Logical Inference 2

Rule-based reasoning

Chapter 9

Automated inference for FOL

- Automated inference for 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
- *Godel's Completeness Theorem* says that FOL entailment is only *semi-decidable*
  - If a sentence is **true** given a set of axioms, there is a procedure that will determine this
  - If the sentence is **false**, there's no guarantee a procedure will ever determine this — it **may never halt**

Generalized Modus Ponens

- Modus Ponens
  - P, P=>Q |= Q
- Generalized Modus Ponens (GMP) extends this to rules in FOL
- Combines And-Introduction, Universal-Elimination, and Modus Ponens, e.g.
  - *from P(c) and Q(c) and $\forall x\ P(x) \wedge Q(x) \rightarrow R(x)$ derive R(c)*
- Must deal with
  - more than one condition on left side of rule
  - variables

Generalized Modus Ponens

- General case: **Given**
  - **atomic sentences** P_1, P_2, ..., P_N
  - **implication sentence** $(Q_1 \land Q_2 \land ... \land Q_N) \rightarrow R$
    - Q_1, ..., Q_N and R are atomic sentences
  - **substitution** subst(θ, P_i) = subst(θ, Q_i) for i=1,...,N
  - **Derive new sentence: subst(θ, R)**
- Substitutions
  - subst(θ, α) 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 made in left-to-right order in the list
  - subst({x/Cheese, y/Mickey}, eats(y,x)) = eats(Mickey, Cheese)

Our rules are Horn clauses

- A Horn clause is a sentence of the form:

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

where

  - ≥ 0 P_is and 0 or 1 Q

  - 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* is positive

- Prolog is based on Horn clauses

- Horn clauses represent a *subset* of the set of sentences representable in FOL

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:
  - dead(x) ∨ alive(x)
  - married(x, y) → loves(x, y) ∨ hates(x, y)
  - ¬likes(john, mary)
  - ¬likes(x, y) → hates(x, y)

- Can't assert or conclude disjunctions, no negation
- No wonder reasoning over Horn clauses is easier

Horn clauses III

- Where are the quantifiers?
  - Variables in conclusion are universally quantified
  - Variables only in premises are existentially quantified

- Examples:
  - parent(P,X) → isParent(P)
    ∀P ∃X parent(P,X) → isParent(P)

  - parent(P1, X) ∧ parent(X, P2) → grandParent(P1, P2)
    ∀P1,P2 ∃X parent(P1,X) ∧ parent(X, P2) →
    grandParent(P1, P2)

  - Prolog: grandParent(P1,P2) :- parent(P1,X), parent(X,P2)

Forward & Backward Reasoning

- We usually talk about two reasoning strategies: forward and backward 'chaining'

- Both are equally powerful

- You can also have a mixed strategy

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**

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 $(p_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge p_n \Rightarrow q)$ in KB such that for some i, UNIFY(p_i, p) $= \theta$ succeeds **do**
        FIND-AND-INFER($KB, [p_1, \ldots, p_{i-1}, p_{i+1}, \ldots, p_n], q, \theta$)
    end

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procedure FIND-AND-INFER($KB, premises, conclusion, \theta$)

    if $premises = [\,]$ **then**
        FORWARD-CHAIN(KB, SUBST($\theta, conclusion$))
    else for each p' in KB such that UNIFY(p', SUBST(θ, FIRST($premises$))) $= \theta_2$ **do**
        FIND-AND-INFER(KB, REST($premises$), $conclusion$, COMPOSE(θ, θ_2))
    end

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, $[q]$, $\{\}$)

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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** $\{\theta\}$
  $q \leftarrow$ FIRST($qlist$)
    for each q_i' in KB such that $\theta_i \leftarrow$ UNIFY(q, q_i') succeeds **do**
      Add COMPOSE(θ, θ_i) to $answers$
    end
    for each sentence $(p_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge p_n \Rightarrow q_i')$ in KB such that $\theta_i \leftarrow$ UNIFY(q, q_i') succeeds **do**
      $answers \leftarrow$ BACK-CHAIN-LIST(KB, SUBST($\theta_i, [p_1 \ldots p_n]$), COMPOSE($\theta, \theta_i$)) $\cup$ $answers$
    end
  return the union of BACK-CHAIN-LIST(KB, REST($qlist$), θ) for each $\theta \in answers$

Backward chaining example

- KB:
  - allergies(X) $\rightarrow$ sneeze(X)
  - cat(Y) $\wedge$ allergicToCats(X) $\rightarrow$ allergies(X)
  - cat(felix)
  - allergicToCats(mary)
- Goal:
  - sneeze(mary)

Forward vs. backward chaining

- Forward chaining 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
- Backward chaining is goal-driven, better for problem-solving and query answering
  - 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
  - Good where the underlying facts are changing

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.

Completeness of GMP

- GMP (using forward or backward chaining) is complete for KBs that contain only Horn clauses

- *not* **complete** for simple KBs with **non-Horn clauses**

- What is entailed by the following sentences:

    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. $(\forall x)\ R(x) \rightarrow S(x)$

Completeness of GMP

- 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 $P(x) \lor R(x)$

How about in Prolog?

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 take a larger view and realize that one branch must be true since **p(x) ∨ ~p(x)** is always true