

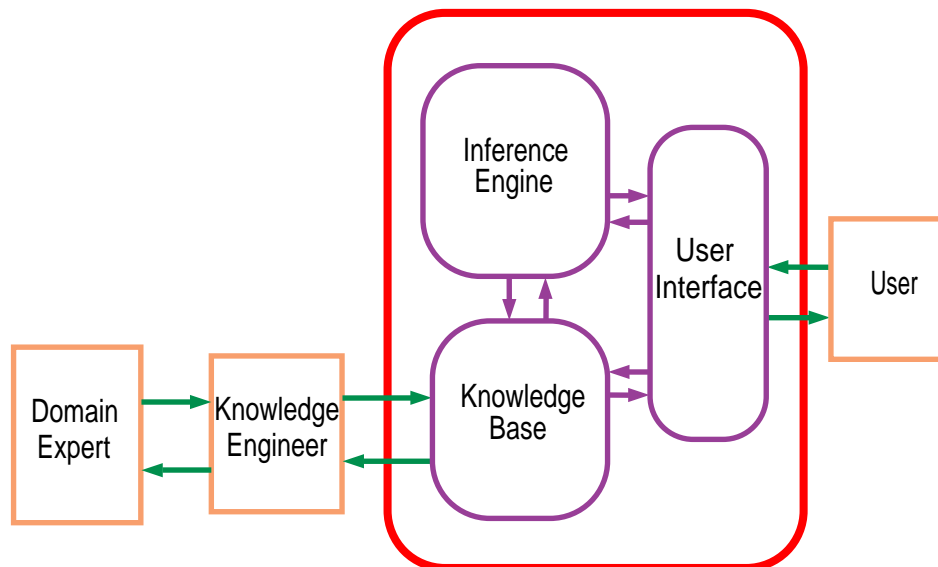
Knowledge Engineering

Overview:

- How representation and reasoning systems interact with humans.
- Roles of people involved in a RRS.
- Building RRSs using meta-interpreters.
- Knowledge-based interaction and debugging tools

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Knowledge-based system architecture



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Roles for people in a KBS

- **Software engineers** build the inference engine and user interface.
- **Knowledge engineers** design, build, and debug the knowledge base in consultation with domain experts.
- **Domain experts** know about the domain, but nothing about particular cases or how the system works.
- **Users** have problems for the system, know about particular cases, but not about how the system works or the domain.



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Implementing Knowledge-based Systems

To build an interpreter for a language, we need to distinguish

- **Base language** the language of the RRS being implemented.
- **Metalanguage** the language used to implement the system.

They could even be the same language!



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Implementing the base language

Let's use the definite clause language as the base language and the metalanguage.

- We need to represent the base-level constructs in the metalanguage.
- We represent base-level terms, atoms, and bodies as meta-level terms.
- We represent base-level clauses as meta-level facts.
- In the `non-ground representation` base-level variables are represented as meta-level variables.



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Representing the base level constructs

- Base-level atom $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$ is represented as the meta-level term $p(t_1, \dots, t_n)$.
- Meta-level term `oand(e_1, e_2)` denotes the conjunction of base-level bodies e_1 and e_2 .
- Meta-level constant `true` denotes the object-level empty body.
- The meta-level atom `clause(h, b)` is true if “ h if b ” is a clause in the base-level knowledge base.



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Example representation

The base-level clauses

$$\textit{connected_to}(l_1, w_0).$$

$$\textit{connected_to}(w_0, w_1) \leftarrow \textit{up}(s_2).$$

$$\textit{lit}(L) \leftarrow \textit{light}(L) \wedge \textit{ok}(L) \wedge \textit{live}(L).$$

can be represented as the meta-level facts

$$\textit{clause}(\textit{connected_to}(l_1, w_0), \textit{true}).$$

$$\textit{clause}(\textit{connected_to}(w_0, w_1), \textit{up}(s_2)).$$

$$\textit{clause}(\textit{lit}(L), \textit{oand}(\textit{light}(L), \textit{oand}(\textit{ok}(L), \textit{live}(L)))).$$


Making the representation pretty

- Use the infix function symbol “&” rather than *oand*.
 - instead of writing $\textit{oand}(e_1, e_2)$, you write $e_1 \& e_2$.
- Instead of writing $\textit{clause}(h, b)$ you can write $h \Leftarrow b$, where \Leftarrow is an infix meta-level predicate symbol.
 - Thus the base-level clause “ $h \leftarrow a_1 \wedge \dots \wedge a_n$ ” is represented as the meta-level atom

$$h \Leftarrow a_1 \& \dots \& a_n.$$



Example representation

The base-level clauses

$$\textit{connected_to}(l_1, w_0).$$

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$$\textit{lit}(L) \leftarrow \textit{light}(L) \wedge \textit{ok}(L) \wedge \textit{live}(L).$$

can be represented as the meta-level facts

$$\textit{connected_to}(l_1, w_0) \Leftarrow \textit{true}.$$

$$\textit{connected_to}(w_0, w_1) \Leftarrow \textit{up}(s_2).$$

$$\textit{lit}(L) \Leftarrow \textit{light}(L) \& \textit{ok}(L) \& \textit{live}(L).$$


Vanilla Meta-interpreter

$\textit{prove}(G)$ is true when base-level body G is a logical consequence of the base-level KB.

$$\textit{prove}(\textit{true}).$$

$$\textit{prove}((A \& B)) \leftarrow$$

$$\textit{prove}(A) \wedge$$

$$\textit{prove}(B).$$

$$\textit{prove}(H) \leftarrow$$

$$(H \Leftarrow B) \wedge$$

$$\textit{prove}(B).$$


Example base-level KB

$live(W) \Leftarrow$
 $connected_to(W, W_1) \ \&$
 $live(W_1).$
 $live(outside) \Leftarrow true.$
 $connected_to(w_6, w_5) \Leftarrow ok(cb_2).$
 $connected_to(w_5, outside) \Leftarrow true.$
 $ok(cb_2) \Leftarrow true.$
 $?prove(live(w_6)).$

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Expanding the base-level

Adding clauses increases what can be proved.

- Disjunction Let $a; b$ be the base-level representation for the disjunction of a and b . Body $a; b$ is true when a is true, or b is true, or both a and b are true.
- Built-in predicates You can add built-in predicates such as N is E that is true if expression E evaluates to number N .

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Expanded meta-interpreter

$prove(true).$
 $prove((A \& B)) \leftarrow$
 $\quad prove(A) \wedge prove(B).$
 $prove((A; B)) \leftarrow prove(A).$
 $prove((A; B)) \leftarrow prove(B).$
 $prove((N \text{ is } E)) \leftarrow$
 $\quad N \text{ is } E.$
 $prove(H) \leftarrow$
 $\quad (H \leftarrow B) \wedge prove(B).$



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Depth-Bounded Search

- Adding conditions reduces what can be proved.

% $bprove(G, D)$ is true if G can be proved with a proof tree
 % of depth less than or equal to number D .

$bprove(true, D).$
 $bprove((A \& B), D) \leftarrow$
 $\quad bprove(A, D) \wedge bprove(B, D).$
 $bprove(H, D) \leftarrow$
 $\quad D \geq 0 \wedge D_1 \text{ is } D - 1 \wedge$
 $\quad (H \leftarrow B) \wedge bprove(B, D_1).$



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Delaying Goals

Some goals, rather than being proved, can be collected in a list.

- To delay subgoals with variables, in the hope that subsequent calls will ground the variables.
- To delay assumptions, so that you can collect assumptions that are needed to prove a goal.
- To create new rules that leave out intermediate steps.
- To reduce a set of goals to primitive predicates.



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Delaying Meta-interpreter

% `dprove(G, D0, D1)` is true if D_0 is an ending of list of
 % delayable atoms D_1 and $KB \wedge (D_1 - D_0) \models G$.

$dprove(true, D, D)$.

$dprove((A \& B), D_1, D_3) \leftarrow$

$dprove(A, D_1, D_2) \wedge dprove(B, D_2, D_3)$.

$dprove(G, D, [G|D]) \leftarrow delay(G)$.

$dprove(H, D_1, D_2) \leftarrow$

$(H \Leftarrow B) \wedge dprove(B, D_1, D_2)$.



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Example base-level KB

$live(W) \Leftarrow$

$connected_to(W, W_1) \&$

$live(W_1).$

$live(outside) \Leftarrow true.$

$connected_to(w_6, w_5) \Leftarrow ok(cb_2).$

$connected_to(w_5, outside) \Leftarrow ok(outside_connection).$

$delay(ok(X)).$

$?dprove(live(w_6), [], D).$

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Users

How can users provide knowledge when

- they don't know the internals of the system
- they aren't experts in the domain
- they don't know what information is relevant
- they don't know the syntax of the system
- but they have essential information about the particular case of interest?

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Querying the User

- The system can determine what information is relevant and ask the user for the particular information.
- A top-down derivation can determine what information is relevant. There are three types of goals:
 - Goals for which the user isn't expected to know the answer, so the system never asks.
 - Goals for which the user should know the answer, and for which they have not already provided an answer.
 - Goals for which the user has already provided an answer.



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Yes/No questions

- The simplest form of a question is a ground query.
- Ground queries require an answer of “yes” or “no”.
- The user is only asked a question if
 - the question is askable, and
 - the user hasn't previously answered the question.
- When the user has answered a question, the answer needs to be recorded.



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Ask-the-user meta-interpreter

% *aprove*(*G*) is true if *G* is a logical consequence of the
% base-level KB and yes/no answers provided by the user.

aprove(*true*).

aprove((*A* & *B*)) \leftarrow *aprove*(*A*) \wedge *aprove*(*B*).

aprove(*H*) \leftarrow *askable*(*H*) \wedge *answered*(*H*, *yes*).

aprove(*H*) \leftarrow

askable(*H*) \wedge *unanswered*(*H*) \wedge *ask*(*H*, *Ans*) \wedge

record(*answered*(*H*, *Ans*)) \wedge *Ans* = *yes*.

aprove(*H*) \leftarrow (*H* \Leftarrow *B*) \wedge *aprove*(*B*).

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Functional Relations

- You probably don't want to ask *?age*(*fred*, 0),
?age(*fred*, 1), *?age*(*fred*, 2), ...
- You probably want to ask for Fred's age once, and
succeed for queries for that age and fail for other queries.
- This exploits the fact that *age* is a functional relation.
- Relation *r*(*X*, *Y*) is functional if, for every *X* there
exists a unique *Y* such that *r*(*X*, *Y*) is true.

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Getting information from a user

- The user may not know the vocabulary that is expected by the knowledge engineer.
- Either:
 - The system designer provides a menu of items from which the user has to select the best fit.
 - The user can provide free-form answers. The system needs a large dictionary to map the responses into the internal forms expected by the system.

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More General Questions

Example: For the subgoal $p(a, X, f(Z))$ the user can be asked:

for which X, Z is $p(a, X, f(Z))$ true?

- Should users be expected to give all instances which are true, or should they give the instances one at a time, with the system prompting for new instances?

Example: For which S, C is $enrolled(S, C)$ true?

- Psychological issues are important.

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Reasking Questions

When should the system repeat or not ask a question?

| Example: | Query | Ask? | Response |
|----------|------------|------|-----------|
| | $?p(X)$ | yes | $p(f(Z))$ |
| | $?p(f(c))$ | no | |
| | $?p(a)$ | yes | yes |
| | $?p(X)$ | yes | no |
| | $?p(c)$ | no | |

Don't ask a question that is more specific than a query to which either a positive answer has already been given or the user has replied *no*.

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Delaying Asking the User

- Should the system ask the question as soon as it's encountered, or should it delay the goal until more variables are bound?
- Example consider query $?p(X) \& q(X)$, where $p(X)$ is askable.
 - If $p(X)$ succeeds for many instances of X and $q(X)$ succeeds for few (or no) instances of X it's better to delay asking $p(X)$.
 - If $p(X)$ succeeds for few instances of X and $q(X)$ succeeds for many instances of X , don't delay.

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Explanation

- The system must be able to justify that its answer is correct, particularly when it is giving advice to a human.
- The same features can be used for explanation and for debugging the knowledge base.
- There are three main mechanisms:
 - Ask HOW a goal was derived.
 - Ask WHYNOT a goal wasn't derived.
 - Ask WHY a subgoal is being proved.

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How did the system prove a goal?

- If g is derived, there must be a rule instance
$$g \Leftarrow a_1 \ \& \ \dots \ \& \ a_k.$$
where each a_i is derived.
- If the user asks HOW g was derived, the system can display this rule. The user can then ask
HOW i .
to give the rule that was used to prove a_i .
- The HOW command moves down the proof tree.

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Meta-interpreter that builds a proof tree

% *hprove*(*G*, *T*) is true if *G* can be proved from the base-level
% KB, with proof tree *T*.

hprove(*true*, *true*).

hprove((*A* & *B*), (*L* & *R*)) ←

hprove(*A*, *L*) ∧

hprove(*B*, *R*).

hprove(*H*, *if*(*H*, *T*)) ←

(*H* ⇐ *B*) ∧

hprove(*B*, *T*).

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Why Did the System Ask a Question?

It is useful to find out why a question was asked.

- Knowing why a question was asked will increase the user's confidence that the system is working sensibly.
- It helps the knowledge engineer optimize questions asked of the user.
- An irrelevant question can be a symptom of a deeper problem.
- The user may learn something from the system by knowing why the system is doing something.

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WHY question

- When the system asks the user a question g , the user can reply with
 WHY
- This gives the instance of the rule
 $h \Leftarrow \dots \& g \& \dots$
 that is being tried to prove h .
- When the user asks WHY again, it explains why h was proved.



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Meta-interpreter to collect rules for WHY

% $wprove(G, A)$ is true if G follows from base-level KB, and
 % A is a list of ancestor rules for G .

```

wprove(true, Anc).
wprove((A & B), Anc) ←
    wprove(A, Anc) ∧
    wprove(B, Anc).
wprove(H, Anc) ←
    (H ← B) ∧
    wprove(B, [(H ← B)|Anc]).
  
```



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Debugging Knowledge Bases

There are four types of nonsyntactic errors that can arise in rule-based systems:

- An incorrect answer is produced; that is, some atom that is false in the intended interpretation was derived.
- Some answer wasn't produced; that is, the proof failed when it should have succeeded, or some particular true atom wasn't derived.
- The program gets into an infinite loop.
- The system asks irrelevant questions.

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Debugging Incorrect Answers

- An **incorrect answer** is a derived answer which is false in the intended interpretation.
- An incorrect answer means a clause in the KB is false in the intended interpretation.
- If g is false in the intended interpretation, there is a proof for g using $g \leftarrow a_1 \& \dots \& a_k$. Either:
 - Some a_i is false: debug it.
 - All a_i are true. This rule is buggy.

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Debugging Missing Answers

- **WHYNOT g .** g fails when it should have succeeded.
Either:
 - There is an atom in a rule that succeeded with the wrong answer, use HOW to debug it.
 - There is an atom in a body that failed when it should have succeeded, debug it using WHYNOT.
 - There is a rule missing for g .

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Debugging Infinite Loops

- There is no automatic way to debug all such errors:
halting problem.
- There are many errors that can be detected:
 - If a subgoal is identical to an ancestor in the proof tree, the program is looping.
 - Define a well-founded ordering that is reduced each time through a loop.

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