Answer Set Programming

Christoph Schwering

COMP4418, Week 5





$$\forall x (\operatorname{Car}(x) \to \neg \operatorname{Entry}(x))$$



$$\forall x (\operatorname{Car}(x) \to \neg \operatorname{Entry}(x)) \\ \forall x (\operatorname{Car}(x) \land \operatorname{Auth}(x) \to \operatorname{Entry}(x))$$



$$\begin{array}{l} \forall x (\operatorname{Car}(x) \to \neg \operatorname{Entry}(x)) \\ \forall x (\operatorname{Car}(x) \wedge \operatorname{Auth}(x) \to \operatorname{Entry}(x)) \end{array} \right\} \ \models \operatorname{Car}(C) \wedge \operatorname{Auth}(C) \to \neg \operatorname{Entry}(C)$$

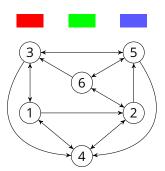
ASP at a Glance

- ASP = Answer Set Programming
 - ► ASP \neq Microsoft's Active Server Pages
- ASP belongs to logic programming
 - ▶ Like Prolog: $Head \leftarrow Body$ or Head : Body.
 - ► Like Prolog: negation as failure
 - ▶ Unlike Prolog: *Head* may be empty \Rightarrow constraints
- Declarative programming
 - ▶ Unlike Prolog: no procedural control
 - Order has no impact on semantics
- ASP programs compute models
 - Unlike Prolog: not query-oriented, no resolution
 - Unlike Prolog: not Turing-complete
 - Tool for problems in NP and NP^{NP}

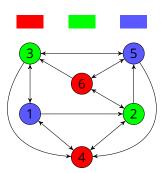
Motivation for ASP and this Lecture

- Very useful in practice!
 - Declarative problem solving
 - Very fast to write
 - Very fast to run
 - Few experts
- Interesting case study
 - Small, simple core language
 - Great expressivity by reduction to core language
- Knowing the theory is essential

Definition: graph colouring problem



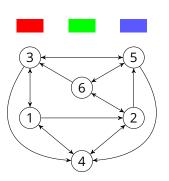
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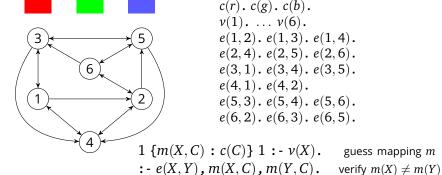
- Graph Coulouring is NP-complete
 - ▶ NP: guess solution, verify in polynomial time
 - NP-complete: among hardest in NP
- Many applications:
 - Mapping (neighbouring countries to different colors)
 - Compilers (register allocation)
 - Scheduling (e.g., conflicting jobs to different time slots)
 - Allocation problems, Sudoku, ...

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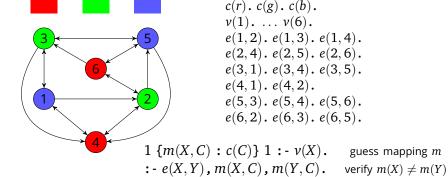


$$c(r) \cdot c(g) \cdot c(b) \cdot v(1) \cdot \dots v(6) \cdot e(1,2) \cdot e(1,3) \cdot e(1,4) \cdot e(2,4) \cdot e(2,5) \cdot e(2,6) \cdot e(3,1) \cdot e(3,4) \cdot e(3,5) \cdot e(4,1) \cdot e(4,2) \cdot e(5,3) \cdot e(5,4) \cdot e(5,6) \cdot e(6,2) \cdot e(6,3) \cdot e(6,5) \cdot$$

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Applications of ASP

- Automated product configuration
- Linux package manager
- Decision-support system for space shuttle
- Bioinformatics (diagnosis, inconsistency detection)
- General game playing
- Several implementations are available
- For this lecture: Clingo www.potassco.org

Overview of the Lecture

- Semantics of ASP programs
- Extensions of ASP programs
- Handling of variables in ASP
- ASP as modelling language

Consider the following logic program:

 $\begin{array}{l} \bullet \quad a. \\ c \leftarrow a, b. \\ d \leftarrow a, \operatorname{not} b. \end{array}$

a. c:-a,b.

- **a**.
 - $c \leftarrow a, b$.
 - $d \leftarrow a$, not b.
- Prolog proves by SLD resolution:

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 - ► Cannot prove *c* (for cannot prove *b*)

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 - ▶ Proves *d* (for prove *a* but not *b*)

Algorithm defines what Prolog does

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What is the semantics of this logic program?

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▶ M_1 corresponds to Prolog, what is special about M_1 ?

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■ What is the *semantics* of this logic program?

- \blacktriangleright M_1 corresponds to Prolog, what is special about M_1 ?
- M_1 is a **stable model** a.k.a. **answer set**: M_1 only satisfies *justified* propositions

ASP gives **semantics** to **logic programming**

Intuition

The motivating guidelines behind stable model semantics are:

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- The reasoner shall not believe anything they are not forced to believe the **rationality principle**

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Next: formalisation of this intuition

For now: only ground programs, i.e., no variables

Syntax

Definition: normal logic program (NLP)

A **normal logic program** P is a set of (normal) rules of the form $A \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_m, \text{not } C_1, \dots, \text{not } C_n$.

where A, B_i, C_i are atomic propositions.

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For such a rule r, we define:

- $\blacksquare \operatorname{Head}(r) = \{A\}$
- Body $(r) = \{B_1, \ldots, B_m, \text{not } C_1, \ldots, \text{not } C_n\}$

In code, r is written as $A : -B_1, \ldots, B_m$, not C_1, \ldots , not C_n .

Definition: interpretation, satisfaction

A **interpretation** S is a set of atomic propositions.

S satisfies
$$A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \text{not } C_1, \ldots, \text{not } C_n \text{ iff } A \in S \text{ or some } B_i \notin S \text{ or some } C_j \in S.$$

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Ex.: Let
$$P = \{a. \quad c \leftarrow a, b. \quad d \leftarrow a, \text{not } b.\}$$
 $S = \{a, b, c\}$ satisfies a , but it does not satisfy (not b). It satisfies $c \leftarrow a, b$ because it satisfies the head because $c \in S$

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Semantics without Negation

Definition: stable model for programs without negation

For *P* without negated literals:

S is a **stable model** of P iff

S is a minimal set (w.r.t. \subseteq) that satisfies all $r \in P$.

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Theorem: unique-model property

If P is negation-free (i.e., contains no (not C)), then there is exactly one stable model, which can be computed in linear time.

- $S^0 = \{\}$
- lacksquare $S^{i+1} = S^i \cup \bigcup_{r \in P: S \text{ satisfies Body}(r)} \operatorname{Head}(r)$ until $S^{i+1} = S^i$

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Definition: reduct

The **reduct** P^S of P relative to S is the least set such that if $A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \operatorname{not} C_1, \ldots, \operatorname{not} C_n \in P$ and $C_1, \ldots, C_n \notin S$ then $A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m \in P^S$.

- if $(\text{not } C) \in \text{Body}(r)$ for some $C \in S$: drop the rule
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In English: for each rule r from P,

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S_4 = \{a, b\} \qquad \Rightarrow P^{S_4} = \{a, b\} \qquad \Rightarrow P^{S_4} = \{a, b\} \qquad \Rightarrow P^{S_4} = \{a, b\}
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```
\begin{aligned} & \underline{\operatorname{Ex.}}: P = \{a \leftarrow \operatorname{not} b. \quad b \leftarrow \operatorname{not} a.\} \\ & S_1 = \{\} \\ & \Rightarrow P^{S_1} = \{a \leftarrow \operatorname{not} b. \quad b \leftarrow \operatorname{not} a.\} \\ & S_2 = \{a\} \\ & \Rightarrow P^{S_2} = \{a \leftarrow \operatorname{not} b. \quad b \leftarrow \operatorname{not} a.\} \\ & S_3 = \{b\} \\ & \Rightarrow P^{S_3} = \{a \leftarrow \operatorname{not} b. \quad b \leftarrow \operatorname{not} a.\} \\ & S_4 = \{a, b\} \\ & \Rightarrow P^{S_4} = \{a \leftarrow \operatorname{not} b. \quad b \leftarrow \operatorname{not} a.\} \end{aligned}
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Two stable models!

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No stable model!

Semantics: Overview

Definition: reduct

The **reduct** P^S of P relative to S is the least set such that if $A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \text{not } C_1, \ldots, \text{not } C_n \in P$ and $C_1, \ldots, C_n \notin S$ then $A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m \in P^S$.

Definition: stable model

If *P* contains no (not *C*):

S is a **stable model** of P iff

S is a minimal set (w.r.t. \subseteq) that satisfies all $r \in P$.

If *P* contains (not *C*):

S is a **stable model** of P iff S is a stable model of P^S .

Theorem: necessary satisfaction condition

If S is a stable model and $A \in S$, then S satisfies some $r \in P$ with $A \in \operatorname{Head}(r)$.

Semantics - Examples

$$\underline{Ex.}: P = \{a \leftarrow a. \quad b \leftarrow \text{not } a.\}$$

$$S \qquad \qquad P^{S}$$

Stable model?

$$\underline{\text{Ex.}}: P = \{a \leftarrow \text{not } b. \quad b \leftarrow \text{not } c.\}$$

$$S \qquad \qquad P^{S}$$

Stable model?

Definition: entailment, cautious monotonicity

P **entails** a rule r iff every stable model of P satisfies r.

P is cautiously monotonic iff

for all rules r_1, r_2 , if P entails r_1 and r_2 , then $P \cup \{r_1\}$ entails r_2 .

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If P is cautiously monotonic, a solver can iteratively augment it with already proved lemmas. Bad news: it does **not** hold in general.

Ex.:
$$P = \{a \leftarrow \text{not } b. \quad b \leftarrow c, \text{not } a. \quad c \leftarrow a.\}$$

$$S_1 = \{a, c\} \Rightarrow P^{S_1} = \{a. \quad c \leftarrow a.\}$$
(no other stable model $S: b \notin S \Rightarrow a \in S \Rightarrow c \in S \text{ and } b \in S \Rightarrow c \in S \Rightarrow a \in S \Rightarrow b \notin S \Rightarrow c \in S \Rightarrow c$

(no other stable model $S: b \notin S \Rightarrow a \in S \Rightarrow c \in S$ and $b \in S \Rightarrow c \in S \Rightarrow a \in S \Rightarrow b \notin S$)

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If P is cautiously monotonic, a solver can iteratively augment it with already proved lemmas. $Bad\ news$: it does **not** hold in general.

$$\begin{array}{l} \underline{\operatorname{Ex.}}{:} \ P = \{ a \leftarrow \operatorname{not} b. \quad b \leftarrow c, \operatorname{not} a. \quad c \leftarrow a. \} \\ S_1 = \{ a, c \} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P^{S_1} = \{ a. \quad c \leftarrow a. \} \\ \text{(no other stable model } S : b \notin S \Rightarrow a \in S \Rightarrow c \in S \text{ and } b \in S \Rightarrow c \in S \Rightarrow a \in S \Rightarrow b \notin S) \\ S_1 = \{ a, c \} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (P \cup \{c.\})^{S_1} = \{ a. \quad c \leftarrow a. \quad c. \} \\ S_2 = \{ b, c \} \quad \Rightarrow \quad (P \cup \{c.\})^{S_2} = \{ b \leftarrow c. \quad c \leftarrow a. \quad c. \} \\ \text{(no other stable model } S : c \in S \text{ and } a \notin S \Rightarrow b \in S \text{ and } b \notin S \Rightarrow a \in S) \end{array}$$

P entails c. and a. But $P \cup \{c.\}$ does not entail a.

Definition: entailment, cautious monotonicity

P **entails** a rule r iff every stable model of P satisfies r.

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If *P* is cautiously monotonic, a solver can iteratively augment it with already proved lemmas. *Bad news*: it does **not** hold in general.

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Good news: some classes of programs are cautiously monotonic.

Overview of the Lecture

- Semantics of ASP programs
- Extensions of ASP programs
- Handling of variables in ASP
- ASP as modelling language

Integrity Constraints

Definition: integrity constraint

An **integrity constraint** is a rule r of the form

$$\leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \operatorname{not} C_1, \ldots, \operatorname{not} C_n$$

S **satisfies** r iff some $B_i \notin S$ or some $C_j \in S$.

 P^S contains $\leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m$ iff P contains r and $C_1, \ldots, C_n \notin S$.

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S satisfies r iff some $B_i \notin S$ or some $C_j \in S$.

 P^S contains $\leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m$ iff P contains r and $C_1, \ldots, C_n \notin S$.

Theorem: reduction to normal rules

Let P' be like P except that every integrity constraint

$$\leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \operatorname{not} C_1, \ldots, \operatorname{not} C_n$$

is replaced with

 $dummy \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \text{not } C_1, \ldots, \text{not } C_n, \text{not } dummy$

for some new atom dummy.

Then P and P' have the same stable models.

Choice Rules

Definition: choice rule

A choice rule is a rule the form

$$\{A_1,\ldots,A_k\}\leftarrow B_1,\ldots,B_m,$$
 not $C_1,\ldots,$ not C_n which allows any subset of $\{A_1,\ldots,A_k\}$ in a stable model.

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Theorem: reduction to normal rules

A choice rule can be encoded by 2k+1 normal rules using 2k+1 new atoms.

Further extensions:

- Conditional literals: $\{A:B\}$ <u>Ex.</u>: $\{m(v,C):c(C)\}$ expands to $\{m(v,r),m(v,g),m(v,b)\}$
- Cardinality constraints: $min \{A_1, ..., A_k\}$ max $\underline{Ex.}$: $1 \{m(v,r), m(v,g), m(v,b)\}$ 1

Negation in the Rule Head

Definition: rules with negated head

A rule with **negated head** is of the form $\text{not } A \leftarrow B_1, \dots, B_m, \text{not } C_1, \dots, \text{not } C_n$

Negation in the Rule Head

Definition: rules with negated head

A rule with **negated head** is of the form

$$\operatorname{not} A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \operatorname{not} C_1, \ldots, \operatorname{not} C_n$$

Theorem: reduction to normal rules

Let P' be like P except that every rule with negated head not $A \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m$, not C_1, \ldots , not C_n

is replaced with

$$\leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \text{not } C_1, \ldots, \text{not } C_n, \text{not } dummy$$

and

$$dummy \leftarrow not A$$

for some new atom *dummy*.

Then P and P' have the same stable models (modulo dummy propositions).

Complexity

Theorem: complexity of NLPs without negations

Is S a stable model of a negation-free P? – **Linear time** Does a negation-free P have a stable model? – **Constant** (yes, one)

Theorem: complexity of NLPs with negations

Is *S* a stable model of *P*? – **Linear time**Does *P* have a stable model? – **NP-complete**

<u>Note</u>: integrity constraints, choice rules, negation in heads **preserve complexity** (program grows only polynomially)

Disjunctive Logic Programs

Definition: disjunctive rule

A disjunctive rule is of the form

$$A_1;\ldots;A_k\leftarrow B_1,\ldots,B_m,$$
 not $C_1,\ldots,$ not C_n and means that A_1 or A_2 or \ldots or A_k is true if the body is true.

Disjunctive Logic Programs

Definition: disjunctive rule

A disjunctive rule is of the form

 $A_1; \ldots; A_k \leftarrow B_1, \ldots, B_m, \operatorname{not} C_1, \ldots, \operatorname{not} C_n$ and means that A_1 or A_2 or \ldots or A_k is true if the body is true.

Theorem: complexity of disjunctive logic programs

Is S a stable model of P? – **co-NP-complete** Does P have a stable model? – **NP^{NP}-complete**

Reason: P^S may have multiple minimal models! We won't consider disjunctive logic problems any further

Overview of the Lecture

- Semantics of ASP programs
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■ Atomic propositions may now contain variables, e.g., $p(X,Z) \leftarrow e(X,Y), p(Y,Z)$.

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- Herbrand universe
 - ▶ *U* contains all constants from *P*
 - ▶ U contains all $f(t_1, ..., t_k)$ from P if f is a k-ary function in P and U contains $t_1, ..., t_k$

- Atomic propositions may now contain variables, e.g., $p(X,Z) \leftarrow e(X,Y), p(Y,Z)$.
- Herbrand universe
 - U contains all constants from P
 - ▶ U contains all $f(t_1, ..., t_k)$ from P if f is a k-ary function in P and U contains $t_1, ..., t_k$
- ASP grounds variables with Herbrand universe
 - Unlike Prolog: instantiation instead of unification
 - Caution: the ground program may grow exponentially
 - ► Caution: function symbols make grounding Turing-complete
 - ▶ If *P* is finite and mentions only constants, grounding is finite

p(tweety).

```
\blacksquare f(X) \leftarrow b(X), \operatorname{not} a(X).
    a(X) \leftarrow p(X).
    b(sam).
    b(tweety).
    p(\text{tweety}).
\blacksquare f(\text{sam}) \leftarrow b(\text{sam}), \text{not } a(\text{sam}).
    f(\text{tweety}) \leftarrow b(\text{tweety}), \text{ not } a(\text{tweety}).
    a(\text{sam}) \leftarrow p(\text{sam}).
     a(\text{tweety}) \leftarrow p(\text{tweety}).
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    b(tweety).
```

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- Semantics of ASP programs
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ASP Modelling

$$\begin{array}{c} c(r) \cdot c(g) \cdot c(b) \cdot \\ \nu(1) \cdot \cdots \nu(6) \cdot \\ e(1,2) \cdot e(1,3) \cdot e(1,4) \cdot \\ e(2,4) \cdot e(2,5) \cdot e(2,6) \cdot \\ e(3,1) \cdot e(3,4) \cdot e(3,6) \cdot \\ e(4,1) \cdot e(4,2) \cdot \\ e(5,3) \cdot e(5,3) \cdot e(5,3) \cdot \end{array}$$

Typical ASP structure:

- e(5,3). e(5,4). e(5,6). e(6,2). e(6,3). e(6,5). Problem instance: a set of facts
- Problem class: a set of rules.
 - Generator rules: often choice rules ${}^1\{m(X,C):c(C)\}$ ${}^1:=\nu(X)$.

$$e(X,Y), m(X,C), m(Y,C).$$

Ideal modeling is **uniform**: problem class encoding fits all instances

Semantically equivalent encodings may differ immensely in performance!

Tweety the penguin:

- (Normal) Birds fly.
- Penguins are abnormal.
- Tweety is a bird. So Tweety flies.
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$$U = \{f(X) \leftarrow b(X), \operatorname{not} a(X). \quad a(X) \leftarrow p(X). \quad b(t).\}$$

$$P = \{f(t) \leftarrow b(t), \operatorname{not} a(t). \quad a(t) \leftarrow p(t). \quad b(t).\}$$

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$$\begin{split} U &= \{f(X) \leftarrow b(X), \operatorname{not} a(X). \quad a(X) \leftarrow p(X). \quad b(t).\} \\ P &= \{f(t) \leftarrow b(t), \operatorname{not} a(t). \quad a(t) \leftarrow p(t). \quad b(t).\} \\ S_1 &= \{b(t), f(t)\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P^{S_1} = \{f(t) \leftarrow b(t), \operatorname{not} a(t). \quad a(t) \leftarrow p(t). \quad b(t).\} \checkmark \\ S_2 &= \{a(t), b(t), p(t)\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P^{S_2} = \{f(t) \leftarrow b(t), \operatorname{not} a(t). \quad a(t) \leftarrow p(t). \quad b(t).\} \checkmark \\ \mathsf{Tweety flies!} \end{split}$$

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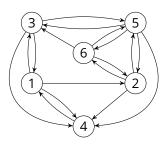
Tweety flies!

$$\begin{array}{lll} S_1 = \{b(t), f(t)\} & \Rightarrow & (P \cup \{p(t).\})^{S_1} = P_2^{S_1} \cup \{p(t).\} & \\ S_2 = \{a(t), b(t), p(t)\} & \Rightarrow & (P \cup \{p(t).\})^{S_2} = P_2^{S_1} \cup \{p(t).\} & \\ & \forall \text{Tweety doesn't fly.} \end{array}$$

Example: Hamilton Cycle

Definition: Hamilton cycle problem

Input: graph with vertex set V and edges $E \subseteq V \times V$. Is there a cycle that visits every vertex exactly once?

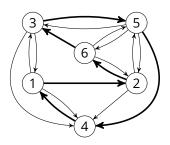


$$\begin{split} &\{p(X,Y)\} \leftarrow e(X,Y).\\ &r(X) \leftarrow p(1,X).\\ &r(Y) \leftarrow r(X), p(X,Y).\\ &\leftarrow 2 \ \{p(X,Y)\} \ , \nu(X).\\ &\leftarrow 2 \ \{p(X,Y)\} \ , \nu(Y).\\ &\leftarrow \operatorname{not} r(X), \nu(X). \end{split}$$

Example: Hamilton Cycle

Definition: Hamilton cycle problem

Input: graph with vertex set V and edges $E \subseteq V \times V$. Is there a cycle that visits every vertex exactly once?

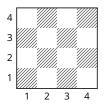


$$\begin{split} &\{p(X,Y)\} \leftarrow e(X,Y). \\ &r(X) \leftarrow p(1,X). \\ &r(Y) \leftarrow r(X), p(X,Y). \\ &\leftarrow 2 \ \{p(X,Y)\} \ , \nu(X). \\ &\leftarrow 2 \ \{p(X,Y)\} \ , \nu(Y). \\ &\leftarrow \text{not} \ r(X), \nu(X). \end{split}$$

Example: *N*-Queens

Definition: *N*-queens problem

Place N queens on a $N \times N$ chessboard so that they do not attack each other, i.e., share no row, column, or diagonal.

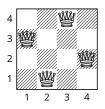


Program on paper

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Program on paper