## CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

## Propositional Logic: Semantics, Inference, Agents

## KEEP <br> CALM <br> AND <br> USE <br> LOGIC




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You can think about deep learning as equivalent to ... our visual cortex or auditory cortex. But, of course, true intelligence is a lot more than just that, you have to recombine it into higher-level thinking and symbolic reasoning, a lot of the things classical Al tried to deal with in the 80s. ... We would like to build up to this symbolic level of reasoning - maths, language, and logic. So that's a big part of our work.

## Demis Hassabis, CEO of Google Deepmind

## Knowledge

- Knowledge base = set of sentences in a formal language
- Declarative approach to building an agent (or other system):
- Tell it what it needs to know (or have it Learn the knowledge)
- Then it can Ask itself what to do-answers should follow from the KB
- Agents can be viewed at the knowledge level i.e., what they know, regardless of how implemented
- A single inference algorithm can answer any answerable question
- Cf. a search algorithm answers only "how to get from A to B" questions

Knowledge base
Inference engine

## Logic

- Syntax: What sentences are allowed?
- Semantics:
- What are the possible worlds?
- Which sentences are true in which worlds? (i.e., definition of truth)


Syntaxland
Semanticsland

## Examples

- Propositional logic
- Syntax: $P \vee(\neg Q \wedge R) ; \quad X_{1} \Leftrightarrow$ (Raining $\Rightarrow$ Sunny)
- Possible world: $\{P=$ true, $Q=$ true, $R=$ false, $S=$ true $\}$ or 1101
- Semantics: $\alpha \wedge \beta$ is true in a world iff $\alpha$ is true and $\beta$ is true (etc.)
- First-order logic
- Syntax: $\forall x \exists y P(x, y) \wedge \neg Q(J o e, f(x)) \Rightarrow f(x)=f(y)$
- Possible world: Objects $\mathrm{o}_{1}, \mathrm{o}_{2}, \mathrm{o}_{3} ; \mathrm{P}$ holds for $\left\langle\mathrm{o}_{1}, \mathrm{o}_{2}\right\rangle ; \mathrm{Q}$ holds for $\left\langle\mathrm{o}_{1}, \mathrm{o}_{3}\right\rangle$; $\mathrm{f}\left(\mathrm{o}_{1}\right)=\mathrm{o}_{1}$; Joe $=\mathrm{o}_{3}$; etc.
- Semantics: $\phi(\sigma)$ is true in a world if $\sigma=o_{j}$ and $\phi$ holds for $\mathrm{o}_{\mathrm{j}}$; etc.


## Inference: entailment

- Entailment: $\alpha \mid=\beta$ (" $\alpha$ entails $\beta$ " or " $\beta$ follows from $\alpha$ ") iff in every world where $\alpha$ is true, $\beta$ is also true
- I.e., the $\alpha$-worlds are a subset of the $\beta$-worlds [models $(\alpha) \subseteq \operatorname{models}(\beta)$ ]
- In the example, $\alpha_{2}$ |= $\alpha_{1}$
- (Say $\alpha_{2}$ is $\neg Q \wedge R \wedge S \wedge W$

$$
\left.\alpha_{1} \text { is } \neg Q\right)
$$



## Inference: proofs

- A proof is a demonstration of entailment between $\alpha$ and $\beta$
- Method 1: model-checking
- For every possible world, if $\alpha$ is true make sure that is $\beta$ true too
- OK for propositional logic (finitely many worlds); not easy for first-order logic
- Method 2: theorem-proving
- Search for a sequence of proof steps (applications of inference rules) leading from $\alpha$ to $\beta$
- E.g., from $P \wedge(P \Rightarrow Q)$, infer $Q$ by Modus Ponens
- Sound algorithm: everything it claims to prove is in fact entailed
- Complete algorithm: every that is entailed can be proved


## Quiz

- What's the connection between complete inference algorithms and complete search algorithms?
- Answer 1: they both have the words "complete...algorithm"
- Answer 2: they both solve any solvable problem
- Answer 3: Formulate inference as a search problem
- Initial state: KB contains $\alpha$
- Actions: apply any inference rule that matches KB, add conclusion
- Goal test: KB contains $\beta$

Hence any complete search algorithm (BFS, IDS, ...) yields a complete inference algorithm...
provided the inference rules themselves are strong enough

## Propositional logic syntax: The gruesome details

- Given: a set of proposition symbols $\left\{X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}\right\}$
- (we often add True and False for convenience)
- $X_{i}$ is a sentence
- If $\alpha$ is a sentence then $\neg \alpha$ is a sentence
- If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are sentences then $\alpha \wedge \beta$ is a sentence
- If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are sentences then $\alpha \vee \beta$ is a sentence
- If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are sentences then $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ is a sentence
- If $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are sentences then $\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta$ is a sentence
- And p.s. there are no other sentences!


## Propositional logic semantics: The unvarnished truth

function PL-TRUE?( $\alpha$, model) returns true or false
if $\alpha$ is a symbol then return Lookup( $\alpha$, model)
if $\operatorname{Op}(\alpha)=\neg$ then return not(PL-TRUE? $(\operatorname{Arg1}(\alpha)$, model))
if $\mathrm{Op}(\alpha)=\wedge$ then return and(PL-TRUE? $(\operatorname{Arg} 1(\alpha)$, model),

$$
\text { PL-TRUE?(Arg2( } \alpha \text { ),model)) }
$$

if $\operatorname{Op}(\alpha)=\Rightarrow$ then return $\operatorname{or}(P L-T R U E ?(\operatorname{Arg} 1(\alpha)$, model),

$$
\text { not(PL-TRUE?(Arg2( } \alpha), \text { model))) }
$$

etc. (Sometimes called "recursion over syntax")

## PacMan facts

- If Pacman is at 3,3 at time 16 and goes North and there is no wall at 3,4 then Pacman is at 3,4 at time 17:
- At_3,3_16^N_16^ $\neg$ Wall_3,4 $\Rightarrow$ At_3,3_17
- At time 0 Pacman does one of four actions:
- (W_0 v E_0 v N_0 v S_0)
- $\neg\left(W \_0 \wedge E \_0\right) \wedge \neg\left(W \_0 \wedge S \_0\right) \wedge . .$.


## Simple theorem proving: Forward chaining

- Forward chaining applies Modus Ponens to generate new facts:
- Given $X_{1} \wedge X_{2} \wedge \ldots X_{n} \Rightarrow Y$ and $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots, X_{n}$
- Infer Y
- Forward chaining keeps applying this rule, adding new facts, until nothing more can be added
- Requires KB to contain only definite clauses:
- (Conjunction of symbols) $\Rightarrow$ symbol; or
- A single symbol (note that $X$ is equivalent to True $\Rightarrow X$ )


## Forward chaining algorithm

function PL-FC-ENTAILS?(KB, q) returns true or false count $\leftarrow$ a table, where count [c] is the number of symbols in c's premise inferred $\leftarrow$ a table, where inferred[s] is initially false for all s agenda $\leftarrow$ a queue of symbols, initially symbols known to be true in KB while agenda is not empty do
$p<$ Pop(agenda)
if $p=q$ then return true
if inferred[p] = false then
inferred[p]<true
for each clause $c$ in $K B$ where $p$ is in c.premise do decrement count[c] if count[c] $=0$ then add c.conclusion to agenda
return false

Forward chaining example: Proving Q

| ClaUses | Count | INFERRED |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| - $\mathrm{P} \Rightarrow \mathrm{Q}$ | 110 | A fadze true |
| - $L \wedge M \Rightarrow P$ | [1 N 0 | B falze true |
| - $\mathrm{B} \wedge \mathrm{L} \Rightarrow \mathrm{M}$ | 11 N 0 | L false true |
| - $A \wedge P \Rightarrow L$ | R1 N 0 | M fadse true |
| - $A \wedge B \Rightarrow L$ | DI NV 0 | $P$ faxtex true |
| - A | 0 | Q farse true |
| - B | 0 |  |
| AGENDA |  |  |
| * * * | * * |  |

## Properties of forward chaining

- Theorem: FC is sound and complete for definite-clause KBs
- Soundness: follows from soundness of Modus Ponens (easy to check)
- Completeness proof:

1. FC reaches a fixed point where no new atomic sentences are derived
2. Consider the final inferred table as a model $\boldsymbol{m}$, assigning true/false to symbols
3. Every clause in the original $K B$ is true in $\boldsymbol{m}$

A falses true
Proof: Suppose a clause $a_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge a_{k} \Rightarrow b$ is false in $\boldsymbol{m}$
Then $a_{1} \wedge \ldots \wedge a_{k}$ is true in $\boldsymbol{m}$ and $b$ is false in $\boldsymbol{m}$
B fads true

Therefore the algorithm has not reached a fixed point!
L xabe true
$M$ xalse true
P dalse true
Q raxue true
4. Hence $\boldsymbol{m}$ is a model of $K B$
5. If $K B \mid=q, q$ is true in every model of $K B$, including $\boldsymbol{m}$

## Simple model checking

function TT-ENTAILS?(KB, $\alpha$ ) returns true or false
return TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, $\alpha$,symbols(KB) U symbols( $\alpha$ ), $\}$ )
function TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, $\alpha$, symbols, model) returns true or false
if empty?(symbols) then
if PL-TRUE?(KB,model) then return PL-TRUE?( $\alpha$, model)
else return true
else
$P \leftarrow$ first(symbols)
rest $\leftarrow$ rest(symbols)
return and (TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, $\alpha$, rest, model $\cup\{P=$ true $\}$ )
TT-CHECK-ALL(KB, $\alpha$, rest, model $\cup\{P=$ false $\})$ )

## Simple model checking, contd.

- Same recursion as backtracking
- O(2n) time, linear space
- We can do much better!



## Satisfiability and entailment

- A sentence is satisfiable if it is true in at least one world (cf CSPs!)
- Suppose we have a hyper-efficient SAT solver; how can we use it to test entailment?
- Suppose $\alpha$ |= $\beta$
- Then $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ is true in all worlds
- Hence $\neg(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta)$ is false in all worlds
- Hence $\alpha \wedge \neg \beta$ is false in all worlds, i.e., unsatisfiable
- So, add the negated conclusion to what you know, test for (un)satisfiability; also known as reductio ad absurdum
- Efficient SAT solvers operate on conjunctive normal form


## Conjunctive normal form (CNF)

- Every sentence can be expl Replace biconditional by two implications lauses
- Each clause is a disjunction o Replace $\alpha \Rightarrow \beta$ by $\neg \alpha \vee \beta$
- Each literal is a symbol or a Dimb Distribute vover $\wedge$
- Conversion to CNF by a so alu of standard stormations:
- At_1,1_0 $\Rightarrow$ (Wall_0,1 $\Leftrightarrow$ B/ Jcked_W_0)
- At_1,1_0 $\Rightarrow(($ Wall_0,1 $\Rightarrow$ Blocked_W_0) $\wedge(1$ ocked_W_0 $\Rightarrow$ Wall_0,1))
- $\neg$ At_1,1_0 v (( $\neg$ Wall_0,1 v Blocked_W_0) ( ( $\rightarrow$ Blocked_W_0 v Wall_0,1))
- ( $\neg$ At_1,1_0 v $\neg$ Wall_0,1 v Blocked_W_0) ^ ( $\neg$ At_1,1_0 v $\neg$ Blocked_W_0 v Wall_0,1)


## Efficient SAT solvers

- DPLL (Davis-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland) is the core of modern solvers
- Essentially a backtracking search over models with some extras:
- Early termination: stop if
- all clauses are satisfied; e.g., $(A \vee B) \wedge(A \vee \neg C)$ is satisfied by $\{A=$ true $\}$
- any clause is falsified; e.g., $(A \vee B) \wedge(A \vee \neg C)$ is satisfied by $\{A=$ false, $B=$ false $\}$
- Pure literals: if all occurrences of a symbol in as-yet-unsatisfied clauses have the same sign, then give the symbol that value
- E.g., $A$ is pure and positive in $(A \vee B) \wedge(A \vee \neg C) \wedge(C \vee \neg B)$ so set it to true
- Unit clauses: if a clause is left with a single literal, set symbol to satisfy clause
- E.g., if $A=$ false, $(A \vee B) \wedge(A \vee \neg C)$ becomes (false $\vee B) \wedge($ false $\vee \neg C)$, i.e. $(B) \wedge(\neg C)$
- Satisfying the unit clauses often leads to further propagation, new unit clauses, etc.


## DPLL algorithm

function DPLL(clauses,symbols,model) returns true or false if every clause in clauses is true in model then return true if some clause in clauses is false in model then return false P,value $\leftarrow$ FIND-PURE-SYMBOL(symbols,clauses,model) if P is non-null then return DPLL(clauses, symbols-P, modelU\{P=value\}) P, value $\leftarrow$ FIND-UNIT-CLAUSE(clauses,model)
if $P$ is non-null then return DPLL(clauses, symbols- $P$, modelU\{P=value\})
$P \leftarrow$ First(symbols); rest $\leftarrow$ Rest(symbols) return or(DPLL(clauses,rest,modelU\{P=true\}),

DPLL(clauses,rest,modelU\{P=false\}))

## Efficiency

- Naïve implementation of DPLL: solve ~100 variables
- Extras:
- Variable and value ordering (from CSPs)
- Divide and conquer
- Caching unsolvable subcases as extra clauses to avoid redoing them
- Cool indexing and incremental recomputation tricks so that every step of the DPLL algorithm is efficient (typially O(1))
- Index of clauses in which each variable appears +ve/-ve
- Keep track number of satisfied clauses, update when variables assigned
- Keep track of number of remaining literals in each clause
- Real implementation of DPLL: solve ~10000000 variables


## SAT solvers in practice

- Circuit verification: does this VLSI circuit compute the right answer?
- Software verification: does this program compute the right answer?
- Software synthesis: what program computes the right answer?
- Protocol verification: can this security protocol be broken?
- Protocol synthesis: what protocol is secure for this task?
- Planning: how can I eat all the dots???


## A knowledge-based agent

function KB-AGENT(percept) returns an action persistent: KB, a knowledge base
t , an integer, initially 0
TELL(KB, MAKE-PERCEPT-SENTENCE(percept, t)) action $\leftarrow \operatorname{ASK}(K B, M A K E-A C T I O N-Q U E R Y(t))$ TELL(KB, MAKE-ACTION-SENTENCE(action, t)) $\mathrm{t} \leftarrow \mathrm{t}+1$ return action

## Example: Partially observable Pacman

- Pacman has to act given only local perception
- Four Boolean percept variables for wall in each direction
- What knowledge does he need to begin with?
- Sensor model: sentences stating how the current percept variables are determined by the current state variables
- Transition model: sentences stating how the next-state variables are determined by the current state variables and Pacman's action
- Initial conditions: what Pacman knows about the initial state
- Domain constraints: what is generally true, e.g., Pacman can do one thing at a time and be in one place at a time


## Pacman variables

- Pacman's location
- At_1,1_0 (Pacman is at $[1,1]$ at time 0 ) At_3,3_4 etc
- Wall locations (these do not change with time)
- Wall_0,0 Wall_0,1 etc
- Percepts
- Blocked_W_0 (blocked by wall to my West at time 0) etc.
- Actions
- W_0 (Pacman moves West at time 0), E_0 etc.
- NxN world for T time steps $=>\mathrm{N}^{2} \mathrm{~T}+\mathrm{N}^{2}+4 \mathrm{~T}+4 \mathrm{~T}=\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{N}^{2} \mathrm{~T}\right)$ variables
- $2^{\mathrm{N}^{2} \mathrm{~T}}$ possible worlds! $\mathrm{N}=10, \mathrm{~T}=100=>10^{3010}$ worlds (each a "history")


## Sensor model

- State facts about how Pacman's percepts arise...
- Pacman perceives a wall to the West at time $t$ if and only if he is in $x, y$ and there is a wall at $x-1, y$....

- Blocked_W_0 $\Leftrightarrow$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& ((\text { At_1,1_0 } \wedge \text { Wall_0,1) } v \\
& (\text { At_1,2_0 } \wedge \text { Wall_0,2 }) ~ \\
& (\text { At_1,3_0 } \wedge \text { Wall_0,3 }) \vee . . . . ~)
\end{aligned}
$$

How many of these sentences?

## Quiz

- What is wrong with sentences like
- At_1,1_0 ^ Wall_0,1 $\Rightarrow$ Blocked_W_0
- If you are at $[1,1]$ at time 0 and there is a wall in $[0,1]$, the west percept is blocked
- True but incomplete!
- They say "under these conditions the percept variable is true"
- They don't say when it is false
- In particular, they allow for worlds where the percept is always true!!
- Unintended or non-standard models


## Transition model

- How does each state variable or fluent at each time gets its value?
- State variables for POPacman are At_x,y_t, e.g., At_3,3_17
- A state variable gets its value according to a successor-state axiom
- $\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{t}} \Leftrightarrow\left[\mathrm{X}_{\mathrm{t}-1} \wedge \neg\right.$ (some action $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{t}-1}$ made it false) $] \mathrm{v}$
$\left[\neg X_{\mathrm{t}-1} \wedge\right.$ (some action $\mathrm{n}_{\mathrm{t}-1}$ made it true)]
- For Pacman location:
- At_3,3_17 $\Leftrightarrow[$ At_3,3_16 $\wedge \neg((\neg$ Wall_3,4 ^ N_16) v $(\neg$ Wall_4,3 $\wedge$ E_16) v ... $)]$ v [ $\neg$ At_3,3_16^((At_3,2_16^ $\wedge$ Wall_3,3^N_16) v

$$
\text { (At_2,3_16 ^ }- \text { Wall_3,3 ^ N_16) v ...)] }
$$

## Initial state

- Pacman may know its initial location:
- At_1,1_0 ^ ᄀAt_1,2_0 ^ ᄀAt_1,3_0 ....
- Or, it may not:
- At_1,1_0 v At_1,2_0 v At_1,3_0 v ... v At_3,3_0
- We also need a domain constraint - exactly one thing at a time
- $\neg\left(W \_0 \wedge E \_0\right) \wedge \neg\left(W \_0 \wedge S \_0\right) \wedge . .$.
- $\neg\left(W \_1 \wedge E \_1\right) \wedge \neg\left(W \_1 \wedge S \_1\right) \wedge . .$.
- ... ^(W_0 v E_0 v N_0 v S_0) ^...


## State estimation

- State estimation means keeping track of what's true now
- A logical agent can just ask itself!
- E.g., ask whether $K B \wedge$ <actions> $\wedge<$ percepts> |= Wall_2,2
- This is "lazy": it involves reasoning about one's whole life history at each step!
- A more "eager" form of state estimation:
- After each action and percept
- For each state variable $X_{t}$
- If $X_{t}$ is entailed, add to KB
- If $\neg X_{t}$ is entailed, add to $K B$


## Planning as satisfiability

- Given a hyper-efficient SAT solver, can we use it to make plans?
- Yes, for fully observable, deterministic case:
- planning problem is solvable iff there is some satisfying assignment
- solution obtained from truth values of action variables
- For $T=1$ to infinity, set up the KB as follows and run SAT solver:
- Initial state, domain constraints
- Transition model sentences up to time T
- Goal is true at time T
- Read off action variables from solution




## Summary

- One possible agent architecture: knowledge + inference
- Logics provide a formal way to encode knowledge
- A logic is defined by: syntax, set of possible worlds, truth condition
- Logical inference computes entailment relations among sentences
- SAT solvers based on DPLL provide incredibly efficient inference
- Logical agents can construct plans by asking whether there is a future in which the goal is achieved

