Lectures 14 and 15 (Week 9) Advanced Reasoning with FOL

COMP24412: Symbolic Al

Giles Reger

March 2020

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This Week

Going from formulas to clauses

Organisation saturation using the Given Clause Algorithm

A more optimal Ordered Resolution

Soundness and Completeness of (Ordered) Resolution

More optimisations in preprocessing and proof search

How to use Vampire

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Aim and Learning Outcomes

The aim of these two lectures is to:

Understand how we can efficiently check entailments for general first-order knowledge bases

Learning Outcomes

By the end you will be able to:

- Translate an arbitary first-order formulas to a set of clauses
- Recall and describe key terminology (e.g. clause, saturation, ...)
- Oescribe (with examples) the given clause algorithm for saturation
- Explain and apply <u>ordered</u> resolution
- Describe why ordered resolution is sound and complete
- Use Vampire to check entailments

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Quick Recap

A literal is an an atom or its negation. A clause is a disjunction of literals. Clauses are implicitly universally quantified.

Resolution works on clauses

$$\frac{\neg A \lor B \qquad C \lor D}{(B \lor D)\theta} \quad \theta = mgu(A, C)$$

Is sound as the conclusion is true in any model of the premises.

Before applying resolution we need to name-apart the premises

We will use resolution for refutational based reasoning.

Recall $\Gamma \models \phi$ if and only if $\Gamma \cup \{\neg \phi\} \models \mathit{false}$. We will saturate $\Gamma \cup \{\neg \phi\}$ until there is nothing left to add or we have derived false . (this doesn't necessarily terminate as FOL is semi-decidable).

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Are these two clauses consistent?

$$p(x, a)$$
 $\neg p(b, x)$

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Equivalent to
$$(\forall x.p(x,a)) \land (\forall y.p(b,y))$$
 i.e. clauses $p(x,a)$ and $\neg p(b,y)$

Hidden rule: Naming Apart.

When unifying literals from two different clauses you should first rename variables so that the literals do not share literals.

Sometimes I do this implicitly e.g. in p(x) and $\neg p(x)$ we should rename to p(x) and $\neg p(y)$ and then apply $\{x \mapsto y\}$ but that's tedious.

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An aside about terminology: Theorem Proving

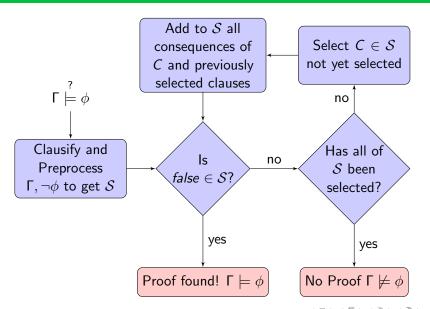
What is this Theorem Proving?

It is a subfield of automated reasoning that focuses on finding proofs of entailment.

The terminology is a bit different due to roots in mathematical logic.

What we are referring to as a knowledge base is referred to as a <u>theory</u> and any statement entailed by a theory is a <u>theorem</u> of that theory, hence theorem proving.

Architecture of a (Saturation-Based) Theorem Prover



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Saturation Based Reasoning

To decide $\Gamma \models \varphi$ we are going to follow the below steps

We split $\mathcal S$ into two parts to keep track of selected and not selected.

- 1. Let $NotDone = \Gamma \cup \{\neg \varphi\}$ and Done be an empty set of clauses
- 2. Transform NotDone into clauses
- 3. If NotDone contains false then return valid
- 4. Select a clause C from NotDone
- 5. Perform all inferences (e.g. resolution) between *C* and all clauses in *Done* putting any (useful) *new* children in *NotDone*
- 6. Move C to Done
- 7. If *NotDone* is not empty stop go to 3
- 8. return not valid



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Transformation to Clausal Form

To go from general formula to set of clauses we're going to go through the following steps

- 1. Rectify the formula
- 2. Transform to Negation Normal Form
- 3. Eliminate quantifiers
- 4. Transform into conjunctive normal form
- 5. Eliminate equality

At any stage we might simplify using rules about *true* and *false*, e.g. *false* $\land \phi = \textit{false}$, and remove tautologies, e.g. $p \lor p$.

Rectification

(Recall point in Week 7 about renaming variables in quantified formulas)

A formula is rectified if each quantifier binds a different variable and all bound variables are distinct from free ones.

To rectify a formula we identify any name clashes, pick one and rename it consistently. It is important to work out which variables are in the scope of a quantifier e.g.

$$\forall x.(p(x) \lor \exists x.r(x))$$
 becomes $\forall x(p(x) \lor \exists y.r(y))$

To automate this we typically rename bound variables starting with x_0 etc.

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Negation Normal Form

Apply rules in a completely deterministic syntactically-guided way

$$\neg(F_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge F_{n}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \neg F_{1} \vee \ldots \vee \neg F_{n} \\
\neg(F_{1} \vee \ldots \vee F_{n}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \neg F_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge \neg F_{n} \\
F_{1} \rightarrow F_{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \neg F_{1} \vee F_{2} \\
\neg \neg F \quad \Rightarrow \quad F \\
\neg \forall x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}F \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \neg F \\
\neg \exists x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}F \quad \Rightarrow \quad \forall x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \neg F \\
\neg(F_{1} \leftrightarrow F_{2}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad F_{1} \otimes F_{2} \\
\neg(F_{1} \otimes F_{2}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad F_{1} \leftrightarrow F_{2} \\
F_{1} \leftrightarrow F_{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (F_{1} \rightarrow F_{2}) \wedge (F_{2} \rightarrow F_{1}); \\
F_{1} \otimes F_{2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (F_{1} \vee F_{2}) \wedge (\neg F_{1} \vee \neg F_{2}).$$

Where \otimes is exclusive or. Can get an exponential increase in size.

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Examples

Let's do these by hand and then later see what Vampire does.

$$(\forall x.p(x)) \to (\exists x.p(x))$$
$$(\forall x.(p(x) \lor q(x)) \leftrightarrow (\neg \exists x.(\neg p(x) \land \neg q(x)))$$
$$\forall x, y, z.((f(x) = y \land f(x) = z) \to y = z)$$
$$\forall x.((\exists y.p(x,y)) \to q(x)) \land p(a,b) \land \neg \exists x.q(x)$$

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There is a best kind of pizza

$$\exists x. \forall y. ((\textit{pizza}(x) \land \textit{pizza}(y) \land x \neq y) \rightarrow \textit{better}(x,y))$$

There are two different people who live in the same house

$$\exists x. \exists y. \exists z. (x \neq y \land lives_in(x, z) \land lives_in(y, z))$$

Everybody loves somebody

$$\forall x. \exists y. loves(x, y)$$

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Everybody loves somebody $\forall x. \exists y. loves(x, y)$

Let \mathcal{I} be some interpretation. If $\mathcal{I}(\exists x.\phi[x])$ is true then there must be some domain constant d such that $\mathcal{I}(\phi[d])$ is true.

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Let a be a fresh constant symbol (a new name for the object that has to exist). As it is fresh we can freely let $\mathcal{I}(a) = d$. (This requires the Axiom of Choice)

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Let \mathcal{I} be some interpretation. If $\mathcal{I}(\forall x.\exists y.\phi[x,y])$ is true then for every domain constant d_1 there must be some other domain constant d_2 such that $\mathcal{I}(\phi[d_1,d_2])$ is true. But how do we find d_2 given d_1 ?

Let f be a fresh function symbol whose interpretation can be made to select the necessary domain constant.

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$$\forall x.loves(x, f(x))$$

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Dealing with Universal Quantifiers

Forget about them

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Skolemisation

This process is called Skolemisation and the new symbols we introduce are called Skolem constants or Skolem functions.

The rules are simply

$$\forall x_1, \dots, x_n F \Rightarrow F$$

$$\exists x_1, \dots, x_n F \Rightarrow F\{x_1 \mapsto f_1(y_1, \dots, y_m), \dots, x_n \mapsto f_n(y_1, \dots, y_m)\},\$$

where f_i are fresh function symbols of the correct arrity and $y_1, \ldots y_m$ are the free variables of F e.g. they are the things universally quantified in the larger scope.

Remember that Skolem constants/functions act as witnesses for something that we know has to exist for the formula to be true.

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Do these two formulas have the same models?

$$\exists x. \forall y. p(x, y) \qquad \forall y. p(a, y)$$

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$$\exists x. \forall y. p(x, y) \qquad \forall y. p(a, y)$$

No - the first one does not need to interpret a

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Do these two formulas have the same models?

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Do the formulas both have models?

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Do the formulas both have models?

Yes - there's no negation, just make everything true

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Do the formulas both have models?

Yes - there's no negation, just make everything true

When we introduce new symbols we preserve satisfiability (the existence of models) not validity (the same models).

However, most transformations are stronger than this and preserve models on the initial signature.

CNF Transformation

CNF stands for Clausal Normal Form (or Conjunctive Normal Form, similar but different)

Now the only connectives left should be \land and \lor and we need to push the \lor symbols under the \land symbols

The associated rule is

$$(A_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge A_m) \vee B_1 \vee \ldots \vee B_n \quad \Rightarrow \quad (A_1 \vee B_1 \vee \ldots \vee B_n) \quad \wedge \\ \qquad \qquad \qquad (A_m \vee B_1 \vee \ldots \vee B_n).$$

This can lead to exponential growth (see optimisation in a bit).

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Eliminating Equality

At the moment we're just dealing with the Resolution Calculus. Next week I'll show you how to deal with equality natively but before we do this we need to get rid of equality.

As outlined in Week 7, we add a new equality predicate eg and add clauses capturing reflexivity, symmetry, and transitivity of equality:

$$\mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{x}) \qquad \neg \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}) \vee \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{y},\mathsf{x}) \qquad \neg \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{y}) \vee \neg \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{y},\mathsf{z})) \vee \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{x},\mathsf{z})$$

And clauses representing congruence of functions and predicates:

$$\neg \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{x}_1, \mathsf{y}_1) \lor \ldots \lor \neg \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{x}_\mathsf{n}, \mathsf{y}_\mathsf{n}) \lor \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{f}(\mathsf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathsf{x}_\mathsf{n}), \mathsf{f}(\mathsf{y}_1, \ldots, \mathsf{y}_\mathsf{n}))) \\ \neg \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{x}_1, \mathsf{y}_1) \lor \ldots \lor \neg \mathsf{eq}(\mathsf{x}_\mathsf{n}, \mathsf{y}_\mathsf{n}) \lor \neg \mathsf{p}(\mathsf{x}_1, \ldots, \mathsf{x}_\mathsf{n}) \lor \mathsf{p}(\mathsf{y}_1, \ldots, \mathsf{y}_\mathsf{n}))$$

for all functions f and predicates p of arity n

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Vampire

Automated theorem prover for first-order logic

Is a refutational saturation-based theorem prover implementing resolution

Very efficient/powerful (wins lots of competitions)

Used as a back-box solver in lots of other things (in academia and industry)

Available from https://vprover.github.io (and I'll provide a direct download link)

You will get to use Vampire in Coursework 3.

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TPTP

Language for describing first-order formulas in ASCII format.

```
See http://tptp.cs.miami.edu/~tptp/
```

For example

```
fof(one,axiom, ![X] : (happy(X) <=> (?[Y] : loves(X,Y)))).
fof(two,axiom, ![X] : (rich(X) => loves(X,money))).
fof(three,axiom, rich(giles)).
fof(goal,conjecture, happy(giles)).
```

Important - axiom for knowledge base, conjecture for goal and Vampire will do the negation for you.

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Looking at Vampire's clausification

Run

./vampire --mode clausify --equality_proxy RSTC problem

on problem file problem

It will sometimes do a lot more than what we've discussed above.

Vampire performs lots of optimisations e.g. naming subformulas, removing pure symbols, or unused definitions.

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Examples

Let's do these by hand and then see what Vampire does.

$$(\forall x.p(x)) \to (\exists x.p(x))$$
$$(\forall x.(p(x) \lor q(x)) \leftrightarrow (\neg \exists x.(\neg p(x) \land \neg q(x)))$$
$$\forall x, y, z.((f(x) = y \land f(x) = z) \to y = z)$$
$$\forall x.((\exists y.p(x,y)) \to q(x)) \land p(a,b) \land \neg \exists x.q(x)$$

Also, which of the above statements are valid or inconsistent? How do we ask Vampire?

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Optimisation (subformula naming)

To go from general formula to set of clauses we're going to go through the following steps

- 1. Rectify the formula
- 2a. Transform to Equivalence Negation Form
- 2b. (Optimisation) Apply naming of subformulas
- 2c. Transform to Negation Normal Form
 - 3. Eliminate quantifiers
 - 4. Transform into conjunctive normal form
 - 5. Eliminate equality

We first transform into ENF (halfway to NNF) to allow us to perform the naming optimisation

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Equivalence Negation Form

Push negations in but preserve equivalences e.g. drop last two rules of NNF transformation.

$$\neg(F_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge F_n) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \neg F_1 \vee \ldots \vee \neg F_n \\
\neg(F_1 \vee \ldots \vee F_n) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \neg F_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge \neg F_n \\
F_1 \to F_2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \neg F_1 \vee F_2 \\
\neg \neg F \quad \Rightarrow \quad F \\
\neg \forall x_1, \ldots, x_n F \quad \Rightarrow \quad \exists x_1, \ldots, x_n \neg F \\
\neg \exists x_1, \ldots, x_n F \quad \Rightarrow \quad \forall x_1, \ldots, x_n \neg F \\
\neg (F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2) \quad \Rightarrow \quad F_1 \otimes F_2 \\
\neg (F_1 \otimes F_2) \quad \Rightarrow \quad F_1 \leftrightarrow F_2$$

Only get a linear increase in size.

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Subformula Naming

We want to get to a conjunction of disjunctions but this process can 'blow up' in general e.g.

$$p(x, y) \leftrightarrow (q(x) \leftrightarrow (p(y, y) \leftrightarrow q(y))),$$

is equivalent to

$$p(x,y) \lor \neg q(y) \lor \neg p(y,y) \lor \neg q(x))$$

$$p(x,y) \lor q(y) \lor p(y,y) \lor \neg q(x))$$

$$p(x,y) \lor p(y,y) \lor \neg q(y) \lor q(x))$$

$$p(x,y) \lor q(y) \lor \neg p(y,y) \lor q(x))$$

$$q(x) \lor \neg q(y) \lor \neg p(y,y) \lor \neg p(x,y))$$

$$q(x) \lor q(y) \lor p(y,y) \lor \neg p(x,y))$$

$$p(y,y) \lor \neg q(y) \lor \neg q(x) \lor \neg p(x,y)$$

$$q(y) \lor \neg p(y,y) \lor \neg q(x) \lor \neg p(x,y)$$

Subformula Naming

We can replace

$$p(x,y) \leftrightarrow (q(x) \leftrightarrow (p(y,y) \leftrightarrow q(y))),$$

by

$$p(x,y) \leftrightarrow (q(x) \leftrightarrow n(y));$$

$$n(y) \leftrightarrow (p(y,y) \leftrightarrow q(y)).$$

to get the same number of clauses but each clause is simpler (better for reasoning).

In the case when the subformula $F(x_1,\ldots,x_k)$ has only positive occurrences in G, one can use the axiom $n(x_1,\ldots,x_k)\to F(x_1,\ldots,x_k)$ instead of $n(x_1,\ldots,x_k)\leftrightarrow F(x_1,\ldots,x_k)$. This will lead to fewer clauses.

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Subformula Naming

Assigning a name n to $F_2 \leftrightarrow F_3$ yields two formulas

$$F_1 \leftrightarrow n; \\ n \leftrightarrow (F_2 \leftrightarrow F_3),$$

where the second formula has the same structure as the original formula $F_1 \leftrightarrow (F_2 \leftrightarrow F_3)$.

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Vampire uses a heuristic that that estimates how many clauses a subformula will produce and names that subformula if that number is above a certain threshold.

Naming can not increase the number of clauses introduced but does not always reduce.

For those of you who took Logic and Modelling. The idea is the same as the optimised structural transformation in the propositional case but we don't always apply it as the cost on reasoning is much higher here.

Removing Unnecessary Things

Is this Knowledge Base consistent?

```
fof(a1, axiom, ![X] : (winner(X) \iff ?[Y] : wins(Y) = X)).
fof(a2, axiom, ![X] : (wins(X) = position(X,first))).
fof(a3, axiom, ![X] : (takes_part(X,Y) | ~takes_part(X,Y))).
fof(a4, axiom, ![X,Y] : ((wins(X) = Y) \Rightarrow enters(X,Y))).
```

Removing Unnecessary Things

Is this Knowledge Base consistent?

```
fof(a1, axiom, ![X] : (winner(X) <=> ?[Y] : wins(Y) = X)).

fof(a2, axiom, ![X] : (wins(X) = position(X,first))).

fof(a3, axiom, ![X] : (takes_part(X,Y) | ~takes_part(X,Y))).

fof(a4, axiom, ![X,Y] : ((wins(X) = Y) => enters(X,Y))).
```

We can remove

- Tautologies formulas that are true in every model
- Definitions of things that are unused
- References to predicates that are used with a single polarity as we know how to make this predicate true.

Try running vampire -explain updr and vampire -explain fde

Organisation Saturation

Now we have our problem as a set of clauses we need to see if it is consistent or not.

Recall, we do this by saturation.

This is similar to the forward-chaining algorithm but we want to avoid the problems with forward-chaining.

One way of doing this has already been to add the negation of the goal/query into the clause set, thus making the reasoning more goal-directed

The next thing to do is organise things as a best-first rather than breadth-first search.

Given Clause Algorithm

I've renamed things again! I use the term *active* and *passive* as these are the terms used within Vampire (for historic reasons).

```
input: Init: set of clauses;
var active, passive, unprocessed: set of clauses;
var given, new: clause;
active := \emptyset; unprocessed := Init;
loop
  while unprocessed \neq \emptyset
     new := pop(unprocessed);
     if new = false then return unsatisfiable;
     add new to passive
  if passive = \emptyset then return satisfiable or unknown
  given := select(passive);
                                                        (* clause selection *)
  move given from passive to active;
  unprocessed :=infer(given, active);
                                                  (* generating inferences *)
```

Clause Selection and Fairness

What if we infinitely delay performing an inference?

We lose the partial decidability

A saturation process is fair if no clause is delayed infinitely often

Two fair clause selection strategies:

- First-in first-out. This is the same as forward-chaining and whilst fair is not very efficient
- Smallest (in number of symbols) first (there are a finite number of terms with at most k symbols)
 The intuition is that smaller clauses are 'closer' to the empty clause

Vampire uses an age-weight ratio, alternately selecting based on age (first-in first-out) and weight (number of symbols).

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Complete Example

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \forall x. (happy(x) \leftrightarrow \exists y. (loves(x,y))) \\ \forall x. (rich(x) \rightarrow loves(X, money)) \\ rich(giles) \end{array} \right\} \vDash happy(giles)$$

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Redundancy

The current setup has two kinds of redundancy

Firstly, we are performing more inferences than we <u>need</u> to

Secondly, some clauses may not be needed (or useful)

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Redundancy

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We will introduce an ordered version of resolution that removes some unnecessary inferences

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Redundancy

The current setup has two kinds of redundancy

Firstly, we are performing more inferences than we <u>need</u> to

We will introduce an ordered version of resolution that removes some unnecessary inferences

Secondly, some clauses may not be needed (or useful)

We will define a general notion of redundant clause and a specific process that allows us to remove redundant clauses

Demonstrating the need for Ordered Resolution

Consider this knowledge base

```
1 rich(giles)

2 famous(giles)

3 \neg happy(giles)

4 \neg rich(X) \lor \neg famous(X) \lor happy(X)
```

If we select clauses 1-3 first we don't do any inferences but when we select 4 we can do 3 inferences to produce

```
    5 ¬famous(giles) ∨ happy(giles)
    6 ¬rich(giles) ∨ ∨ happy(giles)
    7 ¬rich(giles) ∨ ¬famous(giles)
```

Selecting 5-6 in turn and performing inferences gives us 6 new unit clauses. Selecting the first of these allows us to find a contradiction.

Selecting in a different order would have found contradiction earlier. But we also didn't need all of 5-7 to find a proof.

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Introducing Ordered Resolution with Selection

We introduce a refinement of resolution called ordered resolution (with selection) which is defined as

$$\frac{\mathit{l}_1 \lor C \qquad \neg \mathit{l}_1 \lor D}{C \lor D}$$

where l_1 is selected in $l_1 \vee C$ e.g. we only perform an inference using one literal in the given clause.

However, clearly in general this is incomplete e.g. we may select literals such that we stop ourselves from finding a proof. For example, consider

$$p \lor \underline{q}$$
 $\underline{p} \lor \neg q$ $\underline{\neg p} \lor q$ $\neg p \lor \underline{\neg q}$

where I have <u>underlined</u> selected literals. The clauses are inconsistent but performing inferences on selected literals produces tautologies.

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Literal Selection

How do we pick a good literal selection function?

Firstly, does incompleteness matter?

Secondly, how do we guarantee completeness?

Note: see my paper "Selecting the Selection" in IJCAR 2016 for a full coverage of this topic.

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Literal Selection

How do we pick a good literal selection function?

Firstly, does incompleteness matter?

Yes and no. Yes, it's important to know whether we're complete as we if we saturate we should know what this means. But no, if we can find a proof whilst being incomplete then it's still a proof - maybe being incomplete is faster!

Secondly, how do we guarantee completeness?

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Literal Selection

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Secondly, how do we guarantee completeness?

The idea is to have a selection strategy such that if we saturate we're guaranteed to have done all inferences that *matter*. We will do this by introducing a notion of ordering on literals and I will give an overview of how this fixes our problem afterwards.

Note: see my paper "Selecting the Selection" in IJCAR 2016 for a full coverage of this topic.

Orderings

A partial ordering (irreflexive, transitive) \succ is well-founded if there exist no infinite chains $a_0 \succ a_1 \succ a_2 \succ \dots$

An ordering \succ is monotonic if whenever $l \succ r$ then $s[l] \succ s[r]$

An ordering \succ is stable under substitutions if whenever $I \succ r$ then $I\theta \succ r\theta$

An ordering with all of the above is called a reduction ordering

An ordering \succ has the subterm property if r is a subterm of l then $l \succ r$

An ordering with all of the above is called a simplification ordering.

This properties matter for the proof of completeness later. As this isn't a theory-heavy course I'm not going to go into them any more or examine you on them.

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Let the number of (function or variable) symbols in a term be its weight given by a function w e.g. w(f(a, g(x))) = 4.

Let \succ_S be an ordering on function symbols. We define a total simplification ordering on ground terms such that $s \succ_G t$ if

- 1. w(s) > w(t), or
- 2. w(s) = w(t) and $s = f(s_1, \ldots, s_n)$ and $t = g(t_1, \ldots, t_m)$ and either
 - $f \succ_S g$, or
 - $s_i \succ_G t_i$ for some i and for all j < i, $s_j = t_j$

Why is this total? Why is it well-founded?

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 - $f \succ_S g$, or
 - $s_i \succ_G t_i$ for some i and for all j < i, $s_j = t_j$

Why is this total? Why is it well-founded?

Examples (given $f \succ_S g \succ_S h \succ_G a \succ_G b$):

$$f(a) \succ_G a$$
 $f(a) \succ_G h(a)$ $g(a, f(a)) \succ_G g(a, f(b))$

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We lift \succ_G to non-ground terms s and t such that $s \succ_N t$ if

- 1. For each variable x, the number of x in s is \geq that in t, and
- 2. Either $s \succ_G t$ or t = x and $s = f^n(x)$ for x > 0

Why do we need (1)?

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Why do we need (1)? Consider f(g(a), x) and f(x, x).

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Why do we need (1)? Consider f(g(a), x) and f(x, x). Why is this partial?

We lift \succ_G to non-ground terms s and t such that $s \succ_N t$ if

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Why do we need (1)? Consider f(g(a),x) and f(x,x). Why is this partial? Consider f(x) and f(b) where $a \succ_S b \succ_S c$

We lift \succ_G to non-ground terms s and t such that $s \succ_N t$ if

- 1. For each variable x, the number of x in s is \geq that in t, and
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Why do we need (1)? Consider f(g(a),x) and f(x,x). Why is this partial? Consider f(x) and f(b) where $a \succ_S b \succ_S c$

Examples (given $f \succ_S g \succ_S a$):

$$f(x) \succ_N g(x)$$
 $f(x) \succ_N x$ $g(x, f(y)) \succ_N g(x, a)$

What about g(x, y) and g(y, x)?

This ordering is \succ_{KBO} the Knuth-Bendix Ordering (KBO) used in Vampire

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Ordered Resolution

 \succ_{KBO} lifts to predicates directly (extend \succ_{S} to predicate symbols).

Lift \succ_{KBO} to literals: $\neg l \succ l$ for every atom l, treat = as biggest predicate.

A literal is maximal in a clause if there are no other literals greater than it. Due to partiality of the ordering they can be multiple maximal literals.

A selection function is well-behaved if it either selects (i) at least one negative literal, or (ii) all maximal literals. This ensures completeness.

Reminder: Ordered Resolution (with selection) is then

$$\frac{I_1 \vee C \qquad \neg I_2 \vee D}{(C \vee D)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

where l_1 and $\neg l_2$ are selected.

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Revisiting our Motivating Example

Consider this knowledge base

```
1 rich(giles)

2 famous(giles)

3 \neg happy(giles)

4 \neg rich(X) \lor \neg famous(X) \lor happy(X)
```

If we select clauses 1-3 first we don't do any inferences but when we select 4 we should select one literal and produce one conclusion e.g.

5
$$\neg rich(giles) \lor happy(giles)$$

then we select one literal again and produce one conclusion

6
$$\neg rich(giles)$$

and on the 7th step we find a contradiction without producing anything not needed for the proof.

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Missing Rule: Factoring

Usually we also have the (positive) factoring rule

$$\frac{C \vee I_1 \vee I_2}{(C \vee I_1)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

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Usually we also have the (positive) factoring rule

$$\frac{C \vee I_1 \vee I_2}{(C \vee I_1)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

which is required in some cases

- 1 $p(u) \lor p(f(u))$ 2 $\neg p(v) \lor p(f(w))$ 3 $\neg p(x) \lor \neg p(f(x))$

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1
$$p(u) \lor p(f(u))$$

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3 $\neg p(x) \lor \neg p(f(x))$

$$3 \neg p(x) \lor \neg p(f(x))$$

Resolvents

Usually we also have the (positive) factoring rule

$$\frac{C \vee I_1 \vee I_2}{(C \vee I_1)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

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2
$$\neg p(v) \lor p(f(w))$$

3 $\neg p(x) \lor \neg p(f(x))$

$$3 \neg p(x) \lor \neg p(f(x))$$

Resolvents

4
$$p(u) \vee p(f(w))$$
 $(1,2)$

Usually we also have the (positive) factoring rule

$$\frac{C \vee I_1 \vee I_2}{(C \vee I_1)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

which is required in some cases

1
$$p(u) \vee p(f(u))$$

$$2 \neg p(v) \lor p(f(w))$$

$$3 \neg p(x) \lor \neg p(f(x))$$

Resolvents

4
$$p(u) \lor p(f(w))$$
 (1,2)
5 $p(u) \lor \neg p(f(f(u)))$ (1,3)

$$5 \quad p(u) \vee \neg p(f(f(u))) \quad (1,3)$$

Usually we also have the (positive) factoring rule

$$\frac{C \vee I_1 \vee I_2}{(C \vee I_1)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

which is required in some cases

1
$$p(u) \vee p(f(u))$$

$$2 \quad \neg p(v) \lor p(f(w))$$

$$3 \neg p(x) \lor \neg p(f(x))$$

Resolvents

4
$$p(u) \lor p(f(w))$$
 (1,2)
5 $p(u) \lor \neg p(f(f(u)))$ (1,3)

5
$$p(u) \vee \neg p(f(f(u)))$$
 (1,3)

We're only going to get clauses with 2 literals.

However, we can factor (4) to p(f(w))

Resolving with (3) gives $\neg p(f(f(z)))$ then with p(f(w)) gives false

Recall

- A system is sound if it answers questions correctly
- A system is complete if it answers all question
- A system is refutationally complete if it answers all questions where the answer is no

If we consider our system as The Given Clause Algorithm with Resolution and Factoring then

Claim 1: Our System is Sound for consistency checking

Claim 2: Our System is Refutationaly Complete for consistency checking

Soundness

This means that we only derive *false* if the input set is inconsistent.

We can simply show that all conclusions of inference rules are true in the same models as their premises and we get soundness.

Factoring

$$\frac{C \vee I_1 \vee I_2}{(C \vee I_1)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

If $\mathcal{M} \vDash C$ then $\mathcal{M} \vDash C\theta$. If $\mathcal{M} \vDash \mathit{I}_1 \lor \mathit{I}_2$ and $\theta = \mathsf{mgu}(\mathit{I}_2,\mathit{I}_2)$ then $\mathcal{M} \vDash \mathit{I}_1\theta$

Resolution

$$\frac{I_1 \vee C \qquad \underline{\neg I_2} \vee D}{(C \vee D)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

If $\mathcal{M} \vDash I_1$ and $\mathcal{M} \vDash \neg I_1 \lor D$ then $\mathcal{M} \vDash D$. If $\mathcal{M} \vDash \neg I_1$ and $\mathcal{M} \vDash I_1 \lor C$ then $\mathcal{M} \vDash C$. Always $\mathcal{M} \vDash I_1 \lor I_2$ therefore $\mathcal{M} \vDash D \lor C$.

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Soundness

This means that we only derive *false* if the input set is inconsistent.

We can simply show that all conclusions of inference rules are true in the same models as their premises and we get soundness.

Factoring

$$\frac{C \vee I_1 \vee I_2}{(C \vee I_1)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(I_1, I_2)$$

If $\mathcal{M} \vDash C$ then $\mathcal{M} \vDash C\theta$. If $\mathcal{M} \vDash l_1 \lor l_2$ and $\theta = \mathsf{mgu}(l_2, l_2)$ then $\mathcal{M} \vDash l_1\theta$

Resolution

$$\frac{\underline{l_1} \vee C \qquad \underline{\neg l_2} \vee D}{(\underline{l_1} \vee C)\theta \qquad (\underline{\neg l_2} \vee D)\theta} \ \theta = \mathsf{mgu}(l_1, l_2) \qquad \frac{\underline{l_1} \vee C \qquad \underline{\neg l_1} \vee D}{C \vee D}$$

If $\mathcal{M} \vDash I_1$ and $\mathcal{M} \vDash \neg I_1 \lor D$ then $\mathcal{M} \vDash D$. If $\mathcal{M} \vDash \neg I_1$ and $\mathcal{M} \vDash I_1 \lor C$ then $\mathcal{M} \vDash C$. Always $\mathcal{M} \vDash I_1 \lor I_2$ therefore $\mathcal{M} \vDash D \lor C$.

Our Ordering Stratifies Ground Clauses

Lift \succ to clauses: $C \succ D$ if for every I in D/C there is a $I' \succ I$ in C/D

Example, given $p \succ q \succ r$

$$p \lor q \succ p \succ \neg q \lor r \succ q \lor r$$

≻ on ground clauses is total and well-founded

Let max(C) be the maximal literal in C, this exists and is unique

If $max(C) \succ max(D)$ then $C \succ D$

If max(C) = max(D) but max(C) is neg and max(D) pos then $C \succ D$

This gives a stratification of clause sets by maximal literal

←□ → ←□ → ← = → = →

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Model Construction

Idea:

- ullet Build up an interpretation ${\mathcal M}$ incrementally
- Look at clauses from smallest to largest
- If C is already true in I then carry on
- Otherwise, make the maximal literal in C true in I

We use \mathcal{M}_C for the interpretation after processing C and Δ_C for the new clauses produced by C. Then

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}} & = & \bigcup_{\mathcal{C} \succ \mathcal{D}} \Delta_{\mathcal{D}} \\ \Delta_{\mathcal{C}} & = & \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \{\mathit{I}\} & \mathit{if} \; \mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}} \not \vdash \mathcal{C} \; \mathit{and} \; \mathit{I} = \mathsf{max}(\mathcal{C}) \; \mathit{and} \; \mathit{I} \; \mathit{is} \; \mathit{pos} \\ \emptyset & \mathit{otherwise} \end{array} \right. \end{array}$$

If $\Delta_C = \{I\}$ we say that C is produces I and C is productive



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Example

Let
$$p_5 \succ p_4 \succ p_3 \succ p_2 \succ p_1 \succ p_0$$

clauses	$\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}$	Δ_{C}	Remark
$\neg p_0$	Ø	Ø	true in $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}$
$p_0 \vee p_1$	Ø	$\{p_1\}$	
$p_1 \lor p_2$	$\{p_1\}$	Ø	true in $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}$
$\neg p_1 \lor p_2$	$\{p_1\}$	$\{p_2\}$	
$\neg p_1 \lor p_3 \lor p_0$	$\{p_1,p_2\}$	$\{p_3\}$	
$\neg p_1 \lor p_4 \lor p_3 \lor p_0$	$\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$	Ø	true in $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}$
$\neg p_1 \lor \neg p_4 \lor p_3$	$\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$	Ø	true in $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{C}}$
$\neg p_4 \lor p_5$	$\{p_1, p_2, p_3\}$	$\{p_5\}$	

So
$$\mathcal{M} = \{p_1, p_2, p_3, p_5\}$$



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Completeness

If a set of clauses is saturated we can take its grounding and construct a model that makes all clauses true.

Therefore, if we saturate the set of clauses must be consistent

Due to fairness of clause selection, we will visit all consequences eventually.

Redundancy

A clause c is redundant with respect to a set of clauses S if there is a set $S' \subset S$ such that

$$S' \models c$$
 and for all c' in S' we have $c \succ c'$

The first part is clear, if c can be derived from S' then we do not need it.

The second part comes from our model construction argument as at any point in the construction we can only rely on smaller clauses.

The key redundancy check is subsumption. C subsumes B if $B = (C \lor D)\theta$ e.g. C is a generalisation of a subclause of B.

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Saturation Up to Redundancy

Given a set of clauses S and a set of inferences \mathcal{I} we say that S is saturated up to redundancy if there are no clauses c not in S such that c can be derived from S using \mathcal{I} and c is not redundant with respect to S.

Example 1

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \forall x. (happy(x) \leftrightarrow \exists y. (loves(x, y))) \\ \forall x. (rich(x) \rightarrow loves(x, money)) \\ rich(giles) \end{array} \right\} \vDash happy(giles)$$

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Example 2

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \forall x. (require(x) \rightarrow require(depend(x))) \\ depend(a) = b \\ depend(b) = c \\ require(a) \end{array} \right\} \vDash require(c)$$

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Summary

This week we have seen

- The theorem proving architecture
- Clausification
- Preprocessing optimisations
- The Given Clause Algorithm
- Ordered Resolution
- Soundness and Completeness arguments

Next week:

- Reasoning with FOL with Equality
- Reasoning with FOL with Arithmetic
- Other kinds of Automated Reasoning

