15-780: Graduate AI *Lecture 3. Logic and SAT*

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Admin

HW1 out today!
On course website
Due Thu 10/4
Reminder: Matlab tutorial today
NSH 1507, 5PM

Working together

- Working together on HW, looking on web, etc.: great idea!
 - but each person must write up and submit his/her own solution, without reference to written/electronic materials from web or other students
- Last year's HWs are on course web site

Late policy

 If you need to hand a HW in late: contact us before due date

- Unless agreed otherwise, HW is worth 75% credit up to 24 hrs late, 50% credit up to 48 hrs late, 0% credit afterwards
- Even if for 0% credit, must hand in all assignments to pass



Review

Topics covered

- C-space
- Ways of splitting up C-space
 - Visibility graph
 - Voronoi
- Exact, approximate cell decomposition
 Adaptive cells (quadtree, parti-game)
 RRTs

8/15 puzzle applet



http://www.cs.ualberta.ca/~aixplore/search/IDA/Applet/SearchApplet.html



Project ideas



Poker

- Minimax strategy for heads-up poker = solving linear program
- 1-card hands, 13-card deck: 52 vars, <u>instantaneous</u>
- RI Hold'Em: ~1,000,000 vars
 2 weeks / 30GB (exact sol, CPLEX)
 40 min / 1.5GB (approx sol)
 TX Hold'Em: ??? (up to 10¹⁷ vars or so)

ScrabbleTM

 Can buy a hand-tweaked, very good computer Scrabble player for \$30 or so
 Can we learn to beat it?

Learning models for control

- Most of this course, we'll assume we have a good model of the world when we're trying to plan
- Usually not true in practice—must learn it
- Project: learn a model for an interesting system, write a planner for learned model, make planner work on original system

Learning models for control

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• R/C car

Learning models for control



• Model airplane

Citation

 "Using Inaccurate Models in Reinforcement Learning." Pieter Abbeel, Morgan Quigley, Andrew Y. Ng
 <u>http://www.icml2006.org/icml_documents/</u>

camera-ready/001 Using Inaccurate Mod.pdf



Logic

Why logic?

- Search: for problems like 8-puzzle, can write compact description of rules
- Reasoning: figure out consequences of the knowledge we've given our agent
- Foreshadowing: logical inference is a special case of probabilistic inference (Part II)

Propositional logic

Constants: T or F
Variables: x, y (values T or F)
Connectives: ∧, ∨, ¬
Can get by w/ just NAND
Sometimes also add others: ⊕, ⇒, ⇔, …



George Boole 1815–1864

Propositional logic

- Build up expressions like $\neg x \Rightarrow y$
- Precedence: \neg , \land , \lor , \Rightarrow
- Terminology: variable or constant with or w/o negation = literal
- Whole thing = formula or sentence

Expressive variable names

 Rather than variable names like x, y, may use names like "rains" or "happy(John)"

 For now, "happy(John)" is just a string with no internal structure

• there is no "John"

• $happy(John) \Rightarrow \neg happy(Jack)$ means the same as $x \Rightarrow \neg y$

But what does it mean?

- A formula defines a mapping

 (assignment to variables) → {T, F}

 Assignment to variables = model
- For example, formula ¬x yields mapping:



More truth tables

x	y	$x \wedge y$
T	T	
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

Called the state of the state o

x	y	$x \lor y$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	
F	F	F

Truth table for implication

- $(a \Rightarrow b)$ is logically equivalent to $(\neg a \lor b)$
- If a is True, b must be True too
- If a False, no requirement on b
- E.g., "if I go to the movie I will have popcorn": if no movie, may or may not have popcorn

a	b	$a \Rightarrow b$
Т	T	T
T	F	F
F		T
F	F	T

Complex formulas

- To evaluate a bigger formula
 - $(x \lor y) \land (x \lor \neg y)$ when x = F, y = F
- Build a parse tree
- Fill in variables at leaves using model
- Work upwards using truth tables for connectives





Bigger truth tables

A CONTRACT OF A

x	y	Z	$ (x \lor y) \Rightarrow z$
T	Т	T	
T	T	F	
T	F	T	
T	F	F	
F	T	T	
F	T	F	
F	F	T	
F	F	F	



Definitions

Two sentences are equivalent, A ≡ B, if they have same truth value in every model
(rains ⇒ pours) ≡ (¬rains ∨ pours)
reflexive, transitive, commutative
Simplifying = transforming a formula into a shorter*, equivalent formula

Transformation rules

 $(\alpha \land \beta) \equiv (\beta \land \alpha) \quad \text{commutativity of } \land \\ (\alpha \lor \beta) \equiv (\beta \lor \alpha) \quad \text{commutativity of } \lor \\ ((\alpha \land \beta) \land \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \land (\beta \land \gamma)) \quad \text{associativity of } \land \\ ((\alpha \lor \beta) \lor \gamma) \equiv (\alpha \lor (\beta \lor \gamma)) \quad \text{associativity of } \lor \\ \neg (\neg \alpha) \equiv \alpha \quad \text{double-negation elimination} \end{cases}$

 $(\alpha \land (\beta \lor \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \land \beta) \lor (\alpha \land \gamma)) \quad \text{distributivity of } \land \text{ over } \lor \\ (\alpha \lor (\beta \land \gamma)) \equiv ((\alpha \lor \beta) \land (\alpha \lor \gamma)) \quad \text{distributivity of } \lor \text{ over } \land \\ \alpha, \beta, \gamma \text{ are arbitrary formulas}$

More rules

 $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \beta \Rightarrow \neg \alpha) \text{ contraposition}$ $(\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \lor \beta) \text{ implication elimination}$ $(\alpha \Leftrightarrow \beta) \equiv ((\alpha \Rightarrow \beta) \land (\beta \Rightarrow \alpha)) \text{ biconditional elimination}$ $\neg(\alpha \land \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \lor \neg \beta) \text{ de Morgan}$ $\neg(\alpha \lor \beta) \equiv (\neg \alpha \land \neg \beta) \text{ de Morgan}$

 α , β are arbitrary formulas

Still more rules...

... can be derived from truth tables
For example:
(a ∨ ¬a) = True
(True ∨ a) = True
(False ∧ a) = False





Normal forms

- A normal form is a standard way of writing a formula
- E.g., conjunctive normal form (CNF)
 conjunction of disjunctions of literals
 - $\circ \ (x \lor y \lor \neg z) \land (x \lor \neg y) \land (z)$
 - Each disjunct called a clause
- Any formula can be transformed into CNF w/o changing meaning

CNF cont'd

happy(John) ∧
(¬happy(Bill) ∨ happy(Sue)) ∧
man(Socrates) ∧
(¬man(Socrates) ∨ mortal(Socrates))

Often used for storage of knowledge database
called knowledge base or KB
Can add new clauses as we find them out
Each clause in KB is separately true (if KB is)

Another normal form: DNF

- DNF = disjunctive normal form = disjunction of conjunctions of literals
- Doesn't compose the way CNF does: can't just add new conjuncts w/o changing meaning of KB
- Example:

(rains ∨ ¬pours) ∧ fishing ≡ (rains ∧ fishing) ∨ (¬pours ∧ fishing)
Transforming to CNF or DNF

Naive algorithm:
replace all connectives with ∧∨¬
move negations inward using De Morgan's laws and double-negation
repeatedly distribute over ∧ over ∨ for DNF (∨ over ∧ for CNF)

Example

• Put the following formula in CNF

$(a \lor b \lor \neg c) \land \neg (d \lor (e \land f)) \land (c \lor d \lor e)$

Example

• Now try DNF

$(a \lor b \lor \neg c) \land \neg (d \lor (e \land f)) \land (c \lor d \lor e)$

Discussion

- Problem with naive algorithm: it's exponential! (Space, time, size of result.)
- Each use of distributivity can almost double the size of a subformula

A smarter transformation

- Can we avoid exponential blowup in CNF?
- Yes, if we're willing to introduce new variables
- G. Tseitin. On the complexity of derivation in propositional calculus. Studies in Constrained Mathematics and Mathematical Logic, 1968.

Example

• Put the following formula in CNF:

$(a \land b) \lor (c \land d)$



Proofs

Entailment

Sentence A entails sentence B, A ⊨ B, if B is True in every model where A is
same as saying that (A ⇒ B) is valid

Proof tree

- A tree with a formula at each node
- At each internal node, children \vDash parent
- Leaves: assumptions or premises
- Root: consequence
- If we believe assumptions, we should also believe consequence

Proof tree example

rains => pours pours noutside => rusty rains outside

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Proof tree example

rains => pours => Fpours pours noutside => rusty rains outside

Proof tree example

rains => pours => Four pours noutside => rusty rains outside

Proof by contradiction

- Assume opposite of what we want to prove, show it leads to a contradiction
- Suppose we want to show $KB \vDash S$
- Write KB' for $(KB \land \neg S)$
- Build a proof tree with
 - assumptions drawn from clauses of KB'
 - \circ conclusion = F
 - so, $(KB \land \neg S) \models F$ (contradiction)

Proof by contradiction

rains => pours pours ~ outside => rusty rains outside יינייין ד Cregation of desired

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Proof by contradiction

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Inference

rules

Inference rule

- To make a proof tree, we need to be able to figure out new formulas entailed by KB
- Method for finding entailed formulas = inference rule
- We've implicitly been using one already

Modus ponens

 $\frac{(a \land b \land c \Rightarrow d) \ a \ b \ c}{d}$

- Probably most famous inference rule: all men are mortal, Socrates is a man, therefore Socrates is mortal
- Quantifier-free version:
 man(Socrates) ∧
 (man(Socrates) ⇒ mortal(Socrates))

Another inference rule

 $\frac{(a \Rightarrow b) \neg b}{}$ $\neg a$

• Modus tollens

• If it's raining the grass is wet; the grass is not wet, so it's not raining

One more...

 $(a \lor b \lor c) (\neg c \lor d \lor e)$ avbvdve

- Resolution
- Combines two sentences that contain a literal and its negation
- Not as commonly known as modus ponens / tollens

Resolution example

Modus ponens / tollens are special cases
Modus tollens:
(¬raining ∨ grass-wet) ∧ ¬grass-wet ⊨ ¬raining

 $(a \lor b \lor c) (\neg c \lor d \lor e)$ avbvdve

- Simple proof by case analysis
- Consider separately cases where we assign c = True and c = False

$(a \lor b \lor c) \land (\neg c \lor d \lor e)$

• Case c = True $(a \lor b \lor T) \land (F \lor d \lor e)$ $= (T) \land (d \lor e)$ $= (d \lor e)$

$(a \lor b \lor c) \land (\neg c \lor d \lor e)$

• Case c = False $(a \lor b \lor F) \land (T \lor d \lor e)$ $= (a \lor b) \land (T)$ $= (a \lor b)$

$(a \lor b \lor c) \land (\neg c \lor d \lor e)$

Since c must be True or False, conclude (d v e) v (a v b) as desired





Theorem prover

- Theorem prover = mechanical system for finding a proof tree
- An application of search techniques from earlier lecture
 - Search node = KB (including whatever we've proven so far)

• Neighbor: $(KB \land S)$ if $KB \models S$

A basic theorem prover

- Given KB, want to conclude S
- Let $KB' = CNF(KB \land \neg S)$
- Repeat:
 - add new clause to KB' using resolution
- Until we add empty clause (False) and conclude $KB \models S$
- Or run out of new clauses and conclude $KB \nvDash S$

Soundness and completeness

 An inference procedure is sound if it can only conclude things entailed by KB

 common sense; haven't discussed anything unsound

• A set of rules is **complete** if it can conclude everything entailed by KB

Completeness

- Theorem provers based on modus ponens by itself are incomplete
- Simple resolution theorem prover from above is complete for propositional logic

Variations

- Horn clause inference (faster)
- Ways of handling uncertainty (slower)
- CSPs (sometimes more convenient)
- Quantifiers / first-order logic

Later

Horn clauses

- Horn clause: $(a \land b \land c \Rightarrow d)$
- Equivalently, $(\neg a \lor \neg b \lor \neg c \lor d)$
- Disjunction of literals, at most one of which is positive
- Positive literal = head, rest = body

Use of Horn clauses

 People find it easy to write Horn clauses (listing out conditions under which we can conclude head)

happy(John) ∧ *happy(Mary)* ⇒ *happy(Sue)*

 No negative literals in above formula; again, easier to think about

Why are Horn clauses important

• Inference in a KB of propositional Horn clauses is linear

• E.g., by forward chaining

Forward chaining

 Look for a clause with all body literals satisfied

• Add its head to KB

• Repeat

• See RN for more details

Handling uncertainty

Fuzzy logic / certainty factors

simple, but don't scale

Nonmonotonic logic

also doesn't scale

Probabilities

may or may not scale—more in Part II
Certainty factors

- KB assigns a certainty factor in [0, 1] to each proposition
- Interpret as "degree of belief"
- When applying an inference rule, certainty factor for consequent is a function of certainty factors for antecedents (e.g., minimum)

Problems w/ certainty factors

- Hard to separate a large KB into mostlyindependent chunks that interact only through a well-defined interface
- Certainty factors are not probabilities (i.e., do not obey Bayes' Rule)

 Suppose we believe all birds can fly
 Might add a set of sentences to KB bird(Polly) ⇒ flies(Polly)
 bird(Tweety) ⇒ flies(Tweety)
 bird(Tux) ⇒ flies(Tux)
 bird(John) ⇒ flies(John)

. . .

Fails if there are penguins in the KB
Fix: instead, add
bird(Polly) ∧ ¬ab(Polly) ⇒ flies(Polly)
bird(Tux) ∧ ¬ab(Tux) ⇒ flies(Tux)

ab(Tux) is an "abnormality predicate" Need separate ab_i(x) for each type of rule

- Now set as few abnormality predicates as possible
- Can prove flies(Polly) or flies(Tux) with no ab(x) assumptions
- If we assert ¬flies(Tux), must now assume ab(Tux) to maintain consistency
- Can't prove flies(Tux) any more, but can still prove flies(Polly)

 Works well as long as we don't have to choose between big sets of abnormalities

 is it better to have 3 flightless birds or 5 professors that don't wear jackets with elbow-patches?

 even worse with nested abnormalities: birds fly, but penguins don't, but superhero penguins do, but ...



Definitions

- A sentence is satisfiable if it is True in some model
- If not satisfiable, it is a contradiction (False in every model)
- A sentence is valid if it is True in every model (a valid sentence is a tautology)

Satisfiability

- SAT is the problem of determining whether a given propositional logic sentence is satisfiable
- A decision problem: given an instance, answer yes or no
- A fundamental problem in CS

SAT is a search problem

• (At least) two ways to write it

- search nodes are (full or partial) models, neighbors differ in assignment for a single variable
- search nodes are formulas, neighbors by entailment
- And hybrids (node = model + formula)

SAT is a general search problem

- Many other search problems reduce to SAT
- Informally, if we can solve SAT, can solve these other problems
- So a good SAT solver is a good AI building block

Example search problem



3-coloring: can we color a map using only
 3 colors in a way that keeps neighboring
 regions from being the same color?

Reduction

- Loosely, "A reduces to B" means that if we can solve B then we can solve A
- More formally, A, B are decision problems (instances → truth values)
- A reduction is a poly-time function f such that, given an instance a of A
 - \circ f(a) is an instance of B, and
 - $\circ A(a) = B(f(a))$

Reduction picture Problem B Problem A All instances All instances

Reduction picture Problem B Problem A function f All instances All instances

Reduction picture Problem B Problem A All instances All instances

Example reduction



• Each square must be red, green, or blue

 Adjacent squares can't both be red (similarly, green or blue)

Example reduction

- $\circ (a_r \lor a_g \lor a_b) \land (b_r \lor b_g \lor b_b) \land (c_r \lor c_g \lor c_b) \land (d_r \lor d_g \lor d_b) \land (e_r \lor e_g \lor e_b) \land (z_r \lor z_g \lor z_b)$
- $\circ (\neg a_r \vee \neg b_r) \wedge (\neg a_g \vee \neg b_g) \wedge (\neg a_b \vee \neg b_b)$
- $\circ (\neg a_r \vee \neg z_r) \wedge (\neg a_g \vee \neg z_g) \wedge (\neg a_b \vee \neg z_b)$

0 ...

Search and reduction

 S. A. Cook in 1971 proved that many useful search problems reduce back and forth to SAT

 showed how to simulate poly-sizememory computer w/ (very complicated, but still poly-size) SAT problem

• Equivalently, SAT is exactly as hard (in theory at least) as these other problems

Cost of reduction

- Complexity theorists often ignore little things like constant factors (or even polynomial factors!)
- So, is it a good idea to reduce your search problem to SAT?
- Answer: sometimes...

Cost of reduction

- SAT is well studied \Rightarrow fast solvers
- So, if there is an efficient reduction, ability to use fast SAT solvers can be a win
 - e.g., 3-coloring
 - another example later (SATplan)
- Other times, cost of reduction is too high
 usu. because instance gets bigger
 will also see example later (MILP)

Choosing a reduction

 May be many reductions from problem A to problem B

• May have wildly different properties

 e.g., search on transformed instance may take seconds vs. days

Direction of reduction

If A reduces to B then
if we can solve B, we can solve A
so B must be at least as hard as A
Trivially, can take an easy problem and reduce it to a hard one

Not-so-useful reduction

- Path planning reduces to SAT
- Variables: is edge e in path?
- Constraints:
 - exactly 1 path-edge touches start
 exactly 1 path-edge touches goal
 either 0 or 2 touch each other node

Reduction to 3SAT

We saw that search problems can be reduced to SAT

is CNF formula satisfiable?

Can reduce even further, to 3SAT

is 3CNF formula satisfiable?

Useful if reducing SAT/3SAT to another

problem (to show other problem hard)

Reduction to 3SAT

- Must get rid of long clauses
- E.g., $(a \lor \neg b \lor c \lor d \lor e \lor \neg f)$

• Replace with

 $(a \lor \neg b \lor x) \land (\neg x \lor c \lor y) \land (\neg y \lor d \lor z) \land (\neg z \lor e \lor \neg f)$