# Objects, Properties, and Modules in Quixote

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### Abstract

This paper describes a knowledge representation language QUIXOTE. QUIXOTE is designed and developed at ICOT to support wide range of applications in the Japanese FGCS project.

QUINOTE is basically a deductive system equipped with the facilities for representing various kind of knowledge, and for classifying knowledge.

In QUIXOTE, basic notions for representing concept and knowledge are objects and thier properties. Objects are represented by extended terms called object terms. and thier properties are represented by subsumption constraints over the domain of object terms.

Another distinguished feature of Quarters is its concept of modules. Modules play an important role in classifying knowledge, modularizing a program or a database, assumption-based reasoning, and so on.

In this paper, concepts of objects, properties. and modules are presented. We also present how modules work with objects and their properties.

### 1 Introduction

Logic programming is a powerful paradigm for knowledge information processing systems from the viewpoint of knowledge representation, inference, advanced databases, and so on.

QUIXOTE is designed and developed to support this wide range of applications in the Japanese FGCS project. Briefly speaking, it is a constraint logic programming language, a knowledge representation language, and a deductive object-oriented database language.

In QUIXOTE, basic notions for representing concepts and knowledge are objects and their properties. An object in QUIXOTE is represented by an extended term called an object term, and its properties are defined as a set of subsumption constraints.

Another distinguished feature of Quixote is its concept of modules. A module corresponds to a part of the world (situation) or the local database. In Quixote, its module concepts play an important role in classifying knowledge, modularizing a program or a database.

assumption-based reasoning, and so on.

In this paper, concepts of objects, properties, and modules are presented. We also present how modules work with objects and their properties, for example, in classifying or modularizing them.

Other features of Quixote and the formalism appear in other papers[20, 12, 21].

Section 2 shows how objects and their properties are treated in a simple version of QUIXOTE. Section 3 shows how complex objects are introduced in QUIXOTE, and how they are used to deal with exceptions in property inheritance. Section 4 describes deductive rules in QUIXOTE, and the overview of deductive aspects of QUIXOTE. Section 5 describes module concepts with some examples. Section 6 describes the facilities for relating modules, especially to import or to export rules among modules. Section 7 describes queries in QUIXOTE, which provides the facilities to deal with modifications of a program, or assumption-based reasoning. Finally, Section 8 describes brief comparison with related works.

# 2 A simple system of objects and their properties

Object-oriented features are very useful for applying logic programming to 'real' applications. Quirkote is designed as a logic programming language with features such as: object identity, complex objects, encapsulation, inheritance, and methods, which are also appropriate for deductive object-oriented databases and situation theoretic approaches to natural language processing systems.

An object is a key concept in QUIXOTE to represent concepts or knowledge. In knowledge representation applications, it is important to identify an object or to distinguish two distinct objects, as in the case of objectoriented language.

Object identity is the basic notion for identifying objects.

Quixote precisely defines object identity, where extended terms are used as object identifiers. In this sense, extended terms in Quixote are called object terms.

In this section, simplified treatment of objects and their properties are presented. That is, the case of every object term is atomic. In the next section, the system of object terms is extended to non-atomic and complex cases, including the non-well-founded (circular) case.

### 2.1 Basic Objects

At the first approximation, we assume that each object has a unique atomic symbol as its identifier.

The important thing, here, is that objects are related to each other. There are some relations to be considered, such as is\_a-relations, part\_of relations, and so forth. In Quixote, subsumption relations over objects are used to relate objects.

First, a set BO of atomic symbols called basic objects is assumed. BO is partially ordered by the subsumption relation (written  $\sqsubseteq$ ), and  $(BO, \sqsubseteq, \top, \bot)$  is a lattice with  $\top$  as its maximum element and  $\bot$  as its minimum element.

A basic object is used as an object identifier (an object term) in this simple setting.

An example of the lattice is

$$BO^* = (\{animal, mammal, human, dog\}, \sqsubseteq, \top, \bot)$$

where the following holds:

 $mammal \sqsubseteq animal,$   $human \sqsubseteq mammal,$  $dog \sqsubseteq mammal.$ 

## 2.2 Attribute Terms and Dotted Terms

In addition to the basic objects, we assume a subset L of BO, called *labels*. Labels are used to define the attributes of objects.

An attribute of the object o is represented by the triple (o, l, v) where l is a label and v is an object. The following example shows that John has the attribute of his age being 20: (john, age, 20).

A property of an object is represented by a set of the pairs of a label and its value, that is, a set of attributes. Thus, John's having a property of being 20 years old and being a male is represented by {(john,age,20),(john,sex,male)}.

Formally, a label l is interpreted as a function:

$$l: BO \rightarrow BO$$
.

The syntactic construct for representing an object and its properties is the attribute term. An attribute term is of the form:

$$o/[l_1 = v_1, ..., l_n = v_n]$$

where o is an object term,  $l_i$ 's are labels, and  $v_i$ 's are objects. The syntactic entity  $[l_1 = v_1, \dots, l_n = v_n]$  is

called the attribution of the object term o. It specifies a property of the object. In what follows, we say that o has the attributes  $[l_1 = v_1, \ldots, l_n = v_n]$  when there is no confusion.

For example, the following is an attribute term representing that John has the property of being 20 years old and being a male:

$$john/[age = 20, sex = male].$$

Notice that an object identifier and its property (attribution) are separated by "/".

It is useful to regard an attribute of an object as a concept. For example, John's age can be seen as a concept. In Quixοτε, this kind of concept is represented by dotted terms. A dotted term is defined as a pair of an object term and a label, and has the following form:

where o is an object term and l is a label.

For example, John's age is represented by the following dotted term:

$$john.age = 20.$$

A dotted term is treated as a global variable ranging over the domain of object terms, and interpreted as an object term. The following holds for dotted terms:

$$o_1 = o_2 \Rightarrow o_1.l = o_2.l$$
  
 $o.l = o_1, o.l = o_2 \Rightarrow o_1 = o_2$   
 $o.l_1 = o_1 \Rightarrow o.l_1.l_2 = o_1.l_2.$ 

## 2.3 Properties as Subsumption Constraints

It is often the case that an object has certain attribute while its value is not fully specified.

$$john/[age \rightarrow positive\_integer]$$

The above attribute term represents that John has the property of his age being subsumed by positive integer. In this case, John's age is not specified but constrained as being subsumed by positive integer.

The constraint in simple Qurxote is a subsumption constraint over basic objects. As mentioned before, the domain of basic objects is a lattice under the subsumption relation. Thus, the rules of subsumption constraints are simply defined as follows:

- x = x,
- if x = y then y = x,
- if x = y and y = z then x = z,
- x ⊆ x,

- if  $x \sqsubseteq y$  and  $y \sqsubseteq z$  then  $x \sqsubseteq z$ ,
- if x = y and  $x \subseteq z$  then  $y \subseteq z$ ,
- if x = y and  $z \sqsubseteq x$  then  $z \sqsubseteq y$ ,
- if  $x \sqsubseteq y$  and  $y \sqsubseteq x$  then x = y,
- if  $x \sqsubseteq y$  and  $x \sqsubseteq z$  then  $x \sqsubseteq (y \downarrow z)$ , and
- if  $y \sqsubseteq x$  and  $z \sqsubseteq x$  then  $(y \uparrow z) \sqsubseteq x$

where  $(x \downarrow y)$  is the infimum (meet) and  $(x \uparrow y)$  is the supremum (join). Note that x = y is equivalent to the conjunction of  $x \sqsubseteq y$  and  $y \sqsubseteq x$ , that is, the following holds:

$$x = y \stackrel{\text{def}}{\equiv} x \sqsubseteq y \wedge x \sqsupseteq y$$
.

A set of subsumption constraints is solvable if and only if it does not contain a = b for two distinct basic objects a and b with respect to the above rules[20].

Based on the subsumption constraint, the attribute term above is defined as a pair of the basic object john and a subsumption constraint  $john.age \sqsubseteq positive\_integer$ . Sometimes, this kind of pair is written as:

$$john/\{\{john.age \sqsubseteq positive\_integer\}.$$

This is just the opposite of the description of the attribute term shown above.

The general form of an attribute term is as follows:

$$o/[l_1 \ op_1 \ v_1, \dots, l_n \ op_n \ v_n]$$

where  $op_i \in \{=, \rightarrow, \leftarrow\}$ .

For each label that is not explicitly specified, we assume that its value is constrained, that is, subsumed by T. This assumption states that the property of an object can be partially specified.

In addition to the subsumption constraint over basic objects, the subsumption constraint over sets of basic objects is used in QUIXOTE. For example, the following attribute term represents that cooking and walking are John's hobbies:

$$john/[hobby \leftarrow \{cooking, walking\}],$$

that is, the dotted term john.hobby is a set subsuming the set {cooking, walking}.

The subsumption relation  $\sqsubseteq_H$  over the domain of sets of basic objects is defined as Hoare-ordering over  $\sqsubseteq$ -ordering as follows:

$$s_1 \sqsubseteq_H s_2 \Rightarrow \forall x \in s_1 \exists y \in s_2 \ x \sqsubseteq y$$
.

It should be noted that the domain of sets of basic objects is classified by the equivalence relation defined by the Hoare-ordering. In QUINOTE, any set is interpreted as

the representative element of the equivalence class that is defined by the following rule:

$$[s] \stackrel{def}{=} \{x \in s \mid \neg \exists y \in s \ x \neq y \land x \sqsubseteq y\}.$$

Under this definition,  $\sqsubseteq_H$ -ordering becomes a partial ordering, and can be used as an equivalence relation.

For example, the following holds:

$$\begin{aligned} & [\{1, integer, ``abc", string\}] \\ &= \{integer, string\}, \end{aligned}$$

provided that  $1 \sqsubseteq integer$  and "abc"  $\sqsubseteq string$ .

## 2.4 Property Inheritance

It is natural to assume that properties are inherited from object terms with respect to ⊆-ordering. For example, consider the following example:

$$swallow \sqsubseteq bird.$$
  
 $bird/[canfly \rightarrow yes].$ 

Since swallow is a kind of (subsumes) bird and bird has the attribute [canfly  $\rightarrow$  yes], swallow comes to have the same attribute by default.

The rule for inheritance of properties between objects is:

Definition 1 (Rule for inheritance)

$$o_1 \sqsubseteq o_2 \Rightarrow o_1.l \sqsubseteq o_2.l.$$

If  $o_1 \sqsubseteq o_2$  holds, then the following holds according to this rule:

- if o<sub>2</sub> has the attribute [l → o'], then o<sub>1</sub> also has the same attribute,
- if o₁ has the attribute [l ← o'], then o₂ also has the same attribute.

Notice that the attribute  $[l = \sigma']$  is the conjunction of  $[l \rightarrow \sigma']$  and  $[l \leftarrow \sigma']$ .

As mentioned before, an attribute term is defined as the pair of an object term and a set of subsumption constraints, thus, property inheritance can be considered as constraint inheritance.

# 3 Complex Objects

The simplified approach shown in the previous section lacks the capability to represent the complex objects required in actual applications, such as trees, graphs, proteins, chemical reactions, and so forth.

A complex object has certain "structures" intrinsic to its nature. It is important for knowledge representation languages to represent such complex object structures in its description, that is, as the object identifier in Quixοτε.

Thus, it is important to give a facility to introduce complex object terms to QUIXOTE.

## 3.1 Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Properties

The approach adopted in Qutxote is a natural extension of the simplified language given in the previous section.

An object has the property, that is, a set of attributes, which are *intrinsic* to identifying that object. Thus, the properties of an object are separated into two, the intrinsic property and the other extrinsic properties. Similarly, the attributes of an object are divided into two, intrinsic attributes and extrinsic attributes. In QUIXOTE, the intrinsic attributes are included in the object term representation but not in the attribution of an attribute term representation.

For example, the concept of red apple is represented by the following complex object term:

$$apple[color = red].$$

Note that the difference between this object term and the attribute term apple/[color = red] that represents the concept of apple with the attribute [color = red] as its extrinsic property.

Let o be a basic object,  $l_1, l_2, ...$  be labels, and  $o_1, o_2, ...$  be object terms.

- Every basic object is an object term.
- A term o[l<sub>1</sub> = o<sub>1</sub>, l<sub>2</sub> = o<sub>2</sub>,...] is an object term if it contains only one value specification for each label.
- A term is an object term only if it can be shown to be an object term by the above definition.

For an object term  $o[l_1 = o_1, l_2 = o_2, \ldots]$ , o is called the principal object and  $[l_1 = o_1, l_2 = o_2, \ldots]$  is called the intrinsic property specification. The intrinsic property specification of an object term is the set of intrinsic attributes of the object term, and interpreted as the indexed set of object terms indexed by the labels. Thus, an object term is interpreted as the pair of its principal object o and the indexed set s, and is written as:

Let  $BO = \{human, 20, 30, int, male, female\}$ ,  $20 \sqsubseteq int, 30 \sqsubseteq int, L = \{age, sex\}$ . The following terms are object terms in Quixote:

human,  
human[
$$age = 20$$
,  $sex = male$ ].

These two object terms are interpreted as (human, {}) and (human, {(age, 20), (sex, male)}).

The object term  $T[l_1 = v_1, ...]$  is described as  $[l_1 = v_1, ...]$  for convenience.

By the definition of complex object terms, the following holds:

$$o[..., l_i = v_i, ...].l_i = v_i.$$

For example, human[age = 20].age = 20 holds.

It is possible to have object terms containing variables ranging over ground object terms as follows:

$$human$$
  
 $human[age = X, sex = Y].$ 

## 3.2 Extended Subsumption Relation

Given subsumption relations 
among basic objects, the relations can be extended into subsumption relations among complex object terms. The extended subsumption relations preserve the ordering on basic objects, and also constitute a lattice.

Though the precise definition of a extended subsumption relation is given in [20], intuitive understanding will suffice at this point. Intuitively,  $o_1 \sqsubseteq o_2$  (we say  $o_2$  subsumes  $o_1$ ) holds between two complex object terms  $o_1$ and  $o_2$  if and only if:

- the principal object of o<sub>2</sub> subsumes the principal object of o<sub>1</sub>,
- (2) o1 has more labels than o2, and
- (3) the value of each label of o<sub>2</sub> subsumes the value of each label of o<sub>1</sub>.

For example, the following holds:

$$human[age = 20, sex = male]$$
  
 $\sqsubseteq animal[age = integer],$ 

because the principal object of animal[age = integer] (animal) subsumes the principal object of human[age = 20, sex = male] (human), the object term human[age = 20, sex = male] has more labels than animal[age = integer], and  $20 \sqsubseteq integer$  holds.

Similarly,

$$human[age = 20] \sqsubseteq animal[age = int]$$

holds, but human[age = 20] and human[sex = male] can not be compared with respect to □-ordering over complex object terms.

In this extended subsumption relation over object terms, the object term  $\top$  is the largest among all the object terms. In Qutxote, the object term  $\bot$  is the smallest of all, that is,  $\bot$  is used as the representative element of the class of object terms that are smaller than  $\bot$ <sup>1</sup>.

The semantic domain of object terms is a set of labeled graphs as a subclass of hypersets with urelement[2, 13].

$$\perp [l_1 = v_1, ...].$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>From the definition of object terms and subsumption relation over them, it is possible to have an object term of the form:

The reason such a domain is adopted is to allow object terms with infinite structure. Subsumption relations corresponds to hereditary subset relations[2] on that domain.

The rules for extended subsumption constraints are those listed in 2.3 plus the following:

- if (o<sub>1</sub>, s<sub>1</sub>) = (o<sub>2</sub>, s<sub>2</sub>), then o<sub>1</sub> = o<sub>2</sub> and for each (l, v<sub>1</sub>) ∈ s<sub>1</sub> there exists (l, v<sub>2</sub>) ∈ s<sub>2</sub> such that v<sub>1</sub> = v<sub>2</sub> (the symmetric condition follows).

These two rules correspond to the *simulation* and *bisimulation* relation in [2, 13], where the bisimulation relation is an equivalence relation.

## 3.3 Exception on Property Inheritance

By introducing complex object terms in terms of intrinsic-extrinsic distinction, it becomes possible to define the notion of *exceptions* on inheritance of properties in a clear way.

Intuitively, the intrinsic property of an object is the property that distinguishes that object from others, and such properties should not be inherited.

In addition to the rule for property inheritance given in 2.4, the rule for exception is defined as follows:

#### Definition 2 (Rule for exception)

The intrinsic attributes of an object term override the attribution inherited from the other object terms, and any of the intrinsic attributes is not inherited to the other object terms.

In sum, the intrinsic attributes are out of the scope of property inheritance.

For example, consider the attribute of the object term  $bird[canfly \rightarrow no]$  with respect to the following database definition:

$$bird/[canfly = yes],$$
  
 $bird[canfly = no].$ 

The object term bird[canfly = no] inherits the attribute  $[canfly \rightarrow yes]$ , by the rule for inheritance. However, bird[canfly = no] contains the intrinsic specification on the label canfly. Thus, bird[canfly = no] has the attribute  $[canfly \rightarrow no]$  as its property by the rule for exception.

Thus, given in Section 3.1, the following holds even if property inheritance occurs:

$$o[l_1 = x_1, ..., l_n = x_n]/[l_1 = x_1, ..., l_n = x_n].$$

### 4 Deductive Rules

It is important for knowledge representation languages to provide facilities for certain types of inferences, namely deductive inference.

The deductive system of  $Qurxor\varepsilon$  is defined by deductive rules (rules, for short).

## 4.1 Rules in QUIXOTE

First, a literal (atomic formula) of Quixoie is defined to be an object term or an attribute term.

The rules of Quixote are defined as follows:

- a literal H,
- (2) H ← B<sub>1</sub>,..., B<sub>n</sub> where H, B<sub>1</sub>,..., B<sub>n</sub> are literals.

H is called the head and the " $B_1, \ldots, B_n$ " is called the body of the rule.

The rules of the form (1) are sometimes called an unit rule or a fact<sup>2</sup>.

Rules of the form (2) are called non-unit rules.

A fact H is shorthand for the non-unit rule whose body is empty, that is, the rule  $H \Leftarrow$ . When there is no confusion, non-unit clauses are simply called rules.

A database or a program is defined as a finite set of rules.

A fact specifies the existence of an object and its property. The following is an example of facts:

$$john;$$
;  
 $john/[age = 20];$ ;

The former fact specifies that the literal john holds (or is true), that is, the database has the object john as its member. In addition to that, the latter additionally specifies that john has the property of [age = 20].

The informal meaning of the rule  $H \Leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_n$  is as usual, that is, if  $B_1, \dots, B_n$  holds then H holds.

As mentioned in Section 2.3, properties are interpreted as subsumption constraints. Thus, a rule is defined as a triple (H, B, C) of the object term H in its head, the set of object terms B in its body, and the set of constraints C. The elements of B are called *subgoals*. Thus, any rule can be represented by the following form:

$$H \Leftarrow B \parallel C$$
.

This form of rule is called constraint-based form.

It is possible to associate constraints other than those corresponding to attributes with a rule as follows:

$$john/[daughter \leftarrow \{X\}] \Leftarrow$$
  
 $X/[father = john] \parallel \{X \subseteq female\}.$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Sometimes, a fact is defined to be a unit-rule having a nonparametric object term as its head. In that case, the set of facts corresponds to a extensional database in usual deductive databases.

Precisely speaking, the set of constraint C of a rule is classified into two, the constraints in the head of the rule (head constraints) and the constraints in the body (body constraints). For example, the rule

$$o/[l_1 = o_1, l_2 = o_2] \Leftarrow$$
  
 $p/[l_3 = o_3], q/[l_4 = o_4]$ 

has  $\{o.l_1 = o_1, o.l_2 = o_2\}$  as its head constraints, and  $\{p.l_3 = o_3, q.l_4 = o_4\}$  as its body constraints.

In the context of object-oriented language, the attributes in the head of a rule correspond to the methods and the body of the rule can be seen as the corresponding implementation, as in F-logic[8].

### 4.2 Derivations and Answers

Compared to the usual notion of the derivation of goals and answers in logic programming language like Prolog, two points must be explained in the case of Quixote.

The first point is concerning the role of object terms as object identifiers. The value of an attribute of an object is unique, because the label corresponding to the attribute is interpreted as a function.

The second point is concerning the fact that the attributes of an object can be partially specified and they are interpreted as subsumption constraints.

Consider the following database:

### Example 1

$$o[l = X]/[l_1 \rightarrow a, l_2 = b] \Leftarrow X \parallel \{X \sqsubseteq c\};;$$
  

$$o[l = X]/[l_1 \rightarrow d, l_3 = e] \Leftarrow X \parallel \{X \sqsubseteq f\};;$$
  

$$p;;,$$

where both  $p \sqsubseteq c$  and  $p \sqsubseteq f$  hold.

In this case,  $o[l=p]/[l_1 \rightarrow a, l_2 = b]$  holds by the first rule and  $o[l=p]/[l_1 \rightarrow d, l_3 = e]$  holds by the second rule. Thus, by combining these two, the object term o[l=p] gains  $[l_1 \rightarrow (a \downarrow d), l_2 = b, l_3 = e]$  as its attribute.

This process is done by merging the attributes of the derived subgoals equivalent to each other.

The merging process becomes complicated if we take into account the partiality of the attributes of an object.

Consider the following example:

### Example 2

$$o/[l_1 \rightarrow a] \Leftarrow p/[l_2 \rightarrow b];;$$
  
 $o/[l_1 \rightarrow c] \Leftarrow p/[l_2 \rightarrow d];;$   
 $p;;.$ 

The subgoal p of the first rule holds with attribute  $[l_2 \rightarrow b]$ , which is not defined in the database. This is because the fact p; in the example does not specify the value of its l-attribute. Similarly, the subgoal p of the second rule holds with  $[l_2 \rightarrow d]$ . If these two attributes are

inconsistent, the two rules cannot be applied together, that is, the derivations given by the two rules must not be merged.

### Definition 3 (Derivation of a goal)

A derivation of a goal  $G_0$  by a program is defined as the 5-tuple  $(G, R, \Theta, HC, BC)$  of a sequence  $G (= G_0, G_1, \ldots)$  of goals, a sequence  $R (= R_1, \ldots)$  of the renaming variants of the rules, a sequence  $\Theta (= \theta_1, \ldots)$  of most general unifiers<sup>3</sup>, the two sets of constraints HC and BC of all the head constraints and all the body constraints of the rules in P, such that each  $G_{i+1}$  is derived from  $G_i$  and  $R_{i+1}$  using  $\theta_{i+1}$ , and  $(HC \cup BC)\Theta$  is solvable.

### Definition 4 (Assumed constraint set)

The assumed constraint set of a derivation D (=  $(G, P, \Theta, HC, BC)$ ) is defined as the set of all constraints in BC that are not satisfied by HC with respect to the substitution  $\Theta$ .

The assumed constraint set of a derivation is the set of attributes of objects which are assumed to derive the goal. This is because some attributes of objects in a database are partially defined.

Each derivation has its own derivation context defined as the consequence relation  $(\vdash_C)$  between its assumed constraint set and its head constraints. A derivation context  $A \vdash_C B$  of a goal represents that the goal is derived by assuming A, and as a consequence, B holds.

The notion of an refutation is defined similary as usual: a finite length derivation that has the empty goal as the last goal in its goal sequence.

In Example 2, the two refutations of the goal o have the following derivation contexts,:

$$p.l_2 \sqsubseteq b \vdash_C o.l_1 \sqsubseteq a$$
,  
 $p.l_2 \sqsubseteq d \vdash_C o.l_1 \sqsubseteq c$ .

To deal with merging of attributes discussed above, of a goal must be merged into the other refutation of the same goal if the derivation contexts of the two refutations have some relation to each other, that is, if the assumed constraint set of one refutation holds in the assumed constraint set of another refutation. This means that the condition holds in a weaker assumption also holds in a stronger assumption.

For example, in Example 2, if  $b \sqsubseteq d$  holds, then the second refutation is merged into the first one. As a consequence, A new refutation is given instead of the first refutation, whose derivation context is follows:

$$p.l_2 \sqsubseteq b \vdash_C o.l_1 \sqsubseteq (a \downarrow c).$$

Moreover, if  $b \sqsubseteq d$  and  $c \sqsubseteq a$ , then the context of both refutation becomes as follows:

$$p.l_2 \sqsubseteq d \vdash_C o.l_1 \sqsubseteq c.$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>The most general unifier of two object terms is defined similarly to the usual one, except for the definition of terms.

This means that the first derivation is absorbed to the second with respect to the merge, because  $(a \downarrow c) = c$  holds.

After merging all possible pairs of refutations, the notion of an answer to a query is defined as follows:

#### Definition 5 (Answer)

An answer to the query is defined as a pair of the answer substitution and the derivation context of a refutation.

Thus, the following two answers are given to the query ?-o/[l=X] to the database shown in Example 2:

$$(\{\}, p.l_2 \sqsubseteq b \vdash_C o.l_1 \sqsubseteq a),$$
  
 $(\{\}, p.l_2 \sqsubseteq d \vdash_C o.l_1 \sqsubseteq c),$ 

if no condition is given among a, b, c, and d.

The Quixots interpreter returns all answers at once, that is, it employs the top-down breadth-first search strategy.

## 5 Modules in Quixoie

In this section, a module concept is introduced into QUIXOTE.

## 5.1 Need for Modules in Deductive System

The goal of knowledge representation is to provide a facility for reasoning about a problem by using given knowledge in the way that ordinary people do: we call this everyday-reasoning, or human-reasoning.

Such reasoning systems can be defined as the pair (R, A) of a set of deductive rules and an algorithm for extracting all consequences from the rules.

For simplicity, fix A, and think of R as the knowledge in a reasoning system.

- R is neither consistent nor complete, even though its fragments may be consistent in themselves,
- reasoning is situation-dependent, i.e., some fragment of R is relevant or meaningful in a certain situation,
- · reasoning usually requires some assumption.

One way to deal with such an aspect of reasoning is to associate an index to each literal and each rule in R. Indexes can be used:

- to define a fragment of rules (a chunk of knowledge) which can be used in a certain situation, and
- (2) to clarify which assumption (set of rules) is used.

(1) defines our conception of a module as a set of rules with same index. Thus, if we regard an index as the identifier for a context or a situation, the set of rules can be seen as the chunk of knowledge relevant for that context or situation.

As the result of introducing indexes, each literal has come to have the form:

where m is an index called module identifier, and A is an object term or an attribute term.

As a consequence, the usual consequence relation between formulas should be replaced by:

$$m_1 : A_1, ..., m_i : A_i \vdash m : A$$

Intuitively, this means that A holds in m with reference to parts  $m_1, \ldots, m_i$  of the database. In obtaining the answer, the choice of parts of the database can be seen as the assumptions.

In QUINCTE, an object term is used as a module identifier. The use of object terms as module identifiers enables the user to treat modules as objects, and provides meta-like programming facilities.

### 5.2 Rules with Module Identifiers

Corresponding to the constraint-based form of a rule given in Section 4. a modularized rule has the following form:

$$m_0 :: o_0 \Leftarrow m_1 : o_1, \dots, m_n : o_n \parallel C$$

where  $o_0, o_1, \dots, o_n$  are object terms.  $m_0, m_1, \dots, m_n$  are module identifiers, and C is a set of constraints<sup>4</sup>.

This rule specifies the following two things:

- this rule is in (or is accessible from) the module with module identifier m. and
- (2) if each subgoal m<sub>i</sub>: o<sub>i</sub> holds with respect to a variable assignment and constraints C then m: o holds.

Generally, the modules and their rules are defined as follows:

$$\{m_1, \cdots, m_n\} :: \{r_1; \cdots; r_m\},\$$

where  $r_1, \dots, r_m$  are rules. Note that it is possible for modules to be nested in multiple.

Thus, it is easy to have a set of rules in a module as the set of all rules with the module identifier of that module. The set of rules in the module with m as its identifier

$$o_0 \Leftarrow m_1 : o_1, \dots, m_n : o_n \parallel C$$

with index mo.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Precisely, this form represents the rule

is written as  $\Sigma_m^{-5}$ . In general, a module identifier may be parametric, that is, an object term with variables in its description. The variables appearing in a rule are interpreted as universally quantified, thus the parametric module identifiers that are equivalent with respect to variable renaming are regarded as the same.

In QUIXOTE, it is assumed that each module is consistent. It is an important feature of modules to represent inconsistent knowledge where inconsistency arises from differences in situations or context. For example, consider the situation of John's believing that Mary is 20 years old, when she is actually 21 years old. The following database shows the treatment of such a problem:

```
johns_belief :: mary/[age = 20];;
real_world :: mary/[age = 21];;
```

In this case, the database is consistent as a whole unless the two modules are related to each other.

The following example shows the use of parametric module identifiers to describe so-called *generic* modules. A parametric module identifier can be used to pass parameters to the rules in the module.

### Example 3 (Generic Module)

```
sorter[cmp = C] :: \{ \\ sort[l = [], sorted = [], cmp = C]; ; \\ sort[l = [A|X], sorted = Y, cmp = C] \Leftarrow \\ split[l = [A|X], base = A, cmp = C, l_1 = L_1, l_2 = L_2], \\ sort[l = L_1, sorted = Y_1, cmp = C], \\ sort[l = L_2, sorted = Y_2, cmp = C], \\ list: append[l_1 = Y_1, l_2 = Y_2, l = Y]; ; \\ \ldots \}; ; \\ \vdots \\ less\_than :: \{ \\ compare[arg1 = A, arg2 = B, res = yes] \parallel \\ \{A < B\}; ; \\ compare[arg1 = A, arg2 = B, res = no] \parallel \\ \end{cases}
```

Module sorter[cmp = C] has the definition of a quicksorting procedure using argument C for the comparator, and module  $less\_than$  has the definition of a comparator, where the relation < is used as constraint relation for comparing two objects.

In processing the query:

```
?-sorter[cmp = less\_than] :

sort[l = L, sorted = R, cmp = C],
```

the module identifier less\_than is passed to the rules in the sorting module, and used to compare two elements of list L. It is possible to give module identifiers other than lt for using different comparator in the sorting procedure.

The next example shows the treatment of state transitions by using modules for representing states.

### Example 4 (State Transition)

```
m:: \{
 a/\{on = nil\}; b/[on = a];
 c/[on = nil]; ; d/[on = c];;
sc[sit = M, op = move[obj = A, fr = B, to = C]] :: {
 C/[on = A] \Leftarrow
   M : A/[on = nil],
   M: B/[on = A],
   M: C/[on = nil];
  B/[on = nil] \Leftarrow
   M: A/[on = nil],
   M: B/[on = A],
   M: C/[on = nil];
  A/[on = nil] \Leftarrow
   M : A/[on = nil],
   M: B/[on = A],
   M: C/[on = nil];
```

In the initial state m, block a is on top of block b, and block c is on top of block d. move[obj = A, fr = B, to = C] represents the operation of moving A from the top of B to the top of C.

Module sc[sit = M, op = OP] defines how the state of M is changed by operation OP. At the same time, the module identifier shows the history of state transitions.

For example, the following answers are obtained:

```
?-sc[sit = m, op = move[obj = a, fr = b, to = c]]:

X/[on = a].

Answer: X = c.
```

In this case, the module that represents the state after an operation is not included in the given program, it is possible to create new modules by adding a program to a query (Section 7) and by issuing a create\_module command.

Concerning modifications made by the sequence of queries

and create\_module commands, Quixote employs transaction logic with special commands, begin\_transaction, end\_transaction, and abort\_transaction. If some modules are created in one transaction, they are incrementally added to the program unless the transaction ends with abort\_transaction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Precisely,  $\Sigma_m$  should be defined as the set of rules that are property in m. Taking rule inheritance into account, the set of rules in a module is the union of the proper set and sets of rules imported from the other modules.

## 6 Relating Modules

It is important to relate some modules in defining the database and when reasoning.

Two ways of relating modules should be considered, that is, referring to other modules and importing/exporting rules from other modules.

As shown above, a rule of  $Quixor\epsilon$  has a subgoal of the form m:A in its body. This subgoal specifies the external reference to the module with m as its identifier. In such a case, module m can be seen as encapsulated, because no rule is imported to it.

### 6.1 Simple Submodule Relationship

Sometimes, it is useful to define databases by providing a facility to import/export among modules as in typical object-oriented languages.

In Quixote, importing/exporting rules are done by rule inheritance defined in terms of the binary relation  $\sqsubseteq_S$  over modules called the submodule relation. The submodule relation is similar to the subsituation relation in PROSIT[15]<sup>6</sup>. Basically, rule inheritance is defined as follows:

### Definition 6 (Rule Inheritance)

If  $m_1 \supseteq_S m_2$  then module  $m_1$  inherits all the rules of  $m_2$ , that is, all the rules in  $m_2$  are exported to  $m_1$ .

Under this definition, the set of rules of  $m_1$  is  $\Sigma_{m_1} \cup \Sigma_{m_2}$ . The right hand side of  $\supseteq_S$  in a submodule definition may be a formula of module identifiers with settheoretical union, intersection, or difference. For example, if we have

$$m_1 :: \{r_{11}, \dots, r_{1i}\},$$
  
 $m_2 :: \{r_{21}, \dots, r_{2j}\},$   
 $\{m_2, m_3\} :: \{r_{31}, \dots, r_{3k}\},$   
 $m_1 \supseteq_S m_2 - m_3$ 

then  $m_1$  has the set of rules

$$\{r_{11},\cdots,r_{1i},r_{21},\cdots,r_{2j}\}.$$

Taking rule inheritance into account, a special module identifier *self* is also introduced as in most objectoriented programming languages. For example, consider the following example:

$$m_1 :: o \Rightarrow o_1 \parallel C$$
.

The subgoal  $o_1$  is interpreted as  $self: o_1$ . In this context, self is evaluated as  $m_1$ . If  $m \supseteq_S m_1$ , then m has the rule  $m: o \Rightarrow o_1 \parallel C$ , and self is evaluated as m in this case.

## 6.2 Controlling Rule Inheritance

To treat various rule inheritance phenomena, two orthogonal concepts, local and overriding, are introduced into QUIXOTE. Each rule may have these modes, which control how each rule is inherited according to submodule relations.

If a rule is *local*, then it is not inherited to other modules. If a rule is *overriding*, then it overrides the other rules inherited from other modules, that is, the inheritance of some rules is canceled.

There are several possibilities on what rules are to be canceled by an overriding rule. Currently, the inheritance of a rule is canceled if its head has object terms with the same principal object and its labels are same as the one of the head of overriding rule. This is similar to the 'retract' predicate of Prolog.

Each rule has an inheritance mode. The value of the inheritance mode is (o), (l), or (ol), if explicitly specified. (o) means 'overriding, (l) means 'local', and (ol) means 'local and overriding'. If a rule has no inheritance mode, the rule is regarded as having 'non-local and no-overriding' as its default mode setting.

Consider the following example.

Example 5 (Exception by Inheritance Mode)

```
bird :: canfly/[pol = yes];;

penguin :: (ol) canfly/[pol = no];;

super\_penguin :: \{...\};;

bird \sqsubseteq_S penguin \sqsubseteq_S super\_penguin;;
```

The inheritance of the rule of the module bird is canceled in the module penguin by its 'overriding' rule, whereas the module super\_penguin gains canfly/[pol = yes], because the rule in bird is inherited to it.

By introducing local and overriding modes for rule inheritance, it is possible to relate subsumption and submodule relations closely as follows:

$$penguin \sqsubseteq bird \supset penguin \sqsubseteq_S bird$$
,

where rules in  $m_1$  should be overridden.

## 6.3 Links between two Modules

Sometimes, a facility for representing changes of state is required as shown in the example in Section 5.2.

The relation between the two states before and after an operation is represented by a special form of object terms. However, simpler and more sophisticated treatment may be required for general treatment of state transitions or changes of states. The problem is how to relate modules and objects.

Another kind of relations called links are provided as follows:

$$m_1 \xrightarrow{L} m_2$$
,  
 $o_1 \xrightarrow{L} o_1$ ,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Considering a module as a class, m<sub>1</sub> ⊒<sub>S</sub> m<sub>2</sub> means that m<sub>2</sub> is a super-class of m<sub>1</sub>.

where  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are module identifiers, and  $o_1$  and  $o_2$  are object identifiers. L is called the name of a link relation. Notice that a link relation is defined over module identifiers and object terms. The former link is called module-link and the latter link is called object-link.

The link definition above obeys the following rule:

$$m_1 \xrightarrow{L} m_2 \wedge o_1 \xrightarrow{L} o_2 \wedge m_1 :: o_1 \supset m_2 :: o_2$$
.

This rule shows how module-links and object-links colaborate. According to this rule, a pair of a modulelink definition and an object-link definition can be transformed as follows:

$$m_2 :: X \Leftarrow m_1 : Y, m_1 \xrightarrow{L} m_2, Y \xrightarrow{L} X.$$

The following is an example of link usage:

```
m_1[agt = a] \xrightarrow{\text{tors.-back}} m_2[agt = a]

to\_the\_right\_of[obj = b] \xrightarrow{\text{tors.-back}} to\_the\_left\_of[obj = b].
```

This example means that b is to the right of an agent a in a module  $m_1$ , while b is to the left of a in  $m_2$  after a turns back.

By traversing the used links, one can keep track of the stages of reasoning. This feature is especially important in assumption based reasoning and plan-goal based reasoning.

Most of the links appearing in the semantic network can be represented by labels in an attribute term. while some of the links accompanying inference are represented by the pairs of a module-link and an object-link.

# 7 Programs and Queries

As mentioned before, a *database* or a *program* is defined as a finite set of rules. More precisely, some additional information is associated with the definition of a database or a program.

A definition of a  $Quixot\epsilon$  program concept is defined as a 4-tuple  $(E, M_H, O_H, R)$  of the environment part Eof the definition of macros and information on program libraries, the module part  $M_H$  of the definition of the submodule relation, the object part  $O_H$  of the definition of the lattice of basic objects, and a set of rules  $R^7$ . The following is an example of a program definition.

```
&b_pgm;;

&b_env;;...;;&e_env;;

&b_obj;;

&subsum;;bird ⊒ penguin,...;;

&e_obj;;

&b_mod;;
```

```
&submod::penguin ⊒<sub>S</sub> bird,...;;
&e_mod::
&b_rule::
bird::canfly/[pol = yes];;
penguin::color[arg = black_white];;...;;
&e_rule:;
&e_pgm.
```

A query is defined as a pair (A, P) of a set of attribute terms A and a program definition  $P (=(E, M_H, O_H, R))$ .

The purpose of this query is to find the answer to A in the context of adding P. Thus, a query (A, P) to a program P' (= $(E', M'_H, O'_H, R')$ ) is the same as a query (A, []) to a program  $(E \cup E', M_H \cup M'_H, O_H \cup O'_H, R \cup R')$ .

To deal with the modification of the program, a new transaction begins just before a query is processed and ends just after the process is terminated. Quixοτε transactions can be nested, and the user can specify whether the modifications or updates done in each transaction are valid for successive processes or not.

This feature of adding a program fragment in a query extends the ability of the assumption-based reasoning in QUIXCIE, as shown in the following query, to the program above.

```
?-super_penguin : canfly/[pol = X];;
&b_pgm;;
&b_mod;:&submod;;
penguin > -super_penguin;;
&e_mod;;
&b_rule::
penguin :: (ol)canfly/[pol = no];;
&e_rule;;
&e_pgm.
```

## 8 Related Works

### 8.1 Objects and Properties

Beginning with Aït-Kaci's work on  $\psi$ -terms, there are a number of significant works on the formalization complex terms and feature structures [16, 13, 1, 3, 4]. Formalization of the object terms and attribute terms of Quixote is closely related to and influenced by those works, especially the work done by Mukai on CIL [14] and CLP(AFA) [13].

Compared to those works, the unique point of QUIXOTE is its treatment of object identity that plays an important role in introducing object-orientedness into definite clause constraint languages.

As for object-orientation, Kifer's F-logic is closely related to Quixote, although the treatment of object identity and property inheritance is quite different. In Flogic, object identity is not defined over complex terms

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Precisely. M<sub>H</sub> contains the definition of module-links, and O<sub>H</sub> contains the definition of object-links.

but over normal first-order terms. The approach taken in QUIXOTE is more fine-grained than that of F-logic.

#### 8.2 Modules

As module concepts are very important in knowledge representation as well as programming, several related works have been done [9, 10, 11, 15]. First, a brief comparison of the language features of these works is presented.

From the viewpoint of knowledge representation, modularization corresponds to the classification of knowledge. In such this sense, the ability to relate modules flexibly is important. Quixote provides a number of ways to do this, for example, by specifying the nesting of modules. Quixote supports multiple module nesting by allowing set-theoretical operators to relate modules, which are also used for exception handling, while other languages do not mention to it.

Quixote also provides a facility for dealing with exceptions on exporting/importing rules by using the combination of modes associated with each rule (local and overriding). This covers the features described in [9, 10, 11].

Furthermore, as in most object-oriented languages. Quixote introduces the special module identifier self which can be seen as a meta-level variable and plays an important role in rule inheritance, while other languages do not.

On the contrary, other languages have introduced the notion of side-effects mainly to make computation efficient. This is because the others are essentially designed as programming languages. This feature, including database updates, will be enhanced in the next version of Quixote.

Concerning the semantics of modules and reasoning with modularized formulas, Gabbay [6] proposes a prooftheoretic framework for extending normal deductive systems called the Labeled Deductive System (LDS). In LDS, each formula is labeled, in the form of t: A, where t is a symbol called label and A is a logical formula. The consequence relation is replaced by:

$$t_1 : A_1, \dots, t_n : A_n \vdash s : B.$$

In his concatenation logic, the following inference rule is the key to relating labeled formulas:

$$s: a.t: a \supset b \vdash (l+s): b.$$

This means that b is obtained by using s first and then by using t. The label (t + s) indicates the order of label use. This corresponds to the notion of links in Qutxets. explained in Section 6.3.

It is worthwhile investigating the relationship between LDS and Quixote, namely to give a proof theory for Quixote. This is work to be done in the future.

## 9 Concluding Remarks

Version 1.0 of Quinote written in KL1 (designed by ICOT as a parallel language for parallel inference machines PIM), has been completed. It is used for several application systems, such as legal reasoning systems[19], natural language processing systems[18], and molecular biological databases[17]. Through those experiences, the usefulness of the features of Quinote are being examined.

We are now working with the new version of Quilkote for more efficient representation and processing. In the new version, the following features are introduced:

 Relation between Subsumption and Submodule This feature is discussed briefly at the end of Section 6.2.

### 2) Updates

In Sections 5.2 and 6.3, we show a simple example of state transition. However, such problems are closely related to updates of databases or programs. Currently, only facts can be added or deleted. In the next version, the facility for adding or deleting non-unit clauses will be provided. The point is how to deal with those updates in a parallel processing environment without causing semantic problems.

### 3) Meta-Rule

Meta-rules are useful both in programming languages and knowledge representation languages. They provide a facility to describe schemata to define generic procedures or knowledge.

For example, in HiLog[5], the following general transitive closure rule can be written:

$$te(R)(X, Y)$$
:  $-R(X, Y)$ .  
 $te(R)(X, Y)$ :  $-te(R)(X, Z)$ ,  $te(R)(Z, Y)$ .

In Quixore, new variables corresponding to the principal objects of object terms must be introduced to support such a function.

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