

A NOTE ON NON-MONOTONIC LOGICS

Doina TĂȚAR* and Mihaela LUPEA*

Dedicated to Professor Iuliu Muntean on his 60th anniversary

Received January 31, 1994

AMS Subject Classification 03B35, 68Q40, 68T27

Rezumat: Notă asupra logicilor nemonotone. Raționamentul aproximativ e deosebit de interesant pentru că modelează mai exact reprezentarea și tratarea cunoștințelor în cazul informațiilor incomplete. Această lucrare introduce o modalitate de a obține teoreme pornind de la astfel de cunoștințe (knowledge) incomplete, similar cu deducțiile în cazul clasic al logicii de ordinul întâi. Pentru cazul teoriilor normale, se demonstrează că problema e complet reductibilă la cazul clasic.

1. Introduction The classical logics are inadequate to capture the tentative nature of human reasoning. Since people's knowledge about the world is necessarily incomplete, there will be times when we could be forced to draw conclusions based on an incomplete specification of pertinent details of the situations. Under such circumstances, assumptions are made (implicitly or explicitly) about the state of the unknown factors. Because these assumptions are not irrefutable, they may have to be withdrawn at some later time, if new evidence prove them invalid. If this happens, the new evidence will prevent some assumptions from being made, hence all conclusions which can be arrived at only in conjunction with those assumptions will no longer be derivable.

In common-sense reasoning, assumptions are often based on both supporting evidence and the absence of contradictory evidence. Traditional logics cannot emulate this form of

* "Babeș-Bolyai" University, Faculty of Mathematics and Computer Science, 3400 Cluj-Napoca, Romania

reasoning, because they lack any tools for considering the absence of knowledge

Non-monotonic logic has been developed to deal with reasoning about incomplete informations. There are four major formalizations of non-monotonic reasoning

- McCarty's circumscription [1]
- Moore's autoepistemic logic [4]
- Reiter's default logic [5]
- McDermott and Doyle non-monotonic logic [2],[3]

Reiter's default logic [5] is one of the most prominent formalizations of non-monotonic reasoning. One of the reasons for its attractiveness is the simplicity and naturalness of its underlying idea. This logic represents defaults as certain type of inference rules whose applicability does not only depend on the derivability, but also on the underivability of some formulas.

Classical logic deals with the formalization of absolutely correct forms of reasoning. The aim of this note is to prove that, in the normal context, the problem is completely reducible to classical case. The deductive systems of logic allow us to formalize reasoning of rigorous proof of theorem and to infer conclusions from premises. It defines a deduction relation between formulas, denoted by \vdash . This relation has the following properties [6]

- reflexivity

$$U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n, V \vdash V$$

- monotonicity

$$\text{if } U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n \vdash V \text{ then } U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n, Z \vdash V$$

- transitivity

if $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n \vdash V$ and $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n, V \vdash Z$
 then $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n \vdash Z$

where $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n, V, Z$ are the formulas in first-order logic

2. Default logic The property of monotonicity tell us that a derived result cannot be invalidated by further results. Also, the inference rules in deductive systems of classical logic are permissive. They are always of the form $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n \vdash_{r_k} V$ with the significance "If U_1, U_2, \dots, U_k are theorems, then by rule r_k (of arity k) it results that V is a theorem"

A system which should be able to model non-monotonic reasoning should also contain restrictive rules, of the form

" V is a theorem if U_1, U_2, \dots, U_k are not theorems "

Default logic allows formalizing default reasoning by means of particular inference rules, called **defaults**. A default has the form $\frac{\alpha \ M \beta}{\gamma}$ and is interpreted as follows "if one believes α and if is consistent to believe β , then one can also believes γ "

A default theory will comprise, besides the default rules, a set of closed formulas of predicate logic which represent the basic knowledge and are treated as axioms

Definition 1 A default theory T is a pair (D, F) where

(i) D is a set of defaults $(d) \frac{\alpha \ M \beta_1, \dots, M \beta_m}{\gamma}$, and $\alpha, \beta_1, \dots, \beta_m, \gamma$ are closed formulas in first-order logic

(ii) F is a set of closed formulas in first-order logic

- α is called the **prerequisite** of default

- γ is called the **consequent** of default

We denote by $Pre(d)$ the prerequisite α of the default $d \in D$, and by $Cons(d)$ the consequent γ of the same d . Similarly, we introduce $Pre = \bigcup_{d \in D} Pre(d)$

Definition 2 An **extension of default theory** T is any set of all formulas that can be inferred by means of the classical inference rules or by means of the defaults. We will denote this set by $Th(D, F)$ and we will call them the **set of theorems** of $T = (D, F)$

A default theory can have an empty extension. However, it can be proved [5] that a non-empty extension exists for so called normal default theories, which all defaults have the form

$$\frac{\alpha \ M \beta}{\beta}$$

By analogy with the definition of a deduction for a formula U , and in accordance with definition 1 and definition 2, we can introduce the

Definition 3 Let $T = (D, F)$ be a default theory, and U and V two sets of formulas in the first-order logic. We denote $U \vdash V$ (and we call this V is non-monotonic deductible from U) if V is obtained from U either by application of a classical inference rule (like modus ponens, for example) or by a default rule. In this last case, U contains α and V contains β , if the normal default applied is $(d) \frac{\alpha \ M \beta}{\beta}$

We can specify that the default d is applied by denoting

$U \vdash_d V$ or $U \vdash V$ by rule d . Now, we are ready to define the concept of a proof for a formula U according to a default theory $T = (D, F)$

Definition 4 A formula U is a **theorem** in a default theory $T = (D, F)$ (or, $U \in Th(D, F)$) if it exists a finite sequence of set of formulas U_0, U_1, \dots, U_n , such that

$$U_0 = F, U_i = F \cup \{\alpha\}, \alpha \in Pre, U \in U_n \text{ and}$$

- a) $U_i \vdash U_{i+1}, i=1,2, \dots, n-1$
- b) U_i is consistent, $i=1,2, \dots, n$ (therefore U_i does not contain a formula V and his logical negation $\neg V$)

Observation: The sequence U_0, U_1, \dots, U_n has the property

$$U_0 \subseteq U_1 \subseteq \dots \subseteq U_n$$

3. The main result Example Let $T=(D,F)$ be the normal default theory having the following set of premises

(i) $F = \{ C \rightarrow D, A \wedge B \rightarrow E, E \vee D, D \rightarrow G \}$ and

(ii) $D = \{ d_1, d_2, d_3, d_4 \}$ as

$$(d_1) \frac{E \vee G \quad M(A \wedge G)}{A \wedge G}$$

$$(d_2) \frac{A \quad MB}{B}$$

$$(d_3) \frac{A \wedge E \quad MC}{C}$$

$$(d_4) \frac{ME}{\bar{E}}$$

According to definition 4, a proof for $U=D$ may be the following

- 1) $U_0 = F,$
- 2) $U_1 = F \cup \{ E \vee G \},$
- 3) $U_2 = U_1 \cup \{ A \wedge G \}, U_1 \vdash U_2$ by rule $d_1,$
- 4) $U_3 = U_2 \cup \{ A, G \}, U_2 \vdash U_3$ by rule $\frac{A \wedge G}{A, G},$
- 5) $U_4 = U_3 \cup \{ B \}, U_3 \vdash U_4$ by rule $d_2,$

- 6) $U_5 = U_4 \cup \{ A \wedge B \}$, $U_4 \vdash U_5$ by rule $\frac{A, B}{A \wedge B}$,
 7) $U_6 = U_5 \cup \{ E \}$, $U_5 \vdash U_6$ by rule $\frac{A \wedge B, A \wedge B \rightarrow E}{E}$,
 8) $U_7 = U_6 \cup \{ A \wedge E \}$, $U_6 \vdash U_7$ by rule $\frac{A, E}{A \wedge E}$,
 9) $U_8 = U_7 \cup \{ C \}$, $U_7 \vdash U_8$ by rule d_3 ,
 10) $U_9 = U_8 \cup \{ D \}$, $U_8 \vdash U_9$ by rule $\frac{C, C \rightarrow D}{D}$

As $D \in U_9$, U_0, U_1, \dots, U_9 is a proof for D

The following theorem emphasizes a connection between the relation \vdash and the classical relation \vdash of deductibility in the first-order logic

Theorem. If $T=(D, F)$ is a normal default theory then $U \in Th(D, F)$ iff $F, P \vdash U$ where P is the set of formulas defined as

$$" \alpha \rightarrow \beta \in P \text{ iff } \frac{\alpha \quad M\beta}{\beta} \in D "$$

Proof: The direct implication results by induction about the number k of utilised defaults

If $k=0$, then we have $F \vdash U$ and thus $F, P \vdash U$

Let $U \in Th(D, F)$ such that for U are applied $k+1$ defaults. If the last default is

$$(d) \frac{\alpha \quad M\beta}{\beta}, \text{ then } U(=\beta) \in U_n,$$

$U_{n-1} \vdash U_n$ and $\alpha \in U_{n-1}$. By induction hypothesis, as for α are applied k defaults, $F, P \vdash$

α . As $\alpha \rightarrow \beta \in P$, we obtain

$$F, P \vdash \beta(=U)$$

By analogy, the converse implication can be proved

Observation: If a default theory is normal, then a deduction in this theory can be simulated as usual way in first-order theory

A similar theorem can be proved for the seminormal default theories [5]

A NOTE ON NON-MONOTONIC LOGICS

REFERENCES

- 1 McCarty,J , Circumscription - A form of non-monotonic reasoning, *Artificial Intelligence*, vol 13 (1980),27-39
- 2 McDermott,D , Non-monotonic logic I, *Artificial Intelligence Doyle,J* vol 13 (1980),41-72
- 3 McDermott,D, Non-monotonic logic II, *J ACM* 29(1)(1982),33-57
- 4 Moore,R C, Semantical considerations on non-monotonic logic, *Artificial Intelligence*,vol 25 (1985),75-94
- 5 Reiter,R, A logic for default reasoning, *Artificial Intelligence*,vol 13 (1980),81-131
- 6 Thayse,A, *From Standard Logic to Logic Programming* , John Wiley & Sons,New York (1988)