Logical Inference

Chapter 9

Some material adopted from notes
by Andreas Geyer-Schulz,
Chuck Dyer, and mary Getoor

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Overview

- Model checking
- Inference in first-order logic
  - Inference rules and generalized modes ponens
  - Forward chaining
  - Backward chaining
  - Resolution
    - Clausal form
    - Unification
    - Resolution as search

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Model checking

- Given KB, does sentence S hold?
- Basically generate and test:
  - Generate all the possible models
  - Consider the models M in which KB is TRUE
  - If $\forall$M S , then S is **provably true**
  - If $\forall$M $\neg$S, then S is **provably false**
  - Otherwise ($\exists$M1 S $\wedge$ $\exists$M2 $\neg$S): S is **satisfiable** but neither provably true or provably false

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Efficient model checking

- Davis-Putnam algorithm (DPLL) is a Generate-and-test model checking with:
  - Early termination (short-circuiting of disjunction and conjunction)
  - Pure symbol heuristic: Any symbol that only appears negated or unnegated must be FALSE/TRUE respectively. (Can "conditionalize" based on instantiations already produced)
  - Unit clause heuristic: Any symbol that appears in a clause by itself can immediately be set to TRUE or FALSE
- WALKSAT: Local search for satisfiability: Pick a symbol to flip (toggle TRUE/FALSE), either using min-conflicts *or* choosing randomly
- …or you can use *any* local or global search algorithm!

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Reminder: Inference rules for FOL

- Inference rules for propositional logic apply to FOL as well
  - Modus Ponens, And-Introduction, And-Elimination, …
- New (sound) inference rules for use with quantifiers:
  - Universal elimination
  - Existential introduction
  - Existential elimination
  - Generalized Modus Ponens (GMP)

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Automating FOL inference with Generalized Modus Ponens

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Automated inference for FOL

- Automated inference using FOL is harder than PL
  - Variables can potentially take on an *infinite* number of possible values from their domains
  - Hence there are potentially an *infinite* number of ways to apply the Universal Elimination rule of inference
- *Godel's Completeness Theorem* says that FOL entailment is only *semidecidable*
  - If a sentence is **true** given a set of axioms, there is a procedure that will determine this
  - If the sentence is **false**, then there is no guarantee that a procedure will ever determine this—i.e., it **may never halt**

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Generalized Modus Ponens (GMP)

- Apply *modus ponens* reasoning to generalized rules
- Combines And-Introduction, Universal-Elimination, and Modus Ponens
  - From *P(c)* and *Q(c)* and $(\forall x)(P(x) \wedge Q(x)) \rightarrow R(x)$ derive *R(c)*
- General case: **Given**
  - **atomic sentences** $P_1, P_2, ..., P_N$
  - **implication sentence** $(Q_1 \wedge Q_2 \wedge ... \wedge Q_N) \rightarrow R$
    - $Q_1, ..., Q_N$ and R are atomic sentences
  - **substitution** $subst(\theta, P_i) = subst(\theta, Q_i)$ for i=1,...,N
  - **Derive new sentence: subst(θ, R)**
- Substitutions
  - $subst(\theta, \alpha)$ denotes the result of applying a set of substitutions defined by θ to the sentence α
  - A substitution list $\theta = \{v_1/t_1, v_2/t_2, ..., v_n/t_n\}$ means to replace all occurrences of variable symbol v_i by term t_i
  - Substitutions are made in left-to-right order in the list
  - subst({x/IceCream, y/Ziggy}, eats(y,x)) = eats(Ziggy, IceCream)

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Horn clauses

- A Horn clause is a sentence of the form:

  $(\forall x)\ P_1(x) \wedge P_2(x) \wedge ... \wedge P_n(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$

where

  - ≥ 0 P_is and 0 or 1 Q
  - the P_is and Q are positive (i.e., non-negated) literals
- Equivalently: $P_1(x) \vee P_2(x)\ ...\ \vee P_n(x)$ where the P_i are all atomic and *at most one* of them is positive
- Prolog is based on Horn clauses
- Horn clauses represent a *subset* of the set of sentences representable in FOL

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Horn clauses II

- Special cases
  - *Typical rule:* $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \ldots P_n \rightarrow Q$
  - *Constraint:* $P_1 \wedge P_2 \wedge \ldots P_n \rightarrow$ false
  - *A fact:* true $\rightarrow$ Q
- These are not Horn clauses:
  - $p(a) \vee q(a)$
  - $(P \wedge Q) \rightarrow (R \vee S)$

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Forward chaining

- Proofs start with the given axioms/premises in KB, deriving new sentences using GMP until the goal/query sentence is derived
- This defines a **forward-chaining** inference procedure because it moves "forward" from the KB to the goal [eventually]
- Inference using GMP is **sound** and **complete** for KBs containing **only Horn clauses**

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Forward chaining algorithm

```
procedure FORWARD-CHAIN(KB, p)

  if there is a sentence in KB that is a renaming of p then return
  Add p to KB
  for each (p1 ∧ ... ∧ pn ⇒ q) in KB such that for some i, UNIFY(pi, p) = θ succeeds do
      FIND-AND-INFER(KB, [p1, ..., pi-1, pi+1, ..., pn], q, θ)
  end

procedure FIND-AND-INFER(KB, premises, conclusion, θ)

  if premises = [] then
      FORWARD-CHAIN(KB, SUBST(θ, conclusion))
  else for each p' in KB such that UNIFY(p', SUBST(θ, FIRST(premises))) = θ2 do
      FIND-AND-INFER(KB, REST(premises), conclusion, COMPOSE(θ, θ2))
  end
```

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Forward chaining example

- KB:
  - allergies(X) → sneeze(X)
  - cat(Y) ∧ allergicToCats(X) → allergies(X)
  - cat(felix)
  - allergicToCats(mary)
- Goal:
  - sneeze(mary)

Backward chaining

- **Backward-chaining** deduction using GMP is also **complete** for KBs containing **only Horn clauses**
- Proofs start with the goal query, find rules with that conclusion, and then prove each of the antecedents in the implication
- Keep going until you reach premises
- Avoid loops: check if new subgoal is already on the goal stack
- Avoid repeated work: check if new subgoal
  - Has already been proved true
  - Has already failed

Backward chaining algorithm

```
function BACK-CHAIN(KB, q) returns a set of substitutions
   BACK-CHAIN-LIST(KB, [q], {})
-----------------------------------------------------------
function BACK-CHAIN-LIST(KB, qlist, θ) returns a set of substitutions
   inputs: KB, a knowledge base
           qlist, a list of conjuncts forming a query (θ already applied)
           θ, the current substitution
   static: answers, a set of substitutions, initially empty

   if qlist is empty then return {θ}
   q ← FIRST(qlist)
      for each q'_i in KB such that θ_i ← UNIFY(q, q'_i) succeeds do
         Add COMPOSE(θ, θ_i) to answers
      end
      for each sentence (p_1 ∧ ... ∧ p_n ⇒ q'_i) in KB such that θ_i ← UNIFY(q, q'_i) succeeds do
         answers ← BACK-CHAIN-LIST(KB, SUBST(θ_i, [p_1 ... p_n]), COMPOSE(θ, θ_i)) ∪ answers
      end
   return the union of BACK-CHAIN-LIST(KB, REST(qlist), θ) for each θ ∈ answers
```


Backward chaining example

- KB:
  - allergies(X) → sneeze(X)
  - cat(Y) ∧ allergicToCats(X) → allergies(X)
  - cat(felix)
  - allergicToCats(mary)
- Goal:
  - sneeze(mary)

Forward vs. backward chaining

- FC is data-driven
  - Automatic, unconscious processing
  - E.g., object recognition, routine decisions
  - May do lots of work that is irrelevant to the goal
  - Efficient when you want to compute all conclusions
- BC is goal-driven, better for problem-solving
  - Where are my keys? How do I get to my next class?
  - Complexity of BC can be much less than linear in the size of the KB
  - Efficient when you want one or a few decisions

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Mixed strategy

- Many practical reasoning systems do both forward and backward chaining
- The way you encode a rule determines how it is used, as in

```
% this is a forward chaining rule
spouse(X,Y) => spouse(Y,X).
% this is a backward chaining rule
wife(X,Y) <= spouse(X,Y), female(X).
```

- Given a model of the rules you have and the kind of reason you need to do, it's possible to decide which to encode as FC and which as BC rules.

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Completeness of GMP

- GMP (using forward or backward chaining) is complete for KBs that contain only Horn clauses
- It is ***not* complete** for simple KBs that contain **non-Horn clauses**
- The following entail that S(A) is true:
  1. $(\forall x)\ P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$
  2. $(\forall x)\ \neg P(x) \rightarrow R(x)$
  3. $(\forall x)\ Q(x) \rightarrow S(x)$
  4. $(\forall x)\ R(x) \rightarrow S(x)$
- If we want to conclude S(A), with GMP we cannot, since the second one is not a Horn clause
- It is equivalent to $P(x) \vee R(x)$

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How about in Prolog?

- Let's try encoding this in Prolog

```
1. q(X) :- p(X).
2. r(X) :- neg(p(X)).
3. s(X) :- q(X).
4. s(X) :- r(X).
```

1. $(\forall x)\ P(x) \rightarrow Q(x)$
2. $(\forall x)\ \neg P(x) \rightarrow R(x)$
3. $(\forall x)\ Q(x) \rightarrow S(x)$
4. $(\forall x)\ R(x) \rightarrow S(x)$

- We should not use \+ or not (in SWI) for negation since it means *"negation as failure"*
- Prolog explores possible proofs independently
- It can't ake a larger view and realize that one branch must be true, since **p(x)** ∨ **~p(x)** is always true

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Automating FOL Inference with Resolution

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Resolution

- Resolution is a **sound** and **complete** inference procedure for FOL
- Reminder: Resolution rule for propositional logic:
  - $P_1 \vee P_2 \vee \ldots \vee P_n$
  - $\neg P_1 \vee Q_2 \vee \ldots \vee Q_m$
  - Resolvent: $P_2 \vee \ldots \vee P_n \vee Q_2 \vee \ldots \vee Q_m$

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Resolution covers many cases

- Modes Ponens
  - from P and $P \rightarrow Q$ derive Q
  - from P and $\neg P \vee Q$ derive Q
- Chaining
  - from $P \rightarrow Q$ and $Q \rightarrow R$ derive $P \rightarrow R$
  - from $(\neg P \vee Q)$ and $(\neg Q \vee R)$ derive $\neg P \vee R$
- Contradiction detection
  - from P and $\neg P$ derive false
  - from P and $\neg P$ derive the empty clause (=false)

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Resolution in first-order logic

- Given sentences in *conjunctive normal form:*
  - $P_1 \vee \ldots \vee P_n$ and $Q_1 \vee \ldots \vee Q_m$
  - P_i and Q_i are literals, i.e., positive or negated predicate symbol with its terms
- if P_j and $\neg Q_k$ **unify** with substitution list θ, then derive the resolvent sentence:

  $subst(\theta, P_1 \vee \ldots \vee P_{j-1} \vee P_{j+1} \ldots P_n \vee Q_1 \vee \ldots Q_{k-1} \vee Q_{k+1} \vee \ldots \vee Q_m)$
- Example
  - from clause **P(x, f(a)) ∨ P(x, f(y)) ∨ Q(y)**
  - and clause **¬P(z, f(a)) ∨ ¬Q(z)**
  - derive resolvent **P(z, f(y)) ∨ Q(y) ∨ ¬Q(z)**
  - using $\boldsymbol{\theta = \{x/z\}}$

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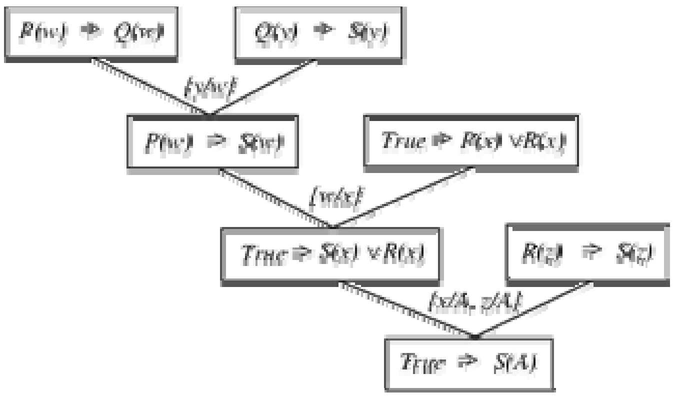
A resolution proof tree



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Resolution refutation

- Given a consistent set of axioms KB and goal sentence Q, show that KB |= Q
- **Proof by contradiction:** Add ¬Q to KB and try to prove false.
  i.e., (KB |- Q) ↔ (KB ∧ ¬Q |- False)
- Resolution is **refutation complete:** it can establish that a given sentence Q is entailed by KB, but can't (in general) be used to generate all logical consequences of a set of sentences
- Also, it cannot be used to prove that Q is **not entailed** by KB.
- Resolution **won't always give an answer** since entailment is only semidecidable
  – And you can't just run two proofs in parallel, one trying to prove Q and the other trying to prove ¬Q, since KB might not entail either one

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Resolution example

- KB:
  – allergies(X) → sneeze(X)
  – cat(Y) ∧ allergicToCats(X) → allergies(X)
  – cat(felix)
  – allergicToCats(mary)
- Goal:
  – sneeze(mary)

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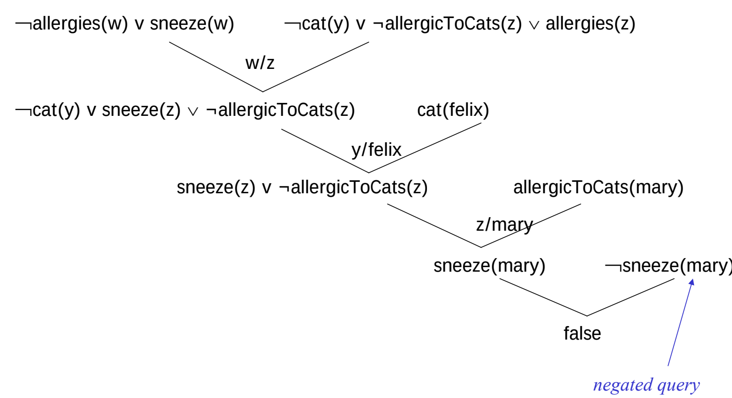
Refutation resolution proof tree



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questions to be answered

- How to convert FOL sentences to conjunctive normal form (a.k.a. CNF, clause form): **normalization and skolemization**
- How to unify two argument lists, i.e., how to find their most general unifier (**mgu**) q: **unification**
- How to determine which two clauses in KB should be resolved next (among all resolvable pairs of clauses) : **resolution (search) strategy**

Converting to CNF

Converting sentences to CNF

1. Eliminate all ↔ connectives
   $(P \leftrightarrow Q) \Rightarrow ((P \rightarrow Q) \wedge (Q \rightarrow P))$
2. Eliminate all → connectives
   $(P \rightarrow Q) \Rightarrow (\neg P \vee Q)$
3. Reduce the scope of each negation symbol to a single predicate
   $\neg\neg P \Rightarrow P$
   $\neg(P \vee Q) \Rightarrow \neg P \wedge \neg Q$
   $\neg(P \wedge Q) \Rightarrow \neg P \vee \neg Q$
   $\neg(\forall x)P \Rightarrow (\exists x)\neg P$
   $\neg(\exists x)P \Rightarrow (\forall x)\neg P$
4. Standardize variables: rename all variables so that each quantifier has its own unique variable name

Converting sentences to clausal form

Skolem constants and functions

5. Eliminate existential quantification by introducing Skolem constants/functions

$(\exists x)P(x) \Rightarrow P(C)$

C is a Skolem constant (a brand-new constant symbol that is not used in any other sentence)

$(\forall x)(\exists y)P(x,y) \Rightarrow (\forall x)P(x, f(x))$

since ∃ is within the scope of a universally quantified variable, use a **Skolem function f** to construct a new value that **depends on** the universally quantified variable

f must be a brand-new function name not occurring in any other sentence in the KB.

E.g., $(\forall x)(\exists y)loves(x,y) \Rightarrow (\forall x)loves(x,f(x))$

In this case, f(x) specifies the person that x loves

a better name might be **oneWhoIsLovedBy**(x)

Converting sentences to clausal form

6. Remove universal quantifiers by (1) moving them all to the left end; (2) making the scope of each the entire sentence; and (3) dropping the "prefix" part

   Ex: $(\forall x)P(x) \Rightarrow P(x)$

7. Put into conjunctive normal form (conjunction of disjunctions) using distributive and associative laws

   $(P \wedge Q) \vee R \Rightarrow (P \vee R) \wedge (Q \vee R)$

   $(P \vee Q) \vee R \Rightarrow (P \vee Q \vee R)$

8. Split conjuncts into separate clauses
9. Standardize variables so each clause contains only variable names that do not occur in any other clause

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An example

$(\forall x)(P(x) \rightarrow ((\forall y)(P(y) \rightarrow P(f(x,y))) \wedge \neg(\forall y)(Q(x,y) \rightarrow P(y))))$

2. Eliminate $\rightarrow$

   $(\forall x)(\neg P(x) \vee ((\forall y)(\neg P(y) \vee P(f(x,y))) \wedge \neg(\forall y)(\neg Q(x,y) \vee P(y))))$

3. Reduce scope of negation

   $(\forall x)(\neg P(x) \vee ((\forall y)(\neg P(y) \vee P(f(x,y))) \wedge (\exists y)(Q(x,y) \wedge \neg P(y))))$

4. Standardize variables

   $(\forall x)(\neg P(x) \vee ((\forall y)(\neg P(y) \vee P(f(x,y))) \wedge (\exists z)(Q(x,z) \wedge \neg P(z))))$

5. Eliminate existential quantification

   $(\forall x)(\neg P(x) \vee ((\forall y)(\neg P(y) \vee P(f(x,y))) \wedge (Q(x,g(x)) \wedge \neg P(g(x)))))$

6. Drop universal quantification symbols

   $(\neg P(x) \vee ((\neg P(y) \vee P(f(x,y))) \wedge (Q(x,g(x)) \wedge \neg P(g(x)))))$

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Example

7. Convert to conjunction of disjunctions

   $(\neg P(x) \vee \neg P(y) \vee P(f(x,y))) \wedge (\neg P(x) \vee Q(x,g(x))) \wedge$
   $(\neg P(x) \vee \neg P(g(x)))$

8. Create separate clauses

   $\neg P(x) \vee \neg P(y) \vee P(f(x,y))$

   $\neg P(x) \vee Q(x,g(x))$

   $\neg P(x) \vee \neg P(g(x))$

9. Standardize variables

   $\neg P(x) \vee \neg P(y) \vee P(f(x,y))$

   $\neg P(z) \vee Q(z,g(z))$

   $\neg P(w) \vee \neg P(g(w))$

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Unification

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Unification

- Unification is a **"pattern-matching"** procedure
  - Takes two atomic sentences, called literals, as input
  - Returns "Failure" if they do not match and a substitution list, θ, if they do
- That is, *unify(p,q) = θ* means *subst(θ, p) = subst(θ, q)* for two atomic sentences, *p* and *q*
- **θ** is called the **most general unifier** (mgu)
- All variables in the given two literals are implicitly universally quantified
- To make literals match, replace (universally quantified) variables by terms

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Unification algorithm

```
procedure unify(p, q, θ)
   Scan p and q left-to-right and find the first corresponding
     terms where p and q "disagree" (i.e., p and q not equal)
   If there is no disagreement, return θ  (success!)
   Let r and s be the terms in p and q, respectively,
     where disagreement first occurs
   If variable(r) then {
     Let θ = union(θ, {r/s})
     Return unify(subst(θ, p), subst(θ, q), θ)
   } else if variable(s) then {
     Let θ = union(θ, {s/r})
     Return unify(subst(θ, p), subst(θ, q), θ)
   } else return "Failure"
  end
```

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Unification: Remarks

- *Unify* is a linear-time algorithm that returns the most general unifier (mgu), i.e., the shortest-length substitution list that makes the two literals match.
- In general, there is not a **unique** minimum-length substitution list, but unify returns one of minimum length
- A variable can never be replaced by a term containing that variable

  Example: x/f(x) is illegal.
- This "occurs check" should be done in the above pseudo-code before making the recursive calls

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Unification examples

- Example:
  - parents(x, father(x), mother(Bill))
  - parents(Bill, father(Bill), y)
  - {x/Bill, y/mother(Bill)}
- Example:
  - parents(x, father(x), mother(Bill))
  - parents(Bill, father(y), z)
  - {x/Bill, y/Bill, z/mother(Bill)}
- Example:
  - parents(x, father(x), mother(Jane))
  - parents(Bill, father(y), mother(y))
  - Failure

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Resolution example

Practice example

Did Curiosity kill the cat

- Jack owns a dog. Every dog owner is an animal lover. No animal lover kills an animal. Either Jack or Curiosity killed the cat, who is named Tuna. Did Curiosity kill the cat?
- These can be represented as follows:

  A. (∃x) Dog(x) ∧ Owns(Jack,x)

  B. (∀x) ((∃y) Dog(y) ∧ Owns(x, y)) → AnimalLover(x)

  C. (∀x) AnimalLover(x) → ((∀y) Animal(y) → ¬Kills(x,y))

  D. Kills(Jack,Tuna) ∨ Kills(Curiosity,Tuna)

  E. Cat(Tuna)

  F. (∀x) Cat(x) → Animal(x)

  G. Kills(Curiosity, Tuna) ← GOAL

- **Convert to clause form**

  A1. (Dog(D)) ← *D is a skolem constant*

  A2. (Owns(Jack,D))

  B. (¬Dog(y), ¬Owns(x, y), AnimalLover(x))

  C. (¬AnimalLover(a), ¬Animal(b), ¬Kills(a,b))

  D. (Kills(Jack,Tuna), Kills(Curiosity,Tuna))

  E. Cat(Tuna)

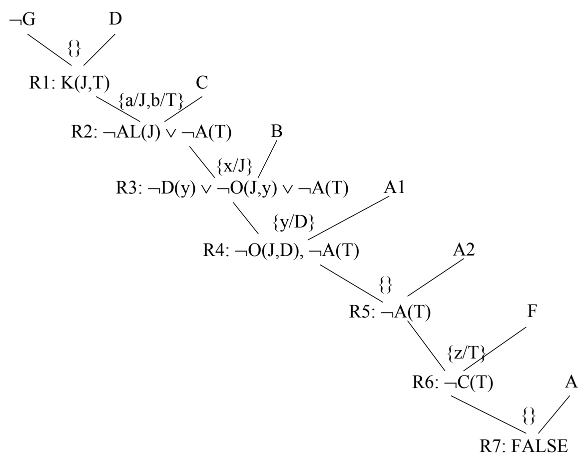
  F. (¬Cat(z), Animal(z))
- **Add the negation of query:**

  ¬G: ¬Kills(Curiosity, Tuna)

The resolution refutation proof

R1: ¬G, D, {}	(Kills(Jack, Tuna))
R2: R1, C, {a/Jack, b/Tuna}	(~AnimalLover(Jack), ~Animal(Tuna))
R3: R2, B, {x/Jack}	(~Dog(y), ~Owns(Jack, y), ~Animal(Tuna))
R4: R3, A1, {y/D}	(~Owns(Jack, D), ~Animal(Tuna))
R5: R4, A2, {}	(~Animal(Tuna))
R6: R5, F, {z/Tuna}	(~Cat(Tuna))
R7: R6, E, {}	FALSE

- **The proof tree**



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Resolution search strategies

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Resolution TP as search

- Resolution can be thought of as the **bottom-up construction of a search tree**, where the leaves are the clauses produced by KB and the negation of the goal
- When a pair of clauses generates a new resolvent clause, add a new node to the tree with arcs directed from the resolvent to the two parent clauses
- **Resolution succeeds** when a node containing the **False** clause is produced, becoming the **root node** of the tree
- A strategy is **complete** if its use guarantees that the empty clause (i.e., false) can be derived whenever it is entailed

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Strategies

- There are a number of general (domain-independent) strategies that useful in controlling a resolution theorem prover
- We'll briefly look at the following:
  – Breadth-first
  – Length heuristics
  – Set of support
  – Input resolution
  – Subsumption
  – Ordered resolution

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Example

1. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Bulbs-OK ∨ Headlights-Work
2. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
3. ¬Engine-Starts ∨ Flat-Tire ∨ Car-OK
4. Headlights-Work
5. Battery-OK
6. Starter-OK
7. ¬Empty-Gas-Tank
8. ¬Car-OK
9. ¬Flat-Tire ← **negated goal**

Breadth-first search

- Level 0 clauses are the original axioms and the negation of the goal
- Level k clauses are the resolvents computed from two clauses, one of which must be from level k-1 and the other from any earlier level
- Compute all possible level 1 clauses, then all possible level 2 clauses, etc.
- Complete, but very inefficient

BFS example

1. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Bulbs-OK ∨ Headlights-Work
2. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
3. ¬Engine-Starts ∨ Flat-Tire ∨ Car-OK
4. Headlights-Work
5. Battery-OK
6. Starter-OK
7. ¬Empty-Gas-Tank
8. ¬Car-OK
9. ¬Flat-Tire

1,4 10. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Bulbs-OK
1,5 11. ¬Bulbs-OK ∨ Headlights-Work
2,3 12. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Flat-Tire ∨ Car-OK
2,5 13. ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
2,6 14. ¬Battery-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
2,7 15. ¬Battery-OK ¬ Starter-OK ∨ Engine-Starts
16. ... [and we're still only at Level 1!]

Length heuristics

- **Shortest-clause heuristic**:
  Generate a clause with the fewest literals first
- **Unit resolution**:
  Prefer resolution steps in which at least one parent clause is a "unit clause," i.e., a clause containing a single literal
  - Not complete in general, but complete for Horn clause KBs

Unit resolution example

1. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Bulbs-OK ∨ Headlights-Work
2. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
3. ¬Engine-Starts ∨ Flat-Tire ∨ Car-OK
4. Headlights-Work
5. Battery-OK
6. Starter-OK
7. ¬Empty-Gas-Tank
8. ¬Car-OK
9. ¬Flat-Tire

1,5	10.	¬Bulbs-OK ∨ Headlights-Work
2,5	11.	¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
2,6	12.	¬Battery-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
2,7	13.	¬Battery-OK ¬ Starter-OK ∨ Engine-Starts
3,8	14.	¬Engine-Starts ∨ Flat-Tire
3,9	15.	¬Engine-Starts ¬ Car-OK
	16.	... [this doesn't seem to be headed anywhere either!]

Set of support

- At least one parent clause must be the negation of the goal *or* a "descendant" of such a goal clause (i.e., derived from a goal clause)
- *(When there's a choice, take the most recent descendant)*
- Complete (assuming all possible set-of-support clauses are derived)
- Gives a goal-directed character to the search

Set of support example

1. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Bulbs-OK ∨ Headlights-Work
2. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
3. ¬Engine-Starts ∨ Flat-Tire ∨ Car-OK
4. Headlights-Work
5. Battery-OK
6. Starter-OK
7. ¬Empty-Gas-Tank
8. ¬Car-OK
9. ¬Flat-Tire

9,3	10.	¬Engine-Starts ∨ Car-OK
10,2	11.	¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Car-OK
10,8	12.	¬Engine-Starts
11,5	13.	¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Car-OK
11,6	14.	¬Battery-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Car-OK
11,7	15.	¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Car-OK
	16.	... [a bit more focused, but we still seem to be wandering]

Unit resolution + set of support example

1. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Bulbs-OK ∨ Headlights-Work
2. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
3. ¬Engine-Starts ∨ Flat-Tire ∨ Car-OK
4. Headlights-Work
5. Battery-OK
6. Starter-OK
7. ¬Empty-Gas-Tank
8. ¬Car-OK
9. ¬Flat-Tire

9,3	10.	¬Engine-Starts ∨ Car-OK
10,8	11.	¬Engine-Starts
12,2	12.	¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank
12,5	13.	¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank
13,6	14.	Empty-Gas-Tank
14,7	15.	FALSE

[Hooray! Now that's more like it!]

Simplification heuristics

- **Subsumption:**
  Eliminate all sentences that are subsumed by (more specific than) an existing sentence to keep the KB small
  - If P(x) is already in the KB, adding P(A) makes no sense – P(x) is a superset of P(A)
  - Likewise adding P(A) ∨ Q(B) would add nothing to the KB
- **Tautology:**
  Remove any clause containing two complementary literals (tautology)
- **Pure symbol:**
  If a symbol always appears with the same "sign," remove all the clauses that contain it

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Example (Pure Symbol)

1. ~~¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Bulbs-OK ∨ Headlights-Work~~
2. ¬Battery-OK ∨ ¬Starter-OK ∨ Empty-Gas-Tank ∨ Engine-Starts
3. ¬Engine-Starts ∨ Flat-Tire ∨ Car-OK
4. ~~Headlights-Work~~
5. Battery-OK
6. Starter-OK
7. ¬Empty-Gas-Tank
8. ¬Car-OK
9. ¬Flat-Tire

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Input resolution

- At least one parent must be one of the input sentences (i.e., either a sentence in the original KB or the negation of the goal)
- Not complete in general, but complete for Horn clause KBs
- **Linear resolution**
  - Extension of input resolution
  - One of the parent sentences must be an input sentence *or* an ancestor of the other sentence
  - Complete

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Ordered resolution

- Search for resolvable sentences in order (left to right)
- This is how Prolog operates
- Resolve the first element in the sentence first
- This forces the user to define what is important in generating the "code"
- The way the sentences are written controls the resolution

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Prolog

- A logic programming language based on Horn clauses
  - Resolution refutation
  - Control strategy: goal-directed and depth-first
    - always start from the goal clause
    - always use the new resolvent as one of the parent clauses for resolution
    - backtracking when the current thread fails
    - complete for Horn clause KB
  - Support answer extraction (can request single or all answers)
  - Orders the clauses and literals within a clause to resolve non-determinism
    - Q(a) may match both Q(x) <= P(x) and Q(y) <= R(y)
    - A (sub)goal clause may contain more than one literals, i.e., <= P1(a), P2(a)
  - Use "closed world" assumption (negation as failure)
    - If it fails to derive P(a), then assume ~P(a)

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Summary

- Logical agents apply inference to a knowledge base to derive new information and make decisions
- Basic concepts of logic:
  - Syntax: formal structure of sentences
  - Semantics: truth of sentences wrt models
  - Entailment: necessary truth of one sentence given another
  - Inference: deriving sentences from other sentences
  - Soundness: derivations produce only entailed sentences
  - Completeness: derivations can produce all entailed sentences
- FC and BC are linear time, complete for Horn clauses
- Resolution is a sound and complete inference method for propositional and first-order logic

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