Probabilistic Logic Programming

Lecture 1: Crash course in logic programming

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June 4, 2024

Logic programming \leftarrow

- In logic programming, you can express facts and if-then rules.
- For example, think of Prolog.
- The goal is to get a computationally useful language to represent knowledge and reason with it.

Positive logic programs, without variables

Positive logic programs consist of rules and facts.

Rules are of the form:

1 a :- b, c, d, ..., z.

which represents the implication $(b \land c \land d \land \cdots \land z) \rightarrow a$

- \blacksquare a is called the head of the rule.
- **b**, c, d, ..., z is called the body of the rule.
- Facts are of the form:
 - 2 **a**.

which represents the positive literal a.

Positive logic programs, without variables (ct'd)

For example, this is a positive logic program.

```
wet :- rainy.
rainy.
cloudy :- rainy.
windy :- cloudy, rainy.
warm :- sunny.
```

Positive logic programs, with variables

- We can also use variables (and function symbols).
 - The convention is to write variables starting with capital letters, and relation and function symbols starting with small letters.
 - Variables are always universally quantified.

For example, in:

```
1 rainy(amsterdam).
```

```
2 rainy(vienna).
```

```
3 wet(X) :- rainy(X).
```

the rule on the third line is interpreted as:

 $\forall x. (\mathsf{Rainy}(x) \to \mathsf{Wet}(x))$

(and rainy and wet are unary predicate symbols, and amsterdam and vienna are constant symbols).

Database semantics

The notion of interpretations in first-order logic is very general, and complicated to work with.

For example:

- there can be any number of objects;
- different constants can refer to the same objects;
- statements that are not mentioned can (in general) be true or false.
- In logic programming, typically what is called database semantics is used:
 - "the objects mentioned are the only objects" (domain closure)
 - "objects with different names are different objects" (unique-names assumption)
 - "statements for which we have no reason to conclude that they are true, are false" (closed-world assumption)

- These three assumptions mean that:
 - we do not have to (explicitly) say what function symbols mean;
 - we can represent objects simply by the terms that point to them;
 - we can represent the meaning of a relation *R* by the set of atoms (over *R*) that are true—and then all atoms that are not in this set are false.
- In the context of logic programming, interpretations are sets of atoms:
 - all atoms in the set are true
 - all atoms not in the set are false

Models

- Models are interpretations that make all rules of a program true.
- For example, this is a positive logic program.

```
    wet :- rainy.
    rainy.
    cloudy :- rainy.
    windy :- cloudy, rainy.
    warm :- sunny.
```

- Then the following are (some of the) interpretations for this program:
 - $I_1 = \{ wet, rainy, cloudy, windy \}$
 - $I_2 = \{ wet, rainy, cloudy, windy, sunny \}$
 - $I_3 = \{ wet, rainy, cloudy, windy, sunny, warm \}$
- Of these, I_1 and I_3 are models, and I_2 is not.

Connection to FOL: Herbrand interpretations

- \blacksquare Let φ be a first-order logic sentence.
- Then a Herbrand interpretation for φ is an interpretation (I, \cdot) such that:
 - I is the set of all terms that can be built using constant and function symbols appearing in φ .
 - For each term t, t' = t.
- For example, take $\varphi = \forall x. (R(x, x) \rightarrow R(mother(alex), x)).$
 - Then for each Herbrand interpretation for φ :

I = {alex, mother(alex), mother(mother(alex)), mother(mother(mother(alex))), ... },
alex' = alex,
mother(alex)' = mother(alex),
mother(mother(alex))' = mother(mother(alex)),
...

Remember (our version of) the closed-world assumption:

"statements for which we have no reason to conclude that they are true, are false"

- This is open to multiple interpretations
- Two ways to interpret this, that are commonly used in logic programming, are:
 - consider only minimal models of a logic program
 - consider only supported models of a logic program

Minimal models

- For positive logic programs, there is a unique minimal model.
 - Minimal in terms of subset-inclusion.
- For example, for:

```
wet :- rainy.
rainy.
cloudy :- rainy.
windy :- cloudy, rainy.
warm :- sunny.
```

the minimal model is $\{wet, rainy, cloudy, windy\}$.

- We can find this minimal model M with the following procedure:
 - **1** Start by putting all facts of the program into M.
 - **2** Repeat until M does not change anymore:

If there is a rule $b \leftarrow c_1, \ldots, c_n$ where $c_1, \ldots, c_n \in M$, put b in M too.

• A model *M* is a supported model of a logic program *P* if:

• for each atom $a \in M$, there is some rule $a \leftarrow \beta$. in P such that M makes β true.

 In other words, M is a supported model of P if each atom a is "forced" to be in M by some rule a ← β.

For positive logic programs, the unique minimal model is also a supported model.

- It is often useful to use negation in the body of rules: not (meaning \neg)
- For example:
 - wet(X) :- rainy(X), not sunny(X).
 - 2 rainy(amsterdam).
 - 3 rainbow(X) :- rainy(X), sunny(X).
 - 4 warm(X) :- sunny(X).

- In normal logic programs, rules are of the following form:
 - 1 a :- b_1 , ..., b_n , not c_1 , ..., not c_m .
- When allowing negation, we lose the property that there is a unique minimal (and supported) model

Stratified negation

- Negation is stratified in a program *P* if the following holds.
 - Draw a directed graph, where the nodes are the relation symbols appearing in *P*.
 - For every rule $a := b_1, \ldots, b_n$, not c_1, \ldots , not c_m . in P:
 - Draw an edge labelled with (a negative edge) from the relation symbol in a to the relation symbol in c_i , for each $1 \le i \le m$.
 - Draw an edge labelled with + (a positive edge) from the relation symbol in a to the relation symbol in b_i , for each $1 \le i \le n$.
 - If this graph has no cycles involving negative edges, then negation is stratified.



Iterated fixpoint model

For programs with stratified negation, we define iterated fixpoint models (IFMs)

- (Details of the definition on the next slide..)
- Every program with stratified negation has an IFM, and only one
- The IFM is a minimal model, and it is a supported model
- (But there might be models that are minimal and/or supported that are not the IFM)
- This model serves as "intended model"
 - We consider the unique IFM as the (only) meaning of the program
 - (Just like the unique minimal model for positive programs..)

Iterated fixpoint model (ct'd)

- We can compute the IFM of a program with stratified negation as follows: (At the same time, this procedure defines the IFM..)
 - **1** Assign a positive integer to each relation symbol such that:
 - When there is a negative edge from a to b, then the number assigned to a is strictly larger than that assigned to b.
 - When there is a positive edge from a to b, then the number assigned to a is at least as large as that assigned to b.

(We can do this because there are no cycles with negated edges.)

- **2** Start by putting all facts of the program into *M*.
- Proceed in stages, one stage for each assigned integer *i*, going from low to high.In each stage *i*:
 - Repeat until *M* does not change anymore:

If there is a rule $b \leftarrow c_1, \ldots, c_n$, not d_1, \ldots , not d_m . in P where $c_1, \ldots, c_n \in M$ and $d_1, \ldots, d_m \notin M$, and b is assigned the number i, then put b in M too.

Iterated fixpoint model (ct'd)

Take this example again:

```
wet(X) :- rainy(X), not sunny(X).
```

- 2 rainy(amsterdam).
- 3 rainbow(X) :- rainy(X), sunny(X).
- 4 warm(X) :- sunny(X).
- Assign 1 to rainy, rainbow, sunny, warm, and 2 to wet.
- After stage 1, we end up with the interpretation M₁ = {rainy(amsterdam)}
- After stage 2, we end up with the interpretation M₂ = {rainy(amsterdam), wet(amsterdam)}
- Then M_2 is the iterated fixpoint model

- On the previous slides, we assigned numbers to predicate symbols (for programs with variables)
- Instead, we could assign numbers to atoms (for ground programs, i.e., programs without variables)
- The procedure for computing the IFM works entirely similarly in that case

What if we want unstratified negation?

- What if we want to use negation, but it is not stratified in our knowledge base?
- For example:
 - 1 rainy :- not sunny.
 - 2 sunny :- not rainy.
- As mentioned, then there is not always a unique minimal model.
 - In this example, the following are minimal models: {rainy} and {sunny}.

• What to do?

Minimality and supportedness does not capture what we want

- Not all minimal and supported models match our intuitions for what desirable models are (under the closed-world assumption)
- Consider for example the following normal logic program with unstratified negation:

1 rainy :- windy, not sunny. 2 windy :- rainy, not sunny. 3 sunny :- not rainy.

- Then the model $M = \{\text{rainy}, \text{windy}\}\$ is both minimal and supported
- But this model can be argued not to be in line with the closed-world assumption:
 - rainy and windy provide each other a reason for being true, but there is no "external" reason why they should be true

Answer Set Programming </>

Syntax of ASP

- Answer Set Programming (ASP) assigns the so-called answer set semantics to logic programs with negations.
- In the basic language of ASP (normal logic programs), programs may contain facts and rules of the form:
 - 1 a :- b_1 , ..., b_n , not c_1 , ..., not c_m .
 - Negation does not have to be stratified.
 - It may contain variables, that must appear safely:
 - Every variable that appears in the head of a rule, must also appear in a non-negated atom in the body.
 - Every variable that appears in a negated atom in the body of a rule, must also appear in a non-negated atom in the body.

- Consider an interpretation *M* as an assumption for which atoms are true and which are false.
- **2** Construct a (positive) variant P^M of the program P that takes into account this assumption.
- 3 Check whether M is the (unique) minimal model of P^M .

Semantics of ASP

- **Take** a normal logic program P and an interpretation M.
- The reduct P^M of P w.r.t. M is obtained from P by:
 - **1** removing rules with not a in the body, for $a \in M$
 - **2** removing literals not b from all rules, for $b \notin M$
- An answer set of P is a set M that is the minimal model of P^M
- For example, take *P* to be:
 - 1 rainy :- not sunny.
 - 2 sunny :- not rainy.

```
and M = \{ \text{sunny} \}. Then P^M is:
```

```
1 sunny.
```

and M is the minimal model of P^M .

Another example

Logic program *P*:

1 a :- not b. 2 b :- not a. 3 c :- b. 4 b :- a.

What are the answer sets of this program?

Answer sets:

1 b c

Logic program $P^{\{b,c\}}$:

1 a :- not b. 2 b :- not a.

зс:-b.

4 b :- a.

 $\{b,c\}$ is the minimal model of $P^{\{b,c\}}$, and thus $\{b,c\}$ is an answer set of P.

Logic program $P^{\{a,b,c\}}$:

1 a := not b.
2 b := not a.
3 c := b.
4 b := a.

 $\{a,b,c\}$ is not the minimal model of $P^{\{a,b,c\}}$, and thus $\{a,b,c\}$ is not an answer set of P.

Yet another example

Logic program:

- 1 low :- not high.
- 2 high :- not low.
- 3 left :- not right.
- 4 right :- not left.

Answer sets:

- 1 low left
- 2 low right
- 3 high left
- 4 high right

Using variables

Logic program:

- 1 num(1).
- 2 num(2).
- 3 left(X) :- not right(X), num(X).
 4 right(X) :- not left(X), num(X).

Answer sets:

- num(1) num(2) right(1) left(2)
- 2 num(1) num(2) right(1) right(2)
- 3 num(1) num(2) left(1) left(2)
- 4 num(1) num(2) left(1) right(2)

Constraints

• Constraints are rules without head, meaning that the body must be false.

Logic program:

- 1 num(1).
- 2 num(2).
- 3 left(X) :- not right(X), num(X).
- 4 right(X) :- not left(X), num(X).

5 :- left(1). % it cannot be the case that left(1) is true

Answer sets:

num(1) num(2) right(1) left(2)

2 num(1) num(2) right(1) right(2)

Answer sets vs. models

