

# Logical reasoning systems



- Theorem provers and logic programming languages
- Production systems
- Frame systems and semantic networks
- Description logic systems

# Logical reasoning systems



- **Theorem provers and logic programming languages** – Provers: use resolution to prove sentences in full FOL. Languages: use backward chaining on restricted set of FOL constructs.
- **Production systems** – based on implications, with consequents interpreted as action (e.g., insertion & deletion in KB). Based on forward chaining + conflict resolution if several possible actions.
- **Frame systems and semantic networks** – objects as nodes in a graph, nodes organized as taxonomy, links represent binary relations.
- **Description logic systems** – evolved from semantic nets. Reason with object classes & relations among them.

## Basic tasks



- Add a new fact to KB – TELL
- Given KB and new fact, derive facts implied by conjunction of KB and new fact. In forward chaining: part of TELL
- Decide if query entailed by KB – ASK
- Decide if query explicitly stored in KB – restricted ASK
- Remove sentence from KB: distinguish between correcting false sentence, forgetting useless sentence, or updating KB re. change in the world.

# Indexing, retrieval & unification

- **Implementing sentences & terms:** define syntax and map sentences onto machine representation.

**Compound:** has operator & arguments.

e.g.,  $c = P(x) \wedge Q(x)$

$Op[c] = \wedge$ ;  $Args[c] = [P(x), Q(x)]$

- **FETCH:** find sentences in KB that have same structure as query.  
ASK makes multiple calls to FETCH.

- **STORE:** add each conjunct of sentence to KB. Used by TELL.

e.g., implement KB as list of conjuncts

TELL(KB,  $A \wedge \neg B$ ) TELL(KB,  $\neg C \wedge D$ )

then KB contains:  $[A, \neg B, \neg C, D]$

## Complexity



- With previous approach,

FETCH takes  $O(n)$  time on  $n$ -element KB

STORE takes  $O(n)$  time on  $n$ -element KB (if check for duplicates)

Faster solution?

# Table-based indexing

- What are you indexing on? Predicates (relations/functions).

Example:

Key	Positive	Negative	Conclusion	Premise
Mother	Mother(ann,sam) Mother(grace,joe)	-Mother(ann,al)	xxxx	xxxx
dog	dog(rover) dog(fido)	-dog(alice)	xxxx	xxxx

## Table-based indexing



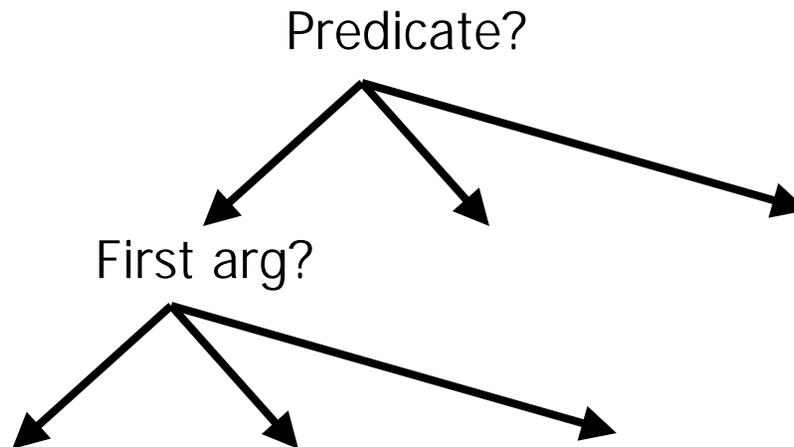
- Use [hash table](#) to avoid looping over entire KB for each TELL or FETCH

e.g., if only allowed literals are single letters, use a 26-element array to store their values.

- More generally:
  - convert to Horn form
  - index table by predicate symbol
  - for each symbol, store:
    - list of positive literals
    - list of negative literals
    - list of sentences in which predicate is in conclusion
    - list of sentences in which predicate is in premise

# Tree-based indexing

- Hash table impractical if many clauses for a given predicate symbol
- Tree-based indexing (or more generally combined indexing): compute indexing key from predicate and argument symbols



## Tree-based indexing



### Example:

Person(age,height,weight,income)

Person(30,72,210,45000)

Fetch( Person(age,72,210,income))

Fetch(Person(age,height > 72,weight < 210,income))

## Unification algorithm: Example



Understands(mary,x) implies Loves(mary,x)

Understands(mary,pete) allows the system to substitute pete for x and make the implication that IF

Understands(mary,pete) THEN Loves(mary,pete)

## Unification algorithm



- Using clever indexing, can reduce number of calls to unification
- Still, unification called very often (at basis of modus ponens) => need efficient implementation.
- See AI/MA p. 303 for example of algorithm with  $O(n^2)$  complexity  
( $n$  being size of expressions being unified).

# Logic programming

Remember: knowledge engineering vs. programming...

Sound bite: computation as inference on logical KBs

## Logic programming

1. Identify problem
2. Assemble information
3. Tea break
4. Encode information in KB
5. Encode problem instance as facts
6. Ask queries
7. Find false facts

## Ordinary programming

- Identify problem
- Assemble information
- Figure out solution
- Program solution
- Encode problem instance as data
- Apply program to data
- Debug procedural errors

Should be easier to debug  $Capital(NewYork, US)$  than  $x := x + 2 !$

# Logic programming systems



e.g., **Prolog**:

- Program = sequence of sentences (implicitly conjoined)
- All variables implicitly universally quantified
- Variables in different sentences considered distinct
- Horn clause sentences only (= atomic sentences or sentences with no negated antecedent and atomic consequent)
- Terms = constant symbols, variables or functional terms
- Queries = conjunctions, disjunctions, variables, functional terms
- Instead of negated antecedents, use negation as failure operator: goal NOT P considered proved if system fails to prove P
- Syntactically distinct objects refer to distinct objects
- Many built-in predicates (arithmetic, I/O, etc)

## Prolog systems



Basis: backward chaining with Horn clauses + bells & whistles  
Widely used in Europe, Japan (basis of 5th Generation project)  
Compilation techniques  $\Rightarrow$  10 million LIPS

Program = set of clauses = head :- literal<sub>1</sub>, ... literal<sub>n</sub>.

Efficient unification by open coding

Efficient retrieval of matching clauses by direct linking

Depth-first, left-to-right backward chaining

Built-in predicates for arithmetic etc., e.g., X is Y\*Z+3

Closed-world assumption ("negation as failure")

e.g., not PhD(X) succeeds if PhD(X) fails

## Basic syntax of facts, rules and queries

```
<fact> ::= <term> .  
<rule> ::= <term> :- <term> .  
<query> ::= <term> .  
<term> ::= <number> | <atom> | <variable>  
         | <atom> (<terms>)  
<terms> ::= <term> | <term>, <terms>
```

## A PROLOG Program

- A PROLOG program is a set of *facts* and *rules*.
- A simple program with just facts :

```
parent(alice, jim).  
parent(jim, tim).  
parent(jim, dave).  
parent(jim, sharon).  
parent(tim, james).  
parent(tim, thomas).
```

## A PROLOG Program

- c.f. a table in a relational database.
- Each line is a *fact* (a.k.a. a tuple or a row).
- Each line states that some person  $x$  is a parent of some (other) person  $y$ .
- In GNU PROLOG the program is kept in an ASCII file.

## A PROLOG Query

- Now we can ask PROLOG questions :
  - | ?- parent(alice, jim).
  - yes
  - | ?- parent(jim, herbert).
  - no
  - | ?-

## A PROLOG Query

- Not very exciting. But what about this :

```
| ?- parent(alice, Who).  
Who = jim  
yes  
| ?-
```

- Who is called a *logical variable*.
  - PROLOG will set a logical variable to any value which makes the query succeed.

## A PROLOG Query II

- Sometimes there is more than one correct answer to a query.
- PROLOG gives the answers one at a time. To get the next answer type `;`.

```
| ?- parent(jim, Who).  
Who = tim ? ;  
Who = dave ? ;  
Who = sharon ? ;  
yes  
| ?-
```

**NB : The ;  
do not  
actually  
appear on  
the screen.**

## A PROLOG Query II

```
| ?- parent(jim, Who).  
Who = tim ? ;  
Who = dave ? ;  
Who = sharon ? ;  
yes  
| ?-
```

NB : The ;  
do not  
actually  
appear on  
the screen.

- After finding that jim was a parent of sharon GNU PROLOG detects that there are no more alternatives for parent and ends the search.

## Prolog example

Depth-first search from a start state X:

```
dfs(X) :- goal(X).
```

```
dfs(X) :- successor(X,S),dfs(S).
```

conjunction

No need to loop over S: successor succeeds for each

Appending two lists to produce a third:

```
append([],Y,Y).
```

```
append([X|L],Y,[X|Z]) :- append(L,Y,Z).
```

```
query:    append(A,B,[1,2]) ?
```

```
answers:  A=[]      B=[1,2]
```

```
          A=[1]     B=[2]
```

```
          A=[1,2]   B=[]
```

# Append



- `append([], L, L)`
- `append([H | L1], L2, [H | L3]) :- append(L1, L2, L3)`
- Example join `[a, b, c]` with `[d, e]`.
  - `[a, b, c]` has the recursive structure `[a | [b, c] ]`.
  - Then the rule says:
  - IF `[b,c]` appends with `[d, e]` to form `[b, c, d, e]` THEN `[a|[b, c]]` appends with `[d,e]` to form `[a|[b, c, d, e]]`
  - i.e. `[a, b, c]` `[a, b, c, d, e]`

# Expanding Prolog

- **Parallelization:**

OR-parallelism: goal may unify with many different literals and implications in KB

AND-parallelism: solve each conjunct in body of an implication in parallel

- **Compilation:** generate built-in theorem prover for different predicates in KB

- **Optimization:** for example through re-ordering

e.g., “what is the income of the spouse of the president?”

$\text{Income}(s, i) \wedge \text{Married}(s, p) \wedge \text{Occupation}(p, \text{President})$

faster if re-ordered as:

$\text{Occupation}(p, \text{President}) \wedge \text{Married}(s, p) \wedge \text{Income}(s, i)$

## Theorem provers



- Differ from logic programming languages in that:
  - accept full FOL
  - results independent of form in which KB entered

# OTTER



- Organized Techniques for Theorem Proving and Effective Research (McCune, 1992)
- **Set of support (sos)**: set of clauses defining facts about problem
- Each resolution step: resolves member of sos against other axiom
- **Usable axioms** (outside sos): provide background knowledge about domain
- **Rewrites** (or **demodulators**): define canonical forms into which terms can be simplified. E.g.,  $x+0=x$
- **Control strategy**: defined by set of parameters and clauses. E.g., heuristic function to control search, filtering function to eliminate uninteresting subgoals.

# OTTER



- Operation: resolve elements of sos against usable axioms
- Use best-first search: heuristic function measures “weight” of each clause (lighter weight preferred; thus in general weight correlated with size/difficulty)
- At each step: move lightest close in sos to usable list, and add to usable list consequences of resolving that close against usable list
- Halt: when refutation found or sos empty

# Example

**Netscape: Otter: An Automated Deduction System**

File Edit View Go Communicator Help

Bookmarks Location: <http://www-unix.mcs.anl.gov/AR/otter/> What's Related

Google Gscout Library WoS PubMed INSPEC JTrack ResearchIndex WebAdmin CVSweb HC Params

## Otter: An Automated Deduction System

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Updated August 13, 2001.

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### Related Pages

- Try Otter *right now* with [Son of BirdBrain](#)
- [A sample Otter proof](#)
- [New Results](#) obtained with Otter and related programs
- [MACE](#), a program that searches for small models
- [EQP](#), a prover for equational logic with associative unification
- [Automated Reasoning at Argonne](#)

### External Work

- [Johan Belinfante's Set Theory Work with Otter](#)
- [Some other theorem provers](#)
- [Otter mode for Emacs](#) (from Holger Schauer)
- [GOAL](#), by Guoxiang Huang and Dale Myers
- [A student project on Otter by Jackson Pauls](#)

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### Description

Our current automated deduction system Otter is designed to prove theorems stated in first-order logic with equality. Otter's inference rules are based on resolution and paramodulation, and it includes facilities for term rewriting, term orderings, Knuth-Bendix completion, weighting, and strategies for directing

100%

## Example: Robbins Algebras Are Boolean



- The Robbins problem---are all Robbins algebras Boolean?---has been solved: Every Robbins algebra is Boolean. This theorem was proved automatically by EQP, a theorem proving program developed at Argonne National Laboratory

# Example: Robbins Algebras Are Boolean

## Historical Background

- In 1933, E. V. Huntington presented the following basis for Boolean algebra:

$$x + y = y + x. \quad [\text{commutativity}]$$

$$(x + y) + z = x + (y + z). \quad [\text{associativity}]$$

$$n(n(x) + y) + n(n(x) + n(y)) = x. \quad [\text{Huntington equation}]$$

- Shortly thereafter, Herbert Robbins conjectured that the Huntington equation can be replaced with a simpler one:

$$n(n(x + y) + n(x + n(y))) = x. \quad [\text{Robbins equation}]$$

- Robbins and Huntington could not find a proof, and the problem was later studied by Tarski and his students

Searching ...

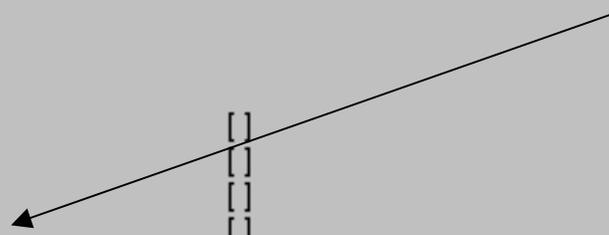
Success, in 1.28 seconds!

----- PROOF -----

1	$n(n(A)+B)+n(n(A)+n(B)) \neq A.$	[ ]
2	$x=x.$	[ ]
3	$x+y=y+x.$	[ ]
5, 4	$(x+y)+z=x+(y+z).$	[ ]
6	$n(n(x+y)+n(x+n(y)))=x.$	[ ]
8	$x+x=x.$	[ ]
10	$n(n(A)+n(B))+n(n(A)+B) \neq A.$	[para_from, 3, 1]
13	$x+(x+y)=x+y.$	[para_into, 4, 8, flip. 1]
15	$x+(y+z)=y+(x+z).$	[para_into, 4, 3, demod, 5]
23, 22	$x+(y+x)=x+y.$	[para_into, 13, 3]
26	$n(n(x)+n(x+n(x)))=x.$	[para_into, 6, 8]
36	$n(n(n(x)+x)+n(n(x)))=n(x).$	[para_into, 6, 8]
42	$n(n(x+n(y))+n(x+y))=x.$	[para_into, 6, 3]
52	$x+(y+z)=x+(z+y).$	[para_into, 15, 3, demod, 5]
81, 80	$n(n(x+n(x))+n(x))=x.$	[para_into, 26, 3]
82	$n(n(n(x)+x)+x)=n(x).$	[para_from, 26, 6, demod, 23]
125	$n(n(n(x+n(x))+n(x)+x)+x)=n(x+n(x))+n(x).$	[para_into, 80, 80, demod, 5, 81]
139	$n(n(n(x+n(x))+x)+x)=n(x+n(x)).$	[para_from, 80, 6]
166, 165	$n(n(x+n(x))+x)=n(x).$	[para_into, 82, 3]
180, 179	$n(n(x)+x)=n(x+n(x)).$	[back_demod, 139, demod, 166]
195	$n(n(x+n(x))+n(n(x)))=n(x).$	[back_demod, 36, demod, 180]
197	$n(n(x+(n(x)+n(x+n(x))))+(n(x+n(x))+x))=n(x).$	[para_into, 165, 165, demod, 5, 180, 5, 166]
206, 205	$n(n(x+(n(x)+n(x+n(x))))+n(x))=n(x+n(x))+x.$	[para_from, 165, 80, demod, 166, 5, 180, 5]
223, 222	$n(n(x+y)+(y+x))=n(x+(y+n(x+y))).$	[para_into, 179, 52, demod, 5]
231, 230	$n(n(x+(n(x)+n(x+n(x))))+x)=n(x+n(x))+n(x).$	[back_demod, 125, demod, 223]
564, 563	$n(x+n(x))+x=x.$	[para_into, 195, 80, demod, 5, 223, 81, 206, 81]
582, 581	$n(x+n(x))+n(x)=n(x).$	[back_demod, 197, demod, 564, 231]
586, 585	$n(n(x))=x.$	[back_demod, 80, demod, 582]
606, 605	$n(x+n(y))+n(x+y)=n(x).$	[para_into, 585, 42, flip. 1]
621	$A \neq A.$	[back_demod, 10, demod, 606, 586]
622	$\$F.$	[binary, 621, 2]

----- end of proof -----

Given to  
the system



## Forward-chaining production systems



- Prolog & other programming languages: rely on backward-chaining  
(I.e., given a query, find substitutions that satisfy it)
- Forward-chaining systems: infer everything that can be inferred from KB each time new sentence is TELL'ed
- Appropriate for agent design: as new percepts come in, forward-chaining returns best action

# Implementation

- One possible approach: use a theorem prover, using resolution to forward-chain over KB
- More restricted systems can be more efficient.
- Typical components:
  - KB called “**working memory**” (positive literals, no variables)
  - **rule memory** (set of inference rules in form
$$p1 \wedge p2 \wedge \dots \Rightarrow act1 \wedge act2 \wedge \dots$$
)
  - at each cycle: find rules whose premises satisfied by working memory (**match phase**)
  - decide which should be executed (**conflict resolution phase**)
  - execute actions of chosen rule (**act phase**)

## Match phase

- Unification can do it, but inefficient
- Rete algorithm (used in OPS-5 system): example

rule memory:

$$A(x) \wedge B(x) \wedge C(y) \Rightarrow \text{add } D(x)$$

$$A(x) \wedge B(y) \wedge D(x) \Rightarrow \text{add } E(x)$$

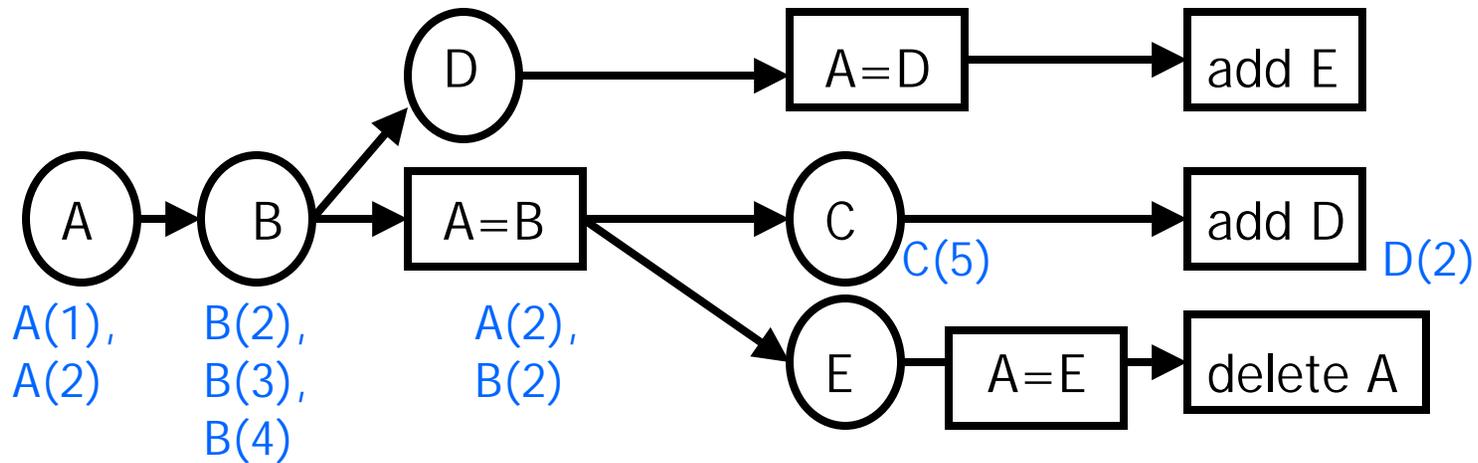
$$A(x) \wedge B(x) \wedge E(x) \Rightarrow \text{delete } A(x)$$

working memory:

$$\{A(1), A(2), B(2), B(3), B(4), C(5)\}$$

- Build Rete network from rule memory, then pass working memory through it

# Rete network



Circular nodes: fetches to WM; rectangular nodes: unifications

$$A(x) \wedge B(x) \wedge C(y) \Rightarrow \text{add } D(x)$$

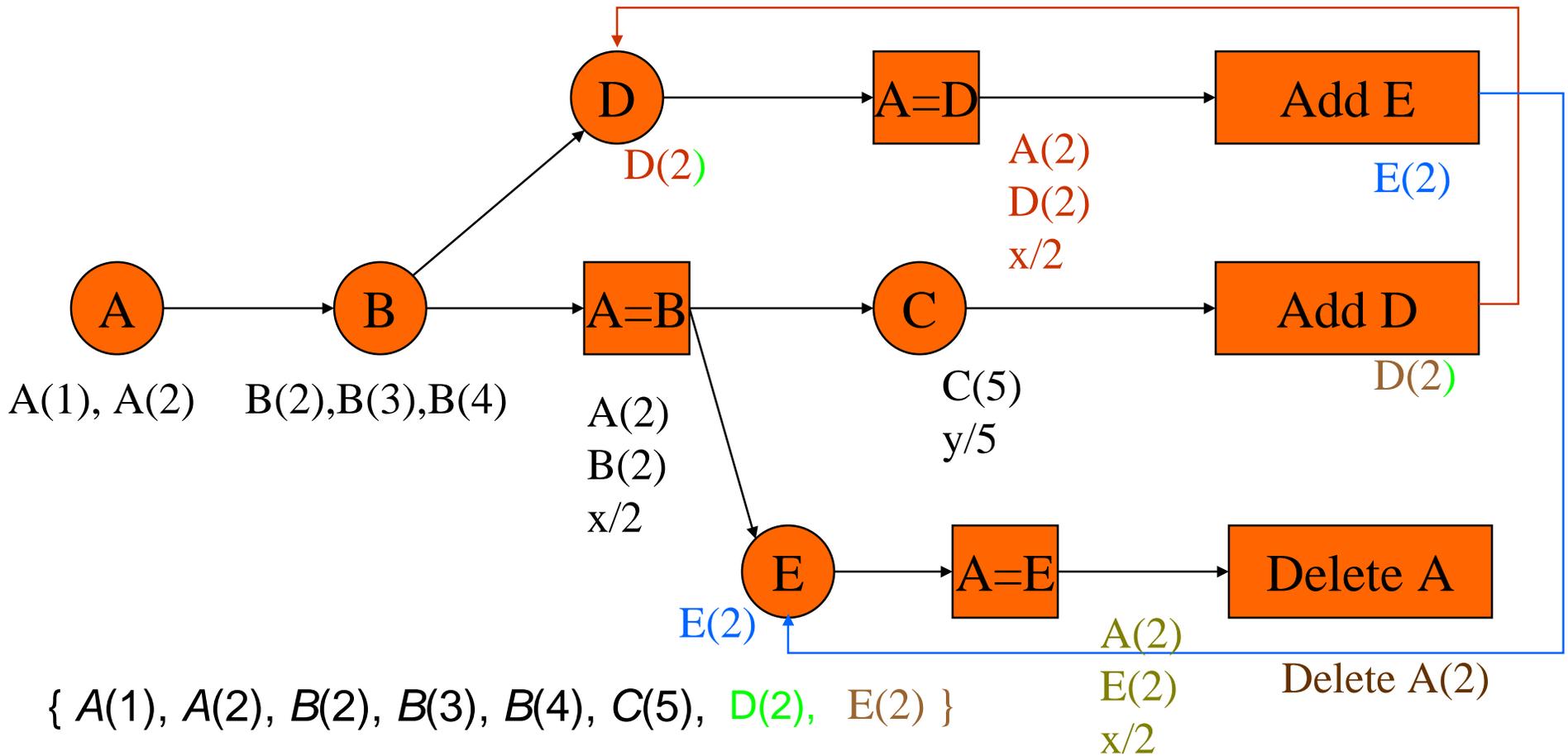
$$A(x) \wedge B(y) \wedge D(x) \Rightarrow \text{add } E(x)$$

$$A(x) \wedge B(x) \wedge E(x) \Rightarrow \text{delete } A(x)$$

$\{A(1), A(2), B(2), B(3), B(4), C(5)\}$

# Rete match

$A(x) \wedge B(x) \wedge C(y) \Rightarrow \text{add } D(x)$   
 $A(x) \wedge B(y) \wedge D(x) \Rightarrow \text{add } E(x)$   
 $A(x) \wedge B(x) \wedge E(x) \Rightarrow \text{delete } A(x)$



## Advantages of Rete networks



- Share common parts of rules
- Eliminate duplication over time (since for most production systems only a few rules change at each time step)

## Conflict resolution phase



- one strategy: execute all actions for all satisfied rules
- or, treat them as suggestions and use conflict resolution to pick one action.
- Strategies:
  - no duplication (do not execute twice same rule on same args)
  - regency (prefer rules involving recently created WM elements)
  - specificity (prefer more specific rules)
  - operation priority (rank actions by priority and pick highest)

## Frame systems & semantic networks

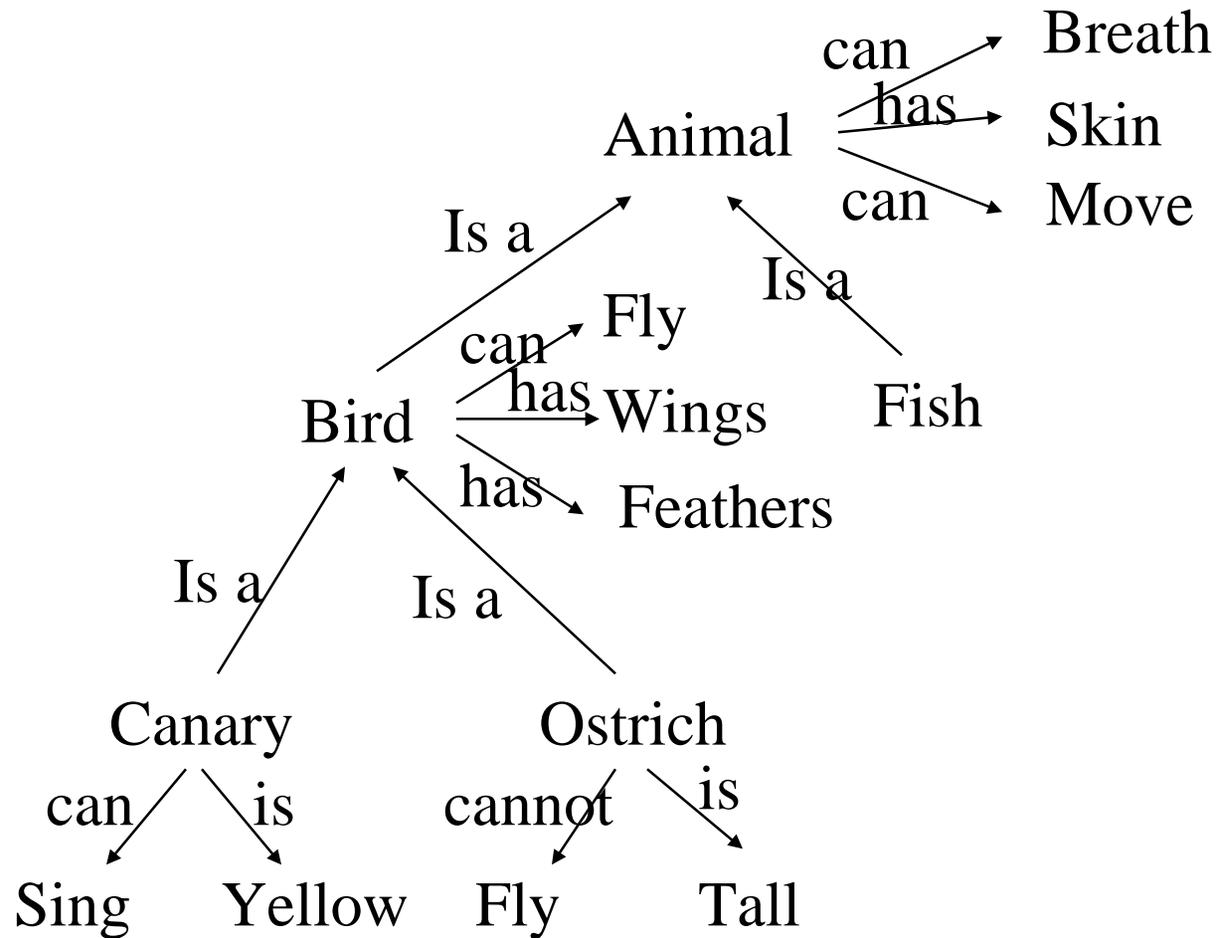
- Other notation for logic; equivalent to sentence notation
- Focus on categories and relations between them (remember ontologies)

- e.g., Cats  $\xrightarrow{\textit{Subset}}$  Mammals

# Syntax and Semantics

Link Type	Semantics
$A \xrightarrow{\text{Subset}} B$	$A \subset B$
$A \xrightarrow{\text{Member}} B$	$A \in B$
$A \xrightarrow{R} B$	$R(A,B)$
$A \xrightarrow{\boxed{R}} B$	$\forall x x \in A \Rightarrow R(x,y)$
$A \xrightarrow{\boxed{\boxed{R}}} B$	$\forall x \exists y x \in A \Rightarrow y \in B \wedge R(x,y)$

# Semantic Network Representation



# Semantic network link types

Link type	Semantics	Example
$A \xrightarrow{\textit{Subset}} B$	$A \subset B$	Cats $\xrightarrow{\textit{Subset}}$ Mammals
$A \xrightarrow{\textit{Member}} B$	$A \in B$	Bill $\xrightarrow{\textit{Member}}$ Cats
$A \xrightarrow{R} B$	$R(A, B)$	Bill $\xrightarrow{\textit{Age}}$ 12
$A \xrightarrow{\boxed{R}} B$	$\forall x \quad x \in A \Rightarrow R(x, B)$	Birds $\xrightarrow{\boxed{\textit{Legs}}}$ 2
$A \xrightarrow{\boxed{\boxed{R}}} B$	$\forall x \exists y \quad x \in A \Rightarrow y \in B \wedge R(x, y)$	Birds $\xrightarrow{\boxed{\boxed{\textit{Parent}}}}$ Birds