

Logical approach to AI and knowledge based systems



Unit objectives

After completing this unit, you should be able to:

- Understand the importance of knowledge representation
- Understand the use of formal logic as a knowledge representation language
- Gain knowledge on the concept of Tautologies and Logical Implication
- Learn about the resolution in normal forms
- Gain an insight into the concept of derivations using resolutions and resolution algorithm
- Learn about the Semantic Nets
- Understand frame data structure

Introduction to knowledge representation systems



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- To solve the complex problems encountered in Artificial Intelligence, large amount of knowledge and mechanisms for manipulating that knowledge are required.
- There are many ways of knowledge representation
- Properties of Knowledge Representation Systems
 - Representational adequacy
 - Inferential adequacy
 - Inferential efficiency
 - Acquisitional efficiency

Knowledge representation using logic

- Formal Logic is the primary vehicle for representing & reasoning about knowledge.
- Formal logic is
 - Precise and Definite
 - Declarative
- Logic consists of two parts, a language and a method of reasoning.
- Language has syntax and semantics
- Logical systems with different syntax and semantics
 - Propositional logic
 - First order predicate logic
 - Temporal logic
 - Modal
 - Higher order logic
 - Non-monotonic

Propositional logic

- A proposition is a sentence that has a truth value.
- Propositional logics are the atomic formulas.
- Propositional logic studies the relationship two statements defined by a set of propositional symbols
- Propositional logics are of two forms: atomic propositions and compound propositions.

Atomic proposition

- Compound proposition is defined by values of elementary propositions and the meaning of connectives.
- The knowledge base is the set of all sentences where each sentence in Propositional Logic

Semantics of propositional logic

- Semantics
 - Semantics specifies the value true or false for each proposition symbol.
 - An *interpretation* for a sentence or group of sentences is an assignment of value true to every propositional symbol.
 - For example, consider the statement $(A \wedge \neg B)$. Interpretation 1 assigns true to A and false to B. Interpretation 2 assign false to A and false to B. Hence, there are four distinct interpretations.
- Semantics for the Logical connectives:

Negation \neg	
A	$\neg A$
T	F
F	T

Conjunction \wedge		
A	B	$A \wedge B$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

Implication \rightarrow		
A	B	$A \rightarrow B$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

Disjunction \vee		
A	B	$A \vee B$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

Biconditional \leftrightarrow		
A	B	$A \leftrightarrow B$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	T

Properties of propositional logic statements



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- Satisfiable
- Valid or Tautology
- Contradiction
- Contingent
- Equivalence

Tautologies and logical implication

- A formula that is always T, independent of the interpretation of the propositions, is a tautology.
- Logical Implication: A formula M logically implies N if $M \rightarrow N$ is a tautology.
- Theorem:
 - An argument is valid if and only if the conjunction logically implies the conclusion.
- Logical Arguments
 - Logical arguments is known as a valid argument formed by the series of statements

Resolution



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- Uniform
- Fewer Rules
- Heuristic Guide
- Algorithmic

Conjunctive normal form

- A literal is a variable or a negated variable.
- A clause is either a single literal or the disjunction of two or more literals.
 - P , $P \vee \neg P$, and $P \vee \neg Q \vee R \vee S$ are clauses.
 - $\neg(R \vee S)$ and $P \rightarrow \neg Q$ are not clauses.
- A wff is in conjunctive normal form iff it is either a single clause or the conjunction of two or more clauses.
 - $(P \vee \neg Q \vee R \vee S) \wedge (\neg P \vee \neg R)$ is in cnf
 - $(P \wedge \neg Q \wedge R \wedge S) \vee (\neg P \wedge \neg R)$ is not in cnf

Resolution is valid

P	A	B	$(P \vee A)$	\wedge	$(\neg P \vee B)$	\Rightarrow	$A \vee B$
T	T	T	T	T	F	T	T
T	T	F	T	F	F	T	T
T	F	T	T	T	F	T	T
T	F	F	T	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	T	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	F	F	T	T	T
F	F	F	F	F	T	T	F

Resolution algorithm

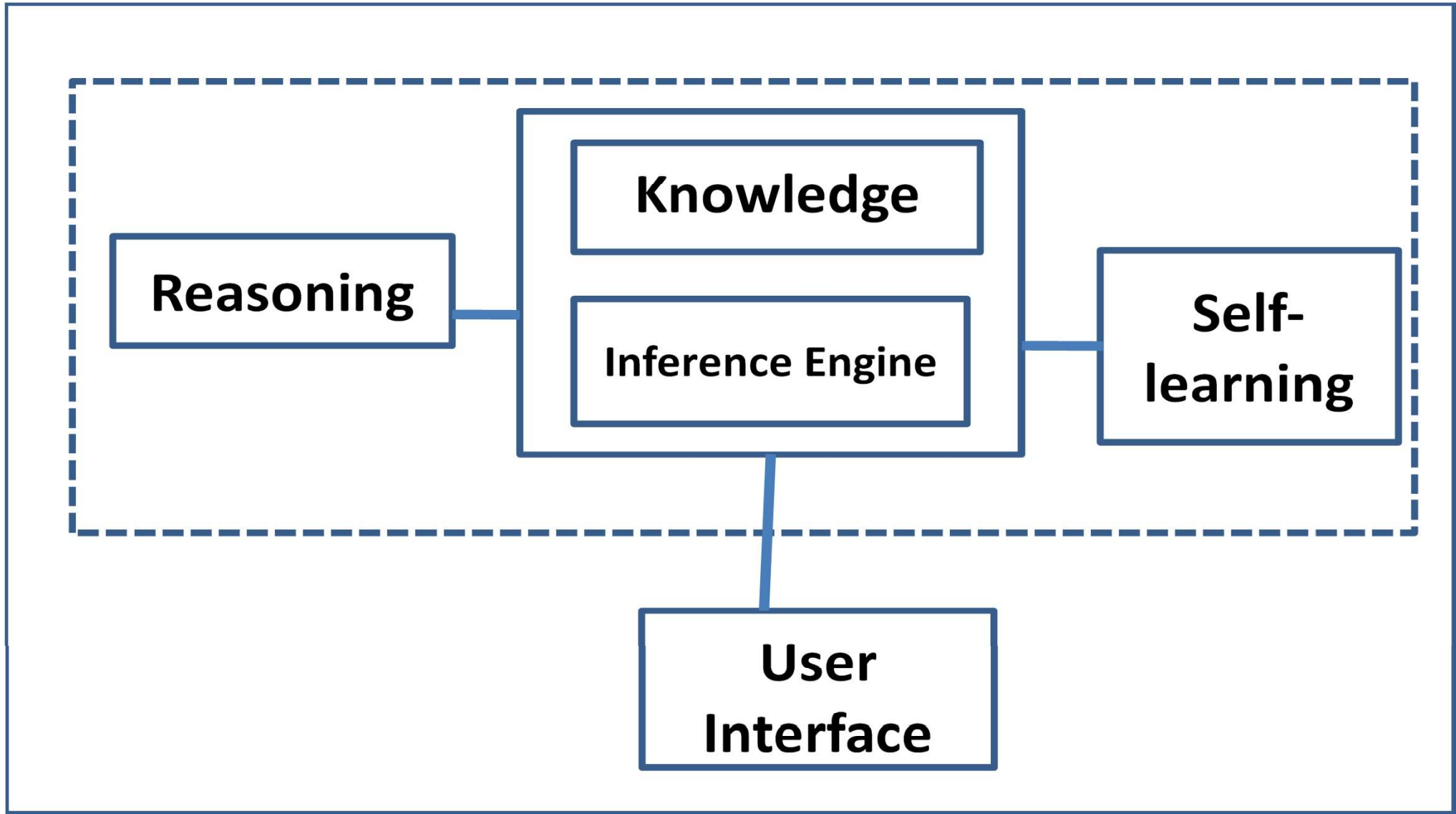
- Resolution works by using the principle of proof by contradiction.
- Negate the conclusion so as to find the conclusion.
- Apply the resolution rule to the resulting clauses.
- Each clause contains complementary literals.
- They are resolved and produce 2 new clause and they are be added to the set of facts if they are not already exist.
- This process continues until any one of the following occur:
 - No more new clauses that can be added
 - An application of the resolution rule derives the empty clause
- An empty clause shows that the negation of the conclusion is a complete contradiction, hence the negation of the conclusion is invalid or false or the assertion is completely valid or true.

Knowledgebase systems

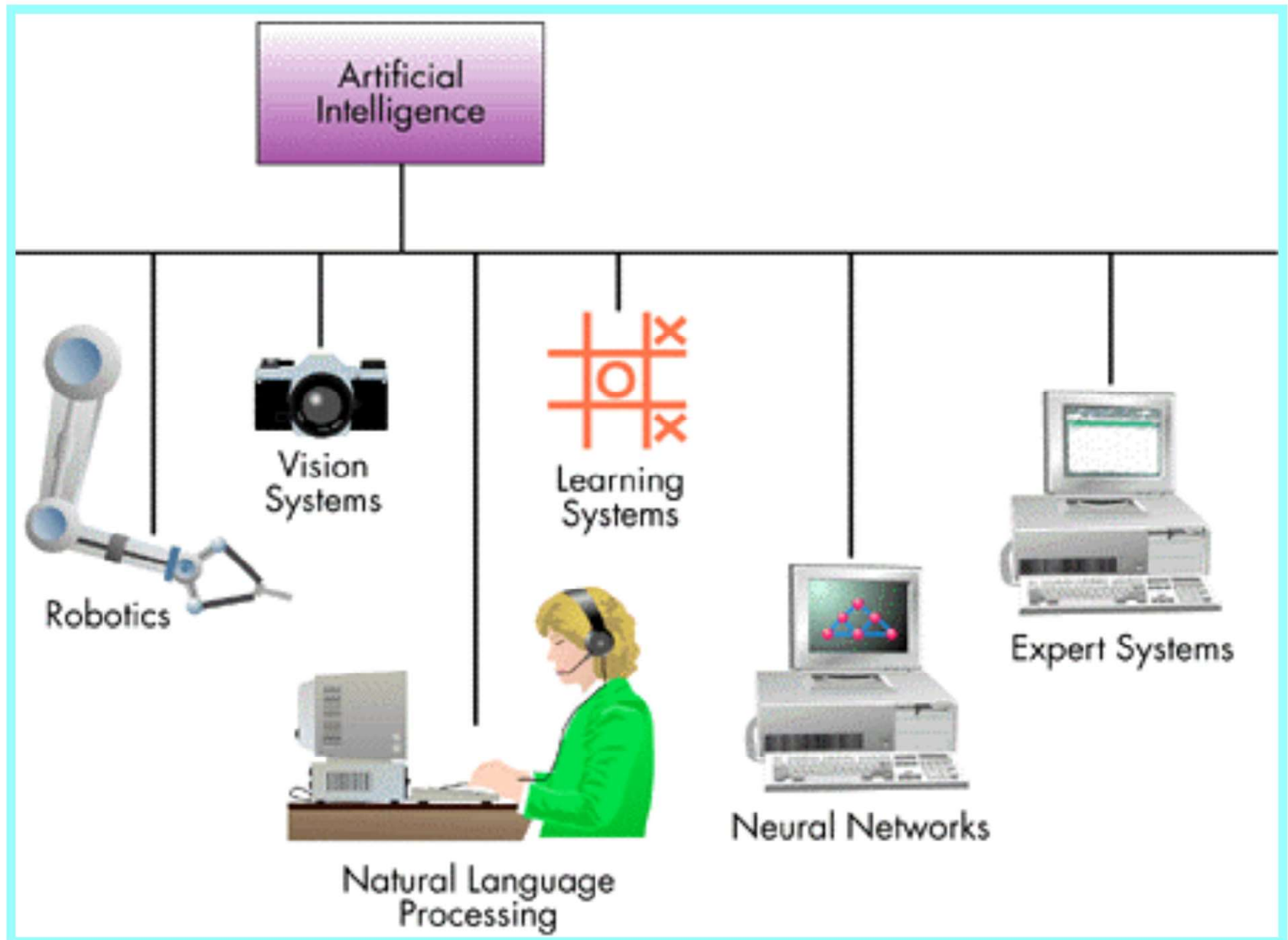
- A knowledgebase system is a program that uses AI to solve problems within a specialized domain that ordinarily requires human expertise.
- Typical tasks of expert systems include classification, diagnosis, monitoring, design, scheduling and planning for specialized tasks.
- Knowledgebase is a more general than expert system



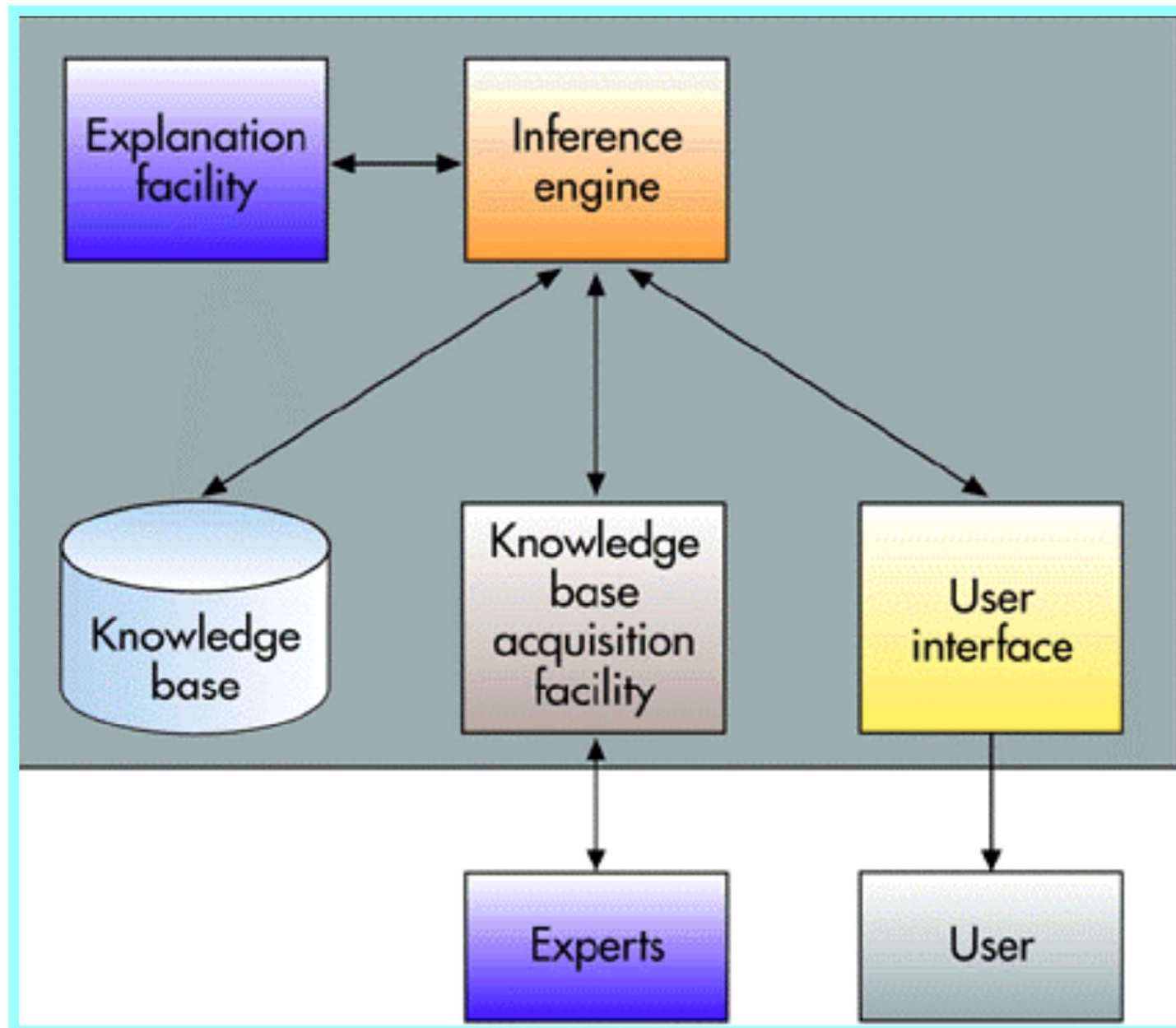
Structure of a knowledge based system



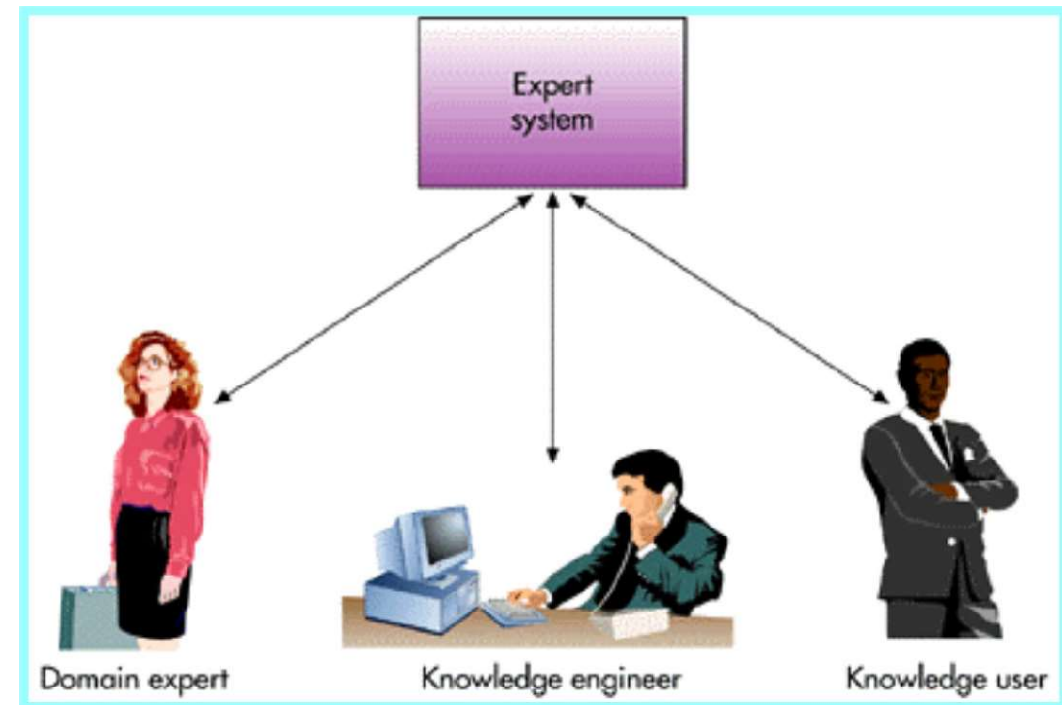
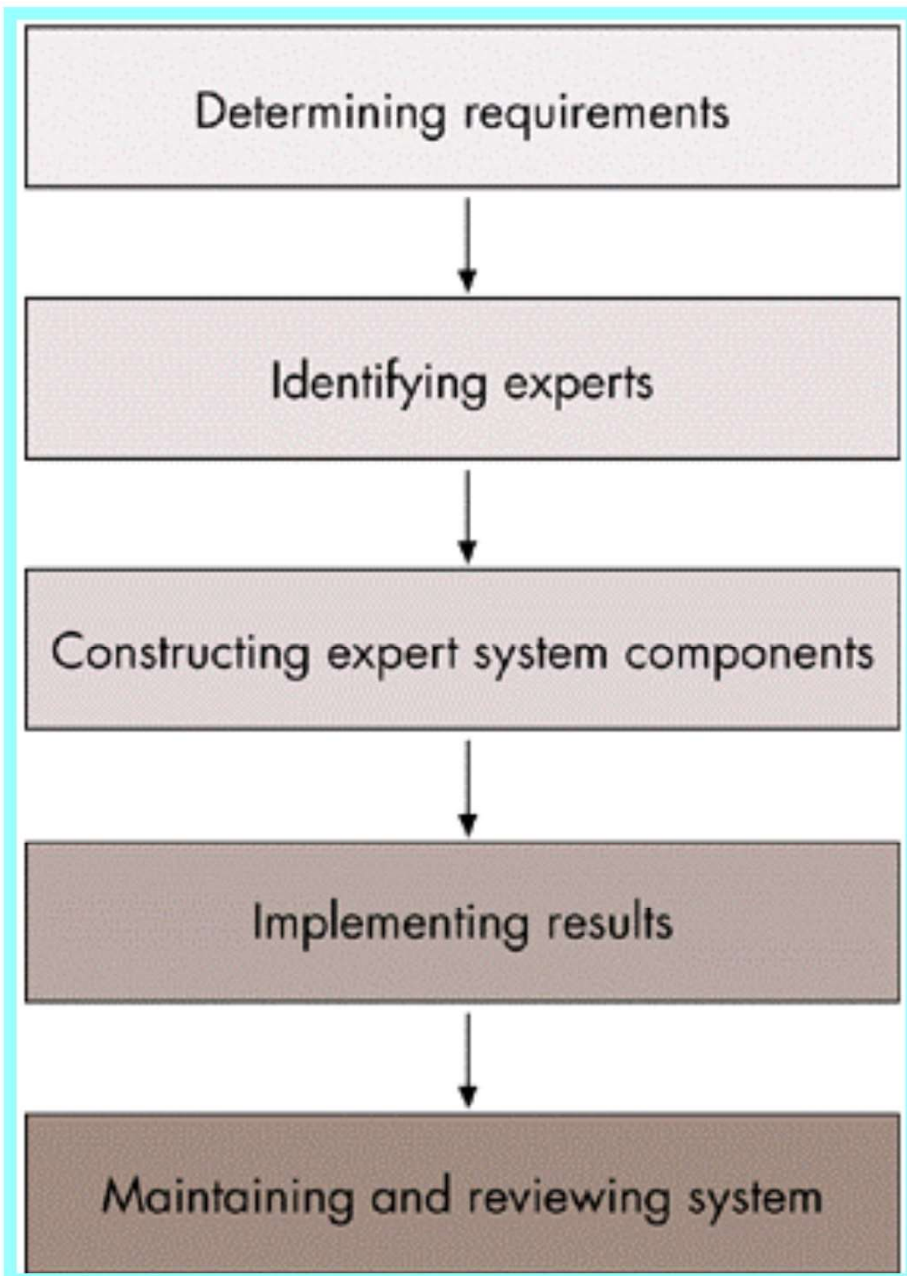
Recap of artificial intelligence



Components of expert systems

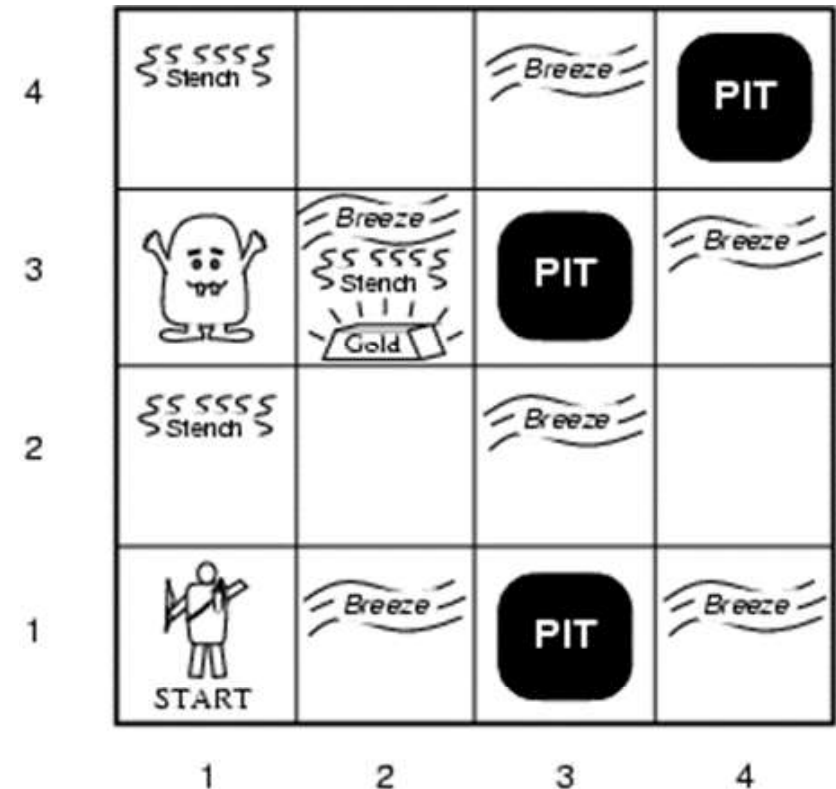


Expert systems development



Wumpus world

- Performance measure
 - gold +1000,
 - death -1000 (falling into a pit or being eaten by the wumpus)
 - -1 per step, -10 for using the arrow
- Environment
 - Squares adjacent to wumpus are smelly
 - Squares adjacent to pit are breezy
 - Glitter iff gold is in the same square
 - Shooting kills wumpus if you are facing it
 - Shooting uses up the only arrow
 - Grabbing picks up gold if in same square
 - Releasing drops the gold in same square
- Sensors: Stench, Breeze, Glitter, Bump, Scream
- Actuators: Left turn, Right turn, Forward, Grab, Release, Shoot



Logic

- Knowledge bases consist of sentences in a formal language
- Syntax: Sentences are well formed
- Semantics
- The “meaning” of the sentence.
 - *The truth of each sentence with respect to each possible world (model)*

A simple knowledgebase

$B_{1,1}$	$B_{2,1}$	$P_{1,1}$	$P_{1,2}$	$P_{2,1}$	$P_{2,2}$	$P_{3,1}$	KB	α_1
<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>
<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>
<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<u><i>true</i></u>	<u><i>true</i></u>
<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<u><i>true</i></u>	<u><i>true</i></u>
<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<u><i>true</i></u>	<u><i>true</i></u>
<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>true</i>
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>true</i>	<i>false</i>	<i>false</i>

Exploring the Wumpus world

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1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2
OK			
1,1 A OK	2,1 OK	3,1	4,1

1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
1,3	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2	2,2	3,2	4,2
OK	P?		
1,1 V OK	2,1 A B OK	3,1 P?	4,1

1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
1,3 W!	2,3	3,3	4,3
1,2 A S OK	2,2 OK	3,2	4,2
1,1 V OK	2,1 V B OK	3,1 P?	4,1

1,4	2,4	3,4	4,4
1,3 W!	2,3 OK	3,3	4,3
1,2 V S OK	2,2 A OK	3,2 OK	4,2
1,1 V OK	2,1 V B OK	3,1 P!	4,1

Semantic net

- A semantic net is a labeled directed graph, where each node represents an object (a proposition), and each link represents a relationship between two objects.
- Semantic nets represent propositional information.
- Relations between propositions are of primary interest because they provide the basic structure for organizing knowledge.
- Some important relations are:
 - “IS-A” (is an instance of). Refers to a member of a **class**, where a class is a group of objects with one or more common attributes (properties). For example, “Tom IS-A bird”.
 - “A-KIND-OF”. Relates one class to another, for example “Birds are A-KIND-OF animals”.
 - “HAS-A”. Relates attributes to objects, for example “Mary HAS-A cat”.
 - “CAUSE”. Expresses a causal relationship, for example “Fire CAUSES smoke”.

Inference in semantic networks

- Find relationships between pairs of words
 - Search graphs outward from each word in a breath-first fashion
 - Search for a common concept or intersection node
 - The path between the two given words passing by this intersection node is the relationship being looked for

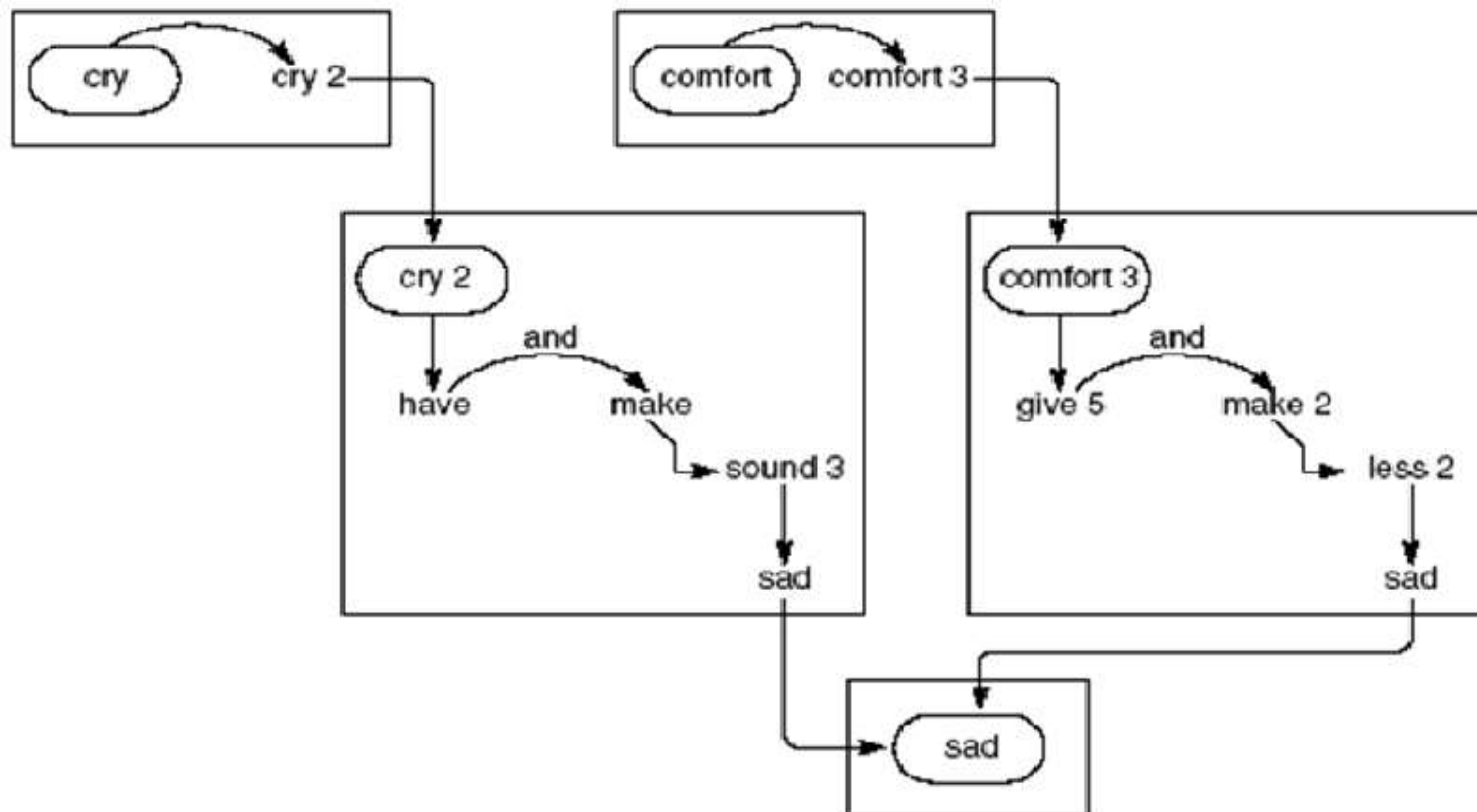


Fig. Find the relationship (intersection path) between “cry” and “comfort”

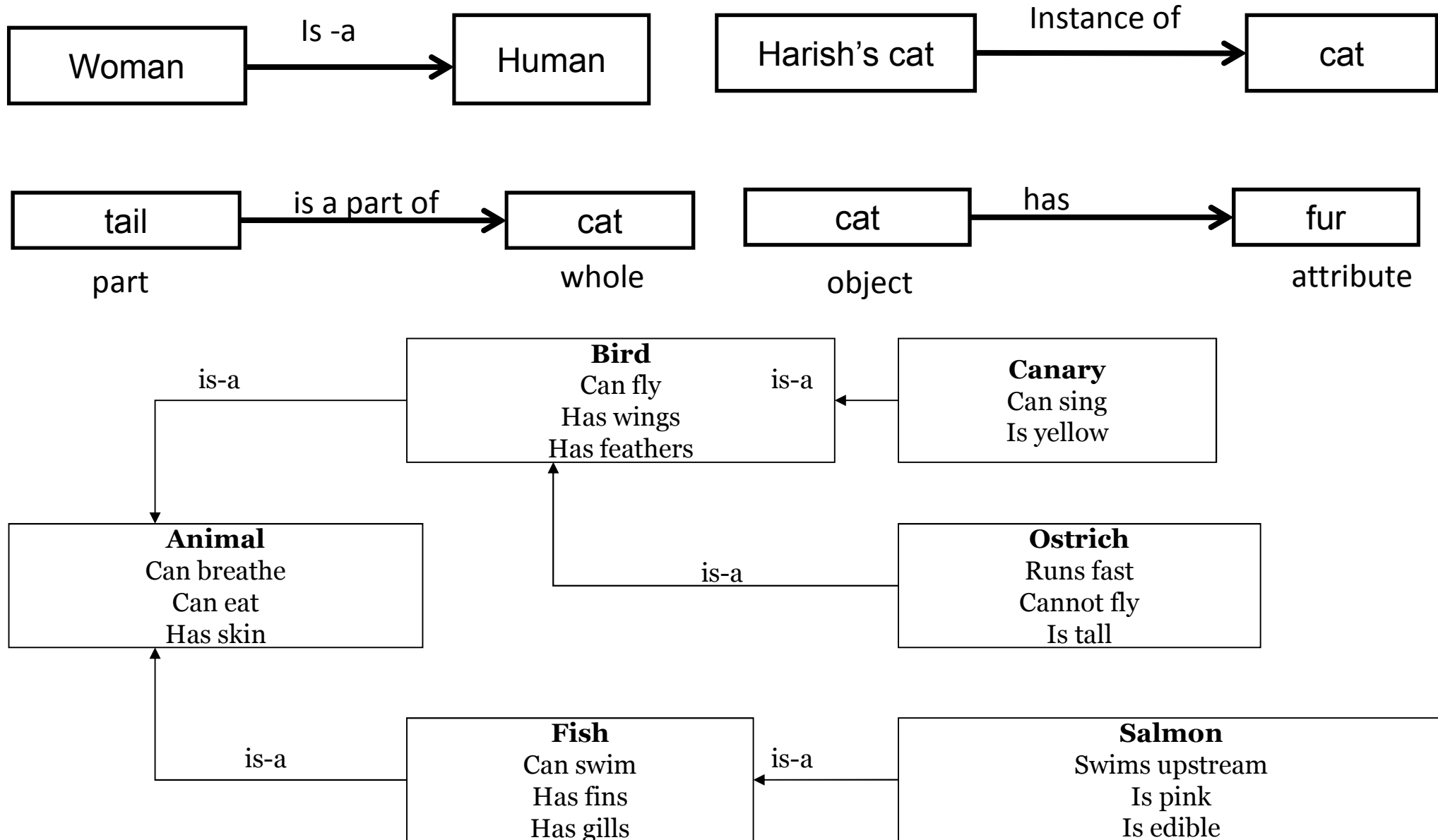
Semantic networks: Types and components



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- Six types of semantic networks are:
 - Definitional network
 - Assertional network
 - Implicational network
 - Executable network
 - Learning network
 - Hybrid network
- Semantic network components
 - Lexical component
 - Structural components
 - Semantic component
 - Procedural part

Types of relationships in semantic network

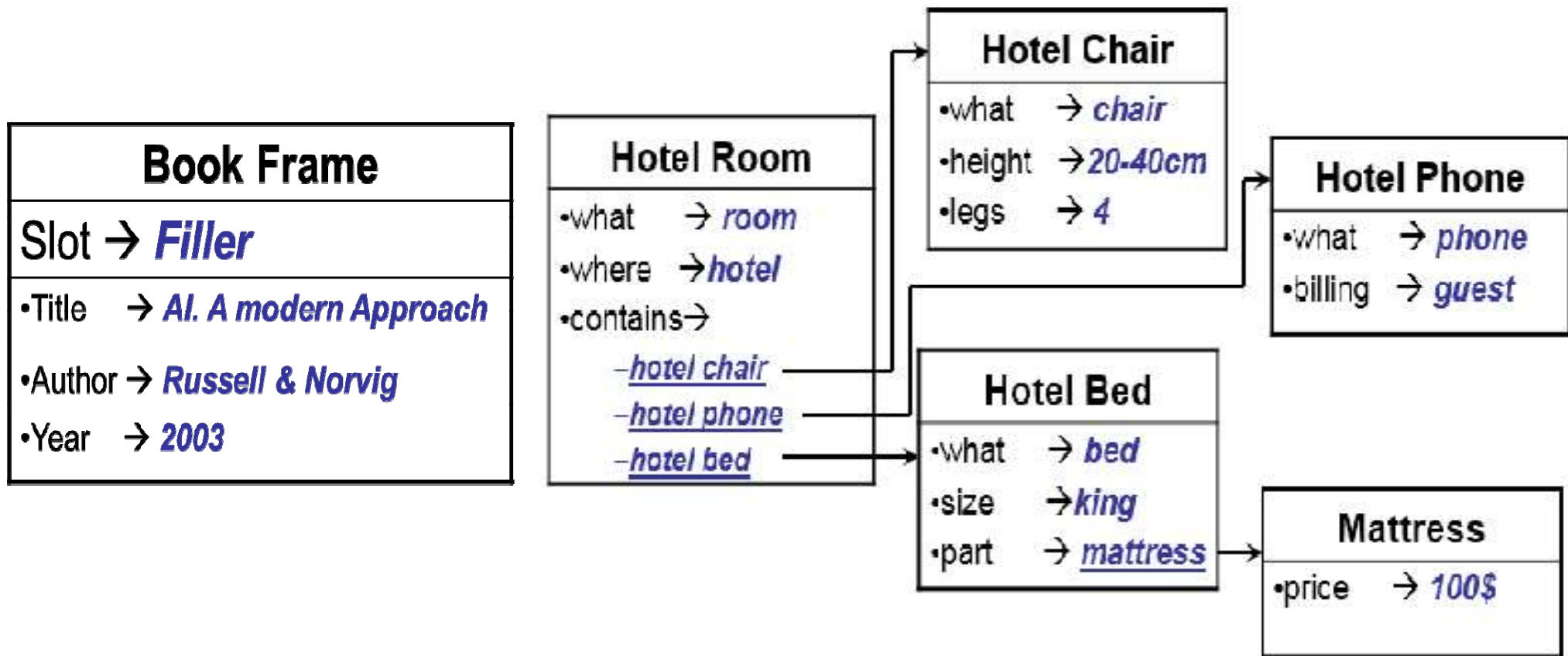


Frames

- Deviced by Marvin Minsky, 1974.
- Incorporates certain valuable human thinking characteristics:
 - Expectations, assumptions, stereotypes. Exceptions. Fuzzy boundaries between classes.
- The essence of this form of knowledge representation is **typicality**, with exceptions, rather than **definition**.
- The idea of **frame hierarchies** is very similar to the idea of **class hierarchies** found in object-orientated programming.
- A frame system is a hierarchy of frames
- Each frame has:
 - a name.
 - slots: these are the properties of the entity that has the name, and they have values. A particular value may be:
 - a default value
 - an inherited value from a higher frame
 - a procedure, called a daemon, to find a value
 - a specific value, which might represent an exception.

Frames: Some examples

- The three components of a frame include:
 - frame name; attributes (slots); values (fillers: list of values, range, string, etc.)



Non-monotonic logic

- Monotonic: if $KB1 \models \alpha$, then $KB2 \models \alpha$ for any $KB1 \subseteq KB2$.
- Meaning new facts can only add to early conclusions not contradict them.
- Non-monotonic: New facts can change our conclusions.
- If we know tweety is a bird –we conclude it flies.
- If we find out that tweety is an ostrich we conclude it don't flies.
- A logic is non-monotonic if some conclusions can be invalidated by adding more knowledge.
- The logic of definite clauses with negation as failure is non-monotonic.
- Non-monotonic reasoning is useful for representing defaults.
- A default is a rule that can be used unless it overridden by an exception.
 - For example, to say that b is normally true if c is true, a knowledge base designer can write a rule of the form
 - $b \leftarrow c \wedge \sim aba$.
- Non – monotonic systems require more storage space as well as more processing time than monotonic systems.

Circumscription

- Circumscription is a powerful non-monotonic formalism created by John McCarthy(1977,1980), generalized (in1984)
- Independently explored by many researchers
- It is the most fascinating and the most controversial of all the formal approaches to non monotonic reasoning
- Extension: A predicate denoted by an expression U will be called extension of U.
- For example if $U = \text{Bird}$ (unary constant predicate) and $D = \text{All individuals}$. Then the extension of U is a subset of D (intuitively $D = \text{All birds}$).
- Circumscription allows us to formalize non-monotonic reasoning directly in the language of classic logic.
- It is always the task of the user to specify which predicates to be minimized. Circumscription provides a general method for it.
- Circumscription is based on syntactic manipulations.

Default logic

- Default Logic is a Non-Monotonic Logic proposed by Raymond Reiter to formalize reasoning with default assumptions.
- Standard logic can only express that something is true or that something is false.
- This is a problem because reasoning often involves facts that are true in the majority of cases but not always.
- It mainly aims at formalizing default inference rules without stating all the exceptions.
 - Example : “Birds typically fly” vs “All birds fly”
 - Exceptions – Penguins, Ostriches
- Syntax of Default Logic
- A default theory is a pair $\langle D, W \rangle$
 - W is a set of logical formulae, called the background theory, that formalize the facts that are known for sure.