

Foundations of Artificial Intelligence

CS472/3 — Fall 1999

Lecture #13

Bart Selman

Slide CS472-1

Today's Lecture

**Intro. Knowledge Representation & Reasoning**

Slide CS472-2

## Knowledge Representation

- Human intelligence relies on a lot of background knowledge (the more you know, the easier many tasks become / “**knowledge is power**”)
- E.g. SEND + MORE = MONEY puzzle.
  - **Time flies like an arrow.**
  - **Fruit flies like bananas.**

**The spirit is willing but the flesh is weak.** (English)

**The vodka is good but the meat is rotten.** (Russian)

OR:

Plan a trip to L.A.

Slide CS472–3

- Q. How did we encode (domain) knowledge so far?  
Search knowledge?

Fine for limited amounts of knowledge / well-defined domains.

Otherwise: **knowledge-based systems approach.**

Slide CS472–4

## Knowledge-Based Systems / Programs

General idea: represent knowledge in declarative statements  
use inference / reasoning mechanism to derive new information /  
make decisions.

Natural candidate: logical language (propositional / first-order)  
combined with a logical inference mechanism

How close to human thought? (mental-models / Johnson-Laird)

In any case, appears reasonable strategy for machines

Slide CS472-5

## “Advice-Taker”

1958 / 1968 — John McCarthy: “Programs with Common Sense” —  
agents use logical reasoning to mediate between percepts and actions.

Idea: Impart knowledge to a program in the form of declarative  
(logical) statements (“what” instead of “how”); program  
uses general reasoning mechanisms to process and act on this  
information.

E.g. Formalize “*x is at y*” using predicate *at*, i.e.,  $at(x,y)$

*at* defined by its properties, e.g.,  $at(x,y) \wedge at(y,z) \rightarrow at(x,z)$

**Problems??**

Slide CS472-6

## Agent / Intelligent System Design

p. 13 R&N. Craik (1943) *The Nature of Explanation*

If the organism carries a “small-scale model” of external reality and of its own small possible actions within its head, it is able to try out various alternatives, conclude which is the best of them, react to future situations before they arise, utilize the knowledge of the past events in dealing with the present and future, and in every way to react in a much fuller, safer, and more competent manner to the emergencies which face it.

Alt. view: against representations — Brooks (1989)

Slide CS472–7

## Representation Language

preferably:

- expressive and concise
- unambiguous and independent of context
- have an effective procedure to derive new information

not easy to meet these goals . . .

propositional and first-order logic meet some of the criteria

**incompleteness / uncertainty is key** — contrast with

programming languages. (see p 161 R&N).

Slide CS472–8

```
printColor(snow) :- !, write("It's white.").
printColor(grass) :- !, write("It's green.").
printColor(sky) :- !, write("It's blue.").
printColor(X) :- write("Beats me.").
```

Knowledge-based alternative:

```
printColor(X) :-
    color(X,Y), !, write("It's "), write(Y), write(".").

color(snow,white).    (('KB'))
color(grass,green).
color(sky,yellow).
```

Slide CS472-9

### Logical Representation

Three components:

**syntax**

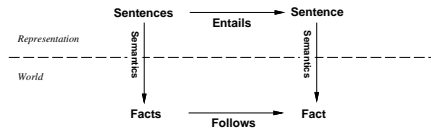
**semantics** (link to the world)

**proof theory** ("pushing symbols")

To make it work: **soundness** and **completeness**.

Slide CS472-10

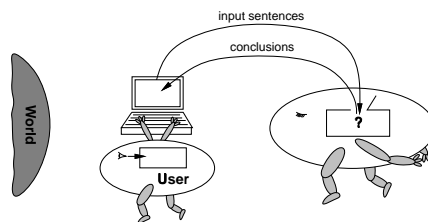
## Connecting Sentences to the World



Somewhat misleading: formal semantics brings sentence down only to the primitive components (propositions). (later)

Slide CS472-11

## Tenuous Link to Real World



All computer has are sentences (hopefully about the world).  
Sensors can provide some grounding.  
Hope KB unique model / interpretation: the real-world.  
Often many more... (Aside: consider arithmetic.)

Slide CS472-12

## More Concrete: Propositional Logic

Syntax: build sentences from atomic propositions, using connectives  $\wedge, \vee, \neg, \Rightarrow, \Leftrightarrow$ .

(and / or / not / implies / equivalence (biconditional))

E.g.:  $((\neg P) \vee (Q \wedge R)) \Rightarrow S$

p. 167 R&N.

Slide CS472–13

## Semantics

$P$	$Q$	$\neg P$	$P \wedge Q$	$P \vee Q$	$P \Rightarrow Q$	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$
False	False	True	False	False	True	True
False	True	True	False	True	True	False
True	False	False	False	True	False	False
True	True	False	True	True	True	True

Note:  $\Rightarrow$  somewhat counterintuitive.

What's the truth value of "5 is even implies Sam is smart"?

Slide CS472–14

## Validity and Inference

$P$	$H$	$P \vee H$	$(P \vee H) \wedge \neg H$	$((P \vee H) \wedge \neg H) \Rightarrow P$
<i>False</i>	<i>False</i>	<i>False</i>	<i>False</i>	<i>True</i>
<i>False</i>	<i>True</i>	<i>True</i>	<i>False</i>	<i>True</i>
<i>True</i>	<i>False</i>	<i>True</i>	<i>True</i>	<i>True</i>
<i>True</i>	<i>True</i>	<i>True</i>	<i>False</i>	<i>True</i>

Truth table for: *Premises*  $\Rightarrow$  *Conclusion*.

Shows  $((P \vee H) \wedge (\neg H)) \Rightarrow P$  is valid

(True in all interpretations)

We write  $\models ((P \vee H) \wedge (\neg H)) \Rightarrow P$

Slide CS472–15

## Models

A **model** of a set of sentences (KB) is a truth-assign.

in which each of the KB sentences evaluates to *True*.

With more and more sentences, the models of KB start looking

more and more like the “real-world” (or isomorphic to it).

If a sentence  $\alpha$  holds (is *True*) in **all** models

of a KB, we say that  $\alpha$  is **entailed** by the KB.

$\alpha$  is of interest, because *whenever KB is true in a world*

*$\alpha$  will also be True.*

We write:  $KB \models \alpha$ .

Slide CS472–16

## Proof Theory

Purely syntactic rules for deriving the logical consequences of a set of sentences.

We write:  $KB \vdash \alpha$ , i.e.,  $\alpha$  can be **deduced** from KB or  $\alpha$  is **provable** from KB.

### Key property:

Both in propositional and in first-order logic we have a proof theory (“calculus”) such that:

$\vdash$  and  $\models$  are equivalent.

Slide CS472–17

## Proof Theory

If  $KB \vdash \alpha$  implies  $KB \models \alpha$ , we say the proof theory is **sound**.

If  $KB \models \alpha$  implies  $KB \vdash \alpha$ , we say the proof theory is **complete**.

**Why so remarkable / important?**

Slide CS472–18

## Soundness and Completeness

Allows computer to ignore semantics and “just push symbols”!

In propositional logic, truth tables cumbersome (at least).

In first-order, models can be infinite!

Proof theory: One or more **inference rules** with

zero or more axioms (tautologies / to get things “going.”).

Slide CS472–19

## Example Proof Theory

**One** rule of inference: **Modens Ponens**

From  $\alpha$  and  $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$  it follows that  $\beta$ .

Semantic soundness easily verified. (truth table)

Axiom schemas:

(Ax. I)  $\alpha \Rightarrow (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)$

(Ax. II)  $((\alpha \Rightarrow (\beta \Rightarrow \gamma)) \Rightarrow ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow \gamma)))$ .

(Ax. III)  $(\neg\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \Rightarrow (\neg\alpha \Rightarrow \neg\beta) \Rightarrow \alpha$ .

Note:  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  stand for arbitrary sentences. So,  
infinite collection of axioms.

Slide CS472–20

Now,  $\alpha$  can be **deduced** from a set of sentences  $\Phi$   
iff there exists a sequence of applications of **modus ponens**  
that leads from  $\Phi$  to  $\alpha$  (possibly using the axioms).

One can prove that:

Modus ponens with the above axioms will generate exactly  
all (and only those) statements logically **entailed** by  $\Phi$ .

So, we have a way of generating entailed statements  
*in a purely syntactic manner!*

(Sequence is called a proof. Finding it can be hard . . .)

Slide CS472–21

### Example Proof

Lemma. For any  $\alpha$ , we have  $\vdash (\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha)$ .

Proof.

$(\alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha) \Rightarrow \alpha) \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha) \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$ , (Ax. II)

$\alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha) \Rightarrow \alpha$ , (Ax. I)

$(\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha) \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$ , (M. P.)

$\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$  (Ax. I)

$\alpha \Rightarrow \alpha$  (M.P.)

Next time: more efficient using resolution.

Slide CS472–22