

# Extended Tight Semantics for Logic Programs

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## Abstract

We define the Tight Semantics (TS), a new semantics for *all* NLPs complying with the requirements of: 2-valued semantics; preserving the models of SM; guarantee of model existence (even in face of odd loops over negation or infinite chains); relevance; cumulativity; and compliance with the Well-Founded Model. We also extend TS to adumbrate ELPs and Disjunctive LPs, though a full account of these is left to other papers.

When complete models are unnecessary, and top-down querying (*à la* Prolog) is desired, TS provides the 2-valued option that guarantees model existence, as a result of its relevance property. Top-down querying with abduction by need is rendered available too by TS. The user need not pay the price of computing whole models, nor of generation all possible abductions, only to filter irrelevant ones subsequently.

In a nutshell, a TS model of a NLP  $P$  is any minimal model  $M$  of  $P$  that further satisfies  $\hat{P}$ —the program remainder of  $P$ —in that each loop in  $\hat{P}$  has a minimal model contained in  $M$ , whilst respecting the constraints imposed by the minimal models of the other loops so-constrained too.

The applications afforded by TS are all those of Stable Models, which it generalizes, plus those permitting to solve OLONs for model existence, plus those employing OLONs for productively obtaining problem solutions, not just filtering them (like ICs).

**KEYWORDS:** Normal Logic Programs, Relevance, Cumulativity, Stable Models, Well-Founded Semantics, Program Remainder.

## 1 Introduction and Motivation

The semantics of Stable Models (SM) (Gelfond and Lifschitz 1988) is a cornerstone for some of the most important results in logic programming of the past three decades, providing increased logic programming declarativity and a new paradigm for program evaluation. When needing to know the 2-valued truth-value of all literals in a normal logic program (NLP) for the problem being solved, the solution is to produce complete models. In such cases, tools like *SModels* (Niemelä and Simons 1997) or *DLV* (Citrigno et al. 1997) may be adequate enough, as they can indeed compute finite complete models according to the SM semantics and its extensions to Answer Sets (Lifschitz and Woo 1992) and Disjunction. However, lack of some important properties of the base SM semantics, like relevance, cumulativity and guarantee of model existence—enjoyed by, say, Well-Founded Semantics

(Gelder et al. 1991) (WFS)—somewhat reduces its applicability and practical ease of use when complete models are unnecessary, and top-down querying (*à la* Prolog) would be sufficient. In addition, abduction by need top-down querying is not an option with SM, creating encumbrance in required pre- and post-processing, because needless full abductive models are generated. The user should not pay the price of computing whole models, nor that of generating all possible abductions and then filtering irrelevant ones, when not needed. Finally, one would like to have available a semantics for that provides a model for every NLP.

WFS in turn does not produce 2-valued models though these are often desired, nor does it guarantee 2-valued model existence.

To overcome these limitations, we present the Tight Semantics (TS), a new 2-valued semantics for NLPs which guarantees model existence; preserves the models of SM; enjoys relevance and cumulativity; complies with the WFM; and is extendable to explicit negation and disjunction. TS also deals with infinite chains (Fages 1994), and, we shall see, is easily extended to deal with Disjunctive Logic Programs (DisjLPs) and Extended Logic Programs, by means of the shifting rule and other well-known program transformations (Dix et al. 1996; Gelfond et al. 1991; Alferes et al. 1993), proffering an alternative to SM-based Answer-Set Programming.

TS supersedes our previous RSM semantics (Pereira and Pinto 2005), which we have recently found wanting in capturing our intuitively desired models in some examples, and because TS relies on a clearer, simpler way of tackling the difficult problem of assigning a semantics to every NLP while affording the aforementioned properties, via adapting better known formal LP methods than RSM’s *reductio ad absurdum* stance.

In a nutshell, a TM of an NLP  $P$  is any minimal model  $M$  of  $P$  that further satisfies  $\hat{P}$ —the program remainder of  $P$ —in that each loop in  $\hat{P}$  has a minimal model contained in  $M$ , whilst respecting the constraints imposed by the minimal models of the other loops so-constrained too.

A couple of examples bring out the need for a semantics supplying all NLPs with models, and permitting models otherwise eliminated by odd loops over default negation (OLONs):

*Example 1*

**Jurisprudential reasoning.** A murder suspect not preventively detained is likely to destroy evidence, and in that case the suspect shall be preventively detained:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{likely\_destroy\_evidence}(\text{suspect}) &\leftarrow \text{not preventive\_detain}(\text{suspect}) \\ \text{preventive\_detain}(\text{suspect}) &\leftarrow \text{likely\_destroy\_evidence}(\text{suspect}) \end{aligned}$$

There is no SM, and a single  $TM = \{\text{preventive\_detain}(\text{suspect})\}$ . This jurisprudential reasoning is carried out without need for a *suspect* to exist now. Should we wish, TS’s cumulativity allows adding the model literal as a fact.

*Example 2*

**A joint vacation problem.** Three friends are planning a joint vacation. First friend says “I want to go to the mountains, but if that’s not possible then I’d rather go to the beach”. The second friend says “I want to go traveling, but if that’s not

possible then I'd rather go to the mountains". The third friend says "I want to go to the beach, but if that's not possible then I'd rather go traveling". However, traveling is only possible if the passports are OK. They are OK if they are not expired, and they are expired if they are not OK. We code this information as the NLP:

<i>beach</i>	$\leftarrow$	<i>not mountain</i>
<i>mountain</i>	$\leftarrow$	<i>not travel</i>
<i>travel</i>	$\leftarrow$	<i>not beach, passport_ok</i>
<i>passport_ok</i>	$\leftarrow$	<i>not expired_passport</i>
<i>expired_passport</i>	$\leftarrow$	<i>not passport_ok</i>

The first three rules contain an odd loop over default negation through *beach*, *mountain*, and *travel*; and the rules for *passport\_ok* and *expired\_passport* form an even loop over default negation. Henceforth we will abbreviate the atoms' names. This program has a single SM:  $\{e_p, m\}$ . But looking at the rules relevant for *p\_ok* we find no irrefutable reason to assume  $e_p$  to be true. TS semantics allows *p\_ok* to be true, yielding three other models besides the SM:  $TM_1 = \{b, m, p\_ok\}$ ,  $TM_2 = \{b, t, p\_ok\}$ , and  $TM_3 = \{t, m, p\_ok\}$ .

The even loop has two minimal models:  $\{p\_ok\}$  and  $\{e_p\}$ . Assuming the first minimal model, the odd loop has three minimal models corresponding to  $TM_1$ ,  $TM_2$ , and  $TM_3$  above. Assuming the second minimal model (where  $e_p$  is true), the odd loop has only one minimal model: the SM mentioned above  $\{e_p, m\}$ , also a TM.

The applications afforded by TS are all those of SM, plus those requiring solving OLONs for model existence, and those where OLONs are employed for the production of solutions, not just used as Integrity Constraints (ICs). Model existence is essential in applications where knowledge sources are diverse (like in the semantic web), and where the bringing together of such knowledge (automatically or not) can give rise to OLONs that would otherwise prevent the resulting program from having a semantics, thereby brusquely terminating the application. A similar situation can be brought about by self-, mutual- and external updating of programs, where unforeseen OLONs would stop short an ongoing process. Coding of ICs via odd loops, commonly found in the literature, can readily be transposed to IC coding in TS, as explained in the sequel.

**Paper structure.** After background notation and definitions, we usher in the desiderata for TS, and only then formally define TS, exhibit examples, and prove its properties. Subsequently, we proffer extensions to cover both Extended as well as Disjunctive Logic Programs. Conclusions, future and ongoing topics, and reference to similar work close the paper.

## 2 Background Notation and Definitions

*Definition 1*

**Normal Logic Program.** A Normal Logic Program (NLP)  $P$  is a (possibly infinite) set of logic rules, each of the form  $H \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_n, \text{not } C_1, \dots, \text{not } C_m$

where  $H$ , the  $B_i$  and the  $C_j$  are atoms, and each rule stands for all its ground instances.  $H$  is the head of the rule, denoted by  $head(r)$ , and  $body(r)$  denotes set  $\{B_1, \dots, B_n, not\ C_1, \dots, not\ C_m\}$  of all the literals in the body of  $r$ .  $heads(P)$  denotes  $\{head(r) : r \in P\}$ . Throughout, ‘*not*’ signals default negation. Abusing notation, we write  $not\ S$  to denote  $\{not\ s : s \in S\}$ . If the body of a rule is empty, we say its head is a fact and may write the rule just as  $H$ .

Throughout too, we consider minimal models of programs, and write  $MM_P(M)$  to denote  $M$  is a minimal model of  $P$ . When both  $MM_P(M)$  and  $M \subseteq heads(P)$  hold, then  $M_N$  denotes the union of  $M$  with the negations of heads of  $P$  absent in  $M$ ; i.e.,  $M_N = M \cup not\ (heads(P) \setminus M)$ . We dub  $M_N$  a *completed minimal model* of  $P$ .

*Definition 2*

**Rule dependencies.** Given a normal logic program  $P$  build a dependency graph  $G(P)$  such that the rules of  $P$  are the nodes of  $G(P)$ , and there is an arc, labeled “positive”, from a node  $r_2$  to a node  $r_1$  if  $head(r_2)$  appears in the body of  $r_1$ ; or labeled “negative” if  $not\ head(r_2)$  appears in the body of  $r_1$ .

We say a rule  $r_1$  directly depends on  $r_2$  (written as  $r_1 \leftarrow r_2$ ) iff there is a direct arc in  $G(P)$  from  $r_2$  to  $r_1$ . By transitive closure we say  $r_1$  depends on  $r_2$  ( $r_1 \leftarrow r_2$ ) iff there is a path in  $G(P)$  from  $r_2$  to  $r_1$ .

Dependencies through default negation play a major role in the sequel and so we also need to define the following: we say a rule  $r_1$  directly depends negatively on  $r_2$  (written as  $r_1 \leftarrow -r_2$ ) iff  $not\ head(r_2)$  appears in the body of  $r_1$ . By transitive closure we say  $r_1$  depends negatively on  $r_2$  ( $r_1 \leftarrow -r_2$ ) iff  $r_1$  directly depends negatively on  $r_2$  or  $r_1$  depends on some  $r_3$  which directly depends negatively on  $r_2$ .

*Definition 3*

$Rel_P(a)$  — **Relevant part of NLP  $P$  for the positive literal  $a$ .** The Relevant part of a NLP  $P$  for some positive literal  $a$ ,  $Rel_P(a)$  is defined as

$$Rel_P(a) = \bigcup \{r, r' \in P : r \leftarrow r' \wedge head(r) = a\}$$

Intuitively, the relevant part of a program for some atom  $a$  is just the set of rules with head  $a$  and the rules relevant for each atom in the body of the rules for  $a$ . I.e., the relevant part is the set of rules in the call-graph for  $a$ .

*Definition 4*

**Loop in  $P$ .** We say a subset  $P_L$  of rules of  $P$  is a *loop* iff for every two rules  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  in  $P_L$  there is a path from  $r_1$  to  $r_2$  and vice-versa. I.e.,  $\forall r_1, r_2 \in P_L\ r_1 \leftarrow r_2 \wedge r_2 \leftarrow r_1$ . We write  $Loop(P_L)$  to denote that  $P_L$  is a *Loop*.

*Definition 5*

**Program Remainder (Brass et al. 2001).** The program remainder  $\hat{P}$  is obtained by a polynomial time complexity program transformation from  $P$ .  $\hat{P}$  is guaranteed to exist for every NLP, and is computed by applying to  $P$  the *positive reduction* (which deletes the *not b* from the bodies of rules where  $b$  has no rules), the

*negative reduction* (which deletes rules that depend on *not a* where *a* is a fact), the *success* (which deletes facts from the bodies of rules), and the *failure* (which deletes rules that depend on atoms without rules) transformations, and then eliminating also the *unfounded sets* (Gelder et al. 1991) via a *loop detection* transformation. The *loop detection* is computationally equivalent to finding the Strongly Connected Components (SCCs) (Tarjan 1972) in the  $G(P)$  graph, as per definition 2, and is known to be of polynomial time complexity.

*Definition 6*

**Program Division.** Let  $P$  be an NLP and  $I \subseteq \text{heads}(P) \cup \text{not heads}(P)$  a consistent interpretation of  $P$ .  $P : I$  denotes the subset of  $P$  remaining after performing this sequence of steps:

1. delete rules with *not a* in the body where  $a \in I$  – similar to *negative reduction*
2. delete all  $a$  in the bodies of rules where  $a \in I$  – similar to *success*
3. delete all *not a* in the bodies of rules where  $\text{not } a \in I$

The rationale behind program division is to obtain the subset of  $P$  remaining after considering all literals in  $M$  true. Step 1 eliminates the rules of  $P$  which are already satisfied (in a classical way) by the literals in  $M$ . Step 2 is similar to *success* but deletes all positive literals  $a$  from the bodies of rules where  $a \in I$ . Step 3 is a negative counterpart of step 2; one could dub it *negative success*. Thus, steps 2 and 3 are slightly more credulous than the original *success*.

### 3 Desiderata

**Intuitively desired semantics.** Usually, both the default negation *not* and the  $\leftarrow$  in rules of Logic Programs reflect some asymmetry in the intended minimal models, e.g., in a program with just the rule  $a \leftarrow \text{not } b$ , although it has two minimal models:  $\{a\}$ , and  $\{b\}$ , the only intended one is  $\{a\}$ . This is afforded by the syntactic asymmetry of the rule, reflected in the one-way direction of the  $\leftarrow$ , coupled with the intended semantics of default negation. Thus, a fair principle underlying the rationale of a reasonable semantics would be to accept an atom in a model only if there exist rules in a program, at least one, with it as head. This principle rejects  $\{b\}$  as a model of program  $a \leftarrow \text{not } b$ .

When rules form loops, the syntactic asymmetry disappears and, as far as the loop only is concerned, minimal models can reflect the intended semantics of the loop. That is the case, e.g., when we have just the rules  $a \leftarrow \text{not } b$  and  $b \leftarrow \text{not } a$ ; both  $\{a\}$  and  $\{b\}$  are the intended models. However, loops may also depend on other literals with which they form no loop. Those asymmetric dependencies should have the same semantics as the single  $a \leftarrow \text{not } b$  rule case described previously.

So, on the one side, asymmetric dependencies should have the semantics of a single  $a \leftarrow \text{not } b$  rule; and the symmetric dependencies (of *any* loop) should subscribe to the same minimal model semantics as the  $a \leftarrow \text{not } b$  and  $b \leftarrow \text{not } a$  set of rules. Intuitively, a good semantics should cater for both the symmetric and asymmetric dependencies as described.

**Desirable formal properties.** By design, our TS benefits from number of desirable properties of LP semantics (Dix 1995), namely: guarantee of model existence; relevance; and cumulativity. We recapitulate them here for self-containment. Guarantee of model existence ensures all programs have a semantics. Relevance permits simple (object-level) top-down querying about truth of a query in some model (like in Prolog) without requiring production of a whole model, just the part of it supporting the call-graph rooted on the query. Formally:

*Definition 7*

**Relevance.** A semantics  $Sem$  for logic programs is said Relevant iff for every program  $P$ ,  $a \in Sem(P) \Leftrightarrow a \in Sem(Rel_P(a))$ .

Relevance ensures any partial model supporting the query’s truth can always be extended to a complete model; relevance is of the essence to abduction by need, in that only abducibles in the call-graph need be considered for abduction.

Cumulativity signifies atoms true in the semantics can be added as facts without thereby changing it; thus, lemmas can be stored. Formally:

*Definition 8*

**Cumulativity.** A semantics  $Sem$  is Cumulative iff the semantics of  $P$  remains unchanged when any atom *true* in the semantics is added to  $P$  as a fact:

$$Cumulative(Sem) \Leftrightarrow \forall_P \forall_{a,b} \_a \in Sem(P) \wedge b \in Sem(P) \Rightarrow a \in Sem(P \cup \{b\})$$

Neither of these three properties are enjoyed by Stable Models, the *de facto* standard semantics for NLPs. The core reason SM semantics fails to guarantee model existence for every NLP is that the stability condition it imposes on models is impossible to be complied with by Odd Loops Over Negation (OLONs), i.e. those comprising an odd number of default negations.

*Example 3*

**Stable Models semantics misses Relevance and Cumulativity.**

$$\begin{array}{ll} c \leftarrow not\ c & c \leftarrow not\ a \\ a \leftarrow not\ b & b \leftarrow not\ a \end{array}$$

This program’s unique SM is  $\{b, c\}$ . However,  $P \cup \{c\}$  has two SMs  $\{a, c\}$ , and  $\{b, c\}$  rendering  $b$  no longer *true* in the SM semantics, which is the intersection of its models. SM semantics lacks Cumulativity. Also, though  $b$  is *true* in  $P$  according to SM semantics,  $b$  is not *true* in  $Rel_P(b) = \{a \leftarrow not\ b; b \leftarrow not\ a\}$ , shows SM semantics lacks Relevance.

An OLON is a loop with an odd number of “negative” arcs as in definition 2. In fact, the SM semantics community uses that inability as a means to impose ICs, such as  $a \leftarrow not\ a, X$ , where the OLON over  $a$  prevents  $X$  from being *true* in any model.

TS goes beyond the SM standard, not just because in complying with all the above 3 properties, but also in being a model conservative extension of the SMs semantics, in this sense: A semantics is a model conservative extension of another when it provides at least the same models as the latter, for programs where the latter’s are defined, and further provides semantics to programs for which the latter’s

are not defined. Another way of couching this is: new desired models are provided which the semantics being extended was failing to produce, but all the latter’s produced ones are nevertheless provided by the model-conservative extension.

While encompassing the above properties, TS still respects the Well-Founded Model like SM does: every TS model complies with the true and the false atoms in the WFM of a program. Formally:

*Definition 9*

**Well-Founded Model of a Normal Logic Program  $P$ .** Following (Brass et al. 2001), the *true* atoms of the Well-Founded Model of  $P$  (the irrefutably *true* atoms of  $P$ ) are the facts of  $\widehat{P}$ , the *remainder* of  $P$  (their definition 5.17). Moreover, the *true* or *undefined* literals of  $P$  are just the heads of rules of  $\widehat{P}$ ; and that the computation of  $\widehat{P}$  can be done in polynomial time. Thus, we shall write  $WFM^+(P)$  to denote the set of facts of  $\widehat{P}$ , and  $WFM^{+u}(P)$  to denote the set of heads of rules of  $\widehat{P}$ . Also, since the *false* atoms in the Well-Founded Model of  $P$  are just the atoms of  $P$  with no rules in  $\widehat{P}$ , we write  $WFM^-(P)$  to denote those false atoms.

*Definition 10*

**Interpretation  $M$  of  $P$  respects the WFM of  $P$ .** An interpretation  $M$  respects the WFM of  $P$  iff  $M$  contains the set of all the *true* atoms of the WFM of  $P$ , and it contains no *false* atoms of the WFM of  $P$ . Formally:

$$RespectWFM_P(M) \Leftrightarrow WFM^+(P) \subseteq M \subseteq WFM^{+u}(P)$$

TS’s WFM compliance, besides keeping with SM’s compliance (i.e. the WFM approximates the SM), is important to TS for a specific implementation reason too. Since WFS enjoys relevance and polynomial complexity, one can use it to obtain top-down—in present day tabled implementations—the residual or remainder program that expresses the WFM, and then apply TS to garner its 2-valued models, foregoing the need to generate complete models.

TS provides semantics to all NLPs. For program  $a \leftarrow not\ a$ , the only Tight Model (TM) is  $\{a\}$ . In the TS, OLONs are not ICs. ICs are enforced employing rules for the special atom *falsum*, of the form  $falsum \leftarrow X$ , where  $X$  is the body of the IC one wishes to prevent being true. This does not preclude *falsum* from figuring in some models. From a theoretical standpoint it means the TS semantics does not *a priori* include an in-built IC compliance mechanism. ICs can be dealt with in two ways, either by (1) a syntactic post-processing step, as a model “test stage” after their “generate stage”; or by (2) embedding IC compliance in the query-driven computation, whereby the user conjoins query goals with *not falsum*. If inconsistency examination is desired, like in case (1), models including *falsum* can be discarded *a posteriori*. Thus, TS clearly separates OLON semantics from IC compliance, and frees OLONs for a wider knowledge representation usage.

#### 4 Tight Semantics

The rationale behind tightness follows the intuitively desired semantics principles described in section 3. On the one side any Tight Model  $M$  is necessarily a mini-

mal model of  $\widehat{P}$  which guarantees that no atoms with no rules are in  $M$ . This is in accordance with the principle of intuitively desired semantics for asymmetric dependencies, and is also what guarantees that Tight Models respect the Well-Founded Model, as proved in the sequel. On the other, implementing the intuitively desired semantics for symmetric dependencies, the Tight Semantics imposes each TM to have the internal loop congruency of tightness: the semantics for each loop is its minimal models, as long as a chosen minimal model for it be compatible (via program division) with the model for the whole program, while the rest  $M_{\overline{L}}$  of the original model  $M$  is itself Tight.

*Definition 11*

**Tight Model.** Let  $P$  be an NLP, and  $M$  a minimal model of  $\widehat{P}$ , such that  $M_N$  is a completed minimal model of  $P$ . Let  $\widehat{P}_L$  denote a  $Loop(\widehat{P}_L)$  strictly contained in  $\widehat{P}$ ; and given  $MM_{\widehat{P}_L}(M_L)$ , let  $M_{\overline{L}}$  denote  $(M \setminus M_L) \cup \{M_L \cap heads(P : M_{L_N})\}$ . We say  $M$  is tight in  $P$  —  $Tight_P(M)$  — iff

$$\exists \widehat{P}_L \Rightarrow \exists M_L : M_{L_N} \subseteq M_N \wedge Tight_{P:M_{L_N}}(M_{\overline{L}})$$

The Tight Semantics of  $P$  —  $TS(P)$  — is the intersection of all its Tight Models.

*Example 4*

**Mixed loops 1.** Let  $P$  be

$$\begin{array}{l} a \leftarrow k \quad k \leftarrow not\ t \quad t \leftarrow a, b \\ a \leftarrow not\ b \quad b \leftarrow not\ a \end{array}$$

$\widehat{P}$  coincides with  $P$ , so its minimal models are  $M_1 = \{a, k\}$  with  $M_{1_N} = \{a, not\ b, k, not\ t\}$ ;  $M_2 = \{a, t\}$  with  $M_{2_N} = \{a, not\ b, not\ k, t\}$ ; and  $M_3 = \{b, t\}$  with  $M_{3_N} = \{not\ a, b, not\ k, t\}$ . Of these, only  $M_{1_N}$  and  $M_{3_N}$  are Tight.  $M_1$  in particular is also a Stable Model. To see that  $M_{2_N}$  is not Tight notice that there are three loops in  $P$ :  $P_{L_1} = \{a \leftarrow not\ b; b \leftarrow not\ a\}$ ,  $P_{L_2} = \{a \leftarrow k; k \leftarrow not\ t; t \leftarrow a, b\}$ ,  $P_{L_3} = \{a \leftarrow k; k \leftarrow not\ t; t \leftarrow a, b; b \leftarrow not\ a\}$ . The minimal models of  $P_{L_1}$  are  $M_{L_{1_1}} = \{a\}$  with  $M_{L_{1_1N}} = \{a, not\ b\}$ , and  $M_{L_{1_2}} = \{b\}$  with  $M_{L_{1_2N}} = \{not\ a, b\}$ . Dividing  $P$  by  $M_{L_{1_1N}}$  we get  $P : M_{L_{1_1N}} = \{a \leftarrow k; k \leftarrow not\ t; t \leftarrow b\}$ .  $M_{\overline{L_1}}$  is now  $(\{a, t\} \setminus \{a\}) \cup \{\{a\} \cap heads(\{a \leftarrow k; k \leftarrow not\ t; t \leftarrow b\})\} = \{t\} \cup \{a\} = \{a, t\}$ . But  $\{a, t\}$  is not Tight in  $P : M_{L_{1_1N}}$  since it is not even a minimal model of it.

*Example 5*

**Difference between TS and RSM semantics.** Let  $P$  be

$$\begin{array}{l} a \leftarrow not\ b, c \\ b \leftarrow not\ c, not\ a \\ c \leftarrow not\ a, b \end{array}$$

TS accepts both  $M_1 = \{a\}$  and  $M_2 = \{b, c\}$  as tight models, whereas the RSM semantics (Pereira and Pinto 2005) only accepts  $M_1$ . Neither are stable models.



*Example 6*

**Mixed loops 2.** Let  $P$  be

$$\begin{aligned} a &\leftarrow \text{not } b \\ b &\leftarrow \text{not } c, e \\ c &\leftarrow \text{not } a \\ e &\leftarrow \text{not } e, a \end{aligned}$$

In this case, TS, like the RSM semantics, accepts all minimal models:  $M_1 = \{a, b, e\}$ ,  $M_2 = \{a, c, e\}$ , and  $M_3 = \{b, c\}$ .

*Example 7*

**Quasi-Stratified Program.** Let  $P$  be

$$\begin{aligned} d &\leftarrow \text{not } c \\ c &\leftarrow \text{not } b \\ b &\leftarrow \text{not } a \\ a &\leftarrow \text{not } a \end{aligned}$$

The unique TS is  $\{a, c\}$ , and there are no Stable Models. In this case it is quite easy to see how the Tightness works:  $\{a\}$  is necessarily the unique minimal model of  $a \leftarrow \text{not } a$ . Dividing the whole program by  $\{a\}$  we get  $\{d \leftarrow \text{not } c; c \leftarrow \text{not } b\}$ . Its unique TM is  $\{c\}$  providing the global model  $\{a, c\}$  together with the  $\{a\}$  model for  $a \leftarrow \text{not } a$ .

## 5 Properties of the Tight Semantics

Forthwith, we prove some properties of TS, namely: guarantee of model existence, relevance, cumulativity, model-conservative extension of SMS, and respect for the Well-Founded Model. The definitions involved are to be found in section 3.

*Theorem 1*

**Existence.** Every Normal Logic Program has a Tight Model.

*Proof*

Let  $P$  be an NLP.  $\hat{P}$  is guaranteed to exist. So too are minimal models of any given NLP, in particular, for  $\hat{P}$  too. If  $\hat{P}$  has no *loops*, then every minimal model of  $\hat{P}$  is trivially Tight. In particular, if  $\hat{P}$  has no *loops* it means  $\hat{P}$  is stratified and the unique Tight Model is its unique minimal model.

Consider now  $\hat{P}$  has *loops*, and that  $P_L$  is any such loop in  $\hat{P}$ . Assume  $\hat{P}$  has no TMs. In this case, for every  $P_L$  there is no  $M_L \subseteq M_{L_N}$  such that  $\text{Tight}_{P:M_{L_N}}(M_{\bar{L}})$  holds. Since for every  $P_L$  it is always possible to compute an  $M_L$  and its respective  $M_{L_N}$ , the tightness condition must fail because  $\text{Tight}_{P:M_{L_N}}(M_{\bar{L}})$  fails. But any  $P_L$  which does not depend on any other rule outside  $P_L$  is unaffected by any program division  $P : M_{L'_N}$  where  $M_{L'}$  is a minimal model of some other  $P_{L'}$ . Hence the hypothetical failure of tightness in holding of  $M_{\bar{L}}$  in  $P : M_{L_N}$  must be because all  $M_L$ s of all  $P_L$  are not Tight in some  $P_{L''} = P_{L'} \cup P_L$  such that  $P_L$  depends on  $P_{L''}$  and vice-versa. I.e., for all  $M_L$  of  $P_L$ ,  $\text{Tight}_{P_{L''}:M_{L_N}}(M_{\bar{L}})$  must not hold. Since it is

always possible to compute  $M_{\bar{L}} = (M \setminus M_L) \cup \{M_L \cap \text{heads}(P_{L''} : M_{L_N})\}$  it must be the case that for every  $M_{L''}$  of each  $P_{L''}$ ,  $M_{L''} \cup M_L$  is not a consistent minimal model of  $P_{L''} \cup P_L$ , which is an absurdity because consistent minimal models of any given program are always guaranteed to exist.  $\square$

*Theorem 2*

**Relevance of Tight Semantics.** The Tight Semantics is relevant.

*Proof*

According to definition 7 a semantics  $Sem$  is relevant iff  $a \in Sem(P) \Leftrightarrow a \in Sem(Rel_P(a))$  for all atoms  $a$ . Since the TS of a program  $P$  —  $TS(P)$  — is the intersection of all its TMs, relevance becomes  $a \in TS(P) \Leftrightarrow a \in TS(Rel_P(a))$  for TS.

$\Rightarrow$ : We assume  $a \in TS(P)$ , so we can take any  $M$  such that  $TM_P(M)$  holds, and conclude  $a \in M$ . Assuming, by contradiction, that  $a \notin TS(Rel_P(a))$  then there is at least one TM of  $Rel_P(a)$  where  $a$  is *false*. Let us write  $M_a$  to denote such TM of  $Rel_P(a)$  where  $a \notin M_a$ . Since all TMs of  $P$  are minimal models of  $\hat{P}$  we have two possibilities: 1)  $a$  is a fact in  $\hat{P}$  — in this case there is a rule (a fact) for  $a$  and hence this fact rule is in  $Rel_P(a)$  forcing  $a \in M_a$ ; 2)  $a$  is not a fact in  $\hat{P}$  — by definition of Tight Model  $a$  can be in  $M$  only if  $a$  is the head of a rule and there is some minimal model  $M_L \subseteq M$  of a loop  $P_L \subseteq P$  such that  $a \in M_L$ . Since  $a$  must be the head of a rule in loop, that loop is, by definition, in  $Rel_P(a)$ . Since  $M$  is Tight in  $P$ , by definition so must be each and every of its subset minimal models of loops; i.e.,  $a \in M_a$ .

$\Leftarrow$ : Assume  $a \in TS(Rel_P(a))$ . Take the whole  $P \supseteq Rel_P(a)$ . Again,  $a$  will be in every TM of  $P$  because  $a$  is in all TMs of  $Rel_P(a)$ , and, by definition, every TM of  $P$  always contains one TM of  $Rel_P(a)$ .  $\square$

*Theorem 3*

**Cumulativity of Tight Semantics.** The Tight Semantics is cumulative.

*Proof*

By definition 11, the semantics of a program  $P$  is the intersection of its TMs. So,  $a \in TS(P) \Leftrightarrow \forall_{TM_P(M)} a \in M$ . For the TS semantics cumulativity becomes expressed by  $\forall_{a,b} (a \in TS(P) \wedge b \in TS(P)) \Rightarrow a \in TS(P \cup \{b\})$

Let us assume  $a \in TS(P) \wedge b \in TS(P)$ . Since both  $a \in TS(P)$  and  $b \in TS(P)$ , we know that whichever TM  $M$  and  $M_L \subseteq M$  such that  $a \in M_L$ ,  $b \in TS(P : M_{L_N})$  holds; and in that case  $P : M_{L_N} = (P \cup \{a\}) : M_{L_N}$ . Hence,  $b \in TS(P \cup \{a\})$ .  $\square$

*Theorem 4*

**Stable Models Extension.** Any Stable Model is a TM of  $P$ .

*Proof*

Assume  $M$  is a SM of  $P$ . Then  $M = \text{least}(P/M)$  where the division  $P/M$  deletes all rules with *not*  $a$  in the body where  $a \in M$ , and then deletes all remaining *not*  $b$  from the bodies of rules. The program division  $P : M$  performs exactly the same step as the  $P/M$  one, but then only deletes the *not*  $b$  such that *not*  $b \in M_N$ . Moreover, the  $P/M$  division is performed using the whole  $M$  at once, whilst the  $P : M$  considers not the whole  $M$  but only partial  $M_{L_N}$ s of  $M$ . Tightness requires consistency amongst the several individual  $M_{L_N}$ s whilst the  $M = \text{least}(P/M)$  stability condition requires consistency throughout the whole  $M$ . We can thus say the division  $P/M$  performs all the steps the  $P : M$  division does, and then some. In this sense the  $M = \text{least}(P/M)$  stability condition demands from  $M$  all that Tightness does and even more. Hence, a model passing the stability condition is bound to be also a Tight Model.  $\square$

*Theorem 5*

**Tight Semantics respects the Well-Founded Model.** Every Tight Model of  $P$  respects the Well-Founded Model of  $P$  —  $\forall_{M:TM_P(M)} \text{RespectWFM}_P(M)$ .

*Proof*

Take any TM  $M$  of  $P$ . Since all TMs are minimal models of  $\widehat{P}$ ,  $M$  must contain all the facts of  $\widehat{P}$ , i.e.,  $M \supseteq \text{WFM}^+(P)$ . Also minimal models of  $\widehat{P}$  are bound to be a subset of the heads of rules of  $\widehat{P}$ , hence  $M \subseteq \text{WFM}^{+u}(P)$ .  $\square$

Due to lack of space, the complexity analysis of this semantics is left out of this paper. Nonetheless, a brief note is due. Tight Model existence is guaranteed for every NLP, whereas finding if there are any SMs for an NLP is NP-complete. Brave reasoning — finding if there is any model of the program where some atom  $a$  is true — is an NP-hard task. But since TS enjoys relevance, the computational scope of this task can be reduced to consider only  $\text{Rel}_P(a)$ , instead of the whole  $P$ . From a practical standpoint, this can have a significant impact in the performance of concrete applications. By the same token, cautious reasoning (finding out if some atom  $a$  is in all models) in the TS should have the complementary complexity of brave reasoning: co-NP-complete.

A current avenue of further work already being taken follows the line of thought we laid out in (Pereira and Pinto 2009b) by partitioning an NLP into layers, a generalization of strata, to further segment the program and thus reduce the combinatorics of the Tightness test. Although not reducing the theoretical complexity class of the Tightness test, in practical implementations the syntactical partitioning of layering can have a substantial impact on performance.

## 6 Tight Semantics Extensions

We indicate next how TS can be extended to ELPs and Disjunctive LPs. A full account of these extensions is left for specific papers.

**Extended Logic Programs.** Extended Logic Programs (ELPs) are NLPs where explicit negation is allowed (also in the heads of rules), besides default negation. In general, an extended logic rule can take the form  $H \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_n, \text{not } C_1, \dots, \text{not } C_m$  where  $H$ , the  $B_i$  and the  $C_j$  are literals which can be either an atom  $A$  or its explicit negation  $\neg A$ .

TS can be applied “as-is” to ELPs, like it is usually done, simply by treating explicitly negated literals as regular atoms that extend the program’s language. Of course, contradictions might arise from both  $H$  and  $\neg H$  being derived from rules. When such situations occur, TS effortlessly and requiring no change to its base definition, yields paraconsistent models. Note, however, that such paraconsistent models appear (only and) whenever paraconsistencies arise from the rules. In case there are no contradictions stemming from the extended logic rules, no paraconsistent models will appear. Moreover, it might be the case that in a paraconsistent model only some literals are paraconsistent—i.e. those literals (or their explicitly negated complements) depending through relevance on contradictory rule conclusions—whilst others not. Naturally, if one wants to avoid paraconsistency altogether, a simple well-known method to ensure it is rule semi-normalization (Janhunen 1999).

**Disjunctive Logic Programs.** Disjunctive Logic Programs (DisjLPs) are just NLPs where the heads of rules can now contain the disjunction of several atoms; i.e., the rules can take the form  $h_1 \vee \dots \vee h_p \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_n, \text{not } c_1, \dots, \text{not } c_m$

The reduction of DisjLPs to NLPs has been studied before and the *shifting rule* solution proposed in (Dix et al. 1996; Gelfond et al. 1991) is commonly accepted as a good one. For self-containment we include here the definition of the *shifting rule*.

*Definition 12*

**Shifting rule** (Dix et al. 1996; Gelfond et al. 1991). Let

$$r = h_1 \vee \dots \vee h_p \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_n, \text{not } c_1, \dots, \text{not } c_m$$

be a disjunctive logic rule. The *shifting rule* is a rewrite rule transforming  $r$  to:

$$\begin{array}{l} h_1 \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_n, \text{not } c_1, \dots, \text{not } c_m, \text{not } h_2, \dots, \text{not } h_p \\ \dots \leftarrow \dots \\ h_p \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_n, \text{not } c_1, \dots, \text{not } c_m, \text{not } h_1, \dots, \text{not } h_{p-1} \end{array}$$

Taking advantage of the *shifting rule*, we define the TS for DisjLPs as consisting simply of the TS of the NLP obtained by applying the *shifting rule* in full to every disjunctive logic rule. Because TS deals with all loops, there are hence no restrictions on how many or what shiftings can be applied, as has been the case in prior uses of *shifting rule* which impose, say, guarantee transform stratification. TS thus opens the way for a fuller use of the *shifting rule* in LPs.

## 7 Conclusions, Future and Ongoing Topics, and Similar Work

Having defined a more general 2-valued semantics for LPs much remains in store, and to be explored and reported, in the way of properties, complexity, comparisons,

implementation, and applications. We hope the concepts and techniques newly introduced here might be adopted by other logic programming semantics approaches and systems.

**Conclusions.** We defined TS, a semantics for *all* NLPs complying with the express requirements of: 2-valued semantics, preserving the models of SM, guarantee of model existence (even in face of odd loops over negation or infinite chains), relevance, cumulativity, and WFM respect. We have seen how TS extends to adumbrate ELPs and Disjunctive LPs, but a full account of these extensions must be left for other papers.

In a nutshell, a TS model of a NLP  $P$  is any minimal model  $M$  of  $P$  that further satisfies  $\hat{P}$ —the program remainder of  $P$ —in that each loop in  $\hat{P}$  has a minimal model contained in  $M$ , whilst respecting the constraints imposed by the minimal models of the other loops so-constrained too.

The applications afforded by TS are all those of SM, which it generalizes, plus those requiring solving OLONs for model existence, and those where OLONs actually are employed for the production of problem solutions, not just filtering them like ICs. Guarantee of model existence is essential in applications where knowledge sources are diverse (like in the semantic web), and where the bringing together of such knowledge (automatically or not) can give rise to OLONs that would otherwise prevent the resulting program from having a semantics, thereby brusquely terminating the application. A similar situation can be brought about by self- and mutually-updating programs, including in the learning setting, where unforeseen OLONs would stop short an ongoing process if the SM semantics were in use.

Relevancy condones top-down querying and avoids the need to compute whole models. It also permits abduction by need, avoiding much useless consideration of irrelevant abducibles.

That TS includes the SM semantics and that it always exists and admits top-down querying is a novelty making us look anew at 2-valued semantics use in KRR, contrasting its use to other semantics employed heretofore for KRR, even though SM has already been compared often enough (Baral 2003).

**Future and Ongoing Topics.** TS’s implementation, because of its relevance property, may avoid the need to compute complete models, and its apodictic need for groundness, and the difficulties it begets for problem representation. Work under way concerns the efficient implementation of TS at XSB-Prolog engine level. Nevertheless, a meta-interpreter implementation is already available. XSB is the appropriate vehicle since it implements the WFS, allows for relevance compliant top-down querying, and produces the program remainder of the query. The latter’s strongly connected components (SCCs) are akin to our loops, and tightness can be applied to glean from them their TS 2-valued models. To that effect, we first had to perfect incremental answer completion at the engine level in the SLG-WAM in (Swift et al. 2009). Our meta-interpreter approach relies on XSB-XASP (Castro et al. 1999) to send to Smodels (Niemelä and Simons 1997) a duly massaged program remainder, where odd loops are duly and appropriately replaced via

a program transformation, in order to generate TS’s 2-valued models, employing techniques described in (Pereira and Pinto 2009c). The program remainder is calculated by XSB for a specific given query. XSB actually calls it the *query residual* because when it was first implemented it actually computed the residual, not the remainder. It is only after our inclusion of the Answer Completion (Swift et al. 2009) component in XSB’s engine that one is certain that the *query remainder* is what gets computed. Still, the old *query residual* nomenclature is used in XSB.

One topic of future work consists in defining partial model schemas that can provide answers to queries in terms of abstract non-ground model schemas encompassing several instances of ground partial models. Abstract partial models, instead of fully ground ones, may be produced directly by the remainder — a subject for further investigation.

Yet another topic of future work is the definition of a Well-Founded Tight Semantics (WFTS), foreseeably a partial model contained in the intersection of the all TMs that extends the WFM by deterministically resolving all length 1 odd loops over default negation whilst respecting tightness. Floating conclusions are disallowed by this definition, as no non-determinism is involved. Incidental to this topic is the relationship of the WFTS to O-semantics (Pereira et al. 1994). It is apparent that TS extends the latter.

**Similar Work.** In (Pereira and Pinto 2005) we defined a 2-valued semantics—the Revised Stable Models—based on a *reductio ad absurdum*, that guarantees existence of a model for every Normal Logic Program, enjoys relevance, cumulativity, respect for the WFM, and is a model-conservative extension to SM, in that every stable model is a RSM one. Its main drawback is definitely that its definition is hard to grasp and understand, and hence we strived to provide equivalent argumentation-based and layer-based reconstructions.

In (Pereira and Pinto 2007), we introduced the Approved Models semantics (AM), an original 2-valued semantics for Normal Logic Programs (NLPs) extending the well-known argumentation-based work of Phan Minh Dung on Admissible Arguments and Preferred Extensions (Dung 1995), inspired on the *reductio ad absurdum* approach of the RSM semantics. Each AM model corresponds to the minimal positive strict consistent 2-valued completion of a Dung Preferred Extension. AM enjoys: model existence for every NLP; relevancy; cumulativity; being also a model-conservative extension to SM. Respect for the WFM is deliberately not enforced in AM, though its Strict AM extension does so, and is conjectured, in the referred publication, to be equivalent to RSM semantics.

In (Pereira and Pinto 2009a), we introduced the Layered Models (LM) semantics, an original 2-valued semantics for Normal Logic Programs (NLPs), a layer-based approach enjoying relevance, cumulativity, and constituting a model-conservative extension to SM, but not complying with the WFM. In (Pereira and Pinto 2009b; Pereira and Pinto 2009d), we introduced the Layered Supported Models (LSM) semantics, a refinement of LM that ensures compatibility with the WFM, and conjectured equivalent to the RSM semantics.

Finally and recently, we discovered that RSM semantics, and its paradigm change

reconstruction versions, though not incorrect, did not capture exactly the intuitions we had been trying to formalize in order to obtain a 2-valued semantics for any NLP. Namely, for example 5 RSM fails to provide model  $\{b, c\}$  relative to our intended intuitions, as captured in the implemented procedures devised for RSM (Pinto 2005).

Accordingly, we made a fresh start with a new approach and devised the TS herein, achieved via adapting better known formal LP methods than RSM's *reductio ad absurdum* stance, and complying with the heretofore intuitions we wished to capture, by proffering clear and simple statements to satisfy them, all the while corroborating the implementation rationale followed, and its attending techniques.

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