Reasoning with Variables

- An instance of an atom or a clause is obtained by uniformly substituting terms for variables.
- A substitution is a finite set of the form $\{V_1/t_1, \ldots, V_n/t_n\}$, where each V_i is a distinct variable and each t_i is a term.
- The application of a substitution $\sigma = \{V_1/t_1, \ldots, V_n/t_n\}$ to an atom or clause e, written $e\sigma$, is the instance of e with every occurrence of V_i replaced by t_i.

Application Examples

The following are substitutions:

$$\sigma_1 = \{X/A, Y/b, Z/C, D/e\}$$
$$\sigma_2 = \{A/X, Y/b, C/Z, D/e\}$$
$$\sigma_3 = \{A/V, X/V, Y/b, C/W, Z/W, D/e\}$$

The following shows some applications:

$$p(A, b, C, D)\sigma_1 =$$
$$p(X, Y, Z, e)\sigma_1 =$$
$$p(A, b, C, D)\sigma_2 =$$
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Unifiers

- Substitution σ is a unifier of e_1 and e_2 if $e_1\sigma = e_2\sigma$.
- Substitution σ is a most general unifier (mgu) of e_1 and e_2 if
  - σ is a unifier of e_1 and e_2; and
  - if substitution σ' also unifies e_1 and e_2, then $e\sigma'$ is an instance of $e\sigma$ for all atoms e.
- If two atoms have a unifier, they have a most general unifier.

Unification Example

Which of the following are unifiers of $p(A, b, C, D)$ and $p(X, Y, Z, e)$:

$$\sigma_1 = \{X/A, Y/b, Z/C, D/e\}$$
$$\sigma_2 = \{Y/b, D/e\}$$
$$\sigma_3 = \{X/A, Y/b, Z/C, D/e, W/a\}$$
$$\sigma_4 = \{A/X, Y/b, C/Z, D/e\}$$
$$\sigma_5 = \{X/a, Y/b, Z/c, D/e\}$$
$$\sigma_6 = \{A/a, X/a, Y/b, C/c, Z/c, D/e\}$$
$$\sigma_7 = \{A/V, X/V, Y/b, C/W, Z/W, D/e\}$$
$$\sigma_8 = \{X/A, Y/b, Z/A, C/A, D/e\}$$

Which are most general unifiers?

Unification Example

$p(A, b, C, D)$ and $p(X, Y, Z, e)$ have as unifiers:

$\sigma_1 = \{X/A, Y/b, Z/C, D/e\}$
$\sigma_4 = \{A/X, Y/b, C/Z, D/e\}$
$\sigma_7 = \{A/V, X/V, Y/b, C/W, Z/W, D/e\}$
$\sigma_6 = \{A/a, X/a, Y/b, C/c, Z/c, D/e\}$
$\sigma_8 = \{X/A, Y/b, Z/A, C/A, D/e\}$
$\sigma_3 = \{X/A, Y/b, Z/C, D/e, W/a\}$

The first three are most general unifiers.

The following substitutions are not unifiers:

$\sigma_2 = \{Y/b, D/e\}$
$\sigma_5 = \{X/a, Y/b, Z/c, D/e\}$

procedure *unify*(t_1, t_2) $\triangleright$ Returns mgu of t_1 and t_2 or $\perp$.
    $E \leftarrow \{t_1 = t_2\}$ $\triangleright$ Set of equality statements
    $S := \{\}$ $\triangleright$ Substitution
    while $E \neq \{\}$ **do**
        select and remove $x = y$ from E
        if y is not identical to x **then**
            if x is a variable **then**
                replace x with y in E and S
                $S \leftarrow \{x/y\} \cup S$
            else if y is a variable **then**
                replace y with x in E and S
                $S \leftarrow \{y/x\} \cup S$
            else if x is $p(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ and y is $p(y_1, \ldots, y_n)$ **then**
                $E \leftarrow E \cup \{x_1 = y_1, \ldots, x_n = y_n\}$
            else
                return $\perp$ $\triangleright$ t_1 and t_2 do not unify
    return S $\triangleright$ S is mgu of t_1 and t_2

Logical Consequence

Atom g is a logical consequence of KB if and only if:

- g is an instance of a fact in KB, or
- there is an instance of a rule

  $$g \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_k$$

  in KB such that each b_i is a logical consequence of KB.

Aside: Debugging false conclusions

To debug answer g that is false in the intended interpretation:

- If g is a fact in KB, this fact is wrong.
- Otherwise, suppose g was proved using the rule:

$$g \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_k$$

where each b_i is a logical consequence of KB.

  - If each b_i is true in the intended interpretation, this clause is false in the intended interpretation.
  - If some b_i is false in the intended interpretation, debug b_i.

Proofs

- A proof is a mechanically derivable demonstration that a formula logically follows from a knowledge base.
- Given a proof procedure, $KB \vdash g$ means g can be derived from knowledge base KB.
- Recall $KB \models g$ means g is true in all models of KB.
- A proof procedure is sound if $KB \vdash g$ implies $KB \models g$.
- A proof procedure is complete if $KB \models g$ implies $KB \vdash g$.

Bottom-up proof procedure

$KB \vdash g$ if there is g' added to C in this procedure where $g = g'\theta$:

$C := \{\}$;
repeat
  select clause "$h \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_m$" in KB such that
    there is a substitution θ such that
    for all i, there exists $b_i' \in C$ and θ_i' where $b_i\theta = b_i'\theta_i'$ and
    there is no $h' \in C$ and θ' such that $h'\theta' = h\theta$
  $C := C \cup \{h\theta\}$
until no more clauses can be selected.

Example

$live(Y) \leftarrow connected\_to(Y, Z) \wedge live(Z).$ $live(outside).$
$connected\_to(w_6, w_5).$ $connected\_to(w_5, outside).$

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$$
\begin{aligned}
C = \{&live(outside),\\
&connected\_to(w_6, w_5),\\
&connected\_to(w_5, outside),\\
&live(w_5),\\
&live(w_6)\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Soundness of bottom-up proof procedure

If $KB \vdash g$ then $KB \models g$.

- Suppose there is a g such that $KB \vdash g$ and $KB \not\models g$.
- Then there must be a first atom added to C that has an instance that isn't true in every model of KB. Call it h.

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where $h = h'\theta$ and $b_i\theta$ is an instance of an element of C.

  - Each $b_i\theta$ is true in I.
  - h is false in I.
  - So an instance of this clause is false in I.
  - Therefore I isn't a model of KB.
  - Contradiction.

Fixed Point

- The C generated by the bottom-up algorithm is called a fixed point.
- C can be infinite; we require the selection to be fair.
- Herbrand interpretation: The domain is the set of constants. We invent a constant if the KB or query doesn't contain one. Each constant denotes itself.

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  Proof:

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- Let I be the Herbrand interpretation in which every ground instance of every element of the fixed point is true and every other atom is false.
- I is a model of KB.
  Proof: suppose $h \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_m$ in KB is false in I. Then h is false and each b_i is true in I. Thus h can be added to C. Contradiction to C being the fixed point.
- I is called a Minimal Model.

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- Thus g is true in the minimal model.
- Thus g is in the fixed point.
- Thus g is generated by the bottom up algorithm.
- Thus $KB \vdash g$.

Top-down Proof procedure

- A generalized answer clause is of the form

  $$yes(t_1, \ldots, t_k) \leftarrow a_1 \wedge a_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge a_m,$$

  where $t_1, \ldots, t_k$ are terms and $a_1, \ldots, a_m$ are atoms.

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- The SLD resolution of this generalized answer clause on a_i with the clause

$$a \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_p,$$

  where a_i and a have most general unifier θ, is

$$(yes(t_1, \ldots, t_k) \leftarrow$$
$$a_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge a_{i-1} \wedge b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_p \wedge a_{i+1} \wedge \ldots \wedge a_m)\theta.$$

Top-down Proof Procedure

To solve query $?B$ with variables $V_1, \ldots, V_k$:

Set ac to generalized answer clause $yes(V_1, \ldots, V_k) \leftarrow B$
while ac is not an answer **do**
    Suppose ac is $yes(t_1, \ldots, t_k) \leftarrow a_1 \wedge a_2 \wedge \ldots \wedge a_m$
    select atom a_i in the body of ac
    choose clause $a \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_p$ in KB
    Rename all variables in $a \leftarrow b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_p$
    Let θ be the most general unifier of a_i and a.
        Fail if they don't unify
    Set ac to $(yes(t_1, \ldots, t_k) \leftarrow a_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge a_{i-1} \wedge$
        $b_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge b_p \wedge a_{i+1} \wedge \ldots \wedge a_m)\theta$
end while.

Answer is $V_1 = t_1, \ldots, V_k = t_k$
where ac is $yes(t_1, \ldots, t_k) \leftarrow$

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$$yes(A) \leftarrow live(A).$$

$$yes(A) \leftarrow connected\_to(A, Z_1) \wedge live(Z_1).$$

$$yes(w_6) \leftarrow live(w_5).$$

$$yes(w_6) \leftarrow connected\_to(w_5, Z_2) \wedge live(Z_2).$$

$$yes(w_6) \leftarrow live(outside).$$

$$yes(w_6) \leftarrow .$$

Function Symbols

- Often we want to refer to individuals in terms of components.
- Examples: 4:55 p.m. English sentences. A classlist.
- We extend the notion of term. So that a term can be $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ where f is a function symbol and the t_i are terms.
- In an interpretation and with a variable assignment, term $f(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$ denotes an individual in the domain.
- One function symbol and one constant can refer to infinitely many individuals.

Lists

- A list is an ordered sequence of elements.
- Let's use the constant nil to denote the empty list, and the function $cons(H, T)$ to denote the list with first element H and rest-of-list T. These are not built-in.
- The list containing sue, kim and $randy$ is

$$cons(sue, cons(kim, cons(randy, nil)))$$

- $append(X, Y, Z)$ is true if list Z contains the elements of X followed by the elements of Y

$$append(nil, Z, Z).$$
$$append(cons(A, X), Y, cons(A, Z)) \leftarrow append(X, Y, Z).$$

Unification with function symbols

- Consider a knowledge base consisting of one fact:

  $$lt(X, s(X)).$$

- Should the following query succeed?

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  $$\text{ask}\ \ lt(Y, Y).$$

- What does the top-down proof procedure give?
- Solution: variable X should not unify with a term that contains X inside.
  E.g., X should not unify with $s(X)$.
  Simple modification of the unification algorithm, which Prolog does not do!