

Semantic and Declarative Technologies

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Part I

Course overview

- 1 Course overview
- 2 Introduction to Logic
- 3 Declarative Programming with Prolog
- 4 Declarative Programming with Constraints
- 5 The Semantic Web

Course information

- Course layout
 - Introduction to Logic Weeks 1–2
 - Declarative Programming
 - Prolog – Programming in Logic Weeks 3–7
 - Constraint Programming Weeks 8–12
 - Semantic Technologies
 - Logics for the Semantic Web Weeks 13–14
- Requirements
 - 2 assignments (150 points each) 300 points
 - 2 tests (mid-term and final, 200 points each) 400 points total
 - many small exercises + class activity 300 points total
- Course webpage: <http://cs.bme.hu/~szeredi/ait>
- Course rules: <http://cs.bme.hu/~szeredi/ait/course-rules.pdf>

(AIT)

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2 / 390

Course overview

Part I – *practical* mathematical logic

Propositional Logic

- Basic Boolean functions (bitwise ops in C, Python, etc.)
 - and: \wedge (&)
 - or: \vee (|)
 - not: \neg (~)
 - implies: \rightarrow $A \rightarrow B$ (A implies B) is the same as $(\neg A \vee B)$
- The puzzle below is cited from “What Is The Name Of This Book?” by Raymond M. Smullyan, chapter “From the cases of Inspector Craig”
- Puzzles in this chapter involve suspects of a crime, named A, B, etc. Some of them are guilty, some innocent.
- Example:

An enormous amount of loot had been stolen from a store. The criminal (or criminals) took the heist away in a car. Three well-known criminals A, B, C were brought to Scotland Yard for questioning. The following facts were ascertained:

 - 1 No one other than A, B, C was involved in the robbery.
 - 2 C never works without A (and possibly others) as an accomplice.
 - 3 B does not know how to drive.

Is A innocent or guilty?

Inspector Craig puzzle – transforming to formal logic

- Let's recall the facts
 - No one other than A, B, C was involved in the robbery.
 - C never works without A (and possibly others) as an accomplice.
 - B does not know how to drive.
- Transform each statement into a formula involving the letters A, B, C as atomic propositions. Proposition A stands for "A is guilty", etc.
 - A is guilty or B is guilty or C is guilty: $A \vee B \vee C$
 - If C is guilty then A is guilty: $C \rightarrow A$
 - It cannot be the case that only B is guilty: $B \rightarrow (A \vee C)$
- Transform each propositional formula into conjunctive normal form (CNF), then show the clauses in simplified form:

Original formula	CNF	Simplified clausal form
① $A \vee B \vee C$	$A \vee B \vee C$	$+A +B +C.$
② $C \rightarrow A$	$\neg C \vee A$	$-C +A.$
③ $B \rightarrow (A \vee C)$	$\neg B \vee A \vee C$	$-B +A +C.$
- A clause is a **set** of signed atomic propositions, called *literals*

Inspector Craig puzzle – resolution proof

- Collect the clauses, giving each a reference number:

(1)	$+A +B +C.$	Only A, B, C was involved in the robbery.
(2)	$-C +A.$	C never works without A as an accomplice.
(3)	$-B +A +C.$	B does not know how to drive.
- A resolution step requires two input clauses which have **opposite** literals e.g. literal 3 of clause (1) is $+C$ while lit 1 of clause (2) is $-C$
- The resolution step creates a new clause, called the resolvent, by taking the union of the literals in the inputs and removing the opposite literals e.g. resolving (1) lit 3 with (2) lit 1 results in $+A +B$
- The resolvent follows from (is a consequence of) the input clauses, as $(U \vee V) \wedge (\neg U \vee W) \rightarrow (V \vee W)$ always holds (is a tautology)
- A sample resolution proof:

	resolve (1) lit 2 with (3) lit 1 resulting in (4)
(4)	$+A +C.$
	resolve (4) lit 2 with (2) lit 1 resulting in (5)
(5)	$+A.$
- We deduced that A is true, so the solution of the puzzle is: A is guilty

Clauses in First Order Logic (FOL)

- Example: There is an island where some people are optimistic (opt)
- The following statements hold on this island:
 - Someone having an opt parent is bound to be opt.
 - Someone having a non-opt friend is also bound to be opt.
 - Susan's mother has Susan's father as a friend.
- To formalize this in FOL we introduce some task-specific symbols:
 - X has a parent Y \rightarrow $\text{hasP}(X, Y)$; X has a friend Y \rightarrow $\text{hasF}(X, Y)$
 - X is opt \rightarrow $\text{opt}(X)$; s, f, m stand for Susan, her father and her mother, resp.
- The **FOL form** and the **clausal form** of the above statements:
 - For all X and Y, X is opt if X has a parent Y and Y is opt:
 $\forall X, Y. (\text{opt}(X) \leftarrow \text{hasP}(X, Y) \wedge \text{opt}(Y))$
 $\text{+opt}(X) \text{ -hasP}(X, Y) \text{ -opt}(Y).$
 - For all X and Y, X is opt if X has a friend Y and Y is not opt:
 $\forall X, Y. (\text{opt}(X) \leftarrow \text{hasF}(X, Y) \wedge \neg \text{opt}(Y))$
 $\text{+opt}(X) \text{ -hasF}(X, Y) \text{ +opt}(Y).$
 - $\text{hasP}(s, m) \text{ hasP}(s, f) \text{ hasF}(m, f)$
 $\text{+hasP}(s, m). \text{+hasP}(s, f). \text{+hasF}(m, f).$
- We will also learn FOL resolution, on which Prolog execution is based

Part II – Prolog

Example 1: checking if an integer is a prime

- A Prolog program consists of predicates (functions returning a Boolean)
- Let's write a predicate, which is true if and only if the argument is a prime
- Programming by specification: first describe when the predicate is true, then transform the description to Prolog code

```

prime(P) :-
    integer(P), P > 1,
    P1 is P-1,
    \+ (
        between(2, P1, I),
        P mod I == 0
    ).
% P is a prime if
%   P is an integer and P > 1 and
%   P1 = P-1 and
%   it is not the case that
%   (there exists an integer I such that)
%       2 <= I <= P1 and
%       P is divisible by I
%

```

Are you convinced of the correctness of the code? :-)

Example 2: append - multiple uses of a single predicate

- `app(L1, L2, L3)` is true if `L3` is the concatenation of `L1` and `L2`.

```
app([], L, L).           % appending an empty list with L gives L.
app([H|L1], L2, [H|L3]) :- % appending a list composed of
    % head H and tail L1 with a list L2
    % gives a list with head H and tail L3 if
    app(L1, L2, L3).     % appending L1 and L2 gives L3.
```

- `app` can be used, for example,
 - to check whether the relation holds:


```
| ?- app([1,2], [3,4], [1,2,3,4]). yes
```
 - to append two lists:


```
| ?- app([1,2], [3,4], L).           L = [1,2,3,4] ? ; no
```
 - to split a list into two:


```
| ?- app(L1, L2, [1,2,3]).           L1 = [], L2 = [1,2,3] ? ;
                                     L1 = [1], L2 = [2,3] ? ;
                                     L1 = [1,2], L2 = [3] ? ;
                                     L1 = [1,2,3], L2 = [] ? ; no
```
- The above `app` predicate is available as the built-in `append/3`

Example 3: Countdown

- Given the list of numbers `Is` and the target number `T`, obtain a solution `E`

```
countdown(Is, T, E) :- % E is a solution of the task
    % with ints Is and target T if
    subseq(Is, Is1, _), % Is has a subsequence Is1 and
    permutation(Is1, Is2), % Is1 has a permutation Is2 and
    expr_leaves(E, Is2), % E is a formula with
    % list of leaves Is2 and
    E == T.              % E evaluates to T.
```

- `subseq/3` and `permutation/2` are available from the `lists` library
- The third argument of `subseq/3` contains the remaining elements from the first argument. Using `_` there means we do not care about that list.
- We only have to write `expr_leaves/2`

Countdown – `expr_leaves/2`

- We need `expr_leaves/2` to generate the valid expressions in a tree form:

```
expr_leaves(E, Is) :- % E is a valid formula with
    % list of leaves Is if
    append(LIs, RIs, Is), % Is is the concatenation of
    % LIs and RIs and
    LIs \== [],           % LIs is not an empty list and
    RIs \== [],           % RIs is not an empty list and
    expr_leaves(LE, LIs), % LE is a formula with leaves LIs and
    expr_leaves(RE, RIs), % RE is a formula with leaves RIs and
    build_expr(LE, RE, E). % combining LE and RE may yield E.
expr_leaves(I, [I]) :- % I is a valid formula with
    % list of leaves [I] if
    integer(I).         % I is an integer.
```

Countdown – `build_expr/3`

- We still need `build_expr/3` to define the operations we can use:

```
build_expr(X, Y, X+Y). % combining exprs X and Y may yield X+Y.
build_expr(X, Y, X*Y). % combining exprs X and Y may yield X*Y.
build_expr(X, Y, X-Y) :- % combining exprs X and Y may yield X-Y if
    X > Y.                % X > Y.
build_expr(X, Y, X/Y) :- % combining exprs X and Y may yield X/Y if
    X mod Y == 0.         % X divided by Y gives a 0 remainder.
```

- This program may give the same (or equivalent) solution several times because of the commutativity and associativity of the operators

Part III – Constraint technology

Example 4: a cryptarithmic puzzle in Prolog

- Solve $\text{SEND} + \text{MORE} = \text{MONEY}$, where the letters represent different digits, and there are no leading zeroes
- We are using the permutation technique from the countdown example to make sure that the letters represents different numbers

```
sendmoney([S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y]) :-
    subseq([0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9],L,_),
    permutation(L,[S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y]),
    S > 0, M > 0,
    1000*S+100*E+10*N+D + 1000*M+100*O+10*R+E
    := 10000*M+1000*O+100*N+10*E+Y.
```

- This works, but is very slow
- However, we can use constraints to speed up the process

SEND MORE MONEY – Prolog and CLPFD solutions

Prolog: **generate** and **test** (check)

```
send0(SEND, MORE, MONEY) :-
    Ds = [S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y],
    subseq([0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9],L,_),
    permutation(L,[S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y]),
    S \= 0, M \= 0,
    SEND is 1000*S+100*E+10*N+D,
    MORE is 1000*M+100*O+10*R+E,
    MONEY is
    10000*M+1000*O+100*N+10*E+Y,
    SEND+MORE == MONEY.
```

CLPFD: **test** (constrain) and **generate**

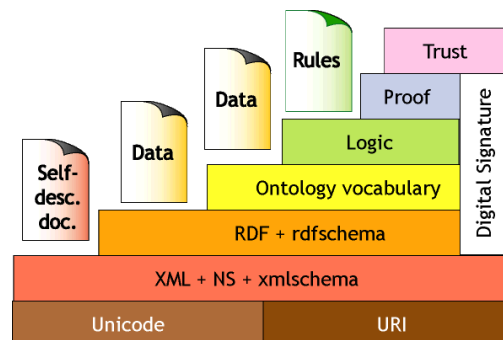
```
:- use_module(library(clpfd)).
send_clpfd(SEND, MORE, MONEY) :-
    Ds = [S,E,N,D,M,O,R,Y],
    domain(Ds, 0, 9),
    all_different(Ds),
    S #\= 0, M #\= 0,
    SEND #= 1000*S+100*E+10*N+D,
    MORE #= 1000*M+100*O+10*R+E,
    MONEY #=
    10000*M+1000*O+100*N+10*E+Y,
    SEND+MORE #= MONEY,
    labeling([], Ds).
```

How does it work?

- Variables have **domains**.
- **Constraints** can prune **domains** or cause failure.

Part IV – Semantic Web

- The main goal of the Semantic Web (SW) approach:
 - make the information on the web processable by computers
 - machines should be able to **understand** the web, not only **read** it
- Achieving the vision of the Semantic Web
 - Adding (computer processable) **meta-information** to the web
 - Formalizing background knowledge – building so called ontologies
 - Developing reasoning algorithms and tools
- The Semantic Web layer cake – Tim Berners-Lee



Making Susan Optimistic using OWL and Protégé

- Recall a statement from the Susan example discussed earlier
 - English: Someone having an opt parent is bound to be opt.
 - FOL: $\forall X, Y. (\text{opt}(X) \leftarrow \text{hasP}(X, Y) \wedge \text{opt}(Y))$
 - clausal form: $+\text{opt}(X) \text{ } -\text{hasP}(X, Y) \text{ } -\text{opt}(Y) .$
 - OWL (Web Ontology Language): `hasParent some Opt SubClassOf Opt`
(The set of those having **some** parents who are Opt is a **subset** of Opt)

- OWL (Web Ontology Language) represents a subset of FOL: e.g. predicates can have one or two arguments only, but efficient reasoners are available for this subset
- Protégé is a free, open source ontology editor and knowledge-base framework:

