

# Chapter 3: Methods of Inference

Expert Systems: Principles and  
Programming, Fourth Edition

# Objectives

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- Learn the definitions of trees, lattices, and graphs
- Learn about state and problem spaces
- Learn about AND-OR trees and goals
- Explore different methods and rules of inference
- Learn the characteristics of first-order predicate logic and logic systems

# Objectives

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- Discuss the resolution rule of inference, resolution systems, and deduction
- Compare shallow and causal reasoning
- How to apply resolution to first-order predicate logic
- Learn the meaning of forward and backward chaining

# Objectives

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- Explore additional methods of inference
- Learn the meaning of Metaknowledge
- Explore the Markov decision process

# Trees

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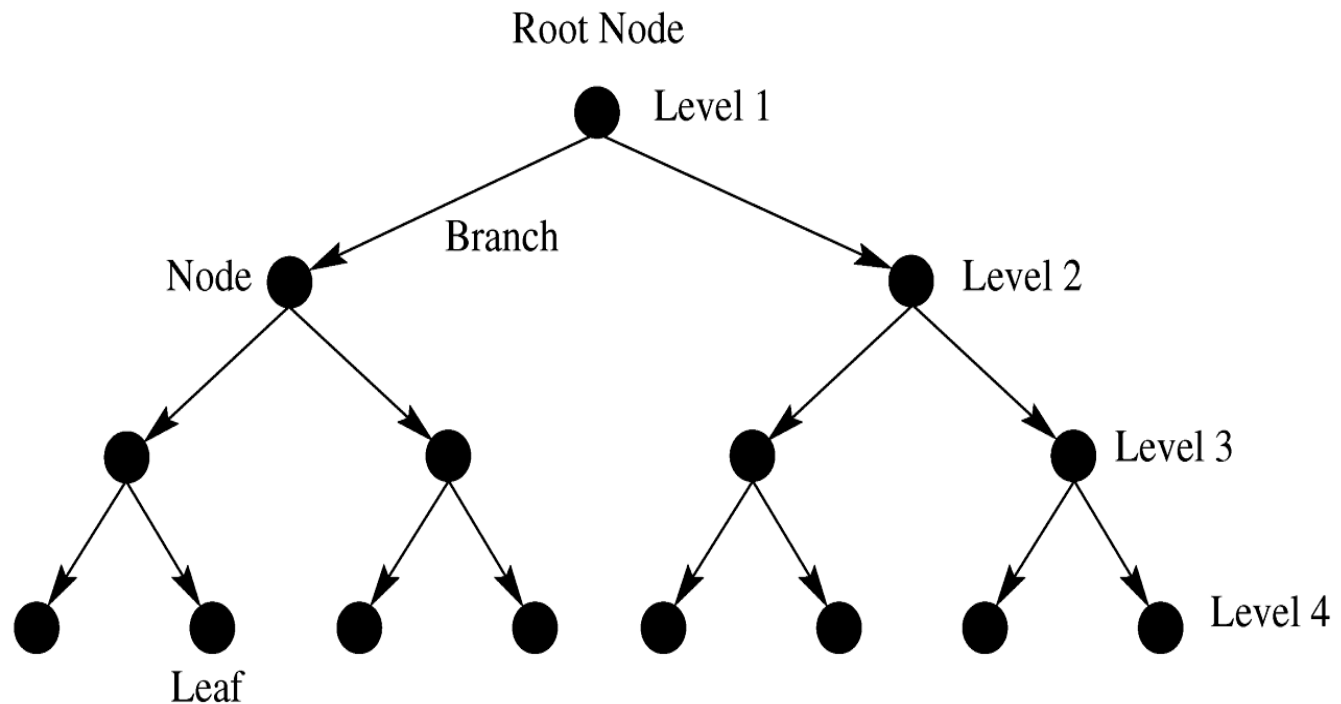
- A tree is a hierarchical data structure consisting of:
  - Nodes – store information
  - Branches – connect the nodes
- The top node is the root, occupying the highest hierarchy.
- The leaves are at the bottom, occupying the lowest hierarchy.

# Trees

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- Every node, except the root, has exactly one parent.
- Every node may give rise to zero or more child nodes.
- A binary tree restricts the number of children per node to a maximum of two.
- Degenerate trees have only a single pathway from root to its one leaf.

# Figure 3.1 Binary Tree



# Graphs

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- Graphs are sometimes called a network or net.
- A graph can have zero or more links between nodes – there is no distinction between parent and child.
- Sometimes links have weights – weighted graph; or, arrows – directed graph.
- Simple graphs have no loops – links that come back onto the node itself.

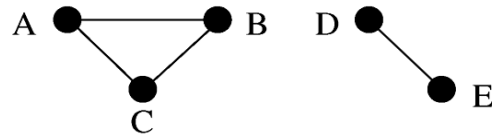


# Graphs

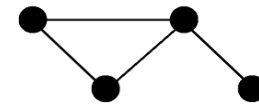
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- A circuit (cycle) is a path through the graph beginning and ending with the same node.
- Acyclic graphs have no cycles.
- Connected graphs have links to all the nodes.
- Digraphs are graphs with directed links.
- Lattice is a directed acyclic graph.

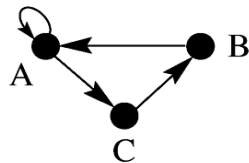
# Figure 3.2 Simple Graphs



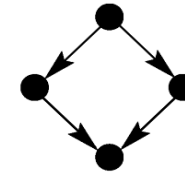
(a) A nonconnected graph



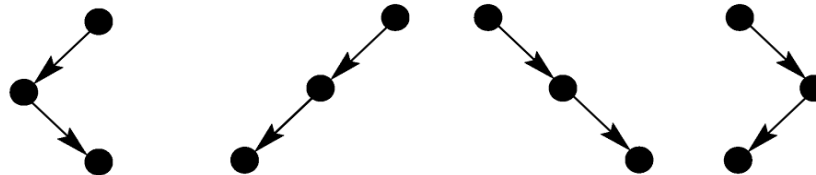
(b) A connected graph



(c) A digraph with a self-loop and circuit



(d) A lattice



(e) Degenerate binary trees of three nodes

# Making Decisions

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- Trees / lattices are useful for classifying objects in a hierarchical nature.
- Trees / lattices are useful for making decisions.
- We refer to trees / lattices as structures.
- Decision trees are useful for representing and reasoning about knowledge.

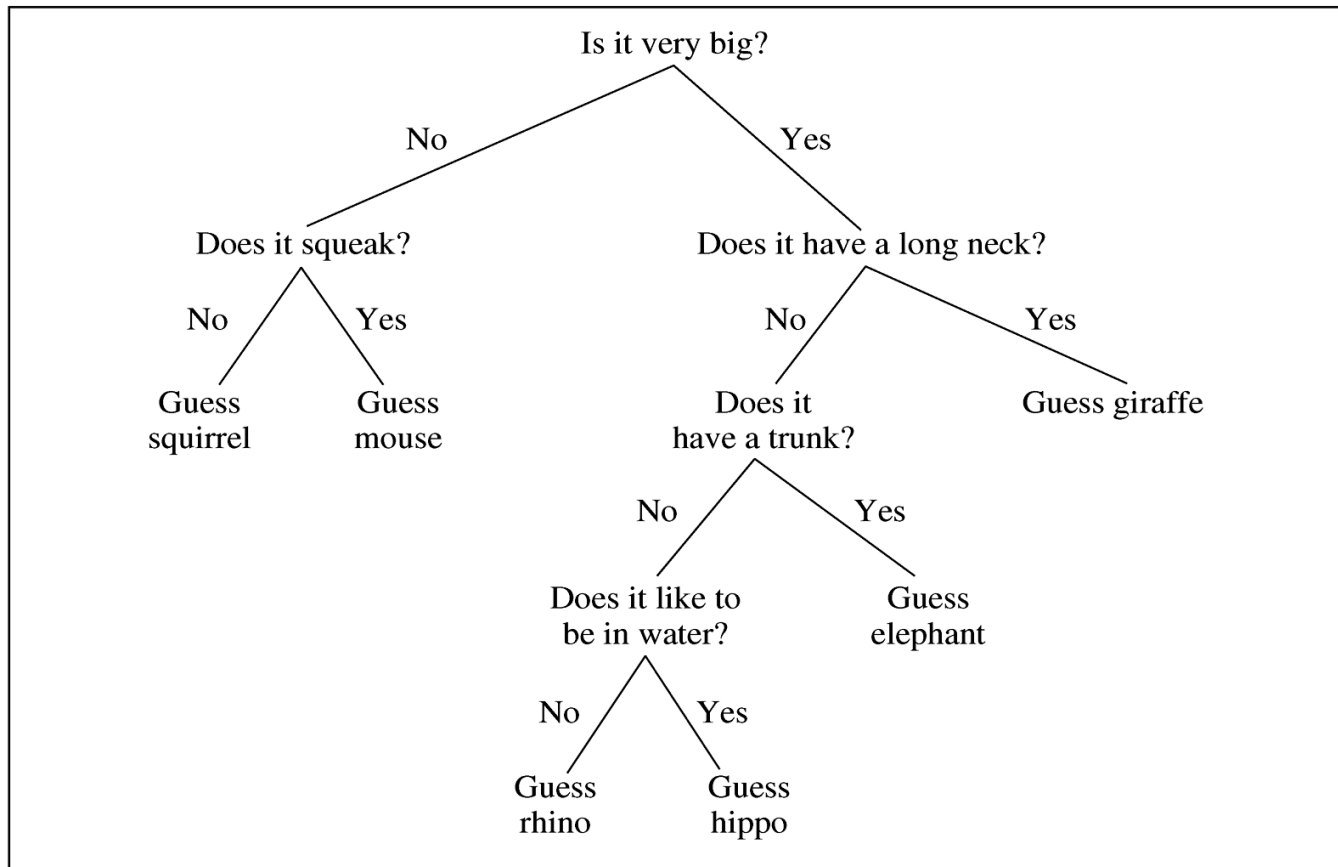
# Binary Decision Trees

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- Every question takes us down one level in the tree.
- A binary decision tree having  $N$  nodes:
  - All leaves will be answers.
  - All internal nodes are questions.
  - There will be a maximum of  $2^N$  answers for  $N$  questions.
- Decision trees can be self learning.
- Decision trees can be translated into production rules.

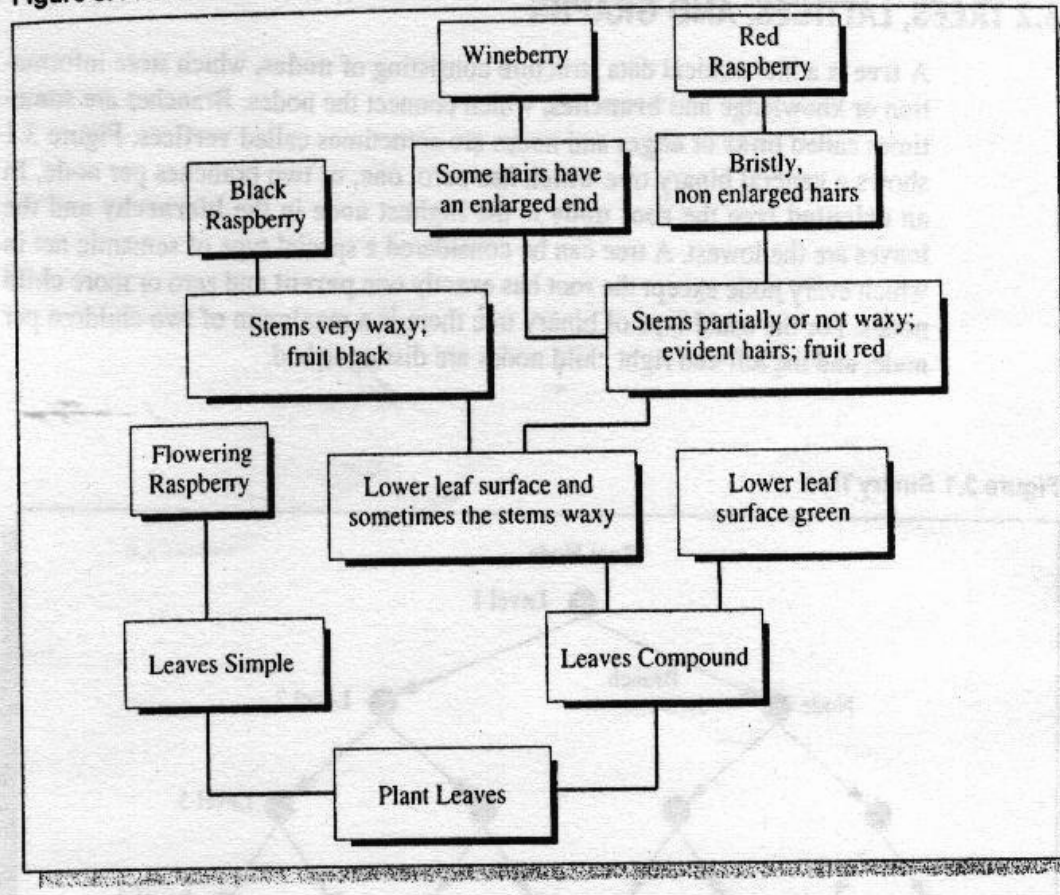
# Decision Tree Example

Figure 3.3 Decision Tree Showing Knowledge About Animals



# Decision Tree Example

Figure 3.4 Portion of a Decision Tree for Species of Raspberries



# State and Problem Spaces

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- A state space can be used to define an object's behavior.
- Different states refer to characteristics that define the status of the object.
- A state space shows the transitions an object can make in going from one state to another.

# Finite State Machine

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- A FSM is a diagram describing the finite number of states of a machine.
- At any one time, the machine is in one particular state.
- The machine accepts input and progresses to the next state.
- FSMs are often used in compilers and validity checking programs.



# Using FSM to Solve Problems

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- Characterizing ill-structured problems – one having uncertainties.
- Well-formed problems:
  - Explicit problem, goal, and operations are known
  - Deterministic – we are sure of the next state when an operator is applied to a state.
  - The problem space is bounded.
  - The states are discrete.

# Figure 3.5 State Diagram for a Soft Drink Vending Machine Accepting Quarters (Q) and Nickels (N)

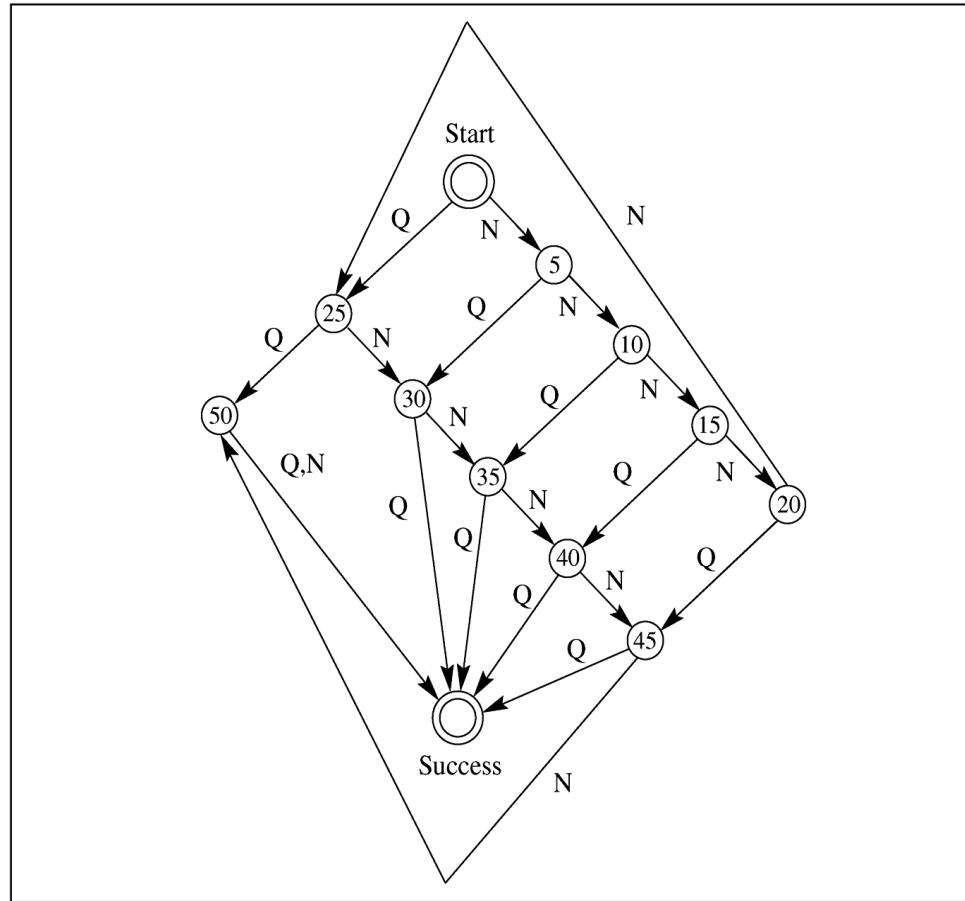


Figure 3.6 Part of a Finite State Machine for Determining Valid Strings WHILE, WRITE, and BEGIN.

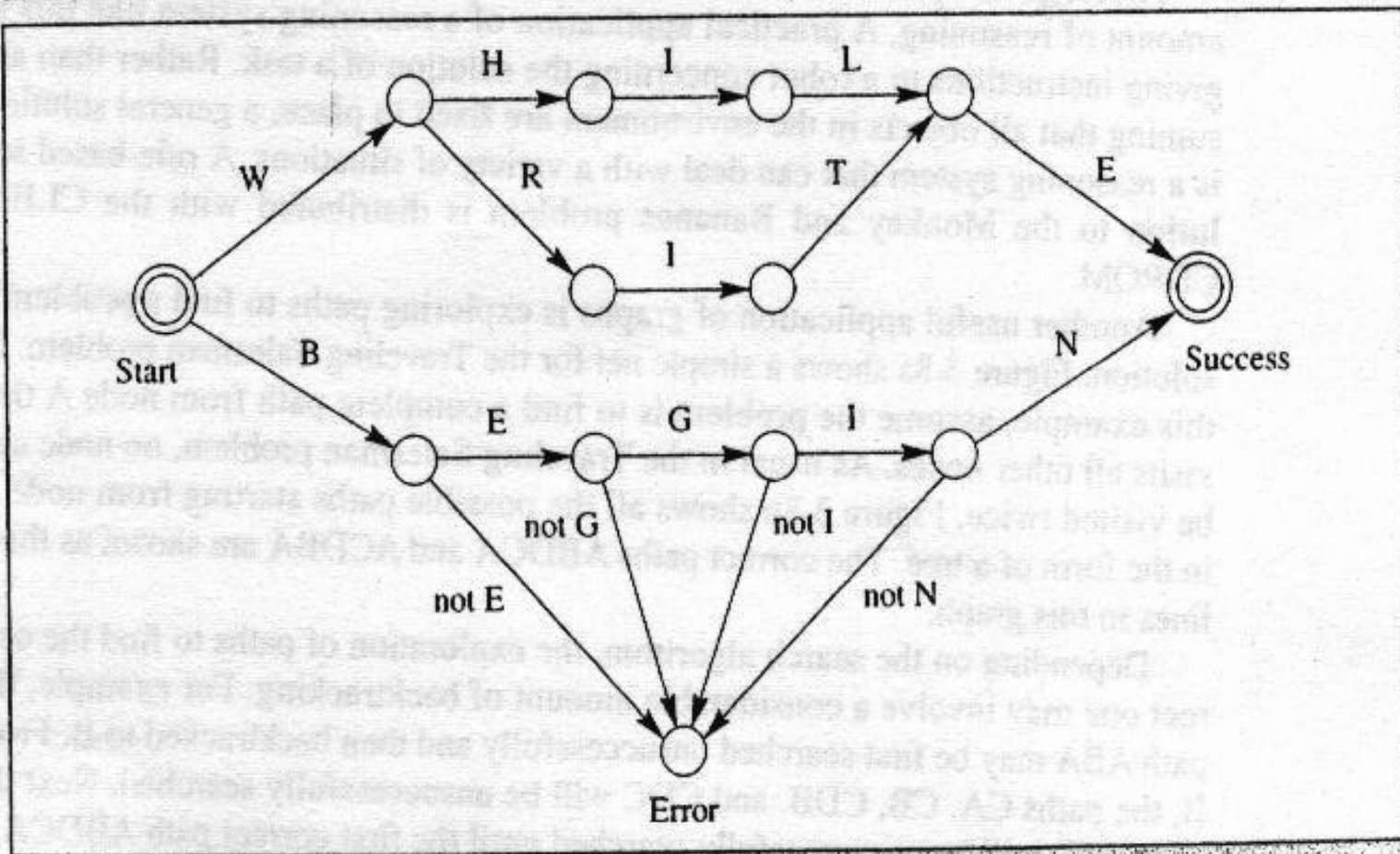
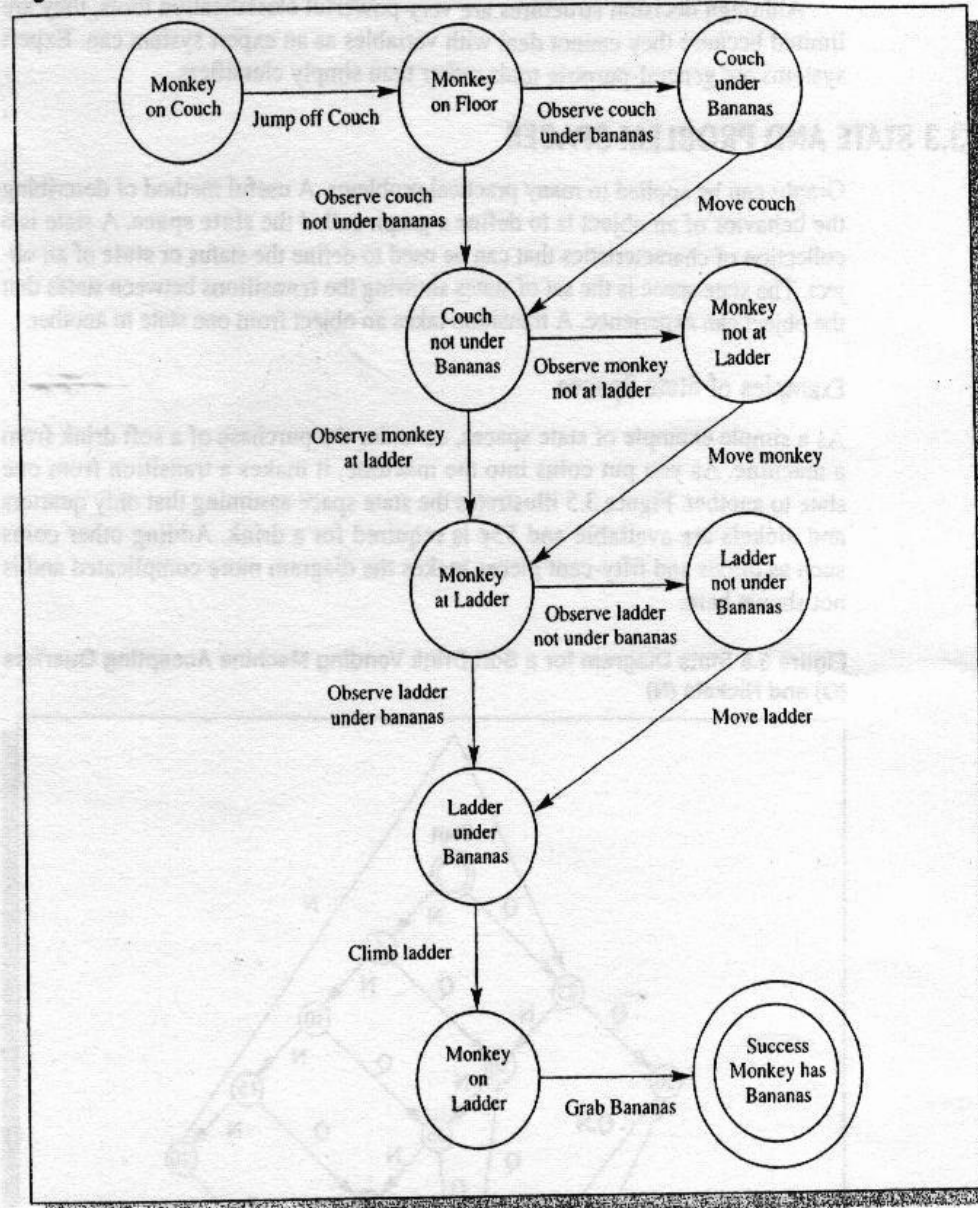


Figure 3.7 The State Space for the Monkey and Bananas Problem



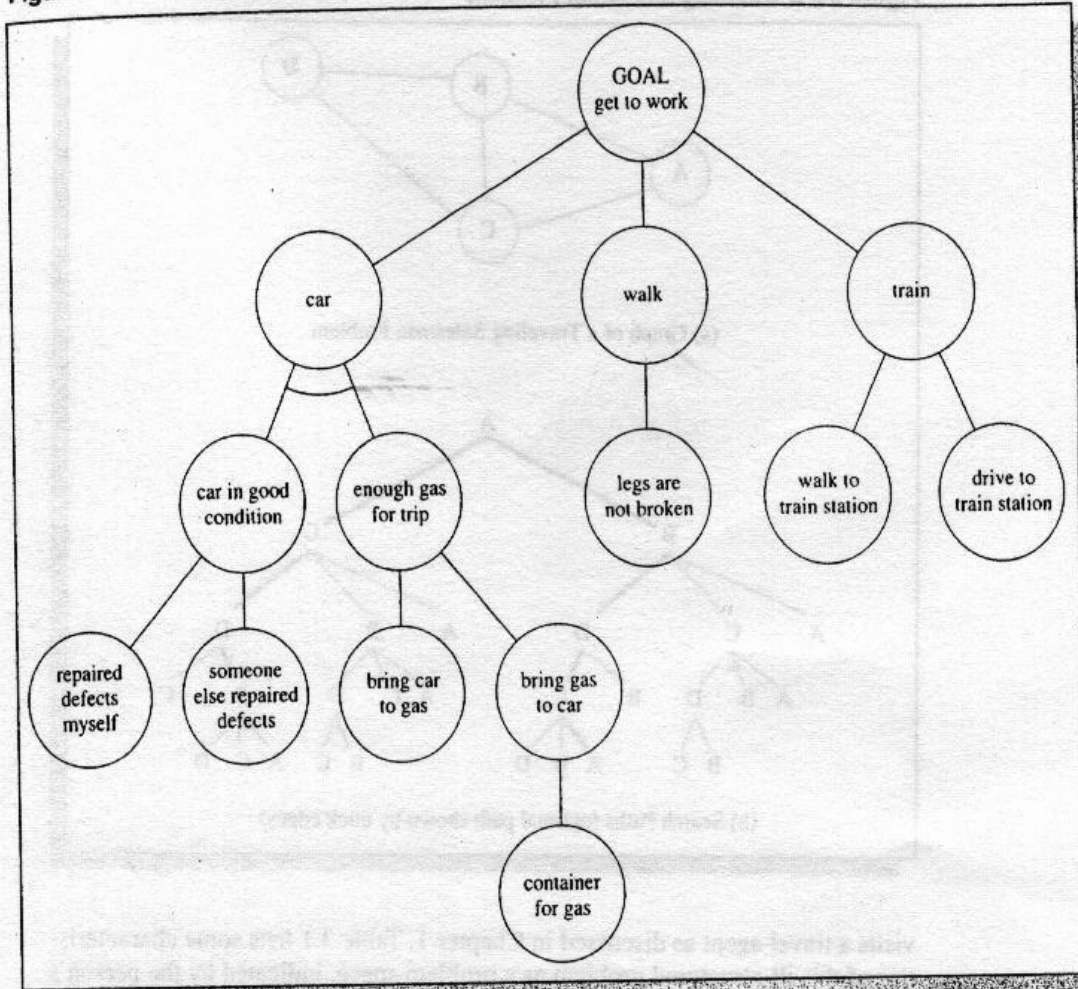
# AND-OR Trees and Goals

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- 1990s, PROLOG was used for commercial applications in business and industry.
- PROLOG uses backward chaining to divide problems into smaller problems and then solves them.
- AND-OR trees also use backward chaining.
- AND-OR-NOT lattices use logic gates to describe problems.

# AND-OR Trees and Goals

Figure 3.10 A Simple AND-OR Tree Showing Methods of Getting to Work



# Types of Logic

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- **Deduction** – reasoning where conclusions must follow from premises
- **Induction** – inference is from the specific case to the general
- **Analogy** – inferring conclusions based on similarities with other situations
- **Abduction** – reasoning back from a true condition to the premises that may have caused the condition

# Types of Logic

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- **Default** – absence of specific knowledge
- **Autoepistemic** – self-knowledge
- **Intuition** – no proven theory
- **Heuristics** – rules of thumb based on experience
- **Generate and test** – trial and error



# Deductive Logic

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- Argument – group of statements where the last is justified on the basis of the previous ones
- Deductive logic can determine the validity of an argument.
- Syllogism – has two premises and one conclusion
- Deductive argument – conclusions reached by following true premises must themselves be true

# Syllogisms vs. Rules

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- Syllogism:
  - All basketball players are tall.
  - Jason is a basketball player.
  - ⑧ Jason is tall.
- IF-THEN rule:
  - IF** All basketball players are tall and  
Jason is a basketball player
  - THEN** Jason is tall.

# Figure 3.21 Causal Forward Chaining

