Multi-Adjoint Abduction Via Neural Nets*

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Abstract. This paper discusses abductive reasoning, that is, reasoning in which explanatory hypotheses are formed and evaluated. Specifically, we present a neural net based development of abductive multi-adjoint reasoning, introduced in [4], where adaptations of the uncertainty factor in a knowledge base are carried out automatically so that a number of given observations can be adequately explained.

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Abstract. This paper discusses abductive reasoning, that is, reasoning in which explanatory hypotheses are formed and evaluated. Specifically, we present a neural net based development of abductive multi-adjoint reasoning, introduced in [4], where adaptations of the uncertainty factor in a knowledge base are carried out automatically so that a number of given observations can be adequately explained.

1 Introduction

Uncertainty, incompleteness, and/or inconsistency are problems that have to be faced, sooner or later, when dealing with complex applications of knowledge representation. As a result, several frameworks for manipulating data and knowledge have been proposed in the form of extensions to classical logic programming and deductive databases. The underlying uncertainty formalism in the proposed frameworks includes probability theory, fuzzy set theory, many-valued logic, or possibilistic logic. Our approach to modelling uncertainty in human cognition and real world applications is based on the multi-adjoint logic programming paradigm.

In this paper we introduce and study a model of abduction problem. Abductive reasoning is widely recognized as an important form of reasoning with uncertain information that is appropriate for many problems in Artificial Intelligence.

Broadly speaking, abduction aims at finding explanations or causes for observed phenomena or facts; it is inference to the best explanation, a pattern of reasoning that occurs in such diverse places as medical diagnosis, scientific theory formation, accident investigation, language understanding, and jury deliberation. More formally, abduction is an inference mechanism where given a knowledge base and some observations, the reasoner tries to find hypotheses which together with the knowledge base explain the observations. Reasoning based on such an inference mechanism is referred to as abductive reasoning. The purpose of this work is to link, following ideas from [1, 6], the theoretical framework for abductive multi-adjoint reasoning presented in [4], and its neural net implementation [3].

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Transformation rules carry multi-adjoint logic programs into corresponding neural networks, where the confidence values of rules relate to output of neurons in the net, confidence values of facts represent input values for the net, and network functions are determined by a set of conjunctors, implications and aggregation operators; the output of the net being the values of the propositional variables in the program under its minimal model. Also, some examples from a first prototype are reported.

2 Preliminary Definitions

In order to make this paper as self-contained as possible, we give here the essentials of multi-adjoint logic programming, and its abductive framework. Due to space limitations, neither comments nor motivations are presented, the interested reader is referred to [5] where multi-adjoint logic programs are formally introduced and its procedural semantics is given, to [4] where the framework for abductive reasoning is set, and to [3] in which a neural net implementation of the immediate consequences operator for [0,1]-valued multi-adjoint logic programming is given.

Originally, the multi-adjoint paradigm was developed for multi-adjoint lattices (a much more general structure for the set of truth-values than the unit real interval [0,1]), but in this specific application we will restrict our attention to examples on the unit interval. However, the other special feature of multi-adjoint logic programs, that a number of different implications are allowed in the bodies of the rules, will remain in force. Formally,

Definition 1. A multi-adjoint program is a set of rules $\langle A \leftarrow_i \mathcal{B}, \vartheta \rangle$ satisfying:

- 1. The head of the rule A is a propositional symbol.
- 2. The body formula \mathcal{B} is a formula of \mathfrak{F} built from propositional symbols $B_1, \ldots, B_n \ (n \geq 0)$ by the use of conjunction $(\&_j)$ operators.
- 3. The confidence factor ϑ is an element (a truth-value) of [0,1].

Facts are rules with body \top , and a query (or goal) is a propositional symbol intended as a question ?A prompting the system.

Regarding the implementation as a neural network, it will be useful to give a name to a specially simple type of rule: the *homogeneous rules*.

Definition 2. A rule $\langle A \leftarrow_i \mathcal{B}, \vartheta \rangle$ is said to be homogeneous if its body is either a propositional symbol or a $\&_i$ -conjunction of variables.

As usual, an interpretation is a mapping $I: \Pi \to L$. Note that each of these interpretations can be uniquely extended to the whole set of formulas. The ordering \preceq of the truth-values L can be easily extended to the set of interpretations, which also inherits the structure of complete lattice.

Definition 3.

- 1. An interpretation I satisfies $\langle A \leftarrow_i \mathcal{B}, \vartheta \rangle$ if and only if $\vartheta \leq \hat{I} (A \leftarrow_i \mathcal{B})$.
- 2. An interpretation I is a model of a multi-adjoint logic program \mathbb{P} iff all weighted rules in \mathbb{P} are satisfied by I.
- 3. An element $\lambda \in L$ is a correct answer for a program \mathbb{P} and a query ?A if for any interpretation I which is a model of \mathbb{P} we have $\lambda \leq I(A)$.

The immediate consequences operator, given by van Emden and Kowalski, can be easily generalised to the framework of multi-adjoint logic programs.

Definition 4. Let \mathbb{P} be a multi-adjoint program. The immediate consequences operator $T_{\mathbb{P}}$ maps interpretations to interpretations, and is defined by

$$T_{\mathbb{P}}(I)(A) = \sup \left\{ \vartheta \, \dot{\&}_i \, \hat{I}(\mathcal{B}) \mid \langle A \leftarrow_i \mathcal{B}, \vartheta \rangle \in \mathbb{P} \right\}$$

The semantics of a multi-adjoint logic program can be characterised, as usual, by the post-fixpoints of $T_{\mathbb{P}}$; that is, an interpretation I is a model of a multi-adjoint logic program \mathbb{P} iff $T_{\mathbb{P}}(I) \sqsubseteq I$. The $T_{\mathbb{P}}^{\mathfrak{L}}$ operator is proved to be monotonic and continuous under very general hypotheses, see [5], and it is remarkable that these results are true even for non-commutative and non-associative conjunctors. In particular, by continuity, the least model can be reached in at most countably many iterations of $T_{\mathbb{P}}^{\mathfrak{L}}$ on the least interpretation.

Definition 5. An abduction problem is a tuple $A = \langle \mathbb{P}, OBS, H \rangle$, where

- 1. \mathbb{P} is a multi-adjoint logic program.
- 2. H is a (finite) subset of the set of propositional symbols, the set of hypotheses.
- 3. $OBS: OV \rightarrow [0,1]$ is the theory of observations (where OV is a set of observation variables such that $OV \cap H = \emptyset$).

The intended meaning of $OV \cap H = \emptyset$ is that observation variables should not be explained by themselves.

Definition 6. A theory $E: H \to [0,1]$ is a correct explanation to an abduction problem $\langle \mathbb{P}, OBS, H \rangle$ if

- 1. $\mathbb{P} \cup E$ is satisfiable.
- 2. Every model of $\mathbb{P} \cup E$ is also a model of OBS.

Definition 7. Consider an abduction problem $\mathcal{A} = \langle \mathbb{P}, OBS, H \rangle$ and $m \in OV$. A successful abduction for \mathcal{A} and m is defined as a sequence $\mathcal{G} = (G_0, G_1, \ldots, G_l)$ such that:

- 1. $G_0 = m$.
- 2. G_l contains only variables from H.
- 3. For all i < l, G_{i+1} is inferred from G_i by one of admissible rules:
 - R1. Substitute an atom A by $(\vartheta \&_i \mathcal{B})$ if there is a rule $\langle A \leftarrow_i \mathcal{B}, \vartheta \rangle$ in \mathbb{P} .
 - R2. Substitute an atom A by \perp .
 - R3. Substitute an atom A by ϑ if there is a fact $\langle A, \vartheta \rangle$ in \mathbb{P} .

4. For the interpretation $I_1: \Pi \to \{1\}$ the inequality $I_1(G_{i+1}) \geq OBS(m)$ holds.

The last condition is to be understood as a cut, because it allows to estimate the best possible computation of remaining propositional variables.

Definition 8. A theory $E: H \to [0,1]$ is a computed explanation for an abduction problem $\mathcal{A} = \langle \mathbb{P}, OBS, H \rangle$ if for every $m \in OV$ there is an abduction \mathcal{G}_m for \mathcal{A} and m such that

$$OBS(m) \leq \mathcal{G}_m(E(h_1), \dots, E(h_n))$$

In [4] it was shown that the procedural semantics given above is sound and complete and, in addition, that the surface corresponding to all the solutions for particular observations has the shape of a convex body. Moreover, the set of all solutions is the union of such surfaces. In the rest of the paper, we describe a prototype of neural net which solves an abduction problem separately on each of these areas.

3 Model of Neural Network

Before describing the model of the network, some considerations are needed: The set of operators to be implemented consists of the three most important adjoint pairs: product $(\&_P, \leftarrow_P)$, Gödel $(\&_G, \leftarrow_G)$ and Łukasiewicz $(\&_L, \leftarrow_L)$. Regarding the selection of operators implemented, just recall that every t-norm, the type of conjunctor more commonly used in the context of fuzzy reasoning, is expressible as a direct sum of these three basic conjunctors [2]. Regarding the aggregation operators, we will implement a family of weighted sums, which are denoted $@_{(n_1,\ldots,n_m)}$ and defined as follows:

$$@_{(n_1,\dots,n_m)}(p_1,\dots,p_m) = \frac{n_1p_1 + \dots + n_mp_m}{n_1 + \dots + n_m}$$

Now, we can properly begin the description: A neural network will be considered in which each process unit is associated to either a propositional symbol or an homogeneous rule. The state of the *i*-th neuron in the instant t is expressed by its output $I_i(t)$. Therefore, the state of the network can be expressed by means of a state vector I(p), whose components are the output of the neurons forming the network and its initial state is the null vector.

Regarding the user interface, there are two layers, a visible one, whose output is part of the overall output of the net, and a hidden layer, whose outputs are only used as input values for other neurons.

The connection between neurons is denoted by a matrix of weights \mathbf{W} , in which w_{kj} indicates the existence or absence of connection between unit k and unit j; if the neuron represents a weighted sum, then the matrix of weights also represents the weights associated to any of the inputs. The weights of the connections related to neuron i (that is, the i-th row of the matrix \mathbf{W}) are represented by $\mathbf{w}_{i\bullet}$, and are allocated in an internal vector register of the neuron.

The initial truth-value of the propositional symbol or homogeneous rule v_i is loaded in the internal register, together with a signal m_i for distinguishing whether the neuron is associated to either a fact or a simple rule; in the latter case, information about the type of operator is also included. Therefore, we have two vectors: one storing the confidence values \mathbf{v} of atoms and homogeneous rules, and another \mathbf{m} storing the type of the neurons in the net.

The signal m_i indicates the functioning mode of the neuron. If $m_i = 1$ the neuron is assumed to be associated to a propositional symbol (visible neuron), and its next state is the maximum value among all the operators involved in its input, its previous state, and the initial confidence values v_i . More precisely:

Case
$$p, m_i = 1$$
: $I_i(t+1) = \max \left\{ \max_{k|w_{ik}>0} \{I_k(t)\}, I_i(t), v_i \right\}$

When a neuron is associated to the product, Gödel, or Lukasiewicz implication, respectively, then the signal m_i is set to 2, 3, and 4, respectively. Its input is formed by the external value v_i of the rule, and the outputs of the neurons associated to the body of the implication. The output of the neuron somehow mimics the behaviour of the procedural semantics when a rule of type m_i has been used; specifically, the output in the next instant will be:

$$\begin{aligned} &\mathbf{Case} \leftarrow_P, \ \mathrm{label} \ m_i = 2 \colon I_i(t+1) = \max \left\{ I_i(t), v_i \cdot \prod_{k \mid w_{ik} > 0} I_k(t) \right\} \\ &\mathbf{Case} \leftarrow_G, \ \mathrm{label} \ m_i = 3 \colon I_i(t+1) = \max \left\{ I_i(t), \min \left\{ v_i, \min_{k \mid w_{ik} > 0} \{I_k(t)\} \right\} \right\} \\ &\mathbf{Case} \leftarrow_L, \ \mathrm{label} \ m_i = 4 \colon I_i(t+1) = \max \left\{ I_i(t), v_i + \sum_{k \mid w_{ik} > 0} I_k(t) - N_i \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

where N_i indicates the number of arguments of the body of the rule.

Case @, label $m_i = 5$: the aggregators considered as weighted sums, therefore

$$I_i(t+1) = \sum_{k|w_{ik}>0} w'_{ik} \cdot I_k(t)$$
 where $w'_{ik} = \frac{w_{ik}}{\sum_{r|w_{ir}>0} w_{ir}}$

Finally, neurons associated to the adjoint conjunctors have signals $m_i = 6, 7, 8$, for product, Gödel, or Łukasiewicz conjunctions, respectively. Its output is:

Case &_P, label
$$m_i = 6$$
: $I_i(t+1) = \prod_{k|w_{ik}>0} I_k(t)$

Case &_G, label
$$m_i = 7$$
: $I_i(t+1) = \min_{k|w_{ik}>0} I_k(t)$

Case &_L, label
$$m_i = 8$$
: $I_i(t+1) = \max \left\{ 0, \sum_{k|w_{ik}>0} I_k(t) - N_i + 1 \right\}$

It is important to note that the neurons's output is never decreasing.

By an external reset signal r, common to all the neurons, one can modify both the values of the internal registers of the neurons and their state vector I(t).

- r=1. The initial truth-value v_i , the type of formula m_i , and the *i*-th row of the matrix of weights $w_{i\bullet}$ are set in the internal registers. This allows to reinitialise the network for working with a new problem.
- r = 0. The neurons evolve with the usual dynamics, and it is only affected by the state vector of the net I(t). The value m_i , set in their internal register, selects the function which is activated in the neuron. By using a delay, the output of the activated function is compared with the previous value of the neuron.

Once the corresponding values for both the registers and the initial state of the net have been loaded, the signal r is set to 0, and each neuron will only be affected by the neurons given by I(t), its state vector at step t.

3.1 Neural Model for Abduction

Our main goal here is to adapt the neural model above to the abductive framework for multi-adjoint logic programming. The general approach to abduction is, given a program $\mathbb P$ and a set of observations, to obtain a set of explanations for these observations, as a number of abduced facts. In addition, we are also interested in allowing the possibility of changing the confidence values of the rules in the given program for a number of reasons; for instance, it could happen that no explanation exists simply because the confidence values of the rules have not been suitably assigned although, obviously, it might also happen that no explanation can be obtained for a given problem, for instance, in the case of badly posed problems.

Our neural model for abductive reasoning will allow to divide the set of rules as rules with 'hard' confidence value and rules with 'soft' confidence value; the former assumed to have a fixed confidence value throughout all the computation and the latter whose confidence value could be modified if necessary.

Once the parameters \boldsymbol{v} , \boldsymbol{m} and \boldsymbol{W} have been set in the initial registers of the net, the program can be run in order to obtain the minimal model, which may or may not explain all the observed values (loaded in a vector of observed values \boldsymbol{ov}). Obviously, the interesting case from an abductive point of view is when the minimal model does not explain all the observed values.

The neural model for abduction will be a modification on that given in the previous section which includes, apart from the vector of observed values ov, another vector for setting the rules whose confidence values will remain unmodified u.

Now, our goal will be to find either an explanation based solely on the set of hypotheses or set new confidence values to rules (determined by vector \boldsymbol{u}) so that the observed values are attained. The search for these new confidence values \boldsymbol{v} is obtained by training the net.

If there are n neurons in the net, and we have b observed values and h hard rules, the net implements a function $\mathcal{T}:[0,1]^{n-b-h}\to [0,1]^b$, since the b components of the observations and the h components of the hard rules will remain fixed. Therefore we can consider the space $[0,1]^{n-b-h}$ as the search space and, given $\mathbf{v}\in[0,1]^n$, its projection on the space of observed values $[0,1]^b$ will be denoted as π_v .

Given the observations $ov \in [0,1]^b$, we define the **feasible region** as the set $\mathcal{F} \subset [0,1]^{n-b-h}$ such that if $\pi_v \in \mathcal{F}$ then $ov_j \leq \pi_{v_j}$ for all $j = 1, \ldots, b$.

The n-b-h variables of the search space can be divided into two groups: those corresponding to hypotheses and those corresponding to soft rules. Assume that there are m hypotheses and s soft rules, then obviously n-b-h=m+s. In the definition below we introduce the *test function* which, roughly speaking, provides us the expected observed values under given inputs for hypotheses and soft rules.

Definition 9. Given an abduction problem $\mathcal{A} = \langle \mathbb{P}, OBS, H \rangle$, with hypotheses h_1, \ldots, h_m , observations ov_1, \ldots, ov_b and soft rules r_1, \ldots, r_s , the test function $\mathcal{T}: [0, 1]^{m+s} \to [0, 1]^b$ is defined for all $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \ldots, x_m, x_{m+1}, \ldots, x_{m+s})$ as

$$\mathcal{T}(x_1,\ldots,x_m,x_{m+1},\ldots,x_{m+s}) = (T_{\mathbb{P}_x}^{\omega}(\Delta)(ov_1),\ldots,T_{\mathbb{P}_x}^{\omega}(\Delta)(ov_b))$$

where \mathbb{P}_x is a program obtained from \mathbb{P} by adding the facts $\langle h_1, x_1 \rangle, \ldots, \langle h_m, x_m \rangle$ and updating the confidence values of soft rules $\langle r_1, x_{m+1} \rangle, \ldots, \langle r_s, x_{m+s} \rangle$.

Remark 1. Notice that the output of the test function is the value, under the minimal model, of the observed variables. The interest of this function is that is provides a means to test the feasibility of a proposed explanation.

The function implemented by the net has the following properties:

- 1. It is non-decreasing in all its components.
- 2. If there is some correct explanation, then $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{1}) \in \mathcal{F}$.
- 3. If every interpretation is a correct explanation, then $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{0}) \in \mathcal{F}$.

3.2 Training the Net

Given an abduction problem, firstly, we have to check whether there is at least a model for the program and the observations. This is done by checking that the vector $\pi_v = 1$, changed by including the observed values, is a point of the feasible region. If we get affirmative answer, then the effective training of the net begins, having in mind that the components of v corresponding to the observations will be fixed for all the training process, as well as m and v.

We have chosen to randomly search for explanations, so that we have chance to obtaining a wide range of possible explanations to a given abduction problem. The training process aims at obtaining a vector of confidence values for hypotheses and soft rules such that the resulting minimal model (that is, the output of the function implemented by the net) is as close as possible to the frontier of the feasible region.

The training is based on an iterative procedure which begins with the initial vector $\mathbf{v}_0 = \mathbf{\pi}_{\mathbf{v}}$, where \mathbf{v} corresponds to the confidence values of rules and facts in the program \mathbb{P} , and zeroes assigned to variables which are not facts. Now, assume that the net gets stable (that is, the minimal model is) at point $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{v}_0)$, and randomly take another vector $\mathbf{v}_1 \in [0,1]^{n-b-h}$, and assume the net stabilises at $\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{v}_1)$. Then, calculate the values $0 \le k \le 1$, such that the point $k\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{v}_0) + (1-k)\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{v}_1)$ is the closest (using euclidean distance) to vector $\mathbf{o}\mathbf{v}$. The new initial vector will be $\mathbf{v}_2 = k\mathbf{v}_0 + (1-k)\mathbf{v}_1$, which by convexity is in the search space.

The procedure is repeated by choosing new random vectors, until the resulting confidence values v_n are such that $\mathcal{T}(v_n)$ can be no longer improved, in the sense of getting closer to ov. This occurs if in several trials (in a number greater than the dimension n-b-h of the search space) the obtained point gets fixed. This point is checked to be in the feasible region, if affirmative the training is finished, otherwise, we will find the point in the frontier of the feasible region contained in the segment $[v_n, 1]$.

As a result, after the training process, the net is able to explain the observed facts, in the sense that new confidence values are assigned to rules and facts, and possibly new facts are added to the program, obtaining a modified program \mathbb{P}_x , so that the observations are logically implied by \mathbb{P}_x .

4 Simulations

A number of problems have been carried out with the resulting implementation. Here we present some toy examples:

Example 1. Consider the program with rules

$$\langle p \leftarrow_P (q \&_P r), 0.8 \rangle$$
 and $\langle r \leftarrow_G s, 0.7 \rangle$

and the observation $\langle p, 0.7 \rangle$.

By assigning neurons with the variables p, q, r, s and with the two rules, the initial registers will be $\mathbf{v} = (0, 0, 0, 0, 0.8, 0.7)$, $\mathbf{m} = (1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 3)$, the matrix W whose entries are all zeroes but $w_{15}, w_{36}, w_{52}, w_{53}$ and w_{64} which are 1, and the observed value p = 0.7.

After training the net, without considering any hard rule, we get the new vector of confidence values $\mathbf{v} = (0, 0.8599, 0.9024, 0.9268, 0.8783, 0.9641)$, which gives the new program with rules

$$\langle p \leftarrow_P (q \&_P r), 0.8783 \rangle$$
 and $\langle r \leftarrow_G s, 0.9641 \rangle$

and facts (q, 0.8599), (r, 0.9268), (s, 0.9268).

Example 2. Consider the following program

$$\langle hi_fuel_comp \leftarrow_G @_{(2,1)}(ri_mix, lo_oil), 0.8 \rangle$$
 (1)

$$\langle overheating \leftarrow_P lo_oil, 0.5 \rangle$$
 (2)

$$\langle overheating \leftarrow_L lo_water, 0.9 \rangle$$
 (3)

This program is intended to represent some kind of knowledge about the behaviour of a car. Let us assume that we have two observed facts, namely

$$\langle hi_fuel_comp, 0.75 \rangle$$
 $\langle overheating, 0.5 \rangle$

The vector of observed values is ov = (0.75, 0.5)

We have trained the net twice: the first one considering no hard rule, and the second one considering no soft rule.

The non-homogeneus rule has been separated by introducing a hidden neuron implementing its body The obtained results in either case are the following:

1. No hard rules: The obtained explanation, regarding the hypotheses, is

$$ri_mix = 0.853$$
, $lo_moil = 0.5656$, $lo_mwater = 0.6214$

and the updated confidence values for the rules are (1)= 0.75, (2)= 0.9519 and (3)=0.8837.

The values above give the following results to the observed variables is

$$hi_fuel_comp = 0.75$$
 and $overheating = 0.5384$.

2. No soft rules: The obtained explanation is

$$ri_mix = 0.8335$$
, $lo_moil = 0.5864$, $lo_mwater = 0.6$

The values above give the following results to the observed variables is

$$hi_fuel_comp = 0.7511$$
 and $overheating = 0.5$.

5 Conclusions

A neural model for abductive reasoning has been introduced, which implements the procedural semantics given in [4]. This way, it is possible to adjust the confidence values of the rules and facts of a given program which is supposed to explain a set of given observations. An advantage of the use of multi-adjoint logic programs is that the procedural semantics of the model is common for a number of fuzzy rules and, as a result, the implementation can be easily modified to add new connectives.

As future work, we will study different training strategies for the net in order to minimise its complexity and improving the approximation to the observed values.

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