

Introspecting preferences in answer set programming

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Abstract

This paper develops a logic programming language, ASP^{EP} , that extends answer set programming language with a new epistemic operator $\succ_x$ where $x \in \{\#, \supseteq\}$. The operator are used between two literals in rules bodies, and thus allows for the representation of introspections of preferences in the presence of multiple belief sets: $G \succ_{\#} F$ expresses that G is preferred to F by the cardinality of the sets, and $G \succ_{\supseteq} F$ expresses G is preferred to F by the set-theoretic inclusion. We define the semantics of ASP^{EP} , explore the relation to the languages of strong introspections, and study the applications of ASP^{EP} by modeling the Monty Hall problem and the principle of majority.

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1 Introduction

Preferences have extensively been studied in disciplines such as economy, operations research, psychology, philosophy, and artificial intelligence as showed in [8], [17], [2], [14], and [7] etc. In [24], von Wright defined preference as a relation between states of affairs. In formal logical languages, states of affairs are typically represented as propositions. Follow this tradition, one of the important directions in artificial intelligence is the logical representation and reasoning of preferences. Many extensions of the languages of answer set programming (ASP) have been developed for handling preferences due to the strong power of ASP in expressing defaults. Those languages provide elegant methodologies for modeling the intractable problems with defaults and preferences. Examples include the ordered logic programming [19], the logic programming with ordered disjunction [4], the answer set optimization [5][3], the prioritized logic programming [18], the CR-prolog [1], the possibilistic answer set programming [16] etc. The preferences handled in those answer set programs are used to evaluate the preferred answer sets via specifying the precedence over the rules or the literals in rules heads.

Different from the above answer set programming paradigms with preferences, our purpose in this paper is to represent introspections of preferences over propositions in the presence of multiple belief sets by proposing a new epistemic operator $\succ_x$ where $x \in \{\#, \supseteq\}$. For propositions F and G , $F \succ_{\#} G$ expresses that F is true in more belief sets than G , and can be read as “ F is more possible than G ”. And $F \succ_{\supseteq} G$ expresses that F is always true in the belief sets where G is true, which tells “ F is antecedent to G ” or “ F is true whenever G is true” etc. We first demonstrate this motivation using an example from our family life.

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► **Example 1.** Consider three discount packages offered by an amusement resort as showed in Table 1(a)². Each of them contains three attractions but only two of them are available. A family is allowed to buy at most one package in advance, and may determine which two attractions to choose according to the actual situations, such as the waiting time, physical situation, when they are in the resort. For instance, a family with a kid child and a teenage boy decide which package to buy by the following criteria: (1). *The family prefer the package that promises more opportunities for the kid child*; (2). *The parents request that their teenage boy has an attraction to visit whenever they visit an attraction*³.

Directly, the packages information allow the family to have nine possible combinations of attractions as showed in the table 1(b). And the family can have the following three

■ **Table 1** Combo of Attractions

(a) Packages Information			(b) Possible Combinations of Attractions		
Package	Attractions	Ages	Package	Combinations	Age Interest
1	a ₁	Kids,teens	1	{a ₁ ,a ₂ }	All
	a ₂	Adults		{a ₁ ,a ₃ }	Kids,teens
	a ₃	teens		{a ₂ ,a ₃ }	Adults,teens
2	b ₁	All	2	{b ₁ ,b ₂ }	All
	b ₂	Adults		{b ₁ ,b ₃ }	All
	b ₃	Kids		{b ₂ ,b ₃ }	Adults,Kids
3	c ₁	All	3	{c ₁ ,c ₂ }	All
	c ₂	teens		{c ₁ ,c ₃ }	All
	c ₃	Kids		{c ₂ ,c ₃ }	teens,Kids

conclusions via simple counting.

(i) Both package 2 and package 3 provide more opportunities for the kid child than package 1.

(ii) Both package 1 and package 3 guarantee that the teenage boy has an attraction to visit whenever the parents visit an attraction.

(iii) By (i) and (ii), Package 3 should be the favorite package for the family.

It is easy to get the combinations by encoding the packages information and the purchase requirements in a logic program Π_{ep} containing the following rules:

```

1{package(1);package(2);package(3)}1
2{attraction(a1);attraction(a2);attraction(a3)}2 ← package(1)
2{attraction(b1);attraction(b2);attraction(b3)}2 ← package(2)
2{attraction(c1);attraction(c2);attraction(c3)}2 ← package(3)
age(kids) ← attraction(a1)
age(adults) ← attraction(a2)
age(teens) ← attraction(a3)
age(all) ← attraction(b1)
age(adults) ← attraction(b2)
age(kids) ← attraction(b3)
age(all) ← attraction(c1)

```

² In the tables, ‘All’ means that there is no age limitation.

³ To avoid the boy running around without parents.

68 $age(teen\text{s}) \leftarrow attraction(c_2)$

69 $age(kids) \leftarrow attraction(c_3)$

70 $age(kids) \leftarrow age(all)$

71 $age(teen\text{s}) \leftarrow age(all)$

72 $age(adult\text{s}) \leftarrow age(all)$

73 $age_interest(X, Y) \leftarrow package(X), age(Y).$

74 that has exactly nine answer sets which correspond to the nine possible combinations in
 75 Table 1. We now expect to expand Π_{ep} by rules that is able to intuitively represent the
 76 criteria such that the result program is able to give the conclusions as showed in (i),(ii), and
 77 (iii). It is easy to see, for achieving the above goal, our representation and reasoning system
 78 should have an introspective ability that is able to look at the preferences over the beliefs
 79 with regard to those belief sets/answer sets.

80 Specifically, this paper will address the issue of introspection of preferences illustrated in
 81 the above example. We develop a logic programming language, ASP^{EP} , that extends the
 82 answer set programming language with a new epistemic operator $\succ_x$ where $x \in \{\#, \supseteq\}$. In
 83 ASP^{EP} , the operator is used between two literals in rules bodies, and thus allows for the
 84 representation of introspections of preferences. Consider rules $r_{\#}$:

85 $prefer(X, Y, kid) \leftarrow age_interest(X, kids) \succ_{\#} age_interest(Y, kids),$

86 $package(X), package(Y)$

87 and $r_{\supseteq}$:

88 $request(X) \leftarrow age_interest(X, teen\text{s}) \succ_{\supseteq} age_interest(X, adult\text{s}), package(X)$

89 They are able to represent the criteria (1) and (2) in the motivation example respectively.

90 The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we review the basic
 91 principles underlying the answer set semantics of logic programs. In section 3, we introduce
 92 syntax and semantics of ASP^{EP} . In section 4, we consider the relationship between ASP^{EP}
 93 and the strong introspection specification languages. In section 6, we explore the applications
 94 of ASP^{EP} . We conclude in section 7 with some further discussion.

95 2 Answer Set Programming

96 Throughout this paper, we assume a finite first-order signature σ that contains no function
 97 constants of positive arity. There are finitely many Herbrand interpretations of σ , each of
 98 which is finite as well. We follow the description of ASP from [13]. A logic program over σ is
 99 a collection of rules of the form

100 $l_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } l_k \leftarrow l_{k+1}, \dots, l_m, \text{ not } l_{m+1}, \dots, \text{ not } l_n$

101 where the l s are literals of σ , *not* is called negation as failure, *or* is epistemic disjunction.
 102 The left-hand side of a rule is called the *head* and the right-hand side is called the *body*.
 103 A rule is called a fact if its body is empty and its head contains only one literal, and a
 104 rule is called a denial if its head is empty. A logic program is called ground if it contains
 105 no variables. [13] intuitively interprets that an answer set associated with a ground logic
 106 program is a set of beliefs (collection of ground literals) and is formed by a reasoner guided
 107 by three principles:

- 108 ■ *Rule's Satisfiability principle*: Believe in the head of a rule if you believe in its body.
- 109 ■ *Consistency principle*: Do not believe in contradictions.
- 110 ■ *Rationality Principle*: Believe nothing you are not forced to believe.

111 The definition of the answer set is extended to any non-ground program by identifying it
 112 with the ground program obtained by replacing every variable with every ground term of

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113 σ . It is worthy noting that $\top$ can be removed if it is in the body of a rule, the rule can be
 114 removed from the program if $\perp$ is in its body.

115 **3 The ASP^{EP} Language**

116 **3.1 Syntax**

117 An ASP^{EP} program Π is a set of rules of the form

$$118 \quad l_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } l_k \leftarrow e_1, \dots, e_m, s_1, \dots, s_n.$$

119 where $k \geq 0$, $m \geq 0$, $n \geq 0$, the l s are literals in first order logic language and are called
 120 objective literals here, e s are extended literals which are 0-place connectives $\top$ and $\perp$, or
 121 objective literals possibly preceded by *not*, s s are subjective literals of the form $e \succ_x e'$ or
 122 $e \not\succ_x e'$ where e and e' are extended literals and $x \in \{\#, \supseteq\}$. The left-hand side of a rule is
 123 called the *head* and the right-hand side is called the *body*. As in usual logic programming, a
 124 rule is called a fact if its body is empty and its head contains only one literal, and a rule is
 125 called a denial if its head is empty. We use $head(r)$ to denote the set of objective literals in
 126 the head of a rule r and $body(r)$ to denote the set of extended literals and subjective literals
 127 in the body of r . Sometimes, we use $head(r) \leftarrow body(r)$ to denote a rule r . The positive
 128 body of a rule r is composed of the extended literals containing no *not* in its body. We use
 129 $body^+(r)$ to denote the positive body of r . r is said to be *safe* if each variable in it appears
 130 in the positive body of the rule. We will use $sl(\Pi)$ to denote the set of subjective literals
 131 appearing in Π .

132 It is clear that an ASP^{EP} program containing no subjective literals is a disjunctive logic
 133 program that can be dealt with by ASP solvers like DLV[9], CLASP[?].

134 It is worthy of noting that, for convenient description, we will use $e \succ_x e'$ to denote the
 135 strict preference that can be expressed by the conjunction of $e \succ_x e'$ and $e' \not\succ_x e$, and use
 136 $e \approx_x e'$ to denote the preferential indifference that can be expressed by the conjunction of
 137 $e \not\succ_x e'$ and $e' \not\succ_x e$, and use $e \equiv_x e'$ to denote the preferential equivalence that can be
 138 expressed by the conjunction of $e \succ_x e'$ and $e' \succ_x e$.

139 **3.2 Semantics**

140 We will restrict our definition of the semantics to ground programs. However, we admit
 141 rule schemata containing variables bearing in mind that these schemata are just convenient
 142 representations for the set of their ground instances. In the following definitions, l is used to
 143 denote a ground objective literal, e is used to denote a ground extended literal, and s is used
 144 to denote a ground subjective literal.

145 **3.2.1 Satisfiability**

146 Let W be a non-empty collection of consistent sets of ground objective literals, (W, w) is a
 147 pointed ASP^{EP} structure of W where $w \in W$. W is a model of a program Π if for each rule
 148 r in Π , r is satisfied by every pointed ASP^{EP} structure of W . The notion of satisfiability
 149 denoted by $\models_{ep}$ is defined below.

- 150 ■ $(W, w) \models_{ep} \top$
- 151 ■ $(W, w) \not\models_{ep} \perp$
- 152 ■ $(W, w) \models_{ep} l$ if $l \in w$
- 153 ■ $(W, w) \models_{ep} \text{not } l$ if $l \notin w$

- 154 ■ $(W, w) \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_{\#} e'$ if $|\{w \in W : (W, w) \models_{\text{ep}} e\}| \geq |\{v \in W : (W, v) \models_{\text{ep}} e'\}|$
- 155 ■ $(W, w) \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_{\supseteq} e'$ if $\{w \in W : (W, w) \models_{\text{ep}} e\} \supseteq \{v \in W : (W, v) \models_{\text{ep}} e'\}$
- 156 ■ $(W, w) \models_{\text{ep}} e \not\succ_x e'$ if $(W, w) \not\models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_x e', x \in \{\#, \supseteq\}$

157 Then, for a rule r in Π , $(W, w) \models_{\text{ep}} r$ if

- 158 ■ $\exists l \in \text{head}(r): (W, w) \models_{\text{ep}} l$, or
- 159 ■ $\exists t \in \text{body}(r): (W, w) \not\models_{\text{ep}} t$.

160 The satisfiability of a subjective literal does not depend on a specific belief set w in W , hence
 161 we can simply write $W \models_{\text{ep}} s$ if $(W, w) \models_{\text{ep}} s$ and say the subjective literal s is satisfied by
 162 W , and we can simply write $W \not\models_{\text{ep}} s$ if $(W, w) \not\models_{\text{ep}} s$ and say the subjective literal s is not
 163 satisfied by W .

164 We consider the properties of the above satisfiability by some axioms of the strict
 165 preference relation proposed by von Wright in [24]. Let W be a non-empty collection of
 166 consistent sets of ground objective literals, the following properties of the satisfiability $\models_{\text{ep}}$
 167 hold.

- 168 ■ $\succ_x$ Asymmetry. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_x e' \implies W \not\models_{\text{ep}} e' \succ_x e$
- 169 ■ $\succ_{\#}$ Inescapability. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_{\#} e', W \models_{\text{ep}} e'' \not\succ_{\#} e' \implies W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_{\#} e''$
- 170 ■ $\succ_x$ Transitivity. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_x e', W \models_{\text{ep}} e' \succ_x e'' \implies W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_x e''$
- 171 ■ $\succ_x$ Irreflexivity. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \not\succ_x e$
- 172 ■ $\approx_x$ Reflexivity. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \approx_x e$
- 173 ■ $\approx_x$ Symmetry. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \approx_x e' \implies W \models_{\text{ep}} e' \approx_x e$
- 174 ■ $\approx_{\#}$ Transitivity. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \approx_{\#} e', W \models_{\text{ep}} e' \approx_{\#} e'' \implies W \models_{\text{ep}} e \approx_{\#} e''$
- 175 ■ $\succ_{\#}$ R-Analogy. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_{\#} e', W \models_{\text{ep}} e' \approx_{\#} e'' \implies W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_{\#} e''$
- 176 ■ $\succ_{\#}$ L-Analogy. $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \approx_{\#} e', W \models_{\text{ep}} e' \succ_{\#} e'' \implies W \models_{\text{ep}} e' \succ_{\#} e''$

177 where $x \in \{\#, \supseteq\}$.

178 In addition, let W be a non-empty collection of consistent sets of ground objective literals,
 179 it is easy to find that

- 180 ■ $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_x e$
- 181 ■ $W \models_{\text{ep}} \top \succ_x e$
- 182 ■ $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \succ_x \perp$
- 183 ■ $W \models_{\text{ep}} e \not\succ_{\supseteq} e^{\text{not}}$

184 where e^{not} is l if e is *not* l , and e^{not} is *not* l if e is l , and $\top^{\text{not}}$ is $\perp$, and $\perp^{\text{not}}$ is $\top$.

185 3.2.2 World Views

186 We first give the definition of *candidate world view* for disjunctive logic programs and arbitrary
 187 ASP^{EP} programs respectively. Then, we define *world view* for ASP^{EP} programs by presenting
 188 a minimizing preferences principle.

189 ► **Definition 2.** Let Π be a disjunctive logic program, the candidate world view of Π is the
 190 non-empty set of all its answer sets, written as $AS(\Pi)$.

191 ► **Definition 3.** Let Π be an arbitrary ASP^{EP} program, and W is a non-empty collection of
 192 consistent sets of ground objective literals in the language of Π , we use Π^W to denote the
 193 disjunctive logic program obtained by removing the epistemic operators using the following
 194 reduct laws

- 195 1. removing from Π all rules containing subjective literals not satisfied by W .
- 196 2. removing all other occurrences of subjective literals of the form $e \succ_x e$ or $\top \succ_x e$ or
 197 $e \succ_x \perp$ or $e \not\succ_{\supseteq} e^{\text{not}}$.
- 198 3. replacing all other occurrences of subjective literals of the form $e \succ_x \top$ by e .
- 199 4. replacing all other occurrences of subjective literals of the form $\perp \succ_x e$ by e^{not} .

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200 5. replacing other occurrences of subjective literals of the form $e_1 \succ_x e_2$ or $e_1 \not\succ_x e_2$ by four
 201 conjunctions e_1, e_2 , and e_1^{not}, e_2 , and e_1, e_2^{not} , and e_1^{not}, e_2^{not} respectively.
 202 where e^{not} is l if e is *not* l , and e^{not} is *not* l if e is l , and $\top^{not}$ is $\perp$, and $\perp^{not}$ is $\top$. Then, W
 203 is a candidate world view of Π if W is a candidate world view of Π^W .

204 We use $cwv(\Pi)$ to denote the set of candidate world views of an ASP^{EP} program Π . Π^W is
 205 said to be the *reduct* of Π with respect to W . Such a reduct process eliminates subjective
 206 literals so that the belief sets in the model are identified with the answer sets of the program
 207 obtained by the reduct process. The intuitive meanings of the reduct laws can be described
 208 as follows:

- 209 ■ The first reduct law directly comes from the notion of Rule Satisfiability and Rationality
 210 Principle in answer set programming which means if a rule's body cannot be satisfied
 211 (believed in), the rule will contribute nothing;
- 212 ■ The second reduct law stems from the fact $e \succ_x e$ and $\top \succ_x e$ and $e \succ_x \perp$ and $e \not\succ_x e^{not}$
 213 are tautologies.
- 214 ■ The third reduct law states that, you are forced to believe e with regard to each belief
 215 set due to the fact that $e \succ_x \top$ implies e is true with regard to each answer set and the
 216 *Rationality Principle* in ASP.
- 217 ■ The fourth law states that, you are forced to believe e^{not} with regard to each belief set
 218 due to the fact that $\perp \succ_x e$ implies e is not true with regard to each answer set.
- 219 ■ The last law states that, both the literals e_1 and e_2 in $e_1 \succ_x e_2$ may be true or not with
 220 regard to each belief set.

221 ► **Definition 4.** Let Π be an arbitrary ASP^{EP} program, and W is a non-empty collection of
 222 consistent sets of ground objective literals in the language of Π , W is a world view of Π if it
 223 satisfies the conditions below

- 224 ■ $W \in cwv(\Pi)$
- 225 ■ Minimizing preferences principle: $\nexists V \in cwv(\Pi) (\{\bar{s} | s \in sl(\Pi) \wedge V \models_{ep} \bar{s}\} \supset \{\bar{s} | s \in$
 226 $sl(\Pi) \wedge W \models_{ep} \bar{s}\})$
- 227 where $\bar{s}$ is $e \succ_x e'$ if s is $e \not\succ_x e'$, and $\bar{s}$ is $e \not\succ_x e'$ if s is $e \succ_x e'$.

228 We use $wv(\Pi)$ to denote the set of world views of an ASP^{EP} program Π .

229 ► **Definition 5.** Let Π be an ASP^{EP} program, a ground objective literal l is true in Π
 230 (written by $\Pi \vdash_{ep} l$) if $\forall W \in wv(\Pi) \forall w \in W ((W, w) \models_{ep} l)$.

231 ► **Example 6.** Consider $\Pi = \Pi_{ep} \cup \{r_{\#}, r_{\supseteq}\}$ where Π_{ep} and $r_{\#}$ and $r_{\supseteq}$ are given in section 1.

232 It is easy to see that Π has an unique world view containing nine belief sets:

- 233 $\{prefer(2,1), prefer(3,1), request(1), request(3), package(1), age_interest(1,kids),$
 234 $age_interest(1,adults), \dots\}$
- 235 $\{prefer(2,1), prefer(3,1), request(1), request(3), package(1), age_interest(1,kids),$
 236 $age_interest(1,teens), \dots\}$
- 237 $\{prefer(2,1), prefer(3,1), request(1), request(3), package(1), age_interest(1,adults),$
 238 $age_interest(1,teens), \dots\}$
- 239 $\{prefer(2,1), prefer(3,1), request(1), request(3), package(2), age_interest(2,kids),$
 240 $age_interest(2,adults), age_interest(2,teens), \dots\}$
- 241 $\{prefer(2,1), prefer(3,1), request(1), request(3), package(2), age_interest(2,kids),$
 242 $age_interest(2,adults), age_interest(2,teens), \dots\}$
- 243 $\{prefer(2,1), prefer(3,1), request(1), request(3), package(2), age_interest(2,adults),$
 244 $age_interest(2,kids), \dots\}$
- 245 $\{prefer(2,1), prefer(3,1), request(1), request(3), package(3), age_interest(3,kids),$

246 $age_interest(3,adults),age_interest(3,teens),\dots\}$
 247 $\{prefer(2,1),prefer(3,1),request(1),request(3),package(3),age_interest(3,kids),$
 248 $age_interest(3,adults),age_interest(3,teens),\dots\}$
 249 $\{prefer(2,1),prefer(3,1),request(1),request(3),age_interest(3,teens), age_interest(1,kids),\dots\}$
 250 Then we have $\Pi \vdash_{ep} prefer(2,1)$ and $\Pi \vdash_{ep} prefer(3,1)$ corresponding to the conclusion (i),
 251 and $\Pi \vdash_{ep} request(3)$ and $\Pi \vdash_{ep} request(1)$ corresponding to the conclusion (ii), and it is
 252 easy to verify that if we add to Π another rule:

253 $buy(X) \leftarrow request(X), not\ prefer(Y, X), package(X), package(Y), X! = Y$

254 that states a simple ordered-based choice strategy, then we can get $\Pi \vdash_{ep} buy(3)$ corresponding
 255 to the conclusion (iii) in section 1.

4 Relation to Strong Introspection Specifications

257 Several languages have been developed by extending the languages of answer set programming
 258 (ASP) using epistemic operators to handle introspections. The need for such extension of ASP
 259 was early recognized and addressed by Gelfond in [10], where Gelfond proposed an extension
 260 of ASP with two modal operators K and M and their negations (ASP^{KM}). Informally, K p
 261 expresses “ p is known” (p is true in all belief sets of the agent), M p means “ p may be true” (p
 262 is true in some belief sets of the agent). It has been proved that ASP^{KM} is potential in
 263 dealing with some important issues in the field of knowledge representation and reasoning,
 264 for instance the correct representation of incomplete information in the presence of multiple
 265 belief sets [11], commonsense reasoning [11], formalization for conformant planning [15], and
 266 meta-reasoning [23] etc. Recently, there is increasing research in this direction to address
 267 the long-standing problems of unintended world views due to recursion through modalities
 268 that were introduced by Gelfond [10], e.g. [12][15][6]. Very recently, Shen and Eiter [21]
 269 introduced general logic programs possible containing epistemic negation NOT (ASP^{NOT}),
 270 and defined its world views by minimizing the knowledge. ASP^{NOT} can not only express K p
 271 and M p formulas by $not\ NOT\ p$ and $NOT\ not\ p$, but also offer a solution to the problems of
 272 unintended world views. In this section we show that ASP^{KM} logic programs in [15] where
 273 the most recent version of ASP^{KM} is defined, and a special kind of ASP^{NOT} programs can
 274 be viewed as ASP^{EP} programs.

4.1 Relation to ASP^{KM}

276 An ASP^{KM} program is a set of rules of the form $h_1\ or\ \dots\ or\ h_k \leftarrow b_1, \dots, b_m$ where $k \geq 0$,
 277 $m \geq 0$, h_i is an objective literal, and b_i is an objective literal possible preceded by a negation
 278 as failure operator *not*, a modal operator K or M, or a combination operator *not* K or
 279 *not* M. For distinguishment, we call the world view of the ASP^{KM} program **KM-world**
 280 **view**. Let W be a non-empty collection of consistent sets of ground objective literals, W is
 281 a **KM-world view** of an ASP^{KM} program Π if $W = AS(\Pi_W)$ where Π_W is a disjunctive
 282 logic program obtained using *Modal Reduct* as showed in Table 2.

283 In ASP^{KM} , the notion of satisfiability is defined from $\models_{km}$ relationship below.

- 284 ■ $\langle W, w \rangle \models_{km} l$ if $l \in w$
- 285 ■ $\langle W, w \rangle \models_{km} not\ l$ if $l \notin w$
- 286 ■ $\langle W, w \rangle \models_{km} Kl$ if $\forall v \in W : l \in v$
- 287 ■ $\langle W, w \rangle \models_{km} not\ Kl$ if $\exists v \in W : l \notin v$
- 288 ■ $\langle W, w \rangle \models_{km} Ml$ if $\exists v \in W : l \in v$

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■ **Table 2** Modal Reduct in ASP^{KM}

subjective literals s	if $W \models_{\text{km}} s$	$W \not\models_{\text{km}} s$
Kl	replace Kl with l	delete the rule
$\text{not } Kl$	remove $\text{not } Kl$	replace $\text{not } Kl$ with $\text{not } l$
Ml	remove Ml	replace Ml with $\text{not not } l$
$\text{not } Ml$	replace $\text{not } Ml$ with $\text{not } l$	delete the rule

289 ■ $\langle W, w \rangle \models_{\text{km}} \text{not } Ml$ if $\forall v \in W : l \notin v$

290 ► **Definition 7.** Given an ASP^{KM} program Ω , an ASP^{EP} program is called a *KM-EP-Image*
 291 of Ω , denoted by $KM - EP - I(\Omega)$, if it is obtained by

- 292 - Replacing all occurrences of literals of the form Kl in Π by $l \succ_{\#} \top$.
- 293 - Replacing all occurrences of literals of the form Ml in Π by $\text{not } l \not\succ_{\#} \top$ and $\text{not not } l^4$
 294 respectively.
- 295 - Replacing all occurrences of literals of the form $\text{not } Kl$ in Π by $l \not\succ_{\#} \top$ and $\text{not } l$
 296 respectively.
- 297 - Replacing all occurrences of literals of the form $\text{not } Ml$ in Π by $\text{not } l \succ_{\#} \top$.

298 ► **Theorem 8.** Let Ω be an ASP^{KM} program, and Π be the *ES-EP-Image* of Ω , and W be a
 299 non-empty collection of consistent sets of ground objective literals, W is a candidate world
 300 view of Π iff W is a *KM-world view* of Ω .

301 ► **Example 9.** Consider an ASP^{KM} program Ω : $p \leftarrow M p$. Ω has an unique *KM-world view*
 302 $\{\{p\}\}$. Its *ES-EP-Image* Π contains two rules

303
$$p \leftarrow \text{not } p \not\succ_{\#} \top \quad p \leftarrow \text{not not } p$$

304 Then, the reduct $\Pi^{\{\{p\}\}}$ contains five rules

305
$$p \leftarrow p, \top \quad p \leftarrow \text{not } p, \top \quad p \leftarrow p, \perp \quad p \leftarrow \text{not } p, \perp \quad p \leftarrow \text{not not } p$$

306 , which has only one answer set $\{p\}$. While the reduct $\Pi^{\{\{\}\}}$ contains only one rule
 307 $p \leftarrow \text{not not } p$ which has two answer sets $\{\}$ and $\{p\}$. Then, $\{\{p\}\}$ is the unique candidate
 308 world view of Π .

309 4.2 Relation to ASP^{NOT}

310 Here, we consider the ASP^{NOT} program that is a set of the rules of the form $l_1 \text{ or } \dots \text{ or } l_k \leftarrow$
 311 $e_1, \dots, e_m, s_1, \dots, s_n$ where $k \geq 0, m \geq 0, n \geq 0, l_i$ is an objective literal, e_i is an extended
 312 literal, s_i is a subjective literal of the form $\text{NOT } e$ or $\text{not NOT } e$. For distinguishment, we
 313 call the world view of an ASP^{NOT} program **NOT-world view**. Let W be a non-empty
 314 collection of consistent sets of ground objective literals, W is a candidate *NOT-world view*
 315 of an ASP^{NOT} program Π if $W = AS(\Pi_W)$ where Π_W is a general logic program obtained
 316 using *Epistemic Reduct* by (1) replacing every $\text{NOT } F$ that is satisfied by W with $\top$, and

⁴ Here, we view $\text{not not } l$ as a representation of $\text{not } l'$ where we have $l' \leftarrow \text{not } l$ and l' is a fresh literal. It is worthwhile to note that CLINGO is able to deal with *not not*.

(2) replacing every NOT F that is not satisfied by W with *not* F . In ASP^{NOT} , the notion of satisfiability of a subjective formula NOT F is defined from $\models_{\text{NOT}}$ relationship

$$\langle W, w \rangle \models_{\text{NOT}} \text{NOT } F \text{ if } \exists v \in W : v \not\models_{\text{GLP}} F$$

where the satisfaction denoted by $\models_{\text{GLP}}$ is as the satisfaction of a formula defined in general logic programming introduced in [22]. W is a NOT-world view of an ASP^{NOT} program Π if it is a candidate NOT-world view satisfying maximal set of literals of the form NOT e appearing in Π .

► **Definition 10.** Given an ASP^{NOT} program Ω , an ASP^{EP} program is called a *NOT-EP-Image* of Ω , denoted by NOT-EP-I(Ω), if it is obtained by

- Replacing all occurrences of literals of the form *not* NOT e in Ω by $e \succ_{\#} \top$.
- Replacing all occurrences of literals of the form NOT e in Ω by $e \not\succ_{\#} \top$ and *not* e respectively.

► **Theorem 11.** Let Ω be an ASP^{NOT} program, and Π be the NOT-EP-Image of Ω , and W be a non-empty collection of consistent sets of ground objective literals, W is a world view of Π iff W is a NOT-world view of Ω .

► **Example 12.** Consider an ASP^{NOT} program from [21] that contains two rules

$$\text{innocent}(\text{john}) | \text{guilty}(\text{john}) \quad \text{innocent}(\text{john}) \leftarrow \text{NOT } \text{guilty}(\text{john})$$

Ω has an unique NOT-world view $\{\{\text{innocent}(\text{john})\}\}$. The NOT-EP-Image of Ω has three rules

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{innocent}(\text{john}) | \text{guilty}(\text{john}) \\ & \text{innocent}(\text{john}) \leftarrow \text{guilty}(\text{john}) \not\succ_{\#} \top \\ & \text{innocent}(\text{john}) \leftarrow \text{not } \text{guilty}(\text{john}) \end{aligned}$$

and a unique world view $\{\{\text{innocent}(\text{john})\}\}$.

5 Applications

Consider the relationship between ASP^{EP} and the languages of strong introspections mentioned in section 5, ASP^{EP} is potential in dealing with some important issues. In this section, we illustrate the use of ASP^{EP} in modeling problems with introspective preferences.

5.1 Describing the Principle of Majority

The principle of majority (PM) is a widely used epistemic commonsense in the fields of information fusion, decision making, social choice, etc, where incomplete information usually causes multiple belief sets, and queries are usually answered by the principle of majority. For example, consider the behavior of common birds modeled by a program PM as below:

$$\text{pigeon}(X) \text{ or } \text{raven}(X) \text{ or } \text{swallow}(X) \text{ or } \text{sparrow}(X) \leftarrow \text{commonBird}(X)$$

$$\text{behavior}(X, \text{migratory}) \leftarrow \text{swallow}(X)$$

$$\text{behavior}(X, \text{resident}) \leftarrow \text{pigeon}(X)$$

$$\text{behavior}(X, \text{resident}) \leftarrow \text{raven}(X)$$

$$\text{behavior}(X, \text{resident}) \leftarrow \text{sparrow}(X)$$

Then, given a fact f_t :

$$\text{commonBird}(\text{tom})$$

and answer the query $\text{behavior}(\text{tom}, ?)$ by the principle of majority described by the following

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357 rules r_r , r_m , and r_u :
 358 $behavior(X, resident) \leftarrow behavior(X, resident) \succ_{\#} behavior(X, migratory), bird(X)$
 359 $behavior(X, migratory) \leftarrow behavior(X, migratory) \succ_{\#} behavior(X, resident), bird(X)$
 360 $behavior(X, unknown) \leftarrow behavior(X, migratory) \approx_{\#} behavior(X, resident), bird(X)$
 361 They express that a bird X is a resident(migratory) bird if X being resident(migratory) is
 362 strictly more possible than X being migratory(resident), otherwise it is unknown. It is easy
 363 to see that the program $PM \cup \{f_t, r_r, r_m, r_u\}$ gives answer $behavior(tom, resident)$ to the
 364 query, that is
 365 $PM \cup \{f_t, r_r, r_m, r_u\} \vdash_{ep} behavior(tom, resident)$

366 5.2 Modeling the Monty Hall Problem

367 We will use ASP^{EP} to solve the Monty Hall problem from [20]: *One of the three boxes labeled*
 368 *1, 2, and 3 contains the keys to that new 1975 Lincoln Continental. The other two are empty.*
 369 *If you choose the box containing the keys, you win the car. A contestant is asked to select*
 370 *one of three boxes. Once the player has made a selection, Monty is obligated to open one of*
 371 *the remaining boxes which does not contain the key. The contestant is then asked if he would*
 372 *like to switch his selection to the other unopened box, or stay with his original choice.* Here
 373 is the problem:does it matters if the contentant switches? The answer is YES.

374 One of many solutions of the Monty Hall Problem is by arithmetic [20], where nine
 375 possible states are given as showed in Table 3, and the idea in the solution can be described
 376 naturally as: *Constestant switches if SWITCH can bring more wins than STAY, Constestant*
stays if STAY can bring more wins than SWITCH.

■ **Table 3** Possible Results of MHP

Keys are in box	Contestant choose box	Monty can open box	Constestant switches	Results
1	1	2 or 3	2 or 3	loses
1	2	3	1	wins
1	3	2	1	wins
2	1	3	2	wins
2	2	1 or 3	1 or 3	loses
2	3	1	2	wins
3	1	2	3	wins
3	2	1	3	wins
3	3	1 or 2	1 or 2	loses

377 Encode the definition of the problem using a disjunctive logic program MHP below.
 378
 379 $box(1)$
 380 $box(2)$
 381 $box(3)$
 382 $1\{choose_box(X) : box(X)\}1$
 383 $1\{key_in_box(X) : box(X)\}1$
 384 $can_open_box(X) \leftarrow box(X), not\ choose_box(X), not\ key_in_box(X)$
 385 $win_by_switch \leftarrow choose_box(X), not\ key_in_box(X)$
 386 $win_by_stay \leftarrow choose_box(X), key_in_box(X)$
 387 Represent the idea in the solution by two rules r_1 :
 388 $switch \leftarrow win_by_switch \succ_{\#} win_by_stay, win_by_stay \not\succ_{\#} win_by_switch$

389 and r_2 :

390 $stay \leftarrow win_by_stay \succ_{\#} win_by_switch, win_by_switch \not\succ_{\#} win_by_stay$

391 Then, we have the following result that gives a correct answer for the problem.

392 ► **Theorem 13.** $MHP \cup \{r_1, r_2\} \vdash_{ep} switch$ and $MHP \cup \{r_1, r_2\} \not\vdash_{ep} stay$.

393 6 Conclusion and Future Work

394 We present a logic programming formalism capable of reasoning that combines nonmonotonic
395 reasoning, epistemic preferential reasoning, which is built on the existing efficient answer
396 set solvers. This makes it an elegant way to formalize some problems with defaults and
397 introspections of preferences.

398 A limitation of the work in this paper is that we do not consider the relationships between
399 ASP^{EP} and other well developed formalisms of preferences.

400 As a next goal, we will consider the introspection of other types of preferences which are
401 considered in the AI field[8][17]. Our future work also includes the mathematical properties
402 of ASP^{EP} programs, the methodologies for modeling with ASP^{EP} , and the efficient solver of
403 ASP^{EP} programs.

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