Knowledge Representation and Reasoning Logics for Artificial Intelligence

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Contents

Part I

1.	Introduction
2.	Propositional Logic
3.	Predicate Logic Over Finite Models
4.	Full First-Order Predicate Logic
5.	Summary of Part I

Part II

6.	Prolog
7.	A Potpourri of Subdomains
8.	SNePS
9.	Belief Revision/Truth Maintenance
10.	The Situation Calculus
11.	Summary

Part III

12.	Production Systems	601
13.	Description Logic	610
14.	Abduction	627

1 Introduction

1.	Knowledge Representation	5
2.	Logic	16

1.1 Knowledge Representation

Artificial Intelligence (AI)

A field of computer science and engineering concerned with the computational understanding of what is commonly called intelligent behavior, and with the creation of artifacts that exhibit such behavior.

Knowledge Representation

A subarea of Artificial Intelligence concerned with understanding, designing, and implementing ways of representing information in computers so that programs (agents) can use this information

- to derive information that is implied by it,
- to converse with people in natural languages,
- to decide what to do next
- to plan future activities,
- to solve problems in areas that normally require human expertise.

Reasoning

Deriving information that is implied by the information already present is a form of reasoning.

Knowledge representation schemes are useless without the ability to reason with them.

So, Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (KRR)

Manifesto of KRR

a program has common sense if it automatically deduces for itself a sufficiently wide class of immediate consequences of anything it is told and what it already knows... In order for a program to be capable of learning something it must first be capable of being told it. John McCarthy, "Programs with Common Sense", 1959.

Knowledge vs. Belief

Knowledge: justified true belief.

John believes that the world is flat: Not true.

Sally believes that the first player in chess can always win,

Betty believes that the second player can always win,

and Mary believes that, with optimal play on both sides, chess will always end in a tie.

One of them is correct,

but none are justified.

So *Belief* Representation & Reasoning: more accurate But we'll continue to say KRR.

In Class Exercise

"An Approach to Serenity"

Easy NL Inferences

Every student studies hard.

Therefore every smart student studies.

Tuesday evening, Jack either went to the movies, played bridge, or studied.

Tuesday evening, Jack played bridge.

Therefore, Jack neither went to the movies nor studied Tuesday evening.

Background Knowledge: Some Sentences and How We Understand Them.

John likes ice cream. John likes to eat ice cream.

Mary likes Asimov.

Mary likes to read books written by Isaac Asimov.

Background Knowledge: Some Sentences and How We Understand Them.

Bill flicked the switch.

The room was flooded with light.

Bill moved the switch to the "on" position, which caused a light to come on, which lit up the room Bill was in.

Betty opened the blinds.

The courtyard was flooded with light.

Betty adjusted the blinds so that she could see through the window they were in front of, after which she could see that the courtyard on the other side of the window was bright.

Memory Integration in Humans

After seeing these sentences (among others),

The sweet jelly was on the kitchen table. The ants in the kitchen ate the jelly. The ants ate the sweet jelly that was on the table. The sweet jelly was on the table. The jelly was on the table. The ants ate the jelly.

subjects, with high confidence reported that they had seen the sentence,

The ants ate the sweet jelly that was on the kitchen table.

[Bransford and Franks (1971). The abstraction of linguistic ideas. *Cognitive Psychology*, 2, 331-350, as reported on http://www.rpi.edu/~verwyc/cognotes5.htm.]

Requirements for a Knowledge-Based Agent

- "what it already knows" [McCarthy '59]
 A knowledge base of beliefs.
- "it must first be capable of being told" [McCarthy '59]
 A way to put new beliefs into the knowledge base.
- 3. "automatically deduces for itself a sufficiently wide class of immediate consequences" [McCarthy '59]
 A reasoning mechanism to derive new beliefs from ones already in the knowledge base.

1.2 Logic

- Logic is the study of correct reasoning.
- It is not a particular KRR language.
- There are many systems of logic (logics).
- AI KRR research can be seen as a hunt for the "right" logic.

Commonalities among Logics

- System for reasoning.
- Prevent reasoning from "truths" to "falsities". (But can reason from truths and falsities to truths and falsities.)
- Language for expressing reasoning steps.

Parts of the Study/Specification of a Logic

- **Syntax:** The atomic symbols of the logical language, and the rules for constructing well-formed, nonatomic expressions (symbol structures) of the logic.
- **Semantics:** The meanings of the atomic symbols of the logic, and the rules for determining the meanings of nonatomic expressions of the logic.
- **Proof Theory:** The rules for determining a subset of logical expressions, called **theorems** of the logic.

2 Propositional Logic

Logics that do not analyze information below the level of the proposition.

2.1	What is a Proposition?	20
2.2	CarPool World: A Motivational "Micro-World"	23
2.3	The "Standard" Propositional Logic	24
2.4	Important Properties of Logical Systems	33
2.5	Clause Form Propositional Logic	36

2.1 What is a Proposition?

An expression in some language

- that is true or false
- whose negation makes sense
- that can be believed or not
- whose negation can be believed or not
- that can be put in the frame "I believe that it is not the case that _____."

Examples

Of propositions

- Betty is the driver of the car.
- Barack Obama is sitting down or standing up.
- If Opus is a penguin, then Opus doesn't fly.

Of non-propositions

- Barack Obama
- how to ride a bicycle
- If the fire alarm rings, leave the building.

Sentences vs. Propositions

A sentence is an expression of a (written) language that begins with a capital letter and ends with a period, question mark, or exclamation point.

Some sentences do not contain a proposition: "Hi!", "Why?", "Pass the salt!"

Some sentences do not express a proposition, but contain one: "Is Betty driving the car?"

Some sentences contain more than one proposition: If Opus is a penguin, then Opus doesn't fly.

2.2 CarPool World: A Motivational "Micro-World"

- Tom and Betty carpool to work.
- On any day, either Tom drives Betty or Betty drives Tom.
- In the former case, Tom is the driver and Betty is the passenger.
- In the latter case, Betty is the driver and Tom is the passenger.

	Betty drives Tom.	Tom drives Betty.
Propositions:	Betty is the driver.	Tom is the driver.
	Betty is the passenger.	Tom is the passenger.

2.3 The "Standard" Propositional Logic

1.	Syntax	25
2.	Semantics	39
3.	Proof Theory	98

2.3.1 Syntax of the "Standard" Propositional Logic

Atomic Propositions

- Any letter of the alphabet, e.g.: *P*
- Any letter of the alphabet with a numerical subscript, e.g.: Q_3
- Any alphanumeric string, e.g.: Tom is the driver

is an atomic proposition.

Well-Formed Propositions (WFPs)

1. Every atomic proposition is a wfp.

2. If P is a wfp, then so is
$$(\neg P)$$
.

3. If P and Q are wfps, then so are

(a)
$$(P \land Q)$$
 (b) $(P \lor Q)$

(c)
$$(P \Rightarrow Q)$$
 (d) $(P \Leftrightarrow Q)$

4. Nothing else is a wfp.

Parentheses may be omitted. Precedence: $\neg; \land, \lor; \Rightarrow; \Leftrightarrow$. Will allow $(P_1 \land \cdots \land P_n)$ and $(P_1 \lor \cdots \lor P_n)$. Square brackets may be used instead of parentheses.

Examples of WFPs

$\neg (A \land B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \lor \neg B)$

Tom is the driver \Rightarrow Betty is the passenger Betty drives Tom $\Leftrightarrow \neg$ Tom is the driver

Alternative Symbols

 $\neg : \sim !$ $\land : \& \cdot$ $\lor : |$ $\Rightarrow : \rightarrow \supset ->$ $\Leftrightarrow : \leftrightarrow \equiv <->$

A Computer-Readable Syntax for Wfps

Based on CLIF, the Common Logic Interchange Format^a

Atomic Propositions: Use one of:

 ${\bf Embedded\ underscores:\ Betty_drives_Tom}$

Embedded hyphens: Betty-drives-Tom

CamelCase: BettyDrivesTom

sulkingCamelCase: bettyDrivesTom

Escape brackets: |Betty drives Tom|

Quotation marks: "Betty drives Tom"

Page 29

^aISO/IEC, Information technology — Common Logic (CL): a framework for a family of logic-based languages, ISO/IEC 24707:2007(E), 2007.

CLIF for Non-Atomic Wfps

Print Form	CLIF Form
$\neg P$	(not P)
$P \wedge Q$	(and P Q)
$P \lor Q$	(or P Q)
$P \Rightarrow Q$	(if P Q)
$P \Leftrightarrow Q$	(iff P Q)
$(P_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge P_n)$	(and P1Pn)
$(P_1 \lor \cdots \lor P_n)$	(or P1Pn)

Semantics of Atomic Propositions 1 Intensional Semantics

- Dependent on a Domain.
- Independent of any specific interpretation/model/possible world/situation.
- Statement in a previously understood language (e.g. English) that allows truth value to be determined in any specific situation.
- Often omitted, but shouldn't be.

Intensional CarPool World Semantics

[Betty drives Tom] = Betty drives Tom to work.
[Tom drives Betty] = Tom drives Betty to work.
[Betty is the driver] = Betty is the driver of the car.
[Tom is the driver] = Tom is the driver of the car.
[Betty is the passenger] = Betty is the passenger in the car.
[Tom is the passenger] = Tom is the passenger in the car.

Alternative Intensional CarPool World Semantics

[Betty drives Tom] = Tom drives Betty to work.
[Tom drives Betty] = Betty drives Tom to work.
[Betty is the driver] = Tom is the passenger in the car.
[Tom is the driver] = Betty is the passenger in the car.
[Betty is the passenger] = Tom is the driver of the car.
[Tom is the passenger] = Betty is the driver of the car.

Alternative CarPool World Syntax/Intensional Semantics

$$[A] =$$
 Betty drives Tom to work.

[B] = Tom drives Betty to work.

[C] = Betty is the driver of the car.

$$[D] =$$
 Tom is the driver of the car.

$$[E] =$$
 Betty is the passenger in the car.

[F] = Tom is the passenger in the car.

Intensional Semantics Moral

- Don't omit.
- Don't presume.
- No "pretend it's English semantics".

Intensional Semantics of WFPs

$$[\neg P] = \text{It is not the case that } [P].$$
$$[P \land Q] = [P] \text{ and } [Q].$$
$$[P \lor Q] = \text{Either } [P] \text{ or } [Q] \text{ or both.}$$
$$[P \Rightarrow Q] = \text{If } [P] \text{ then } [Q].$$
$$[P \Leftrightarrow Q] = [P] \text{ if and only if } [Q].$$
Example CarPool World Intensional WFP Semantics

[Betty drives $Tom \Leftrightarrow \neg Tom \text{ is the driver}$]

Betty drives Tom to workif and only if Tom is not the driver of the car.

Terminology

- $\neg P$ is called the **negation** of *P*.
- P ∧ Q is called the conjunction of P and Q.
 P and Q are referred to as conjuncts.
- P ∨ Q is called the disjunction of P and Q.
 P and Q are referred to as disjuncts.
- P ⇒ Q is called a conditional or implication.
 P is referred to as the antecedent;
 Q as the consequent.
- $P \Leftrightarrow Q$ is called a **biconditional** or **equivalence**.

2.3.2 Semantics of Atomic Propositions 2

Extensional Semantics

- Relative to an interpretation/model/possible world/situation.
- Either True or False.

Extensional CarPool World Semantics

	Denotation in Situation				
Proposition	1	2	3	4	5
Betty drives Tom	True	True	True	False	False
Tom drives Betty	True	True	False	True	False
Betty is the driver	True	True	True	False	False
Tom is the driver	True	False	False	True	False
Betty is the passenger	True	False	False	True	False
Tom is the passenger	True	False	True	False	False

Note: n propositions $\Rightarrow 2^n$ possible situations.

6 propositions in CarPool World $\Rightarrow 2^6 = 64$ different situations.

Extensional Semantics of WFPs

 $\llbracket \neg P \rrbracket$ is True if $\llbracket P \rrbracket$ is False. Otherwise, it is False.

 $[\![P \land Q]\!]$ is True if $[\![P]\!]$ is True and $[\![Q]\!]$ is True. Otherwise, it is False.

 $[\![P \lor Q]\!]$ is False if $[\![P]\!]$ is False and $[\![Q]\!]$ is False. Otherwise, it is True.

 $[\![P \Rightarrow Q]\!]$ is False if $[\![P]\!]$ is True and $[\![Q]\!]$ is False. Otherwise, it is True.

 $\llbracket P \Leftrightarrow Q \rrbracket$ is True if $\llbracket P \rrbracket$ and $\llbracket Q \rrbracket$ are both True, or both False. Otherwise, it is False.

Note that this is the outline of a recursive function that evaluates a wfp, given the truth values of its atomic propositions.

Extensional Semantics Truth Tables

P	True	False
$\neg P$	False	True

Р	True	True	False	False
Q	True	False	True	False
$P \wedge Q$	True	False	False	False
$P \lor Q$	True	True	True	False
$P \Rightarrow Q$	True	False	True	True
$P \Leftrightarrow Q$	True	False	False	True

Notice that each column of these tables represents a different situation.

Material Implication

 $P \Rightarrow Q$ is True when P is False.

So,

If the world is flat, then the moon is made of green cheese is considered True if *if* . . . *then* is interpreted as material implication.

 $(P \Rightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (\neg P \lor Q)$

P	True	True	False	False
Q	True	False	True	False
$\neg P$	False	False	True	True
$P \Rightarrow Q$	True	False	True	True
$\neg P \lor Q$	True	False	True	True

 $(P\Rightarrow Q)$ is sometimes taken as a abbreviation of $(\neg P\lor Q)$

Note: "Uninterpreted Language", **Formal** Logic, applicable to every logic in the class.

Example CarPool World Truth Table

Betty drives Tom	True	True	False	False
Tom is the driver	True	False	True	False
$\neg Tom is the driver$	False	True	False	True
Betty drives $Tom \Leftrightarrow \neg Tom$ is the driver	False	True	True	False

Computing Denotations

Use the procedure sketched on page 41.

Use Spreadsheet:

See http://www.cse.buffalo.edu/~shapiro/Courses/CSE563/ truthTable.xls/

Use Boole program from Barwise & Etchemendy package

Computing the Denotation of a Wfp in a Model

Construct a truth table containing all atomic wfps and the wfp whose denotation is to be computed, and restrict the truth table to the desired model.

E.g., play with http:

//www.cse.buffalo.edu/~shapiro/Courses/CSE563/cpw.xls/

Use the program /projects/shapiro/CSE563/denotation

Example Runs of denotation Program

True

False

Model Finding

A model **satisfies** a wfp if the wfp is True in that model.

If a wfp P is False in a model, \mathcal{M} , then \mathcal{M} satisfies $\neg P$.

A model satisfies a set of wfps if they are all True in the model.

A model, \mathcal{M} , satisfies the wfps P_1, \ldots, P_n if and only if \mathcal{M} , satisfies $P_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge P_n$.

Task: Given a set of wfps, A, find **satisfying models**. I.e., models that assign all wfps in A the value True.

Model Finding with a Spreadsheet

Play with http:

//www.cse.buffalo.edu/~shapiro/Courses/CSE563/cpw.xls/

An Informal Model Finding Algorithm (Exponential)

- Given: Wfps labeled True, False, or unlabeled.
- If any wfp is labeled both True and False, terminate with failure.
- If all atomic wfps are labeled, return labeling as a model.
- If $\neg P$ is
 - labeled True, try labeling ${\cal P}$ False.
 - labeled False, try labeling P True.
- If $P \wedge Q$ is
 - labeled True, try labeling P and Q True.
 - labeled False, try labeling ${\cal P}$ False, and try labeling ${\cal Q}$ False.

Model Finding Algorithm, cont'd

- If $P \lor Q$ is
 - labeled False, try labeling P and Q False.
 - labeled True, try labeling ${\cal P}$ True, and try labeling ${\cal Q}$ True.
- If $P \Rightarrow Q$ is
 - labeled False, try labeling P True and Q False.
 - labeled True, try labeling P False, and try labeling Q True.
- If $P \Leftrightarrow Q$ is
 - labeled True, try labeling P and Q both True, and try labeling P and Q both False.
 - labeled False, try labeling P True and Q False, and try labeling P False and Q True.

Tableau Procedure for Model Finding^a

 $T: BP \Rightarrow \neg BD$ $T: TD \Rightarrow BP$ $F: \neg BD$

Page 53

^aBased on the semantic tableaux of Evert W. Beth, *The Foundations of Mathematics*, (Amsterdam: North Holland), 1959.

Tableau Procedure Example: Step 1

 $T: BP \Rightarrow \neg BD$ $T: TD \Rightarrow BP$ $F: \neg BD \leftarrow$ |T: BD

Tableau Procedure Example: Step 2





Tableau Procedure Example: Step 3



Lisp Program for Tableau Procedure

Function: (models trueWfps &optional falseWfps trueAtoms falseAtoms)
<timberlake:~:1:62> mlisp

```
cl-user(1): :ld /projects/shapiro/CSE563/modelfinder
; Loading /projects/shapiro/CSE563/modelfinder.cl
```

. . .

```
cl-user(2): (models '( (if BP (not BD)) (if TD BP)) '((not BD)))
(((BD . True) (BP . False) (TD . False)))
```

```
cl-user(3): (models '( BDT (if BDT (and BD TP)) (not (or TP BD))))
nil
```

```
cl-user(4): (models '( (if BDT (and BD TP)) (if TDB (and TD BP))))
(((TD . True) (BP . True) (BD . True) (TP . True))
  ((BD . True) (TP . True) (TDB . False))
  ((TD . True) (BP . True) (BDT . False))
  ((BDT . False) (TDB . False)))
```

Decreasoner,^a An Efficient Model Finder

On nickelback.cse.buffalo.edu or timberlake.cse.buffalo.edu, do

cd /projects/shapiro/CSE563/decreasoner

and try

python ubdecreasonerP.py examples/ShapiroCSE563/cpwProp.e

and

python ubdecreasonerP.py examples/ShapiroCSE563/cpwPropFindModels.e

Page 58

^aDecreasoner is by Erik T. Mueller, and uses relsat, by Roberto J. Bayardo Jr. and Robert C. Schrag, and walksat, by Bart Selman and Henry Kautz.

Decreasoner Example Input File

/projects/shapiro/CSE563/decreasoner/examples/ShapiroCSE563/
cpwPropFindModels.e:

;;; Example of Finding Models for Some Wfp
;;; In a SubDomain of Propositional Car Pool World
;;; Stuart C. Shapiro
;;; January 23, 2009

proposition BettyIsDriver ; Betty is the driver of the car. proposition TomIsDriver ; Tom is the driver of the car. proposition BettyIsPassenger ; Betty is the passenger in the car.

```
;;; A set of well-formed propositions to find models of within CPW
(BettyIsPassenger -> !BettyIsDriver).
(TomIsDriver -> BettyIsPassenger).
!!BettyIsDriver.
```

Decreasoner Example Run

<timberlake:decreasoner:1:60> python ubdecreasonerP.py
 examples/ShapiroCSE563/cpwPropFindModels.e

• • •

model 1:

BettyIsDriver.
!BettyIsPassenger.
!TomIsDriver.

Semantic Properties of WFPs

- A wfp is **satisfiable** if it is True in at least one situation.
- A wfp is **contingent** if it is True in at least one situation and False in at least one situation.
- A wfp is valid (⊨ P) if it is True in every situation.
 A valid wfp is also called a tautology.
- A wfp is **unsatisfiable** or **contradictory** if it is False in every situation.

Examples

Р	True	True	False	False
Q	True	False	True	False
$\neg P$	False	False	True	True
$Q \Rightarrow P$	True	True	False	True
$P \Rightarrow (Q \Rightarrow P)$	True	True	True	True
$P \land \neg P$	False	False	False	False

 $\neg P, Q \Rightarrow P, \text{ and } P \Rightarrow (Q \Rightarrow P) \text{ are satisfiable},$ $\neg P \text{ and } Q \Rightarrow P \text{ are contingent},$ $P \Rightarrow (Q \Rightarrow P) \text{ is valid},$ $P \land \neg P \text{ is contradictory.}$

Logical Entailment

 $\{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \text{ logically entails } B \text{ in logic } \mathcal{L}$ $A_1, \dots, A_n \models_{\mathcal{L}} B$ if B is True in every situation in which every A_i is True.
If \mathcal{L} is assumed, $A_1, \dots, A_n \models B$ If n = 0, we have validity $\models B$,
i.e., B is True in every situation.

Examples

P	True	True	False	False
Q	True	False	True	False
$\neg P$	False	False	True	True
$Q \Rightarrow P$	True	True	False	True
$P \Rightarrow (Q \Rightarrow P)$	True	True	True	True
$P \land \neg P$	False	False	False	False

$$\models P \Rightarrow (Q \Rightarrow P)$$
$$P \models Q \Rightarrow P$$
$$Q, Q \Rightarrow P \models P$$

A Metatheorem

$$A_1, \dots, A_n \models B$$

iff
$$A_1 \land \dots \land A_n \models B$$

Semantic Deduction Theorem (Metatheorem)

 $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models P$ if and only if $\models A_1 \land \cdots \land A_n \Rightarrow P$.

So deciding validity and logical entailment are equivalent.

Domain Knowledge (Rules)

Used to reduce the set of situations to those that "make sense".

Domain Rules for CarPool World

Betty is the driver $\Leftrightarrow \neg$ Betty is the passenger Tom is the driver $\Leftrightarrow \neg$ Tom is the passenger Betty drives Tom \Rightarrow Betty is the driver \land Tom is the passenger Tom drives Betty \Rightarrow Tom is the driver \land Betty is the passenger Tom drives Betty \lor Betty drives Tom

Sensible CarPool World Situations

The only 2 of the 64 in which all domain rules are True:

	Denotation in Situation	
Proposition	3	4
Betty drives Tom	True	False
Tom drives Betty	False	True
Betty is the driver	True	False
Tom is the driver	False	True
Betty is the passenger	False	True
Tom is the passenger	True	False
Betty drives $Tom \Leftrightarrow \neg Tom$ is the driver	True	True

General Effect of Domain Rules

The number of models that satisfy a set of wfps is reduced (or stays the same) as the size of the set increases.

For a set of wfps, Γ , and a wfp P, if the number of models that satisfy $\Gamma \cup \{P\}$ is strictly less than the number of models that satisfy Γ , then P is **independent** of Γ .

Computer Tests of CPW Domain Rules

Spreadsheet: http:

//www.cse.buffalo.edu/~shapiro/Courses/CSE563/cpwRules.xls

Decreasoner (on nickelback or timberlake):

cd /projects/shapiro/CSE563/decreasoner
python ubdecreasonerP.py examples/ShapiroCSE563/cpwPropRules.e

CarPool World Domain Rules in Decreasoner

proposition BettyDrivesTom ; Betty drives Tom to work. proposition TomDrivesBetty ; Tom drives Betty to work. proposition BettyIsDriver ; Betty is the driver of the car. proposition TomIsDriver ; Tom is the driver of the car. proposition BettyIsPassenger ; Betty is the passenger in the car. proposition TomIsPassenger ; Tom is the passenger in the car.

;;; CPW Domain Rules BettyIsDriver <-> !BettyIsPassenger. TomIsDriver <-> !TomIsPassenger. BettyDrivesTom -> BettyIsDriver & TomIsPassenger. TomDrivesBetty -> TomIsDriver & BettyIsPassenger. TomDrivesBetty | BettyDrivesTom.
Decreasoner on CPW with Domain Rules

python ubdecreasonerP.py examples/ShapiroCSE563/cpwPropRules.e

•••

model 1:

BettyDrivesTom. BettyIsDriver. TomIsPassenger. !BettyIsPassenger. !TomDrivesBetty. !TomIsDriver.

model 2:

BettyIsPassenger. TomDrivesBetty. TomIsDriver. !BettyDrivesTom. !BettyIsDriver. !TomIsPassenger.

The KRR Enterprise (Propositional Logic Version)

Given a domain you are interested in reasoning about:

1. List the set of propositions (expressed in English) that captures the basic information of interest in the domain.

2. Formalize the domain by creating one atomic wfp for each proposition listed in step (1). List the atomic wfps, and, for each, show the English proposition as its intensional semantics.

The KRR Enterprise, Part 2

3. Using the atomic wfps, determine a set of domain rules so that all, but only, the situations of the domain that make sense satisfy them. Strive for a set of domain rules that is small and independent.

4. Optionally, formulate an additional set of situation-specific wfps that further restrict the domain to the set of situations you are interested in. We will call this restricted domain the "subdomain".

5. Letting Γ be the set of domain rules plus situation-specific wfps, and A be any proposition you are interested in, A is True in the subdomain if $\Gamma \models A$, is false in the subdomain if $\Gamma \models \neg A$, and otherwise is True in some more specific situations of the subdomain, and False in others.

Computational Methods for Determining Entailment and Validity Version 1

```
(defun entails (KB Q)
  "Returns t if the knowledge base KB entails the query Q;
   else returns nil."
  (loop for model in (models KB)
      unless (denotation Q model)
      do (return-from entails nil))
  t)
```

Two problems:

1. models does not really return all the satisfying models;

2. entails does extra work.

Tableau Methods Model-Finding Refutation

To Show $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models P$:

- Try to find a model that satisfies A_1, \ldots, A_n but falsifies P.
- If you succeed, $A_1, \ldots, A_n \not\models P$.
- If you fail, $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models P$.

All refutation model-finding methods are commonly called "tableau methods".

Semantic Tableaux and Wang's Algorithm are two tableau methods that are **decision procedures** for logical entailment in Propositional Logic.

Semantic Tableaux^a A Model-Finding Refutation Procedure

The semantic tableau refutation procedure is the same as the tableau model-finding procedure we saw earlier, except it uses model finding refutation to show $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models P$.

The goal is that all branches be closed.

Page 78

^aEvert W. Beth, *The Foundations of Mathematics*, (Amsterdam: North Holland), 1959.

A Semantic Tableau to Prove $TD, TD \Rightarrow BP, BP \Rightarrow \neg BD \models \neg BD$

T:TD

 $T:TD \Rightarrow BP$ $T:BP \Rightarrow \neg BD$

 $F: \neg BD$

A Semantic Tableau to Prove $TD, TD \Rightarrow BP, BP \Rightarrow \neg BD \models \neg BD$

T:TD $T:TD \Rightarrow BP$ $T:BP \Rightarrow \neg BD$ $F:\neg BD \leftarrow$ $\Big|$ T:BD

A Semantic Tableau to Prove $TD, TD \Rightarrow BP, BP \Rightarrow \neg BD \models \neg BD$



Page 81





A Semantic Tableau to Prove $TD \Rightarrow BP, BP \Rightarrow \neg BD \not\models \neg BD$

 $T: TD \Rightarrow BP$ $T: BP \Rightarrow \neg BD$ $F: \neg BD$

A Semantic Tableau to Prove $TD \Rightarrow BP, BP \Rightarrow \neg BD \not\models \neg BD$

 $T: TD \Rightarrow BP$ $T: BP \Rightarrow \neg BD$ $F: \neg BD \leftarrow$ $\Big|$ T: BD

A Semantic Tableau to Prove $TD \Rightarrow BP, BP \Rightarrow \neg BD \not\models \neg BD$









Can stop as soon as one satisfying model has been found.

Wang's Algorithm^a A Model-Finding Refutation Procedure wang(Twfps, Fwfps) { /* * Twfps and Fwfps are sets of wfps. * Returns True if there is no model

- * that satisfies Twfps and falsifies Fwfps ;
- * Otherwise, returns False.

*/

Note: is a version of models, but returns the opposite value.

^aHao Wang, Toward Mechanical Mathematics. IBM Journal of Research and Development 4, (1960), 2-22. Reprinted in K. M. Sayre and F. J. Crosson (Eds.) The Modeling of Mind: Computers and Intelligence. Simon and Schuster, New York, 1963.

Wang Algorithm

- if Twfps and Fwfps intersect, return True; if every $A \in Twfps \cup Fwfps$ is atomic, return False; if $(P = (not \ A)) \in Twfps$, return wang $(Twfps \setminus \{P\}, Fwfps \cup \{A\})$;
- if $(P = (not \ A)) \in Fwfps$, return wang $(Twfps \cup \{A\}, Fwfps \setminus \{P\});$

Wang Algorithm

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{if } (P = (and \ A \ B)) \in Twfps, \\ \text{return wang}((Twfps \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{A, B\}, \ Fwfps); \\ \text{if } (P = (and \ A \ B)) \in Fwfps, \\ \text{return wang}(Twfps, \ (Fwfps \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{A\}) \\ \text{and wang}(Twfps, \ (Fwfps \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{B\}); \end{array} \end{array}$

 $\begin{array}{l} \texttt{if} \ (P = (or \ A \ B)) \in \mathit{Twfps}, \\ \texttt{return wang}((\mathit{Twfps} \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{A\}, \ \mathit{Fwfps}); \\ \texttt{and wang}((\mathit{Twfps} \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{B\}, \ \mathit{Fwfps}); \\ \texttt{if} \ (P = (or \ A \ B)) \in \mathit{Fwfps}, \\ \texttt{return wang}(\mathit{Twfps}, \ (\mathit{Fwfps} \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{A, B\}) \end{array}$

Wang Algorithm

if $(P = (if A B)) \in Twfps$, return wang $(Twfps \setminus \{P\}, Fwfps \cup \{A\})$ and wang($(Twfps \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{B\}$, Fwfps); if $(P = (if A B)) \in Fwfps$, return wang $(Twfps \cup \{A\}, (Fwfps \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{B\});$ if $(P = (iff A B)) \in Twfps$, return wang($(Twfps \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{A, B\}, Fwfps$) and wang($Twfps \setminus \{P\}$, $Fwfps \cup \{A, B\}$); if $(P = (iff A B)) \in Fwfps$, return wang $(Twfps \cup \{A\}, (Fwfps \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{B\})$ and wang($Twfps \cup \{B\}$, $(Fwfps \setminus \{P\}) \cup \{A\}$);

Implemented Wang Function

(wang ' (A_1, \ldots, A_n) '(P)) Returns t if $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models P$; nil otherwise.

Alternative View of Wang Function

(wang KB (Query))
Returns t if the Query follows from the KB
nil otherwise.

Front end:

(entails KB Query)
Returns t if the Query follows from the KB
nil otherwise.

Using Wang's Algorithm on a Tautology

(entails '() '(if A (if B A)))
0[2]: (wang nil ((if A (if B A))))
1[2]: (wang (A) ((if B A)))
2[2]: (wang (B A) (A))
2[2]: returned t
1[2]: returned t
0[2]: returned t
t

Using Wang's Algorithm on a Non-Tautology

```
(entails '() '(if A (and A B)))
0[2]: (wang nil ((if A (and A B))))
1[2]: (wang (A) ((and A B)))
2[2]: (wang (A) (A))
2[2]: returned t
2[2]: (wang (A) (B))
2[2]: returned nil
1[2]: returned nil
0[2]: returned nil
nil
```

Using Wang's Algorithm to see if $TD, TD \Rightarrow BP, BP \Rightarrow \neg BD \models \neg BD$

(entails '(TD (if TD BP) (if BP (not BD))) '(not BD)) 0[2]: (wang (TD (if TD BP) (if BP (not BD))) ((not BD))) 1[2]: (wang (TD (if BP (not BD))) (TD (not BD))) 1[2]: returned t 1[2]: (wang (BP TD (if BP (not BD))) ((not BD))) 2[2]: (wang (BP TD) (BP (not BD))) 2[2]: returned t 2[2]: (wang ((not BD) BP TD) ((not BD))) 2[2]: returned t 1[2]: returned t 0[2]: returned t

t

Properties of Wang's Algorithm

- 1. Wang's Algorithm is sound: If (wang A '(B)) = t then $A \models B$
- 2. Wang's Algorithm is complete: If $A \models B$ then (wang A '(B)) = t
- 3. Wang's Algorithm is a decision procedure:
 For any valid inputs A, B,
 (wang A '(B)) terminates
 and returns t iff A ⊨ B

Example: Tom's Evening Domain^a

If there is a good movie on TV and Tom doesn't have an early appointment the next morning, then he stays home and watches a late movie. If Tom needs to work and doesn't have an early appointment the next morning, then he works late. If Tom works and needs his reference materials, then he works at his office. If Tom works late at his office, then he returns to his office. If Tom watches a late movie or works late, then he stays up late.

Assume: Tom needs to work, doesn't have an early appointment, and needs his reference materials.

Prove: Tom returns to his office and stays up late.

^aBased on an example in Stuart C. Shapiro, Processing, Bottom-up and Topdown, in Stuart C. Shapiro, Ed. *Encyclopedia of Artificial Intelligence*, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1987, 779-785.

2.3.3 Proof Theory of the Standard Propositional Logic

• Specifies when a given wfp can be derived correctly from a set of (other) wfps.

 $A_1, \ldots, A_n \vdash P$

• Determines what wfps are **theorems** of the logic.

$\vdash P$

• Depends on the notion of **proof**.

Hilbert-Style Syntactic Inference

- Set of **Axioms**.
- Small set of **Rules of Inference**.

Hilbert-Style Proof

- A **proof** of a theorem *P* is
 - An ordered list of wfps ending with P
 - Each wfp on the list is
 - * Either an axiom
 - * or follows from previous wfps in the list by one of the rules of inference.

Hilbert-Style Derivation

- A derivation of P from A_1, \ldots, A_n is
 - A list of wfps ending with P
 - Each wfp on the list is
 - * Either an axiom
 - * or some A_i
 - * or follows from previous wfps in the list by one of the rules of inference.

Example Hilbert-Style Axioms^a

All instances of:

(A1). $(\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow (\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{A}))$ (A2). $((\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow (\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C})) \Rightarrow ((\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}) \Rightarrow (\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C})))$ (A3). $((\neg \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \neg \mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow ((\neg \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}))$

Page 102

^aFrom Elliott Mendelson, *Introduction to Mathematical Logic*, (Princeton: D. Van Nostrand) 1964, pp. 31–32.

Hilbert-Style Rule of Inference

Modus Ponens

$$\frac{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}}{\mathcal{B}}$$

Example Hilbert-Style Proof that $\vdash A \Rightarrow A$

$$\begin{array}{ll} (1) \ (A \Rightarrow ((A \Rightarrow A) \Rightarrow A)) \\ \Rightarrow ((A \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow A)) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow A)) \ \text{Instance of A2} \\ (2) \ A \Rightarrow ((A \Rightarrow A) \Rightarrow A) & \text{Instance of A1} \\ (3) \ (A \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow A)) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow A) & \text{From 1, 2 by MP} \\ (4) \ A \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow A) & \text{Instance of A1} \\ (5) \ A \Rightarrow A & \text{From 3, 4 by MP} \end{array}$$

Example Hilbert-Style Derivation

that

Tom is the driver

Tom is the driver \Rightarrow Betty is the passenger,

Betty is the passenger $\Rightarrow \neg Betty$ is the driver,

 \vdash

 \neg Betty is the driver

(1)Tom is the driverAssumption(2)Tom is the driver \Rightarrow Betty is the passengerAssumption(3)Betty is the passengerFrom 1, 2 by MP(4)Betty is the passenger $\Rightarrow \neg$ Betty is the driverAssumption(5) \neg Betty is the driverFrom 3, 4 by MP

Some AI Connections

AI	Logic
domain knowledge or domain rules	assumptions or non-logical axioms
inference engine procedures	rules of inference
knowledge base	proof

Natural Deduction (Style of Syntactic Inference)

- No Axioms.
- Large set of Rules of Inference.
 - A few structural rules of inference.
 - An introduction rule and an elimination rule for each connective.
- A method of **subproofs**.^a

^aFrancis Jeffry Pelletier, A History of Natural Deduction and Elementary Logic Textbooks, in J. Woods, B. Brown (eds) *Logical Consequence: Rival Approaches, Vol. 1.* (Oxford: Hermes Science Pubs) 2000, pp. 105-138.

Fitch-Style Proof^a

- A **proof** of a theorem P is
 - An ordered list of wfps and subproofs ending with P
 - Each wfp or subproof on the list must be justified by a rule of inference.
- $\vdash P$ is read "P is a theorem."

Page 108

^aBased on Frederic B. Fitch, *Symbolic Logic: An Introduction*, (New York: Ronald Press), 1952.
Fitch-Style Derivation

- A derivation of a wfp P from an assumption A is a hypothetical subproof whose hypothesis is A and which contains
 - An ordered list of wfps and inner subproofs ending with P
 - Each wfp or inner subproof on the list must be justified by a rule of inference.
- $A \vdash P$ is read "P can be derived from A."
- A Meta-theorem: $A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n \vdash P$ iff $A_1, \ldots, A_n \vdash P$

Format of Proof/Derivation







Page 111

Rules for \Rightarrow



Page 112

Example Fitch-Style Proof that $\vdash A \Rightarrow A$

1.
$$A$$
 Hyp
2. A Rep, 1
3. $A \Rightarrow A \Rightarrow I, 1-2$

Fitch-Style Proof of Axiom A1



Page 114

Example Fitch-Style Derivation

that

Tom is the driver

Tom is the driver \Rightarrow Betty is the passenger,

Betty is the passenger $\Rightarrow \neg$ Betty is the driver,

 \vdash

 \neg Betty is the driver

1.	Tom is the driver	
2.	Tom is the driver \Rightarrow Betty is the passenger	
3.	Betty is the passenger $\Rightarrow \neg$ Betty is the driver	Hyp
4.	Betty is the passenger	$\Rightarrow E, 1, 2$
5.	$\neg Betty is the driver$	$\Rightarrow E, 4, 3$

Rules for \neg i. A_1 • i+n-1 $A_n \quad Hyp$ j. j. j+1. j+2. $\neg (A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n)$ $\neg I, i-(j+1)$ $i. \mid \neg \neg A$ $j. \mid A \quad \neg E, i$

Fitch-Style Proof of Axiom A3

1.	$\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$	Hyp
2.	$\neg B \Rightarrow A$	Hyp
3.	$\neg B$	Hyp
4.	$\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$	Reit, 1
5.	$\neg B \Rightarrow A$	Reit, 2
6.	A	$\Rightarrow E, 3, 5$
7.	$\neg A$	$\Rightarrow E, 3, 4$
8.	$\neg \neg B$	eg I, 3-7
9.	B	$\neg E, 8$
10.	$(\neg B \Rightarrow A) \Rightarrow B$	$\Rightarrow I, 2-9$
11.	$(\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A) \Rightarrow ((\neg B \Rightarrow A) \Rightarrow B)$	$\Rightarrow I, 1-10$

Rules for \wedge

Proof that $\vdash (A \land B \Rightarrow C) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C))$

1.		$A \land B \Rightarrow C$	Hyp
2.		A	Hyp
3.		В	Hyp
4.		A	Reit, 2
5.		$A \wedge B$	$\wedge I, 4, 3$
6.		$A \land B \Rightarrow C$	Reit, 1
7.		C	$\Rightarrow E, 5, 6$
8.		$B \Rightarrow C$	$\Rightarrow I, 3-7$
9.	I	$A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)$	$\Rightarrow I, 2-8$
10.	I	$(A \land B \Rightarrow C) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C))$	$\Rightarrow I, 1-9$

Proof that $\vdash (A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)) \Rightarrow (A \land B \Rightarrow C)$

1.	$A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)$	Hyp
2.	$A \wedge B$	Hyp
3.	A	$\wedge E, 2$
4.	В	$\wedge E, 2$
5.	$A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)$	Reit, 1
6.	$B \Rightarrow C$	$\Rightarrow E, 3, 5$
7.	C	$\Rightarrow E, 4, 6$
8.	$A \land B \Rightarrow C$	$\Rightarrow I, 2-7$
9.	$(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)) \Rightarrow (A \land B \Rightarrow C)$	$\Rightarrow I, 1-8$

Rules for \lor $i. | A_i$ $j. | A_1 \lor \cdots \lor A_i \lor \cdots \lor A_n \lor I, i$

$$i. \qquad A_1 \lor \cdots \lor A_n$$

$$\vdots$$

$$j_1. \qquad A_1 \Rightarrow B$$

$$\vdots$$

$$j_n. \qquad A_n \Rightarrow B$$

$$k. \qquad B \qquad \lor E, i, j_1, \dots, j_n$$

Proof that			
⊣	(A	$\Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow (\neg A$	$\lor B)$
1.		$A \Rightarrow B$	Hyp
2.		$\neg(\neg A \lor B)$	Нур
3.		$\neg A$	Нур
4.		$\neg A \lor B$	$\vee I$, 3
5.		$\neg(\neg A \lor B)$	Reit, 2
6.		$\neg \neg A$	eg I, 3-5
7.		A	$\neg E, 6$
8.		$A \Rightarrow B$	Reit, 1
9.		В	$\Rightarrow E, 7, 8$
10.		$\neg A \lor B$	$\vee I$, 9
11.		$\neg(\neg A \lor B)$	Rep,2
12.	I	$\neg\neg(\neg A \lor B)$	eg I, 2 - 11
13.		$\neg A \lor B$	$\neg E, 12$
14.	I	$(A \Rightarrow B) \Rightarrow (\neg A \lor B)$	\Rightarrow I, 1–14

1.		$(A \lor B) \land \neg A$	Hyp
2.		$\neg A$	$\wedge E, 1$
3.		$A \lor B$	$\wedge E,1$
4.		A	Hyp
5.		$\neg B$	Нур
6.		A	Reit, 4
7.		$\neg A$	Reit, 2
8.		$\neg \neg B$	$ eg I,5 extsf{7}$
9.		В	$\neg E, 8$
10.		$A \Rightarrow B$	\Rightarrow I, 4–9
11.		В	Hyp
12.		В	Rep, 11
13.		$B \Rightarrow B$	\Rightarrow I, 11–12
14.		В	ee E,3,10,13
15.	I	$(A \lor B) \land \neg A \Rightarrow B$	$\Rightarrow I, 1-14$

Proof that $\vdash (A \lor B) \land \neg A \Rightarrow B$

Rules for
$$\Leftrightarrow$$
 $i. | A \Rightarrow B$ $i. | A \Rightarrow B$ $j. | B \Rightarrow A$ $k. | A \Leftrightarrow B \Rightarrow A$ $i. | B$ \vdots $j. | A \Leftrightarrow B$ $k. | B \Rightarrow (a, i, j)$ $k. | B \Rightarrow (a, i, j)$

Proof that $\vdash (A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)) \Leftrightarrow (A \land B \Rightarrow C)$

Proof from p. 120

9. $(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)) \Rightarrow (A \land B \Rightarrow C) \Rightarrow I$

Proof from p. 119

- 18. $(A \land B \Rightarrow C) \Rightarrow (A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)) \Rightarrow I$
- 19. $(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow C)) \Leftrightarrow (A \land B \Rightarrow C) \quad \Leftrightarrow I, 9, 18$

CarPool World Derivation

1.	Tom is the driver $\Leftrightarrow \neg$ Tom is the passenger	
2.	Tom is the passenger \Leftrightarrow Betty is the driver	
3.	Betty is the driver $\Leftrightarrow \neg$ Betty is the passenger	
4.	Tom is the driver	Hyp
5.	$\neg Tom is the passenger$	$\Leftrightarrow E, 4, 1$
6.	$\neg Betty is the passenger$	Hyp
7.	Betty is the driver $\Leftrightarrow \neg$ Betty is the passenger	Reit, 3
8.	Betty is the driver	$\Leftrightarrow E, 6, 7$
9.	Tom is the passenger \Leftrightarrow Betty is the driver	Reit, 2
10.	Tom is the passenger	$\Leftrightarrow E, 8, 9$
11.	$\neg Tom is the passenger$	Reit, 5
12.	$\neg \neg Betty is the passenger$	eg I, 6-11
13.	Betty is the passenger	$\neg E, 12$

Implementing Natural Deduction

Heuristics:

If trying to prove/derive a non-atomic wfp, try the introduction rule for the major connective.

If trying to prove/derive a wfp, and that wfp is a component of a wfp, try the relevant elimination rule.

Using SNePS 3

```
cl-user(2): :ld /projects/snwiz/Sneps3/sneps3
```

```
"Change package to snuser."
cl-user(3): :pa snuser
```

```
snuser(4): (showproofs)
nil
```

. . .

```
snuser(5): (askif '(if A A))
Let me assume that A
Since A can be derived after assuming A
I infer wft1!: (if A A) by Implication Introduction.
wft1!: (if A A)
```

Derivation by SNePS 3

snuser(12): (clearkb)
nil

```
snuser(13): (assert 'TomIsTheDriver)
TomIsTheDriver!
snuser(14): (assert '(if TomIsTheDriver BettyIsThePassenger))
wft1!: (if TomIsTheDriver! BettyIsThePassenger)
snuser(15): (assert '(if BettyIsThePassenger (not BettyIsTheDriver)))
wft3!: (if BettyIsThePassenger (not BettyIsTheDriver))
wft3!: (if BettyIsThePassenger (not BettyIsTheDriver))
snuser(16): (askif '(not BettyIsTheDriver))
Since wft1!: (if TomIsTheDriver! BettyIsThePassenger)
and TomIsTheDriver!
I infer BettyIsThePassenger! by Implication Elimination.
Since wft3!: (if BettyIsThePassenger! (not BettyIsTheDriver))
and BettyIsThePassenger!
I infer wft2!: (not BettyIsTheDriver) by Implication Elimination.
```

wft2!: (not BettyIsTheDriver)

snuser(17): (askif 'BettyIsThePassenger) ; Lemma
BettyIsThePassenger!

SNePS 3 Proves Axiom A1

```
snuser(9): (clearkb)
nil
```

```
snuser(10): (askif '(if A (if B A)))
Let me assume that A
Let me assume that B
Since A can be derived after assuming B
I infer wft1?: (if B A) by Implication Introduction.
```

```
Since wft1?: (if B A) can be derived after assuming A
I infer wft2!: (if A (if B A)) by Implication Introduction.
wft2!: (if A (if B A))
```

Another Derivation by SNePS 3

snuser(24): (clearkb)

nil

snuser(25): (assert '(iff TomIsTheDriver (not TomIsThePassenger)))
wft2!: (iff TomIsTheDriver (not TomIsThePassenger))
snuser(26): (assert '(iff TomIsThePassenger BettyIsTheDriver))
wft3!: (iff TomIsThePassenger BettyIsTheDriver)
snuser(27): (assert '(iff BettyIsTheDriver (not BettyIsThePassenger)))
wft5!: (iff (not BettyIsThePassenger) BettyIsTheDriver)
snuser(28): (assert 'TomIsTheDriver)

TomIsTheDriver!

```
snuser(29): (askif 'BettyIsThePassenger)
Since wft2!: (iff TomIsTheDriver! (not TomIsThePassenger))
and TomIsTheDriver!
I infer wft1!: (not TomIsThePassenger) by Equivalence Elimination.
```

Since wft3!: (iff TomIsThePassenger BettyIsTheDriver)
and wft1!: (not TomIsThePassenger)
I infer wft7!: (not BettyIsTheDriver) by Equivalence Elimination.

Since wft5!: (iff (not BettyIsThePassenger) BettyIsTheDriver)
and wft7!: (not BettyIsTheDriver)
I infer BettyIsThePassenger! by Equivalence Elimination.

BettyIsThePassenger!

More Connections

- Deduction Theorem: $A \vdash P$ if and only if $\vdash A \Rightarrow P$.
- So proving theorems and deriving conclusions from assumptions are equivalent.
- But no atomic proposition is a theorem.
- So theorem proving makes more use of Introduction Rules than most AI reasoning systems.

2.4 Important Properties of Logical Systems

Soundness: $\vdash P$ implies $\models P$ Consistency: not both $\vdash P$ and $\vdash \neg P$ Completeness: $\models P$ implies $\vdash P$

More Connections

- If at most 1 of $\models P$ and $\models \neg P$ then soundness implies consistency.
- Soundness is the essence of "correct reasoning."
- Completeness less important for running systems since a proof may take too long to wait for.
- The Propositional Logics we have been looking at are complete.
- Gödel's Incompleteness Theorem: A logic strong enough to formalize arithmetic is *either* inconsistent *or* incomplete.

More Connections

$$A_1, \ldots, A_n \vdash P \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad \vdash A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n \Rightarrow P$$

soundness $\Downarrow \uparrow$ completeness soundness $\Downarrow \uparrow$ completeness

$$A_1, \ldots, A_n \models P \qquad \Leftrightarrow \quad \models A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n \Rightarrow P$$

2.5 Clause Form Propositional Logic

2.5.1	Syntax	137
2.5.2	Semantics	139
2.5.3	Proof Theory: Resolution	143
2.5.4	Resolution Refutation	147
2.5.5	Translating Standard Wfps into Clause Form	159

2.5.1 Clause Form Syntax

Syntax of Atoms and Literals

Atomic Propositions:

- Any letter of the alphabet
- Any letter with a numerical subscript
- Any alphanumeric string.

Literals:

If P is an atomic proposition, P and $\neg P$ are literals.

P is called a **positive literal**

 $\neg P$ is called a **negative literal**.

Clause Form Syntax Syntax of Clauses and Sets of Clauses

Clauses: If L_1, \ldots, L_n are literals then the set $\{L_1, \ldots, L_n\}$ is a clause.

Sets of Clauses: If C_1, \ldots, C_n are clauses then the set $\{C_1, \ldots, C_n\}$ is a set of clauses.

2.5.2 Clause Form Semantics

Atomic Propositions

Intensional: [P] is some proposition in the domain. **Extensional:** $[\![P]\!]$ is either True or False.

Clause Form Semantics: Literals

Positive Literals: The meaning of P as a literal is the same as it is as an atomic proposition.

Negative Literals:

Intensional:

 $[\neg P]$ means that it is not the case that [P]. **Extensional:** $[\neg P]$ is True if [P] is False; Otherwise, it is False.

Clause Form Semantics: Clauses

Intensional:

 $[\{L_1,\ldots,L_n\}] = [L_1]$ and/or \ldots and/or $[L_n]$.

Extensional:

 $\llbracket \{L_1, \ldots, L_n\} \rrbracket$ is True if at least one of $\llbracket L_1 \rrbracket, \ldots, \llbracket L_n \rrbracket$ is True; Otherwise, it is False.

Clause Form Semantics: Sets of Clauses

Intensional:

 $[\{C_1, \ldots, C_n\}] = [C_1] \text{ and } \ldots \text{ and } [C_n].$

Extensional:

 $\llbracket \{C_1, \ldots, C_n\} \rrbracket$ is True if $\llbracket C_1 \rrbracket$ and \ldots and $\llbracket C_n \rrbracket$ are all True; Otherwise, it is False.

2.5.3 Clause Form Proof Theory: Resolution

Notion of Proof: None!

Notion of Derivation: A set of clauses constitutes a derivation.

- **Assumptions:** The derivation is initialized with a set of assumption clauses A_1, \ldots, A_n .
- **Rule of Inference:** A clause may be added to a set of clauses if justified by **resolution**.
- **Derived Clause:** If clause Q has been added to a set of clauses initialized with the set of assumption clauses A_1, \ldots, A_n by one or more applications of resolution, then $A_1, \ldots, A_n \vdash Q$.

Resolution

$$\frac{\{P, L_1, \dots, L_n\}, \{\neg P, L_{n+1}, \dots, L_m\}}{\{L_1, \dots, L_n, L_{n+1}, \dots, L_m\}}$$

Resolution is sound, but not complete!
Example Derivation

1. $\{\neg TomIsTheDriver, \neg TomIsThePassenger\}$ Assumption2. $\{TomIsThePassenger, BettyIsThePassenger\}$ Assumption3. $\{TomIsTheDriver\}$ Assumption4. $\{\neg TomIsThePassenger\}$ R, 1, 35. $\{BettyIsThePassenger\}$ R, 2, 4

Example of Incompleteness

$$\{P\} \models \{P,Q\}$$

but

 $\{P\} \not\vdash \{P,Q\}$

because resolution does not apply to $\{\{P\}\}$.

- Notice that $\{\{P\}, \{\neg P\}\}\$ is contradictory.
- Notice that resolution applies to {P} and {¬P} producing {}, the empty clause.
- If a set of clauses is contradictory, repeated application of resolution is **guaranteed** to produce {}.

Implications

- Set of clauses $\{A_1, \ldots, A_n, Q\}$ is contradictory
- means $(A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n \land Q)$ is False in all models
- means whenever $(A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n)$ is True, Q is False
- means whenever $(A_1 \land \ldots \land A_n)$ is True $\neg Q$ is True
- means $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models \neg Q$.

Negation and Clauses

•
$$\neg \{L_1, \dots, L_n\} = \{\{\neg L_1\}, \dots, \{\neg L_n\}\}.$$

• $\neg L = \begin{cases} \neg A & \text{if } L = A \\ A & \text{if } L = \neg A \end{cases}$

Resolution Refutation

To decide if $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models Q$:

- 1. Let $S = \{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \cup \neg Q$ (Note: $\neg Q$ is a set of clauses.)
- 2. Repeatedly apply resolution to clauses in S. (Determine if $\{A_1, \ldots, A_n\} \cup \neg Q \vdash \{\}$)
- 3. If generate $\{\}, A_1, \dots, A_n \models Q$. (If $\{A_1, \dots, A_n\} \cup \neg Q \vdash \{\}$ then $A_1, \dots, A_n \models Q$)
- 4. If reach point where no new clause can be generated, but {} has not appeared, $A_1, \ldots, A_n \not\models Q$. (If $\{A_1, \ldots, A_n\} \cup \neg Q \not\vdash \{\}$ then $A_1, \ldots, A_n \not\models Q$)

Example 1

- To decide if $\{P\} \models \{P, Q\}$ $S = \{\{P\}, \{\neg P\}, \{\neg Q\}\}$
 - 1. $\{P\}$ Assumption
 - 2. $\{\neg P\}$ From query clause
 - 3. $\{\}$ R, 1, 2

Example 2

To decide if

$\{\neg TomIsTheDriver, \neg TomIsThePassenger\},$					
${To}$	mI	$\ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ $			
<i>{ To</i>	mI	$\models STheDriver \} \models$	${B}$	$Betty Is The Passenger \}$	
-	1.	$\{\neg TomIsTheDriver, \neg TomIsThePassenger\}$	}	Assumption	
4	2.	$\{ {\it TomIsThePassenger}, {\it BettyIsThePassenger} \}$	$r\}$	Assumption	
e	3.	$\{TomIsTheDriver\}$		Assumption	
Z	4.	$\{\neg BettyIsThePassenger\}$		From query clause	
[5.	$\{TomIsThePassenger\}$		R, 2, 4	
ť	6.	$\{\neg TomIsTheDriver\}$		R, 1, 5	
	7.	{}		R,3,6	

Resolution Efficiency Rules

- **Tautology Elimination:** If clause C contains literals L and $\neg L$, delete C from the set of clauses. (Check throughout.)
- **Pure-Literal Elimination:** If clause C contains a literal $A(\neg A)$ and no clause contains a literal $\neg A(A)$, delete C from the set of clauses. (Check throughout.)
- **Subsumption Elimination:** If the set of clauses contains clauses C_1 and C_2 such that $C_1 \subseteq C_2$, delete C_2 from the set of clauses. (Check throughout.)

These rules delete unhelpful clauses.

Resolution Strategies

Unit Preference: Resolve shorter clauses before longer clauses.

Set of Support: One clause in each pair being resolved must descend from the query.

Many others

These are heuristics for finding {} faster.

Example 1 Using prover

cl-user(2): :ld /projects/shapiro/AIclass/prover
; Fast loading /projects/shapiro/AIclass/prover.fasl

```
cl-user(3): :pa prover
```

```
prover(4): (prove '(P) '(or P Q))
1 (P) Assumption
2 ((not P)) From Query
3 ((not Q)) From Query
Deleting 3 ((not Q))
because Q is not used positively in any clause.
4 nil R,2,1,{}
QED
```

Example 2 Using prover

'BettyIsThePassenger)

- 1 (TomIsTheDriver) Assumption
- 2 ((not TomIsTheDriver) (not TomIsThePassenger)) Assumption
- 3 (TomIsThePassenger BettyIsThePassenger) Assumption
- 4 ((not BettyIsThePassenger)) From Query
- 5 (TomIsThePassenger) R,4,3,{}

Deleting 3 (TomIsThePassenger BettyIsThePassenger)

because it's subsumed by 5 (TomIsThePassenger)

6 ((not TomIsTheDriver)) R,5,2,{}

Deleting 2 ((not TomIsTheDriver) (not TomIsThePassenger)) because it's subsumed by 6 ((not TomIsTheDriver))

7 nil R,6,1,{}

QED

Example 1 Using SNARK

```
cl-user(5): :ld /projects/shapiro/CSE563/snark
; Loading /projects/shapiro/CSE563/snark.cl
. . .
cl-user(6): :pa snark-user
snark-user(7): (initialize)
. . .
snark-user(8): (assert 'P)
nil
snark-user(9): (prove '(or P Q))
(Refutation
(Row 1
   Ρ
   assertion)
(Row 2
   false
   (rewrite ~conclusion 1))
)
:proof-found
```

Properties of Resolution Refutation

Resolution Refutation is sound, complete, and a decision procedure for Clause Form Propositional Logic.

It remains so when Tautology Elimination, Pure-Literal Elimination, Subsumption Elimination and the Unit-Preference Strategy are included.

It remains so when Set of Support is used as long as the assumptions are not contradictory.

2.5.5 Equivalence of Standard Propositional Logic and Clause FormLogic

Every set of clauses,

$$\{\{L_{1,1},\ldots,L_{1,n_1}\},\ldots,\{L_{m,1},\ldots,L_{m,n_m}\}\}$$

has the same semantics as the standard wfp

$$((L_{1,1} \vee \cdots \vee L_{1,n_1}) \wedge \cdots \wedge (L_{m,1} \vee \cdots \vee L_{m,n_m}))$$

That is, there is a translation from any set of clauses into a well-formed proposition of standard propositional logic.

Question: Is there a translation from any well-formed proposition of standard propositional logic into a set of clauses?

Answer: Yes!

Translating Standard Wfps into Clause Form Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

A standard wfp is in **CNF** if it is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals.

$$((L_{1,1} \vee \cdots \vee L_{1,n_1}) \wedge \cdots \wedge (L_{m,1} \vee \cdots \vee L_{m,n_m}))$$

Translation technique:

- 1. Turn any arbitrary wfp into CNF.
- 2. Translate the CNF wfp into a set of clauses.

Translating Standard Wfps into Clause Form Useful Meta-Theorem: The Subformula Property

If A is (an occurrence of) a subformula of B, and $\models A \Leftrightarrow C$, then $\models B \Leftrightarrow B\{C/A\}$

Translating Standard Wfps into Clause Form Step 1

Eliminate occurrences of \Leftrightarrow using

 $\models (A \Leftrightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow ((A \Rightarrow B) \land (B \Rightarrow A))$

From: $(LivingThing \Leftrightarrow (Animal \lor Vegetable))$

To:

 $((LivingThing \Rightarrow (Animal \lor Vegetable)))$ $\land ((Animal \lor Vegetable) \Rightarrow LivingThing))$

Eliminate occurrences of \Rightarrow using

$$\models (A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \lor B)$$

From:

$$((LivingThing \Rightarrow (Animal \lor Vegetable)))$$

$$\land ((Animal \lor Vegetable) \Rightarrow LivingThing))$$

To: $((\neg LivingThing \lor (Animal \lor Vegetable)))$ $\land (\neg (Animal \lor Vegetable) \lor LivingThing))$

Translate to *miniscope* form using

$$\models \neg (A \land B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \lor \neg B)$$
$$\models \neg (A \lor B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \land \neg B)$$
$$\models \neg (\neg A) \Leftrightarrow A$$

From:

 $((\neg LivingThing \lor (Animal \lor Vegetable)))$ $\land (\neg (Animal \lor Vegetable) \lor LivingThing))$

To:

 $((\neg LivingThing \lor (Animal \lor Vegetable)) \land ((\neg Animal \land \neg Vegetable) \lor LivingThing))$

CNF: Translate into Conjunctive Normal Form, using $\models (A \lor (B \land C)) \Leftrightarrow ((A \lor B) \land (A \lor C))$ $\models ((B \land C) \lor A) \Leftrightarrow ((B \lor A) \land (C \lor A))$

From:

 $((\neg LivingThing \lor (Animal \lor Vegetable)) \land ((\neg Animal \land \neg Vegetable) \lor LivingThing))$

To:

 $((\neg LivingThing \lor (Animal \lor Vegetable)) \land ((\neg Animal \lor LivingThing) \land (\neg Vegetable \lor LivingThing)))$

Discard extra parentheses using the associativity of \land and \lor .

From:

 $((\neg LivingThing \lor (Animal \lor Vegetable)) \land ((\neg Animal \lor LivingThing) \land (\neg Vegetable \lor LivingThing)))$

To: $((\neg LivingThing \lor Animal \lor Vegetable)$ $\land (\neg Animal \lor LivingThing)$ $\land (\neg Vegetable \lor LivingThing))$

Turn each disjunction into a clause, and the conjunction into a set of clauses.

From:

 $\begin{array}{l} ((\neg LivingThing \lor Animal \lor Vegetable) \\ \land (\neg Animal \lor LivingThing) \\ \land (\neg Vegetable \lor LivingThing)) \end{array}$

To: $\{\{\neg LivingThing, Animal, Vegetable\}, \{\neg Animal, LivingThing\}, \{\neg Vegetable, LivingThing\}\}$

Use of Translation

$$A_1, \ldots, A_n \models_{Standard} Q$$
 iff

The translation of $A_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge A_n \wedge \neg Q$ into a set of clauses $\vdash \{\}$

prover Example

To prove

```
(LivingThing \Leftrightarrow Animal \lor Vegetable), (LivingThing \land \neg Animal) \models Vegetable
```

'Vegetable)

- 1 (LivingThing) Assumption
- 2 ((not Animal)) Assumption
- 3 ((not Animal) LivingThing) Assumption
- 4 ((not Vegetable) LivingThing) Assumption
- 5 ((not LivingThing) Animal Vegetable) Assumption
- 6 ((not Vegetable)) From Query

```
Deleting 3 ((not Animal) LivingThing)
```

```
because it's subsumed by 1 (LivingThing)
```

```
Deleting 4 ((not Vegetable) LivingThing)
```

```
because it's subsumed by 1 (LivingThing)
```

prover Example, continued

- 1 (LivingThing) Assumption
- 2 ((not Animal)) Assumption
- 5 ((not LivingThing) Animal Vegetable) Assumption
- 6 ((not Vegetable)) From Query

7 ((not LivingThing) Animal) R,6,5,{}
Deleting 5 ((not LivingThing) Animal Vegetable)
because it's subsumed by 7 ((not LivingThing) Animal)
8 (Animal) R,7,1,{}
9 ((not LivingThing)) R,7,2,{}

10 nil R,9,1,{}

QED

Connections

	Modus Ponens	Resolution
	$A, A \Rightarrow B$	$\{A\},\{\neg A,B\}$
	В	$\{B\}$
	Modus Tollens	Resolution
	$A \Rightarrow B, \neg B$	$\{\neg A, B\}, \{\neg B\}$
-	$\neg A$	$\{\neg A\}$
Disjunctive Syllogism		
D	isjunctive Syllogism	Resolution
D	isjunctive Syllogism $A \lor B, \neg A$	Resolution $\{A, B\}, \{\neg A\}$
D	isjunctive Syllogism $A \lor B, \neg A$ B	Resolution $\{A, B\}, \{\neg A\}$ $\{B\}$
D :	isjunctive Syllogism $A \lor B, \neg A$ B $Chaining$	Resolution $\{A, B\}, \{\neg A\}$ $\{B\}$ Resolution
	isjunctive Syllogism $A \lor B, \neg A$ B Chaining $A \Rightarrow B, B \Rightarrow C$	$\begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$
D :	isjunctive Syllogism $A \lor B, \neg A$ B Chaining $A \Rightarrow B, B \Rightarrow C$ $A \Rightarrow C$	$\begin{tabular}{lllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$

More Connections



Set of Support Back-chaining

3 Predicate Logic Over Finite Models

3.1 CarPool World	174
3.2 The "Standard" Finite-Model Predicate Logic	175
3.3 Clause Form Finite-Model Predicate Logic	211

3.1 CarPool World

Propositional Logic

	Tom drives Betty	Betty drives Tom
	Tom is the driver	Betty is the driver
	Tom is the passenger	Betty is the passenger
related only	by the domain rules.	
Predicate Lo	ogic	

Drives(Tom, Betty)	Drives(Betty, Tom)
Driver(Tom)	Driver(Betty)
Passenger(Tom)	Passenger(Betty)

shows two properties, one relation, and two individuals.

3.2 The "Standard" Finite-Model Predicate Logic

1.	Syntax	176
2.	Substitutions	187
3.	Semantics	190
4.	Model Checking in Finite-Model Predicate Logic	202

3.2.1 Syntax of the "Standard" Finite-Model Predicate Logic Atomic Symbols

Individual Constants:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably early),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript,
- any character string not containing blanks nor other punctuation marks.

For example: $a, B_{12}, Tom, Tom's_mother-in-law$.

Atomic Symbols, Part 2

Variables:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably late),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript.

For example: u, v_6 .

Atomic Symbols, Part 3

Predicate Symbols:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably late middle),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript,
- any character string not containing blanks.

For example: $P, Q_4, Drives$.

Each Predicate Symbol must have a particular **arity**.

Use superscript for explicit arity.

For example: P^1 , $Drives^2$, Q_2^3

Atomic Symbols, Part 4

In any specific predicate logic language

Individual Constants, Variables, Predicate Symbols

must be disjoint.

Set of individual constants and of predicate symbols must be **finite**.

Terms

- Every individual constant and variable is a term.
- Nothing else is a term.
Atomic Formulas

If P^n is a predicate symbol of arity n, and t_1, \ldots, t_n are terms, then $P^n(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is an atomic formula. E.g.: $Passenger^1(Tom), Drives^2(Betty, y)$ (The superscript may be omitted if no confusion results.)

Well-Formed Formulas (wffs):

Every atomic formula is a wff.

If P is a wff, then so is $(\neg P)$.

If P and Q are wffs, then so are

 $(P \land Q) \qquad (P \lor Q)$

 $(P \Rightarrow Q) \quad (P \Leftrightarrow Q)$

If P is a wff and x is a variable, then $\forall x(P)$ and $\exists x(P)$ are wffs.

Parentheses may be omitted or replaced by square brackets if no confusion results.

We will allow $(P_1 \land \cdots \land P_n)$ and $(P_1 \lor \cdots \lor P_n)$.

 $\forall x(\forall y(P)) \text{ may be abbreviated as } \forall x, y(P).$ $\exists x(\exists y(P)) \text{ may be abbreviated as } \exists x, y(P).$

Quantifiers:

In $\forall xP$ and $\exists xP$

 \forall called the **universal quantifier**.

 \exists called the **existential quantifier**.

P is called the **scope** of quantification.

Free and Bound Variables

Every occurrence of x in P, not in the scope of some other occurrence of $\forall x$ or $\exists x$, is said to be **free** in P and **bound** in $\forall xP$ and $\exists xP$.

Every occurrence of every variable other than x that is free in P is also free in $\forall xP$ and $\exists xP$.

 $\forall x [P(x,y) \Leftrightarrow [(\exists x \exists z Q(x,y,z)) \Rightarrow R(x,y)]]$

Open, Closed, and Ground

- A wff with a free variable is called **open**.
- A wff with no free variables is called **closed**,
- An expression with no variables is called **ground**.

CarPool World Domain Rules PropositionalLogic

Betty is the driver $\Leftrightarrow \neg$ Betty is the passenger

Tom is the driver $\Leftrightarrow \neg$ Tom is the passenger

Betty drives $Tom \Rightarrow Betty$ is the driver $\land Tom$ is the passenger

Tom drives $Betty \Rightarrow Tom$ is the driver $\land Betty$ is the passenger

Tom drives $Betty \lor Betty$ drives Tom

PredicateLogic

 $\forall x(Driver(x) \Leftrightarrow \neg Passenger(x))$

 $\forall x, y(Drives(x, y) \Rightarrow (Driver(x) \land Passenger(y)))$

 $Drives(Tom, Betty) \lor Drives(Betty, Tom)$

3.2.2 Substitutions Syntax

Pairs: t/v (Read : "t for v")

- t is any term
- v is any variable

Substitutions: $\{t_1/v_1, \ldots, t_n/v_n\}$

• $i \neq j \Rightarrow v_i \neq v_j$

Terminology

$$\sigma = \{t_1/v_1, \ldots, t_n/v_n\}$$

 t_i is a **term** in σ

 v_i is a variable of σ

Say $t_i/v_i \in \sigma$ and $v_i \in \sigma$,

but not $t_i \in \sigma$

Note: x is not a variable of $\{x/y\}$, i.e. $x/y \in \{x/y\}, y \in \{x/y\}, x \notin \{x/y\}$

Substitution Application

For expression \mathcal{A} and substitution $\sigma = \{t_1/v_1, \ldots, t_n/v_n\}$ $\mathcal{A}\sigma$: replace every free occurrence of each v_i in \mathcal{A} by t_i E.g.:

$$\begin{split} P(x,y)\{x/y,y/x\} &= P(y,x) \\ \forall x [P(x,y) \Leftrightarrow [(\exists x \exists z Q(x,y,z)) \Rightarrow R(x,y,z)]]\{a/x,b/y,c/z\} \\ &= \forall x [P(x,b) \Leftrightarrow [(\exists x \exists z Q(x,b,z)) \Rightarrow R(x,b,c)]] \end{split}$$

3.2.3 Semantics of Finite-Model Predicate Logic

Assumes a Finite Domain, \mathcal{D} , of

- individuals,
- sets of individuals,
- relations over individuals

Let \mathcal{I} be the set of all individuals in \mathcal{D} .

Semantics of Individual Constants

 $[a] = \llbracket a \rrbracket =$ some particular individual in \mathcal{I} .

There is no anonymous individual.

I.e. for every individual, i in \mathcal{I} , there is an individual constant c such that $[c] = \llbracket c \rrbracket = i$.

Semantics of Predicate Symbols

Predicate Symbols:

- $[P^1]$ is some category/property of individuals of \mathcal{I} .
- $[P^n]$ is some n-ary relation over \mathcal{I} .
- $\llbracket P^1 \rrbracket$ is some particular subset of \mathcal{I} .
- $\llbracket P^n \rrbracket$ is some particular subset of the relation

$$\underbrace{\mathcal{I} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{I}}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

Intensional Semantics of Ground Atomic Formulas

- If P¹ is some unary predicate symbol, and t is some individual constant, then [P¹(t)] is the proposition that [t] is an instance of the category [P¹] (or has the property [P¹]).
- If Pⁿ is some n-ary predicate symbol, and t₁,..., t_n are individual constants, then [Pⁿ(t₁,..., t_n)] is the proposition that the relation [Pⁿ] holds among individuals [t₁], and ..., and [t_n].

Extensional Semantics of Ground Atomic Formulas

- If P^1 is some unary predicate symbol, and t is some individual constant, then $\llbracket P^1(t) \rrbracket$ is True if $\llbracket t \rrbracket \in \llbracket P^1 \rrbracket$, and False otherwise.
- If Pⁿ is some n-ary predicate symbol, and t₁,..., t_n are individual constants, then [[Pⁿ(t₁,...,t_n)]] is True if ⟨[[t₁]],..., [[t_n]]⟩ ∈ [[Pⁿ]], and False otherwise.

Semantics of WFFs, Part 1

$$[\neg P], [P \land Q], [P \lor Q], [P \Rightarrow Q], [P \Leftrightarrow Q]$$

 $\llbracket \neg P \rrbracket, \llbracket P \land Q \rrbracket, \llbracket P \lor Q \rrbracket, \llbracket P \Rightarrow Q \rrbracket, \text{and } \llbracket P \Leftrightarrow Q \rrbracket$
are as they are in Propositional Logic.

Semantics of WFFs, Part 2

- $[\forall xP]$ is the proposition that every individual i in \mathcal{I} , with "name" t_i , satisfies $[P\{t_i/x\}]$.
- $[\exists xP]$ is the proposition that some individual i in \mathcal{I} , with "name" t_i , satisfies $[P\{t_i/x\}]$.
- [[∀xP]] is True if [[P{t/x}]] is True for every individual constant,
 t. Otherwise, it is False.
- $[\exists xP]$ is True if there is some individual constant, t such that $[P\{t/x\}]$ is True. Otherwise, it is False.

Intensional Semantics of Individual Constants In CarPool World

[Tom] = Someone named Tom. [Betty] = Someone named Betty.

Intensional Semantics of Individual Constants In 4-Person CarPool World (Call it 4pCarPool World)

[Tom] = Someone named Tom. [Betty] = Someone named Betty. [John] = Someone named John. [Mary] = Someone named Mary.

Intensional Semantics of Ground Atomic Wffs In Both CarPool Worlds

Predicate Symbols:

 $[Driver^{1}(x)] = [x]$ is the driver of the/a car. $[Passenger^{1}(x)] = [x]$ is the passenger of the/a car. $[Drives^{2}(x, y)] = [x]$ drives [y] to work. Extensional Semantics of One CarPool World Situation

$$\llbracket Tom \rrbracket = \text{Tom.}$$
$$\llbracket Betty \rrbracket = \text{Betty.}$$
$$\llbracket Driver \rrbracket = \{\text{Betty}\}.$$
$$\llbracket Passenger \rrbracket = \{\text{Tom}\}.$$
$$\llbracket Drives \rrbracket = \{\langle \text{ Betty, Tom}\rangle\}.$$

Extensional Semantics of One 4pCarPool World Situation

$$\begin{bmatrix} Tom \end{bmatrix} = \text{Tom.}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} Betty \end{bmatrix} = \text{Betty.}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} John \end{bmatrix} = \text{John.}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} Mary \end{bmatrix} = \text{Mary.}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} Driver \end{bmatrix} = \{\text{Betty, John}\}.$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} Passenger \end{bmatrix} = \{\text{Mary, Tom}\}.$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} Drives \end{bmatrix} = \{\langle \text{Betty, Tom} \rangle, \langle \text{John, Mary} \rangle\}.$$

3.2.4 Model Checking in Finite-Model Predicate Logic

- n Individual Constants.
- Predicate P^j yields n^j ground atomic propositions.
- k_j predicates of arity j yields $\sum_j (k_j \times n^j)$ ground atomic propositions.
- So $2^{\sum_j (k_j \times n^j)}$ situations (columns of truth table).
- CarPool World has $2^{(2 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^2)} = 2^8 = 256$ situations.
- 4pCarPool World has 2^(2×4¹+1×4²) = 2²⁴ = 16,777,216 situations.

Some CarPool World Situations

Driver(Tom)	T	T	F
Driver(Betty)	T	F	T
Passenger(Tom)	T	F	T
Passenger(Betty)	T	T	F
$Drives(\mathit{Tom},\mathit{Tom})$	T	F	F
Drives(Tom, Betty)	T	T	F
Drives(Betty, Tom)	T	F	T
Drives(Betty, Betty)	T	F	F
$\forall x(Driver(x) \Leftrightarrow \neg Passenger(x))$	F	T	Т
$\forall x \forall y (Drives(x, y) \Rightarrow (Driver(x) \Leftrightarrow Passenger(y)))$	T	T	T
Page 203			

Turning

Predicate Logic Over Finite Domains Into Ground Predicate Logic

If c_1, \ldots, c_n are the individual constants,

- Turn $\forall x P(x)$ into $P(c_1) \land \cdots \land P(c_n)$
- and $\exists x P(x)$ into $P(c_1) \lor \cdots \lor P(c_n)$
- E.g.:

 $\begin{aligned} \forall x \exists y (Drives(x, y)) \\ \Leftrightarrow \exists y Drives(Tom, y) \land \exists y Drives(Betty, y) \\ \Leftrightarrow (Drives(Tom, Tom) \lor Drives(Tom, Betty)) \\ \land (Drives(Betty, Tom) \lor Drives(Betty, Betty)) \end{aligned}$

Sorted Logic: A Digression

Introduce a hierarchy of sorts, s_1, \ldots, s_n .

(A sort in logic is similar to a data type in programming.)

Assign each individual constant a **sort**.

Assign each variable a **sort**.

Declare the sort of each argument position of each predicate symbol.

An atomic formula, $P^n(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is only syntactically valid if the sort of t_i , for each i, is the sort, or a subsort of the sort, declared for the i^{th} argument position of P^n .

Predicate 2-Car CarPool World in Decreasoner

sort commuter commuter Tom, Betty sort car car TomsCar, BettysCar

;;; [DrivesIn(x,y,c)] = [x] drives [y] to work in car [c].
predicate DrivesIn(commuter,commuter,car)

;;; [DriverOf(x,c)] = [x] is the driver of car [c].
predicate DriverOf(commuter,car)

;;; [PassengerIn(x,c)] = [x] is a passenger in car [c].
predicate PassengerIn(commuter,car)

Number of Ground Atomic Propositions Unsorted vs. Sorted

Atomic Proposition	Unsorted	Sorted
DrivesIn(commuter,commuter,car)	$4^3 = 64$	$2^3 = 8$
DriverOf(commuter,car)	$4^2 = 16$	$2^2 = 4$
PassengerIn(commuter,car)	$4^2 = 16$	$2^2 = 4$
Total	96	16

Domain Rules of 2-Car CarPool World

/projects/shapiro/CSE563/decreasoner/examples/ShapiroCSE563/4cCPWPRedRules.e

;;; If someone's a driver of one car, they're not a passenger in any car.
;;; (And if someone's a passenger in one car, they're not driver of any car.)
[commuter][car1][car2](DriverOf(commuter,car1) -> !PassengerIn(commuter,car2)).

;;; Either Tom drives Betty in Tom's car or Betty drives Tom in Betty's car. DrivesIn(Tom,Betty,TomsCar) | DrivesIn(Betty,Tom,BettysCar).

;;; Tom doesn't drive Betty's car, and Betty doesn't drive Tom's car. !DriverOf(Tom,BettysCar) & !DriverOf(Betty,TomsCar).

;;; Neither Tom nor Betty is a passenger in their own car.
!PassengerIn(Tom,TomsCar) & !PassengerIn(Betty,BettysCar).

Decreasoner Produces Two Models

The True propositions:

model 1: model 2: DriverOf(Betty, BettysCar). DriverOf(Tom, TomsCar). DrivesIn(Betty, Tom, BettysCar). DrivesIn(Tom, Betty, TomsCar). PassengerIn(Tom, BettysCar). PassengerIn(Betty, TomsCar).

Use of Predicate-Wang

t

3.3 Clause Form Finite-Model Predicate Logic

1.	Syntax	212
2.	Semantics	213
3.	Model Finding	215

3.3.1 Syntax of Clause Form Finite-Model Predicate Logic

Individual constants, predicate symbols, terms, and ground atomic formulas as in standard finite-model predicate logic.

(Variables are not needed.)

Literals, clauses and sets of clauses as in propositional clause form logic.

3.3.2 Semantics of Clause Form Finite-Model Predicate Logic

- Individual constants, predicate symbols, terms, and ground atomic formulas as in standard finite-model predicate logic.
- Ground literals, ground clauses, and sets of ground clauses as in propositional clause form logic.

Translation of Standard Form to Clause Form Finite-Model Predicate Calculus

- 1. Eliminate quantifiers as when using model checking.
- 2. Translate into clause form as for propositional logic.

3.3.3 Model Finding: GSAT

procedure GSAT(C, tries, flips)

input: a set of clauses *C*, and positive integers *tries* and *flips* **output:** a model satisfying *C*, or failure

for i := 1 to tries do

 $\mathcal{M} :=$ a randomly generated truth assignment

for j := 1 to flips do

if $\mathcal{M} \models C$ then return \mathcal{M}

p := an atom such that a change in its truth

assignment gives the largest increase in the total

number of clauses in C that are satisfied by \mathcal{M}

 $\mathcal{M} := \mathcal{M}$ with the truth assignment of p reversed

end for end for

return "no satisfying interpretation found"

[Brachman & Levesque, p. 82–83, based on Bart Selman, Hector J. Levesque and David Mitchell, A New Method for Solving Hard Satisfiability Problems, AAAI-92.]

A Pedagogical Implementation of GSAT

/projects/shapiro/CSE563/gsat.cl

Uses wang:expand to eliminate quantifiers,

and prover:clauseForm to translate to clause form.
Example GSAT Run

Using GSAT to Find The Value of a Wff in a KB

```
A satisfying model (found on try 19) is

(((Drives Tom Tom) nil) ((Drives Betty Tom) t)

((Driver Betty) t) ((Passenger Tom) t)

((Drives Tom Betty) nil) ((Driver Tom) nil)

((Drives Betty Betty) nil) ((Passenger Betty) nil))
```

(and (Drives Betty Tom) (Passenger Tom)) is True in a model of the KB. nil

Model Finding: Walksat A More Efficient Version of GSAT

DIMACS FORMAT:

Code each atomic formula as a positive integer:

- c 1 Drives(Tom, Betty) Tom drives Betty to work.
- c 2 Drives(Betty, Tom) Betty drives Tom to work.
- c 3 Driver(Tom) Tom is the driver of the car.
- c 4 Driver(Betty) Betty is the driver of the car.
- c 5 Passenger(Tom) Tom is the passenger of the car.
- c 6 Passenger(Betty) Betty is the passenger of the car.

DIMACS cont'd

Code each clause as a set \pm integers, terminated by 0:

```
c ((~ (Driver Tom)) (~ (Passenger Tom)))
-3 -5 0
c ((~ (Driver Betty)) (~ (Passenger Betty)))
-4 -6 0
c ((Passenger Tom) (Driver Tom))
530
c ((Passenger Betty) (Driver Betty))
640
c ((~ (Drives Tom Betty)) (Driver Tom))
-1 3 0
c ((~ (Drives Betty Tom)) (Driver Betty))
-2 4 0
c ((~ (Drives Tom Betty)) (Passenger Betty))
-1 6 0
c ((~ (Drives Betty Tom)) (Passenger Tom))
-2 5 0
c ((Drives Tom Betty) (Drives Betty Tom))
1 2 0
c ((Driver Betty))
4 0
```

Running Walksat

% /projects/shapiro/CSE563/WalkSAT/Walksat_v46/walksat -solcnf < /projects/shapiro/CSE563/WalkSAT/cpw.cnf</pre>

ASSIGNMENT FOUND

v -1

. . .

- v 2
- v -3
- v 4
- v 5
- v -6

Model Finding: Decreasoner

Decreasoner translates sorted finite-model predicate logic wffs into DIMACS clause form.

Decreasoner gives set of clauses to Relsat.

Relsat systematically searches all models. It either:

reports that there are no satisfying models; returns up to MAXMODELS (currently 100) satisfying models; or gives up.

If Relsat gives up, Decreasoner gives set of clauses to Walksat. It either:

returns some satisfying models; or returns some "near misses"; or gives up.

Decreasoner, Walksat, and "Near Misses"

"Let's say that an "N-near miss model of a SAT problem" is a truth assignment that satisfies all but N clauses of the problem. Walksat provides the command-line option:

-target N = succeed if N or fewer clauses unsatisfied

If relsat produces no models, the Discrete Event Calculus Reasoner invokes walksat with -target 1. If this fails, it invokes walksat with -target 2. If this fails, it gives up. One or two unsatisfied clauses may be helpful for debugging. In my experience, three or more unsatisfied clauses are less useful.

If you get a near miss model, it's often useful to rerun the Discrete Event Calculus Reasoner. Because walksat is stochastic, you may get back a different near miss model, and that near miss model may be more informative than the previous one."

[Erik Mueller, email to scs, 1/12/2007]

4 Full First-Order Predicate Logic (FOL)

4.1	CarPool World	225
4.2	The "Standard" First-Order Predicate Logic	227
4.3	Clause-Form First-Order Predicate Logic	260
4.4	Translating Standard Wffs into Clause Form	306
4.5	Asking Wh Questions	325

4.1 CarPool World

We'll add Tom and Betty's mothers:

motherOf(Tom) and motherOf(Betty)

CarPool World Domain Rules (Partial)

 $\begin{aligned} \forall x (Driver(x) \Rightarrow \neg Passenger(x)) \\ \forall x, y (Drives(x, y) \Rightarrow (Driver(x) \land Passenger(y))) \end{aligned}$

4.2 The "Standard" First-Order Predicate Logic

1.	Syntax	228
2.	Semantics	240
3.	Model Checking	252
4.	Hilbert-Style Proof Theory	253
5.	Fitch-Style Proof Theory	255

4.2.1 Syntax of the "Standard" First-Order Predicate Logic Atomic Symbols

Individual Constants:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably early),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript,
- any character string not containing blanks nor other punctuation marks.

For example: $a, B_{12}, Tom, Tom's_mother-in-law$.

Arbitrary Individuals:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably early),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript.

Indefinite Individuals:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably early),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript.

Variables:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably late),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript.

For example: x, y_6 .

Function Symbols:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably early middle)
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript
- any character string not containing blanks.

For example: $f, g_2, motherOf, familyOf$.

Predicate Symbols:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably late middle),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript,
- any character string not containing blanks. For example: $P, Q_4, Passenger, Drives$.

Each Function Symbol and Predicate Symbol must have a particular **arity**.

Use superscript for explicit arity.

For example: $motherOf^1$, $Drives^2$, $familyOf^2$, g_2^3

In any specific predicate logic language

Individual Constants, Arbitrary Individuals, Indefinite Individuals, Variables, Function Symbols, Predicate Symbols

must be disjoint.

Terms

- Every individual constant, every arbitrary individual, every indefinite individual, and every variable is a term.
- If fⁿ is a function symbol of arity n, and t₁,..., t_n are terms, then fⁿ(t₁,...,t_n) is a term.
 (The superscript may be omitted if no confusion results.)
 For example: familyOf²(Tom, motherOf¹(Betty))
- Nothing else is a term.

Atomic Formulas

If P^n is a predicate symbol of arity n,

and t_1, \ldots, t_n are terms,

then $P^n(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ is an atomic formula. E.g.: $ChildIn^2(Betty, familyOf^2(Tom, motherOf^1(Betty)))$ (The superscript may be omitted if no confusion results.)

Well-Formed Formulas (wffs):

- Every atomic formula is a wff.
- If P is a wff, then so is $\neg(P)$.
- If P and Q are wffs, then so are $(P \land Q)$ $(P \lor Q)$ $(P \Rightarrow Q)$ $(P \Leftrightarrow Q)$
- If P is a wff and x is a variable, then ∀x(P) and ∃x(P) are wffs.
 Parentheses may be omitted or replaced by square brackets if no confusion results.

We will allow $(P_1 \land \dots \land P_n)$ and $(P_1 \lor \dots \lor P_n)$. $\forall x (\forall y(P))$ may be abbreviated as $\forall x, y(P)$. $\exists x (\exists y(P))$ may be abbreviated as $\exists x, y(P)$.

Open, Closed, Ground, and Free For

A wff with a free variable is called **open**.

A wff with no free variables is called **closed**,

An expression with no variables is called **ground**.

Note: expressions now include functional terms.

A term t is **free for** a variable x in the wff A(x) if no free occurrence of x in A(x) is in the scope of any quantifier $\forall y$ or $\exists y$ whose variable y is in t. E.g., f(a, y, b) is free for x in $\forall u \exists v (A(x, u) \lor B(x, v))$ but f(a, y, b) is not free for x in $\forall u \exists y (A(x, u) \lor B(x, y))$. Remedy: rename y in A(x). E.g., $\forall u \exists v (A(x, u) \lor B(x, v))$

Substitutions with Functional Terms

Notice, terms may now include functional terms. E.g.:

 $P(x, f(y), z)\{a/x, g(b)/y, f(a)/z\} = P(a, f(g(b)), f(a))$

4.2.2 Semantics of the "Standard" First-Order Predicate Logic

Assumes a **Domain**, \mathcal{D} , of

• individuals,

- functions on individuals,
- sets of individuals,
- relations on individuals

Let \mathcal{I} be set of all individuals in \mathcal{D} .

Semantics of Constants

Individual Constant:

 $[a] = \llbracket a \rrbracket =$ some particular individual in \mathcal{I} .

Arbitrary Individual:

 $[a] = \llbracket a \rrbracket$ = a representative of all individuals in \mathcal{I} . Everything True about all of them, is True of it.

Indefinite Individual:

 $[s] = \llbracket s \rrbracket =$ a representative of some individual in \mathcal{I} , but it's unspecified which one.

There is no anonymous individual.

I.e. for every individual, i in \mathcal{I} , there is a ground term t such that $\llbracket t \rrbracket = i$. (But not necessarily an individual constant.)

Intensional Semantics of Functional Terms

Function Symbols: $[f^n]$ is some n-ary function in \mathcal{D} ,

Functional Terms:

If f^n is some function symbol and t_1, \ldots, t_n are ground terms, then $[f^n(t_1, \ldots, t_n)]$ is a description of the individual in \mathcal{I} that is the value of $[f^n]$ on $[t_1]$, and \ldots , and $[t_n]$.

Extensional Semantics of Functional Terms

Function Symbols: $\llbracket f^n \rrbracket$ is some function in \mathcal{D} ,

 $\llbracket f^n \rrbracket \colon \underbrace{\mathcal{I} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{I}}_{n \text{ times}} \to \mathcal{I}$

Functional Terms:

If f^n is some function symbol and t_1, \ldots, t_n are ground terms, then $\llbracket f^n(t_1, \ldots, t_n) \rrbracket = \llbracket f^n \rrbracket (\llbracket t_1 \rrbracket, \ldots, \llbracket t_n \rrbracket).$

Semantics of Predicate Symbols

Predicate Symbols:

- $[P^1]$ is some category/property of individuals of \mathcal{I}
- $[P^n]$ is some n-ary relation in \mathcal{D} .
- $\llbracket P^1 \rrbracket$ is some particular subset of \mathcal{I} .
- $\llbracket P^n \rrbracket$ is some particular subset of the relation

$$\underbrace{\mathcal{I} \times \cdots \times \mathcal{I}}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

Intensional Semantics of Ground Atomic Formulas

- If P¹ is some unary predicate symbol, and t is some ground term, then [P¹(t)] is the proposition that [t] is an instance of the category [P¹] (or has the property [P¹]).
- If Pⁿ is some n-ary predicate symbol, and t₁,..., t_n are ground terms, then [Pⁿ(t₁,..., t_n)] is the proposition that the relation [Pⁿ] holds among individuals [t₁], and ..., and [t_n].

Extensional Semantics of Ground Atomic Formulas

Atomic Formulas:

- If P¹ is some unary predicate symbol, and t is some ground term, then [[P¹(t)]] is True if [[t]] ∈ [[P¹]], and False otherwise.
- If Pⁿ is some n-ary predicate symbol, and t₁,..., t_n are ground terms, then [[Pⁿ(t₁,..., t_n)]] is True if ⟨[[t₁]], ..., [[t_n]]⟩ ∈ [[Pⁿ]], and False otherwise.

Semantics of WFFs, Part 1

$$[\neg P], [P \land Q], [P \lor Q], [P \Rightarrow Q], [P \Leftrightarrow Q]$$

 $\llbracket \neg P \rrbracket, \llbracket P \land Q \rrbracket, \llbracket P \lor Q \rrbracket, \llbracket P \Rightarrow Q \rrbracket, \text{and } \llbracket P \Leftrightarrow Q \rrbracket$
are as they are in Propositional Logic.

Semantics of WFFs, Part 2

- $[\forall xP]$ is the proposition that every individual i in \mathcal{I} , with name or description t_i , satisfies $[P\{t_i/x\}]$.
- $[\exists xP]$ is the proposition that some individual i in \mathcal{I} , with name or description t_i , satisfies $[P\{t_i/x\}]$.
- [[∀xP]] is True if [[P{t/x}]] is True for every ground term, t.
 Otherwise, it is False.
- $[\exists xP]$ is True if there is some ground term, t such that $[P\{t/x\}]$ is True. Otherwise, it is False.

Intensional Semantics of a 2-Car CarPool World 1

Individual Constants:

[Tom] = The individual named Tom.

[Betty] = The individual named Betty.

Functions:

[mother Of(x)] = The mother of [x].

Intensional Semantics of a 2-Car CarPool World 2

Predicates:

 $[Driver^{1}(x)] = [x]$ is the driver of a car. $[Passenger^{1}(x)] = [x]$ is the passenger in a car. $[Drives^{2}(x, y)] = [x]$ drives [y] in a car.

Extensional Semantics of a 2-Car CarPool World Situation

4.2.3 Model Checking in Full FOL

n Individual Constants.

At least one function yields ∞ terms.^{*Decreasoner.} E.g., motherOf(Tom), motherOf(motherOf(Tom)), motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(Tom)))....

So ∞ ground atomic propositions.

So ∞ situations (columns of truth table).

So can't create entire truth table.

Can't do model checking

by expanding quantified expressions

into Boolean combination of ground wffs.

There still could be a finite domain if at least one individual in \mathcal{I} has an ∞ number of terms describing it, but we'll assume not.
4.2.4 Hilbert-Style Proof Theory for First-Order Predicate Logic

(A1).
$$(\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow (\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{A}))$$

(A2). $((\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow (\mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C})) \Rightarrow ((\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}) \Rightarrow (\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \mathcal{C})))$
(A3). $((\neg \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \neg \mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow ((\neg \mathcal{B} \Rightarrow \mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}))$
(A4). $\forall x \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \mathcal{A} \{ t/x \}$
where t is any term free for x in $A(x)$.
(A5). $(\forall x(\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B})) \Rightarrow (\mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \forall x \mathcal{B})$

if \mathcal{A} is a wff containing no free occurrences of x.

Hilbert-Style Rules of Inference for "Standard" First-Order Predicate Logic

 $\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow \mathcal{B}$ \mathcal{B} \mathcal{A} \mathcal{A} \mathcal{A} $\forall x \mathcal{A}$

Note: $\exists x \mathcal{A}$ is just an abbreviation of $\neg \forall x \neg \mathcal{A}$.

4.2.5 Fitch-Style Proof Theory for First-Order Predicate Logic Additional Rules of Inference for ∀

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} i & a & \text{Arb I} \\ \vdots & & i & \forall x P(x) \\ j & P(a) & & i+1 & P\{t/x\} & \forall E, i \\ +1 & \forall x P\{x/a\} & \forall I, i-j \end{array}$$

Where a is an arbitrary individual not otherwise used in the proof, and t is any term, whether or not used elsewhere in the proof, that is free for x in P(x).

j

Example of \forall Rules

To prove $\forall x(P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\forall x P(x) \Rightarrow \forall x Q(x))$

1	$\forall x (P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x))$	Hyp
2	$\forall x P(x)$	Hyp
3	a	Arb I
4	$\forall x P(x)$	Reit, 2
5	P(a)	$\forall E, 4$
6	$\forall x (P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x))$	Reit, 1
7	$P(a) \Rightarrow Q(a)$	$\forall E, 6$
8	Q(a)	$\Rightarrow E, 5,7$
9	orall x Q(x)	$\forall I, 3-8$
10	$\forall x P(x) \Rightarrow \forall x Q(x)$	\Rightarrow I, 2–9
11	$\forall x (P(x) \Rightarrow Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\forall x P(x) \Rightarrow \forall x Q(x))$	\Rightarrow I, 1–10



Where P(x) is the result of replacing some or all occurrences of t in P(t) by x, t is free for x in P(x);

a is an indefinite individual not otherwise used in the proof,

P(a/x) is the result of replacing all occurrences of x in P(x) by a,

and there is no occurrence of a in Q. (Compare $\exists E \text{ to } \lor E$.)

Example of \exists Rules

To prove $\exists x (P(x) \land Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\exists x P(x) \land \exists x Q(x))$				
1	$\exists x (P(x) \land Q(x))$	Hyp		
2	$P(a) \wedge Q(a)$	Indef I, 1		
3	P(a)	$\wedge E, 2$		
4	$\exists x P(x)$	$\exists I, 3$		
5	$\exists x P(x)$	$\exists E, 2-4$		
6	$P(b) \wedge Q(b)$	Indef I, 1		
7	Q(b)	$\wedge E, 5$		
8	$\exists x Q(x)$	$\exists I, 6$		
9	$\exists x Q(x)$	$\exists E, 5-7$		
10	$\exists x P(x) \land \exists x Q(x)$	$\wedge I, 5,9$		
11	$\exists x (P(x) \land Q(x)) \Rightarrow (\exists x P(x) \land \exists x Q(x))$	\Rightarrow I, 1–10		

CarPool Situation Derivation

1	$\forall x (Driver(x) \Rightarrow \neg Passenger(x))$	
2	$\forall x \forall y (Drives(x, y) \Rightarrow (Driver(x) \land Passenger(y)))$	
3	$\forall x Drives(mother Of(x), x)$	Hyp
4	Drives(mother Of(Tom), Tom)	$\forall E, 3$
5	$\forall y(Drives(motherOf(Tom), y)$	
	$\Rightarrow (Driver(motherOf(Tom)) \land Passenger(y)))$	$\forall E,2$
6	Drives(mother Of(Tom), Tom)	
	$\Rightarrow (Driver(motherOf(Tom)) \land Passenger(Tom))$	$\forall E, 5$
7	$Driver(motherOf(Tom)) \land Passenger(Tom)$	$\Rightarrow E, 4, 6$
8	Driver(motherOf(Tom))	$\wedge E, 7$
9	$\exists x Driver(mother Of(x))$	$\exists I, 8$

4.3 Clause-Form First-Order Predicate Logic

1.	Syntax	261
2.	Semantics	268
3.	Proof Theory	270
4.	Resolution Refutation	291

4.3.1 Syntax of Clause-Form First-Order Predicate Logic Atomic Symbols

Individual Constants:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably early),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript,
- any character string not containing blanks nor other punctuation marks.

For example: $a, B_{12}, Tom, Tom's_mother-in-law$.

Skolem Constants: Look like individual constants.

Atomic Symbols, Part 2

Variables:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably late),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript.

For example: u, v_6 .

Atomic Symbols, Part 3

Function Symbols:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably early middle)
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript
- any character string not containing blanks.

For example: f, g_2 .

Use superscript for explicit arity.

Skolem Function Symbols: Look like function symbols.

Atomic Symbols, Part 4

Predicate Symbols:

- Any letter of the alphabet (preferably late middle),
- any (such) letter with a numeric subscript,
- any character string not containing blanks.

For example: P, Q_4, odd .

Use superscript for explicit arity.

Terms

- Every individual constant, every Skolem constant, and every variable is a term.
- If fⁿ is a function symbol or Skolem function symbol of arity n, and t₁,..., t_n are terms, then fⁿ(t₁,...,t_n) is a term.
 (The superscript may be omitted if no confusion results.)
- Nothing else is a term.

Atomic Formulas

If P^n is a predicate symbol of arity n,

and t_1, \ldots, t_n are terms,

then $P^n(t_1,\ldots,t_n)$ is an atomic formula.

(The superscript may be omitted if no confusion results.)

Literals and Clauses

Literals: If P is an atomic formula, then P and $\neg P$ are literals.

Clauses: If L_1, \ldots, L_n are literals, then the set $\{L_1, \ldots, L_n\}$ is a clause.

Sets of Clauses: If C_1, \ldots, C_n are clauses, then the set $\{C_1, \ldots, C_n\}$ is a set of clauses.

4.3.2 Semantics of Clause-Form First-Order Predicate Logic

- Individual Constants, Function Symbols, Predicate Symbols, Ground Terms, and Ground Atomic Formulas as for Standard FOL.
- Skolem Constants are like indefinite individuals.
- Skolem Function Symbols are like indefinite function symbols.
- Ground Literals, Ground Clauses, and Sets of Clauses as for Clause-Form Propositional Logic.

Semantics of Open Clauses

If clause C contains variables v_1, \ldots, v_n ,

then $C\{t_1/v_1, \ldots, t_n/v_n\}$ is a **ground instance** of *C* if it contains no more variables.

If C is an open clause,

 $\llbracket C \rrbracket$ is True if every ground instance of C is True. Otherwise, it is False.

That is, variables take on **universal interpretation**, with scope being the clause.

4.3.3 Proof Theory of Clause-Form FOL

Notion of Proof: None!

- Notion of Derivation: A set of clauses constitutes a derivation.
- **Assumptions:** The derivation is initialized with a set of assumption clauses A_1, \ldots, A_n .
- **Rule of Inference:** A clause may be added to a set of clauses if justified by a rule of inference.
- **Derived Clause:** If clause Q has been added to a set of clauses initialized with the set of assumption clauses A_1, \ldots, A_n by one or more applications of resolution, then $A_1, \ldots, A_n \vdash Q$.

Clause-Form FOL Rules of Inference Version 1

Resolution:
$$\frac{\{P, L_1, \dots, L_n\}, \{\neg P, L_{n+1}, \dots, L_m\}}{\{L_1, \dots, L_n, L_{n+1}, \dots, L_m\}}$$
Universal Instantion (temporary):
$$\frac{C}{C\sigma}$$

Example Derivation

- 1. $\{\neg Drives(x, y), Driver(x)\}$ Assumption
- 2. $\{\neg Driver(z), \neg Passenger(z)\}$ Assumption
- 3. ${Drives(motherOf(Tom), Tom)}$ Assumption
- 4. $\{\neg Drives(motherOf(Tom), Tom),$ $Driver(motherOf(Tom))\}$ $UI, 1, \{motherOf(Tom)/x, Tom/y\}$
- 5. $\{Driver(motherOf(Tom))\}$ R, 3, 4
- 6. $\{\neg Driver(motherOf(Tom)), \\ \neg Passenger(motherOf(Tom))\} UI, 2, \{motherOf(Tom)/z\}$
- 7. $\{\neg Passenger(motherOf(Tom))\}$ R, 5, 6

Motivation for a Shortcut

 $\{P(x), L_1(x), \dots, L_n(x)\} \quad \{\neg P(y), L_{n+1}(y), \dots, L_m(y)\}$ $\downarrow \{a/x, a/y\} \qquad \qquad \downarrow \{a/x, a/y\}$ $\{P(a), L_1(a), \dots, L_n(a)\} \quad \{\neg P(a), L_{n+1}(a), \dots, L_m(a)\}$

$$\{L_1(a), \ldots, L_n(a), L_{n+1}(a), \ldots, L_m(a)\}$$

Most General Unifier

A most general unifier (mgu), of atomic formulas \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} is a substitution, μ ,

such that $\mathcal{A}\mu = \mathcal{B}\mu = a$ common instance of \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B}

and such that every other common instance of \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} is an instance of it.

I.e., $\mathcal{A}\mu = \mathcal{B}\mu = a \mod general \ common \ instance \ of \ \mathcal{A} \ and \ \mathcal{B}.$ Example: Unifier of P(a, x, y) and P(y, b, y) is $\{a/y, b/x, c/y, c/y\}$

Unifier of P(a, x, y) and P(u, b, v) is $\{a/u, b/x, c/y, c/v\}$ giving P(a, b, c)But more general is $\{a/u, b/x, y/v\}$ giving P(a, b, y)

Clause-Form FOL Rules of Inference Version 2

$$\{A, L_1, \ldots, L_n\}, \{\neg B, L_{n+1}, \ldots, L_m\}$$

Resolution:

$$\{L_1\mu,\ldots,L_n\mu,L_{n+1}\mu,\ldots,L_m\mu\}$$

where μ is an mgu of A and B.

Assume two parent clauses have no variables in common.

Example Derivation Revisited

- 1. $\{\neg Drives(x, y), Driver(x)\}$ Assumption
- 2. $\{\neg Driver(z), \neg Passenger(z)\}$ Assumption
- 3. ${Drives(motherOf(Tom), Tom)}$ Assumption
- 4. $\{Driver(motherOf(Tom))\}$ $R, 1, 3, \{motherOf(Tom)/x, Tom/y\}$
- 5. $\{\neg Passenger(motherOf(Tom))\}\ R, 2, 4, \{motherOf(Tom)/z, \}$

Unification

To find the mgu of \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} .

Some Examples:

\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{B}	mgu	mgci
P(a,b)	P(a,b)	{}	P(a,b)
P(a)	P(b)	FAIL	
P(a, x)	P(y,b)	$\{a/y, b/x\}$	P(a,b)
P(a, x)	P(y,g(y))	$\{a/y, g(a)/x\}$	P(a,g(a))
P(x, f(x))	P(y,y)	FAIL (occurs check)	

Substitution Composition

$$P\sigma\tau = ((P\sigma)\tau) = P(\sigma \circ \tau)$$

Let $\sigma = \{t_1/v_1, \dots, t_n/v_n\}$
 $\sigma \circ \tau = \{t_1\tau/v_1, \dots, t_n\tau/v_n\} \uplus \tau$
 $\sigma \uplus \tau = \sigma \cup \{t/v \mid (t/v \in \tau) \land v \notin \sigma\}$
E.g.: $\{x/y, y/z\} \circ \{u/y, v/w\} = \{x/y, u/z, v/w\}$

$$(P x (g x) (g (f a))) (P (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{ \}$$

$$(P x (g x) (g (f a))) (P (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\}$$

$$\dots x (g x) (g (f a))) \dots (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\} \circ \{(f u)/x\} = \{(f u)/x\}$$

$$(P x (g x) (g (f a))) (P (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\}$$

$$\dots x (g x) (g (f a))) \dots (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\} \circ \{(f u)/x\} = \{(f u)/x\}$$

$$\dots (g x) (g (f a))) \dots v v)$$

$$(P x (g x) (g (f a))) (P (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\}$$

$$\dots [x] (g x) (g (f a))) \dots [(f u)] v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\} \circ \{(f u)/x\} = \{(f u)/x\}$$

$$\dots [(g x)] (g (f a))) \dots [v] v)$$

$$\dots [(g (f u))] (g (f a))) \dots [v] v)$$

$$(P x (g x) (g (f a))) (P (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\}$$

$$\dots x (g x) (g (f a))) \dots (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\} \circ \{(f u)/x\} = \{(f u)/x\}$$

$$\dots (g x) (g (f a))) \dots v v)$$

$$\dots (g (f u)) (g (f a))) \dots v v)$$

$$\mu = \{(f u)/x\} \circ \{(g (f u))/v\} = \{(f u)/x, (g (f u))/v\}$$

$$(P x (g x) (g (f a))) (P (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\}$$

$$\dots x (g x) (g (f a))) \dots (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\} \circ \{(f u)/x\} = \{(f u)/x\}$$

$$\dots (g x) (g (f a))) \dots v v)$$

$$\dots (g (f u)) (g (f a))) \dots v v)$$

$$\mu = \{(f u)/x\} \circ \{(g (f u))/v\} = \{(f u)/x, (g (f u))/v\}$$

$$\dots (g (f a))) \dots v$$

$$(P x (g x) (g (f a))) (P (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\}$$

$$\dots \underline{x} (g x) (g (f a))) \dots \underline{(f u)} v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\} \circ \{(f u)/x\} = \{(f u)/x\}$$

$$\dots \underline{(g x)} (g (f a))) \dots \underline{v} v)$$

$$\dots \underline{(g (f u))} (g (f a))) \dots \underline{v} v)$$

$$\mu = \{(f u)/x\} \circ \{(g (f u))/v\} = \{(f u)/x, (g (f u))/v\}$$

$$\dots \underline{(g (f a))} \dots \underline{v})$$

$$\dots \underline{(g (f a))} \dots \underline{v})$$

$$(P x (g x) (g (f a))) (P (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\}$$

$$\dots \underline{x} (g x) (g (f a))) \dots \underline{(f u)} v v)$$

$$\mu = \{\} \circ \{(f u)/x\} = \{(f u)/x\}$$

$$\dots \underline{(g x)} (g (f a))) \dots \underline{v} v)$$

$$\dots \underline{(g (f u))} (g (f a))) \dots \underline{v} v)$$

$$\mu = \{(f u)/x\} \circ \{(g (f u))/v\} = \{(f u)/x, (g (f u))/v\}$$

$$\dots \underline{(g (f a))} \dots \underline{v})$$

$$\dots \underline{(g (f a))} \dots \underline{v})$$

$$\dots \underline{(g (f a))} \dots \underline{v})$$

$$\dots x (g x) (g (f a))) \dots (f u) v v)$$

$$\mu = \{ \} \circ \{ (f u) / x \} = \{ (f u) / x \}$$

$$\dots \underbrace{(g \ x)}_{\mu} (g \ (f \ a))) \dots \underbrace{v}_{v}$$

$$\dots \underbrace{(g \ (f \ u))}_{\mu} (g \ (f \ a))) \dots \underbrace{v}_{v}$$

$$\mu = \{(f \ u)/x\} \circ \{(g \ (f \ u))/v\} = \{(f \ u)/x, \ (g \ (f \ u))/v\}$$

$$(g (f a))) ... v) ... (g (f a))) ... (g (f u))) ... a))) ... u))) \mu = {(f u)/x, (g (f u))/v} {a/u} = {(f a)/x, (g (f a))/v, a/u} (P x (g x) (g (f a))) μ = (P (f u) v v) μ = (P (f a) (g (f a)) (g (f a)))$$

Unification Algorithm

Note: a more efficient version is implemented in prover.cl
UnifyVar

Program Assertion

If original \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} have no variables in common,

then throughout the above program

no substitution will have one of its variables occurring in one of its terms.

Therefore, for any expression \mathcal{E} and any substitution σ formed in the above program, $\mathcal{E}\sigma\sigma = \mathcal{E}\sigma$.

4.3.4 Resolution Refutation Example

To decide if

 $\{\neg Drives(x, y), Driver(x)\}, \{\neg Driver(x), \neg Passenger(x)\},$ {Drives(motherOf(Tom), Betty)} $\models \{\neg Passenger(motherOf(Tom))\}\$

- $\{\neg Drives(x_1, y_1), Driver(x_1)\}$ 1. Assumption
- 2. $\{\neg Driver(x_2), \neg Passenger(x_2)\}$ Assumption
- 3. {Drives(motherOf(Tom), Betty)} Assumption
- $\{Passenger(motherOf(Tom))\}$ 5. From query
- 6. $\{\neg Driver(motherOf(Tom))\}$
- 7. $\{\neg Drives(motherOf(Tom), y_{\gamma})\}$ R, 1, 6, $\{motherOf(Tom)/x_1\}$
- {} 8.

- $R, 2, 5, \{motherOf(Tom)/x_2\}$

 - $R, 3, 7, \{Betty/y_7\}$

Example Using prover

- 1 ((Drives (motherOf Tom) Betty)) Assumption
- 2 ((not (Drives ?3 ?5)) (Driver ?3)) Assumption
- 3 ((not (Driver ?9)) (not (Passenger ?9))) Assumption
- 4 ((Passenger (motherOf Tom))) From Query
- 5 ((not (Driver (motherOf Tom)))) R,4,3,{(motherOf Tom)/?9}
- 6 ((not (Drives (motherOf Tom) ?86))) R,5,2,{(motherOf Tom)/?3}
- 7 nil R,6,1,{Betty/?86}

QED

Example Using snark

```
snark-user(84): (initialize)
snark-user(85): (assert '(or (not (Drives ?x ?y)) (Driver ?x)))
snark-user(86): (assert '(or (not (Driver ?x)))
                             (not (Passenger ?x))))
snark-user(87): (assert '(Drives (motherOf Tom) Betty))
snark-user(88): (prove '(not (Passenger (motherOf Tom))))
(Refutation
(Row 1 (or (not (Drives ?x ?y)) (Driver ?x)) assertion)
(Row 2 (or (not (Driver ?x)) (not (Passenger ?x))) assertion)
(Row 3 (Drives (motherOf Tom) Betty) assertion)
(Row 4 (Passenger (motherOf Tom)) ~conclusion)
(Row 5 (not (Driver (motherOf Tom))) (resolve 2 4))
(Row 6 (not (Drives (motherOf Tom) ?x)) (resolve 5 1))
(Row 7 false (resolve 6 3))
)
:proof-found
```

Resolution Refutation is Incomplete for FOL

1. $\{P(u), P(v)\}$

•

- 2. $\{\neg P(x), \neg P(y)\}$
- 3. $\{P(w), \neg P(z)\}$ $R, 1, 2, \{u/x, w/v, z/y\}$

Clause-Form FOL Rules of Inference Version 3 (Last)

Resolution:
$$\frac{\{A, L_1, \dots, L_n\}, \{\neg B, L_{n+1}, \dots, L_m\}}{\{L_1 \mu, \dots, L_n \mu, L_{n+1} \mu, \dots, L_m \mu\}}$$

where μ is an mgu of A and B.

Factoring: $\frac{\{A, B, L_1, \dots, L_n\}}{\{A\mu, L_1\mu, \dots, L_n\mu\}}$

where μ is an mgu of A and B. (Note: Special case of UI.)

Resolution Refutation with Factoring is Complete

If $A_1, \ldots, A_n \models Q$, then $A_1, \ldots, A_n, \neg Q \vdash_{R+F} \{\}$. For example,

- 1. $\{P(u), P(v)\}$
- $2. \quad \{\neg P(x), \neg P(y)\}$
- 3. $\{P(w)\}$ $F, 1, \{w/u, w/v\}$
- 4. $\{\neg P(z)\}$ $F, 2, \{z/x, z/y\}$
- 5. {} $R, 3, 4, \{w/z\}$

However, resolution refutation with factoring is still not a decision procedure—it is a semi-decision procedure.

Factoring (Condensing) by snark

```
snark-user(30): (initialize)
; Running SNARK from ....
nil
snark-user(31): (assert '(or (P ?u) (P ?v)))
nil
snark-user(32): (prove '(and (P ?x) (P ?y)))
(Refutation
(Row 1
   (or (P ?x) (P ?y))
   assertion)
(Row 2
   (P ?x)
   (condense 1))
(Row 3
   (or (not (P ?x)) (not (P ?y)))
  negated_conjecture)
(Row 4
   false
   (rewrite 3 2))
)
```

:proof-found

SNARK has both factoring and condensing, which is factoring combined with immediate subsumption elimination when the factored clause subsumes the original clause. The clause '(or (p a ?x) (p ?y b)) gets factored, but not condensed. [Mark Stickel, personal communication, March, 2008]

Efficiency Rules

Tautology Elimination: If clause C contains literals L and $\neg L$, delete C from the set of clauses. (Check throughout.)

- **Pure-Literal Elimination:** If clause C contains a literal $A(\neg A)$ and no clause contains a literal $\neg B(B)$ such that A and B are unifiable, delete C from the set of clauses. (Check throughout.)
- Subsumption Elimination: If the set of clauses contains clauses C_1 and C_2 such that there is a substitution σ for which $C_1 \sigma \subseteq C_2$, delete C_2 from the set of clauses. (Check throughout.)

These rules delete unhelpful clauses.

Subsumption may be required to cut infinite loops.

Subsumption Cutting a Loop

- 1 ((not (ancestor ?0 ?1)) (not (ancestor ?1 ?2)) (ancestor ?0 ?2)) Assumption
- 2 ((not (ancestor ?3 stu))) From Query

Initial Resolution Steps

((not (ancestor ?0 ?1)) (not (ancestor ?1 ?2)) 1 (ancestor ?0 ?2)) Assumption 2 ((not (ancestor ?3 stu))) From Query 3 ((not (ancestor ?4 ?5)) (not (ancestor ?5 stu))) R,2,1,{stu/?2, ?0/?3} ((not (ancestor ?6 stu)) (not (ancestor ?7 ?8)) 4 R,3,1,{?2/?5, ?0/?4} (not (ancestor ?8 ?6))) ((not (ancestor ?9 ?10)) (not (ancestor ?10 ?11)) 5 (not (ancestor ?11 stu))) R.3.1.{stu/?2. ?0/?5}

•

Subsumption Cuts the Loop

```
((not (ancestor ?0 ?1)) (not (ancestor ?1 ?2))
 1
     (ancestor ?0 ?2))
                                                     Assumption
  ((not (ancestor ?3 stu)))
                                                     From Query
 2
   (not (ancestor ?4 ?5)) (not (ancestor ?5 stu)))
 3
                                               R.2.1.{stu/?2. ?0/?3}
 4 ((not (ancestor stu stu))) F,3,{stu/?5, stu/?4}
Deleting 4 ((not (ancestor stu stu)))
because it's subsumed by 2 ((not (ancestor ?3 stu)))
Deleting 3 ((not (ancestor ?4 ?5)) (not (ancestor ?5 stu)))
because it's subsumed by 2 ((not (ancestor ?3 stu)))
nil
```

Strategies

Unit Preference: Resolve shorter clauses before longer clauses. Least Symbol Count Version: Count symbols, not literals.

Set of Support: One clause in each pair being resolved must descend from the query.

Many others

These are heuristics for finding {} faster.

Least Symbol Count Version of Unit Preference

Instead of counting literals,

count symbols

ignoring negation operator.

Equivalent to standard unit preference for Propositional Logic.

Problem with

Literal-Counting Unit Preference

- 1(1/2) ((walkslikeduck daffy)) Assumption
- 2(1/2) ((talkslikeduck daffy)) Assumption
- 3(2/5) ((not (duck (motherof ?1))) (duck ?1)) Assumption
- 4(3/6) ((not (walkslikeduck ?3)) (not (talkslikeduck ?3)) (duck ?3)) Assumption
- 5(1/2) ((not (duck daffy))) From Query
- 6(1/3) ((not (duck (motherof daffy)))) R,5,3,{daffy/?1}
- 7(1/4) ((not (duck (motherof (motherof daffy))))) R,6,3,{(motherof daffy)/?1}
- 8(1/5) ((not (duck
 - (motherof
 - (motherof

```
(motherof daffy))))) R,7,3,{(motherof (motherof daffy))/?1}
```

- 9(1/6) ((not (duck
 - (motherof
 - (motherof
 - (motherof
 - (motherof

daffy)))))) R,8,3,{(motherof (motherof (motherof daffy)))/?1}

Solution with Least Symbol Count Version

- 1(1/2) ((walkslikeduck daffy)) Assumption
- 2(1/2) ((talkslikeduck daffy)) Assumption
- 3(2/5) ((not (duck (motherof ?5))) (duck ?5)) Assumption
- 4(3/6) ((not (walkslikeduck ?13)) (not (talkslikeduck ?13)) (duck ?13)) Assumption
- 5(1/2) ((not (duck daffy))) From Query
- 6(1/3) ((not (duck (motherof daffy)))) R,5,3,{daffy/?1}
- 7(1/4) ((not (duck (motherof (motherof daffy))))) R,6,3,{(motherof daffy)/?1}
- 8(2/4) ((not (walkslikeduck daffy)) (not (talkslikeduck daffy))) R,5,4,{daffy/?3}
- 9(1/2) ((not (talkslikeduck daffy))) R,8,1,{}
- 10(0/0) nil R,9,2,{}

QED

4.4 Translating Standard FOL Wffs into FOL Clause Form Useful Meta-Theorems

- If A is (an occurrence of) a subformula of B, and $\models A \Leftrightarrow C$, then $\models B \Leftrightarrow B\{C/A\}$
- ∀x₁(···∀x_n(···∃yA(x₁,...,x_n,y)···)) is consistent if and only if
 ∀x₁(···∀x_n(···A(x₁,...,x_n, fⁿ(x₁,...,x_n))···)))
 is consistent,
 where fⁿ is a new Skolem function.
 Note: use a new Skolem constant instead of f⁰().

Translating Standard FOL Wffs into FOL Clause Form Step 1

Eliminate occurrences of \Leftrightarrow using

$$\models (A \Leftrightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow ((A \Rightarrow B) \land (B \Rightarrow A))$$

From:

 $\forall x [Parent(x) \Leftrightarrow (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))]$

To:

 $\begin{aligned} \forall x [(Parent(x) \Rightarrow (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \\ \land ((Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x))) \Rightarrow Parent(x))] \end{aligned}$

Eliminate occurrences of \Rightarrow using

$$\models (A \Rightarrow B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \lor B)$$

From:

$$\forall x [(Parent(x) \Rightarrow (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \\ \land ((Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x))) \Rightarrow Parent(x))]$$
To:

 $\forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \land (\neg (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x))) \lor Parent(x))]$

Translate to *miniscope* form using

$$\models \neg \neg A \Leftrightarrow A$$
$$\models \neg (A \land B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \lor \neg B) \quad \models \neg (A \lor B) \Leftrightarrow (\neg A \land \neg B)$$
$$\models \neg \forall x A(x) \Leftrightarrow \exists x \neg A(x) \quad \models \neg \exists x A(x) \Leftrightarrow \forall x \neg A(x)$$

From:

 $\begin{aligned} \forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \\ \land (\neg (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{aligned} \\ To: \\ \forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor \forall y (\neg Person(y) \lor \neg childOf(y, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{aligned}$

Rename apart: If any two quantifiers bind the same variable, rename all occurrences of one of them.

From:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor \forall y (\neg Person(y) \lor \neg childOf(y, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \\ \end{aligned}$$
 To:

 $\begin{aligned} \forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor \forall z (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{aligned}$

Optional Translation Step 4.5

Translate into Prenex Normal Form using:

 $\models (A \land \forall x B(x)) \Leftrightarrow \forall x (A \land B(x)) \quad \models (A \land \exists x B(x)) \Leftrightarrow \exists x (A \land B(x))$ $\models (A \lor \forall x B(x)) \Leftrightarrow \forall x (A \lor B(x)) \quad \models (A \lor \exists x B(x)) \Leftrightarrow \exists x (A \lor B(x))$ as long as x does not occur free in A.

From:

 $\forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor \forall z (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))]$ To: $\forall x \exists u \forall z [(-Parent(x)) \lor (Pareon(x) \land (Pareon(y) \land childOf(y, x))))$

 $\forall x \exists y \forall z [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))]$

Skolemize

From:

$$\begin{split} \forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor \forall z (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \\ \text{To:} \\ \forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land (Person(f(x)) \land childOf(f(x), x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor \forall z (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{split}$$

or

From:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \exists y \forall z [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{aligned}$$

To:

$$\begin{aligned} \forall x \forall z [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land (Person(f(x)) \land childOf(f(x), x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{aligned}$$

Discard all occurrences of " $\forall x$ " for any variable x.

From:

 $\begin{aligned} \forall x [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land (Person(f(x)) \land childOf(f(x), x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor \forall z (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \\ \text{Or from:} \\ \forall x \forall z [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land (Person(f(x)) \land childOf(f(x), x)))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{aligned}$

To:

$$\begin{split} & [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land (Person(f(x)) \land childOf(f(x), x)))) \\ & \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{split}$$

CNF: Translate into Conjunctive Normal Form, using

$$\models (A \lor (B \land C)) \Leftrightarrow ((A \lor B) \land (A \lor C))$$
$$\models ((B \land C) \lor A) \Leftrightarrow ((B \lor A) \land (C \lor A))$$

From:

$$\begin{split} & [(\neg Parent(x) \lor (Person(x) \land (Person(f(x)) \land childOf(f(x), x)))) \\ & \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \\ & \text{To:} \\ & [((\neg Parent(x) \lor Person(x)) \\ & \land ((\neg Parent(x) \lor Person(f(x))) \\ & \land (\neg Parent(x) \lor childOf(f(x), x)))))) \\ & \land (\neg Person(x) \lor (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \end{split}$$

Discard extra parentheses using the associativity of \land and \lor .

$$\begin{array}{l} \mbox{From:} \\ [((\neg Parent(x) \lor Person(x))) \\ \land ((\neg Parent(x) \lor Person(f(x)))) \\ \land (\neg Parent(x) \lor childOf(f(x), x))))) \\ \land ((\neg Person(x) \lor (\neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x))) \lor Parent(x))] \\ \mbox{To:} \\ [(\neg Parent(x) \lor Person(x)) \\ \land (\neg Parent(x) \lor Person(f(x))) \\ \land (\neg Parent(x) \lor childOf(f(x), x)) \\ \land (\neg Person(x) \lor \neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x) \lor Parent(x))] \end{array}$$

Turn each disjunction into a clause, and the conjunction into a set of clauses.

$$\begin{split} & \text{From:} \\ & [(\neg Parent(x) \lor Person(x)) \\ & \land (\neg Parent(x) \lor Person(f(x))) \\ & \land (\neg Parent(x) \lor childOf(f(x), x)) \\ & \land (\neg Person(x) \lor \neg Person(z) \lor \neg childOf(z, x) \lor Parent(x))] \\ & \text{To:} \\ & \{\{\neg Parent(x), Person(x)\}, \\ & \{\neg Parent(x), Person(f(x))\}, \\ & \{\neg Parent(x), childOf(f(x), x)\}, \end{split}$$

$$\{\neg Person(x), \neg Person(z), \neg childOf(z, x), Parent(x)\}\}$$

Rename the clauses apart

so that no variable occurs in more than one clause.

From:

$$\{ \{\neg Parent(x), Person(x) \}, \\ \{\neg Parent(x), Person(f(x)) \}, \\ \{\neg Parent(x), childOf(f(x), x) \}, \\ \{\neg Person(x), \neg Person(z), \neg childOf(z, x), Parent(x) \} \}$$
To:
$$\{ \{\neg Parent(x_1), Person(x_1) \}, \\ \{\neg Parent(x_2), Person(f(x_2)) \}, \\ \{\neg Parent(x_3), childOf(f(x_3), x_3) \}, \}$$

$$\{\neg Person(x_4), \neg Person(z_4), \neg childOf(z_4, x_4), Parent(x_4)\}\}$$

Use of Translation

$$A_1, \ldots, A_n \models B$$
 iff

The translation of $A_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge A_n \wedge \neg B$ into a set of clauses is contradictory.

Example with ubprover

(prove

((Person Tom)) 1 Assumption ((Person Betty)) 2 Assumption ((childOf Tom Betty)) 3 Assumption ((not (Parent ?4)) (Person ?4)) 4 Assumption ((not (Parent ?5)) (Person (S3 ?5))) Assumption 5 ((not (Parent ?6)) (childOf (S3 ?6) ?6)) Assumption 6 ((not (Person ?7)) (not (Person ?8)) 7 (not (childOf ?8 ?7)) (Parent ?7)) Assumption ((not (Parent Betty))) 8 From Query

Resolution Steps

1	((Person Tom))		Assumption
2	((Person Betty))		Assumption
3	((childOf Tom Betty))		Assumption
7	((not	(Person ?7)) (not (Person ?8))	
	(not	(childOf ?8 ?7)) (Parent ?7))	Assumption
8	((not	(Parent Betty)))	From Query
9	((not	(Person Betty)) (not (Person ?9))	
	(not	(childOf ?9 Betty)))	R,8,7,{Betty/?7}
13	((not	(Person Betty))	
	(not	(childOf Tom Betty)))	R,9,1,{Tom/?9}
14	((not	(childOf Tom Betty)))	R,13,2,{}
15	nil		R,14,3,{}
QED			

Example with SNARK

```
snark-user(42): (initialize)
; Running SNARK from ...
nil
snark-user(43): (assert
                 '(forall (x)
                   (iff (Parent x)
                         (and (Person x)
                              (exists (y)
                               (and (Person y) (childOf y x))))))
nil
snark-user(44): (assert '(Person Tom))
nil
snark-user(45): (assert '(Person Betty))
nil
snark-user(46): (assert '(childOf Tom Betty))
nil
snark-user(47): (prove '(Parent Betty))
```

```
Page 321
```

Initial Set of Clauses

- (Row 1 (or (not (Parent ?x)) (Person ?x)) assertion)
- (Row 2 (or (not (Parent ?x)) (Person (skolembiry1 ?x))) assertion)
- (Row 3 (or (not (Parent ?x)) (childOf (skolembiry1 ?x) ?x)) assertion)
- (Row 5 (Person Tom) assertion)
- (Row 6 (Person Betty) assertion)
- (Row 7 (childOf Tom Betty) assertion)
- (Row 8 (not (Parent Betty)) negated_conjecture)
- (Row 9 (or (not (Person ?x)) (not (childOf ?x Betty))) (rewrite (resolve 8 4)
- (Row 10 false (rewrite (resolve 9 7) 5))

Refutation

(Refutation

- (Row 4 (or (Parent ?x) (not (Person ?x)) (not (Person ?y)) (not (childOf ?y ?
 assertion)
- (Row 5 (Person Tom) assertion)
- (Row 6 (Person Betty) assertion)
- (Row 7 (childOf Tom Betty) assertion)
- (Row 8 (not (Parent Betty)) negated_conjecture)

```
(Row 9 (or (not (Person ?x)) (not (childOf ?x Betty))) (rewrite (resolve 8 4)
(Row 10 false (rewrite (resolve 9 7) 5))
```

)

:proof-found

A ubprover Example Using the Skolem Function

1	((Person Tom))	Assumption
2	((Person Betty))	Assumption
3	((Parent Betty))	Assumption
4	((not (Parent ?4)) (Person ?4))	Assumption
5	((not (Parent ?5)) (Person (S3 ?5)))	Assumption
6	((not (Parent ?6)) (childOf (S3 ?6) ?6))	Assumption
7	((not (Person ?7)) (not (Person ?8))	
	(not (childOf ?8 ?7)) (Parent ?7))	Assumption
8	((not (childOf ?10 Betty)))	From Query
9	((not (Parent Betty)))	R,8,6,{Betty/?6, (S3 Betty)/?10}
10	nil	R,9,3,{}
QED		
4.5 Asking Wh Questions

Given

 $\forall x [Parent(x) \Leftrightarrow (Person(x) \land \exists y (Person(y) \land childOf(y, x)))]$

Person(Tom)

Person(Betty)

childOf(Tom, Betty)

Ask: "Who is a parent?"

Answer via constructive proof of $\exists x \; Parent(x)$.

Try to Answer Wh Question

1	((Person Tom))	Assumption
2	((Person Betty))	Assumption
3	((Parent Betty))	Assumption
4	((not (Parent ?4)) (Person ?4))	Assumption
5	((not (Parent ?5)) (Person (S3 ?5)))	Assumption
6	((not (Parent ?6)) (childOf (S3 ?6) ?6))	Assumption
7	((not (Person ?7)) (not (Person ?8))	
	(not (childOf ?8 ?7)) (Parent ?7))	Assumption
8	((not (childOf ?10 Betty)))	From Query

Resolution Steps

1	((Person Tom))	Assumption
2	((Person Betty))	Assumption
3	((childOf Tom Betty))	Assumption
7	((not (Person ?7)) (not (Person ?8))	
	(not (childOf ?8 ?7)) (Parent ?7))	Assumption
8	((not (Parent ?10)))	From Query
9	((not (Person ?11)) (not (Person ?12))	
	(not (childOf ?12 ?11)))	R,8,7,{?7/?10}
15	((not (Person ?16)) (not (childOf Tom ?16))) R,9,1,{Tom/?12}
16	((not (childOf Tom Tom)))	R,15,1,{Tom/?16}
17	((not (childOf Tom Betty)))	R,15,2,{Betty/?16}
18	nil	R,17,3,{}
QED		

The Answer Predicate

Instead of query $\exists x_1 \cdots \exists x_n P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, and resolution refutation with $\{\neg P(x_1, \dots, x_n)\}$ until $\{\}$, use $\forall x_1 \cdots \forall x_n (P(x_1, \dots, x_n) \Rightarrow Answer(P(x_1, \dots, x_n)))$ and do direct resolution with

 $\{\neg P(x_1,\ldots,x_n), Answer(P(x_1,\ldots,x_n))\}$

until $\{(Answer...)\cdots(Answer...)\}.$

General Procedure for Inserting The Answer Predicate

Let:

Q be either \forall or \exists ;

 \overline{Q} be either \exists or \forall , respectively;

Prenex Normal form of query be $Q_1 x_1 \cdots Q_n x_n P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$. Do direct resolution with clause form of $\overline{Q_1} x_1 \cdots \overline{Q_n} x_n (P(x_1, \dots, x_n) \Rightarrow Answer(P(x_1, \dots, x_n)))$ until generate $\{(Answer \dots) \cdots (Answer \dots)\}.$

Using the Answer Predicate

```
((Person Tom))
1
                                             Assumption
   ((Person Betty))
2
                                             Assumption
3
   ((childOf Tom Betty))
                                             Assumption
   ((not (Parent ?3)) (Person ?3))
4
                                             Assumption
5
  ((not (Parent ?4)) (Person (S2 ?4)))
                                             Assumption
  ((not (Parent ?5)) (childOf (S2 ?5) ?5))
6
                                             Assumption
  ((not (Person ?6)) (not (Person ?7))
7
    (not (childOf ?7 ?6)) (Parent ?6))
                                             Assumption
  ((not (Parent ?9)) (Answer (Parent ?9))) From Query
8
```

Resolution Steps

1	((Person Tom))	Assumption
2	((Person Betty))	Assumption
3	((childOf Tom Betty))	Assumption
7	((not (Person ?6)) (not (Person ?7))	
	(not (childOf ?7 ?6)) (Parent ?6))	Assumption
8	((not (Parent ?9)) (Answer (Parent ?9)))	From Query
9	((Answer (Parent ?10)) (not (Person ?10))	
	(not (Person ?11)) (not (childOf ?11 ?10)))	R,8,7,{?6/?9}
15	((Answer (Parent Betty))	
	<pre>(not (Person Betty)) (not (Person Tom)))</pre>	R,9,3,{Betty/?10,
		Tom/?11}
26	((Answer (Parent Betty)) (not (Person Tom)))	R,15,2,{}
29	((Answer (Parent Betty)))	R,26,1,{}
QED		

Answer Predicate in snark

```
Page 332
```

snark Refutation

(Refutation

(Row 3

```
(or (Parent ?x) (not (Person ?y)) (not (childOf ?y ?x)))
assertion)
```

(Row 4 (Person Tom) assertion)

- (Row 6 (childOf Tom Betty) assertion)
- (Row 7 (not (Parent ?x)) negated_conjecture
 Answer (Parent ?x))

```
(Row 8 (or (not (Person ?x)) (not (childOf ?x ?y))) (resolve 7 3)
Answer (Parent ?y))
```

```
(Row 9 false (rewrite (resolve 8 6) 4)
```

Answer (Parent Betty))

```
)
```

:proof-found

Answer Predicate with ask

From same SNARK KB:

snark-user(18): (ask '(exists x (Parent x)) :answer '(Parent x))
(Parent Betty)

Using :printProof

(Refutation

(Row 3 (or (Parent ?x) (not (Person ?y)) (not (childOf ?y ?x)))
assertion)

(Row 4 (Person Tom) assertion)

(Row 6 (childOf Tom Betty) assertion)

```
(Row 13 (not (Parent ?x)) negated_conjecture
Answer (Parent ?x))
```

```
(Row 14 (or (not (Person ?x)) (not (childOf ?x ?y)))
```

```
(resolve 13 3)
```

```
Answer (Parent ?y))
```

```
(Row 15 false (rewrite (resolve 14 6) 4)
```

```
Answer (Parent Betty))
```

```
(Parent Betty)
```

)

Answer Predicate with query

```
From same SNARK KB:
```

Who is a parent?
 (ask '(exists x (Parent x))) = (Parent Betty)

query with :answer and :printProof

```
snark-user(10): (query "Who is a parent?"
'(exists x (Parent x)) :answer '(Parent x) :printProof t)
Who is a parent?
(Refutation
(Row 3
   (or (Parent ?x) (not (Person ?y)) (not (childOf ?y ?x)))
   assertion)
(Row 4
   (Person Tom)
   assertion)
(Row 6
   (childOf Tom Betty)
   assertion)
(Row 19
   (not (Parent ?x))
   negated_conjecture
   Answer (Parent ?x))
(Row 20
   (or (not (Person ?x)) (not (childOf ?x ?y)))
   (resolve 19 3)
   Answer (Parent ?y))
(Row 21
   false
   (rewrite (resolve 20 6) 4)
   Answer (Parent Betty))
)
  (ask '(exists x (Parent x))) = (Parent Betty)
```

Disjunctive Answers

```
(prove '((On a b)(On b c)
         (Red a) (Green c)
         (or (Red b) (Green b)))
       '(exists (x y)
                (and (Red x) (Green y) (On x y)))
   ((On a b))
1
                                                         Assumption
   ((On b c))
2
                                                         Assumption
   ((Red a))
3
                                                         Assumption
  ((Green c))
4
                                                         Assumption
   ((Red b) (Green b))
5
                                                         Assumption
6
   ((not (Red ?28)) (not (Green ?30))
     (not (On ?28 ?30))
     (Answer (and (Red ?28) (Green ?30) (On ?28 ?30)))) From Query
```

Resolution Steps

- 9 ((Answer (and (Red a) (Green ?107) (On a ?107))) (not (On a ?107)) (not (Green ?107))) R,6,3,{a/?28}
- 10 ((Answer (and (Red ?112) (Green c) (On ?112 c))) (not (On ?112 c)) (not (Red ?112))) R,6,4,{c/?30}
- 11 ((Answer (and (Red b) (Green ?117) (On b ?117)))
 (not (On b ?117)) (not (Green ?117)) (Green b)) R,6,5,{b/?28}
- 13 ((not (Red b)) (Answer (and (Red b) (Green c) (On b c)))) R,10,2,{b/?112}

Resolution Finished

- 16 ((Answer (and (Red b) (Green c) (On b c))) (Green b)) R,13,5,{}
- 20 ((not (On a b))
 (Answer (and (Red a) (Green b) (On a b)))
 (Answer (and (Red b) (Green c) (On b c)))) R,9,16,{b/?107}

Multiple Clauses From Query

1	((On a b))	Assumption
2	((On b c))	Assumption
3	((Red a))	Assumption
4	((Green c))	Assumption
5	((Red b) (Green b))	Assumption
6	((not (Red ?25))	
	(Answer (or (Red ?25) (Green ?25))))	From Query
7	((not (Green ?27))	
	(Answer (or (Red ?27) (Green ?27))))	From Query
8	((Answer (or (Red a) (Green a))))	$R,6,3,\{a/?25\}$
QED		

Resolution Produces Only 1 Answer

```
snark-user(20): (initialize)
; Running SNARK from ...
nil
```

```
snark-user(21): (assert '(Man Socrates))
nil
```

```
snark-user(22): (assert '(Man Turing))
nil
```

```
snark-user(23): (ask '(Man ?x) :answer '(One man is ?x))
(One man is Turing)
```

Generic and Hypothetical Answers

Every clause that descends from a query clause (that contains an **Answer** predicate) is an answer of some sort.^a

Page 343

^aDebra T. Burhans and Stuart C. Shapiro, Defining Answer Classes Using Resolution Refutation, *Journal of Applied Logic 5*, 1 (March 2007), 70-91. http://www.cse.buffalo.edu/~shapiro/Papers/bursha05.pdf

Example of Generic and Hypothetical Answers Question

'(exists x (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo x)))

Initial Clauses

1	((Member Buffalo MAC))	Assumption
2	((Member KentSt MAC))	Assumption
3	((Member Wisconsin Big10))	Assumption
4	((Member Indiana Big10))	Assumption
5	((Member Stanford Pac10))	Assumption
6	((Member Berkeley Pac10))	Assumption
7	((Activity Frisbee))	Assumption
8	((not (Sport ?7)) (Activity ?7))	Assumption
9	((not (Member ?11 MAC)) (Member ?11 FBS))	Assumption
10	((not (Member ?12 Big10)) (Member ?12 FBS))	Assumption
11	((not (Member Pac10 ?13)) (Member ?13 FBS))	Assumption
12	((not (Activity ?9)) (Sport ?9) (Game ?9))	Assumption
13	((not (Member ?3 FBS)) (not (Sport ?4)) (not (Athlete ?5))
	<pre>(not (PlaysWell ?5 ?4)) (ProvidesScholarshipFor ?3 ?5))</pre>	Assumption
14	((not (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?15))	
	(Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?15)))	From Query

Resolvents

- 15 ((Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?16)) (not (Member Buffalo FBS)) (not (Sport ?17)) (not (Athlete ?16)) (not (PlaysWell ?16 ?17))) R,14,13,{?5/?15, Buffalo/?3}
- 16 ((not (Member Buffalo MAC)) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?18)) (not (Sport ?19)) (not (Athlete ?18)) (not (PlaysWell ?18 ?19))) R,15,9,{Buffalo/?11}

- 20 ((Game ?26) (not (Activity ?26)) (not (Member Pac10 Buffalo)) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?27)) (not (Athlete ?27)) (not (PlaysWell ?27 ?26))) R,18,12,{?9/?23}
- 21 ((Game ?28) (not (Activity ?28)) (not (Member Buffalo Big10)) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?29)) (not (Athlete ?29)) (not (PlaysWell ?29 ?28))) R,17,12,{?9/?21}
- 22 ((Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?30)) (not (Sport ?31)) (not (Athlete ?30)) (not (PlaysWell ?30 ?31))) R,16,1,{}
- 23 ((Game ?32) (not (Activity ?32)) (not (Member Buffalo MAC)) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?33)) (not (Athlete ?33)) (not (PlaysWell ?33 ?32))) R,16,12,{?9/?19}
- 24 ((Game ?34) (not (Activity ?34)) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?35)) (not (Athlete ?35)) (not (PlaysWell ?35 ?34))) R,22,12,{?9/?31}
- 26 ((not (Sport ?37)) (Game ?37) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?38)) (not (Athlete ?38)) (not (PlaysWell ?38 ?37))) R,24,8,{?7/?34}

nil

Non-Subsumed Resolvents

- 22 ((Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?30)) (not (Sport ?31)) (not (Athlete ?30)) (not (PlaysWell ?30 ?31)))
- 24 ((Game ?34) (not (Activity ?34)) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?35)) (not (Athlete ?35)) (not (PlaysWell ?35 ?34)))
- 25 ((Game Frisbee) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?36)) (not (Athlete ?36)) (not (PlaysWell ?36 Frisbee)))

Interpretation of Clauses As Generic Answers

- 22 ((Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?30)) (not (Sport ?31)) (not (Athlete ?30)) (not (PlaysWell ?30 ?31)))
- $\forall xy [Athlete(x) \land Sport(y) \land Plays Well(x, y) \\ \Rightarrow Provides Scholarship For(Buffalo, x)]$
- 24 ((Game ?34) (not (Activity ?34)) (Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?35)) (not (Athlete ?35)) (not (PlaysWell ?35 ?34)))

 $\forall xy [Athlete(x) \land Activity(y) \land \neg Game(y) \land PlaysWell(x, y) \\ \Rightarrow ProvidesScholarshipFor(Buffalo, x)]$

Interpretation of Clause As Hypothetical Answer

25 ((Game Frisbee)

(Answer (ProvidesScholarshipFor Buffalo ?36)) (not (Athlete ?36)) (not (PlaysWell ?36 Frisbee))) $\neg Game(Frisbee) \Rightarrow \forall xy [Athlete(x) \land PlaysWell(x, Frisbee))$

 $\Rightarrow ProvidesScholarshipFor(Buffalo, x)]$

Rule-Based Systems

Every FOL KB

can be expressed as a set of rules of the form $\forall \overline{x}(C_1(\overline{x}) \lor \cdots \lor C_m(\overline{x}))$

or

$$\forall \overline{x}(A_1(\overline{x}) \land \dots \land A_n(\overline{x}) \Rightarrow C_1(\overline{x}) \lor \dots \lor C_m(\overline{x}))$$

or

$$\forall \overline{x}(A_1(\overline{x}) \land \dots \land A_n(\overline{x}) \Rightarrow C(\overline{x}))$$

where $A_i(\overline{x})$ and $C_j(\overline{x})$ are literals.

Wh Questions in Rule-Based Systems

Given rule $\forall \overline{x}(A(\overline{x}) \Rightarrow C(\overline{x}))$

Ask $C(\overline{y})$?

Backchain to subgoal $A(\overline{x})\mu$, where μ is an mgu of $C(\overline{x})$ and $C(\overline{y})$

Moral: Unification is generally needed in backward chaining systems.

Unification is correct pattern matching when both structures have variables.

Forward Chaining & Unification

Forward chaining generally matches a ground fact with rule antecedents.

Forward chaining does not generally require unification.

Common Formalizing Difficulties

Every raven is black: $\forall x (Raven(x) \Rightarrow Black(x))$ Some raven is black: $\exists x (Raven(x) \land Black(x))$ Note the satisfying models of the incorrect $\exists x (Raven(x) \Rightarrow Black(x))$

Another Formalizing Difficulty

Note where a Skolem function appears in $\forall x(Parent(x) \Leftrightarrow \exists ychildOf(y, x))$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x ((Parent(x) \Rightarrow \exists y childOf(y, x))) \\ \land ((\exists y childOf(y, x)) \Rightarrow Parent(x)))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x ((\neg Parent(x) \lor \exists ychildOf(y, x))) \\ \land (\neg (\exists ychildOf(y, x)) \lor Parent(x)))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x ((\neg Parent(x) \lor \exists ychildOf(y, x))) \\ \land (\forall y (\neg childOf(y, x)) \lor Parent(x)))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \forall x (Parent(x) \Rightarrow childOf(f(x), x)) \\ \land \forall x \forall y (childOf(y, x) \Rightarrow Parent(x))$$

What's "First-Order" About FOL?

In a first-order logic:

Predicate and function symbols cannot be arguments of predicates or functions;

Variables cannot be in predicate or function position.

E.G. $\forall r[Transitive(r) \Leftrightarrow \forall xyz[r(x, y) \land r(y, z) \Rightarrow r(x, z)]]$ is not a first-order sentence.

"The adjective 'first-order' is used to distinguish the languages we shall study here from those in which there are predicates having other predicates or functions as arguments or in which predicate quantifiers or function quantifiers are permitted, or both." [Elliott Mendelson, *Introduction to Mathematical Logic, Fifth Edition,* CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, 2010, p. 48.]

Russell's Theory of Types

Designed to solve paradox: $\exists s \forall c[s(c) \Leftrightarrow \neg c(c)]$ has instance $S(S) \Leftrightarrow \neg S(S)$

N^{th} -Order Logic

Assign type 0 to individuals and to terms denoting individuals.

Assign type i + 1 to any set and to any function or predicate symbol that denotes a set, possibly of tuples, such that the maximum type of any of its elements is i.

Also assign type i + 1 to any variable that range over type i objects.

Note that the type of a functional term is the type of its range—the n^{th} element of the *n*-tuples of the set which the function denotes.

Syntactically, if the maximum type of the arguments of a ground atomic wff is i, then the type of the predicate is i + 1. No predicate of type i may take a ground argument of type i or higher.

First-Order Logic Defined

First-order logic has a language that obeys Russell's Theory of Types, and whose highest type symbol is of type 1.

 n^{th} -order logic has a language that obeys Russell's Theory of Types, and whose highest type symbol is of type n.

 $\Omega\text{-}\mathrm{ordered}$ logic has no limit, but must still follow the rules.

E.g., $\forall r[Transitive(r) \Leftrightarrow \forall xyz[r(x, y) \land r(y, z) \Rightarrow r(x, z)]]$ is a formula of Second-Order Logic:

Type 0 objects: individuals in the domain Type 1 symbols: x, y, z because they range over type 0 objects Type 1 objects: binary relations over type 0 objects Type 2 symbols: r because it ranges over type 1 objects, *Transitive* because it denotes a set of type 1 objects

Nested Beliefs

Can a proposition be an argument of a proposition? Consider:

 $\begin{aligned} \forall p(Believes(Solomon, p) \Rightarrow p) \\ Believes(Solomon, Round(Earth)) \Rightarrow Round(Earth) \\ Believes(Solomon, Round(Earth)) \\ \models Round(Earth) \end{aligned}$

If Round(Earth) is an atomic wff, it's not a term, and only terms may be arguments of functions and predicates.

Even if it could:

 $\llbracket Round(Earth) \rrbracket =$ True if $\llbracket Earth \rrbracket \in \llbracket Round \rrbracket$, else False.

So $[\![Believes(Solomon, Round(Earth))]\!]$ = True iff $\langle [\![Solomon]\!]$, True-or-False $\rangle \in [\![Believes]\!]$

Reifying Propositions and the *Holds* Predicate

So how can we represent in FOL

"Everything that Solomon believes is true"?

- Reify (some) propositions.
 Make them objects in the domain.
 Represent them using individual constants or functional terms.
- Use Holds(P) to mean
 "P holds (is true) in the given situation".
- Examples:

 $\forall p(Believes(Solomon, p) \Rightarrow Holds(p)) \\ Believes(Solomon, Round(Earth)) \Rightarrow Holds(Round(Earth))$
Semantics of the Holds Predicate

 $\forall p(Believes(Solomon, p) \Rightarrow Holds(p)) \land Believes(Solomon, Round(Earth)) \\ \Rightarrow Holds(Round(Earth))$

Type 0 individuals and terms: [Solomon] = [Solomon] = A person named Solomon [Earth] = [Earth] = The planet Earth[Round(Earth)] = [Round(Earth)] = The proposition that the Earth is round

Type 1 objects and symbols: p: A variable ranging over type 0 propositions [[Round]] = A function from type 0 physical objects to type 0 propositions. [[Holds]] = A set of type 0 propositions. [[Believes]] = A set of pairs, type 0 People × type 0 propositions

Type 1 atomic formulas:

[Holds(x)] = The type 1 proposition that [x] is True.

 $\llbracket Holds(x) \rrbracket =$ True if $\llbracket x \rrbracket \in \llbracket Holds \rrbracket$; False otherwise

[Believes(x, y)] = The type 1 proposition that [x] believes [y]

 $\llbracket Believes(x, y) \rrbracket =$ True if $\langle \llbracket x \rrbracket, \llbracket y \rrbracket \rangle \in \llbracket Believes \rrbracket$; False otherwise

5 Summary of Part I

- Artificial Intelligence (AI): A field of computer science and engineering concerned with the computational understanding of what is commonly called intelligent behavior, and with the creation of artifacts that exhibit such behavior.
- Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (KR or KRR):
 A subarea of Artificial Intelligence concerned with understanding, designing, and implementing ways of representing information in computers, and using that information to derive new information based on it.
 KR is more concerned with belief than "knowledge". Given that an agent (human or computer) has certain beliefs, what else is reasonable for it to believe, and how is it reasonable for it to act, regardless of whether those beliefs are true and justified.

What is Logic?

Logic is the study of correct reasoning.

There are many systems of logic (logics). Each is specified by specifying:

- Syntax: Specifying what counts as a well-formed expression
- Semantics: Specifying the meaning of well-formed expressions
 - Intensional Semantics: Meaning relative to a Domain
 - Extensional Semantics: Meaning relative to a Situation
- Proof Theory: Defining proof/derivation, and how it can be extended.

Relevance of Logic

Any system that consists of

- a collection of symbol structures, well-formed relative to some syntax;
- a set of procedures for adding new structures to that collection based on what's already in there.

is a logic.

But:

Do the symbol structures have a consistent semantics?

Are the procedures sound relative to that semantics?

Soundness is the essence of "correct reasoning."

KR and Logic

Given that a Knowledge Base is represented in a language with a well-defined syntax, a well-defined semantics, and that reasoning over it is a well-defined procedure, a KR system is a logic.

KR research can be seen as a search for the best logic to capture human-level reasoning.

Relations Among Inference Problems

SyntaxDerivationTheoremhood $A_1, \dots, A_n \vdash Q$ \Leftrightarrow $\vdash A_1 \land \dots \land A_n \Rightarrow Q$ $\Downarrow \Uparrow$ $\Downarrow \Uparrow$ $\Downarrow \Uparrow$ $\downarrow \Uparrow$ $\Downarrow \Uparrow$ $\Downarrow \Uparrow$ $A_1, \dots, A_n \models Q$ \Leftrightarrow $\models A_1 \land \dots \land A_n \Rightarrow Q$ SemanticsLogical EntailmentValidity

 $(\Downarrow Soundness)$ ($\Uparrow Completeness$)

Inference/Reasoning Methods

Given a KB/set of assumptions \mathcal{A} and a query \mathcal{Q} :

- Model Finding
 - Direct: Find satisfying models of \mathcal{A} , see if \mathcal{Q} is True in all of them.
 - Refutation: Find if $\mathcal{A} \cup \{\neg \mathcal{Q}\}$ is unsatisfiable.
- Natural Deduction
 - Direct: Find if $\mathcal{A} \vdash \mathcal{Q}$.
- Resolution
 - Direct: Find if $\mathcal{A} \vdash \mathcal{Q}$ (incomplete).
 - Refutation: Find if $\bigwedge \mathcal{A} \land \neg \mathcal{Q}$ is inconsistent.

Classes of Logics

- Propositional Logic
 - Finite number of atomic propositions and models.
 - Model finding and resolution are decision procedures.
- Finite-Model Predicate Logic
 - Finite number of terms, atomic formulae, and models.
 - Reducible to propositional logic.
 - Model finding and resolution are decision procedures.
- First-Order Logic
 - Infinite number of terms, atomic formulae, and models.
 - Not reducible to propositional logic.
 - There are no decision procedures.
 - Resolution plus factoring is refutation complete.

Logics We Studied

- 1. Standard Propositional Logic
- 2. Clause Form Propositional Logic
- 3. Standard Finite-Model Predicate Logic
- 4. Clause Form Finite-Model Predicate Logic
- 5. Standard First-Order Predicate Logic
- 6. Clause Form First-Order Predicate Logic

Proof Procedures We Studied

- Direct model finding: truth tables, decreasoner,
 relsat (complete search) walksat, gsat (stochastic search)
- 2. Semantic tableaux (model-finding refutation)
- 3. Wang algorithm (model-finding refutation), wang
- 4. Hilbert-style axiomatic (direct), brief
- 5. Fitch-style natural deduction (direct)
- 6. Resolution (refutation), prover, SNARK

Utility Notions and Techniques

- 1. Material implication
- 2. Possible properties of connectives commutative, associative, idempotent
- 3. Possible properties of well-formed expressions free, bound variables open, closed, ground expressions
- 4. Possible semantic properties of wffs contradictory, satisfiable, contingent, valid
- 5. Possible properties of proof procedures sound, consistent, complete, decision procedure, semi-decision procedure

More Utility Notions and Techniques

5. Substitutions

application, composition

6. Unification

most general common instance (mgci), most general unifier (mgu)

- 7. Translation from standard form to clause form Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF), Skolem functions/constants
- 8. Resolution Strategies

subsumption, unit preference, set of support

9. The Answer Literal

Unification

- Unification is a least-commitment method of choosing a substitution for Universal Instantiation $(\forall E)$.
- Unification is correct pattern matching when both structures have variables.
- Unification is generally needed in backward chaining systems.

AI-Logic Connections

AI	Logic
rules	non-atomic assumptions
or domain rules	or non-logical axioms
inference engine procedures	rules of inference
knowledge base	derivation

6 Prolog

6.1	Horn Clauses	76
6.2	Prolog	79

6.1 Horn Clauses

A Horn Clause is a clause with at most one positive literal. Either $\{\neg Q_1(\overline{x}), \ldots, \neg Q_n(\overline{x})\}$ (negative Horn clause) or $\{C(\overline{x})\}$ (fact or positive or definite Horn clause) or $\{\neg A_1(\overline{x}), \ldots, \neg A_n(\overline{x}), C(\overline{x})\}$ (positive or definite Horn clause) which is the same as $A_1(\overline{x}) \land \cdots \land A_n(\overline{x}) \Rightarrow C(\overline{x})$

where $A_i(\overline{x})$, $C(\overline{x})$, and $Q(\overline{x})$ are atoms.

SLD Resolution

Selected literals, Linear pattern, over Definite clauses SLD derivation of clause c from set of clauses S is $c_1, \ldots, c_n = c$ s.t. $c_1 \in S$ and c_{i+1} is resolvent of c_i and a clause in S. [B&L, p. 87] If S is a set of Horn clauses, then there is a resolution derivation of {} from Siff there is an SLD derivation of {} from S.

SLDSolve

```
procedure SLDSolve(KB,query) returns true or false {
```

```
/* KB = {rule<sub>1</sub>, ..., rule<sub>n</sub>}
* rule<sub>i</sub> = {h<sub>i</sub>, ¬b<sub>i1</sub>, ..., ¬b<sub>ik<sub>i</sub></sub>}
* query = {¬q<sub>1</sub>, ..., ¬q<sub>m</sub>} */
if (m = 0) return true;
for i := 1 to n {
    if((\mu := Unify(q<sub>1</sub>, h<sub>i</sub>)) ≠ FAIL
        and SLDSolve(KB, {¬b<sub>i1</sub>\mu, ..., ¬b<sub>ik<sub>i</sub></sub>\mu, ¬q<sub>2</sub>\mu, ..., ¬q<sub>m</sub>\mu})) {
        return true;
        }
    }
    return false;
}
```

```
Where h_i, b_{ij}, and q_i are atomic formulae.
See B&L, p. 92
```

6.2 Prolog Example Prolog Interaction

```
<timberlake:~/.xemacs:1:35> sicstus

SICStus 4.0.5 (x86_64-linux-glibc2.3): Thu Feb 12 09:48:30 CET 2009

Licensed to SP4cse.buffalo.edu

| ?- consult(user).

% consulting user...

| driver(X) :- drives(X,_).

| passenger(Y) :- drives(_,Y).

| drives(betty,tom).

|

% consulted user in module user, 0 msec 1200 bytes

yes

| ?- driver(X), passenger(Y).

X = betty,

Y = tom ?

yes

| ?- halt.
```

Variables are Capitalized

```
SICStus 4.0.5 (x86-linux-glibc2.3): Thu Feb 12 09:47:39 CET 2009
Licensed to SP4cse.buffalo.edu
| ?- [user].
% compiling user...
| canary(Tweety).
* [Tweety] - singleton variables
% compiled user in module user, 10 msec 152 bytes
yes
| ?- canary(Tweety).
true ?
yes
| ?- canary(oscar).
yes
| ?-
```

Prolog Program with Two Answers

% From Rich & Knight, 2nd Edition (1991) p. 192.

```
likesToEat(X,Y) :- cat(X), fish(Y).
cat(X) :- calico(X).
fish(X) :- tuna(X).
```

tuna(charlie).
tuna(herb).
calico(puss).

Listing the Fish Program

```
| ?- listing.
calico(puss).
cat(A) :-
        calico(A).
fish(A) :-
        tuna(A).
likesToEat(A, B) :-
        cat(A),
        fish(B).
tuna(charlie).
```

tuna(herb).

yes

Note: consult(File) loads the File in interpreted mode, whereas [File] loads the File in compiled mode. listing is only possible in interpreted mode.

Running the Fish Program

```
<timberlake:CSE563:1:39> sicstus
```

```
SICStus 4.0.5 (x86_64-linux-glibc2.3): Thu Feb 12 09:48:30 CET 2009
```

Licensed to SP4cse.buffalo.edu

/ ?- ['fish.prolog'].

% compiling /projects/shapiro/CSE563/fish.prolog...

```
% compiled /projects/shapiro/CSE563/fish.prolog in module user, 0 msec 1808 by yes
```

```
| ?- likesToEat(puss,X).
X = charlie ? ;
X = herb ? ;
no
```

```
| ?- halt.
<timberlake:CSE563:1:40>
```

Tracing the Fish Program

| ?- ['fish.prolog'].

% consulting /projects/shapiro/CSE563/fish.prolog...

% consulted /projects/shapiro/CSE563/fish.prolog in module user yes

| ?- trace.

% The debugger will first creep -- showing everything (trace) yes

% trace

Tracing First Answer

| ?- likesToEat(puss,X).

		1	1	Call:	likesToEat(puss,_442) ?
		2	2	Call:	cat(puss) ?
		3	3	Call:	calico(puss) ?
		3	3	Exit:	calico(puss) ?
		2	2	Exit:	cat(puss) ?
		4	2	Call:	fish(_442) ?
		5	3	Call:	tuna(_442) ?
?		5	3	Exit:	tuna(charlie) ?
?		4	2	Exit:	fish(charlie) ?
?		1	1	Exit:	likesToEat(puss,charlie) ?
Х	=	charlie	?;		

Tracing the Second Answer

```
X = charlie ? ;
```

1	1 Redo:	likesToEat(puss,charlie)	?
4	2 Redo:	fish(charlie) ?	
5	3 Redo:	tuna(charlie) ?	
5	3 Exit:	tuna(herb) ?	
4	2 Exit:	fish(herb) ?	
1	1 Exit:	likesToEat(puss,herb) ?	
X = herb ? ;			
no			
% trace			
?- notrace.			
% The debugger	is swit	ched off	
yes			

Backtracking Example

Program:

```
bird(tweety).
bird(oscar).
bird(X) :- feathered(X).
feathered(maggie).
large(oscar).
ostrich(X) :- bird(X), large(X).
```

Run (No backtracking needed):

```
?- ostrich(oscar).
               1 Call: ostrich(oscar) ?
        1
               2 Call: bird(oscar) ?
        2
?
        2
               2 Exit: bird(oscar) ?
        3
               2 Call: large(oscar) ?
               2 Exit: large(oscar) ?
        3
               1 Exit: ostrich(oscar) ?
?
        1
yes
```

Backtracking Used

| ?- ostrich(X).

	1	1	Call:	ostrich(_368) ?
	2	2	Call:	bird(_368) ?
?	2	2	Exit:	<pre>bird(tweety) ?</pre>
	3	2	Call:	large(tweety) ?
	3	2	Fail:	large(tweety) ?
	2	2	Redo:	<pre>bird(tweety) ?</pre>
?	2	2	Exit:	bird(oscar) ?
	4	2	Call:	large(oscar) ?
	4	2	Exit:	large(oscar) ?
?	1	1	Exit:	<pre>ostrich(oscar) ?</pre>
X =	oscar	?		
yes				

Backtracking: Effect of Query

/projects/shapiro/CSE563/Examples/Prolog/backtrack.prolog:

```
supervisorOf(X,Y) :- managerOf(X,Z), departmentOf(Y,Z).
managerOf(jones,accountingDepartment).
managerOf(smith,itDepartment).
departmentOf(kelly,accountingDepartment).
departmentOf(brown,itDepartment).
```

Backtracking not needed:

yes

| ?- supervisorOf(smith,X).

1	1 Call: supervisorOf(smith,_380) ?
2	<pre>2 Call: managerOf(smith,_772) ?</pre>
2	<pre>2 Exit: managerOf(smith,itDepartment) ?</pre>
3	<pre>2 Call: departmentOf(_380,itDepartment) ?</pre>
3	<pre>2 Exit: departmentOf(brown,itDepartment) ?</pre>
1	<pre>1 Exit: supervisorOf(smith,brown) ?</pre>
X = brown ?	
ves	

Backtracking Example, part 2

```
supervisorOf(X,Y) :- managerOf(X,Z), departmentOf(Y,Z).
managerOf(jones,accountingDepartment).
managerOf(smith,itDepartment).
departmentOf(kelly,accountingDepartment).
departmentOf(brown,itDepartment).
```

| ?- supervisorOf(X,brown).

	1	1	Call:	<pre>supervisorOf(_368,brown) ?</pre>	
	2	2	Call:	managerOf(_368,_772) ?	
?	2	2	Exit:	<pre>managerOf(jones,accountingDepartment) ?</pre>	
	3	2	Call:	departmentOf(brown,accountingDepartment)	?
	3	2	Fail:	departmentOf(brown,accountingDepartment)	?
	2	2	Redo:	<pre>managerOf(jones,accountingDepartment) ?</pre>	
	2	2	Exit:	<pre>managerOf(smith,itDepartment) ?</pre>	
	4	2	Call:	<pre>departmentOf(brown,itDepartment) ?</pre>	
	4	2	Exit:	<pre>departmentOf(brown,itDepartment) ?</pre>	
	1	1	Exit:	<pre>supervisorOf(smith,brown) ?</pre>	
X =	smith '	?			
yes					

Negation by Failure & The Closed World Assumption

```
| ?- [user].
% consulting user...
| manager(jones, itSection).
```

```
| manager(smith, accountingSection).
```

```
% consulted user in module user, 0 msec 416 bytes yes
```

```
/ ?- manager(smith, itSection).
```

```
no
```

```
| ?- manager(kelly, accountingSection).
```

```
no
```

Negation by failure: "no" means didn't succeed. CWA: If it's not in the KB, it's not true.

Cut: Preventing Backtracking KB Without Cut

| ?- consult(user).

```
% consulting user...
```

| bird(oscar).

| bird(tweety).

```
| bird(X) :- feathered(X).
```

```
| feathered(maggie).
```

| large(oscar).

```
| ostrich(X) :- bird(X), large(X).
```

```
% consulted user in module user, 0 msec 1120 bytes yes
```

No Backtracking Needed

| ?- trace.

% The debugger will first creep -- showing everything (trace) yes

% trace

| ?- ostrich(oscar).

	1	1 Call: ostrich(oscar) ?
	2	2 Call: bird(oscar) ?
?	2	2 Exit: bird(oscar) ?
	3	2 Call: large(oscar) ?
	3	2 Exit: large(oscar) ?
?	1	1 Exit: ostrich(oscar) ?
yes		
% trace		

Unwanted Backtracking

| ?- ostrich(tweety).

1 :	1 Call:	<pre>ostrich(tweety) ?</pre>
2 2	2 Call:	<pre>bird(tweety) ?</pre>
2 2	2 Exit:	<pre>bird(tweety) ?</pre>
3 2	2 Call:	<pre>large(tweety) ?</pre>
3 2	2 Fail:	<pre>large(tweety) ?</pre>
2 2	2 Redo:	<pre>bird(tweety) ?</pre>
4 3	3 Call:	<pre>feathered(tweety) ?</pre>
4 3	3 Fail:	<pre>feathered(tweety) ?</pre>
2 2	2 Fail:	<pre>bird(tweety) ?</pre>
1 :	1 Fail:	<pre>ostrich(tweety) ?</pre>

no

?

No need to try to solve bird(tweety) another way.

KB With Cut

```
?- consult(user).
% consulting user...
 bird(oscar).
| bird(tweety).
bird(X) :- feathered(X).
| feathered(maggie).
| large(oscar).
| ostrich(X) :- bird(X), !, large(X).
% consulted user in module user, 0 msec -40 bytes
yes
% trace
```

No Extra Backtracking

| ?- ostrich(tweety).

	1	<pre>1 Call: ostrich(tweety) ?</pre>
	2	<pre>2 Call: bird(tweety) ?</pre>
?	2	<pre>2 Exit: bird(tweety) ?</pre>
	3	2 Call: large(tweety) ?
	3	2 Fail: large(tweety) ?
	1	1 Fail: ostrich(tweety) ?
~ ~		

no

% trace
Cut Fails the Head Instance: Program

```
| ?- [user].
% compiling user...
yellow(bigbird).
| bird(tweety).
| canary(X) :- bird(X), !, yellow(X).
\mid canary(X).
* [X] - singleton variables
% compiled user in module user, 0 msec 600 bytes
yes
| ?- canary(fred).
yes
| ?- canary(bigbird).
yes
?- canary(tweety).
no
| ?-
```

fail: Forcing Failure

If something is a canary, it is not a penguin.

```
?- consult(user).
% consulting user...
| penguin(X) :- canary(X), !, fail.
| canary(tweety).
% consulted user in module user, 0 msec 416 bytes
yes
% trace
| ?- penguin(tweety).
               1 Call: penguin(tweety) ?
        1
               2 Call: canary(tweety) ?
        2
               2 Exit: canary(tweety) ?
        2
               1 Fail: penguin(tweety) ?
        1
no
```

% trace

Cut Fails the Head Instance: Program

```
penguin(X) :- canary(X), !, fail.
penguin(X) :- bird(X), swims(X).
```

```
canary(tweety).
bird(willy).
swims(willy).
```

Cut Fails the Head Instance: Run

| ?- penguin(willy).

1	<pre>1 Call: penguin(willy) ?</pre>
2	<pre>2 Call: canary(willy) ?</pre>
2	<pre>2 Fail: canary(willy) ?</pre>
3	<pre>2 Call: bird(willy) ?</pre>
3	<pre>2 Exit: bird(willy) ?</pre>
4	<pre>2 Call: swims(willy) ?</pre>
4	<pre>2 Exit: swims(willy) ?</pre>
1	1 Exit: penguin(willy) ?

yes

% trace

no

Cut Fails Head Alternatives

| ?- penguin(X).

1	1 Call: penguin(_368) ?
2	2 Call: canary(_368) ?
2	2 Exit: canary(tweety) ?
1	1 Fail: penguin(_368) ?

no

Moral:

Use cut when seeing if a ground atom is satisfied (T/F question), but not when generating satisfying instances (wh questions).

Bad Rule Order

```
penguin(X) :- bird(X), swims(X).
penguin(X) :- canary(X), !, fail.
bird(X) :- canary(X).
canary(tweety).
```

```
% trace
```

```
| ?- penguin(tweety).
```

1	1 Call: penguin(tweety)	?
2	<pre>2 Call: bird(tweety) ?</pre>	
3	<pre>3 Call: canary(tweety)</pre>	?
3	<pre>3 Exit: canary(tweety)</pre>	?
2	<pre>2 Exit: bird(tweety) ?</pre>	
4	<pre>2 Call: swims(tweety) ?</pre>	
4	<pre>2 Fail: swims(tweety) ?</pre>	
5	2 Call: canary(tweety)	?
5	2 Exit: canary(tweety)	?
1	1 Fail: penguin(tweety)	?

no

Good Rule Order

```
penguin(X) :- canary(X), !, fail.
penguin(X) :- bird(X), swims(X).
bird(X) :- canary(X).
canary(tweety).
```

```
% trace
| ?- penguin(tweety).
1 1 Call: penguin(tweety) ?
2 2 Call: canary(tweety) ?
2 2 Exit: canary(tweety) ?
1 1 Fail: penguin(tweety) ?
```

no

SICSTUS Allows "or" In Body.

```
bird(willy).
swims(willy).
canary(tweety).
penguin(X) :-
        canary(X), !, fail;
        bird(X), swims(X).
bird(X) :- canary(X).
/ ?- ['twoRuleCutOr.prolog'].
% compiling /projects/shapiro/CSE563/twoRuleCutOr.prolog...
* clauses for user:bird/1 are not together
* Approximate lines: 8-10, file: '/projects/shapiro/CSE563/twoRuleCutOr.prolog'
% compiled /projects/shapiro/CSE563/twoRuleCutOr.prolog in module user, 0 msec 928 bytes
yes
/ ?- penguin(willy).
yes
/ ?- penguin(tweety).
no
```

not: "Negated" Antecedents

A bird that is not a canary is a penguin.

```
| penguin(X) :- bird(X), !, \+canary(X).
| bird(opus).
| canary(tweety).
% compiled user in module user, 0 msec 512 bytes
```

| ?- penguin(opus).

1	1	Call:	penguin(opus) ?
2	2	Call:	<pre>bird(opus) ?</pre>
2	2	Exit:	<pre>bird(opus) ?</pre>
3	2	Call:	<pre>canary(opus) ?</pre>
3	2	Fail:	<pre>canary(opus) ?</pre>
1	1	Exit:	penguin(opus) ?

yes

\+ is SICStus Prolog's version of not.

It is negation by failure, not logical negation.

Can Use Functions

```
driver(X) :- drives(X,_).
drives(mother(X),X) :- schoolchild(X).
schoolchild(betty).
schoolchild(tom).
```

```
| ?- driver(X).
X = mother(betty) ? ;
X = mother(tom) ? ;
no
```

Infinitely Growing Terms

```
driver(X) :- drives(X,_).
drives(mother(X),X) :- commuter(X).
commuter(betty).
commuter(tom).
commuter(mother(X)) :- commuter(X).
```

```
| ?- driver(X).
X = mother(betty) ? ;
X = mother(tom) ? ;
X = mother(mother(betty)) ? ;
X = mother(mother(tom)) ? ;
X = mother(mother(mother(betty))) ? ;
X = mother(mother(mother(tom))) ? ;
yes
```

Prolog Does Not Do the Occurs Check

```
<pollux:CSE563:2:31> sicstus
...
| ?- [user].
% consulting user...
| mother(motherOf(X), X).
|
% consulted user in module user, 0 msec 248 bytes
yes
| ?- mother(Y, Y).
```

yes

| ?-

"=" and "is"

```
| ?- p(X, b, f(c,Y)) = p(a, U, f(V,U)).
U = b,
V = c,
X = a,
Y = b ?
yes
| ?- X is 2*(3+6).
X = 18 ?
yes
| ?- X = 2*(3+6).
X = 2*(3+6) ?
yes
| ?- X is 2*(3+6), Y is X/3.
X = 18,
Y = 6.0 ?
yes
| ?- Y is X/3, X is 2*(3+6).
! Instantiation error in argument 2 of is/2
! goal: _76 is _73/3
```

Avoid Left Recursive Rules

To define ancestor as the transitive closure of parent. The base case: ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Y). Three possible recursive cases:

- 1. ancestor(X,Y) :- parent(X,Z), ancestor(Z,Y).
- 2. ancestor(X,Y) :- ancestor(X,Z), parent(Z,Y).
- 3. ancestor(X,Y) :- ancestor(X,Z), ancestor(Z,Y).

Versions (2) and (3) will cause infinite loops.

7 A Potpourri of Subdomains

7.1	Taxonomies	412
7.2	Time	418
7.3	Things vs. Substances	425

Taxonomies: Categories as Intensional Sets

In mathematics, a set is defined by its members.

This is an **extensional set**.

Plato: Man is a featherless biped.

An **intensional** set is defined by properties.

Aristotle: Man is a rational animal.

A category (type, class) is an intensional set.

Taxonomies: Need for Two Relations

With sets, there's a difference between

set membership, \in $5 \in \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ and subset, \subset , \subseteq $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} \subset \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ One difference is that subset is transitive: $\{1, 3, 5\} \subset \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ and $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} \subset \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ and $\{1, 3, 5\} \subset \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ membership is not: $5 \in \{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}$ and $\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\} \in \{\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}, \{2, 4, 6, 8\}\}$

but $5 \notin \{\{1, 3, 5, 7, 9\}, \{2, 4, 6, 8\}\}$

Similarly, we need both the instance relation and the subcategory relation.

Taxonomies: Categories as Unary Predicates

One way to represent taxonomies:

Canary(Tweety)

 $\begin{aligned} \forall x [(Canary(x) \Rightarrow Bird(x)] \\ \forall x [(Bird(x) \Rightarrow Vertebrate(x)] \\ \forall x [(Vertebrate(x) \Rightarrow Chordate(x)] \\ \forall x [(Chordate(x) \Rightarrow Animal(x)] \end{aligned}$

Taxonomies: Reifying

To reify: to make a thing of. Allows discussion of "predicates" in FOL.

Membership: Member or Instance or Isa Isa(Tweety, Canary)

Subcategory: Subclass or Ako (sometimes, even, Isa) Ako(Canary, Bird) Ako(Bird, Vertebrate) Ako(Vertebrate, Chordate) Ako(Chordate, Animal)

Axioms:

 $\forall x \forall c_1 \forall c_2 [Isa(x, c_1) \land Ako(c_1, c_2) \Rightarrow Isa(x, c_2)]$ $\forall c_1 \forall c_2 \forall c_3 [Ako(c_1, c_2) \land Ako(c_2, c_3) \Rightarrow Ako(c_1, c_3)]$

Discussing Categories

Isa(Canary, Species)

Isa(Bird, Class)

Isa(Chordate, Phylum)

Isa(Animal, Kingdom)

Extinct(Dinosaur)

Note: That's Isa, not Ako.

If categories are predicates, requires second-order logic.

Other relationships: exhaustive subcategories, disjoint categories, partitions.

DAG (directed acyclic graph), rather than just a tree.

E.g., human: man vs. woman; child vs. adult vs. senior.

Transitive Closure

It's sometimes useful (especially in Prolog) to have a second relation, R_2 be the transitive closure of a relation, R_1 .

$$\begin{aligned} \forall R_1, R_2[transitiveClosureOf(R_2, R_1) \\ \Leftrightarrow [\forall x, y(R_1(x, y) \Rightarrow R_2(x, y)) \\ \land \forall x, y, z[R_1(x, y) \land R_2(y, z) \Rightarrow R_2(x, z)]] \end{aligned}$$

E.g. ancestor is the transitive closure of parent:

 $\begin{aligned} &\forall x, y [parent(x, y) \Rightarrow ancestor(x, y)] \\ &\forall x, y, z [parent(x, y) \land ancestor(y, z) \Rightarrow ancestor(x, z)] \end{aligned}$

7.2 Time

How would you represent time?

Discuss

Subjective vs. Objective: Subjective

Make now an individual in the domain.

Include other times relative to now.

OK if time doesn't move.

Subjective vs. Objective: Objective

Make **now** a meta-logical variable with some time-denoting term as value.

Relate times to each other, e.g. Before(t1, t2).

Now can move by giving **now** a new value.

Points vs. Intervals: Points

Use numbers: integers, rationals, reals?

Computer reals aren't really dense.

How to assign numbers to times?

Granularity: How big, numerically, is a day, or any other interval of time?

If an interval is defined as a pair of points, which interval is the midpoint in, if one interval immediately follows another?

Points vs. Intervals: Intervals

Use intervals only: no points at all.

More cognitively accurate.

Granularity is not fixed.

A "point" is just an interval with nothing inside it.

James Allen's Interval Relations



[James F. Allen, Maintaining Knowledge About Temporal Intervals, Communications of the ACM 26, 11 (Nov 1983), 832-843.]

A Smaller Set of Temporal Relations

If fewer distinctions are needed, one may use before(x, y) for Allen's $before(x, y) \lor meets(x, y)$ during(x, y) for Allen's $starts(x, y) \lor during(x, y) \lor finishes(x, y)$ overlaps(x, y) and equals(x, y)and appropriate converses.

7.3 Things vs. Substances Count Nouns vs. Mass Nouns

A count noun denotes a thing.Count nouns can be singular or plural.Things can be counted.One dog. Two dogs.

A mass noun denotes a substance.Mass nouns can only be singular.One can have a quantity of a substance.A glass of water. A pint of ice cream.

A Quantity of a Substance is a Thing

water a substance

 $a \ lake = a \ body \ of \ water \ a \ thing$

lakes a plurality of things

 $40 \ acres \ of \ lakes$ a quantity of a substance

Nouns with mass and count senses

A noun might have both senses.

a piece of pie vs. A piece of a pie

two pieces of steak vs. two steaks

Any count noun can be "massified".Any thing can be put through "the universal grinder".I can't get up; I've got cat on my lap.

8 SNePS

8.1	SNePSLOG Semantics	29
8.2	SNePSLOG Syntax	33
8.3	SNePSLOG Proof Theory	46
8.4	Loading and Running SNePSLOG4	56
8.5	Reasoning Heuristics	67
8.6	SNePS as a Network	89
8.7	SNeRE: The SNePS Rational Engine	99

8.1 SNePSLOG Semantics The Intensional Domain of (Mental) Entities

Frege: The Morning Star is the Evening Star. different from The Morning Star is the Morning Star.

Russell: George IV wanted to know whether Scott was the author of Waverly.

not George IV wanted to know whether the author of Waverly was the author of Waverly.

Jerry Siegel and Joe Shuster: Clark Kent is a mild-mannered reporter; Superman is the man of steel.

Intensions vs. Extensions

the Morning Star and the Evening Star Scott and the author of Waverly Clark Kent and Superman

are different intensions, or intensional entities, or mental entities, or just entities,

even though they are coreferential, or extensionally equivalent, or have the same extensions.

SNePSLOG Semantics Intensional Representation

SNePSLOG individual ground terms denote intensions, (mental) entities.

Mental entities include propositions.

Propositions are first-class members of the domain.

SNePSLOG wffs denote propositions.

Assume that for every entity in the domain there is a term that denotes it.

Make unique names assumption: no two terms denote the same entity.

The Knowledge Base

Think of the SNePS KB as the contents of the mind of an intelligent agent.

The terms in the KB denote mental entities that the agent has conceived of (so far).

Some of the wffs are **asserted**.

These denote propositions that the agent believes.

The rules of inference sanction believing some additional proposition(s), but drawing that inference is optional. I.e., the agent is not logically omniscient.
8.2 SNePSLOG Syntax Atomic Symbols

Individual Constants, Variables, Function Symbols:

any Lisp symbol, number, or string.

All that matters is the sequence of characters.

I.e. "4", \setminus 4, and 4, are the same.

The sets of individual constants, variables, and function symbols should be distinct, but don't have to be.

SNePSLOG Syntax Terms

An individual constant is a term.

A variable is a term.

If t1, ..., tn are terms, then $\{t1, \ldots, tn\}$ is a set of terms.

If f is a function symbol or a variable, then f() is a term.

If t1, ..., tn are terms or sets of terms and f is a function symbol or variable, then f(t1, ..., tn) is a term.

A function symbol needn't have a fixed arity, but it might be a mistake of formalization otherwise.

SNePSLOG Syntax Atomic Wffs

If \mathbf{x} is a variable, then \mathbf{x} is a wff.

If P is a proposition-valued function symbol or variable, then P() is a wff.

If t1, ..., tn are terms or sets of terms and P is a proposition-valued function symbol or variable, then P(t1, ..., tn) is a wff.

A predicate symbol needn't have a fixed arity, but it might be a mistake of formalization otherwise.

If P1, ..., Pn are wffs, then $\{P1, \ldots, Pn\}$ is a set of wffs.

Abbreviation: If P is a wff, then P is an abbreviation of $\{P\}$.

Every wff is a proposition-denoting term.

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics AndOr

If $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ is a set of wffs (proposition-denoting terms), and *i* and *j* are integers such that $0 \le i \le j \le n$, then **andor**(i, j) $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ is a wff (proposition-denoting term). The proposition that at least *i* and at most *j* of P_1, \ldots, P_n are True.

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Abbreviations of AndOr

and
$$\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$$
 = andor $(n, n) \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$
or $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ = andor $(1, n) \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$
nand $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ = andor $(0, n - 1) \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$
nor $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ = andor $(0, 0) \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$
xor $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ = andor $(1, 1) \{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$

$$P_1$$
 and ... and $P_n = \operatorname{andor}(n, n) \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$
 P_1 or ... or $P_n = \operatorname{andor}(1, n) \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Thresh

If $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ is a set of wffs (proposition-denoting terms) and i and j are integers such that $0 \le i \le j \le n$, then thresh(i, j) $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ is a wff (proposition-denoting term). The proposition that either fewer than i or more than j of P_1, \ldots, P_n are True.

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Abbreviations of Thresh

 $\begin{aligned} & \inf\{P_1, \dots, P_n\} \\ & \text{ is an abbreviation of } \mathsf{thresh}(1, n-1)\{P_1, \dots, P_n\} \\ & P_1 \iff \cdots \iff P_n \\ & \text{ is an abbreviation of } \mathsf{thresh}(1, n-1)\{P_1, \dots, P_n\} \\ & \mathsf{thresh}(i)\{P_1, \dots, P_n\} \\ & \text{ is an abbreviation of } \mathsf{thresh}(i, n-1)\{P_1, \dots, P_n\} \end{aligned}$

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Numerical Entailment

If $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ and $\{Q_1, \ldots, Q_m\}$ are sets of wffs (proposition-denoting terms), and *i* is an integer, $1 \le i \le n$, then

 $\{P_1, \ldots, P_n\}$ *i*=> $\{Q_1, \ldots, Q_m\}$ is a wff (proposition-denoting term).

The proposition that whenever at least i of P_1, \ldots, P_n are True, then so is any $Q_j \in \{Q_1, \ldots, Q_m\}$.

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Abbreviations of Numerical Entailment

 $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\} \implies \{Q1, \dots, Qm\}$ is an abbreviation of $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ $1 \Longrightarrow \{Q_1, \dots, Q_m\}$ $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ $v \Longrightarrow \{Q1, \dots, Qm\}$ is also an abbreviation of $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ $1 \Longrightarrow \{Q_1, \dots, Q_m\}$ $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ $\& \Longrightarrow \{Q1, \dots, Qm\}$ is an abbreviation of $\{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ $n \Longrightarrow \{Q_1, \dots, Q_m\}$

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Universal Quantifier

If P is a wff (proposition-denoting term) and x_1, \ldots, x_n are variables, then

all (x_1, \ldots, x_n) (P) is a wff (proposition-denoting term).

The proposition that for every sequence of ground terms, t_1, \ldots, t_n , $P\{t_1/x_1, \ldots, t_n/x_n\}$ is True.

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Numerical Quantifier

If \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} are sets of wffs, x_1, \ldots, x_n are variables, and i, j, and k are integers such that $0 \le i \le j \le k$, then

 $nexists(i, j, k)(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ (\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{Q}) is a wff.

The proposition that there are k sequences of ground terms, t_1, \ldots, t_n , that satisfy every $P \in \mathcal{P}$, and, of them, at least i and at most j also satisfy every $Q \in \mathcal{Q}$.

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Abbreviations of Numerical Quantifier

nexists(_, j, _)(x_1, \ldots, x_n)(\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{Q}) is an abbreviation of nexists($0, j, \infty$)(x_1, \ldots, x_n)(\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{Q})

nexists(*i*, _, *k*)(x_1, \ldots, x_n)(\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{Q}) is an abbreviation of nexists(*i*, *k*, *k*)(x_1, \ldots, x_n)(\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{Q})

SNePSLOG Syntax/Semantics Wffs are Terms

Every wff is a proposition-denoting term.

So, e.g., Believes(Tom, ~Penguin(Tweety)) is a wff, and a well-formed term.

For a more complete, more formal syntax, see The SNePS 2.7.1 User's Manual,

http://www.cse.buffalo.edu/sneps/Manuals/manual271.pdf.

8.3 SNePSLOG Proof Theory Implemented Rules of Inference Reduction Inference

Reduction Inference₁: If α is a set of terms and $\beta \subset \alpha$, P(t₁,..., α , ...t_n) \vdash P(t₁,..., β ,... t_n)

Reduction Inference₂: If α is a set of terms, and $t \in \alpha$, P(t₁,..., α , ...,t_n) \vdash P(t₁, ..., t, ...,t_n)

Example of Reduction Inference

: clearkb

Knowledge Base Cleared

: Member({Fido, Rover, Lassie}, {dog, pet}).
wff1!: Member({Lassie,Rover,Fido},{pet,dog})
CPU time : 0.00

: Member ({Fido, Lassie}, dog)?
wff2!: Member({Lassie,Fido},dog)
CPU time : 0.00

SNePSLOG Proof Theory Implemented Rules of Inference for AndOr

AndOr I₁: P₁, ..., P_n \vdash andor(n, n) {P₁, ..., P_n} AndOr I₂: "P₁, ..., "P_n \vdash andor(0,0) {P₁, ..., P_n} AndOr E₁: andor(i, j) {P₁, ..., P_n}, "P₁, ..., "P_{n-i} \vdash P_j for $n - i < j \le n$

AndOr E₂: andor(i, j) {P₁, ..., P_n}, P₁, ..., P_j \vdash ~P_k, for $j < k \le n$

SNePSLOG Proof Theory Implemented Rules of Inference for Thresh

- **Thresh E**₁: When at least *i* args are true, and at least n j 1 args are false, conclude that any other arg is true. thresh(i, j) {P₁, ..., P_n}, P₁, ..., P_i, \neg P_{i+1}, ..., \neg P_{i+n-j-1} \vdash P_{i+n-j}
- **Thresh E**₂: When at least i 1 args are true, and at least n j args are false, conclude that any other arg is false. thresh(i, j) {P₁, ..., P_n}, P₁, ..., P_{i-1}, \neg P_{i+1}, ..., \neg P_{i+n-j} $\vdash \neg$ P_i

SNePSLOG Proof Theory Implemented Rules of Inference for &=>

SNePSLOG Proof Theory Implemented Rules of Inference for v=>

v=>I: If $\mathcal{A} \vdash P$ v=> Q and $\mathcal{A} \vdash Q$ v=> R then $\mathcal{A} \vdash P$ v=> R v=>E: {P₁, ..., P_n} v=> {Q₁, ..., Q_m}, P_i, $\vdash Q_j$, for $1 \le i \le n, 1 \le j \le m$

SNePSLOG Proof Theory Implemented Rules of Inference for i=>

i=>E: {P₁, ..., P_n} i=> {Q₁, ..., Q_m}, P₁, ..., P_i \vdash Q_j, for $1 \le i \le n, 1 \le j \le m$

SNePSLOG Proof Theory Implemented Rules of Inference for all

Universal Elimination for universally quantified versions of andor, thresh, v=>, &=>, and i=>.

UVBR & Symmetric Relations

In any substitution $\{t_1/x_1, \ldots, t_n/x_n\}$, if $x_i \neq x_j$, then $t_i \neq t_j$

- : all(u,v,x,y)(childOf({u,v}, {x,y}) => Siblings({u,v})).
- : childOf({Tom,Betty,John,Mary}, {Pat,Harry}).
- : Siblings({?x,?y})?
 - wff14!: Siblings({Mary,John})
 - wff13!: Siblings({John,Betty})
 - wff12!: Siblings({Betty,Tom})
 - wff11!: Siblings({Mary,Betty})
 - wff10!: Siblings({John,Tom})
 - wff9!: Siblings({Mary,Tom})

SNePSLOG Proof Theory Implemented Rules of Inference for nexists

```
nexists E_1:
```

```
\begin{split} & \texttt{nexists}(\texttt{i},\texttt{j},\texttt{k})(\overline{\texttt{x}})(\overline{\texttt{P}}(\overline{\texttt{x}}):\texttt{Q}(\overline{\texttt{x}})), \\ & \overline{\texttt{P}}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_1), \texttt{Q}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_1), \dots, \overline{\texttt{P}}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_j), \ \texttt{Q}(\overline{t}_j), \\ & \overline{\texttt{P}}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_{\texttt{j+1}}) \\ & \vdash \neg\texttt{Q}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_{\texttt{j+1}}) \end{split}
```

nexists E_2 :

$$\begin{split} & \texttt{nexists}(\texttt{i},\texttt{j},\texttt{k})(\overline{\texttt{x}})(\overline{\texttt{P}}(\overline{\texttt{x}}):\texttt{Q}(\overline{\texttt{x}})), \\ & \overline{\texttt{P}}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_1), \neg\texttt{Q}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_1), \ldots, \overline{\texttt{P}}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_{\texttt{k}-\texttt{i}}), \neg\texttt{Q}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_{\texttt{k}-\texttt{i}}), \\ & \overline{\texttt{P}}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_{\texttt{k}-\texttt{i}+1}) \\ & \vdash \texttt{Q}(\overline{\texttt{t}}_{\texttt{k}-\texttt{i}+1}) \end{split}$$

8.4 Loading SNePSLOG

cl-user(2): :ld /projects/snwiz/bin/sneps
; Loading /projects/snwiz/bin/sneps.lisp
;;; Installing streamc patch, version 2.
Loading system SNePS...10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% 100%
SNePS-2.7 [PL:2 2010/09/04 02:35:18] loaded.
Type '(sneps)' or '(snepslog)' to get started.

cl-user(3): (snepslog)

Welcome to SNePSLOG (A logic interface to SNePS)

Copyright (C) 1984--2010 by Research Foundation of State University of New York. SNePS comes with ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY! Type 'copyright' for detailed copyright information. Type 'demo' for a list of example applications.

Running SNePSLOG

```
cl-user(3): (snepslog)
```

Welcome to SNePSLOG (A logic interface to SNePS)

Copyright (C) 1984--2010 by Research Foundation of State University of New York. SNePS comes with ABSOLUTELY NO WARRANTY! Type 'copyright' for detailed copyright information. Type 'demo' for a list of example applications.

```
: clearkb
Knowledge Base Cleared
CPU time : 0.00
```

: Member({Fido, Rover, Lassie}, {dog, pet}).
wff1!: Member({Lassie,Rover,Fido},{pet,dog})
CPU time : 0.00

: Member ({Fido, Lassie}, dog)?
wff2!: Member({Lassie,Fido},dog)
CPU time : 0.00

Common SNePSLOG Commands

: clearkb

Knowledge Base Cleared

- : all(x)(dog(x) => animal(x)). ; Assert into the KB
 wff1!: all(x)(dog(x) => animal(x))
- : dog(Fido). ; Assert into the KB
 wff2!: dog(Fido)
- : dog(Fido)?? ; Query assertion without inference wff2!: dog(Fido)

Common SNePSLOG Commands

- : animal(Fido)?? ; Query assertion without inference
- : animal(Fido)? ; Query assertion with inference wff3!: animal(Fido)
- : dog(Rover)! ; Assert into the KB & do forward inference wff6!: animal(Rover)
 - wff5!: dog(Rover)
- : list-asserted-wffs ; Print all asserted wffs
 - wff6!: animal(Rover)
 - wff5!: dog(Rover)
 - wff3!: animal(Fido)
 - wff2!: dog(Fido)
 - wff1!: all(x)(dog(x) => animal(x))

Tracing Inference

: trace inference Tracing inference.

: animal(Fido)?

I wonder if wff3: animal(Fido) holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct

I wonder if wff5: dog(Fido) holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct

I know wff2!: dog({Rover,Fido})

Since wff1!: all(x)(dog(x) => animal(x))
and wff5!: dog(Fido)
I infer wff3: animal(Fido)

wff3!: animal(Fido)
CPU time : 0.01

: untrace inference Untracing inference. CPU time : 0.00

: animal(Rover)?
wff6!: animal(Rover)

Recursive Rules Don't Cause Infinite Loops

```
: all(x,y)(parentOf(x,y) => ancestorOf(x,y)).
wff1!: all(y,x)(parentOf(x,y) => ancestorOf(x,y))
```

```
: all(x,y,z)({ancestorOf(x,y), ancestorOf(y,z)} &=> ancestorOf(x,z)).
wff2!: all(z,y,x)({ancestorOf(y,z),ancestorOf(x,y)} &=> {ancestorOf(x,z)})
```

```
: parentOf(Sam,Lou).
wff3!: parentOf(Sam,Lou)
```

```
: parentOf(Lou,Stu).
wff4!: parentOf(Lou,Stu)
```

```
: ancestorOf(Max,Stu).
wff5!: ancestorOf(Max,Stu)
```

```
: ancestorOf(?x,Stu)?
wff8!: ancestorOf(Sam,Stu)
wff6!: ancestorOf(Lou,Stu)
wff5!: ancestorOf(Max,Stu)
CPU time : 0.01
```

Infinitely Growing Terms Get Cut Off

: all(x)(Duck(motherOf(x)) => Duck(x)).
wff1!: all(x)(Duck(motherOf(x)) => Duck(x))
CPU time : 0.00

: Duck(Daffy)?

I wonder if wff2: Duck(Daffy) holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct

I wonder if wff5: Duck(motherOf(Daffy)) holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct

I wonder if wff8: Duck(motherOf(motherOf(Daffy))) holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct

• • •

```
I wonder if wff35: Duck(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(motherOf(m
```

Eager-Beaver Search

```
: all(x)(Duck(motherOf(x)) => Duck(x)).
```

```
wff1!: all(x)(Duck(motherOf(x)) => Duck(x))
```

```
: all(x)({walksLikeaDuck(x), talksLikeaDuck(x)} &=> Duck(x)).
```

```
wff2!: all(x)({talksLikeaDuck(x),walksLikeaDuck(x)} &=> {Duck(x)})
```

```
: and{talksLikeaDuck(Daffy),walksLikeaDuck(Daffy)}.
```

```
wff5!: walksLikeaDuck(Daffy) and talksLikeaDuck(Daffy)
```

: Duck(Daffy)? (1)

I wonder if wff6: Duck(Daffy)

I wonder if wff9: Duck(motherOf(Daffy))

I wonder if wff3: talksLikeaDuck(Daffy)

```
I wonder if wff4: walksLikeaDuck(Daffy)
```

It is the case that wff4: walksLikeaDuck(Daffy)

It is the case that wff3: talksLikeaDuck(Daffy)

```
Since wff2!: all(x)({talksLikeaDuck(x),walksLikeaDuck(x)} &=> {Duck(x)})
and wff3!: talksLikeaDuck(Daffy)
and wff4!: walksLikeaDuck(Daffy)
I infer wff6: Duck(Daffy)
```

```
wff6!: Duck(Daffy)
CPU time : 0.02
```

Contradictions The KB

: clearkb

Knowledge Base Cleared

- : all(x)(nand{Mammal(x), Fish(x)}).
 wff1!: all(x)(nand{Fish(x),Mammal(x)})
- : all(x)(LivesInWater(x) => Fish(x)).
 wff2!: all(x)(LivesInWater(x) => Fish(x))
- : all(x)(BearsYoungAlive(x) => Mammal(x)).
 wff3!: all(x)(BearsYoungAlive(x) => Mammal(x))
- : LivesInWater(whale).
 wff4!: LivesInWater(whale)
- : BearsYoungAlive(whale).
 wff5!: BearsYoungAlive(whale)

Contradictions The Contradiction

: ?x(whale)?

A contradiction was detected within context default-defaultct. The contradiction involves the newly derived proposition: wff6!: Mammal(whale)

and the previously existing proposition: wff7!: ~Mammal(whale)

You have the following options:

- 1. [C] ontinue anyway, knowing that a contradiction is derivable;
- 2. [R]e-start the exact same run in a different context which is not inconsistent;
- 3. [D]rop the run altogether.

```
(please type c, r or d)
=><= d</pre>
```

SNePSLOG Demonstrations

: demo

Available demonstrations:

- 1: Socrates Is he mortal?
- 2: UVBR Demonstrating the Unique Variable Binding Rule
- 3: The Jobs Puzzle A solution with the Numerical Quantifie
- 4: Pegasus Why winged horses lead to contradictions
- 5: Schubert's Steamroller
- 6: Rule Introduction Various examples
- 7: Examples of various SNeRE constructs.
- 8: Enter a demo filename

Your choice (q to quit):

8.5 Reasoning Heuristics

Logically equivalent SNePSLOG wffs

are interpreted differently by the SNePS Reasoning System.

v=>-Elimination

Instead of



which would require **or-**I followed by **=>-**E Have



which requires only v = -E
Example of v=>-E

: P(). wff1!: P() : {P(), Q()} v=> R(). wff4!: {Q(),P()} v=> {R()} : trace inference Tracing inference. : R()? I wonder if wff3: R() holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct Q() I wonder if wff2: holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct I know wff1!: P() Since wff4!: {Q(),P()} v=> {R()} and wff1!: P() I infer wff3: R() wff3!: R()

Bi-Directional Inference Backward Inference

```
: {p(), q()} v=> {r(), s()}.
 wff5!: {q(),p()} v=> {s(),r()}
: p().
 wff1!: p()
: r()?
I wonder if wff3: r()
holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct
I wonder if wff2: q()
holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct
I know wff1!: p()
Since wff5!: {q(),p()} v=> {s(),r()}
and wff1!: p()
I infer wff3: r()
  wff3!: r()
```

Bi-Directional Inference Forward Inference

```
: {p(), q()} v=> {r(), s()}.
wff5!: {q(),p()} v=> {s(),r()}
```

: p()!

```
Since wff5!: {q(),p()} v=> {s(),r()}
and wff1!: p()
I infer wff4: s()
```

```
Since wff5!: {q(),p()} v=> {s(),r()}
and wff1!: p()
I infer wff3: r()
```

wff4!: s()
wff3!: r()
wff1!: p()

Bi-Directional Inference Forward-in-Backward Inference

```
: {p(), q()} v=> {r(), s()}.
 wff5!: {q(),p()} v=> {s(),r()}
: r()?
I wonder if wff3: r()
holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct
I wonder if wff2: q()
holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct
I wonder if wff1: p()
holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct
: p()!
Since wff5!: {q(),p()} v=> {s(),r()}
and wff1!: p()
I infer wff3: r()
 wff3!: r()
 wff1!: p()
```

Active connection graph cleared by clear-infer.

Bi-Directional Inference Backward-in-Forward Inference

```
: p().
  wff1!: p()
: p() => (q() => r()).
 wff5!: p() => (q() => r())
: q()!
I know wff1!: p()
Since wff5!: p() \Rightarrow (q() \Rightarrow r())
and wff1!: p()
I infer wff4: q() \Rightarrow r()
I know wff2!: q()
Since wff4!: q() \Rightarrow r()
and wff2!: q()
I infer wff3: r()
  wff4!: q() => r()
  wff3!: r()
  wff2!: q()
```

Modus Tollens Not Implemented

```
: all(x)(p(x) => q(x)).
wff1!: all(x)(p(x) => q(x))
```

- : p(a). wff2!: p(a)
- : q(a)? wff3!: q(a)
- : ~q(b). wff6!: ~q(b)

: p(b)?

:

Use Disjunctive Syllogism Instead

- : all(x)(or{~p(x), q(x)}).
 wff1!: all(x)(q(x) or ~p(x))
- : p(a). wff2!: p(a)
- : q(a)? wff3!: q(a)
- : ~q(b). wff7!: ~q(b)
- : p(b)? wff9!: ~p(b)

=> Is Not Material Implication

If \Rightarrow is material implication,

$$\neg(P \Rightarrow Q) \Leftrightarrow (P \land \neg Q)$$

and

$$\neg(P \Rightarrow Q) \models P$$

But \sim (p => q) just means that its not the case that p => q:

: p()?

:

Use or Instead of Material Implication

: ~(~p() or q()).
wff5!: nor{q(), ~p()}

: p()?

wff1!: p()

Ordering of Nested Rules Matters Optimal Order

- : wifeOf(Caren,Stu).
- : wifeOf(Ruth,Mike).
- : brotherOf(Stu,Judi).
- : brotherOf(Mike,Lou).
- : parentOf(Judi,Ken).
- : parentOf(Lou,Stu).
- : all(w,x)(wifeOf(w,x)

```
=> auntOf(w,z)))).
```

```
: auntOf(Caren,Ken)?
```

```
I wonder if wff8: auntOf(Caren,Ken)
I wonder if p7: wifeOf(Caren,x)
I know wff1!: wifeOf(Caren,Stu)
```

```
I wonder if p8: brotherOf(Stu,y)
I know wff3!: brotherOf(Stu,Judi)
```

```
I wonder if wff5!: parentOf(Judi,Ken)
I know wff5!: parentOf(Judi,Ken)
```

```
wff8!: auntOf(Caren,Ken)
CPU time : 0.03
```

Ordering of Nested Rules Matters Bad Order

all(x,y)(brotherOf(x,y)
 => all(w)(wifeOf(w,x)
 => all(z)(parentOf(y,z)
 => auntOf(w,z)))).

: auntOf(Caren,Ken)?

I wonder if wff8: auntOf(Caren,Ken)
I wonder if p1: brotherOf(x,y)
I know wff3!: brotherOf(Stu,Judi)
I know wff4!: brotherOf(Mike,Lou)

I wonder if wff12: wifeOf(Caren,Mike)
I wonder if wff1!: wifeOf(Caren,Stu)
I know wff1!: wifeOf(Caren,Stu)

I wonder if wff5!: parentOf(Judi,Ken)
I know wff5!: parentOf(Judi,Ken)

```
wff8!: auntOf(Caren,Ken)
CPU time : 0.04
```

Ordering of Nested Rules Matters Parallel

: auntOf(Caren,Ken)?

I wonder if wff8: auntOf(Caren,Ken)
I wonder if p5: parentOf(y,Ken)
I wonder if p2: brotherOf(x,y)
I wonder if p6: wifeOf(Caren,x)

I know wff5!: parentOf(Judi,Ken)
I know wff3!: brotherOf(Stu,Judi)
I know wff4!: brotherOf(Mike,Lou)
I know wff1!: wifeOf(Caren,Stu)

wff8!: auntOf(Caren,Ken)

CPU time : 0.03

Lemmas (Expertise) Knowledge Base

: all(r)(transitive(r)

=> all(x,y,z)({r(x,y),r(y,z)} &=> r(x,z))).

- : transitive(biggerThan).
- : biggerThan(elephant,lion).
- : biggerThan(lion, hyena).
- : biggerThan(hyena,rat).

Lemmas: First Task

```
: biggerThan(?x,rat)?
I wonder if p6: biggerThan(x,rat)
I know wff5!: biggerThan(hyena,rat)
I wonder if wff2!: transitive(biggerThan)
I know wff2!: transitive(biggerThan)
I infer wff6:
                all(z,y,x)({biggerThan(x,y),biggerThan(y,z)} &=> {biggerThan(x,z)})
I wonder if p8: biggerThan(y,rat)
I wonder if p10: biggerThan(x,y)
I know wff5!: biggerThan(hyena,rat)
I wonder if p12:
                   biggerThan(rat,z)
I know wff3!: biggerThan(elephant,lion)
I know wff4!: biggerThan(lion,hyena)
I infer wff7:
              biggerThan(lion,rat)
I infer wff8:
              biggerThan(elephant,rat)
. .
 wff8!: biggerThan(elephant,rat)
 wff7!: biggerThan(lion,rat)
 wff5!: biggerThan(hyena,rat)
 CPU time : 0.09
```

Second Task

```
: clear-infer
```

- : biggerThan(truck,SUV).
- : biggerThan(SUV,sedan).
- : biggerThan(sedan,roadster).

```
: biggerThan(?x,roadster)?
I wonder if p14: biggerThan(x,roadster)
I know wff11!: biggerThan(sedan,roadster)
I wonder if p10: biggerThan(x,y)
I wonder if p16: biggerThan(y,roadster)
I know wff3!: biggerThan(elephant,lion)
I know wff4!: biggerThan(lion,hyena)
I know wff5!: biggerThan(hyena,rat)
I know wff7!: biggerThan(lion,rat)
I know wff8!: biggerThan(elephant,rat)
I know wff9!: biggerThan(truck,SUV)
I know wff10!: biggerThan(SUV,sedan)
I know wff11!: biggerThan(sedan,roadster)
                 biggerThan(SUV,roadster)
I infer wff12:
I infer wff13:
                 biggerThan(truck,roadster)
I wonder if p17: biggerThan(roadster,z)
  wff13!: biggerThan(truck,roadster)
  wff12!: biggerThan(SUV,roadster)
 wff11!: biggerThan(sedan,roadster)
 CPU time : 0.04
```

Contexts

```
: demo /projects/shapiro/CSE563/Examples/SNePSLOG/facultyMeeting.snepslog
. . .
: ;;; Example of Contexts
;;; from
     J. P. Martins & S. C. Shapiro, Reasoning in Multiple Belief Spaces IJCAI-83, 370-373.
;;;
: all(x)(meeting(x) => xor{time(x,morning), time(x,afternoon)}).
 wff1!: all(x)(meeting(x) => (xor{time(x,afternoon),time(x,morning)}))
: all(x,y)({meeting(x),meeting(y)} &=> all(t)(xor{time(x,t),time(y,t)})).
 wff2!: all(y,x)({meeting(y),meeting(x)} &=> {all(t)(xor{time(y,t),time(x,t)})})
: meeting(facultyMeeting).
 wff3!: meeting(facultyMeeting)
: meeting(seminar).
 wff4!: meeting(seminar)
: meeting(tennisGame).
 wff5!: meeting(tennisGame)
: time(seminar,morning).
  wff6!: time(seminar,morning)
: time(tennisGame,afternoon).
 wff7!: time(tennisGame,afternoon)
: set-context stuSchedule {wff1,wff2,wff3,wff4,wff6}
((assertions (wff6 wff4 wff3 wff2 wff1)) (named (stuSchedule)) (kinconsistent nil))
: set-context tonySchedule {wff1,wff2,wff3,wff5,wff7}
((assertions (wff7 wff5 wff3 wff2 wff1)) (named (tonySchedule)) (kinconsistent nil))
: set-context patSchedule {wff1,wff2,wff3,wff4,wff5,wff6,wff7}
((assertions (wff7 wff6 wff5 wff4 wff3 wff2 wff1)) (named (patSchedule default-defaultct)) (kinconsistent nil))
```

Stu's Schedule

- : time(facultyMeeting,?t)?
 - wff10!: time(facultyMeeting,afternoon)
 - wff9!: ~time(facultyMeeting,morning)

Tony's Schedule

```
: set-default-context tonySchedule
((assertions (wff7 wff5 wff3 wff2 wff1)) (named (tonySchedule))
 (kinconsistent nil))
```

```
: list-asserted-wffs
```

- wff12!: xor{time(facultyMeeting,afternoon),time(facultyMeeting,morning)}
- wff7!: time(tennisGame,afternoon)
- wff5!: meeting(tennisGame)
- wff3!: meeting(facultyMeeting)
- wff1!: all(x)(meeting(x)

=> (xor{time(x,afternoon),time(x,morning)}))

- : time(facultyMeeting,?t)?
 - wff11!: ~time(facultyMeeting,afternoon)
 - wff8!: time(facultyMeeting,morning)

Pat's Schedule

: set-default-context patSchedule
((assertions (wff7 wff6 wff5 wff4 wff3 wff2 wff1))
 (named (patSchedule default-defaultct)) (kinconsistent nil))

: time(facultyMeeting,?t)?

A contradiction was detected within context patSchedule. The contradiction involves the newly derived proposition: wff8!: time(facultyMeeting,morning)

and the previously existing proposition: wff9!: ~time(facultyMeeting,morning)

You have the following options:

- 1. [C] ontinue anyway, knowing that a contradiction is derivable;
- [R]e-start the exact same run in a different context which is not inconsistent;
- 3. [D]rop the run altogether.

```
(please type c, r or d)
=><= d</pre>
```

Resulting Contexts

: describe-context stuSchedule

((assertions (wff6 wff4 wff3 wff2 wff1)) (named (stuSchedule))
 (kinconsistent nil))

: describe-context tonySchedule ((assertions (wff7 wff5 wff3 wff2 wff1)) (named (tonySchedule)) (kinconsistent nil))

: describe-context patSchedule ((assertions (wff7 wff6 wff5 wff4 wff3 wff2 wff1)) (named (patSchedule default-defaultct)) (kinconsistent t))

8.6 SNePS as a Network: Semantic Networks



Some psychological evidence. More efficient search than logical inference. Unclear semantics.

SNePS as a Network

- : clearkb
- : Canary(Tweety).
- : Penguin(Opus).
- : Ako({Canary,Penguin}, Bird).
- : Ako(Bird, Animal).
- : show



Defining Case Frames

```
: set-mode-3
Net reset
In SNePSLOG Mode 3.
Use define-frame <pred> <list-of-arc-labels>.
...
```

: define-frame Canary(class member) "[member] is a [class]"
Canary(x1) will be represented by {<class, Canary>, <member, x1>}

: define-frame Penguin(class member) "[member] is a [class]"
Penguin(x1) will be represented by {<class, Penguin>, <member, x1>}

: define-frame Ako(nil subclass superclass) "Every [subclass] is a [superclass Ako(x1, x2) will be represented by {<subclass, x1>, <superclass, x2>}

Entering the KB

: Canary(Tweety).

wff1!: Canary(Tweety)

- : Penguin(Opus).
 wff2!: Penguin(Opus)
- : Ako({Canary, Penguin}, Bird).
 wff3!: Ako({Penguin,Canary},Bird)
- : Ako(Bird, Animal).

wff4!: Ako(Bird, Animal)

The Knowledge Base

: list-terms

- wff1!: Canary(Tweety)
- wff2!: Penguin(Opus)
- wff3!: Ako({Penguin,Canary},Bird)
- wff4!: Ako(Bird, Animal)

: describe-terms
Tweety is a Canary.
Opus is a Penguin.
Every Penguin and Canary is a Bird.
Every Bird is a Animal.

The Network





Page 494

Path-Based Inference



: define-path class (compose class (kstar (compose subclass- ! superclass)) class implied by the path (compose class (kstar (compose subclass- ! superclass))) class- implied by the path (compose (kstar (compose superclass-! subclass)) class-)

Using Path-Based Inference

```
: list-asserted-wffs
```

```
wff4!: Ako(Bird, Animal)
```

- wff3!: Ako({Penguin,Canary},Bird)
- wff2!: Penguin(Opus)
- wff1!: Canary(Tweety)

```
: define-frame Animal(class member) "[member] is a [class]"
Animal(x1) will be represented by {<class, Animal>, <member, x1>}
```

: trace inference Tracing inference.

```
: Animal(Tweety)?
I wonder if wff5: Animal(Tweety)
holds within the BS defined by context default-defaultct
I know wff1!: Canary(Tweety)
wff5!: Animal(Tweety)
```

Rules About Functions in Mode 3

: set-mode-3

- : define-frame WestOf(relation domain range)
- : define-frame isAbove(relation domain range)
- : define-frame Likes(relation liker likee)

```
: define-frame r(relation domain range)
```

: define-frame anti-symmetric(nil antisymm)

```
: all(r)(anti-symmetric(r) => all(x,y)(r(x,y) => ~r(y,x))).
wff1!: all(r)(anti-symmetric(r) => (all(y,x)(r(x,y) => (~r(y,x)))))
```

```
: anti-symmetric({WestOf, isAbove, Likes}).
```

```
: WestOf(Buffalo,Rochester).
```

- : isAbove(penthouse37,lobby37).
- : Likes(Betty,Tom).

```
: WestOf(?x,?y)?
wff9!: ~WestOf(Rochester,Buffalo)
wff3!: WestOf(Buffalo,Rochester)
```

```
: isAbove(?x,?y)?
wff13!: ~isAbove(lobby37,penthouse37)
wff4!: isAbove(penthouse37,lobby37)
```

```
: Likes(?x,?y)?
wff5!: Likes(Betty,Tom)
```

Procedural Attachment in SNePS

cl-user(3): (snepslog)

: load /projects/snwiz/Libraries/expressions.snepslog

: define-frame Value(nil obj val) "the value of [obj] is [val]"

: define-frame radius(nil radiusof) "the radius of [radiusof]"

: define-frame volume(nil volumeof) "the volume of [volumeof]"

: Value(pi,3.14159).

- : Value(radius(sphere1), 9.0).
- : Value(volume(sphere1), ?x)?
 wff13!: Value(volume(sphere1),3053.6257)

8.7 SNeRE: The SNePS Rational Engine Motivation

Coming to believe something

is different from acting.

Prolog Searches In Order The KB

```
| ?- [user].
% consulting user...
| q(X) := q1(X), q2(X).
| q1(X) := p(X), s(X).
| q2(X) := r(X), s(X).
| s(X) := t(X).
| p(a).
| r(a).
| t(a).
% consulted user in module user, 0 msec 1592 bytes
yes
```

Prolog Searches In Order The Run

```
| ?- trace.
```

% The debugger will first creep -- showing everything (trace)

yes

% trace

| ?- q(a).

1	1	Call:	q(a) ?
2	2	Call:	q1(a) ?
3	3	Call:	p(a) ?
3	3	Exit:	p(a) ?
4	3	Call:	s(a) ?
5	4	Call:	t(a) ?
5	4	Exit:	t(a) ?
4	3	Exit:	s(a) ?
2	2	Exit:	q1(a) ?
6	2	Call:	q2(a) ?
6 7	2 3	Call: Call:	q2(a) ? r(a) ?
6 7 7	2 3 3	Call: Call: Exit:	q2(a) ? r(a) ? r(a) ?
6 7 7 8	2 3 3 3	Call: Call: Exit: Call:	q2(a) ? r(a) ? r(a) ? s(a) ?
6 7 7 8 9	2 3 3 3 4	Call: Call: Exit: Call: Call:	q2(a) ? r(a) ? r(a) ? s(a) ? t(a) ?
6 7 7 8 9 9	2 3 3 4 4	Call: Call: Exit: Call: Call: Exit:	q2(a) ? r(a) ? r(a) ? s(a) ? t(a) ? t(a) ?
6 7 7 8 9 9 8	2 3 3 4 4 3	Call: Call: Exit: Call: Call: Exit: Exit:	q2(a) ? r(a) ? r(a) ? s(a) ? t(a) ? t(a) ? s(a) ?
6 7 7 8 9 9 8 8 6	2 3 3 4 4 3 2	Call: Call: Exit: Call: Call: Exit: Exit: Exit:	q2(a) ? r(a) ? r(a) ? s(a) ? t(a) ? t(a) ? s(a) ? q2(a) ?

yes

SNePS Avoids Extra Search The KB

: clearkb

Knowledge Base Cleared

:
$$all(x)({q1(x), q2(x)} \&=> q(x)).$$

- : all(x)({p(x), s(x)} &=> q1(x)).
- : all(x)({r(x), s(x)} &=> q2(x)).

:
$$all(x)(t(x) \Rightarrow s(x))$$
.

- : p(a).
- : r(a).
- : t(a).

SNePS Avoids Extra Search The Search

: trace inference

Tracing inference.

: q(a)?

Ι	wonder	if	wff	8:	q(a)
Ι	wonder	if	wff	10:	q2(a)
Ι	wonder	if	wff	12:	q1(a)
Ι	wonder	if	wff	14:	s(a)
Ι	wonder	if	wff	6!:	r(a)
Ι	wonder	if	wff	14:	s(a)
Ι	wonder	if	wff	5!:	p(a)
Ι	know v	ff6!	:	r(a)	
Ι	know v	ff5!	:	p(a)	
Ι	wonder	if	wff	7!:	t(a)
Ι	know v	ff7!	:	t(a)	

SNePS Avoids Extra Search The Answers

```
Since wff4!: all(x)(t(x) \Rightarrow s(x))
and wff7!: t(a)
I infer wff14: s(a)
Since wff3!: all(x)({s(x),r(x)} \&= {q2(x)})
and wff14!: s(a)
and wff6!: r(a)
I infer wff10: q2(a)
Since wff2!: all(x)({s(x),p(x)} \& = {q1(x)})
and wff14!: s(a)
and wff5!: p(a)
I infer wff12: q1(a)
Since wff1!: all(x)({q2(x),q1(x)} \&=> {q(x)})
and wff10!: q2(a)
and wff12!: q1(a)
I infer wff8: q(a)
 wff8!: q(a)
```
Primitive Acts

```
: set-mode-3
Net reset
In SNePSLOG Mode 3.
Use define-frame <pred> <list-of-arc-labels>.
. . .
: define-frame say(action line)
say(x1) will be represented by {<action, say>, <line, x1>}
: ^^
--> (define-primaction sayaction ((line))
      (format sneps:outunit "~A" line))
sayaction
--> (attach-primaction say sayaction)
t
--> ^^
: perform say("Hello world")
Hello world
```

Effects: The KB

```
: set-mode-3
Net reset
In SNePSLOG Mode 3.
Use define-frame <pred> <list-of-arc-labels>.
. . .
Effect(x1, x2) will be represented by {<act, x1>, <effect, x2>}
. . .
: define-frame say (action line)
: define-frame said (act agent object)
: define-frame Utterance (class member)
: ^^
--> (define-primaction sayaction ((line))
      (format sneps:outunit "~A" line))
sayaction
-->
(attach-primaction say sayaction)
t
--> ^^
: Utterance("Hello world").
: all(x)(Utterance(x) => Effect(say(x), said(I,x))).
```

Effects: The Run

- : list-asserted-wffs
 - wff2!: all(x)(Utterance(x) => Effect(say(x),said(I,x)))
 - wff1!: Utterance(Hello world)
- : perform say("Hello world")

Hello world

- : list-asserted-wffs
 - wff5!: Effect(say(Hello world), said(I, Hello world))
 - wff4!: said(I,Hello world)
 - wff2!: all(x)(Utterance(x) => Effect(say(x),said(I,x)))
 - wff1!: Utterance(Hello world)

Defined Acts

```
: set-mode-3
. . .
ActPlan(x1, x2) will be represented by {<act, x1>, <plan, x2>}
. . .
: define-frame say (action part1 part2)
: define-frame greet (action object)
: define-frame Person (class member)
: ^^
--> (define-primaction sayaction ((part1) (part2))
      (format sneps:outunit "~A ~A~%"
              part1 part2))
sayaction
-->
(attach-primaction say sayaction)
t
--> ^^
: all(x)(Person(x) => ActPlan(greet(x), say(Hello,x))).
: Person(Mike).
: perform greet(Mike).
Hello Mike
```

Other Propositions about Acts

GoalPlan(p, a)
Precondition(a, p)

Control Acts

Must use attach-primaction on whichever you want to use.

Policies

ifdo(p, a)
whendo(p, a)
wheneverdo(p, a)

Mental Acts

believe(p)
disbelieve(p)
adopt(p)
unadopt(p)

The Execution Cycle

```
perform(act):
   pre := {p | Precondition(act,p)};
   notyet := pre - \{p \mid p \in \text{pre } \& \vdash p\};
   if notyet \neq nil
      then perform(snsequence(do-all(\{a \mid p \in notyet\}
                                                & a = \operatorname{achieve}(p)}),
                                  act))
      else {effects := {p | Effect(act,p)};
             if act is primitive
                 then apply(primitive-function(act), objects(act));
                 else perform(do-one({p | ActPlan(act,p)}))
             believe(effects)}
```

Examples

SNePSLOG demo #7
/projects/robot/Karel/ElevatorWorld/elevator.snepslog
/projects/robot/Karel/DeliveryWorld/DeliveryAgent.snepslog
/projects/robot/Karel/WumpusWorld/WWAgent.snepslog
/projects/robot/Fevahr/Ascii/afevahr.snepslog
/projects/robot/Fevahr/Java/jfevahr.snepslog

/projects/robot/Greenfoot/ElevatorWorld/sneps/elevator.snepslog
/projects/robot/Greenfoot/WumpusWorld/sneps/WWAgent.snepslog

9 Belief Revision/Truth Maintenance

9.1	Motivation	516
9.2	Relevance Logic Motivation	537
9.3	Relevance Logic Syntax & Semantics	540
9.4	Relevance Logic Proof Theory	542

9.1 Motivation Floors Above and Below Ground

: xor{OnFloor(1),OnFloor(2),OnFloor(3),OnFloor(4)}.

: {OnFloor(1), OnFloor(2)} => {Location(belowGround)}.

: {OnFloor(3), OnFloor(4)} => {Location(aboveGround)}.

: perform believe(OnFloor(1))

- : list-asserted-wffs
 - wff13!: ~OnFloor(2)
 - wff12!: ~OnFloor(3)
 - wff11!: ~OnFloor(4)
 - wff9!: {OnFloor(4),OnFloor(3)} v=> {Location(aboveGround)}
 - wff7!: {OnFloor(2),OnFloor(1)} v=> {Location(belowGround)}
 - wff6!: Location(belowGround)
 - wff5!: xor{OnFloor(4),OnFloor(3),OnFloor(2),OnFloor(1)}
 - wff1!: OnFloor(1)

Motivation Disbelieving an Hypothesis

- : perform disbelieve(OnFloor(1))
- : list-asserted-wffs
 - wff9!: {OnFloor(4),OnFloor(3)} v=> {Location(aboveGround)}
 - wff7!: {OnFloor(2),OnFloor(1)} v=> {Location(belowGround)}
 - wff5!: xor{OnFloor(4),OnFloor(3),OnFloor(2),OnFloor(1)}

Note the absence of Location(belowGround)

Moral

If retain derived beliefs (lemmas),

need a way to delete them when their foundations are removed.

When Needed 1

If the KB contains beliefs about the (some) world,and the world changes,and the KB does not have a model of time.I.e. the beliefs in the KB are of the form,I believe this is true now.

What's needed

Links from hypotheses to propositions derived from them.

=> vs. when(ever)do: Assertions

- : Floor({1,2,3,4}).
- : xor{OnFloor(1),OnFloor(2),OnFloor(3),OnFloor(4)}.
- : {OnFloor(1), OnFloor(2)} => {Location(belowGround)}.
- : {OnFloor(3), OnFloor(4)} => {Location(aboveGround)}.
- : perform withall(f, Floor(f),

adopt(wheneverdo(OnFloor(f),

```
believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(f)))),
```

```
noop()).
```

: perform believe(OnFloor(1))

=> vs. when(ever)do: The KB

- : list-asserted-wffs
 - wff37!: ~OnFloor(2)
 - wff36!: ~OnFloor(3)
 - wff35!: ~OnFloor(4)
 - wff31!: wheneverdo(OnFloor(4), believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(4)))
 - wff27!: wheneverdo(OnFloor(3), believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(3)))
 - wff23!: wheneverdo(OnFloor(2),believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(2)))
 - wff19!: wheneverdo(OnFloor(1),believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(1)))
 - wff17!: HaveBeenOnFloor(1)
 - wff16!: Floor(1)
 - wff15!: Floor(2)
 - wff14!: Floor(3)
 - wff13!: Floor(4)
 - wff10!: {OnFloor(4),OnFloor(3)} v=> {Location(aboveGround)}
 - wff8!: {OnFloor(2),OnFloor(1)} v=> {Location(belowGround)}
 - wff7!: Location(belowGround)
 - wff6!: xor{OnFloor(4),OnFloor(3),OnFloor(2),OnFloor(1)}
 - wff2!: OnFloor(1)
 - wff1!: Floor({4,3,2,1})

=> vs. when(ever)do: Move Floors

: perform believe(OnFloor(4))

- : list-asserted-wffs
 - wff39!: ~OnFloor(1)
 - wff37!: ~OnFloor(2)
 - wff36!: ~OnFloor(3)
 - wff31!: wheneverdo(OnFloor(4),believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(4)))
 - wff29!: HaveBeenOnFloor(4)
 - wff27!: wheneverdo(OnFloor(3),believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(3)))
 - wff23!: wheneverdo(OnFloor(2),believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(2)))
 - wff19!: wheneverdo(OnFloor(1),believe(HaveBeenOnFloor(1)))
 - wff17!: HaveBeenOnFloor(1)
 - wff16!: Floor(1)
 - wff15!: Floor(2)
 - wff14!: Floor(3)
 - wff13!: Floor(4)
 - wff10!: {OnFloor(4),OnFloor(3)} v=> {Location(aboveGround)}
 - wff9!: Location(aboveGround)
 - wff8!: {OnFloor(2),OnFloor(1)} v=> {Location(belowGround)}
 - wff6!: xor{OnFloor(4),OnFloor(3),OnFloor(2),OnFloor(1)}
 - wff5!: OnFloor(4)
- wff1!: Floor({4,3,2,1})

HaveBeenOnFloor(1) remains; OnFloor(1) doesn't.

Moral

The consequents of

=>, v=>, &=>, or, nand, xor, iff, andor, thresh, and nexists are derived and retain a connection to their underlying hypotheses.

Whatever is **believe**'d is a hypothesis.

Use =>, v=>, &=>, or, nand, xor, iff, andor, thresh, and nexists for logical implications.

Use whendo(p1, believe(p2)) or wheneverdo(p1, believe(p2)) for decisions.

Contingent Plans

- : xor{Location(BellHall), Location(home)}.
- : Location(BellHall) => ActPlan(getMail, go(MailRoom)).
- : Location(home) => ActPlan(getMail, go(mailBox)).
- : perform believe(Location(BellHall))
- : ActPlan(getMail, ?how)?
 - wff5!: ActPlan(getMail,go(MailRoom))
- : perform believe(Location(home))
- : ActPlan(getMail, ?how)?

wff8!: ActPlan(getMail,go(mailBox))

Moral

Using this design for contingent plans, along with retention of lemmas, depends on belief revision.

Motivation Sea Creatures

: all(x)(andor(0,1){Ako(x, mammal), Ako(x, fish)}).

: all(x)(LiveIn(x, water) => Ako(x, fish)).

- : all(x)(BearYoung(x, live) => Ako(x, mammal)).
- : LiveIn(whales, water).
- : LiveIn(sharks, water).
- : BearYoung(whales, live).
- : BearYoung(dogs, live).

Motivation Are Whales Fish or Mammals?

: Ako(whales, ?x)?

A contradiction was detected within context default-defaulted The contradiction involves the newly derived proposition: wff8!: Ako(whales,mammal)

and the previously existing proposition:
 wff9!: ~Ako(whales,mammal)

SNeBR Options

You have the following options:

- 1. [C] ontinue anyway, knowing that a contradiction is derivable
- 2. [R]e-start the exact same run in a different context which not inconsistent;
- 3. [D]rop the run altogether.

(please type c, r or d)
=><= r</pre>

In order to make the context consistent you must delete at leas one hypothesis from each of the following sets of hypotheses: (wff6 wff4 wff3 wff2 wff1)

Possible Culprits

In order to make the context consistent you must delete at least one hypothesis from the set listed below. An inconsistent set of hypotheses:

1 : wff6!: BearYoung(whales, live)

(2 supported propositions: (wff8 wff6))

2 : wff4!: LiveIn(whales,water)

(3 supported propositions: (wff10 wff9 wff4))

3 : wff3!: all(x)(BearYoung(x,live) => Ako(x,mammal))

(2 supported propositions: (wff8 wff3))

4 : wff2!: all(x)(LiveIn(x,water) => Ako(x,fish))

(3 supported propositions: (wff10 wff9 wff2))

5 : wff1!: all(x)(nand{Ako(x,fish),Ako(x,mammal)})

(2 supported propositions: (wff9 wff1))

Choosing the Culprit

Enter the list number of a hypothesis to examine or
[d] to discard some hypothesis from this list,
[a] to see ALL the hypotheses in the full context,
[r] to see what you have already removed,
[q] to quit revising this set, or
[i] for instructions

(please type a number OR d, a, r, q or i)
=><= d</pre>

Enter the list number of a hypothesis to discard,
 [c] to cancel this discard, or [q] to quit revising this set.
=><= 4</pre>

Remaining Possible Culprits

The consistent set of hypotheses:

- 3 : wff3!: all(x)(BearYoung(x,live) => Ako(x,mammal))
 (2 supported propositions: (wff8 wff3))

```
4 : wff1!: all(x)(nand{Ako(x,fish),Ako(x,mammal)})
(1 supported proposition: (wff1) )
Enter the list number of a hypothesis to examine or
[d] to discard some hypothesis from this list,
[a] to see ALL the hypotheses in the full context,
[r] to see what you have already removed,
[q] to quit revising this set, or
[i] for instructions
(please type a number OR d, a, r, q or i)
=><= q</pre>
```

Other Hypotheses

The following (not known to be inconsistent) set of hypotheses was also part of the context where the contradiction was derived:

(wff7 wff5)

Do you want to inspect or discard some of them? =><= no

Do you want to add a new hypothesis? no

wff11!: ~Ako(whales,fish)

wff8!: Ako(whales,mammal)

CPU time : 0.03

Resultant KB

- : list-asserted-wffs
 - wff12!: ~(all(x)(LiveIn(x,water) => Ako(x,fish)))
 - wff11!: ~Ako(whales,fish)
 - wff8!: Ako(whales,mammal)
 - wff7!: BearYoung(dogs,live)
 - wff6!: BearYoung(whales,live)
 - wff5!: LiveIn(shakes,water)
 - wff4!: LiveIn(whales,water)
 - wff3!: all(x)(BearYoung(x,live) => Ako(x,mammal))
 - wff1!: all(x)(nand{Ako(x,fish),Ako(x,mammal)})

Moral When Needed 2

If accepting information from multiple sources, or just one possibly inconsistent source, need a way to recognize contradictions, and to find the culprit, and to delete it,

and its implications.

What's Needed

Links between derived propositions

and hypotheses they were derived from.

9.2 Relevance Logic (R) Motivation Paradoxes of Implication 1 Anything Implies a Truth

1		Нур
2		Нур
3		Reit, 1
4	$B \Rightarrow A$	\Rightarrow I, 2–3
5	$A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow A)$	\Rightarrow I, 1–4

But it seems that B had nothing to do with deriving A.

Motivation of R Paradoxes of Implication 2 A Contradiction Implies Anything

1	$_A \land \neg A$	Нур
2		Hyp
3	$A \land \neg A$	Reit, 1
4		$\wedge E, 3$
5	$ \neg A$	$\wedge E, 3$
6	B	$\neg I, 2-5$
7	$(A \land \neg A) \Rightarrow B$	\Rightarrow I, 1–6

But it seems that $\neg B$ had nothing to do with deriving the contradiction.

What's Needed

A way to determine when a hypothesis is really used to derive another wff.

When a hypothesis is **relevant** to a conclusion.

9.3 R

Relevance Logic The Logic of Relevant Implication

Syntax: The same as Standard FOL.

Intensional Semantics: The same as Standard FOL.

Extensional Semantics: The same as Standard FOL for terms. For wffs: a four-valued logic, using True, False, Neither, and Both.
KB Interpretations of R's 4 Truth Values

- True true
- False false
- Neither unknown
- Both contradictory, "I've been told both."
 - or a "true contradiction"

such as Russell's set both is and isn't a member of itself.



R Rules for \Rightarrow

How the Paradoxes of Implication are Blocked 1

1.

$$A, \{1\}$$
 Hyp

 2.
 $B, \{2\}$
 Hyp

 3.
 $A, \{1\}$
 $Reit, 1$

Can't then apply $\Rightarrow I$

R Rules for \wedge

Why $\land I$ Requires the Same OS If Not

1	$A, \{1\}$	Hyp, 2–5
2	$B, \{2\}$	Нур, 3–5
3	$A, \{1\}$	Reit, 1
4	$(A \land B), \{1, 2\}$	\wedge I?
5	$\left \begin{array}{c} A, \{1,2\} \end{array} \right $	$\wedge E, 4$
6	$(B \Rightarrow A), \{1\}$	\Rightarrow I, 2–5
7	$(A \Rightarrow (B \Rightarrow A)), \{\}$	\Rightarrow I, 1–6

Reconstruct paradox of implication. Note: Empty os means a theorem.

Extended Rule for $\wedge I$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} i_1. & A_1, \alpha \\ & \vdots \\ i_n. & A_n, \eta \\ & j. & A_1 \wedge \dots \wedge A_n, (\alpha \cup \dots \cup \eta)^* \quad \wedge I, i_1, \dots, i_n \end{array}$$

Can't apply $\wedge E$ to an extended wff.

R Rules for \neg

i.		$A,\{n\}$	Hyp	i.		$ eg A, \{n\}$	Hyp	
		:				:		
<i>j</i> .		$B, \alpha \ s.t. \ n \in \alpha$		j.		$B, lpha \; s.t.$	$n \in \alpha$	
j+1.		$\neg B, \alpha$		j+1.		$\neg B, \alpha$		
j+2.	I	$ eg A, \alpha - \{n\}$	eg I, i - (j + 1)	j+2.	I	$A, \alpha - \{n$	$\neg I, i-($	j + 1

$$\begin{array}{c|c} i. & \neg \neg A, \alpha \\ j. & A, \alpha & \neg E, i \end{array}$$

Extended R Rule for $\neg I$



How the Paradoxes of Implication are Blocked 2 $(A \land \neg A), \{1\} \quad Hyp$ 1. $\neg B, \{2\}$ Hyp 2. $(A \land \neg A), \{1\}$ Reit, 1 3. 4. 5.

Can't then apply $\neg I$

R is a **paraconsistent** logic:

a contradiction does not imply anything whatsoever.

R Rule for $\lor I$

$$i. \mid A_i, \alpha$$

$$j. \mid A_1 \lor \cdots \lor A_i \lor \cdots \lor A_n, \alpha \quad \lor I, i$$

R Rule for $\lor E$

$$i_{1} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} A_{1} \lor \cdots \lor A_{n}, \alpha \\ \vdots \\ i_{2} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} A_{1} \Rightarrow B, \beta \\ \vdots \\ i_{3} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} A_{n} \Rightarrow B, \beta \\ B, \alpha \cup \beta \end{vmatrix} \lor E, i_{1}, i_{2}, i_{3}$$

Irrelevance of Disjunctive Syllogism



So \lor is just truth-functional.

R Rules for Intensional OR (\oplus)i. $(\neg A \Rightarrow B), \alpha$ j. $(\neg B \Rightarrow A), \alpha$ j+1. $(A \oplus B), \alpha \oplus I, i, j$



Where a is an arbitrary individual not otherwise used in the proof, and t is free for x in B(x).

Note \forall only governs \Rightarrow .



Where A(x) is the result of replacing some or all occurrences of t in A(t) by x, t is free for x in A(x);

a is an indefinite individual not otherwise used in the proof,

A(a/x) is the result of replacing all occurrences of x in A(x) by a, and there is no occurrence of a in B.

Why the Subproof Contours?

- To keep track of assumptions for each derived wff. But this is accomplished by os.
- 2. To differentiate hypotheses from derived wffs. Introduce support: $\langle \{hyp \mid der \mid ext\}, os \rangle$ with origin tag and origin set.

SNePS KB

The SNePS KB consists of a collection of supported wffs.

A wff may have more than one support if it was derived in multiple ways.

Every implemented rule of inference specifies how the derived wff is derived from its parent(s) and how its support is derived from the support(s) of its parent(s).

Contexts and Belief Spaces

A context is a set of hypotheses.

A belief space defined by a context c is the set containing every wff whose os is a subset of c.

SNePSLOG Example

: expert

- •••
- : xor{OnFloor(1),OnFloor(2),OnFloor(3),OnFloor(4)}.
- : {OnFloor(1), OnFloor(2)} => {Location(belowGround)}.

- : perform believe(OnFloor(1))
- : describe-context
- ((assertions (wff9 wff7 wff5 wff1))
- (named (default-defaultct)) (kinconsistent nil))

- : list-asserted-wffs
 - wff13!: ~OnFloor(2) {<der,{wff1,wff5}>}
 - wff12!: ~OnFloor(3) {<der,{wff1,wff5}>}
 - wff11!: ~OnFloor(4) {<der,{wff1,wff5}>}

 - wff6!: Location(belowGround) {<der,{wff1,wff7}>}

 - wff1!: OnFloor(1) {<hyp,{wff1}>}

- : perform disbelieve(OnFloor(1))
- : describe-context

((assertions (wff9 wff7 wff5)) (named (default-defaultct))
 (kinconsistent nil))

- : list-asserted-wffs

SNePSLOG Example of $\neg I$

- wff5!: BearYoung(whales,live) {<hyp,{wff5}>}
- wff4!: LiveIn(whales,water) {<hyp,{wff4}>}

: Ako(whales, ?x)?

. . .

A contradiction was detected within context default-defaultct. The contradiction involves the newly derived proposition:

wff8!: Ako(whales,mammal) {<der,{wff3,wff5}>}

and the previously existing proposition:

wff9!: ~Ako(whales,mammal) {<der,{wff1,wff2,wff4}>}

In order to make the context consistent you must delete at least one hypothesis from each of the following sets of hypotheses: (wff5 wff4 wff3 wff2 wff1)

The Culprit Set

- 1 : wff5!: BearYoung(whales,live) {<hyp,{wff5}>}
 (2 supported propositions: (wff8 wff5))

- - (2 supported propositions: (wff9 wff1))

KB after deleting wff2

- wff8!: Ako(whales,mammal) {<der,{wff3,wff5}>}
- wff7!: ~Ako(whales,fish) {<der,{wff1,wff3,wff5}>}
- wff5!: BearYoung(whales,live) {<hyp,{wff5}>}
- wff4!: LiveIn(whales,water) {<hyp,{wff4}>}

10 The Situation Calculus

Motivation (McCarthy)

I'm in my study at home. My car is in the garage. I want to get to the airport. How do I decide that I should walk to the garage and drive to the airport, rather than vice versa?

A commonsense planning problem.

Solution Sketch

My study and garage are in my home.

To get from one place to another in my home, I should walk.

My garage and the airport are in the county.

To get from one place to another in the county, I should drive.

Situations

When an agent acts, some propositions change as a result of acting, and some are independent of acting.

E.g. the fact that the airport is in the county is independent of my acting, but whether I'm in my study, in the garage, or at the airport, changes when I act.

We say that an act takes us from one situation to another.

Propositions that are dependent on situations are called propositional fluents. E.g. At(study, S0), At(garage, S1)vs. In(study, home), In (airport, county)

Situational Fluents

We can view an act as something that's done in some situation, and takes us to another situation.

Let do(a, s) be a two-argument functional term.

 $\llbracket do(a, s) \rrbracket$ = the situation that results from doing the act $\llbracket a \rrbracket$ in the situation $\llbracket s \rrbracket$.

So, At(study, S0), At(garage, do(walk(study, garage), S0))

Planning in the Situational Calculus

Describe the situation $S\theta$.

Give domain rules describing the effects of actions.

Find a solution for At(airport, ?s)

Formalization in SNARK Non-Fluent Propositions

(assert '(Walkable home))

(assert '(Drivable county))

(assert '(In study home))

(assert '(In garage home))

(assert '(In garage county))

(assert '(In airport county))

Effect Axioms

Initial Situation

(assert '(At study SO))
SNARK Solves the Problem

Example 2: BlocksWorld Domain Axioms

(assert '(all s (Clear Table s)))

BlocksWorld Effect Axioms

Initial Situation

- (assert '(Block A))
- (assert '(Block B))
- (assert '(Block C))
- (assert '(On A B SO))
- (assert '(On B Table SO))
- (assert '(On C Table SO))
- (assert '(Clear A SO))
- (assert '(Clear C SO))

Solving A Simple Problem

How do you achieve holding Block A? (ask '(Held A ?s)) = (By doing (do (pickUp A) SO))

A Harder Problem

The Frame Problem

We want

(On A C (do (putOn A C) (do (pickUp A) SO)))

but this requires C to be clear in situation

(do (pickUp A) SO)

That can't be decided.

We need to specify what propositional fluents **don't change** when an action is performed.

A Frame Axiom

(assert

Another Problem

Still doesn't work, because we don't know that
(not (= C A))

Unique Names Axioms

(assert '(not (= A B)))
(assert '(not (= A C)))
(assert '(not (= B C)))

Also need

(use-paramodulation)

after (initialize)

This includes the theory of equality with resolution.

Success!

(query "How do you put Block A on Block C" '(On A C ?s) :answer '(By doing ?s))

How do you put Block A on Block C
 (ask '(On A C ?s))
 = (By doing (do (putOn A C) (do (pickUp A) SO)))

11 Summary

- Artificial Intelligence (AI): A field of computer science and engineering concerned with the computational understanding of what is commonly called intelligent behavior, and with the creation of artifacts that exhibit such behavior.
- Knowledge Representation and Reasoning (KR or KRR):
 A subarea of Artificial Intelligence concerned with understanding, designing, and implementing ways of representing information in computers, and using that information to derive new information based on it.
 KR is more concerned with belief than "knowledge". Given that an agent (human or computer) has certain beliefs, what else is reasonable for it to believe, and how is it reasonable for it to act, regardless of whether those beliefs are true and justified.

What is Logic?

- Logic is the study of correct reasoning.
- There are many systems of logic (logics). Each is specified by specifying:
 - Syntax: Specifying what counts as a well-formed expression
 - Semantics: Specifying the meaning of well-formed expressions
 - * Intensional Semantics: Meaning relative to a Domain
 - * Extensional Semantics: Meaning relative to a Situation
 - Proof Theory: Defining proof/derivation, and how it can be extended.

KR and Logic

Given that a Knowledge Base is represented in a language with a well-defined syntax, a well-defined semantics, and that reasoning over it is a well-defined procedure, a KR system is a logic.

KR research can be seen as a search for the best logic to capture human-level reasoning.

Proof Theory and Semantics



Inference/Reasoning Methods

Given a KB/set of assumptions \mathcal{A} and a query \mathcal{Q} :

- Model Finding
 - Direct: Find satisfying models of \mathcal{A} ; see if \mathcal{Q} is true in all of them.
 - Refutation: Find if $\mathcal{A} \cup \{\neg \mathcal{Q}\}$ is unsatisfiable.
- Natural Deduction
 - Direct: Find if $\mathcal{A} \vdash \mathcal{Q}$.
- Resolution
 - Direct: Find if $\mathcal{A} \vdash \mathcal{Q}$ (incomplete).
 - Refutation: Find if $\bigwedge \mathcal{A} \land \neg \mathcal{Q}$ is inconsistent.

Logics We Studied

- 1. Standard Propositional Logic
- 2. Clause Form Propositional Logic
- 3. Standard Finite-Model Predicate Logic
- 4. Clause Form Finite-Model Predicate Logic
- 5. Standard First-Order Predicate Logic
- 6. Clause Form First-Order Predicate Logic
- 7. Horn Clause Logic
- 8. Relevance Logic
- 9. SNePSLOG & SNeRE
- 10. The Situation Calculus
- 11. Description Logics

Classes of Logics

- Propositional Logic
 - Finite number of atomic propositions and models.
 - Model finding and resolution are decision procedures.
- Finite-Model Predicate Logic
 - Finite number of terms, atomic formulae, and models.
 - Reducible to propositional logic.
 - Model finding and resolution are decision procedures.
- First-Order Logic
 - Infinite number of terms, atomic formulae, and models.
 - Not reducible to propositional logic.
 - There are no decision procedures.
 - Resolution plus factoring is refutation complete.

Proof Procedures We Studied

- 1. Direct model finding: truth tables, decreasoner, relsat (complete search) walksat, gsat (stochastic search)
- 2. Wang algorithm (model-finding refutation), wang
- 3. Semantic tableaux (model-finding refutation)
- 4. Hilbert-style axiomatic (direct), brief
- 5. Fitch-style natural deduction (direct)
- 6. Resolution (refutation), prover, SNARK
- 7. SLD resolution (refutation), Prolog
- 8. SNePS (direct), SNePS

Utility Notions and Techniques

- 1. Material implication
- 2. Possible properties of connectives commutative, associative, idempotent
- 3. Possible properties of well-formed expressions free, bound variables open, closed, ground expressions
- 4. Possible semantic properties of wffs contradictory, satisfiable, contingent, valid
- 5. Possible properties of proof procedures sound, consistent, complete, decision procedure, semi-decision procedure

More Utility Notions and Techniques

5. Substitutions

application, composition

6. Unification

most general common instance (mgci), most general unifier (mgu)

- 7. Translation from standard form to clause form Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF), Skolem functions/constants
- 8. Resolution Strategies

subsumption, unit preference, set of support

9. The Answer Literal

Yet More Utility Notions and Techniques

- 9. Closed vs. Open World Assumption
- 10. Negation by failure
- 11. Origin sets, contexts
- 12. Belief Revision/Truth-Maintenance

Domain Modeling

- 1. Formalization in various logics
- 2. Reification
- 3. Ontologies/Taxonomies/Hierarchies
 - extensional vs. intensional
 - instance vs. subcategory
 - Single (DAGs) vs multiple inheritance
 - transitive relations/transitive closure
 - mutually exclusive/disjoint categories
 - exhaustive set of subcategories
 - partitioning of a category

More Domain Modeling

- 4. Time
 - subjective vs. objective
 - points vs. intervals
 - Allen's relations
- 5. Things (Count Nouns) vs. Substances (Mass Nouns)
- 6. Acting
 - situations
 - fluents

12 Production Systems Architecture Working (Short-term) Memory

Contains set (unordered, no repeats) of Working Memory Elements (WMEs). Each being a rather flat, ground (no variables) symbol structure.

Rule (Long-term) Memory

Contains set (unordered, no repeats) of Production Rules. Each being a condition-action rule of form if condition₁ ... condition_n then $\operatorname{action}_1 \ldots \operatorname{action}_m$ Each condition and action being like a WME, but allowing variables (and, maybe, other expressions)

Rule Triggering

A rule **if** condition₁ ... condition_n **then** action_1 ... action_m is triggered

if there is a substitution, σ

such that each condition_i σ is a WME.

A single rule can be triggered in multiple ways (by multiple substitutions).

Rule Firing

A rule **if** condition₁ ... condition_n **then** action_1 ... action_m that is triggered in a substitution σ fires by performing every $\operatorname{action}_i \sigma$.

Production System Execution Cycle

loop

Collect $\mathcal{T} = \{ r\sigma \mid r\sigma \text{ is a triggered rule} \}$ **if** \mathcal{T} is not empty Choose a $r\sigma \in \mathcal{T}$ Fire $r\sigma$ **until** \mathcal{T} is empty.

Some Typical Actions

- stop
- **delete** a WME
- add a WME
- **modify** a WME
- formatted print

Conflict Resolution Strategies

Purpose: to "Choose a $r\sigma \in \mathcal{T}$ "

Specificity: If the conditions of one rule are a subset of a second rule, choose the second rule. [B & L, p. 126]

Recency: Based on recency of addition or modification of WMEs, or on recency of a rule firing. [B & L, p. 126]

Refactoriness: Don't allow the same substitution instance of a rule to fire again. [B & L, p. 127]

Salience: Explicit salience value. "The use of salience is generally discouraged" [http://herzberg.ca.sandia.gov/jess/docs/70/rules.html#salience].

The Rete Algorithm Assumptions

Rule memory doesn't change.

WM changes only slightly on each cycle.

WMEs are ground.

Production Systems are data-driven (use forward chaining).

Many rules share conditions.

The Rete Network

Create a network from the conditions (Like a discrimination tree) with rules at the leaves.

Create a token for each WME.

Pass each token through the network, stopping when it doesn't satisfy a test; resuming when the WME is modified.

When tokens reach a leaf, the rule is triggered.

Kinds of branch nodes

 α nodes: Simple test.

 β nodes: Constraints caused by different conditions.

13 Description Logics

Main reference:

Franz Baader, Diego Calvanese, Deborah L. McGuinness, DanieleNardi, and Peter F. Patel-Schneider, Eds., *The Description LogicHandbook: Theory, Implementation and Applications, SecondEdition,* Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 2007.

DL: Main Ideas

- Terminological Box or T-Box.
 Definition of *Concepts* ("Classes") and *Roles* ("Properties").
- Assertional Box or A-Box. Assertions about individuals (instances)
 - Unary predicates = concepts
 - Binary predicates = roles
- Necessary and Sufficient conditions on classes.
- Subsumption Hierarchy

Syntax of a Simple DL^a Atomic Symbols

- Positive integers: 1, 2, 3
- Atomic concepts: Thing, Pizza, PizzaTopping, PizzaBase Thing is the top of the hierarchy.
- Roles: hasTopping, hasBase
- Constants: item1, item2

^aFrom Ronald J. Brachman & Hector J. Levesque, *Knowledge Representation* and Reasoning, Morgan Kaufmann/Elsevier, 2004, Chapter 9, with examples from Matthew Horridge, Simon Jupp, Georgina Moulton, Alan Rector, Robert Stevens, & Chris Wroe, A Practical Guide To Building OWL Ontologies Using Protégé 4 and CO-ODE Tools: Edition 1.1, The University of Manchester, 2007.
Syntax of a Simple DL Concepts

- Every atomic concept is a concept
- If r is a role and d is a concept, [ALL r d] is a concept. The concept of individuals all of whose r's are d's.
 E.g., [ALL hasTopping VegetarianTopping]
- If r is a role and n is a positive integer, [EXISTS n r] is a concept. The concept of individuals that have at least n r's.
 E.g., [EXISTS 1 hasTopping]
- If r is a role and c is a constant, [FILLS r c] is a concept. The concept of individuals one of whose r's is c.
 E.g., [FILLS hasTopping item2]
- If d₁,..., d_n are concepts, [AND d₁,..., d_n] is a concept The concept that is the intersection of d₁,..., d_n.
 E.g., [AND Pizza [EXISTS 1 hasTopping] [ALL hasTopping VegetarianTopping]]

Syntax of a Simple DL Sentences

- If d₁ and d₂ are concepts, (d₁ ⊑ d₂) is a sentence.
 d₁ is subsumed by d₂
 E.g., VegetarianPizza ⊑ Pizza
- If d₁ and d₂ are concepts, (d₁ = d₂) is a sentence.
 d₁ and d₂ are equivalent
 E.g., VegetarianPizza = [AND Pizza [EXISTS 1 hasTopping]
 [ALL hasTopping VegetarianTopping]]
- If c is a constant and d is a concept, (c → d) is a sentence. The individual c satisfies the description expressed by d.
 E.g., item1 → Pizza

Necessary and Sufficient Conditions

A **necessary** condition on a class, d, is a property, p, such that if an individual, c, is an instance of d, it is **necessary** that c satisfy p.

A sufficient condition on a class, d, is a property, p, such that if an individual, c, satisfies p, then that is a sufficient reason to decide that it is an instance of d.

A **defined** concept has both necessary and sufficient conditions.

A **primitive** concept has only necessary conditions.

Subsumption Hierarchy

 $(d_1 \sqsubseteq d_2)$ d_1 is subsumed by d_2 E.g., VegetarianPizza \sqsubseteq Pizza means that every instance of d_1 is an instance of d_2 . Every DL concept is subsumed by Thing, the top of the hierarchy.

Classification Algorithm

Decision procedure for placing every defined concept correctly in the subsumption hierarchy.

Note: Two concepts that subsume each other are the same.

Note: No concept can be computed as being subsumed by a primitive concept.

Examples Using Classic Defined and Primitive Concepts

: (cl-startup)

t

: (cl-define-primitive-concept 'PizzaBase 'Classic-Thing) @c{PizzaBase}

Creating An Individual

: (cl-create-ind 'base1 'PizzaBase) @i{base1}

```
: (cl-instance? @base1 @PizzaBase)
t
```

```
: (cl-print-ind @base1)
Base1 ->
Derived Information:
    Primitive ancestors: PizzaBase Classic-Thing
    Parents: PizzaBase
    Ancestors: Thing Classic-Thing
    @i{base1}
```

Defining Some Roles

: (cl-define-primitive-role 'hasIngredient :inverse 'isIngredientOf)

@r{hasIngredient}

: (cl-define-primitive-role 'hasBase :parent 'hasIngredient :inverse 'isBaseOf)

@r{hasBase}

: (cl-define-primitive-role 'hasTopping :parent 'hasIngredient :inverse 'isToppingOf)

@r{hasTopping}

Necessary and Sufficient Conditions

: (cl-define-concept 'Pizza '(and Classic-Thing (at-least 1 hasBase)

(at-least 1 hasTopping)))

```
@c{Pizza}
: (cl-create-ind 'pizza1 'Pizza)
@i{pizza1}
: (cl-print-ind @pizza1)
Pizza1 ->
Derived Information:
  Parents: Pizza
  Ancestors: Thing Classic-Thing
  Role Fillers and Restrictions:
  Hasingredient[1 ; INF]
   Hastopping[1 ; INF]
   Hasbase[1 ; INF]
@i{pizza1}
: (cl-create-ind 'item3 '(and (fills hasBase base3) (fills hasTopping topping3)))
@i{item3}
: (cl-print-ind @item3)
Item3 ->
Derived Information:
  Parents: Pizza
  Ancestors: Thing Classic-Thing
  Role Fillers and Restrictions:
  Hasingredient[2 ; INF] -> Base3 Topping3
   Hastopping[1 ; INF] -> Topping3
  Hasbase[1 ; INF] -> Base3
@i{item3}
```

Classification

: (cl-define-concept 'PreparedFood '(and Classic-Thing (at-least 1 hasIngredient))) @c{PreparedFood}

```
: (cl-print-concept @PreparedFood)
PreparedFood ->
Derived Information:
  Parents: Classic-Thing
  Ancestors: Thing
  Children: Pizza
  Role Restrictions:
   Hasingredient[1 ; INF]
@c{PreparedFood}
```

```
: (cl-print-concept @Pizza)
Pizza ->
Derived Information:
  Parents: PreparedFood
  Ancestors: Thing Classic-Thing
  Role Restrictions:
   Hasingredient[1 ; INF]
   Hastopping[1 ; INF]
   Hasbase[1 ; INF]
@c{Pizza}
```

```
: (cl-instance? @pizza1 @PreparedFood) t
```

Disjoint Concepts

: (cl-startup)

t

: (cl-define-primitive-concept 'PizzaTopping 'Classic-Thing)

@c{PizzaTopping}

: (cl-define-disjoint-primitive-concept 'CheeseTopping 'PizzaTopping 'pizzaToppings) @c{CheeseTopping}

: (cl-define-disjoint-primitive-concept 'MeatTopping 'PizzaTopping 'pizzaToppings) @c{MeatTopping}

: (cl-define-disjoint-primitive-concept 'SeafoodTopping 'PizzaTopping 'pizzaToppings) @c{SeafoodTopping}

: (cl-define-disjoint-primitive-concept 'VegetableTopping 'PizzaTopping 'pizzaToppings) @c{VegetableTopping}

classic(56): (cl-define-primitive-concept 'ProbeInconsistentTopping

'(and CheeseTopping VegetableTopping))

WARNING: Disjoint primitives: @tc{CheeseTopping}, @tc{VegetableTopping}.

CLASSIC ERROR while processing

(cl-define-primitive-concept ProbeInconsistentTopping (and CheeseTopping VegetableTopping))

occurred on object @c{ProbeInconsistentTopping-*INCOHERENT*}:

Trying to combine disjoint primitives: @tc{CheeseTopping} and @tc{VegetableTopping}.

classic-error

```
(disjoint-prims-conflict @tc{CheeseTopping} @tc{VegetableTopping})
```

nil

@c{ProbeInconsistentTopping-*INCOHERENT*}

Open World

: (cl-define-primitive-concept 'MushroomTopping 'VegetableTopping) @c{MushroomTopping}

: (cl-define-primitive-concept 'OnionTopping 'VegetableTopping) @c{OnionTopping}

: (cl-define-concept 'VegetarianPizza '(and Pizza (all hasTopping VegetableTopping))) @c{VegetarianPizza}

```
: (cl-create-ind 'mt1 'MushroomTopping)
@i{mt1}
: (cl-create-ind 'ot1 'OnionTopping)
@i{ot1}
: (cl-create-ind 'pizza2 '(and Pizza (fills hasTopping mt1) (fills hasTopping ot1)))
@i{pizza2}
```

```
: (cl-instance? @pizza2 @VegetarianPizza)
nil
: (cl-ind-close-role @pizza2 @hasTopping)
@i{pizza2}
: (cl-instance? @pizza2 @VegetarianPizza)
t
```

Typology of DL Languages

Construct	Syntax	Language			
Concept	А				
Role name	R	FL ₀			
Intersection	$C \cap D$				
Value Restriction	$\forall R.C$		FL^{-}		
Limited existential quantification	∃R.⊤		-	AL	
Top or Universal	Т				S
Bottom	\perp				
Atomic negation	¬Α				
Negation	$\neg C$	С			
Union	$\mathbf{C} \cup \mathbf{D}$	U			
Existential restriction	$\exists R.C$		Е		

Language $S = ALC_{R^+} = ALC$ plus transitive roles.

From A. Gòmez-Pèrez, M. Fernàndez-Lòpez & O. Corcho, *Ontological Engineering*, Springer-Verlag, London, 2004, Table 1.1, p. 17.

Typology, continued

Construct	Syntax	Language
Number restrictions	$(\geq n R) (\leq n R)$	Ν
Nominals	$\{a_1 \dots a_n\}$	О
Role hierarchy	$\mathbf{R} \subseteq \mathbf{S}$	Н
Inverse role	R'	Ι
Qualified number restriction	$(\geq n R.C) (\leq n R.C)$	Q

Key to abbreviations under "Syntax":

A: atomic concept

C, D: concept definitions

R: atomic role

S: role definition

From A. Gòmez-Pèrez, M. Fernàndez-Lòpez & O. Corcho, *Ontological Engineering*, Springer-Verlag, London, 2004, Table 1.1, p. 17.

14 Abduction

Abduction is the non-sound inference

from $P \Rightarrow Q$ and Qto P

See Brachman & Levesque, Chapter 13.

Some Uses of Abduction

1. Explanation

from $It's \ raining \Rightarrow The \ grass \ is \ wet$ and $The \ grass \ is \ wet$ to $It's \ raining$

2. Diagnosis

from $Infection \Rightarrow Fever$ and Fever to Infection

3. Plan Recognition

from Cooking pasta \Rightarrow Boil water and Boil water to Cooking pasta

4. Text Understanding

from $\forall x (gotGoodService(x) \Rightarrow leftBigTip(x))$ and Betty left a big tip. to Betty got good service.

Prime Implicates

Applies to KRR using resolution.

For some KB and some clause C, if $KB \models C$ and for any C' s.t. C' is a proper subset of C $KB \not\models C'$ C is a prime implicate of KB.

Example of Computing Prime Implicate

- 1(p (not q) g)Assumption2(q (not r) g)Assumption3((not p) (not q) (not r) g)Assumption4((not g))From Query
- 5
 (p (not q))
 R,4,1,{}

 6
 (q (not r))
 R,4,2,{}

 7
 ((not p) (not q) (not r))
 R,4,3,{}

 8
 ((not r) p)
 R,5,6,{}

 11
 ((not q) (not r))
 R,7,8,{}

 12
 ((not r))
 R,11,6,{}

Example from Brachman & Levesque, p 271.

Example 2

- 1 ((enterRestaurant Betty)) Assumption
- 2 ((not (enterRestaurant ?1)) (beSeated ?1)) Assumption
- 3 ((not (beSeated ?3)) (beServed ?3)) Assumption
- 4 ((not (beServed ?5)) (getFood ?5)) Assumption
- 5 ((not (getFood ?7)) (eatFood ?7)) Assumption
- 6 ((not (eatFood ?9)) (pay ?9)) Assumption
- 7 ((not (eatFood ?10)) (leaveTip ?10)) Assumption
- 8 ((not (gotGoodService ?12)) (leftBigTip ?12)) Assumption
- 9 ((not (leftBigTip Betty)) (Answer (leftBigTip Betty))) From Query
- 10 ((not (gotGoodService Betty))

```
(Answer (leftBigTip Betty))) R,9,8,{Betty/?12}
```

```
nil
```

```
I.e., (=> (gotGoodService Betty) (leftBigTip Betty))
```

Interpretation

Possible interpretations of

- (=> (gotGoodService Betty) (leftBigTip Betty)):
 - 1. Abduction: Since (leftBigTip Betty), infer (gotGoodService Betty).
 - 2. Diagnosis: Since (not (leftBigTip Betty)), infer (not (gotGoodService Betty)).
 - 3. Hypothetical Answer: If (gotGoodService Betty) then (leftBigTip Betty).
 - 4. Why Not: Didn't infer (leftBigTip Betty) because didn't know (gotGoodService Betty).