

Reasoning and Planning

Unit 3. Rule-based Reasoning

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October 11, 2022

1 Rule-based reasoning

2 Default negation

3 Equilibrium Logic

Rule-based reasoning

Two possible readings

- Rule firing (bottom-up):

“I make a *fire*, so I get *smoke* as a byproduct”

$$\frac{\textit{smoke} \leftarrow \textit{fire} \quad \textit{fire}}{\textit{smoke}} = \text{Modus Ponens}$$

Better for **causal inference** (used in Answer Set Programming)

- Goal achievement (top-down):

“How can I get *smoke*? one way is making a *fire*”

goal = *smoke*?

smoke ← *fire* rule head found

new goal = *fire*?

fire fact found = success!

Goal-oriented backtracking (used in Prolog)


Rules as Logical Formulas

- First choice: translate as material implication in classical logic

$$smoke \leftarrow fire \quad \equiv \quad \neg fire \vee smoke$$

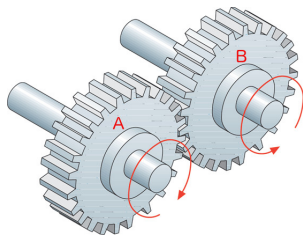
✓ Modus Ponens is granted

- ✗ But semantics is not aligned with rule-based reasoning
Suppose we only knew $KB = \{smoke \leftarrow fire\}$

Rule reasoning	Classical models	
$fire = \text{false}$: no way to be derived	$\{fire, smoke\}$	derivability?
$smoke = \text{false}$: only derivable if $fire$	$\{smoke\}$	derivability?
	\emptyset	both false ✓
		minimal model

Minimal models and recursion

- Minimal models cover (positive) recursion nicely
- Example: two gear wheels



$spinA \leftarrow spinB$
 $spinB \leftarrow spinA$

Two classical models

$\{spinA, spinB\}$ unjustified movement!



nothing moves ✓
minimal model

Positive Logic Programs (syntax)

- A **positive logic program** is a set of **rules** like

$$\underbrace{p}_{\text{head}} \leftarrow \underbrace{q_1, \dots, q_n}_{\text{body}}$$

or, written in text format

$$p \text{ :- } q_1, \dots, q_n.$$

with $n \geq 0$, where p, q_1, \dots, q_n are atoms.

Commas in the body represent conjunctions.

- **Ordering** among rules or in the body is **irrelevant**.
- When $n = 0$, the rule is called a **fact**, and we usually omit the \leftarrow .

Positive Logic Programs (semantics)

- Read rule $(p \leftarrow q_1, \dots, q_n)$ as $(q_1 \wedge \dots \wedge q_n \rightarrow p)$
- **Close World Assumption (CWA)** (minimize truth):
get the model(s) with \subseteq -less true atoms
- In general, we may get **several** \subseteq -minimal models.
Ex. $M(p \vee q) = \{\{p\}, \{q\}, \{p, q\}\}$, two minimal models $\{p\}, \{q\}$
- **Positive programs** have exactly **one**: the \subseteq -**least** model $LM(P)$.
Example:

p		$s \leftarrow q$		$b \leftarrow s, a$
q		$a \leftarrow b, p$		$a \leftarrow c$
$r \leftarrow p, s$				

the models are $\{p, q, r, s\}, \{p, q, r, s, a, b\}, \{p, q, r, s, a, b, c\}$.

Positive Logic Programs (computation)

- The least model can be easily computed by “rule application” (deductive closure).
- Direct consequences operator [van Endem & Kowalski 76]
 $T_P(\mathcal{I})$ = collect all heads in program P whose bodies are true in \mathcal{I}

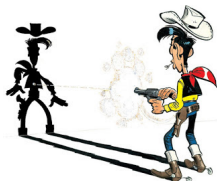
$$T_P(\mathcal{I}) := \{H \mid (H \leftarrow B) \in P \text{ and } \mathcal{I} \models B\}$$

- Compute sequence of interpretations $\mathcal{I}_0, \mathcal{I}_1, \mathcal{I}_2, \dots$

Start with $\mathcal{I}_0 := \emptyset$ (all atoms false)

Repeat $\mathcal{I}_{k+1} := T_P(\mathcal{I}_k)$ until we reach a fixpoint $\mathcal{I}_{k+1} = \mathcal{I}_k$

Positive Logic Programs (computation)



Go “firing rules” (Modus Ponens) until nothing new is derived

pp	$ss \leftarrow qq$	$b \leftarrow ss, a$
qq	$a \leftarrow b, pp$	$a \leftarrow c$
$rr \leftarrow pp, ss$		

$T_P(\emptyset) = \{p, q\}$, $T_P(\{p, q\}) = \{p, q, s\}$, $T_P(\{p, q, s\}) = \{p, q, s, r\}$,
 $T_P(\{p, q, s, r\}) = \{p, q, s, r\}$ fixpoint = least model $LM(P)$! proved by
 [van Endem & Kowalski 76]

☝ Each true atom is justified by a proof by Modus Ponens

$$\frac{p \quad \frac{q \quad s \leftarrow q}{s}}{r} \quad r \leftarrow p, s$$

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2 Default negation

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Default Negation

- Goal: incorporating default reasoning in rules

- CWA means false by default.

But we cannot check falsity in rules

- 👍 Idea: allow negative literals in rule bodies

“not p ” = “no evidence/proof for p ” = “ $\neg p$ can be assumed”

- A normal logic program is a set of rules of the form:

$$\underbrace{p}_{\text{head}} \leftarrow \underbrace{q_1, \dots, q_m, \text{not } q_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } q_n}_{\text{body}}.$$

with $n \geq m \geq 0$. If $m = n$ (no negations) we get a positive rule.
Again, ordering is irrelevant.

Default Negation



Example: “fill the tank if empty and
no evidence on fire”

fill \leftarrow *empty, not fire*

Suppose that the tank is empty indeed:

empty

Expected behaviour:

- No rule to derive *fire*, so we derive *not fire*
then we get *fill* by Modus Ponens: final model $\{*empty, fill*\}$

Default Negation

- ⚠ Classical logic reading $empty \wedge (empty \wedge \neg fire \rightarrow fill)$ with minimal models (CWA) **does not suffice!**
- Classically equivalent to $empty \wedge (fill \vee fire)$. Minimal models: $\{empty, fill\}$ but also $\{empty, fire\}$.
- **Assuming** there might be a $fire$ is ok but there is no proof for $fire$
👉 any assumption must be eventually ...



- We expect **non-monotonicity**. Example: adding the fact $fire$ should now derive $\{empty, fire\}$ and **retract** $fill$

Default Negation

- Problem: material implication is **not directional**
- These formulas are **classically equivalent**:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{empty} \wedge \neg \text{fire} \rightarrow \text{fill} &\equiv \text{empty} \rightarrow \text{fire} \vee \text{fill} \\ &\equiv \text{empty} \wedge \neg \text{fill} \rightarrow \text{fire} \end{aligned}$$

but writing the latter as a rule

$$\text{fire} \leftarrow \text{empty}, \text{not fill}$$

“If empty and **no evidence** on filling then start a fire”
has a **quite different** meaning!

Default Negation



Sometimes defaults are **conflicting**.
A classical example: **Nixon's diamond**

- “quakers are normally *pacifist*” (unless *bellicose*)
- “*republicans* are normally *bellicose*” (unless *pacifist*)
- “Richard Nixon is a both a Quaker and a Republican”

$p \leftarrow q, \text{not } b$

$b \leftarrow r, \text{not } p$

q

r

- There is **no constructive way** to apply the rules

Adding negation: stable models

- Gelfond, M., and Lifschitz, V. (ICLP 1988)
The stable model semantics for logic programming.

Step 1

Guess an
assumption



Default negation:
not b

Step 2

Reduce program
not's accordingly

$p \leftarrow q, \text{not } b^{\top}$
 $b \leftarrow r, \text{not } p^{\perp}$
 q
 r

pr

Mir

= a

sta

Syn

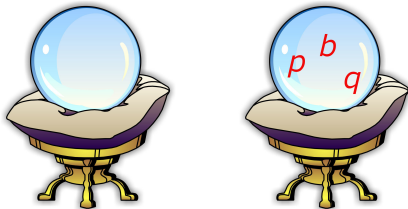
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Adding negation: stable models

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Step 1

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Default negation:
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 q
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p

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uns
 p, b
 not

Stable models: formal definition

Definition (program reduct)

$P^{\mathcal{I}}$ = reduct of program P with respect to interpretation \mathcal{I}

$$P^{\mathcal{I}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{ (p \leftarrow q_1, \dots, q_m) \\ | (p \leftarrow q_1, \dots, q_m, \text{not } q_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } q_n) \in P \text{ and} \\ q_j \notin \mathcal{I}, \text{ for all } j = m + 1, \dots, n \}$$

👉 Observation: $P^{\mathcal{I}}$ is positive, it has a least model $LM(P^{\mathcal{I}})$!

Definition (stable model)

\mathcal{I} is a stable model of program P iff $LM(P^{\mathcal{I}}) = \mathcal{I}$. □

Stable models: some properties

$M(P)$ = “classical models of P ”; $SM(P)$ = “stable models of P ”

Proposition (Stable models are models)

$SM(P) \subseteq M(P)$. Any stable model of P is also a classical model.

When the program is **normal** (things will change with disjunction):

Proposition (Stable models are minimal classical models)

If $\mathcal{I} \in SM(P)$ then there is no $\mathcal{J} \in M(P)$, $\mathcal{J} \subset \mathcal{I}$.

Proposition (Complexity)

Deciding whether a program P has a stable model, $SM(P) \stackrel{?}{=} \emptyset$, is an **NP-complete** problem.

Stable models



Back to the example. P has 2 rules:

$fill \leftarrow empty, not\ fire$
 $empty$

Three atoms: possible assumptions $\mathcal{I} = 2^3$

💡 $SM(P) \subseteq M(P)$, just check the 3 classical models!

\mathcal{I}	$P^{\mathcal{I}}$	$LM(P^{\mathcal{I}})$
$\{empty, fire\}$	$empty$	$\{empty\} \neq \mathcal{I}$ not stable
$\{empty, fire, fill\}$	$empty$	$\{empty\} \neq \mathcal{I}$ not stable
$\{empty, fill\}$	$fill \leftarrow empty$ $empty$	$\{empty, fill\}$ stable!



Suppose a spark starts a fire now. P has 4 rules:

$fill \leftarrow empty, not\ fire$
 $empty$
 $fire \leftarrow spark$
 $spark$

- Only two (classical) models now:

\mathcal{I}	$P^{\mathcal{I}}$	$LM(P^{\mathcal{I}})$
$\{empty, spark, fire\}$	$empty$ $fire \leftarrow spark$ $spark$	$\{empty, spark, fire\}$ stable!
$\{empty, spark, fire, fill\}$	$empty$ $fire \leftarrow spark$ $fire$	$\{empty, spark, fire\} \neq I$ not stable

Observation: the example shows **non-monotonic reasoning!**

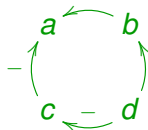
- Example 1: stable model $\{\textit{empty}, \textit{fill}\}$ allowed us to conclude *fill*
- Example 2: **adding new formulas** “a spark started a fire” stable model $\{\textit{empty}, \textit{spark}, \textit{fire}\}$ retracts previous conclusion (*fill* is not true any more)

Stratified programs

- **Dependence graph** of a program:
 - ▶ nodes = atoms
 - ▶ edge $p \rightarrow q$ if \exists rule with p in the head and q in the positive body
 - ▶ edge $p \vec{\rightarrow} q$ if \exists rule with p in the head and q in the negative body
- A normal program is **stratified** if it has no cycles through negation

Program 1:
 a
 $b \leftarrow a$
 $c \leftarrow \text{not } a$
 $d \leftarrow b, \text{not } c$

Graph 1:



stratified

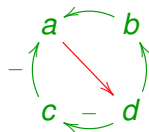
Stratified programs

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Program 2:

a
 $b \leftarrow a$
 $c \leftarrow \text{not } a$
 $d \leftarrow b, \text{not } c$
 $a \leftarrow d$

Graph 2:



non-stratified!

Stratified programs

- When a program is stratified
 - Rules can be organized in layers: negation means a layer jump.

Layer 1	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \\ b \leftarrow a \end{array} \right.$	$\{a, b\}$
Layer 2	$\left\{ c \leftarrow \underbrace{\text{not } a \text{ not } a}_{\perp} \right.$	$\{a, b\}$
Layer 3	$\left\{ d \leftarrow b, \underbrace{\text{not } c \text{ not } c}_{\top} \right.$	$\{a, b, d\}$

Proposition

A stratified program has a unique stable model $|SM(P)| = 1$.

Incoherent programs

- If P unstratified we may have $|SM(P)| > 1$
but also $|SM(P)| = 0!$ P is called **incoherent** if $SM(P) = \emptyset$
This may happen even if $M(P) \neq \emptyset$ (classically consistent).
- Example (Russell's paradox):
“make a **Catalogue** citing of all **books without self-citations**”



$\text{cite}_C \text{cite}_C \leftarrow \leftarrow \text{not self}_C \text{not self}_C$
 $\text{self}_C \leftarrow \text{cite}_C$

Assume $\mathcal{I} \models \text{self}_C$ Assu
 proved = \emptyset self_C unjust

- An even simpler example: $\text{problem} \leftarrow \text{not problem}$

Choices and constraints

We can use **auxiliary atoms** to exploit negative cycles as follows:

- **Choice rule**: nondeterministic generation of an atom.

Ex: when *spark*, sometimes *fire* and sometimes no

$$\textit{fire} \leftarrow \textit{spark}, \textit{not aux} \quad \textit{aux} \leftarrow \textit{spark}, \textit{not fire}$$

Adding fact *spark* yields $\{\textit{spark}, \textit{fire}\}$ and $\{\textit{spark}, \textit{aux}\} = \{\textit{spark}\}$
if we remove *aux*. Common abbreviation = **choice rule**:

$$\{\textit{fire}\} \leftarrow \textit{spark}$$

- **Constraint**: dismiss stable models when a condition holds.
If *wet* holds, choosing *fire* is disregarded.

$$\textit{aux} \leftarrow \textit{wet}, \textit{fire}, \textit{not aux}$$

Common abbreviation = **constraint**:

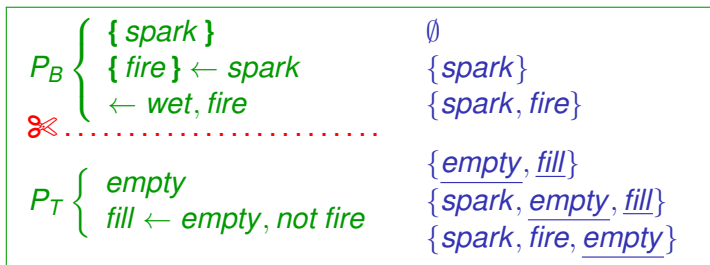
$$\perp \leftarrow \textit{wet}, \textit{fire} \quad \text{or simply} \quad \leftarrow \textit{wet}, \textit{fire}$$

Splitting

Atom p is defined in P when some $(p \leftarrow B) \in P$ (possibly $B = \top$)

Some programs P can be splitted in two parts P_B, P_T

- the bottom P_B contains no atom defined in P_T
- the top P_T does not define atoms occurring in P_B



- First compute the stable models of the bottom then use each of them for the top

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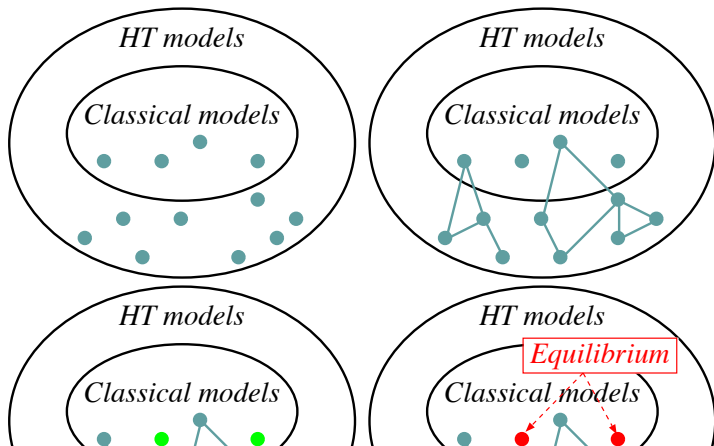
A logical characterisation

- [GL88] definition of stable models is **syntactically limited**
 - ▶ It relies on a **syntactic transformation** (reduct)
 - ▶ Connectives cannot be **freely combined**, e.g. *not* ($p \leftarrow q$)
- Later definitions extended the reduct to incorporate \vee in the head and, further, nesting it with commas (\wedge) and *not*
- ⚠ Nesting ' \leftarrow ' was not allowed: this connective had **no semantics!**

A logical characterisation

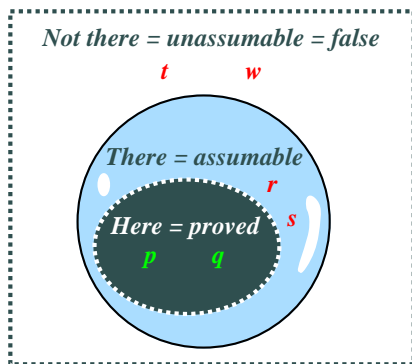
Equilibrium Logic [Pearce96]: generalises stable models for arbitrary propositional theories. Consists of:

- 1 A non-classical monotonic (intermediate) logic called Here-and-There (HT) [Heyting 30]



Here-and-There

- **Interpretation** = pairs $\langle H, T \rangle$ of sets of atoms $H \subseteq T$
Example: $H = \{p, q\}$, $T = \{p, q, r, s\}$. **Intuition:**



- Note that we start from: proved \subseteq assumable
- Atoms in $T \setminus H$ are **just assumed** (assumable but not proved)
- When $H = T$ (assumable = proved) we have a **classical** model.

Satisfaction of formulas

$\langle H, T \rangle \models \alpha \Leftrightarrow$ “ α is proved”

$\langle T, T \rangle \models \alpha \Leftrightarrow$ “ α assumable” $\Leftrightarrow T \models \alpha$ classically

- $\langle H, T \rangle \models p$ if $p \in H$ (for any atom p)
- \wedge, \vee as always
- $\langle H, T \rangle \models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ if both
 - “If α is proved, then β must be proved”:
 $\langle H, T \rangle \models \alpha$ implies $\langle H, T \rangle \models \beta$
 - “ $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ is assumable”:
 $T \models \alpha \rightarrow \beta$ classically
- Negation $\neg F$ is defined as $F \rightarrow \perp$

HT properties

Theorem (Persistence)

$\langle H, T \rangle \models \alpha$ (proved) implies $T \models \alpha$ (assumable)

Theorem

$\langle H, T \rangle \models \neg\alpha$ iff $T \models \neg\alpha$
Proving $\neg\alpha$ amounts to assuming $\neg\alpha$

Definition (Equilibrium/stable model)

A model $\langle T, T \rangle$ of Γ is an **equilibrium model** iff

there is no $H \subset T$ such that $\langle H, T \rangle \models \Gamma$.

When this holds, T is called a **stable model**.

In other words, we cannot leave some assumptions $T \setminus H$ not proved

Here-and-There

- An example: $\alpha = \{\neg b \rightarrow p\}$ (not bellicious implies pacifist)
- The classical models $M(\neg b \rightarrow p) = M(b \vee p)$ are the next 3:
 - 1 $T = \{p\}$ The only possible subset is $H = \emptyset$
 $\langle H, T \rangle \not\models \neg b \rightarrow p$ because $\langle H, T \rangle \models \neg b$ but $\langle H, T \rangle \not\models p$
That is $\langle \emptyset, \{p\} \rangle$ is not an HT model
👉 Then $\{p\}$ is an equilibrium model! (no smaller H forms a model)
 - 2 $T = \{b\}$ The only possible subset is $H = \emptyset$
 $\langle H, T \rangle \models \neg b \rightarrow p$ because $\langle H, T \rangle \not\models \neg b$
Therefore $\langle \emptyset, \{b\} \rangle$ is an HT model (assumption b is not proved)
👉 Then $\{b\}$ is not in equilibrium
 - 3 $T = \{b, p\}$ The possible subsets are $H = \emptyset$, $H = \{b\}$ or $H = \{p\}$
All of them HT models because $\langle H, T \rangle \not\models \neg b$
👉 Then $\{b, p\}$ is not in equilibrium

Expressiveness

- HT is weaker than classical logic
- For instance, $p \vee \neg p$ is **not a tautology**
 - = p is either proved or not assumable
 - = it rules out $H = \emptyset$ and $T = \{p\}$ (countermodel)
 - ▶ $\langle \emptyset, \{p\} \rangle \not\models p$ because $p \notin H$
 - ▶ $\langle \emptyset, \{p\} \rangle \not\models \neg p$ because $p \in T$
- In fact $p \vee \neg p \equiv \neg\neg p \rightarrow p$ which is not valid either ...
 - 👉 we **cannot remove double negation** in $\neg\neg p$

Theorem

$\langle H, T \rangle \models \neg\neg\alpha$ iff $T \models \alpha$

Expressiveness

- Captures all syntactic extensions of stable models with propositional connectives (also first-order [Pearce & Valverde 04]).
- Natural representation for:

Logic	Program	Meaning
$\perp \leftarrow Body$	$:- Body.$	constraint forbidding <i>Body</i>
$p \vee \neg p \leftarrow Body$	$\{p\} :- Body.$	choice rule “If <i>Body</i> then we are free to derive <i>p</i> or not”

- Moreover, covers arbitrary formulas, in a very reasonable way:
intuitionistic \subset HT \subset classical

Theorem

Deciding whether a theory Γ has some equilibrium model is Σ_2^P -complete.

$\Sigma_2^P = \mathbf{NP}^{\mathbf{NP}}$: means **NP** on a Turing machine with an **NP** oracle. This is (conjectured) harder than **NP**.

Same complexity arises even by just adding **disjunction** in rule heads:

$$p_1 \vee \dots \vee p_n \leftarrow q_1, \dots, q_m, \text{ not } q_{m+1} \dots \text{ not } q_k$$

Strong equivalence

- Under non-monotonicity, equivalence becomes tricky

Program P_1	Program P_2
$empty$ $fill \leftarrow empty, not\ fire$ $fire$	$empty$ $fill$ $fire$
stable model $\{empty, fill\} \{empty, fire\}$	stable model $\{empty, fire\} \{empty, fill, fire\}$

Definition (Strong Equivalence)

Two theories P_1, P_2 are strongly equivalent if $P_1 \cup Q$ and $P_2 \cup Q$ have the same equilibrium models for any theory Q .

Theorem ([Lifschitz, Pearce, Valverde 01])

Strong equivalence of equilibrium theories = HT equivalence.

Deciding HT equivalence is **NP**.

Strong equivalence

Example

Check whether these two programs are **strongly equivalent** or not

Program P_1

$$\begin{array}{l} p \leftarrow \neg b \\ p \vee \neg p \end{array}$$

Program P_2

$$\begin{array}{l} \perp \leftarrow \neg b \wedge \neg p \\ p \vee \neg p \end{array}$$