## Definite Logic Programs: Models

CSE 505 – Computing with Logic Stony Brook University <u>htTp://www.cs.stonybrook.edu/~cse505</u>

## Logical Consequences of Formulae

- Recall: F is a *logical consequence* of P (i.e.  $P \models F$ ) iff
- Every model of P is also a model of F.
  Since there are (in general) infinitely many possible interpretations, how can we check if F is a logical consequence of P?
  - Solution: choose (one) "*canonical*" model I such that

#### $I \vDash P$ and $I \vDash F \rightarrow P \vDash F$

## **Definite Clauses**

- A formula of the form p(t<sub>1</sub>, t<sub>2</sub>, ..., t<sub>n</sub>), where p/n is an n-ary predicate symbol and t<sub>i</sub> are all terms is said to be *atomic*.
- If **A** is an atomic formula then:
  - **A** is said to be a *positive literal*
  - ¬A is said to be a *negative literal*
- A formula of the form \$\formstyle (\mathbf{L}\_1 \vee \mathbf{L}\_2 \vee \cdots ... \vee \mathbf{L}\_n)\$ where each \$\mathbf{L}\_1\$ is a literal (negative or positive) is called a *clause*.
- A clause ∀(L<sub>1</sub> ∨ L<sub>2</sub> ∨ ... ∨ L<sub>n</sub>) where exactly one literal is positive is called a *definite clause* (also called *Horn clause*).
  - A definite clause is usually written as:
    - $\forall (\mathbf{A_0} \lor \neg \mathbf{A_1} \lor \ldots \lor \neg \mathbf{A_n})$
    - or equivalently as:  $\mathbf{A}_0 \leftarrow \mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n$ .
- A *definite program* is a set of definite clauses.

#### Herbrand Universe

- Given an alphabet A, the set of all <u>ground</u>
   <u>terms</u> constructed from the constant and
   function symbols of A is called the *Herbrand Universe* of A (denoted by U<sub>A</sub>).
- Consider the program:

p(zero).



- Jacques Herbrand (1908 –1931)
- The Herbrand Universe of the program's alphabet
  - is:  $U_A = \{ \texttt{zero}, \texttt{s}(\texttt{zero}), \texttt{s}(\texttt{s}(\texttt{zero})), ... \}$

 $p(s(s(X))) \leftarrow p(X)$ .

#### (c) Paul Fodor (CS Stony Brook) and Elsevier

# Herbrand Universe: Example Consider the "relations" program:

- parent(pam, bob). parent(bob, ann).
- parent(tom, bob). parent(bob, pat).
- parent(tom, liz). parent(pat, jim).
- grandparent(X,Y) :
  - parent(X,Z), parent(Z,Y).
- The Herbrand Universe of the program's alphabet is:
- $\mathbf{U}_{\mathbf{A}} = \{ \texttt{pam}, \texttt{bob}, \texttt{tom}, \texttt{liz}, \texttt{ann}, \texttt{pat}, \texttt{jim} \}$

#### Herbrand Base

- Given an alphabet A, the set of all <u>ground</u> atomic formulas over A is called the *Herbrand Base* of A (denoted by B<sub>A</sub>)
- Consider the program:
  - p(zero).
  - $p(s(s(X))) \leftarrow p(X)$ .
- The Herbrand Base of the program's alphabet
   is: B<sub>A</sub>={p(zero), p(s(zero)),
   p(s(s(zero))),...}

#### Herbrand Base: Example

- Consider the "relations" program:
  - parent(pam, bob). parent(bob, ann).
  - parent(tom, bob). parent(bob, pat).
  - parent(tom, liz).
  - grandparent(X,Y) :-
- parent(pat, jim).
- parent(X,Z), parent(Z,Y).
- The Herbrand Base of the program's alphabet is:  $B_A = \{parent(pam, pam), parent(pam, bob), parent(pam, tom), ..., parent(bob, pam), ..., grandparent(bob, pam), ..., grandparent(bbb, pam), ..., g$

#### Herbrand Interpretations and Models

- A *Herbrand Interpretation* of a program P is an interpretation I such that:
  - The domain of the interpretation:  $|I| = U_p$
  - For every constant  $\mathbf{c}: \mathbf{c}_{I} = \mathbf{c}$
  - For every function symbol **f/n**:

$$f_{I}(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n}) = f(x_{1}, \dots, x_{n})$$

- For every predicate symbol  $\mathbf{p/n}: \mathbf{p}_{I} \subseteq (U_{P})^{n}$ (i.e. some subset of  $\mathbf{n}$ -tuples of ground terms)
- A *Herbrand Model* of a program P is a Herbrand interpretation that is a model of P.

## Herbrand Models

- All Herbrand interpretations of a program give the same "meaning" to the constant and function symbols
  - Different Herbrand interpretations differ only in the *"meaning"* they give to the predicate symbols

#### Herbrand Models

- We often write a Herbrand model simply by listing the subset of the Herbrand base that is true in the model
  - Example: Consider our numbers program, where
- {p(zero), p(s(s(zero))), p(s(s(s(zero))))),...}
  - represents the Herbrand model that treats
- $p_{I} = \{zero, s(s(zero)), s(s(s(zero)))), \ldots \}$ 
  - as the meaning of **p**.
  - If we have several predicates, the Herbrand interpretation would be a single set of all true predicates

## Sufficiency of Herbrand Models

• Let P be a definite program. If I' is a <u>model of P</u> then  $I = \{ \mathbf{A} \in Bp \mid I' \models \mathbf{A} \}$  is a <u>Herbrand model of P</u>.

#### Proof (by contradiction):

- Assume that I' is a model of P but I (defined above) is not a model.
- Then there is some ground instance of a clause in P:

 $\mathbf{A}_0$  :-  $\mathbf{A}_1$ , ...,  $\mathbf{A}_n$ .

- which is not true in I i.e.,  $I \vDash A_1, ..., I \vDash A_n$  but  $I \nvDash A_0$
- By definition of I then,  $I' \vDash \mathbf{A_1}, ..., I' \vDash \mathbf{A_n}$  but I'  $\nvDash \mathbf{A_0}$
- Thus, I' is not a model of P, which contradicts our earlier assumption.

## Definite programs only

- Let P be a definite program. If I' is a model of P then  $I = \{ \mathbf{A} \in Bp \mid I' \models \mathbf{A} \}$  is a Herbrand model of P.
- This property holds only for definite programs!
  - Example: Consider  $P = \{\neg p(a), \exists X.p(X)\}$ 
    - There are two Herbrand interpretations:  $I_1 = \{p(a)\}$  and  $I_2 = \{\}$ 
      - The first is not a model of P since  $I_1 \not\models \neg p(a)$
      - The second is not a model of P since  $I_2 \not\models \exists X.p(X)$
    - But there are non-Herbrand models, such as I:
      - |I| = N (the set of natural numbers)

• 
$$a_I \equiv 0$$

• 
$$p_I =$$
"is odd"

#### **Properties of Herbrand Models**

- 1. For any definite program P, if every Herbrand Model of P is also a Herbrand Model of F, then  $P \models F$ .
- If M is a set of Herbrand Models of a definite program
   P, then ∩M is also a Herbrand Model of P.
- For every definite program P there is a <u>unique</u> *least* model Mp such that:
  - a) Mp is a Herbrand Model of P and,
  - b) for every Herbrand Model M,  $Mp \subseteq M$ .

4. Mp = the set of all ground logical consequences of P.

• If  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are Herbrand models of P, then  $M=M_1 \cap M_2$  is a model of P. Proof:

•Assume  $M = M_1 \cap M_2$  is not a model.

- Then there is some clause  $\mathbf{A}_0:=\mathbf{A}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{A}_n$  such that  $M \models \mathbf{A}_1, \ldots, M \models \mathbf{A}_n$  but  $M \models \mathbf{A}_0$
- Which means  $\mathbf{A}_0 \notin M1$  or  $\mathbf{A}_0 \notin M2$  by def. of  $\cap$
- But  $\mathbf{A_1}, \dots, \mathbf{A_n} \in M_1$  as well as  $M_2$ .
- •Hence one of  $M_1$  or  $M_2$  is not a model.

Properties of Herbrand Models
There is a unique least Herbrand model.
<u>Proof:</u>

Let M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub> are two incomparable <u>minimal</u> Herbrand models (incomparable means neither one is a subset of the other), but M=M<sub>1</sub>∩M<sub>2</sub> is also a Herbrand model (previous theorem), and M⊂M<sub>1</sub> or M⊂M<sub>2</sub>
Thus M<sub>1</sub> on M<sub>2</sub> is not minimal.

Least Herbrand Model • The *least Herbrand model* Mp of a definite program P is the set of all ground logical <u>consequences of the program:</u>  $Mp = \{A \in Bp \mid P \models \mathbf{A}\}$ Proof:

First, Mp ⊇ {A ∈ Bp | P ⊨ A} (i.e., Mp is a superset of the logical consequences {A∈Bp | P⊨A}):
By definition of logical consequence, P ⊨ A means that A must be in every model of P and hence also in the least Herbrand model.

## Least Herbrand Model

- Second,  $Mp \subseteq \{A \in Bp \mid P \vDash A\}$  (i.e., Mp is a subset of the logical consequences  $\{A \in Bp \mid P \vDash A\}$ ):
  - Assume that **A** is in Mp. Hence, **A** is in every Herbrand model of P by def. of Mp (i.e., subset of all models)
  - Assume that A is not true in some non-Herbrand model of P:
     I' ⊨ ¬A
  - By sufficiency of Herbrand models (i.e., If I' is a model of P then I={A∈Bp | I' ⊨ A} is a Herbrand model of P), there is some Herbrand model I such that I ⊨ ¬A
  - Hence **A** cannot be an element of the Herbrand model I
  - This contradicts that **A** is in every Herbrand model of P, and their intersection Mp

#### **Construction** of Least Herbrand Models

- Definition: *Immediate consequence operator:* 
  - Given an interpretation  $I \subseteq Bp$ , construct I' such that
    - $I' = \{ \mathbf{A}_0 \in Bp \mid \mathbf{A}_0 \leftarrow \mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n \text{ is a ground} \\ \text{instance of a clause in P and } \mathbf{A}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}_n \in I \}$
  - I' is said to be the *immediate consequence of* I written as I' = Tp(I), where Tp is called the *immediate consequence operator*.
- Consider the sequence:
  - $\emptyset$ , Tp( $\emptyset$ ), Tp(Tp( $\emptyset$ )),..., Tp<sup>i</sup>( $\emptyset$ ),...
  - Mp  $\supseteq$  Tp<sup>i</sup>( $\emptyset$ ) for all i (Mp is a **superset** of all Tp<sup>i</sup>( $\emptyset$ ))
  - Let  $Tp \uparrow \omega = U_{i=0,\infty}Tp^i(\mathbf{0})$
  - Then Mp = Tp  $\uparrow \omega$

#### **Computing Least Herbrand Models: An Example**

<pre>parent(pam, bob). parent(tom, bob). parent(tom, liz). parent(bob, ann). parent(bob, pat). parent(pat, jim).</pre>	$\frac{M_1}{M_2 = T_P(M_1) =}$	<pre>Ø {parent(pam,bob), parent(tom,bob), parent(tom,liz), parent(bob,ann), parent(bob,pat), parent(pat,jim) }</pre>
anc(X,Y) :-	$M_3 = T_P(M_2) =$	{anc(pam,bob), anc(tom,bob),
<pre>parent(X,Y).</pre>		anc(tom,liz), anc(bob,ann),
anc(X,Y) :-		<pre>anc(bob,pat), anc(pat,jim) }</pre>
<pre>parent(X,Z),</pre>		$\cup M_2$
anc(Z,Y).	$M_4 = T_P(M_3) =$	{anc(pam,ann), anc(pam,pat),
		anc(tom, ann), anc(tom, pat),
		anc(bob,jim) $\} \cup M_3$
	$M_5 = T_P(M_4) =$	
		$\cup M_4$
	$M_6 = T_P(M_5) =$	<i>M</i> <sub>5</sub>

#### Computing Mp

- Computing the least Herbrand model, Mp, as the <u>least fixed</u> <u>point</u> of Tp:
  - terminates for *Datalog* programs (i.e., programs w/o function symbols)
  - may not terminate in general (because it could be infinite)
    For programs with function symbols
- Even for Datalog programs, computing least fixed point directly using the Tp operator is <u>wasteful</u> (known as *Naive* evaluation)
   Note that Tp<sup>i</sup>(Ø) ⊆ Tp<sup>i+1</sup>(Ø) for all i
  - We can calculate ΔTp<sup>i+1</sup>(Ø) = Tp<sup>i+1</sup>(Ø) Tp<sup>i</sup>(Ø) [The difference between the sets computed in two successive iterations] (this strategy is known as the *semi-naive* evaluation)