

CSCI 5582

Artificial Intelligence

Lecture 12
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Today 10/10

- Finish FOL
 - FW and BW chaining
- Limitations of truth conditional logic
- Break
- Basic probability

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Inference

- Inference in FOL involves showing that some sentence is true, given a current knowledge-base, by exploiting the semantics of FOL to create a new knowledge-base that contains the sentence in which we are interested.

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Inference Methods

- Proof as *Generic Search*
- Proof by *Modus Ponens*
 - Forward Chaining
 - Backward Chaining
- Resolution
- Model Checking

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Generic Search

- **States** are snapshots of the KB
- **Operators** are the rules of inference
- **Goal test** is finding the sentence you're seeking
 - I.e. Goal states are KBs that contain the sentence (or sentences) you're seeking

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Example

- Harry is a hare *Hare(Harry)*
- Tom is a tortoise *Tortoise(Tom)*
- Hares outrun tortoises
$$\forall x, y Hare(x) \wedge Tortoise(y) \rightarrow Outruns(x, y)$$
- Harry outruns Tom?

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Tom and Harry

- **And introduction**
 $Harry(Hare) \wedge Tortoise(Tom)$
- **Universal elimination**
 $Hare(Harry) \wedge Tortoise(Tom) \rightarrow Outruns(Harry, Tom)$
- **Modus ponens**
 $Outruns(Harry, Tom)$

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What's wrong?

- The branching factor caused by the number of operators is huge
- It's a blind (undirected) search

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So...

- So a reasonable method needs to control the branching factor and find a way to guide the search...
- Focus on the first one first

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Forward Chaining

- When a new fact p is added to the KB
 - For each rule such that p unifies with part of the premise
 - If all the other premises are known
 - Then add consequent to the KB

This is a data-driven method.

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Backward Chaining

- When a query q is asked
 - If a matching q' is found return substitution list
 - Else For each rule whose consequent matches q , attempt to prove each antecedent by backward chaining

This is a goal-directed method. And it's the basis for Prolog.

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Backward Chaining

1. $Tortoise(x) \wedge Slug(y) \rightarrow Faster(x, y)$

2. $Slimy(z) \wedge Creeps(z) \rightarrow Slug(z)$

3. $Tortoise(Tom)$

4. $Slimy(Steve)$

5. $Creeps(Steve)$

Is Tom faster than someone?

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Notes

- Backward chaining is not abduction; we are not inferring antecedents from consequents.
- The fact that you can't prove something by these methods doesn't mean it's false. It just means you can't prove it.

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Review

- Where we are...
 - Agents can use search to find useful actions based on looking into the future
 - Agents can use logic to complement search to represent and reason about
 - Unseen parts of the current environment
 - Past environments
 - Future environments
 - And they can play a mean game of chess

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Where we aren't

- Agents can't
 - Deal well with uncertain situations (not clear people are all that great at this)
 - Learn
 - See, speak, hear, move, or feel

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Problems with Logic

- Monotonicity
- Modularity
- Abduction

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Monotonicity

- Some of the problems we noted stemmed from the notion of monotonicity.
 - Once something is true it has to stay true

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Monotonicity

- Within a truth-conditional logic there are three ways to deal with this.
 - Make sure you never assert anything that will need to change its truth value
 - Allow things to change but provide a way to roll back the state of the knowledge-base to what it was before
 - This is known as truth-maintenance
 - Allow complex state representations (agent in location x at time y)

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Modularity

- Two kinds
 - Locality
 - Detachment
- These make logic work; they're not really consistent with uncertain reasoning

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Modularity

- **Detachment** means that you don't need to care about how you came to know that A is true to use modus ponens to conclude B.
- **Locality** means that you don't care what else is going on in the KB. As long as you know those two facts you can conclude B.

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Abduction

- **Abduction** means concluding things about antecedents given knowledge of consequents.

B

$A \rightarrow B$

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Abduction

- You see a car coming down the mountain with snow on its roof.
- Did it snow in the foothills last night?

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Illustrative Example

- You know
 - Meningitis -> Stiff necks
 - Stiff neck -> Car accident
- Patient says they've been in a car accident
 - What does a backward chainer say?
- Diagnostic test says a patient has meningitis
 - What does a forward chainer say?

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Example

- Well you can restrict the kb
 - All causal or all diagnostic rules
 - Meningitis -> Stiff Neck
 - Car accident -> Stiff Neck
 - Or
 - Stiff Neck -> Meningitis
 - Stiff Neck -> Car accident

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Example

- But that precludes a useful form of bi-directional reasoning (**explaining away**)

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Bidirectional Inference

- I tell you I sort of have **a stiff neck**
 - What happens to your belief in...
 - The idea I was in a car accident?
 - The idea I have meningitis?
- Now I tell you I was in **a car accident**
 - What happens to your belief in...
 - The idea that I really do have a stiff neck?
 - The idea I have meningitis?

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So

- Formally, what you just did was
 - You know
 - $A \rightarrow B$
 - $A \rightarrow C$
 - I told you C
 - Your belief in A went up
 - Your belief in B went down

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Basic Probability

- Syntax and Semantics
 - Syntax is easy
 - Semantics can be messy

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Exercise

- You go to the doctor and for insurance reasons they perform a test for a horrible disease
- You test positive
- The doctor says the test is 99% accurate
- Do you worry?

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An Exercise

- It depends; let's say...
 - The disease occurs 1 in 10000 folks
 - And that the 99% means that 99 times out a 100 when you give the test to someone without the disease it will return negative
 - And that when you have the disease it always says you are positive
 - Do you worry?

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An Exercise

- The test's **false positive rate** is 1/100
- Only 1/10000 people have the disease
- If you gave the test to 10000 random people you would have
 - 100 false positives
 - 1 true positive
- Do you worry?

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An Exercise

- Do you worry?
 - Yes, I always worry
 - Yes, my chances of having the disease are 100x they were before I went to the doctor
 - Went from 1/10000 to 1/100 (approx)
 - No, I live with a lot of other 1/100 bad things without worrying

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Another Example

- You hear on the news...
 - People who attend grad school to get a masters degree have a 10x increased chance of contracting schistosomiasis
- Do you worry?
 - Depends on where you go to grad school

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Break

- HW Questions?

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Break

- HW Questions?
 - How to represent facts you know to be true (so we guarantee they have the right value in satisfying models)?

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Break

- HW Questions?
 - How to represent facts you know to be true (so we guarantee they have the right value in satisfying models).
 - WalkSat as implemented will flip the values of these known facts.
 - Is that a problem?
 - If so how to fix it.

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Back to Basics

- Prior (or unconditional) probability
 - Written as $P(A)$
 - For now think of A as a proposition that can turn out to be True or False
 - $P(A)$ is your belief that A is true given that you know nothing else relevant to A

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Also

- Just as with logic we can create complex sentences with a partially compositional semantics (sort of)...

$$P(A \wedge B), P(A \vee B), P(\neg A \vee B) \dots$$

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Basics

- Conditional (or posterior) probabilities
- Written as $P(A|B)$
- Pronounced as the probability of A given B
- Think of it as your belief in A given that you know absolutely that B is true.

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And

- $P(A|B)$... your belief in A given that you know B is true
- **AND** B is **all** you know that is relevant to A

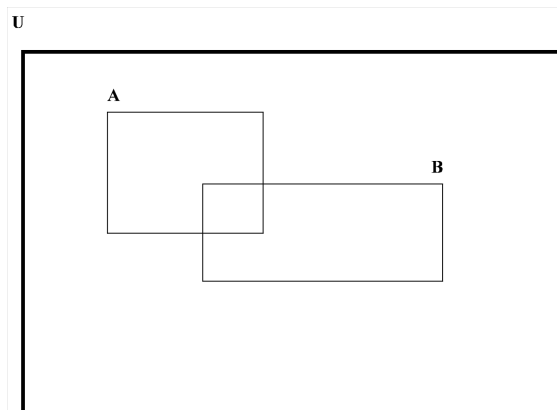
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Conditionals Defined

- Conditionals $P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \wedge B)}{P(B)}$
- Rearranging $P(A \wedge B) = P(A|B)P(B)$
- And also $P(A \wedge B) = P(B|A)P(A)$

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Conditionals Defined



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Inference

- Inference means updating your beliefs as evidence comes in
 - $P(A)$... belief in A given that you know nothing else of relevance
 - $P(A|B)$... belief in A once you know B and nothing else relevant
 - $P(A|B \wedge C)$ belief in A once you know B and C and nothing else relevant

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Also

- What you'd expect... we can have $P(A|B \wedge C)$ or $P(A \wedge D|E)$ or $P(A \wedge B|C \wedge D)$ etc...

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Joint Semantics

- Joint probability distribution... the equivalent of truth tables in logic
- Given a complete truth table you can answer any question you want
- Given the joint probability distribution over N variables you can answer any question you might want to that involve those variables

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Joint Semantics

- With logic you don't need the truth table; you can use inference methods and compositional semantics
 - I.e if I know the truth values for A and B , I can retrieve the value of $A \wedge B$
- With probability, you need the joint to do inference unless you're willing to make some assumptions

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Joint

	Toothache=True	Toothache=False
Cavity True	0.04	0.06
Cavity False	0.01	0.89

- What's the probability of having a cavity and a toothache?
- What's the probability of having a toothache?
- What's the probability of not having a cavity?
- What's the probability of having a toothache or a cavity?

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Note

- Adding up across a row is really a form of reasoning by cases...
- Consider calculating $P(\text{Cavity})$...
 - We know that in this world you either have a toothache or you don't. I.e. toothaches **partition** the world.
 - So...

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Partitioning

$$P(\text{Cavity}) = P(\text{Cavity} \wedge \text{Toothache}) \\ + P(\text{Cavity} \wedge \neg \text{Toothache})$$

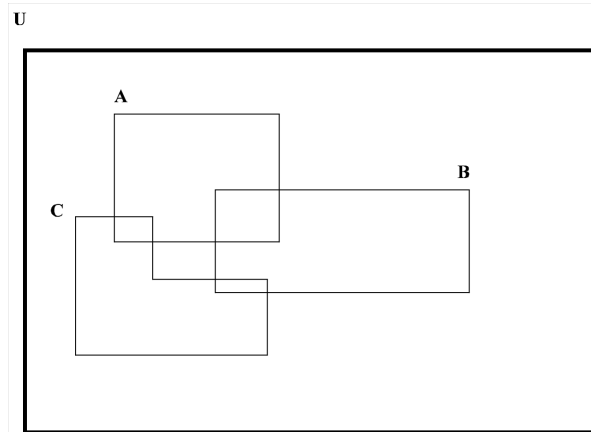
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Combining Evidence

- Suppose you know the values for
 - $P(A|B)=0.2$
 - $P(A|C)=0.05$
 - Then you learn B is true
 - What's your belief in A?
 - Then you learn C is true
 - What's your belief in A?

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Combining Evidence



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Details...

- Where do all the numbers come from?
 - Mostly counting
 - Sometimes theory
 - Sometimes guessing
 - Sometimes all of the above

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Numbers

- $P(A)$
$$\frac{\text{Count}(\text{All } A\text{s})}{\text{Count}(\text{All Events})}$$
- $P(A \wedge B)$
$$\frac{\text{Count}(\text{All } A \text{ and } B \text{ together})}{\text{Count}(\text{All Events})}$$
- $P(A|B)$
$$\frac{\text{Count}(\text{All } A \text{ and } B \text{ Together})}{\text{Count}(\text{All } B\text{s})}$$

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Bayes

- We know...
$$P(A \wedge B) = P(A | B)P(B)$$

and

$$P(A \wedge B) = P(B | A)P(A)$$
- So rearranging things
$$P(A | B)P(B) = P(B | A)P(A)$$
$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(B | A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

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Bayes

- Memorize this

$$P(A | B) = \frac{P(B | A)P(A)}{P(B)}$$

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Bayesian Diagnosis

- Given a set of symptoms choose the best disease (the disease most likely to give rise to those symptoms)
- I.e. Choose the disease the gives the highest $P(\text{Disease} | \text{Symptoms})$ for all possible diseases
- But you probably can't assess that...
- So maximize this...

$$P(\text{Disease} | \text{Symptoms}) = \frac{P(\text{Symptoms} | \text{Disease})P(\text{Disease})}{P(\text{Symptoms})}$$

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Meningitis

$$P(S | M) = 0.5$$

$$P(M) = 0.00002$$

$$P(S) = 0.05$$

so....

$$P(M | S) = \frac{P(S | M)P(M)}{P(S)}$$

$$= \frac{0.5 * 0.00002}{0.05}$$

$$= 0.0002$$

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Well

- What if you needed the exact probability

$$\begin{aligned} P(S) &= P(S \wedge M) + P(S \wedge \neg M) \\ &= P(S | M)P(M) + P(S | \neg M)P(\neg M) \end{aligned}$$

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