:

1.
$$(H \& P) \rightarrow R$$

$$2. P \rightarrow H$$

3.P

Example 2 cont....

Propositional Logic Expression

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1. (H & P) →R
2. P → H
3.P
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Reasoning using inference rule and Algebra:

We can apply Modus Ponens in equation 2 and 3

$$\begin{array}{ccc} P \rightarrow H \\ \hline P \\ \hline H \\ & \dots \\ \end{array} \tag{4}$$

Now from equation 1 we can write,

$$(H \& P) \rightarrow R = \sim (H \& P) V R$$

 $= (\sim H V \sim P) V R [De Morgan's Law]$
 $= (\sim T V \sim T) V R [using 4 and 3]$
 $= F V R [Idempotent]$
 $= R [using identity law]$

= It is raining [Proved]

Exercise 1

- You have given the following proposition
- It is raining, it is snowing or it is dry.
- It is warm.
- It is not raining raining.
- It is not snowing.
- If the weather is nice, then it is good to walk.
- If the weather is dry and warm, the weather is nice.

Prove by resolution "It is good to walk."

Drawbacks of PL

- Propositional logic isn't powerful enough as a general knowledge representation language.
- Impossible to make general statements. E.g., "all students sit exams" or "if any student sits an exam they either pass or fail".
- So we need predicate logic..

Thank you