What's your preference?

And how to express and implement it in logic programming!

Torsten Schaub University of Potsdam

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And how to express and implement it in logic programming!

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- Motivation
- Answer set programming
- Answer set programming with preferences
 - ★ Syntax
 - Semantics
 - ✤ Implementation
- Conclusion

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The notion of *preference* in commonsense reasoning is pervasive. For instance,

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- in scheduling, meeting some deadlines may be more important than meeting others;
- in legal reasoning, laws are subject to higher principles, like lex superior or lex posterior, which are themselves subject to "higher higher" principles;
- etc etc . . .

Legal reasoning

The challenge!

"A person wants to find out if her security interest in a certain ship is perfected. She currently has possession of the ship. According to the <u>Uniform Commercial Code</u> (UCC, §9-305) a security interest in goods may be perfected by taking possession of the collateral. However, there is a federal law called the <u>Ship Mortgage Act</u> (SMA) according to which a security interest in a ship may only be perfected by filing a financing statement. Such a statement has not been filed. Now the question is whether the UCC or the SMA takes precedence in this case. There are two known legal principles for resolving conflicts of this kind. The principle of <u>Lex Posterior</u> gives precedence to newer laws. In our case the UCC is newer than the SMA. On the other hand, the principle of <u>Lex Superior</u> gives precedence to laws supported by the higher authority. In our case the SMA has higher authority since it is federal law."

(Gordon, 1993)

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Legal reasoning

Our solution in "ordered logic programming"

```
perfected :- name(ucc), possession, not neg perfected.
neg perfected :- name(sma), ship, neg finstatement, not perfected.
```

possession. ship. neg finstatement.

```
(Y < X) :- name(lex_posterior(X,Y)), newer(X,Y), not neg (Y < X).
```

(X < Y) :- name(lex_superior(X,Y)), state_law(X), federal_law(Y), not neg (X < Y).

newer(ucc,sma). federal_law(sma). state_law(ucc).

(lex_posterior(X,Y) < lex_superior(X,Y)).</pre>

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- Brewka and Eiter
- Delgrande, Schaub, and Tompits
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- Allows for using powerful off-the-shelf systems, such as dlv, nomore and smodels

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- **X** Selection function on the set of answer sets

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- X Complexity within NP

Extended logic programs

• A *rule*, *r*, is an ordered pair of the form

$$L_0 \leftarrow L_1, \ldots, L_m, not \ L_{m+1}, \ldots, not \ L_n,$$

where $n \ge m \ge 0$, and each L_i $(0 \le i \le n)$ is a literal.

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- An extended logic program is a finite set of rules.
- Notations

$$head(r) = L_0$$

$$body(r) = \{L_1, \dots, L_m, not \ L_{m+1}, \dots, not \ L_n\}$$

$$body^+(r) = \{L_1, \dots, L_m\}$$

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$$r^+ = head(r) \leftarrow body^+(r)$$

• A rule r is *defeated* by a set of literals X iff $body^{-}(r) \cap X \neq \emptyset$.

• The *reduct*, Π^X , of a program Π relative to a set X of literals is defined by

$$\Pi^X = \{ r^+ \mid r \in \Pi \text{ and } body^-(r) \cap X = \emptyset \}.$$

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In other words, Π^X is obtained from Π by

- 1. deleting any rule in Π which is defeated by X and
- 2. deleting each literal of the form not L occurring in the bodies of the remaining rules.

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- For the talk, we consider consistent answer sets only!

An example: n-Queens

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For n = 4 , we get:



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 $\leftarrow not hasq(X)$ $hasq(X) \leftarrow q(X,Y)$

n-Queens

(in the smodels language)

```
q(X,Y) := d(X), d(Y), not negq(X,Y).
negq(X,Y) :- d(X), d(Y), not q(X,Y).
```

```
:- d(X), d(Y), d(X1), q(X,Y), q(X1,Y), X1 != X.
:- d(X), d(Y), d(Y1), q(X,Y), q(X,Y1), Y1 != Y.
:- d(X), d(Y), d(X1), d(Y1), q(X,Y), q(X1,Y1),
        X != X1, Y != Y1, abs(X - X1) == abs(Y - Y1).
```

:- d(X), not hasq(X).
hasq(X) :- d(X), d(Y), q(X,Y).

d(1..queens).
And the performance . . . ?

```
torsten@belle-ile 506 > lparse -c queens=20 queens2.lp | smodels
smodels version 2.25. Reading...done
Answer: 1
Stable Model: d(1) d(2) d(3) d(4) d(5) d(6) d(7) d(8) d(9) d(10) d(11) d(12)
d(13) d(14) d(15) d(16) d(17) d(18) d(19) d(20) q(1,16) q(2,13) q(3,6) q(4,3)
q(5,15) q(6,19) q(7,1) q(8,4) q(9,9) q(10,11) q(11,8) q(12,10) q(13,17)
q(14,2) q(15,20) q(16,18) q(17,7) q(18,5) q(19,14) q(20,12)
True
Duration: 37.810
Number of choice points: 1471
Number of wrong choices: 1464
Number of atoms: 501
Number of rules: 10100
Number of picked atoms: 304305
Number of forced atoms: 14604
Number of truth assignments: 3111768
Size of searchspace (removed): 400 (0)
```

Two options:

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Static preferences: Use an external order < .

Ordered logic program: $(\Pi, <)$

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Static preferences: Use an external order < .

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where Π is a logic program over ${\cal L}$ and < is a strict partial order over Π ;

Dynamic preferences: Use a special-purpose predicate \prec .

Ordered logic program: Π

where Π is a logic program over $\mathcal{L} \cup \{\prec\}$ containing rules expressing that \prec is a strict partial order.

An example

Consider the following ordered logic program $(\Pi, <)$ with $\Pi = \{r_1, r_2, r_3\}$

 $r_1: \neg a \leftarrow$ and $r_3 < r_2$. $r_2: b \leftarrow$ $\neg a, not c$ $r_3: c \leftarrow$ not b

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among which the green one is (usually) preferred.

- W-preference (Wang, Zhou, and Lin)
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 - * translation into standards programs

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 - * (alternating) fixed point theory
- D-preference (Delgrande, Schaub, and Tompits)
 - * order preservation (of generating rules)
 - * translation into standards programs
- B-preference (Brewka and Eiter)
 - dual GL-reduction (eliminating prerequisites)
 - fixed point operator

Claim Standard approach, ie. " $Cn(\Pi^X) = X$ ", doesn't work!

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Common intuitions

"<" induces some order on rule application \hookrightarrow iterative specification (option)

"<" induces additional dependencies between rules

 \hookrightarrow keep original rules

Fixpoint definition of standard answer sets

(unfolding iterated applications of "immediate consequence operations")

Let Π be a logic program and let X be a (consistent) set of literals. We define

 $\begin{array}{rcl} X_0 &=& \emptyset & \text{ and for } i \geq 0 \\ X_{i+1} &=& X_i \cup \left\{ head(r) \mid r \in \Pi, \ body^+(r) \subseteq X, \ body^-(r) \cap Y = \emptyset \right\} \end{array}$ Then, X is an *answer set* of Π if $X = \bigcup_{i \geq 0} X_i$.

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A rule r ∈ Π is active wrt the pair (X, Y) of sets of literals, if $body^+(r) \subseteq X$ and $body^-(r) \cap Y = \emptyset$.

Fixpoint definition of W-preferred answer sets

Let $(\Pi, <)$ be an ordered logic program and let X be a set of literals. We define

Then, X is a *W*-preferred answer set if $X = \bigcup_{i>0} X_i$.

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$$X_{0} = \emptyset \quad \text{and for } i \geq 0$$

$$X_{i+1} = X_{i} \cup \begin{cases} \text{head}(r) \\ \text{head}(r) \\ \text{head}(r') \end{cases} \begin{array}{c} I. \quad r \in \Pi \text{ is active wrt } (X_{i}, X) \text{ and} \\ II. \quad \text{there is no rule } r' \in \Pi \text{ with } r < r' \\ \text{such that} \\ (a) \ r' \text{ is active wrt } (X, X_{i}) \text{ and} \\ (b) \ head(r') \notin X_{i} \end{cases}$$

Then, X is a W-preferred answer set if $X = \bigcup_{i>0} X_i$.

Fixpoint definition of D-preferred answer sets

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Fixpoint definition of D-preferred answer sets

Let $(\Pi, <)$ be an ordered logic program and let X be a set of literals. We define

Then, X is a *D*-preferred answer set if $X = \bigcup_{i>0} X_i$.

Consider ordered logic program $(\Pi, <)$:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} r_1: & a & \leftarrow & not \ b & & r_2 < r_1 \\ r_2: & b & \leftarrow & \\ r_3: & a & \leftarrow & \end{array}$$

 Π has one standard answer set: $X = \{a, b\}$.

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- X is a W-preferred answer set.
- Π has no D-preferred answer sets.

Fixpoint definition of B-preferred answer sets

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Let $(\Pi, <)$ be an ordered logic program and let X be an answer set of Π . We define

Then, X is a **B**-preferred answer set if $X = \bigcup_{i \ge 0} X_i$.

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Then, X is a *B*-preferred answer set if $X = \bigcup_{i \ge 0} X_i$.

(Brewka and Eiter, 1999)

Consider ordered logic program $(\Pi, <)$:

 Π has two standard answer sets: $X = \{a, b\}$ and $X' = \{a, \neg b\}$.

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 Π has two standard answer sets: $X = \{a, b\}$ and $X' = \{a, \neg b\}$.

• X is the unique B-preferred answer set.

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- X is the unique B-preferred answer set.
- Π has no W- and D-preferred answer sets.

(Baader and Hollunder, 1993)

Consider ordered logic program $(\Pi, <)$:

$$egin{array}{rll} r_1: &
eg f & \leftarrow p, \, not \, f & r_2 < r_1 \ r_2: & w & \leftarrow b, \, not \,
eg w \ r_3: & f & \leftarrow w, \, not \,
eg f \ r_4: & b & \leftarrow p \ r_5: & p & \leftarrow \end{array}$$

 $\boldsymbol{\Pi}$ has two standard answer sets:

$$X = \{p, b, \neg f, w\} \qquad \text{ and } \qquad X' = \{p, b, f, w\}$$

(Baader and Hollunder, 1993)

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 Π has two standard answer sets:

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(Baader and Hollunder, 1993)

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$$X = \{p, b, \neg f, w\}$$
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- X and X' are both B-preferred answer sets.

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Roughly, the hierarchy is induced by a decreasing interaction between *groundedness* and *preference*:

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 $\mathcal{AS}_{\mathsf{D}}(\Pi, <) \subseteq \mathcal{AS}_{\mathsf{W}}(\Pi, <) \subseteq \mathcal{AS}_{\mathsf{B}}(\Pi, <) \subseteq \mathcal{AS}(\Pi)$ where $\mathcal{AS}(\Pi) -$ set of standard answer sets $\mathcal{AS}_{P}(\Pi, <) -$ set of "*P*-preferred answer sets"

Roughly, the hierarchy is induced by a decreasing interaction between *groundedness* and *preference*:

D-preference	full compatibility
W-preference	weak compatibility
B-preference	no compatibility

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Idea Translate a logic program Π with preference information into a standard logic program $\mathcal{T}(\Pi)$ such that answers to $\mathcal{T}(\Pi)$ respect the preferences in Π .

for *dynamically* ordered logic programs

- Idea Translate a logic program Π with preference information into a standard logic program $\mathcal{T}(\Pi)$ such that answers to $\mathcal{T}(\Pi)$ respect the preferences in Π .
- **Plan** 1. Extend the language for expressing preference
 - 2. Add axioms encoding specific preference handling strategies

(Dynamically) ordered logic programs

An ordered logic program is an extended logic program over a propositional language \mathcal{L} ,

containing the following pairwise disjoint categories:

- a set \mathcal{N} of terms serving as *names* for rules;
- $\bullet\,$ a set ${\bf A}$ of regular (propositional) atoms of a program; and
- a set \mathbf{A}_{\prec} of *preference atoms* $s \prec t$, where $s, t \in \mathcal{N}$ are names.

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For each ordered program Π , we require a bijective function $n(\cdot)$ assigning to each rule $r \in \Pi$ a name $n(r) \in \mathcal{N}$.

To simplify our notation, we write

- n_r instead of n(r) or n_i instead of n_{r_i} and
- t:r instead of t=n(r).

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- 2. Provide axioms that guarantee a consideration of rules that is in accord with the underlying preference information, that is, $n_r \prec n_{r'}$ enforces that $ok(n_{r'})$ is derivable "before" $ok(n_r)$
- 3. Specify what it means that a rule "has been considered"

according to *D*-preference

Let $\Pi = \{r_1, \ldots, r_k\}$ be an ordered logic program over \mathcal{L} .

Let \mathcal{L}^* be the language obtained from \mathcal{L} by adding, for each $r, r' \in \Pi$, new pairwise distinct propositional atoms $\operatorname{ap}(n_r)$, $\operatorname{bl}(n_r)$, $\operatorname{ok}(n_r)$, and $\operatorname{rdy}(n_r, n_{r'})$. Then, the logic program $\mathcal{T}(\Pi)$ over \mathcal{L}^* contains the following rules, for each $r \in \Pi$, where $L^+ \in body^+(r)$, $L^- \in body^-(r)$, and $r', r'' \in \Pi$:

Then, the logic program $\mathcal{T}(\Pi)$ over \mathcal{L}^* contains the following rules, for each $r \in \Pi$, where $L^+ \in body^+(r)$, $L^- \in body^-(r)$, and $r', r'' \in \Pi$:

$$a_1(r): \qquad head(r) \quad \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{ap}(n_r) \\ a_2(r): \qquad \mathsf{ap}(n_r) \quad \leftarrow \quad \mathsf{ok}(n_r), \, body(r)$$

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according to *W*-preference

according to *W-preference*

$a_1(r)$:	head(r)	\leftarrow	$ap(n_r)$
$a_2(r):$	$ap(n_r)$	~~~	$ok(n_r), body(r)$
$b_1(r,L)$:	$bl(n_r)$	\leftarrow	$ok(n_r), not \ L^+$
$b_2(r,L)$:	$bl(n_r)$	\leftarrow	$ok(n_r), L^-$
$c_1(r)$:	$ok(n_r)$	~~~	$rdy(n_r, n_{r_1}), \dots, rdy(n_r)$
$c_2(r,r')$:	$rdy(n_r, n_{r'})$	\leftarrow	$not (n_r \prec n_{r'})$
$c_3(r,r')$:	$rdy(n_r, n_{r'})$	\leftarrow	$(n_r \prec n_{r'}), ap(n_{r'})$
$c_4(r,r')$:	$rdy(n_r, n_{r'})$	\leftarrow	$(n_r \prec n_{r'}), bl(n_{r'})$
$c_5(r,r'):$	$rdy(n_r, n_{r'})$	\leftarrow	$(n_r \prec n_{r'}), head(r')$
$t(r,r^{\prime},r^{\prime\prime}):$	$n_r \prec n_{r''}$	~~~	$n_r \prec n_{r'}, n_{r'} \prec n_{r''}$
as(r,r'):	$\neg(n_{r'} \prec n_r)$	\leftarrow	$n_r \prec n_{r'}$

 n_{r_k}

according to *B-preference*

according to *B-preference*

Π

+	$a_1(r):$	head(r')	\leftarrow	$ap(n_r)$
	$a_2(r):$	$ap(n_r)$	\leftarrow	$ok(n_r), body(r), not \ body^-(r')$
	$b_1(r,L):$	$bl(n_r)$	\leftarrow	$ok(n_r), not \ L, not \ L'$
	$b_2(r,K)$:	$bl(n_r)$	~~	$ok(n_r), K, K'$
	$c_1(r):$	$ok(n_r)$	~~	$rdy(n_r, n_{r_1}), \dots, rdy(n_r, n_{r_k})$
	$c_2(r,s):$	$rdy(n_r,n_s)$	\leftarrow	$not \ (n_r \prec n_s)$
	$c_3(r,s):$	$rdy(n_r,n_s)$	\leftarrow	$(n_r\prec n_s), ap(n_s)$
	$c_4(r,s):$	$rdy(n_r,n_s)$	\leftarrow	$(n_r \prec n_s), bl(n_s)$
	$c_5(r,s,J):$	$rdy(n_r,n_s)$	\leftarrow	head(s), J
	d(r):		\leftarrow	$not \ ok(n_r)$
	t(r,s,t):	$n_r \prec n_t$	~~~	$n_r \prec n_s, n_s \prec n_t$
	as(r,s) :	$\neg(n_s \prec n_r)$	\leftarrow	$n_r \prec n_s$

An(other) example

Consider the following ordered logic program $\Pi = \{r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4\}$:

 $r_{1} = \neg a \leftarrow$ $r_{2} = b \leftarrow \neg a, not c$ $r_{3} = c \leftarrow not b$ $r_{4} = n_{3} \prec n_{2} \leftarrow not d$

where n_i denotes the name of rule r_i (i = 1, ..., 4).

This program has two answer sets, $\{\neg a, b, n_3 \prec n_2\}$ and $\{\neg a, c, n_3 \prec n_2\}$.

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The example ran through our implementation

Ordered logic program $\Pi = \{r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4\}$:

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becomes

neg a. b :- name(n2), neg a, not c. c :- name(n3), not b. (n3 < n2) :- not d.</pre>

The outcome

neg_a. b := ap(n2). $ap(n2) := ok(n2), neg_a, not c.$ $bl(n2) := ok(n2), not neg_a.$ bl(n2) :- ok(n2), c. c := ap(n3).ap(n3) := ok(n3), not b. bl(n3) :- ok(n3), b. prec(n3, n2) := not d.ok(N) := name(N), oko(N, n2), oko(N, n3).oko(N, M) :- name(N), name(M), not prec(N, M). oko(N, M) := name(N), name(M), prec(N, M), ap(M).oko(N, M) := name(N), name(M), prec(N, M), bl(M).neg_prec(M, N) :- name(N), name(M), prec(N, M). prec(N, M) := name(N), name(M), name(O),prec(N, 0), prec(0, M).false :- a, neg_a. false :- b, neg_b. false :- c, neg_c. false :- d, neg_d. false :- name(N), name(M), prec(N, M), neg_prec(N, M). name(n3). name(n2).

Computing preferred answer sets

```
?- lp2dlv('Examples/example').
```

```
yes
?- dlv('Examples/example').
dlv [build BEN/Apr 5 2000 gcc 2.95.2 19991024 (release)]
\{name(n2), name(n3), neg_a, ok(n2), oko(n2,n2), oko(n2,n3), oko(n3,n3), \}
prec(n3,n2), neg_prec(n2,n3), ap(n2), b, oko(n3,n2), ok(n3), bl(n3)
yes
?- dlv('Examples/example',nice).
dlv [build BEN/Apr 5 2000 gcc 2.95.2 19991024 (release)]
\{neg_a, b\}
yes
?-
```

dlv is an off-the-shelf logic programming/deductive database system

plp http://www.cs.uni-potsdam.de/~torsten/plp

- Front-end to dlv and smodels
 - 1. plp: OLP \mapsto LP
 - 2. dlv/smodels: LP \mapsto Answer sets
- Ordered logic programs

eg. $n_{17} \prec n_{42} \leftarrow n_{17} \prec n_{34}, not (n_{42} \prec n_{34})$

• Ordered logic programs with variables

eg. $n_1(x) \prec n_2(y) \leftarrow p(y), not (x = c)$

- Disjunctive logic programming
 - preferences about disjunctive rules
 - disjunctive preferences,

eg.
$$(r_2 \prec r_{42}) \lor (r_4 \prec r_{42}) \leftarrow \neg a$$


- Methodology for
 - * specifying and
 - * implementing
 - preferences within answer set programming

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- Uniformity provides us with a deeper understanding of how and which answer sets are preferred in each approach
- In particular, this is reflected in the compilation framework used for implementing preferences

Acknowledgements

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Thank you all very much!

Consider ordered logic program $(\Pi, <)$:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} r_1: & a & \leftarrow & not \ b & & r_2 < r_1 \\ r_2: & b & \leftarrow & \end{array}$$

 Π has one standard answer set: $X = \{a, b\}$.

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