COMP4418: Knowledge Representation and Reasoning Nonmonotonic Reasoning

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July 22, 2018

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COMP4418: Knowledge Representation and Reasoning

Nonmonotonic Reasoning

- Suppose you are told "Tweety is a bird"
- What conclusions would you draw?
- Now, consider being further informed that "Tweety is an emu"
- What conclusions would you draw now? Do they differ from the conclusions that you would draw without this information? In what way(s)?
- Nonmonotonic reasoning is an attempt to capture a form of commonsense reasoning

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- 5 Default Logic
- Nonmonotonic Consequence
 KLM Systems

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Nonmonotonic Reasoning

- In classical logic the more facts (premises) we have, the more conclusions we can draw
- This property is known as Monotonicity

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If \Delta \subseteq \Gamma, then Cn(\Delta) \subseteq Cn(\Gamma)
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(where Cn denotes classical consequence)

- However, the previous example shows that we often do not reason in this manner
- Might a nonmonotonic logic—one that does not satisfy the Monotonicity property—provide a more effective way of reasoning?

Why Nonmonotonicity?

Problems with the classical approach to consequence

- It is usually not possible to write down all we would like to say about a domain
- Inferences in classical logic simply make implicit knowledge explicit; we would also like to reason with tentative statements
- Sometimes we would like to represent knowledge about something that is not *entirely* true or false; uncertain knowledge
- Nonmonotonic reasoning is concerned with getting around these shortcomings

Makinson's Classification

Makinson has suggested the following classification of nonmonotonic logics:

- Additional background assumptions
- Restricting the set of valuations
- Additional rules

David Makinson, *Bridges from Classical to Nonmonotonic Logic*, Texts in Computing, Volume 5, King's College Publications, 2005.

Nonmonotonicity

- Classical logic satisfies the following property
- Monotonicity: If $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma$, then $Cn(\Delta) \subseteq Cn(\Gamma)$ (equivalently, $\Gamma \vdash \phi$ implies $\Gamma \cup \Delta \vdash \phi$)
- However, we often draw conclusions based on 'what is normally the case' or 'true by default'
- More information can lead us to retract previous conclusions
- We shall adopt the following notation
 - \blacksquare \vdash classical consequence relation
 - \blacksquare \sim nonmonotonic consequence relation

Consequence Operation Cn

Other properties of consequence operation Cn:

Inclusion $\Delta \subseteq Cn(\Delta)$

Cumulative Transitivity $\Delta \subseteq \Gamma \subseteq Cn(\Delta)$ implies $Cn(\Gamma) \subseteq Cn(\Delta)$

Compactness If $\phi \in Cn(\Delta)$ then there is a finite $\Delta' \subseteq \Delta$ such that $\phi \in Cn(\Delta')$

Disjunction in the Premises

 $Cn(\Delta \cup \{a\}) \cap Cn(\Delta \cup \{b\}) \subseteq Cn(\Delta \cup \{a \lor b\})$

Note: $\Delta \vdash \phi$ iff $\phi \in Cn(\Delta)$ alternatively: $Cn(\Delta) = \{\phi : \Delta \vdash \phi\}$

Example

Suppose I tell you 'Tweety is a bird' You might conclude 'Tweety flies' I then tell you 'Tweety is an emu' You conclude 'Tweety does not fly'

 $bird(Tweety) \vdash flies(Tweety)$ $bird(Tweety) \land emu(Tweety) \vdash \neg flies(Tweety)$

The Closed World Assumption

- A complete theory is one in which for every ground atom in the language, either the atom or its negation appears in the theory
- The closed world assumption (CWA) completes a base (non-closed) set of formulae by including the negation of a ground atom whenever the atom does not follow from the base
- In other words, if we have no evidence as to the truth of (ground atom) P, we assume that it is false
- Given a base set of formulae △ we first calculate the *assumption* set

 $\neg P \in \Delta_{asm}$ iff for ground atom $P, \ \Delta \not\vdash P$

$$CWA(\Delta) = Cn\{\Delta \cup \Delta_{asm}\}$$

Example

$$\Delta = \{P(a), P(b), P(a) \rightarrow Q(a)\}$$

 $\Delta_{asm} = \{\neg Q(b)\}$

Theorem: The CWA applied to a consistent set of formulae Δ is inconsistent iff there are positive ground literals L_1, \ldots, L_n such that $\Delta \models L_1 \lor \ldots \lor L_n$ but $\Delta \not\models L_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$.

- Note that in the example above we limited our attention to the object constants that appeared in △ however the language could contain other constants. This is known as the *Domain Closure Assumption* (DCA)
- Another common assumption is the Unique-Names Assumption (UNA).

If two ground terms can't be proved equal, assume that they are not.

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Predicate Completion

Idea: The only objects that satisfy a predicate are those that must

- For example, suppose we have P(a). Can view this as $\forall x. \ x = a \rightarrow P(x)$ the *if*-half of a definition
- Can add the *only if* part: $\forall x. P(x) \rightarrow x = a$
- Giving:

$$\forall x. \ P(x) \leftrightarrow x = a$$

Predicate Completion

- Definition: A clause is *solitary* in a predicate *P* if whenever the clause contains a postive instance of *P*, it contains only one instance of *P*.
 - For example, $Q(a) \lor P(a) \lor \neg P(b)$ is not solitary in P $Q(a) \lor R(a) \lor P(b)$ is solitary in P
- Completion of a predicate is only defined for sets of clauses solitary in that predicate

Predicate Completion

Each clause can be written:

 $\forall y. \ Q_1 \land \ldots \land Q_m \rightarrow P(t) \ (P \text{ not contained in } Q_i)$

 $\forall y. \ \forall x. \ (x = t) \land Q_1 \land \ldots \land Q_m \to P(x)$

- $\forall x.(\forall y. (x = t) \land Q_1 \land \ldots \land Q_m \rightarrow P(x))$ (normal form of clause)
- Doing this to every clause gives us a set of clauses of the form:

$$\forall x. E_1 \rightarrow P(x)$$

 $\forall x. E_n \rightarrow P(x)$

Grouping these together we get:

 $\forall x. \ E_1 \lor \ldots \lor E_n \to P(x)$

Completion becomes: $\forall x. P(x) \leftrightarrow E_1 \lor \ldots \lor E_n$ and we can add this to the original set of formulae

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Example

■ Suppose
$$\Delta = \{ \forall x. Emu(x) \rightarrow Bird(x), Bird(Tweety), \\ \neg Emu(Tweety) \}$$

We can write this as ∀x. (Emu(x) ∨ x = Tweety) → Bird(x) Predicate completion of P in Δ becomes Δ ∪ {∀x. Bird(x) → Emu(x) ∨ x = Tweety}

Circumscription

■ Idea: Make extension of predicate as small as possible

Example:

 $\forall x.Bird(x) \land \neg Ab(x) \rightarrow Flies(x)$ Bird(Tweety), Bird(Sam), Tweety \neq Sam, \neg Flies(Sam)

- Want to be able to conclude Flies(Tweety) but ¬Flies(Sam)
- Accept interpretations where Ab predicate is as "small" as possible
- That is, we *minimise abnormality*

Circumscription

- Given interpretations I₁ = ⟨D, I₁⟩, I₂ = ⟨D, I₂⟩, I₁ ≤ I₂ iff for every predicate P ∈ P, I₁[P] ⊆ I₂[P].
- $\Gamma \models_{circ} \phi$ iff for every interpretation I such that I \models Γ , either I $\models \phi$ or there is a I' < I and I' $\models \Gamma$.
- ϕ is true in all minimal models
- Now consider

$$orall x.Bird(x) \land \neg Ab(x)
ightarrow Flies(x) \ orall x.Emu(x)
ightarrow Bird(x) \land \neg Flies(x) \ Bird(Tweety)$$

Reiter's Default Logic (1980)

- Add default rules of the form $\frac{\alpha:\beta}{\gamma}$
 - "If α can be proven and consistent to assume β , then conclude γ "
- Often consider *normal* default rules $\frac{\alpha:\beta}{\beta}$
- Example: $\frac{bird(x):flies(x)}{flies(x)}$
- **Default theory** $\langle D, W \rangle$
 - D set of defaults; W set of facts
- Extension of default theory contains as many default conclusions as possible and must be consistent (and is closed under classical consequence Cn)
- Concluding whether formula $\dot{\phi}$ follows from $\langle D, W \rangle$
 - Sceptical inference: φ occurs in *every* extension of (D, W)
 Credulous inference: φ occurs in *some* extension of (D, W)

Examples

$$W = \{\}; D = \{\frac{:p}{\neg p}\} - \text{no extensions}$$
$$W = \{p \lor r\}; D = \{\frac{p:q}{q}, \frac{r:q}{q}\} - \text{one extension} \{p \lor r\}$$
$$W = \{p \lor q\}; D = \{\frac{:\neg p}{\neg p}, \frac{:\neg q}{\neg q}\} - \text{two extensions}$$
$$\{\neg p, p \lor q\}, \{\neg q, p \lor q\}$$
$$W = \{emu(Tweety), \forall x.emu(x) \rightarrow bird(x)\};$$
$$D = \{\frac{bird(x):flies(x)}{flies(x)}\} - \text{one extension}$$
$$What if we add \frac{emu(x):\neg flies(x)}{\neg flies(x)}?$$

Poole (1988) achieves a similar effect (but not quite as general) by changing the way the underlying logic is used rather than introducing a new element into the syntax

Default Theories—Properties

Observation: Every normal default theory (default rules are all normal) has an extension

- Observation: If a normal default theory has several
- extensions, they are mutually inconsistent
- **Observation:** A default theory has an inconsistent extension iff *D* is inconsistent
- **Theorem:** (Semi-monotonicity)

Given two normal default theories $\langle D, W \rangle$ and $\langle D', W \rangle$ such that $D \subseteq D'$ then, for any extension $\mathcal{E}(D, W)$ there is an extension $\mathcal{E}(D', W)$ where $\mathcal{E}(D, W) \subseteq \mathcal{E}(D', W)$ (The addition of normal default rules does not lead to the retraction of consequences.)

Nonmonotonic Consequence

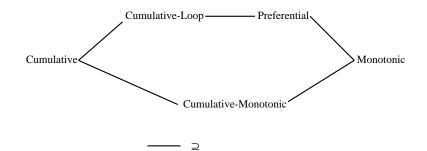
- Abstract study and analysis of nonmonotonic consequence relation ~ in terms of general properties Kraus, Lehmann and Magidor (1991)
- Some common properties include:

Supraclassicality If $\phi \vdash \psi$, then $\phi \succ \psi$ Left Logical Equivalence If $\vdash \phi \leftrightarrow \psi$ and $\phi \succ \chi$, then $\psi \succ \chi$ Right Weakening If $\vdash \psi \rightarrow \chi$ and $\phi \succ \psi$, then $\phi \succ \chi$ And If $\phi \succ \psi$ and $\phi \succ \chi$, then $\phi \succ \psi \land \chi$

Plus many more!



 Kraus, Lehman and Magidor (1991) study various classes of nonmonotonic consequence relations



 This has been extended since. A good reference for this line of work is Schlechta (1997)

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Summary

- Nonmonotonic reasoning attempts to capture a form of commonsense reasoning
- Nonmonotonic reasoning often deals with inferences based on defaults or 'what is usually the case'
- Belief change and nonmonotonic reasoning: two sides of the same coin?
- Can introduce abstract study of nonmonotonic consequence relations in same way as we study classical consequence relations
- Similar links exist with conditionals
- One area where nonmonotonic reasoning is important is reasoning about action (dynamic systems)