

Lecture 9

1) Cut & Negation in PROLOG

2) Alternative semantics for negation: Perfect, Well-founded and Stable Models

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Cut: !

- Example: 2 implementations of `max`:

```
max(X, Y, X) :- X >= Y.
```

```
max(X, Y, Y) :- X < Y.
```

```
max(X, Y, X) :- X >= Y, !.
```

```
max(X, Y, Y) :- X < Y.
```

- Goal: cut down search space, gain efficiency
- Disadvantage: against declarativity.

The working of the cut operator:

Clause C: $A :- B_1, \dots, B_k, !, B_{k+1}, \dots, B_n.$

Goal: $?- Z.$

- If A unifies with Z and subgoals B_1, \dots, B_k can be proven, then ! succeeds and fixes the solutions to the clause C, i.e. no further backtracking for any alternative wrt. C (below C in the program).
- B_{k+1}, \dots, B_n are proven normally, but in case B_i ($i > k$) fails, backtracking only upto '!'.
- If backtracking reaches '!' a second time then it fails and computation returns to the point before clause Z C was chosen.

Behavior: if ... then ... elseif ... else, can be emulated.

Cut

- ... in other words:
 - '!' cuts off all alternative clauses which follow
 - '!' cuts off all alternatives on its left.
 - '!' does not influence subgoals on its right.

Example:

```
% mymerge(X,Y,Z) merges two sorted lists X and Y:

mymerge([X|Xs],[Y|Ys],[X|Zs]) :- X < Y, mymerge(Xs,[Y|Ys],Zs).
mymerge([X|Xs],[Y|Ys],[X,Y|Zs]) :- X = Y, mymerge(Xs,Ys,Zs).
mymerge([X|Xs],[Y|Ys],[Y|Zs]) :- X > Y, mymerge([X|Xs],Ys,Zs).

mymerge(Xs,[],Xs).
mymerge([],Ys,Ys).
```

- Backtracking over exclusive alternatives can be avoided with cuts:

```
% mymerge(X,Y,Z) merges two sorted lists X and Y:

mymerge([X|Xs],[Y|Ys],[X|Zs]) :- X < Y, !, mymerge(Xs,[Y|Ys],Zs).
mymerge([X|Xs],[Y|Ys],[X,Y|Zs]) :- X = Y, !, mymerge(Xs,Ys,Zs).
mymerge([X|Xs],[Y|Ys],[Y|Zs]) :- X > Y, !, mymerge([X|Xs],Ys,Zs).

mymerge(Xs,[],Xs) :- !.
mymerge([],Ys,Ys) :- !.
```

This one is redundant...

In summary: Cut makes sense if you model some deterministic choices, but a bit dirty ;-) compared to pure Prolog.

What the cut is usable for:

- Useful to make programs more efficient.
- Sometimes useful to avoid additional or duplicate answers,
- But often a sign of "dirty" non-declarative PROLOG hacking and should be avoided.
- You should know what you're doing and have to understand the working of PROLOG when using cuts!

Negation (`not` or `\+`) in Prolog.

- Prolog has the builtin `fail` which never succeeds.
- This can be used to emulate a restricted form of negation, so called "negation as finite failure".
- Recall: whenever PROLOG could not find a solution to a query in finite time, it answered 'No'.
- We also want to reuse this in rules... for this, there exists the predicate `not` also written `\+`
- can be emulated more or less as follows:

```
not X :- X, !, fail.  
not X.
```

Negation as failure and SQL:

We said in Lecture 4 that we can use PROLOG as a Query language similar to SQL... Now we can also express negative queries:

"Give me all persons without a father"

```
SELECT name FROM person p WHERE NOT EXISTS
  (SELECT * FROM child_of c, male m
   WHERE c.child=p.name
   AND c.parent=m.name);
```

In PROLOG:

```
no_father(X) :- person(X), \+ has_father(X).
has_father(X) :- child_of(X,Y), male(Y).
```


Problems with this form of not:

- `not` in PROLOG often written `\+` does not correspond with classical negation!!!

Example: `a :- not b.`

Minimal Herbrand Models: `{a} {b}`

- i.e., Success of `{not G}` does not mean: $P \models \neg G$ but: $P \not\models G$

Non-monotonic reasoning 1: Default rules

- This form of negation allows some limited form of non-monotonic reasoning.
- Classical logic is monotonic, i.e. whenever I add knowledge, the set of consequences increases.
- Horn Logic is classical, i.e. monotonic.

- This is not the case if negation as failure is added to Horn logic!
- In **non-monotonic** reasoning, previous conclusions can be invalidated by additional knowledge.
- Non-monotonic reasoning often important in common-sense reasoning: "Default" reasoning

Example: "Birds normally fly, unless they are penguins"

```
flies(X) :- bird(X), \+ penguin(X).  
bird(tweety).
```

Does Tweety fly?

What if I add `penguin(tweety)` . to the facts?

Non-monotonic reasoning 2: Closed World Assumption

- Everything which is not explicitly known, is assumed to be false.
- Example: Train Schedule.
- This is the motivation for using a minimal model semantics.
- ?- \+ train(vienna, bregenz, 0500, X).
- 'No' means there really is no such train under the closes world assumption.

All the examples had

Negation as failure in rule bodies/queries:

- Prolog makes a “practical” assumption about this: Negation as (finite) failure to proof.
- What happens to the Semantics? (rule with negation in the body are no longer Horn)
- PROLOG cannot deal with negation and recursion at once!

Alternative semantics for negation: Perfect, Well-founded and Stable Models

- We will now try to define **formal** semantics for programs with non-monotonic negation in rule bodies!
- To keep things simple, we now talk about function-free programs only, ie no nested terms.
- We learned already that the Herbrand Base is finite for such programs.
- For-such programs, the $T_P^\infty(\emptyset)$ operator defines an algorithm to compute the minimal Herbrand model:
 - *First ground the program using the Herbrand Base*
 - *Then compute (in finite time) the minimal Herbrand model*

Bottom-up computation: Alternative definition of T_P :

Let I be a Herbrand interpretation and \mathcal{P} a definite program:

We define by **Ground**(\mathcal{P}) the set of all ground instances of rules of \mathcal{P}

$T_P(I)$ =

$\{A \in B_P : A \leftarrow A_1, \dots, A_n \text{ is a rule in } \text{Ground}(\mathcal{P}) \text{ such that } A_1, \dots, A_n \in I\}$

Since HB(P) is finite, also $\text{Ground}(\mathcal{P})$ is finite

The ground Instantiation of a program:

$$\mathcal{P}_r = \{ \text{arc}(a, b). \\ \text{arc}(b, c). \\ \text{reachable}(a). \\ \text{reachable}(Y) \leftarrow \text{arc}(X, Y), \text{reachable}(X). \}$$

$$\text{HU}(\mathcal{P}_r) = \{a, b, c\}$$

$$\text{HB}(\mathcal{P}_r) = \{ \text{arc}(a, a), \text{arc}(a, b), \text{arc}(a, c), \\ \text{arc}(b, a), \text{arc}(b, b), \text{arc}(b, c), \\ \text{arc}(c, a), \text{arc}(c, b), \text{arc}(c, c), \\ \text{reachable}(a), \text{reachable}(b), \text{reachable}(c) \}$$

Ground(\mathcal{P}) – The ground Instantiation of a program:

$Ground(\mathcal{P}_r) = \{\text{arc}(a, b). \text{arc}(b, c). \text{reachable}(a).$

$\text{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \text{arc}(a, a), \text{reachable}(a).$

$\text{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \text{arc}(a, b), \text{reachable}(a).$

$\text{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \text{arc}(a, c), \text{reachable}(a).$

$\text{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \text{arc}(b, a), \text{reachable}(b).$

$\text{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \text{arc}(b, b), \text{reachable}(b).$

$\text{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \text{arc}(b, c), \text{reachable}(b).$

$\text{reachable}(a) \leftarrow \text{arc}(c, a), \text{reachable}(c).$

$\text{reachable}(b) \leftarrow \text{arc}(c, b), \text{reachable}(c).$

$\text{reachable}(c) \leftarrow \text{arc}(c, c), \text{reachable}(c). \}$

Normal logic programs

- Negation in the body allowed, rules of the form:

$$h \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m, \text{not } b_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } b_n.$$

$$1 \leq m \leq n$$

$$B^+(r) = \{b_1, \dots, b_m\}$$

$$B^-(r) = \{\text{not } b_{m+1}, \dots, \text{not } b_n\}$$

$$B(r) = B^+(r) \cup B^-(r)$$

Recall: we already had one form of negation (negation as failure) in Prolog!

Normal Logic Programs

- Recall: Problems with Semantics:
- In general there is no unique minimal Herbrand Model anymore:
$$a \leftarrow \text{not } b.$$
- Two Herbrand Models: $M1 = \{a\}$, $M2 = \{b\}$,
 $M2$ is less intuitive.

Normal Logic Programs

- Negation as failure in Prolog was fine, as long as negation was non-recursive, but we had problems with evaluating things like:

$$male(X) \leftarrow person(X), \neg female(X).$$
$$female(X) \leftarrow person(X), \neg male(X).$$

- When evaluating this bottom-up, we would get an **alternating fixpoint**.
- Practical solution: forbid recursion over negation!

Stratified Programs:

- Let the dependency graph be defined as in the previous lecture:
 - Nodes: Predicates
 - Edges: for each rule from head to body literals.
 - Edges with negation are marked
 - Components: maximal sets of nodes such that each node is reachable from each other node.
 - Partial order between components is induced by the edges.
- A program is called **stratifiable**, if there are no cycles with a marked (negative) edge.

Example:

Stratifiable vs. non-stratifiable

- Non-stratifiable: $a \leftarrow b, c.$
 $c \leftarrow \neg b.$
 $b \leftarrow a$
- Stratifiable: $a \leftarrow b.$
 $c \leftarrow \neg b.$
 $b \leftarrow a$

The Perfect Model:

- Components induced by the dependency graph are inducing a stratification, i.e. you can evaluate stratifiable programs in a leveled fashion, first grounding, where negation only occurs between the levels.
- This stratification implies an order for the evaluation. Similar idea as component-wise evaluation.
- Let $\langle P_1, \dots, P_n \rangle$ be the strata (levels) of a stratifiable normal program P , then the sequence:

$$M_1 = \mathbf{T}_{P_1}^\infty(\emptyset), M_2 = \mathbf{T}_{P_2}^\infty(M_1), \dots, M_n = \mathbf{T}_{P_n}^\infty(M_{n-1})$$

defines the **perfect model** M_n of P

The Perfect Model:

- Operator T_P has to be slightly modified, since P can now contain negation in rule bodies:

$T_P(I) =$

$\{A \in B_P : A \leftarrow A_1, \dots, A_n, \text{not } A_{n+1}, \dots, \text{not } A_m$
is a rule r in $\text{Ground}(\mathcal{P})$ such that $B^+(r') \subseteq I$ and $B^-(r') \cap I = \emptyset\}$

The Perfect Model:

- Perfect Model Semantics only defined for stratifiable programs
- Each stratifiable program has a **unique** perfect Model
- Non-recursive Programs are always stratifiable
- Remark: Non-recursive safe programs with negation under the perfect model semantics have the same expressivity as Relational Algebra.
- Componentwise evaluation methods as shown last lecture are directly applicable.

Non-stratifiable programs:

person(nicola).

alive(X) ← person(X).

male(X) ← person(X), ¬ female(X).

female(X) ← person(X), ¬ male(X).

The perfect model is not defined here, but at least we would like to conclude *alive(nicola)*.

How to proceed with non-stratifiable Programs, i.e. recursive negation?

- Partial Interpretations
- Unfounded sets
- Well-founded Model Semantics
- Stable Model Semantics

Recursive Negation:

person(nicola).

alive(X) ← person(X).

male(X) ← person(X), ¬ female(X).

female(X) ← person(X), ¬ male(X).

What happens if we apply $T_{\mathcal{P}}$?

$\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset) = \{person(nicola), alive(nicola), male(nicola), female(nicola)\}$

$\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset)) = \{person(nicola), alive(nicola)\}$

$\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset))) = \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset)$

$\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset)))) = \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset))$

$\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset)))) = \mathbf{T}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset)$

...

Recursive Negation:

- **But:** There are two fixpoints of $T_{\mathcal{P}}$:

$$T_{\mathcal{P}}(\{person(nicola), alive(nicola), male(nicola)\}) = \\ \{person(nicola), alive(nicola), male(nicola)\}$$

$$T_{\mathcal{P}}(\{person(nicola), alive(nicola), female(nicola)\}) = \\ \{person(nicola), alive(nicola), female(nicola)\}$$

- Two ways to deal with this in the semantics:

1. don't state anything about $male(nicola)$ and $female(nicola)$
2. accept both possible scenarios $male(nicola)$ and $female(nicola)$

Needs an additional truth-value: $\{true, false, \mathbf{unknown}\}$ to express that no statement is made on a certain atom.

Allow several models, one where $male(nicola)$ holds and one where $female(nicola)$ holds

Three-valued interpretation:

- Literals are of the form: a or $\text{not } a$
(where a is an atom)
- A set of literals is called consistent iff $L \cap \text{not}.L = \emptyset$ *, thus if no atom occurs positively and negatively.
- A three-valued interpretation is a consistent set of ground literals.

Example: $I = \{\text{not } a, c\}$

- a is **false** wrt. I
- b is **unknown** wrt. I
- c is **true** wrt. I

* $\text{not}.l$ is defined for $l=a$ as $\text{not } l$ and for $l=\text{not } a$ as l

Three-valued interpretation:

Difference to Herbrand Interpretations:

- Negative Information explicitly mentioned.
- Negative information has to be explicitly derived during Fixpoint-Computation
- No direct consequences from undefined literals in the rule body!

Unfounded Sets - Example

- **Goal:** Derive as much negative information as possible.

$$a \leftarrow \text{not } b.$$

b doesn't occur in any rule head

→ *thus b cannot be true*

→ *thus a is true.*

"Intended interpretation" $I = \{\text{not } b, a\}$

Unfounded Sets - Example

- **Goal:** Derive as much negative information as possible.

$$a \leftarrow b.$$

$$c \leftarrow \text{not } a.$$

b doesn't occur in any rule head

→ *thus b cannot be true*

→ *thus b is false*

→ *thus a cannot be made true*

→ *thus a is false*

→ *Thus c should be true*

"Intended interpretation" $I = \{\text{not } a, \text{not } b, c\}$

Unfounded Sets - Example

- **Goal:** Derive as much negative information as possible.

$$a \leftarrow b.$$

$$b \leftarrow a.$$

$$c \leftarrow \text{not } a.$$

a occurs in a rule head, but can only be caused "by itself"

→ *thus a cannot be true (same for b)*

→ *thus c is true.*

"Intended interpretation" $I = \{\text{not } a, \text{not } b, c\}$

Unfounded Sets - Definition:

- The previous scenarios should be covered wrt. to a definition of what the "intended interpretation" should be:
- A Set $U \subseteq B_{\mathcal{P}}$ is called **unfounded** wrt. a partial interpretation I if:

For every atom $a \in U$ and any rule $r \in \text{Ground}(\mathcal{P})$ with head a one of the following conditions holds:

1. $\exists l \in B(r) : \text{not}.l \in I$
2. $B^+(r) \cap U \neq \emptyset$

Informally: "For each element of U there is no rule which justifies believing a ."

Unfounded Sets – examples:

$a \leftarrow \text{not } b.$

With $I = \emptyset$ $\{b\}$ is an unfounded set.

$a \leftarrow b.$

$c \leftarrow \text{not } a.$

With $I = \{\text{not } b\}$ $\{a\}$ is an unfounded set, due to condition 1.

$\{a, c\}$ is not unfounded wrt. I since *neither condition holds for the second rule.*

$a \leftarrow b.$

$b \leftarrow a.$

$c \leftarrow \text{not } a.$

With $I = \emptyset$ $\{a, b\}$ is an unfounded set, due to condition 2.

Greatest unfounded Set:

- **Theorem:** There is always a greatest unfounded set $GUS_{\mathcal{A}}(I)$ which contains all other unfounded sets
- **Idea:** Use $GUS_{\mathcal{A}}(I)$ to derive negative information.
- **Definition:**
Operator $U_{\mathcal{P}}(I) := \{\text{not}.a \mid a \in GUS_{\mathcal{P}}(I)\}$

Well-Founded Operator

- Now we generalize $T_{\mathcal{P}}(I)$ to three-valued interpretations:

$T_{\mathcal{P}}(I) =$

$\{A \in B_{\mathcal{P}} : A \leftarrow A_1, \dots, A_n \text{ is a rule } r \text{ in } \textit{Ground}(\mathcal{P}) \text{ such that } B(r) \in I\}$

- Now we define the well-founded Operator $W_{\mathcal{P}}(I)$ as a combination of $T_{\mathcal{P}}(I)$ and $U_{\mathcal{P}}(I)$:

Definition:

$$W_{\mathcal{P}}(I) := T_{\mathcal{P}}(I) \cup U_{\mathcal{P}}(I)$$

Well-Founded Model

Allen Van Gelder, Kenneth Ross, John Schlipf 1988



Well-founded Model:

- **Theorem:**

$W_{\mathcal{P}}$ is monotonic, thus, there exists a least fixpoint $W^{\infty}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset)$

$W^{\infty}_{\mathcal{P}}(\emptyset)$ is called the **Well-Founded Model** of a normal Program \mathcal{P}

A three-valued Interpretation I is called **total** if no atom has the value "unknown", i.e. each element of $B_{\mathcal{P}}$ is either assigned true or false.

Well-founded Model:

- **Theorem:** Each Program has a unique well-founded model
- **Theorem:** The well-founded model for definite (negation-free logic programs is total and corresponds to the least Herbrand-Interpretation
- **Theorem:** The well founded model of a stratifiable normal logic program is total and corresponds to the perfect model

Well-founded Model: Example

person(nicola).

alive(X) ← person(X).

male(X) ← person(X), not female(X).

female(X) ← person(X), not male(X).

- The well founded model is not total:

$\{person(nicola), alive(nicola)\}$

What about this one?

$male(X) \leftarrow person(X), \text{not } female(X).$
 $female(X) \leftarrow person(X), \text{not } male(X).$
 $alive(X) \leftarrow female(X).$
 $alive(X) \leftarrow male(X).$
 $person(nicola).$

Similar to the previous program, but:

The well-founded model only consists of $\{person(nicola)\}$
Intuitively, many people would also expect $alive(nicola)$
to be true.

Stable Models

Michael Gelfond, Vladimir Lifschitz 1988



Stable Models

- Allow more than one model
- Stability condition instead of Fixpoint-Semantics

Gelfond-Lifschitz Transformation:

- The **GL-Transformation** \mathcal{P}^I of a program \mathcal{P} wrt. a total interpretation I is defined by transforming $Ground(\mathcal{P})$ as follows:
 1. Remove all rules r for which $B^-(r) \cap I \neq \emptyset$ holds.
 2. Remove $B^-(r)$ from all remaining rules.

→ From this transformation you achieve a definite (negation-free) program!

GL-Transformation: Example

$$\mathcal{P} = \{ \text{male}(n) \leftarrow \text{not female}(n). \\ \text{female}(n) \leftarrow \text{not male}(n). \}$$

$$I_1 = \emptyset, \mathcal{P}^{I_1} = \{ \text{male}(n). \text{female}(n). \}$$

$$I_2 = \{ \text{male}(n) \}, \mathcal{P}^{I_2} = \{ \text{male}(n). \}$$

$$I_3 = \{ \text{female}(n) \}, \mathcal{P}^{I_3} = \{ \text{female}(n). \}$$

$$I_4 = \{ \text{male}(n). \text{female}(n) \}, \mathcal{P}^{I_4} = \emptyset$$

Stable Models

- **Observation:** \mathcal{P}^I is a definite (negation-free) program, thus it has a least Herbrand model.
- **Definition:** A total Herbrandinterpretation M is called **stable model** of \mathcal{P} if M is the least Herbrand model of \mathcal{P}^M

Stable Model: Examples

$$\mathcal{P} = \{ \text{male}(n) \leftarrow \text{not } \text{female}(n). \\ \text{female}(n) \leftarrow \text{not } \text{male}(n). \}$$

$$I_1 = \emptyset, \mathcal{P}^{I_1} = \{ \text{male}(n). \text{female}(n). \}, MM(\mathcal{P}^{I_1}) \neq I_1$$

$$I_2 = \{ \text{male}(n) \}, \mathcal{P}^{I_2} = \{ \text{male}(n). \}, MM(\mathcal{P}^{I_2}) = I_2$$

$$I_3 = \{ \text{female}(n) \}, \mathcal{P}^{I_3} = \{ \text{female}(n). \}, MM(\mathcal{P}^{I_3}) = I_3$$

$$I_4 = \{ \text{male}(n). \text{female}(n) \}, \mathcal{P}^{I_4} = \emptyset, MM(\mathcal{P}^{I_4}) \neq I_4$$

I_2 and I_3 are stable models.

Stable Model: Examples

$$\mathcal{P} = \{ \textit{weird} \leftarrow \text{not weird.} \}$$

$$I_1 = \emptyset, \mathcal{P}^{I_1} = \{ \textit{weird.} \}, MM(\mathcal{P}^{I_1}) \neq I_1$$

$$I_2 = \{ \textit{weird} \}, \mathcal{P}^{I_2} = \emptyset, MM(\mathcal{P}^{I_2}) \neq I_2$$

Has no stable model!

Stable Models:

- Each normal datalog program has one, several or no stable models.
- **Theorem:** On stratifiable programs stable model semantics, well-founded semantics and perfect model semantics coincide, i.e. there is a single stable model which is equal to the perfect model.
- On the whiteboard:
 - The example from slide 30.
 - An elegant formulation of 3-colorability.

Answer Set Programming:

- Stable Models are the basis for a powerful logic programming paradigm, as an alternative to non-declarative PROLOG:
ANSWER SET PROGRAMMING (ASP)
- ASP = LP under stable model semantics plus useful extensions
 - More in the rest of my lectures after Christmas!

